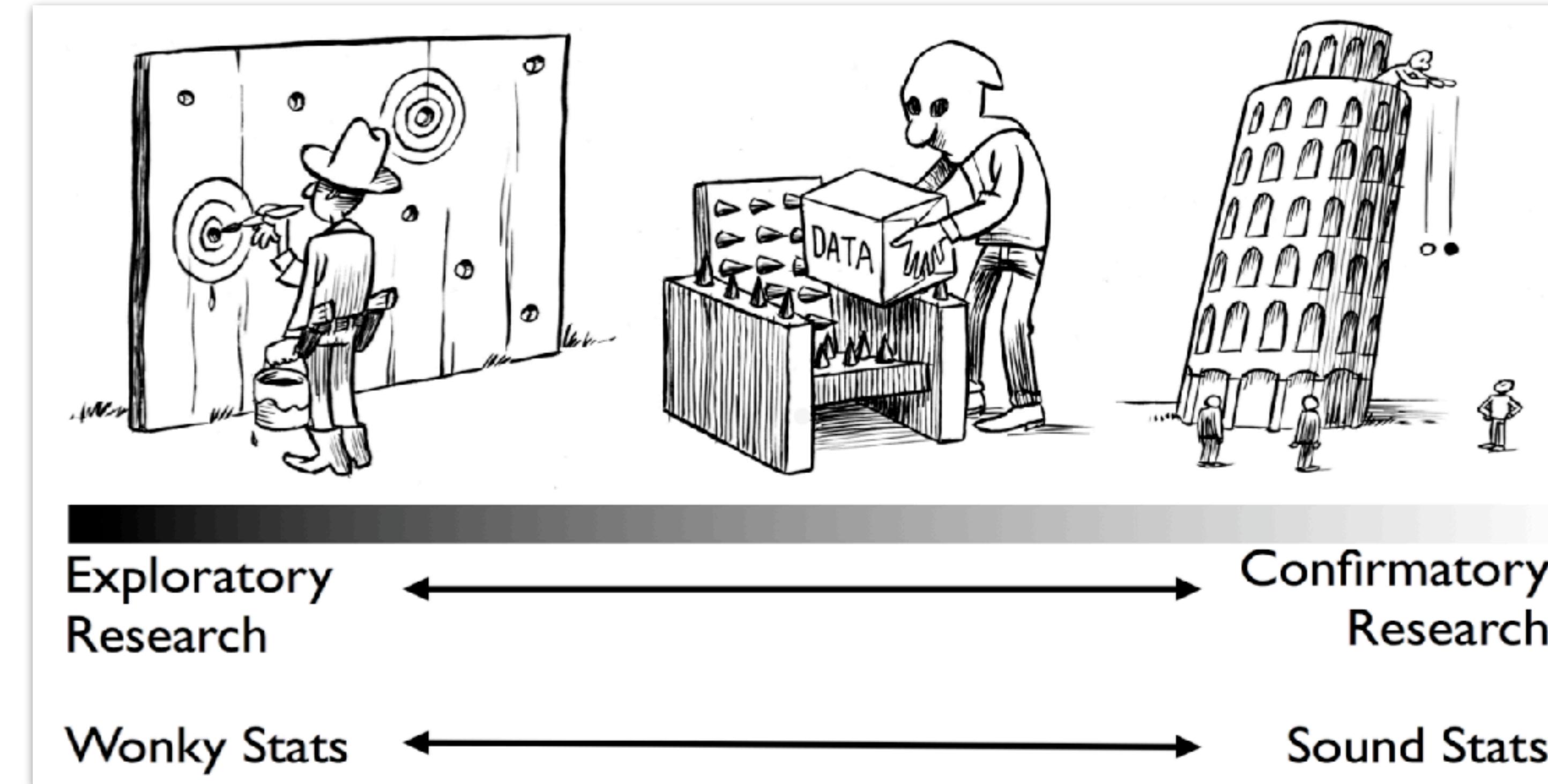


Power analysis



Logistics

This week

no class on Wednesday (more time to work on midterm)

