# Undirected network reconstruction - part 2

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## Two-gene pathway

## Two-gene pathway

Two-gene pathways comprise two genes, and ignore the possibility there may be more.

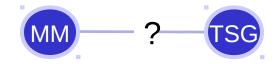
#### Cancer research example

 $Y_2$ : gene expression measurements of a tumor suppressor gene

 $Y_1$ : gene expression of a methylation marker

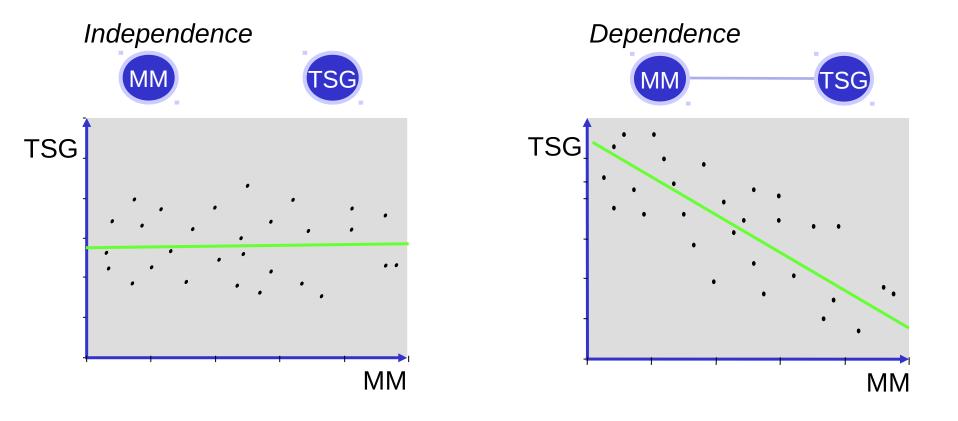
#### Question

Does the methylation marker (MM) influence the expression of the tumor suppressor gene (TSG)?



## Two-gene pathway

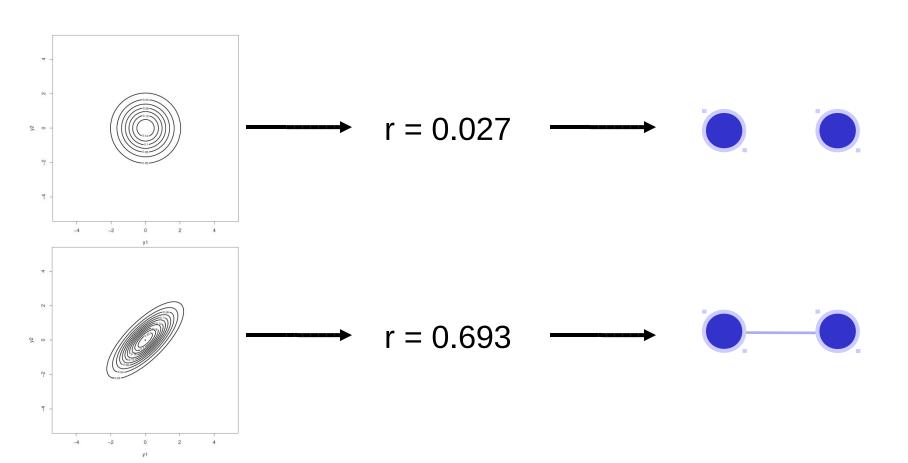
TSG suppresses tumorigenesis. Ideally, its expression levels are high. If the expression levels of MM and TSG are dependent, we may aim to control those of TSG via MM.



## Correlation

#### Two-gene system

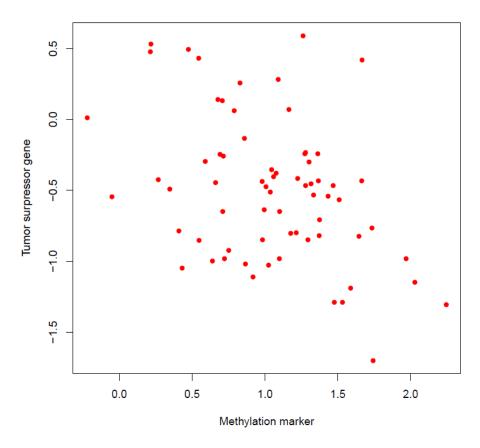
Calculate correlation between any two genes. If the correlation is large (in some sense), the two genes interact.



## Correlation

#### Cancer research example

Expression levels of the TSG vs. MM



**Question**: is there dependence between TSG and MM?

#### Correlation



#### Cancer research example

```
> cov(cbind(MM, TSG))
               MM
                            TSG
     0.23897377 -0.09787409
MM
TSG -0.09787409 0.25388099
> cor(cbind(MM, TSG))
                       ጥርር
     1.000000 -0.397354
\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}
TSG -0.397354
                 1.000000
> rho <- cor(MM, TSG)</pre>
> T < - \log((1+rho)/(1-rho))/2
> sd <- sqrt(1/(length(MM)-3))</pre>
> pvalue <- 2*pnorm(T, sd=sd)</pre>
> pvalue
[1] 0.0006984108
```

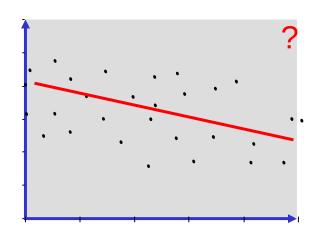
#### Conclusion

Significant association between of MM on TSG.



Note: the edge is undirected, the two variates are (causally) on a par.

Instead of using some measure to assess the dependence between two variables, one may explicitly model their relationship.



Regression analysis is a statistical method to estimate the relation among variables. E.g.:

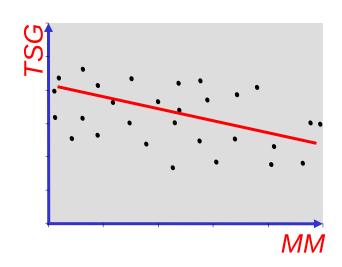
$$Y_{tsg} = f(Y_{mm}) + error$$

where f() is some function deemed appropriate. Commonly, f() is taken to be linear (as a first order approximation).

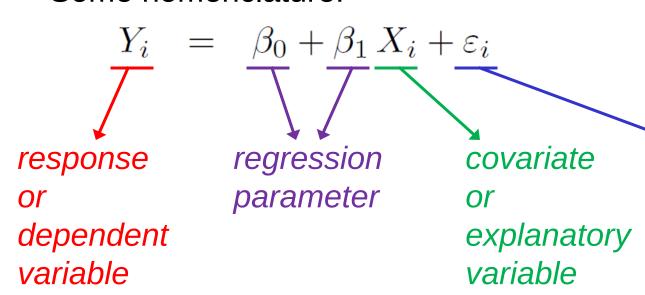
## Two-gene pathway & regression

More formally, the simple linear regression model:

$$\underline{\underline{Y_i}} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \underline{\underline{X_i}} + \varepsilon_i$$
TSG



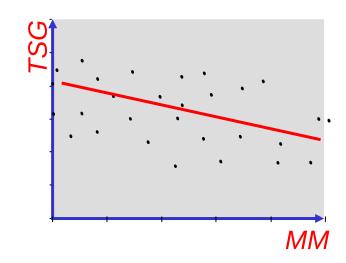
#### Some nomenclature:



error
≈ part of Y not
explained by
the model

More formally, the simple linear regression model:

$$\frac{Y_i}{TSG} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \frac{X_i}{MM} + \varepsilon_i$$



with  $\varepsilon_{i}$  normally distributed with:

$$E(\varepsilon_i) = 0$$

$$Cov(\varepsilon_{i_1}, \varepsilon_{i_2}) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 & \text{if } i_1 = i_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } i_1 \neq i_2 \end{cases}$$

In the above the unknown parameters are:  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\sigma^2$ .

