# **Statistics**

Introduction to R for Public Health Researchers

Processing math: 100%

#### **Statistics**

Now we are going to cover how to perform a variety of basic statistical tests in R.

- Correlation
- T-tests/Rank-sum tests
- Linear Regression
- Logistic Regression
- Proportion tests
- Chi-squared
- Fisher's Exact Test

Note: We will be glossing over the statistical theory and "formulas" for these tests. There are plenty of resources online for learning more about these tests, as well as dedicated Biostatistics series at the School of Public Health

cor() performs correlation in R

```
cor(x, y = NULL, use = "everything",
  method = c("pearson", "kendall", "spearman"))
```

Like other functions, if there are NAs, you get NA as the result. But if you specify use only the complete observations, then it will give you correlation on the non-missing data.

```
library(readr)
circ = read_csv("http://johnmuschelli.com/intro_to_r/data/Charm_City_Circulato
cor(circ$orangeAverage, circ$purpleAverage, use="complete.obs")
```

[1] 0.9195356

You can also get the correlation between matrix columns

```
library(dplyr)
avgs = circ %>% select(ends with("Average"))
avgs cor = cor(avgs, use = \overline{\text{"complete.obs"}})
signif(avgs cor, 3)
           orangeAverage purpleAverage greenAverage bannerAverage
             1.000
                             0.908
                                       0.840
                                                   0.545
orangeAverage
            0.908
                            1.000 0.867 0.521
purpleAverage
greenAverage 0.840 0.867 1.000 0.453
bannerAverage 0.545
                            0.521 0.453
                                                  1.000
```

You can also get the correlation between matrix columns

Or between columns of two matrices/dfs, column by column.

```
op = avgs %>% select(orangeAverage, purpleAverage)
gb = avgs %>% select(greenAverage, bannerAverage)
signif(cor(op, gb, use = "complete.obs"), 3)
```

	greenAverage	bannerAverage
orangeAverage	0.840	0.545
purpleAverage	0.867	0.521

You can also use cor.test() to test for whether correlation is significant (ie non-zero). Note that linear regression may be better, especially if you want to regress out other confounders.

For many of these testing result objects, you can extract specific slots/results as numbers, as the ct object is just a list.

```
# str(ct)
names(ct)

[1] "statistic" "parameter" "p.value" "estimate" "null.value"
[6] "alternative" "method" "data.name" "conf.int"

ct$statistic

t
73.65553

ct$p.value

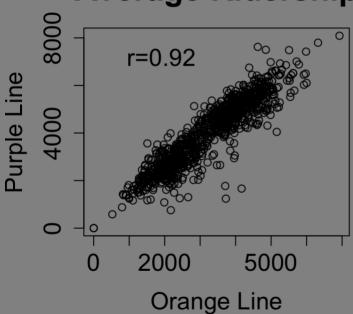
[1] 0
```

### Broom package

The broom package has a tidy function that puts most objects into data.frames so that they are easily manipulated:

Note that you can add the correlation to a plot, via the legend() function.



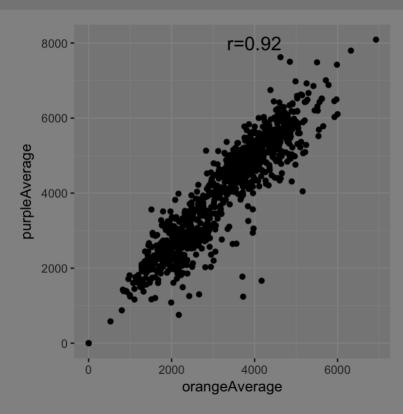


Or with the annotate command in ggplot2

```
library(ggplot2)

q = qplot(data = circ, x = orangeAverage, y = purpleAverage)

q + annotate("text", x = 4000, y = 8000, label = txt, size = 5)
```



The T-test is performed using the t.test() function, which essentially tests for the difference in means of a variable between two groups.

In this syntax, x and y are the column of data for each group.

```
tt = t.test(circ$orangeAverage, circ$purpleAverage)
tt

Welch Two Sample t-test

data: circ$orangeAverage and circ$purpleAverage
t = -17.076, df = 1984, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
    -1096.7602   -870.7867
sample estimates:
mean of x mean of y
    3033.161    4016.935</pre>
```

t.test saves a lot of information: the difference in means estimate, confidence interval for the difference conf.int, the p-value p.value, etc.

```
names(tt)

[1] "statistic" "parameter" "p.value" "conf.int" "estimate"
[6] "null.value" "alternative" "method" "data.name"
```

tidy(tt)

```
estimate estimate1 estimate2 statistic p.value parameter conf.low 1 -983.7735 3033.161 4016.935 -17.07579 4.201155e-61 1983.954 -1096.76 conf.high method alternative 1 -870.7867 Welch Two Sample t-test two.sided
```

You can also use the 'formula' notation. In this syntax, it is  $y \sim x$ , where x is a factor with 2 levels or a binary variable and y is a vector of the same length.