no sections

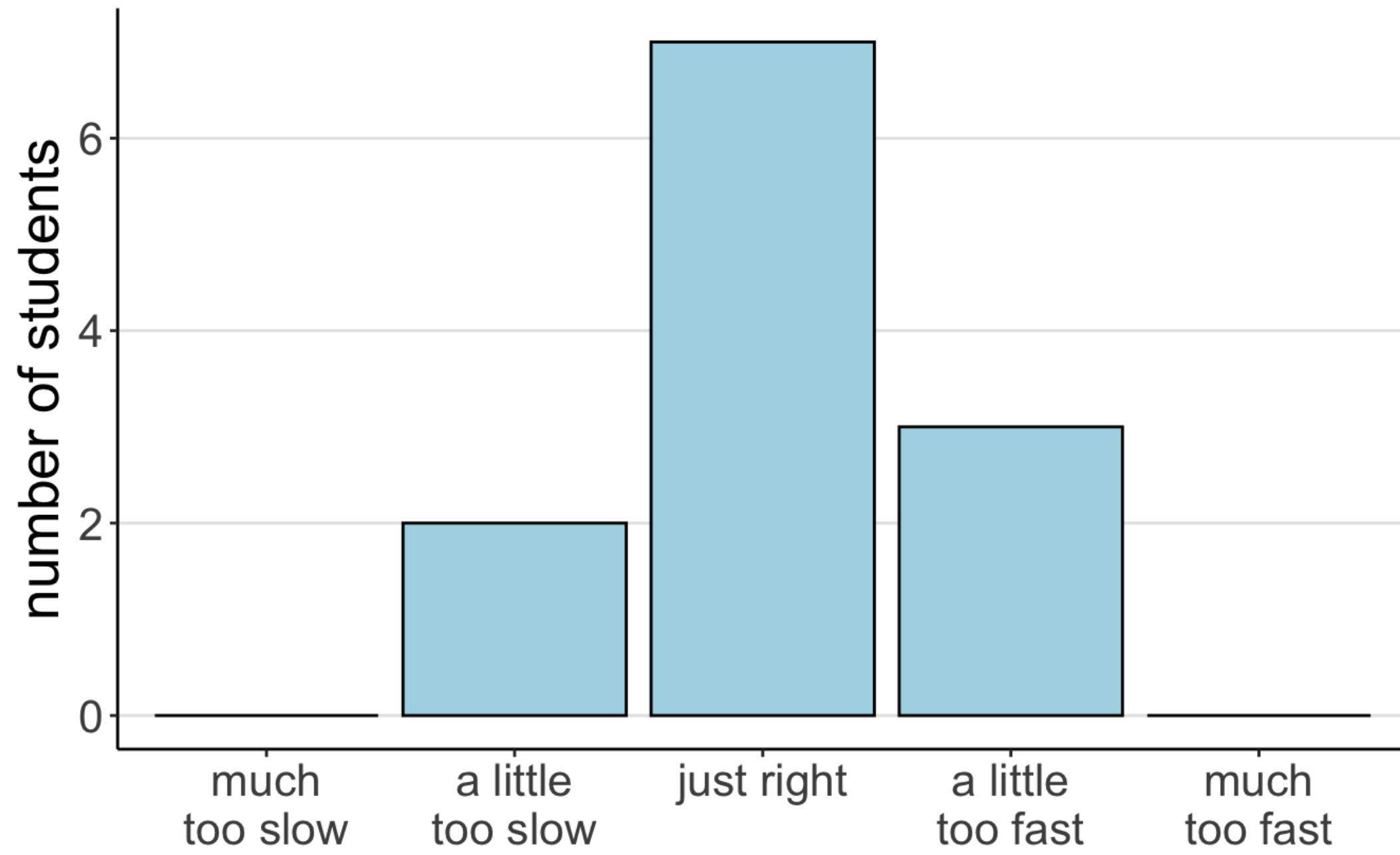
no office hours (at least not for questions about the midterm)