#### Note

We write:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

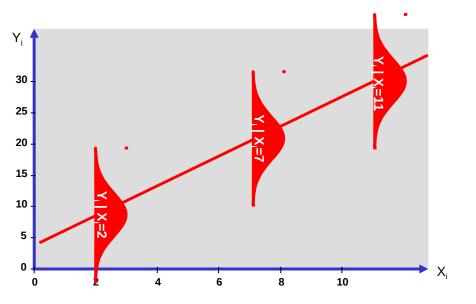
while it is equivalent to write:

$$Y_i \mid X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i, \sigma^2)$$

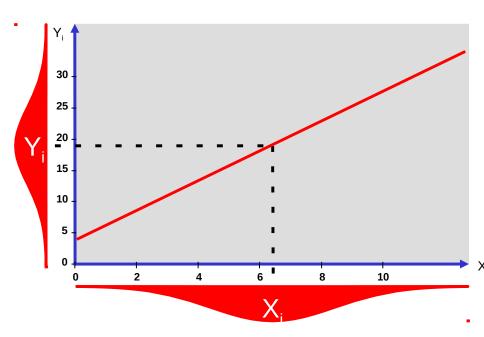
The latter explicitly assumes that the explanatory variable  $X_i$  is (temporarily) taken as non-random. It is to be read as:  $Y_i$  conditional on  $X_i$  is distributed as ....

#### Conditional vs. marginal

The *conditional* distribution of Y<sub>i</sub> on X<sub>i</sub>



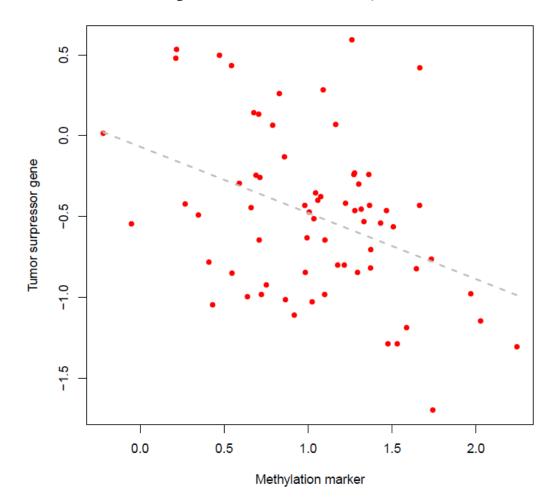
The unconditional (*marginal*) distribution of Y<sub>i</sub>





#### Cancer research example

- > plot(TSG ~ MM, ...)
- > lines(regressionResults\$fitted.values ~ MM, ...)



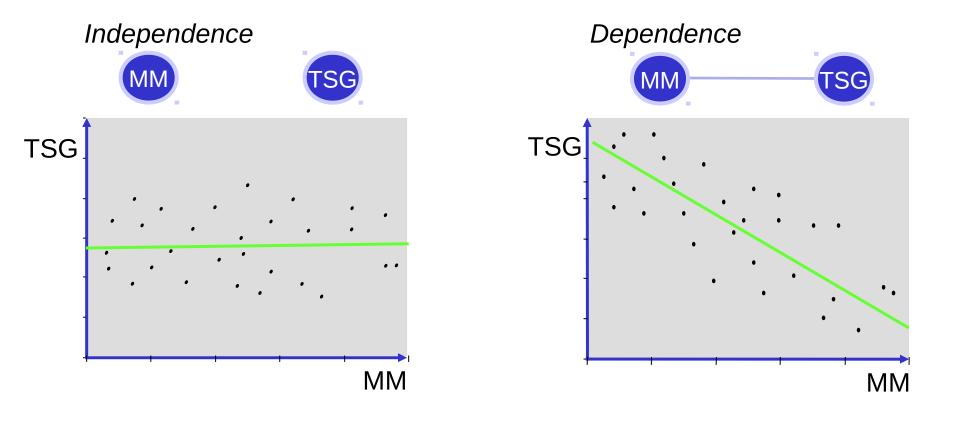
Conclusion
Significant effect
of MM on TSG.

Thus,  $\beta \neq 0$ . Hence, gene expression levels of MM and TSG are related.



#### Cancer research example

In a two-gene pathway  $\rho$ =0 implies independence between its genes. What does  $\beta_1$ =0 say about independence?



Assume 
$$(Y_{MM}, Y_{TSG})^{\mathrm{T}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

#### Consider the regression equations:

$$Y_{\text{TSG}} = \beta_{0,\text{TSG}} + \beta_{1,\text{MM}} Y_{\text{MM}} + \varepsilon_{\text{TSG}}$$
  
 $Y_{\text{MM}} = \beta_{0,\text{MM}} + \beta_{1,\text{TSG}} Y_{\text{TSG}} + \varepsilon_{\text{MM}}$ 

#### with:

$$Var(\varepsilon_{\text{MM}}) = Var(Y_{\text{MM}} | Y_{\text{TSG}}) = \sigma_{\text{MM}}^{2}$$
$$Var(\varepsilon_{\text{TSG}}) = Var(Y_{\text{TSG}} | Y_{\text{MM}}) = \sigma_{\text{TSG}}^{2}$$

#### Question

What is the relation between the  $\beta$ 's and  $\rho$ ?

Then:

$$\beta_{\text{MM}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Y_{\text{TSG}} | Y_{\text{MM}})}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Y_{\text{MM}} | Y_{\text{TSG}})}} \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

and:

$$\beta_{\text{\tiny TSG}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Y_{\text{\tiny MM}} \mid Y_{\text{\tiny TSG}})}}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(Y_{\text{\tiny TSG}} \mid Y_{\text{\tiny MM}})}} \, \rho(Y_{\text{\tiny MM}}, Y_{\text{\tiny TSG}})$$

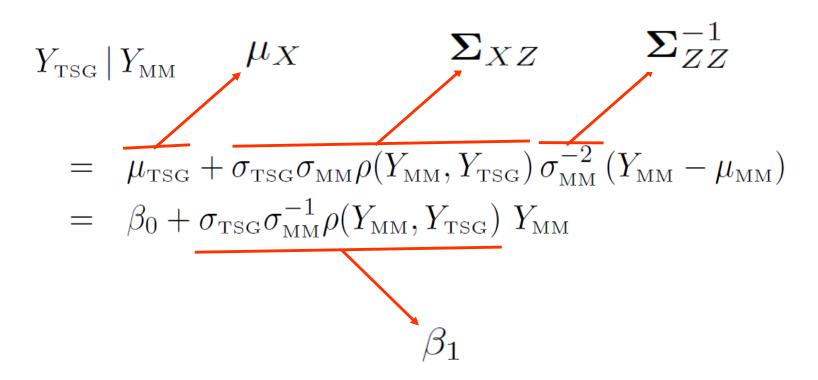
Rewritten this gives:

$$\beta_{\text{MM}} = \sigma_{\text{TSG}} \, \sigma_{\text{MM}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

$$\beta_{\text{TSG}} = \sigma_{\text{MM}} \, \sigma_{\text{TSG}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

Hence, if  $\rho$ =0 so will the  $\beta$ 's equal zero.

