Introduction to R - Basic Statistics with R

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> Introduction to R 2nd Edition May 31th 2017













- 1 Introduction
- 2 Descriptive analysis
- 3 Bivariate analysis
- Inference
- **6** GLM
- 6 Hands on

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Descriptive analysis
- **3** Bivariate analysis
- 4 Inference
- **5** GLM
- 6 Hands on

Required Packages

These are the required packages for this session:

> library(MASS)

These are the required data for this session:

> data(birthwt)

Inspecting data

```
> names(birthwt)
```

```
[1] "low" "age" "lwt" "race" "smoke" "ptl" "ht" [8] "ui" "ftv" "bwt"
```

> ?birthwt

Manipulate data

Subsetting data:

```
> b.s <- birthwt[,c("bwt", "smoke", "race", "age", "low")]
Inspecting data:</pre>
```

> head(b.s)

```
bwt smoke race age low 85 2523 0 2 19 0 86 2551 0 3 33 0 87 2557 1 1 20 0 88 2594 1 1 21 0 89 2600 1 1 18 0 91 2622 0 3 21 0
```

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Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics with R

R provides a wide range of functions for obtaining summary statistics.

Type of variables

Generally, statistical variables can be:

- Continuous variables that are numeric. They represent a measurable quantity. (i.e. Age, BMI, ...)
- Categorical variables that take on values that are names or labels (i.e. Sex, Colors, ...)

Type of variables

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Descriptive analysis for Continuous variables

Example: Simulating 300 observations under a normal distribution.

```
> x<-rnorm(300, sd=10, mean=100)
> head(x)
[1] 122.89340 92.25365 93.84143 98.25029 97.45983
[6] 104.29076
```

Calculating some statistics of interest:

Best option to obtain descriptive information:

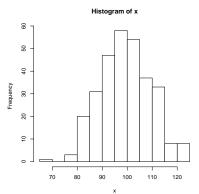
```
> summary(x)

Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
69.63 92.27 99.11 99.47 106.60 124.00
```

Descriptive analysis for Continuous variables

Histogram:

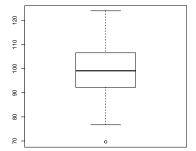
> hist(x)



Descriptive analysis for Continuous variables

Boxplot:

> boxplot(x)



Type of variables

Generally, statistical variables can be:

- Continuous variables are numeric. They represent a measurable quantity. (i.e. Age, BMI, ...)
- Categorical variables take on values that are names or labels (i.e. Sex, Colors, ...)

Descriptive analysis for Categorical variables

Example: Defining a dichotomous variable.

```
> var<-c(0,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,0,1,1,1,1,1);var
[1] 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1</pre>
```

Recategorizing variable's values:

```
> var<-factor(var,labels=c("control","case"));var</pre>
```

```
[1] control case control control control case case [8] control control case case case case
```

Levels: control case

Computing basic recount:

```
> recvar<-table(var); recvar
```

```
var
control case
6 8
```

Computing relative frequencies:

```
> frelvar<-prop.table(table(var)); frelvar</pre>
```

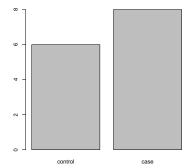
```
var control case 0.4285714 0.5714286
```



Descriptive analysis for Categorical variables

Barplot:

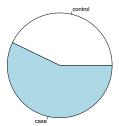
> barplot (recvar)



Descriptive analysis for Categorical variables

Pie chart:

> pie(recvar)



Remember:

> head(b.s)

	bwt	smoke	race	age	TOM
85	2523	0	2	19	0
86	2551	0	3	33	0
87	2557	1	1	20	0
88	2594	1	1	21	0
89	2600	1	1	18	0
91	2622	0	3	21	0

Remember:

> head(b.s)

	bwt	smoke	race	age	TOM
85	2523	0	2	19	0
86	2551	0	3	33	0
87	2557	1	1	20	0
88	2594	1	1	21	0
89	2600	1	1	18	0
91	2622	0	3	21	0

		bwt s	moke r	ace ag	e low
Type of Vai	riable: Co	ontinuous Cat	egorical Cate	gorical Contin	uous Categoric