midterm is due **Friday 14th at 8pm** ❤️

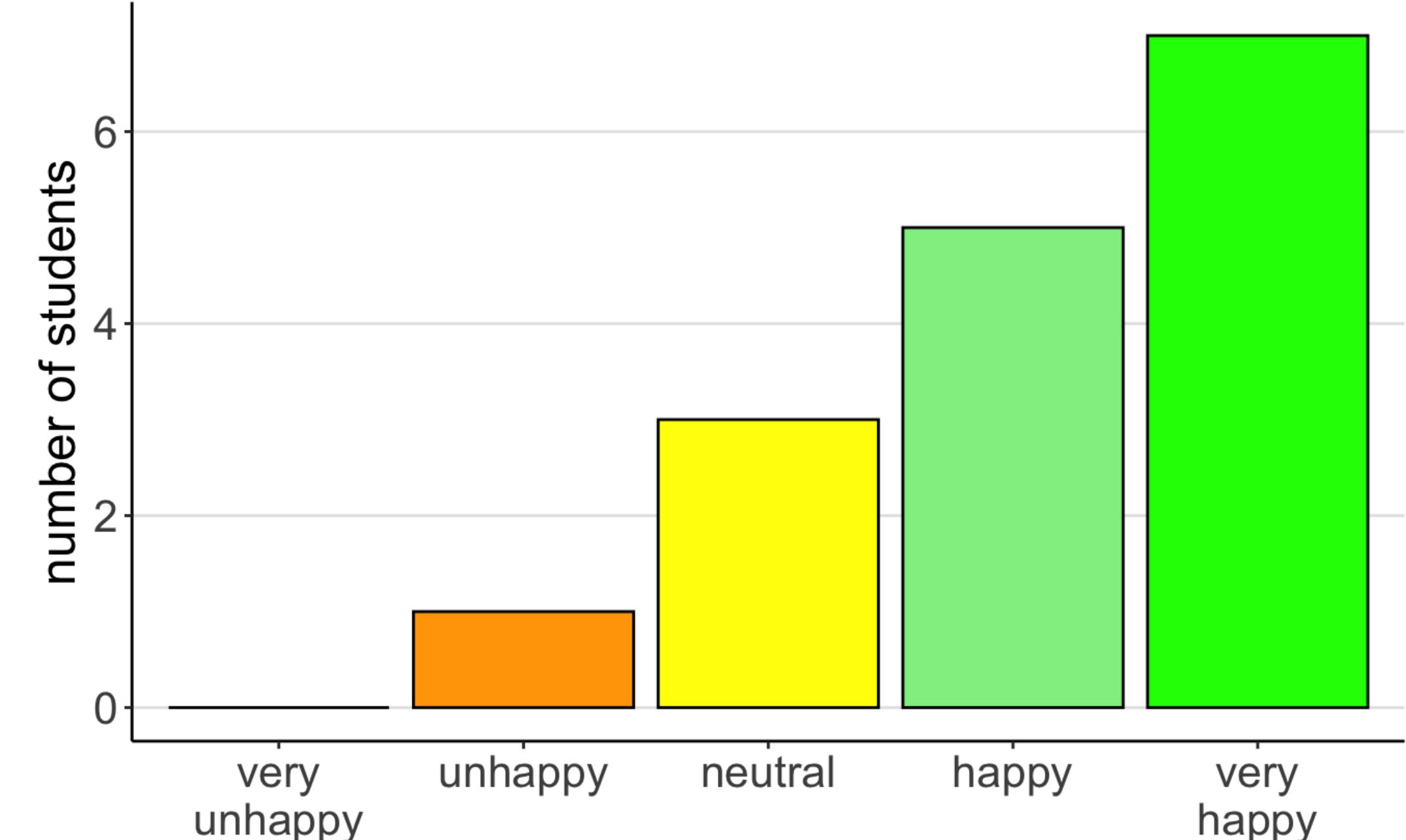
Feedback

Feedback

How was the pace of today's class?



How happy were you with today's class overall?



thanks for responding questions so clearly :)

Today was the first day I felt **lost in the details** and wasn't sure **what exactly to take away** from the lecture.

I was a little distracted by how long the question and answers were, but understand that's a difficult balance to strike.

It would be great if at the end of each statistical test, or at least some, you could **interpret as you would when writing it for a publication**.

Is there any way we could also **put maths equations** in just to explain some of the things we are going through in class? Sometimes I get what it means theoretically but still wanna get a glimpse of how it really works underneath the code.