To validate this claim, simply condition on either  $Y_{mm}$  or  $Y_{tsg}$  in the bivariate normal distribution:



#### Note

The relation between  $\rho$  and the  $\beta$ 's can also be reversed.

#### From:

$$\beta_{\text{MM}} = \sigma_{\text{TSG}} \, \sigma_{\text{MM}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

$$\beta_{\text{TSG}} = \sigma_{\text{MM}} \, \sigma_{\text{TSG}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

we obtain

$$\rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}}) = \operatorname{sign}(\beta_{\text{MM}}) \sqrt{\beta_{\text{MM}} \beta_{\text{TSG}}} \\
= \operatorname{sign}(\beta_{\text{TSG}}) \sqrt{\beta_{\text{MM}} \beta_{\text{TSG}}}$$

Thus,  $\rho$  and  $\beta$  are 1-1 related.

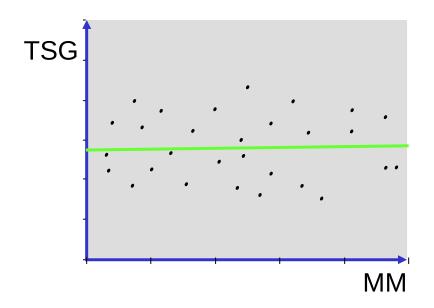
#### TSG & MM independent

Cond. indep. graph





Data ( $\rho$ =0  $\leftrightarrow \beta_1$ =0)

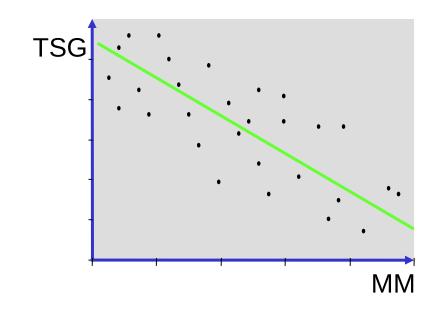


#### TSG & MM dependent

Cond. indep. graph



Data ( $\rho \neq 0 \leftrightarrow \beta_1 \neq 0$ )



#### Undirected edges only

A closer look at:

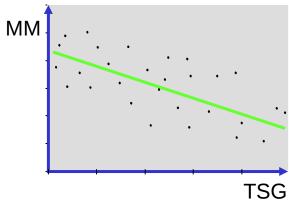
$$\beta_{\text{MM}} = \sigma_{\text{TSG}} \, \sigma_{\text{MM}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$
$$\beta_{\text{TSG}} = \sigma_{\text{MM}} \, \sigma_{\text{TSG}}^{-1} \, \rho(Y_{\text{MM}}, Y_{\text{TSG}})$$

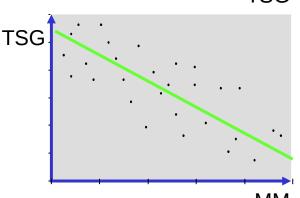
The correlation is symmetric:

$$\rho(Y_{MM}, Y_{TSG}) = \rho(Y_{TSG}, Y_{MM})$$

and the variances are both positive.

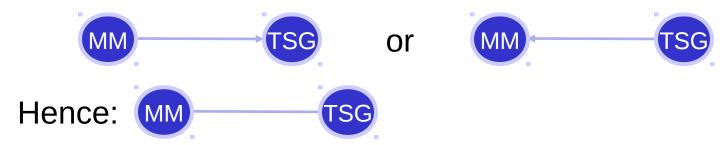
Hence, the signs of  $\beta_{\text{MM}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{TSG}}$  are identical.





#### Undirected edges only

Due to the symmetry of  $\rho$ , it does not distinguish between:

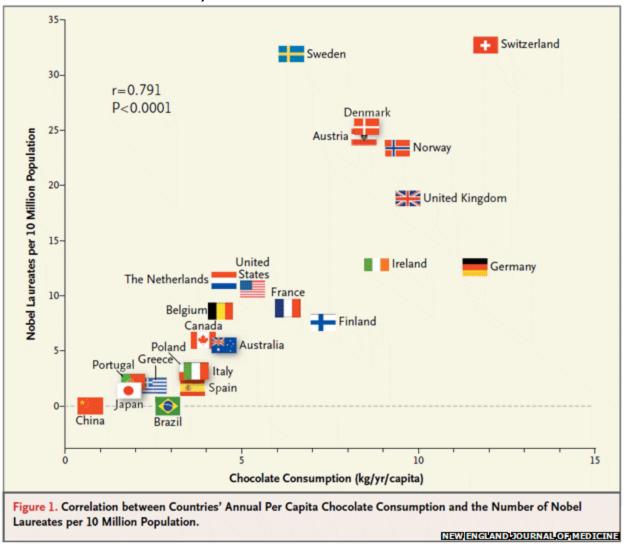


In regression analysis the random variables  $Y_{\text{MM}}$  and  $Y_{\text{TSG}}$  are not on equal footing. The equation:

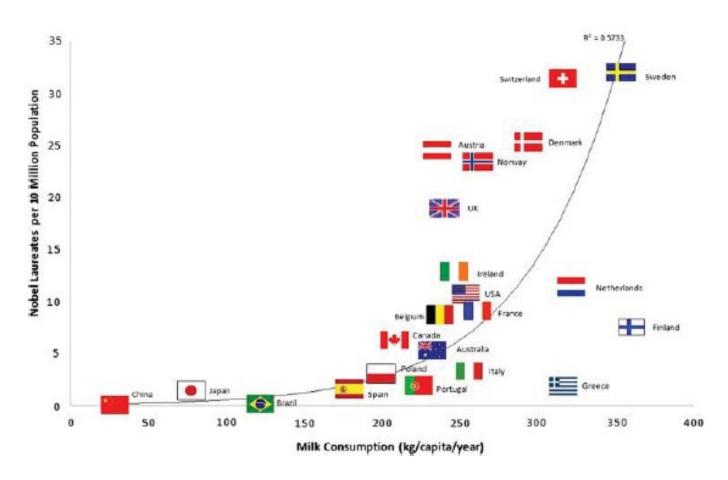
$$Y_{TSG} = f(Y_{MM}) + error$$

suggests MM  $\rightarrow$  TSG. However, the  $\beta$ 's are one-to-one related. Consequently, also regression does not provide a clue about the direction of the relationship.

#### Eat chocolate, win the Nobel!

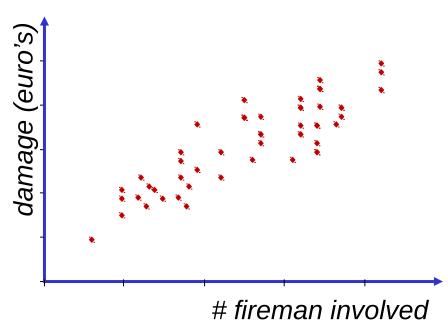


Even better: drink milk, win the Nobel!



Best: drink chocolate-milk, win the Nobel?

Does the involvement of more fireman result in more damage?



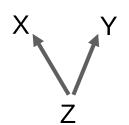
Possible interpretations of these data:

 $X \longrightarrow Y$  M

More firemen result in more damage.

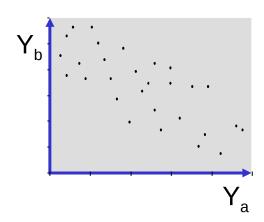
**X ← Y** 

More damage results in more firemen.



A bigger fire (Z) results in more firemen and more damage.