> summary(b.s)

```
smoke
    bwt.
                                 race
Min. : 709
             Min. :0.0000
                            Min. :1.000
1st Ou.:2414 1st Ou.:0.0000
                            1st Ou.:1.000
             Median :0.0000
Median :2977
                            Median : 1.000
Mean :2945 Mean :0.3915
                            Mean :1.847
3rd Qu.:3487
             3rd Qu.:1.0000
                            3rd Qu.:3.000
Max. :4990
             Max. :1.0000
                            Max. :3.000
    age
                  low
Min. :14.00
              Min. :0.0000
1st Ou.:19.00
              1st Ou.:0.0000
Median :23.00
              Median : 0.0000
Mean :23.24 Mean :0.3122
3rd Qu.:26.00 3rd Qu.:1.0000
Max. :45.00
              Max. :1.0000
```

Exercise 1:

Convert race, low and smoke in factor variables.



```
Solution 1:
```

```
> b.s$race <- factor(b.s$race,
+ labels = c("white", "black", "other"))
> b.s$low <- factor(b.s$low, labels = c("normal", "< 2.5kg"))
> b.s$smoke <- factor(b.s$smoke,
+ labels = c("non smoker", "smoker"))</pre>
```

Exercise 2:

Now, inspect the summary () function.

Solution 2:

> summary(b.s)

normal :130 < 2.5kg: 59

```
bwt
                    smoke
                               race
                                           age
Min.: 709 non smoker:115 white:96
                                       Min. :14.00
1st Qu.:2414 smoker : 74
                            black:26
                                       1st Qu.:19.00
Median :2977
                             other:67
                                       Median :23.00
Mean :2945
                                       Mean :23.24
3rd Ou.:3487
                                       3rd Ou.:26.00
                                       Max. :45.00
Max. :4990
    low
```

Exercise 3:

Compute relative frequencies and percentages for categorical variables.

Solution 3: Frequencies

Solution 3: Percentages

```
> frsmoke *100
```

non smoker smoker 60.84656 39.15344

> frrace *100

white black other 50.79365 13.75661 35.44974

> frlow*100

normal < 2.5kg 68.78307 31.21693

Exercise 4:

Make a plot for each variable.

```
Solution 4:
> b.c <- b.s$bwt
> hist(b.c, main="Histogram of birth weight",
         xlab=c("birth weight in grams"), col="red")
+
             Histogram of birth weight
  8
  8
Frequency
  20
  9
        1000
               2000
                      3000
                            4000
                                   5000
                birth weight in grams
```

```
Solution 4:
> s.c <- table(b.s$smoke)
> barplot(s.c, names.arg=c("No Smokers", "Smokers"),
            main="Smoking status during pregnancy", col="red")
+
         Smoking status during pregnancy
  100
  8
  8
  20
         No Smokers
                        Smokers
```

```
Solution 4:
> a.c <- b.s$age
> hist(a.c, main="Histogram of mother's age",
+
         xlab=c("mother's age in years"), col="red")
            Histogram of mother's age
  9
  120
   8
Frequency
  8
  20
  9
          15
               mother's age in years
```

```
Solution 4:
> s.r <- table(b.s$race)
> barplot(s.r, names.arg=c("white", "black", "other"),
+
           main="Mother's race", col="red")
              Mother's race
  8
  8
  8
  20
                 black
        white
                          other
```

```
Solution 4:
> s.1 <- table(b.s$low)
> barplot(s.1, names.arg=c("normal", "< 2.5kg"),
+
            main="Indicator of birth weight", col="red")
            Indicator of birth weight
  120
  9
  8
  8 -
  용 -
  20
                        < 2.5ka
          normal
```

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Bivariate analysis

- Categorical variable Categorical Variable (i.e. Sex, Race)
- Continuous variable Continuous variable (i.e. *Age, BMI*)