#### Wilcoxon Rank-Sum Tests

Nonparametric analog to t-test (testing medians):

# Lab Part 1

Website

Now we will briefly cover linear regression. I will use a little notation here so some of the commands are easier to put in the proper context.  $y_i = \alpha + \beta x_i + \epsilon_i$  where:

- · y<sub>i</sub> is the outcome for person i
- $\cdot$   $\alpha$  is the intercept
- $\beta$  is the slope
- $\cdot$   $x_i$  is the predictor for person i
- $\cdot$   $\epsilon_i$  is the residual variation for person i

The R version of the regression model is:

y ~ x

#### where:

- · y is your outcome
- x is/are your predictor(s)

For a linear regression, when the predictor is binary this is the same as a t-test:

The summary command gets all the additional information (p-values, t-statistics, r-square) that you usually want from a regression.

```
sfit = summary(fit)
print(sfit)
Call:
lm(formula = avg ~ line, data = long)
Residuals:
   Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-4016.9 -1121.2 64.3 1060.8 4072.6
Coefficients:
                Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 3033.16 38.99 77.79 <2e-16 ***
linepurpleAverage 983.77 57.09 17.23 <2e-16 ***
              0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Signif. codes:
Residual standard error: 1314 on 2127 degrees of freedom
  (163 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared: 0.1225, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1221
F-statistic: 296.9 on 1 and 2127 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

The coefficients from a summary are the coefficients, standard errors, t-statistcs, and p-values for all the estimates.

We can tidy linear models as well and it gives us all of this in one::

```
tidy(fit)
```

```
term estimate std.error statistic p.value (Intercept) 3033.1611 38.98983 77.79365 0.000000e+00 2 linepurpleAverage 983.7735 57.09059 17.23180 2.163655e-62
```

### **Using Cars Data**

```
http_data_dir = "http://johnmuschelli.com/intro_to_r/data/"
cars = read_csv(
  paste0(http_data_dir, "kaggleCarAuction.csv"),
  col_types = cols(VehBCost = col_double()))
```

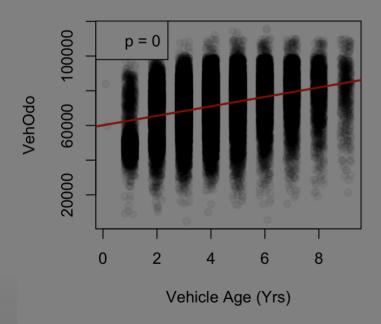
We'll look at vehicle odometer value by vehicle age:

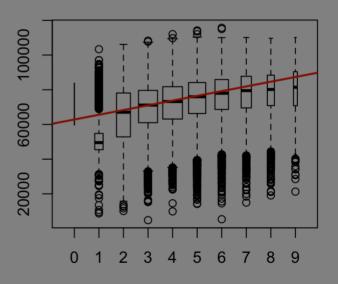
```
fit = lm(VehOdo~VehicleAge, data = cars)
print(fit)

Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ VehicleAge, data = cars)

Coefficients:
(Intercept) VehicleAge
60127 2723
```

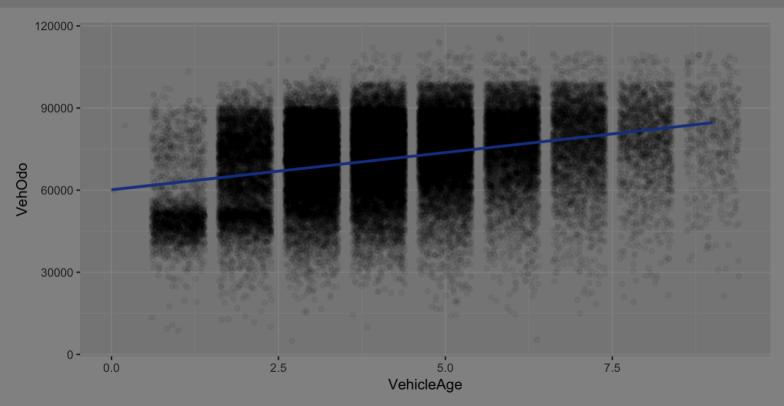
We can visualize the vehicle age/odometer relationshp using scatter plots or box plots (with regression lines). The function abline will plot the regresion line on the plot.





### Linear Regression: adding line with ggplot2