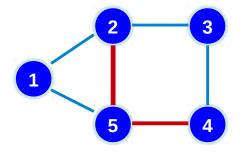
What to conclude about the relation between the activity levels of molecules A and B?

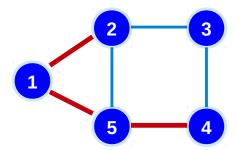


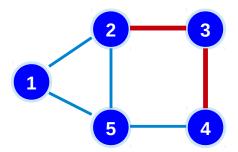
#### Question

Could others be responsible for observed (in)dependence?

2 and 4 could be connected in many ways, e.g.:







#### Cancer research example

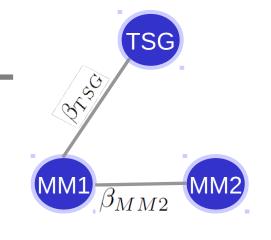
An alternative explanation by model:

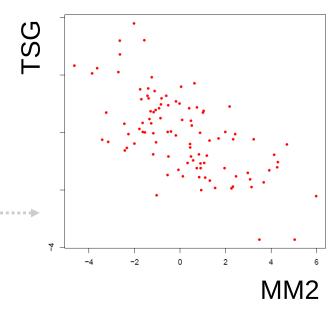
$$TSG_i = eta_{TSG} \, MM1_i + arepsilon_{TSG,i}$$
  $MM2_i = eta_{MM2} \, MM1_i + arepsilon_{MM2,i}$ 

with

$$MM1_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{MM1}^2)$$
  
 $\varepsilon_{TSG,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{TSG}^2)$   
 $\varepsilon_{MM2,i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{MM2}^2)$ 

Simulate



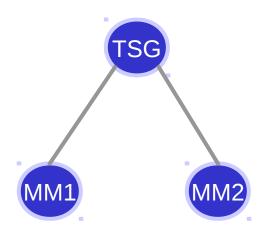


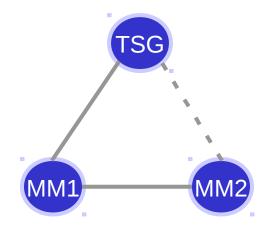
Even though there is no direct (causal) relationship between TSG and MM2 they may appear to be related.

#### Cancer research example

The (independence) graph of the 3-gene pathway underlying the regression model:

An alternative graph that may explain the data equally well:





X — Y: X are Y cond. dependent

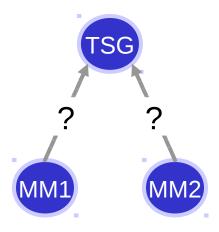
X - - - - Y: X and Y are correlated

#### Cancer research example

Y : gene expression measurements of a tumor suppressor gene

X<sub>1</sub>: gene expression of methylation marker 1

X<sub>2</sub>: gene expression of methylation marker 2



#### Question

Do the methylation markers (MMs) influence the expression of the tumor suppressor gene (TSG)?

Revisited later.

The simple linear regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \varepsilon_i$$

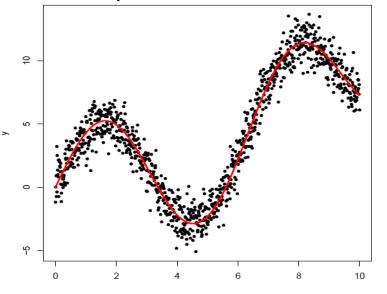
is *linear* in the regression parameters.

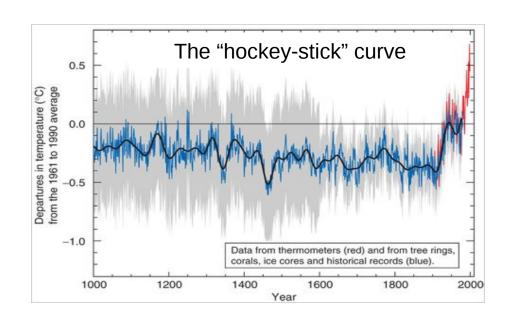
Hence, the following extensions are linear too:

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i} + \beta_{2}X_{i}^{2} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

$$Y_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1}X_{i,1} + \beta_{2}X_{i,2} + \beta_{3}X_{i,3} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

#### Examples of linear models



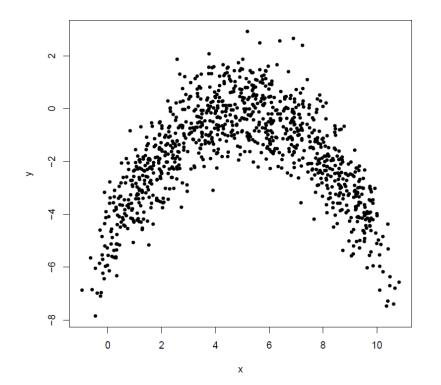


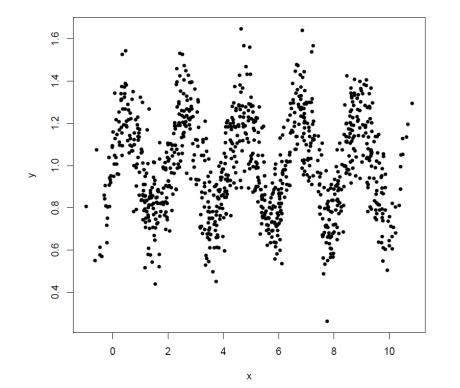
## Regression: parameter estimation

#### Question

Can a quadratic relationship be modelled by linear regression?

Can  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \sin(\beta_2 X)$  be fitted by linear regression?





In general, the linear regression model is:

$$\begin{array}{lll} Y_i &=& \beta_0 + \beta_1 \, X_{i1} + \beta_2 \, X_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_{p-1} \, X_{i,p-1} + \varepsilon_i \\ \\ \text{e.g.:} \\ Y_{i,\text{\tiny TSG}} &=& \beta_0 + \beta_{\text{\tiny MM1}} X_{i,\text{\tiny MM1}} + \beta_{\text{\tiny MM2}} X_{i,\text{\tiny MM2}} + \varepsilon_i \end{array}$$

with the distribution assumptions:

$$\begin{aligned}
\varepsilon_i &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \\
E(\varepsilon_i) &= 0 \\
\operatorname{Cov}(\varepsilon_{i_1}, \varepsilon_{i_2}) &= \begin{cases}
\sigma^2 & \text{if } i_1 = i_2 \\
0 & \text{if } i_1 \neq i_2
\end{aligned}$$

In the above the unknown parameters are:  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ , ...,  $\beta_{p-1}$ ,  $\sigma^2$ .

In matrix notation (simplifying notation):

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

with

$$oldsymbol{arepsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_{n imes 1}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n imes n})$$

The  $(n \times 1)$ -,  $(p \times 1)$ -,  $(n \times 1)$ -dimensional vectors with observations, parameters, and errors:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \left( egin{array}{c} Y_1 \ Y_2 \ dots \ Y_n \end{array} 
ight), \quad oldsymbol{eta} = \left( egin{array}{c} eta_0 \ eta_1 \ dots \ eta_{p-1} \end{array} 
ight), \quad oldsymbol{arepsilon} = \left( egin{array}{c} arepsilon_1 \ dots \ eta_2 \ dots \ eta_n \end{array} 
ight).$$

The  $(n \times p)$  design matrix:

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & X_{11} & X_{12} & \dots & X_{1,p-1} \\ 1 & X_{21} & X_{22} & \dots & X_{2,p-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & X_{n1} & X_{n2} & \dots & X_{n,p-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

E.g. in the tumor suppressor example:

	intercept	<u>MM1</u>	MM2	
sample 1	1	-0.42796	0.26441	<b>→</b> X
sample 2	1	4.21648	-3.86460	
sample 3	1	-1.14688	-1.22544	
sample 4	1	-0.46377	0.12756	
sample 5	1	0.86248	1.16049	
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	

#### Question

Consider simple model for length in terms of sex:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times SEX_i + \varepsilon_i$$

#### Two design matrices:

	intercept	sex	intercept	sex
sample 1	1	-1	sample 1 3	- 2
sample 2	1	1	sample 2 3	2
sample 3	1	-1	sample 3 3	- 2
sample 4	1	-1	sample 4 3	- 2
sample 5	1	1	sample 5 3	2
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •

What are the differences between resulting models?