Bivariate analysis for categorical variables

- Categorical variable Categorical Variable (i.e. Sex, Race)
- Continuous variable Continuous variable (i.e. Age, BMI)

Bivariate analysis for categorical variables

Contingency table:

> smoke.race<-table(b.s\$smoke, b.s\$race); smoke.race

```
white black other non smoker 44 16 55 smoker 52 10 12
```

Cell proportions:

> prop.table(smoke.race)

```
white black other non smoker 0.23280423 0.08465608 0.29100529 smoker 0.27513228 0.05291005 0.06349206
```

Row proportions:

> smoke.race.r<-prop.table(smoke.race,1); smoke.race.r

```
white black other non smoker 0.3826087 0.1391304 0.4782609 smoker 0.7027027 0.1351351 0.1621622
```

Bivariate analysis for categorical variables

Column proportions:

Chi-squared Test of Independence:

> smoke.race

```
white black other non smoker 44 16 55 smoker 52 10 12
```

> chisq.test(smoke.race)

Pearson's Chi-squared test

```
data: smoke.race X-squared = 21.779, df = 2, p-value = 1.865e-05
```

Interpretation:

Since the P-value (1.865e-05) is less than the significance level (0.05), we cannot accept the null hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between race and smoking.

Relative Risk: Probability of having the disease for people who were exposed to the treatment or environmental factor, divided by the probability of having the disease for people who were not exposed to that treatment or environmental factor.

```
> smoke.low <-table(b.s$smoke, b.s$low); smoke.low
           normal < 2.5kg
 non smoker 86 29
 smoker 44 30
> smoke.low <- smoke.low[,c(2,1)]; smoke.low
           < 2.5kg normal
          2.9 8.6
 non smoker
             30 44
 smoker
> smoke.low <- smoke.low[c(2,1),]; smoke.low
           < 2.5kg normal
 smoker
               30 44
 non smoker 29 86
```

> source("Riskfunctions.R")

```
> calcRelativeRisk(smoke.low)
[1] "category = smoker , relative risk = 1.6076421248835"
```

```
[1] "category = smoker, 95 % confidence interval = [ 1.05781
```

Interpretation

Smokers have 60% the chance to have a child with low birth weight than non smokers.

With a retrospective case-control data, direct calculations of the relative risk should not be performed, as the results are not meaningful. In these cases we use the **Odds ratio** measure.

```
[1] "category = smoker , odds ratio = 2.02194357366771"
```

```
[1] "category = smoker , 95 % confidence interval = [ 1.08065
```

You can interpret this odds ratio as a relative risk.

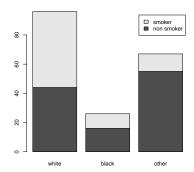
> calcOddsRatio(smoke.low)

Interpretation

The risk of a smoker to have a child with low birth weight is about two times the risk of a non-smoker.

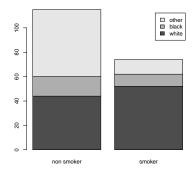
Barplot:

> barplot(smoke.race, legend=rownames(smoke.race))



Barplot:

> barplot(t(smoke.race), legend=colnames(smoke.race))



- Categorical variable Categorical Variable (i.e. Sex, Race)
- Continuous variable Continuous variable (i.e. Age, BMI)

Correlation

Correlation coefficients measure the strength of association between two variables. The sign and the absolute value of a correlation coefficient describe the direction and the magnitude of the relationship between two variables.

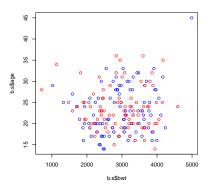
- The value of a correlation coefficient, ρ , ranges between -1 and 1.
- A positive correlation means that if one variable gets bigger, the other variable tends to get bigger ($\rho \sim 1$).
- A negative correlation means that if one variable gets bigger, the other variable tends to get smaller ($\rho \sim -1$).
- The weakest linear relationship is indicated by a correlation coefficient equal to 0.