```
g = ggplot(aes(x = VehicleAge, y = VehOdo), data = cars) +
   geom_jitter(alpha = 0.05, height = 0) +
   geom_smooth(se = FALSE, method = "lm")
print(g)
```

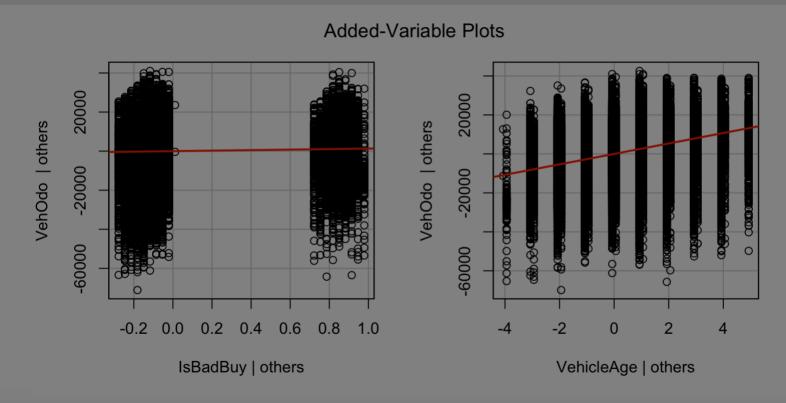


Note that you can have more than 1 predictor in regression models. The interpretation for each slope is change in the predictor corresponding to a one-unit change in the outcome, holding all other predictors constant.

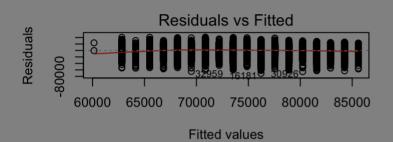
```
fit2 = lm(VehOdo ~ IsBadBuy + VehicleAge, data = cars)
summary(fit2)
Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ IsBadBuy + VehicleAge, data = cars)
Residuals:
  Min 10 Median 30 Max
-70856 -9490 1390 10311 41193
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 60141.77 134.75 446.33 <2e-16 ***
IsBadBuy 1329.00 157.84 8.42 <2e-16 ***
VehicleAge 2680.33 30.27 88.53 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 13810 on 72980 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.1031, Adjusted R-squared: 0.1031
F-statistic: 4196 on 2 and 72980 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

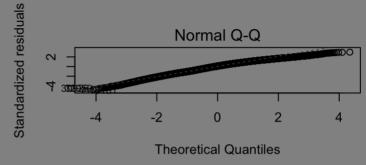
Added-Variable plots can show you the relationship between a variable and outcome after adjusting for other variables. The function avplots from the car package can do this:

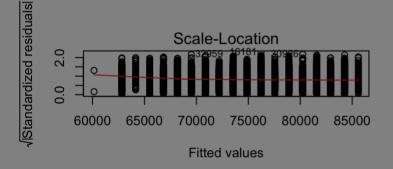
library(car)
avPlots(fit2)

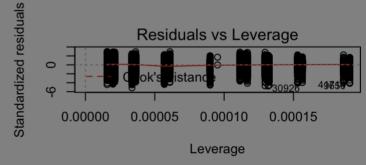


Plot on an 1m object will do diagnostic plots. Residuals vs. Fitted should have no discernable shape (the red line is the smoother), the qqplot shows how well the residuals fit a normal distribution, and Cook's distance measures the influence of individual points.









Factors get special treatment in regression models - lowest level of the factor is the comparison group, and all other factors are relative to its values.

```
fit3 = lm(VehOdo ~ factor(TopThreeAmericanName), data = cars)
summary(fit3)
Call:
lm(formula = VehOdo ~ factor(TopThreeAmericanName), data = cars)
Residuals:
          10 Median
  Min
                       30
                             Max
-71947 -9634 1532 10472 45936
Coefficients:
                                Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                68248.48 92.98 733.984 < 2e-16 ***
(Intercept)
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)FORD 8523.49 158.35 53.828 < 2e-16 ***
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)GM 4952.18 128.99 38.393 < 2e-16 ***
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)NULL -2004.68 6361.60 -0.315 0.752670
factor(TopThreeAmericanName)OTHER 584.87
                                           159.92 3.657 0.000255 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 14220 on 72978 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.04822, Adjusted R-squared: 0.04817
F-statistic: 924.3 on 4 and 72978 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16
```

### Logistic Regression and GLMs

Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) allow for fitting regressions for non-continous/normal outcomes. The glm has similar syntax to the lm command. Logistic regression is one example.

```
glmfit = glm(IsBadBuy ~ VehOdo + VehicleAge, data=cars, family = binomial())
summary(glmfit)
Call:
qlm(formula = IsBadBuy ~ VehOdo + VehicleAge, family = binomial(),
   data = cars)
Deviance Residuals:
             10 Median 30
   Min
                                      Max
-0.9943 -0.5481 -0.4534 -0.3783 2.6318
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) -3.778e+00 6.381e-02 -59.211 <2e-16 ***
VehOdo 8.341e-06 8.526e-07 9.783 <2e-16 ***
VehicleAge 2.681e-01 6.772e-03 39.589 <2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
   Null deviance: 54421 on 72982 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 52346 on 72980 degrees of freedom
AIC: 52352
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
```