The specifics of the design matrix depend on the model employed. E.g. consider the two equivalent models:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{SEX}_i + \varepsilon_i$$
  
 $Y_i = \beta_1 \times \text{FEMALE}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{MALE}_i + \varepsilon_i$ 

with corresponding design matrices:

	female	male		intercept	sex
sample 1	0	1	sample 1	1	-1
sample 2	1	0	sample 2	1	1
sample 3	0	1	sample 3	1	-1
sample 4	0	1	sample 4	1	-1
sample 5	1	0	sample 5	1	1
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •
• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	• • •	

The regression model thus is:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

To illustrate the notation simplification:

$$Y_i = \mathbf{X}_{i*} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i$$
  

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i1} + \beta_2 X_{i2} + \ldots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1} + \varepsilon_i$$

where  $X_{i*}$  denotes the i-th row of the design matrix.

The distributional assumptions become:

$$\mathbb{E}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = [\mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_1), \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_2), \dots, \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_n)]^{\top}$$
$$= (0, 0, \dots, 0)^{\top} = \mathbf{0}_{n \times 1}$$

and (independence of samples):

$$\operatorname{Cov}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_{n \times n}$$

as

$$Cov(\varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$$

$$Cov(\varepsilon_{i_1}, \varepsilon_{i_2}) = 0$$
 if  $i_1 \neq i_2$ 

The expectation of the vector of observations:

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$$

as:

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_i) = \mathbb{E}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1} + \varepsilon_i)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\beta_0) + \mathbb{E}(\beta_1 X_{i,1}) + \dots + \mathbb{E}(\beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1}) + \mathbb{E}(\varepsilon_i)$$

$$= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{i,1} + \dots + \beta_{p-1} X_{i,p-1}$$

#### Model

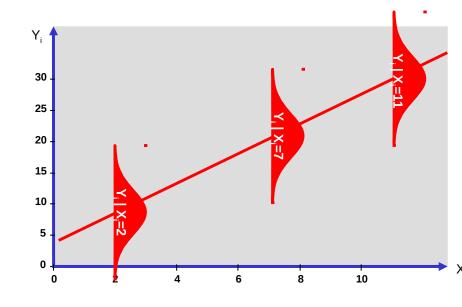
We write:

$$Y_i = \mathbf{X}_{i,*}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i$$

while it is equivalent to write:

$$Y_i \mid \mathbf{X}_{i,*} \sim N(\mathbf{X}_{i,*}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$$

The latter explicitly assumes that the explanatory variable **X** is (temporarily) taken as non-random. It is to be read as: **Y** conditional on **X** is distributed as ....

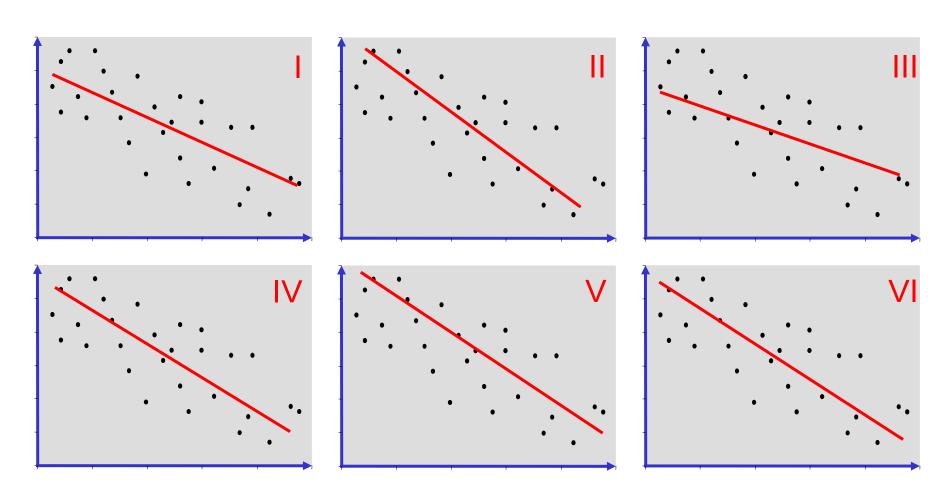


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Parameter estimation

## Question

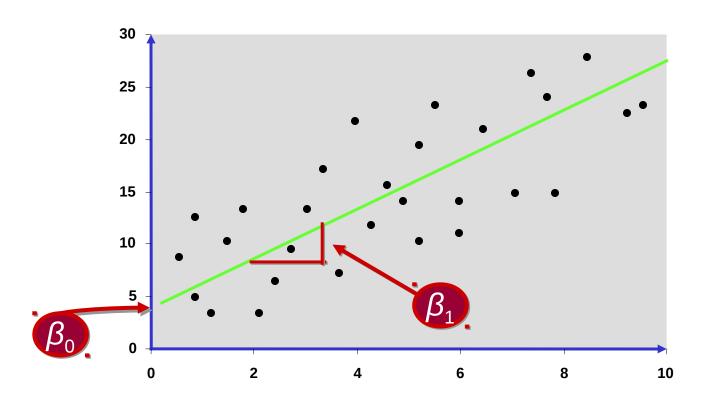
What is now the best model? Best in what sense?



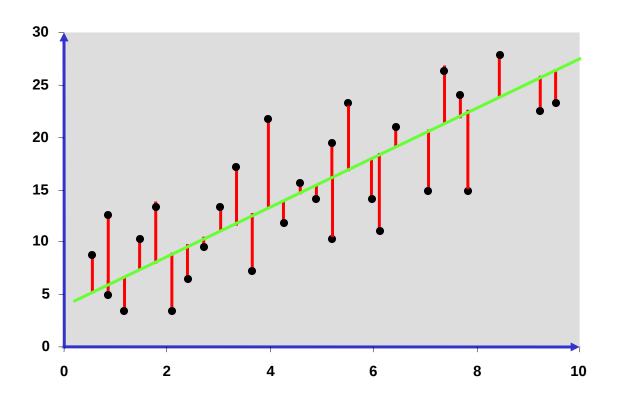
We search a *linear* (= straight line) relation:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X.$$

How to choose  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ?



 $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  are chosen such that the total quadratic <u>distance</u> of the observations to the regression line is <u>minimal</u>.



#### **Estimation**

Use maximum likelihood. Hereto, note that:

$$Y_i = \mathbf{X}_{i*} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_i$$
  
$$E(Y_i) = \mathbf{X}_{i*} \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

with  $\varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$  and  $\varepsilon_{i_1}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{i_2}$  independent if  $i_1 \neq i_2$ .