How to calculate a correlation coefficient with $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}$:

```
> cor(b.s$bwt, b.s$age)
```

[1] 0.09031781

> plot(b.s\$bwt, b.s\$age, col=c("red", "blue"))



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Bivariate analysis for continuous variables

Test for correlation:

> cor(b.s\$bwt, b.s\$age)

```
[11 0.09031781
> cor.test(b.s$bwt, b.s$age)
        Pearson's product-moment correlation
data: b.s$bwt and b.s$age
t = 1.2401, df = 187, p-value = 0.2165
alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 -0.05309694 0.23008208
sample estimates:
       cor
0.09031781
```

Interpretation:

Since the P-value (0.2165) is greater than the significance level (0.05), we cannot reject the null hypothesis. Hence, there are not statistically correlation between birth weight and mother's age.

Linear regression

Represents a cause and effect relationship where the independent variable is the cause, and the dependent variable is the effect.

Least squares regression line

Linear regression finds the straight line, called the least squares regression line that best represents observations in a bivariate data set (minimizes the sum of squared differences between observed values and predicted values):

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

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

- The regression constant, β_0 , is the intercept of the regression line.
- The regression coefficient, β_1 , is the average change in the dependent variable, Y, for a 1-unit change in the independent variable, X. It is the slope of the regression line.

```
> m1 <- lm(bwt ~ age, data=b.s)</pre>
> summary(m1)
Call:
lm(formula = bwt ~ age, data = b.s)
Residuals:
    Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-2294.78 -517.63 10.51 530.80 1774.92
Coefficients:
           Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 2655.74 238.86 11.12 <2e-16 ***
           12.43 10.02 1.24 0.216
age
Signif. codes:
0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 728.2 on 187 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.008157, Adjusted R-squared: 0.0
F-statistic: 1.538 on 1 and 187 DF, p-value: 0.2165 \bigcirc
```

Coefficient of determination R^2

It is interpreted as the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable.

(i.e. an \mathbb{R}^2 of 0.10 means that 10 percent of the variance in \mathbb{Y} is predictable from \mathbb{X})

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Inference analysis

Test to Compare Two Variances:

```
> b.s.w <- subset(b.s, race=="white")
> b.s.b <- subset(b.s, race=="black")</pre>
> var.test(b.s.w$bwt, b.s.b$bwt)
        F test to compare two variances
data: b.s.w$bwt and b.s.b$bwt
F = 1.2988, num df = 95, denom df = 25, p-value =
0.4621
alternative hypothesis: true ratio of variances is not equal t
95 percent confidence interval:
 0.6493981 2.3095510
sample estimates:
ratio of variances
          1,298838
```

Interpretation:

Since the P-value (0.4621) is greater than the significance level (0.05), we cannot reject the null hypothesis. Hence, variances are statistically equal.



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Inference analysis

```
Two sample t-test:
```

> b.s.w <- subset(b.s, race=="white")

```
> b.s.b <- subset(b.s, race=="black")</pre>
> t.test(b.s.w$bwt, b.s.b$bwt,
         var.equal=ifelse(var.test(b.s.w$bwt, b.s.b$bwt)$p.val
+
+
                           > 0.05, TRUE, FALSE))
        Two Sample t-test
data: b.s.w$bwt and b.s.b$bwt
t = 2.4393, df = 120, p-value = 0.01618
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal
95 percent confidence interval:
  72.13796 693.91493
sample estimates:
mean of x mean of y
 3102.719 2719.692
```

Interpretation:

Since the P-value (0.0161) is less than the significance level (0.05), we can reject the null hypothesis. Hence, means are statistically different.

Inference analysis

Normality Test:

Interpretation:

Since the P-value (0.4861) is greater than the significance level (0.05), we cannot reject the null hypothesis. Hence, birth weight is normally distributed.