Things that came up

Correcting for multiple comparisons



First, he wrote, she should break up the diners into all kinds of groups: "males, females, lunch goers, dinner goers, people sitting alone, people eating with groups of 2, people eating in groups of 2+, people who order alcohol, people who order soft drinks, people who sit close to buffet, people who sit far away, and so on..."

He concluded on an encouraging note: "Work hard, squeeze some blood out of this rock, and we'll see you soon."

<https://www.buzzfeednews.com/article/stephaniemlee/brian-wansink-cornell-p-hacking>

Correcting for multiple comparisons

For each statistical test, we have a 5% chance that we're incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis.

If we run many such tests, the overall likelihood of incorrectly rejecting at least one null hypothesis increases.

Two solutions:

- 1) pre-registering our hypotheses
- 2) correcting for multiple comparisons

Bonferroni correction: $\frac{\alpha}{m}$ m = number of tests

R often just multiplies the p-value by m

Correcting for multiple comparisons

exploratory analyses:

- estimate effect sizes (e.g. correlation coefficients, differences between groups, etc.)
- don't do inferential statistics (don't report p-values)
- reason: you could be running many many tests ($m = \infty$), so nothing would ever be significant once correcting for multiple comparisons

$$\frac{\alpha}{m} \approx 0$$

confirmatory analyses:

- pre-register your analysis
- conduct frequentist tests, reporting p-values
- pre-register criteria for rejecting null hypotheses (one sided / two sided tests?, $p < .05$ or $p < .01$)



Wagenmakers, E.-J., Wetzels, R., Borsboom, D., van der Maas, H. L. J., & Kievit, R. A. (2012). An Agenda for Purely Confirmatory Research. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(6), 632–638.