One may thus reformulate the model as:

$$Y_i \mid \mathbf{X}_{i*} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}_{i*}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2)$$

Normality gives:

$$P(Y_i = y_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp[-(y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i*}\beta)^2/2\sigma^2]$$

#### **Estimation**

Using the independence of the samples, the likelihood is:

$$P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp[-(y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*}\boldsymbol{\beta})^2/(2\sigma^2)]$$

with log-likelihood:

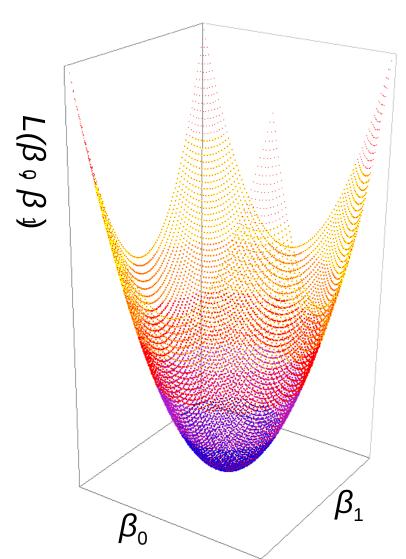
$$\log[P(\mathbf{Y}=y)] = -n\log(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*}\boldsymbol{\beta})^2$$

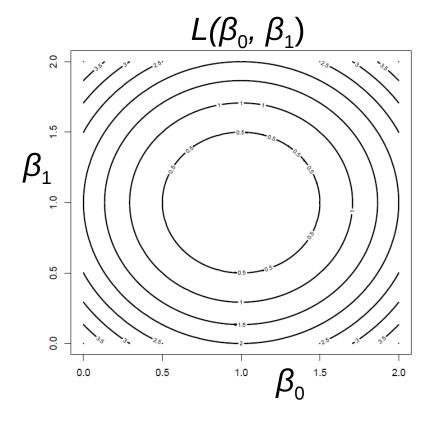
This is quadratic in the parameters (a parabola):

$$c_0 + c_1 \beta_0 + c_2 \beta_1 + c_3 \beta_0^2 + c_4 \beta_1^2 + c_5 \beta_0 \beta_1$$

where the  $c_k$  depend on **X** and **Y**.

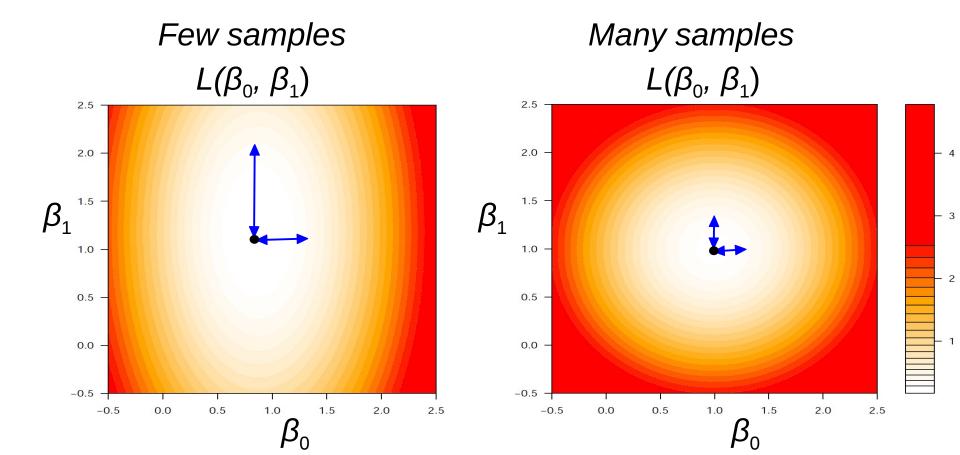
Plots of loss function vs. parameters (2d and 3d)





## Effect of sample size

Larger sample sizes yield better located (≈ less biased) and clearer (≈ lower variance) optima.



Equate the loglikelihood's 1<sup>st</sup> order derivative to zero:

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

Solving for  $\beta$  yields:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$$

For the ML estimation of  $\sigma^2$ , solve:

$$-\frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*} \boldsymbol{\beta})^2 = 0$$

This yields:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*} \boldsymbol{\beta})^2$$

This estimator is however biased! For an unbiased estimator divide by n-p instead of n.

## Example (numerical)

Consider an experiment in which expression levels of a 3gene pathway have been measured. The resulting data are:

```
gene 1 gene 2 gene 3
sample 1 0.622 0.934 -1.915
sample 2 1.001 1.341 -2.140
sample 3 -0.468 -1.180 -0.088
sample 4 1.752 0.058 0.478
```

Wish to fit:  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  with  $\mathbf{Y}$  gene 1. Then:

## Example (numerical)

To evaluate  $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$  calculate its constituents:

$$\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 4.000 & 1.153 & -3.665 \\ 1.153 & 4.066 & -4.527 \\ -3.665 & -4.527 & 8.483 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.907 \\ 2.577 \\ -2.455 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.494 & 0.240 & 0.341 \\ 0.240 & 0.722 & 0.489 \\ 0.341 & 0.489 & 0.526 \end{pmatrix}$$

and obtain:

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.215 \\ 1.359 \\ 0.961 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Example (numerical)

For  $\sigma^2$  evaluate:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^2$$

E.g.:

$$\mathbf{X}_{1,*}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.934 & -1.915 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1.215 \\ 1.359 \\ 0.961 \end{pmatrix}$$

This yields  $s^2 = 2.292 * 10^{-4}$ .

The fitted model thus is:

$$\begin{array}{lll} Y_i & = & \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{i,1} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{i,2} + \varepsilon_i \\ & = & 1.215 + 1.359 X_{i,1} + 0.961 X_{i,2} + \varepsilon_i \\ \text{with } \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 2.292 \times 10^{-4}) \end{array}$$

#### **Fits**

From the fitted model obtain the fits (the observation as expected by the model, i.e. the regression line):

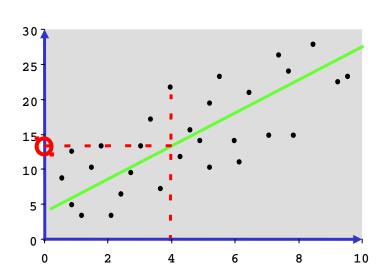
$$\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

as the error is best predicted by its mean, which is zero.

The fit of an individual observation is:

$$\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 X_{i,1} + \hat{\beta}_2 X_{i,2}$$

For novel data (X's) this formula may be used for *prediction*.



#### Estimate behaviour

The estimates are unbiased:

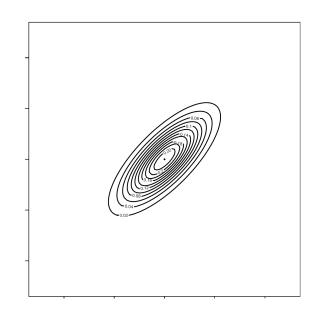
$$E(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

with variance (derivation in SM):

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

In particular:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2 [\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}]^{-1})$$



#### Note

Variance of the estimate mainly depends on design matrix. In controlled experiments X is chosen s.t. the variance of the estimates is minimal.