Inference analysis

Example:

```
> aa <- runif(100,0,1); bb <- runif(100,1,5); cc <- runif(100,
> shapiro.test(aa)
        Shapiro-Wilk normality test
data: aa
W = 0.94608, p-value = 0.0004619
> shapiro.test(bb)
        Shapiro-Wilk normality test
data: bb
W = 0.94989, p-value = 0.0008157
> shapiro.test(cc)
        Shapiro-Wilk normality test
data: cc
W = 0.94613, p-value = 0.0004654
```

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Simple linear regression

```
> m1 <- glm(bwt ~ age, data=b.s)
> summary(m1)
Call:
glm(formula = bwt ~ age, data = b.s)
Deviance Residuals:
    Min 10 Median 30 Max
-2294.78 -517.63 10.51 530.80 1774.92
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 2655.74 238.86 11.12 <2e-16 ***
age
      12.43 10.02 1.24 0.216
Signif. codes:
0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

(Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 530236.2

Null deviance: 99969656 on 188 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 99154173 on 187 degrees of freedom & 200

Simple logistic regression

```
> m2 <- glm(low ~ age, data=b.s, family=binomial)

> ans2 <- summary(m2)

> ans2$coefficients

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

(Intercept) 0.38458192 0.73212479 0.5252956 0.5993777

age -0.05115294 0.03151376 -1.6231937 0.1045480
```

Multiple linear regression

```
> mli <- glm(bwt ~ -1+age+smoke+race, data=b.s)</pre>
> summary(mli)
Call:
glm(formula = bwt \sim -1 + age + smoke + race, data = b.s)
```

Deviance Residuals:

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                2.134 9.771 0.218 0.827326
age
smokenon \ smoker \ 3281.673 260.664 12.590 < 2e-16 ***
smokesmoker 2855.579 247.404 11.542 < 2e-16 ***
raceblack -444.069 156.194 -2.843 0.004973 **
raceother -447.858 119.017 -3.763 0.000226 ***
```

Signif. codes:

0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

(Dispersion parameter for gaussian family taken to be 476133.9

Multiple logistic regression

```
> mlo <- glm(smoke ~ age+race, data=b.s, family=binomial)
> summary(mlo)
Call:
glm(formula = smoke ~ age + race, family = binomial, data = b.
Deviance Residuals:
   Min 10 Median 30 Max
-1.4558 -1.0468 -0.6041 1.0641 2.0303
Coefficients:
          Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 1.26703 0.77840 1.628 0.1036
age -0.04521 0.03082 -1.467 0.1424
raceblack -0.76998 0.46499 -1.656 0.0977.
raceother -1.79049 0.38842 -4.610 4.03e-06 ***
Signif. codes:
0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
```

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Final Exercise

In this last exercise we will use a simulated data set which contains:

- sex: Sex status variable
- bmi: Body Mass Index variable
- age: Individual's Age variable
- exposure: Continuous exposure variable

Final Exercise - Preliminary

- Read and Inspect data (myData.txt). Save the data in a R object named myData.
- Transform to factor the variable sex (male as reference level).
- Add to myData a dichotomization of exposure, named Ebin, as a factor with levels low(reference level) and high with the threshold in the median.

Final Exercise - Univariate descriptive

- For quantitative variables compute: min, pct 2.5%, median, mean, pct 97.5%, max, sd, N and histograms.
- For qualitative variables compute: relative frequencies, percentages and Barplots or Pie charts.

Final Exercise - Bivariate descriptive

Perform:

- A contingence table for Ebin and sex.
- A scatter plot between exposure and bmi.

Final Exercise - Inference

Reproduce and Interpret:

- A correlation test between exposure and bmi.
- A normality test for exposure.

Final Exercise - GLM

- Fit a GLM with bmi as the response and exposure as the explanatory variable, adjusting for sex and age as possible confounders. Save this model in a R object named mod1.
- Explore objects in mod1 and in summary (mod1). Interpret the results.

Final Exercise - GLM

- Fit a GLM with dichotomic Ebin as the response (logistic regression) and bmi as the explanatory variable, adjusting for sex and age as possible confounders. Save this model in a R object named mod2.
- Explore objects in mod2 and in summary (mod2). Interpret the results.