### **Tidying GLMs**

```
tidy(glmfit, conf.int = TRUE)
```

### **Tidying GLMs**

```
tidy(glmfit, conf.int = TRUE, exponentiate = TRUE)

term    estimate    std.error    statistic    p.value    conf.low
1 (Intercept) 0.02286316 6.380920e-02 -59.211349 0.0000000e+00 0.02016671
2     VehOdo 1.00000834 8.526052e-07     9.782975 1.332358e-22 1.00000667
3     VehicleAge 1.30748911 6.772236e-03     39.589373 0.0000000e+00 1.29025407
     conf.high
1 0.02589798
2 1.00001002
3 1.32496551
```

### **Logistic Regression**

Note the coefficients are on the original scale, we must exponentiate them for odds ratios:

```
exp(coef(glmfit))

(Intercept) VehOdo VehicleAge
0.02286316 1.00000834 1.30748911
```

### **Proportion tests**

prop.test() can be used for testing the null that the proportions (probabilities of success) in several groups are the same, or that they equal certain given values.

### Chi-squared tests

chisq.test() performs chi-squared contingency table tests and goodness-of-fit tests.

```
0 1
0 62375 1632
1 8763 213
```

### Chi-squared tests

You can also pass in a table object (such as tab here)

```
cq = chisq.test(tab)
Cq
   Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
data: tab
X-squared = 0.92735, df = 1, p-value = 0.3356
names (cq)
[1] "statistic" "parameter" "p.value" "method" "data.name" "observed"
[7] "expected" "residuals" "stdres"
cq$p.value
[1] 0.3355516
```

#### Chi-squared tests

Note that does the same test as prop.test, for a 2x2 table (prop.test not relevant for greater than 2x2).

```
chisq.test(tab)
    Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
data: tab
X-squared = 0.92735, df = 1, p-value = 0.3356
prop.test(tab)
   2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity
    correction
data: tab
X-squared = 0.92735, df = 1, p-value = 0.3356
alternative hypothesis: two.sided
95 percent confidence interval:
 -0.005208049 0.001673519
sample estimates:
  prop 1 prop 2
0.9745028 0.9762701
```

#### Fisher's Exact test

fisher.test() performs contingency table test using the hypogeometric distribution (used for small sample sizes).

control = list(), or = 1, alternative = "two.sided",

fisher.test(x, y = NULL, workspace = 200000, hybrid = FALSE,

conf.int = TRUE, conf.level = 0.95,
simulate.p.value = FALSE, B = 2000)

```
fisher.test(tab)

Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data

data: tab
p-value = 0.3324
alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is not equal to 1
95 percent confidence interval:
0.8001727 1.0742114
sample estimates:
odds ratio
0.9289923
```

# Lab Part 2

Website

### **Probability Distributions**

Sometimes you want to generate data from a distribution (such as normal), or want to see where a value falls in a known distribution. R has these distibutions built in:

- Normal
- Binomial
- Beta
- Exponential
- · Gamma
- Hypergeometric
- · etc

### **Probability Distributions**

#### Each has 4 options:

- r for random number generation [e.g. rnorm()]
- d for density [e.g. dnorm()]
- p for probability [e.g. pnorm()]
- q for quantile [e.g. qnorm()]

```
rnorm(5)
```

[1] -2.4217642 0.4974656 0.0140960 -1.1420139 0.9046674

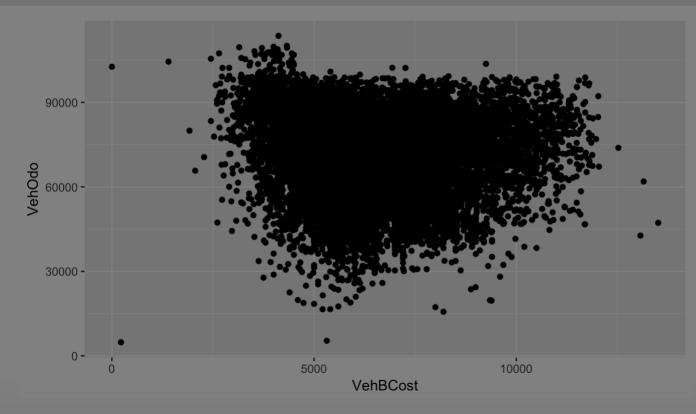
# Sampling

The sample () function is pretty useful for permutations

```
sample(1:10, 5, replace=FALSE)
[1] 8 9 10 3 4
```

# Sampling

Also, if you want to only plot a subset of the data (for speed/time or overplotting)



# Lab Part 3

Website