## Estimate behaviour vs. design

Consider two experimental designs:

Orthogonal design

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

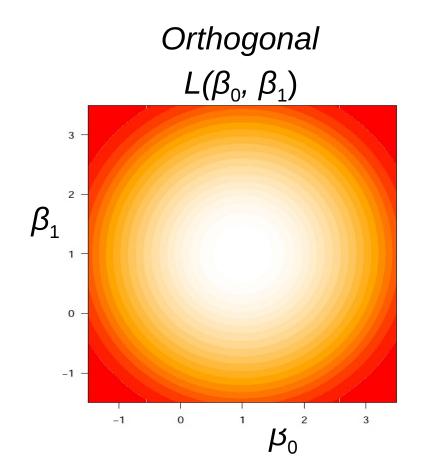
Non-orthogonal design

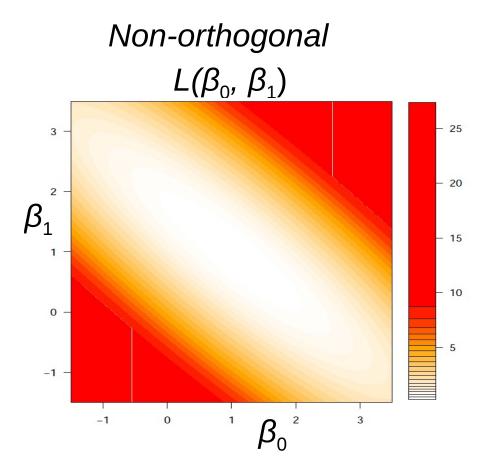
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Covariance matrix of estimates of  $\beta$  is diagonal. Covariance matrix of estimates of  $\beta$  is not diagonal.

## Estimate behaviour vs. design

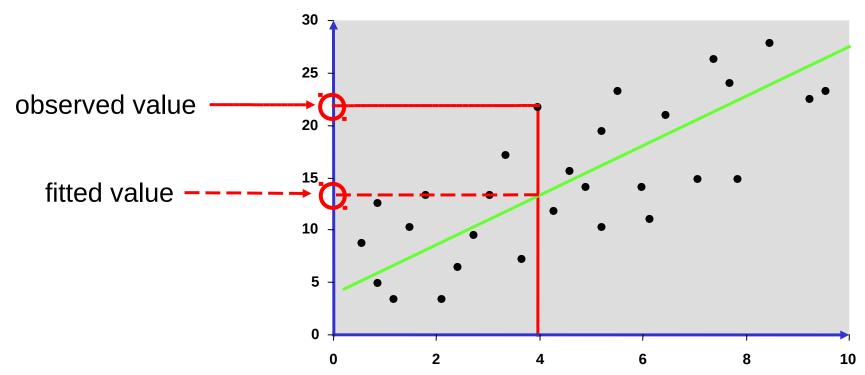
The orthogonality of the covariates determines the shape of the parabola.





#### Residuals

Residual is the deviation between observation and model.



Residual = observed value - fitted value:

$$\hat{\varepsilon}_i = Y_i - \hat{Y}_i = Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

#### Residual variance

Simply the variance of the residuals:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\underline{Y_i - \mathbf{X}_{i,*}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^2$$
residuals

It is thus the variance of Y corrected for X. Or, the variance in Y not attributable to X. It is also denoted as:  $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{X})$ .

Ideally, this is small compared to  $\widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(\mathbf{Y})$  as that would imply that the model is a good description of the data.

# Regression: hypothesis testing

## **Testing**

The variance of the estimate of  $\beta$  can now directly be obtained from:

$$\operatorname{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

its constituents are on previous slides.

This variance is used for testing ( $H_0$ :  $\beta_j = 0$ ), and the construction of confidence intervals, e.g.:

$$P\{\beta_1 \in \hat{\beta}_1 \pm 1.96 \sqrt{s^2[(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{1,1}}\} \approx 0.95$$

# Regression: hypothesis testing

## **Testing**

For each parameter we test the null hypothesis:

$$H_0: \beta_j = 0$$

To evaluate this hypothesis we note that:

$$\frac{\hat{\beta}_j - \beta}{\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_j}} \sim t_{n-p}$$

where:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\beta}_j} = \hat{\sigma} \sqrt{[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}]_{jj}}$$

## Regression: hypothesis testing

## Example (numerical)

```
R output of regression
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.21544
                      0.02126/
                               57.18
                                       0.0111
X[, 2] 1.35873 0.02572
                               52.83 0.0120 *
X[, 3] 0.96082
                      0.02195
                               43.77
                                       0.0145
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.93026 on 1 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.999%, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9989
F-statistic: 1400 on 2 and 1 DF, p-value: 0.01889
```

T-statistics and p-values.

Note this uses the unbiased (rather than the ML) estimate of the error variance.

Define the *coefficient of determination*:

$$R^{2}(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}) = \rho^{2}(\mathbf{Y}, \hat{\mathbf{Y}})$$
  
=  $\rho^{2}(\mathbf{Y}, \hat{\mathbf{X}}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$ 

the squared correlation coefficient between Y and the columns of X. Note:  $R^2$  in [0,1].

An alternative interpretation of the  $R^2$  comes from the sum of squares of the observation:

$$SYY = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$$

We may then write:

$$R^{2} = \frac{SYY - RSS}{SYY} = \frac{SYY/(n-1) - RSS/(n-1)}{SYY/(n-1)}$$
$$= \frac{s_{Y}^{2} - s_{\hat{\varepsilon}}^{2}}{s_{Y}^{2}}$$

where:

$$s_{\hat{\varepsilon}}^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\varepsilon_{i} - \bar{\hat{\varepsilon}})^{2} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varepsilon_{i}^{2}$$

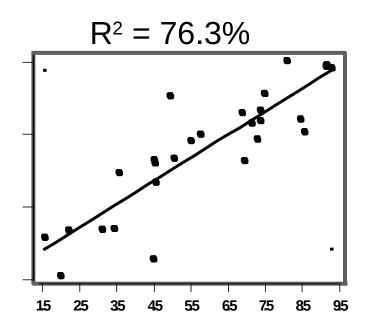
$$= \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2} = RSS/(n-1)$$

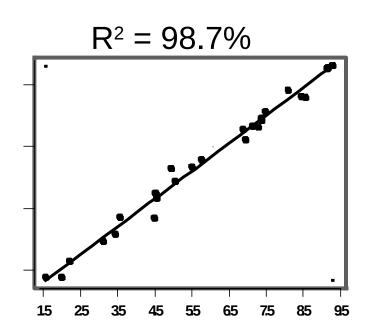
The "percentage of explained variation" in **Y** by **X**.

## Example (numerical)

R<sup>2</sup>: *coefficient of determination*. Indicates the explanatory power of the model.

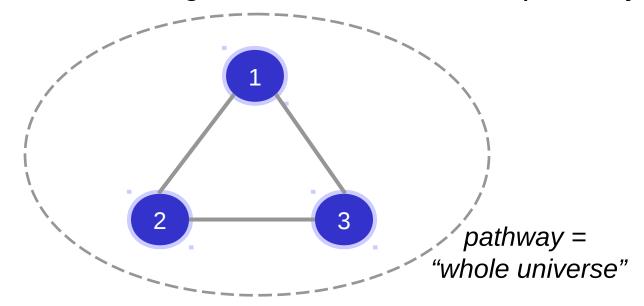
R<sup>2</sup> is the percentage of the variation in the measurements that is explained by the regression model.





Large  $R^2$  (> 80%): almost all variation in Y is explained by X. Hence, we can make precise predictions. Small  $R^2$ : a substantial part of the variation in Y is explained by other factors.

Multi-gene pathways comprise of more than two genes, and assume no gene "lives" outside the pathway.



#### Two methods:

- Regression
- Correlation

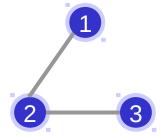
## Regression method

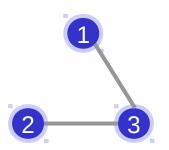
Regress the expression data of each gene on that of all other genes.

$$Y_1 = b_{01} + b_{21}Y_2 + b_{31}Y_3 + e_1$$

$$Y_2 = b_{02} + b_{12}Y_1 + b_{32}Y_3 + e_2$$

$$Y_3 = b_{03} + b_{13}Y_1 + b_{23}Y_2 + e_3$$



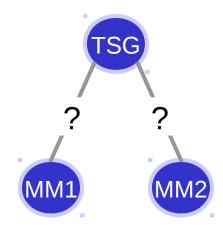


## Cancer research example

Y : gene expression measurements of a tumor suppressor gene

X<sub>1</sub>: gene expression of methylation marker 1

X<sub>2</sub>: gene expression of methylation marker 2



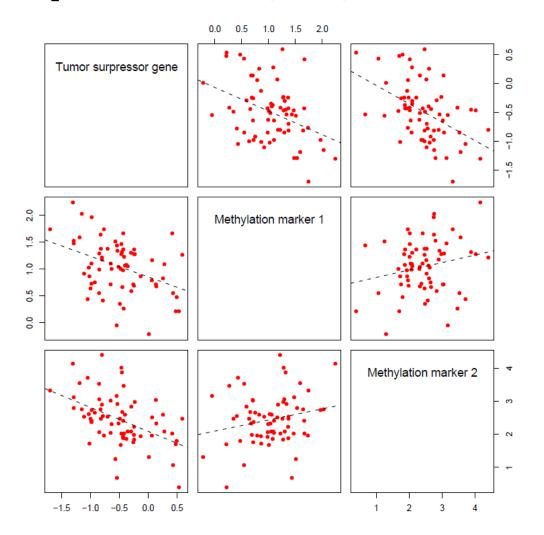
## Question

Do the methylation markers (MMs) influence the expression of the tumor suppressor gene (TSG)?



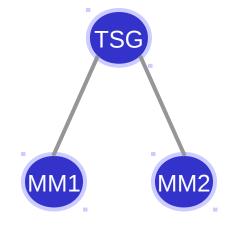


# generate all pairwise scatterplots
> pairs(cbind(TSG, MM1, MM2))





```
# perform multiple regression analysis
> regressionResults <- lm(TSG ~ MM1 + MM2)
> summary(regressionResults)
```



#### Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

(Intercept) 0.51023 0.18969 2.690 0.009077 **

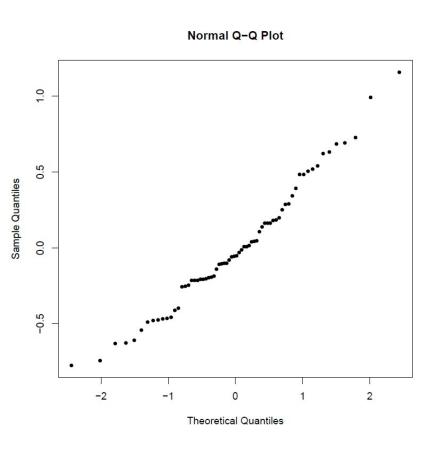
MM1 -0.31679 0.10784 -2.938 0.004573 **

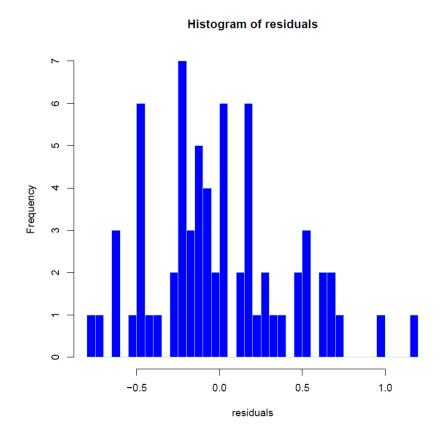
MM2 -0.27524 0.06941 -3.965 0.000185 ***
```

Residual standard error: 0.4212 on 65 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.3219, Adjusted R-squared: 0.3011 F-statistic: 15.43 on 2 and 65 DF, p-value: 3.286e-06

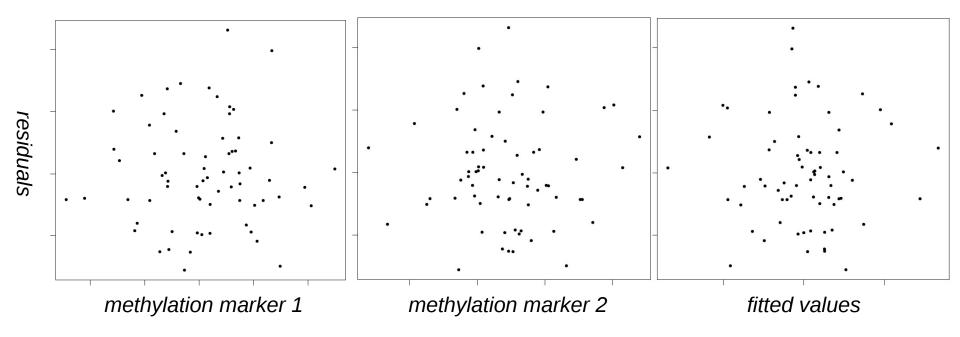
Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

## Check distributional assumption





## Check for other irregularities



#### Model:

$$Y_{\text{TSG}} = \hat{\beta}_{\text{MM1}} X_{\text{MM1}} + \hat{\beta}_{\text{MM2}} X_{\text{MM2}} + \text{error}$$

The change in the response due to one in a covariate:

$$\partial Y_{\text{TSG}}/\partial X_{\text{MM1}} = \hat{\beta}_{\text{MM1}}$$

### Put differently:

$$\Delta Y_{\text{TSG}} = Y_{\text{TSG},2} - Y_{\text{TSG},1}$$

$$= \hat{\beta}_{\text{MM1}} \Delta X_{\text{MM1}} = \hat{\beta}_{\text{MM1}} (X_{\text{TSG},2} - X_{\text{TSG},1})$$

Suppose there is an optimal response value  $Y_{\text{TSG,ideal}}$ . Then, set:

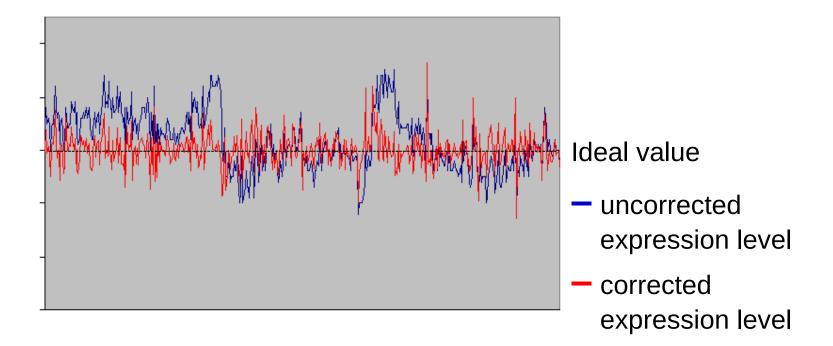
$$X_{\text{TSG,new}} = (Y_{\text{TSG,ideal}} - Y_{\text{TSG,current}})/\hat{\beta}_{\text{MM1}} + X_{\text{TSG,current}}$$

Substitute in the model:  $Y_{\rm TSG, new} = Y_{\rm TSG, ideal} + {\rm error}$ 

Hence, we can steer response to ideal value. But:

- ightarrow error causes deviations from  $Y_{ ext{TSG}, ext{ideal}}$ ,
- → other methylation marker will not be constant.

Repeated application may yield cellular control:





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