Exploratory
Research

Wonky Stats



Confirmatory
Research

Sound Stats

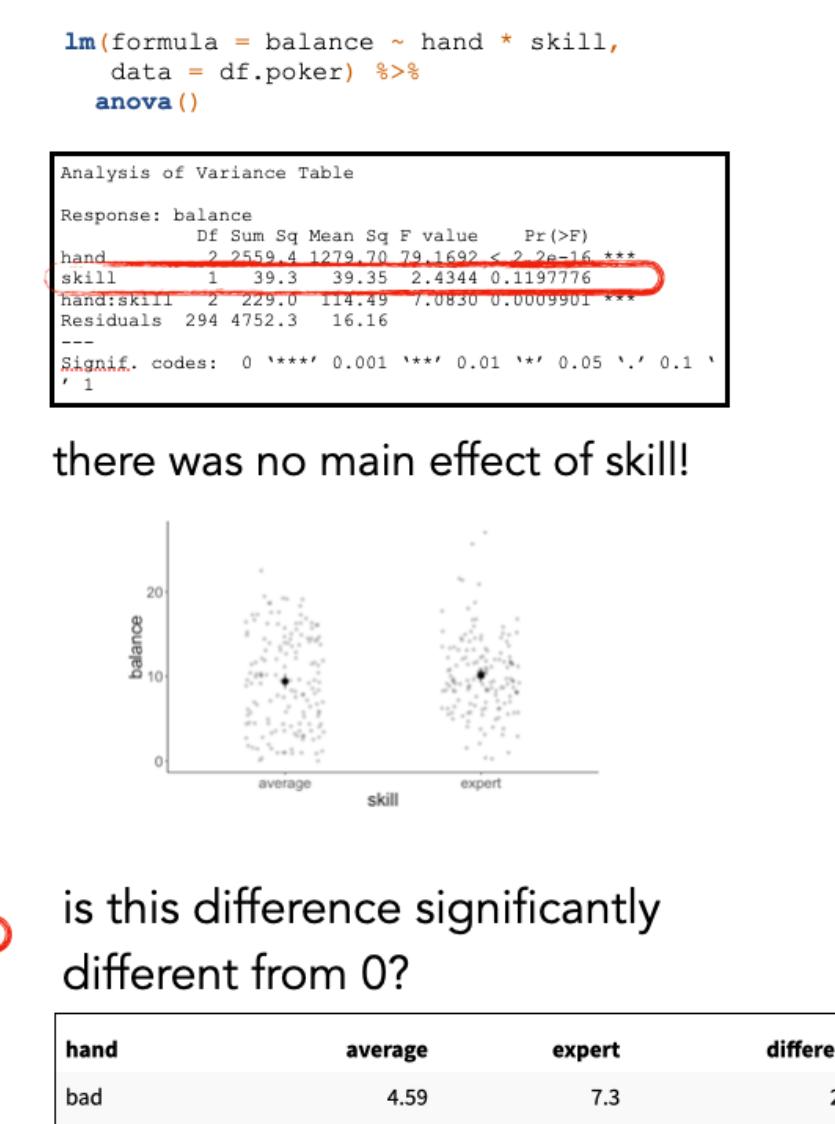
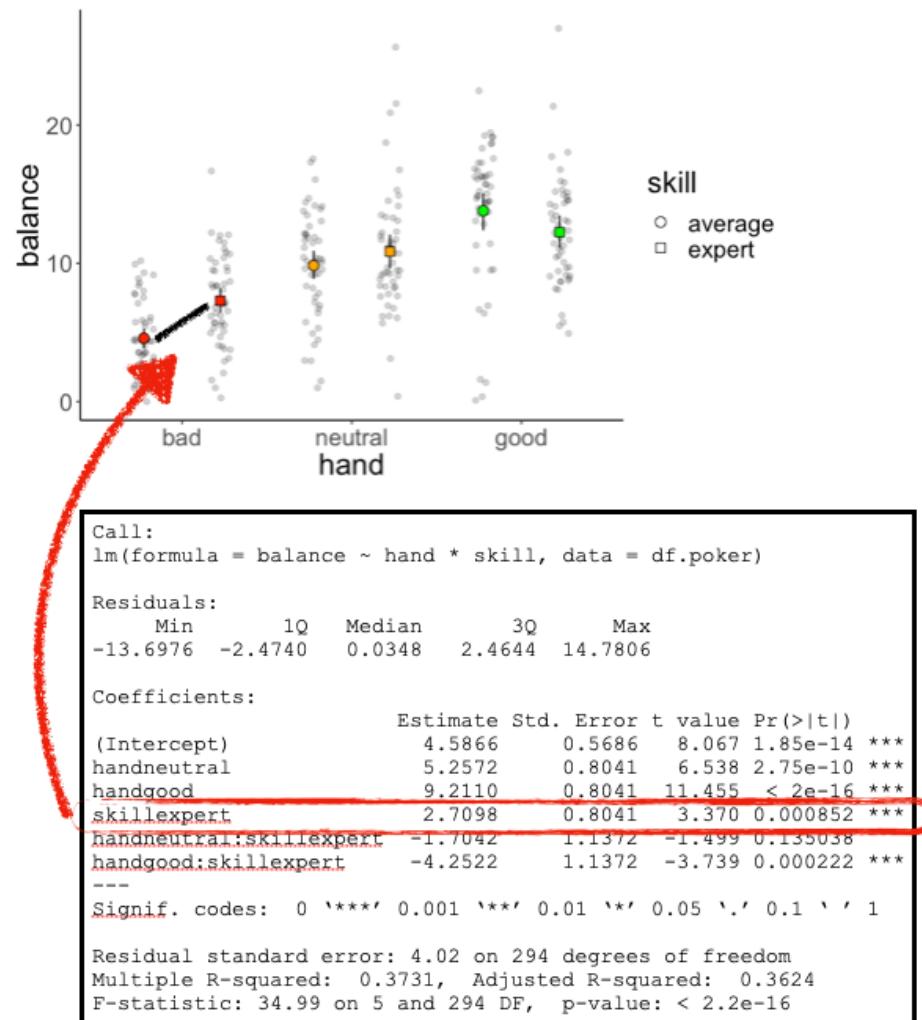
Plan for today

- Quick recap
- Generalized linear model
- Power analysis
 - Making decisions
 - Calculating power
 - Effect sizes
 - Determining sample size

Quick recap

Quick recap: Parameter interpretation

Parameter interpretation



is this difference significantly different from 0?

hand	average	expert	difference
bad	4.59	7.3	2.71

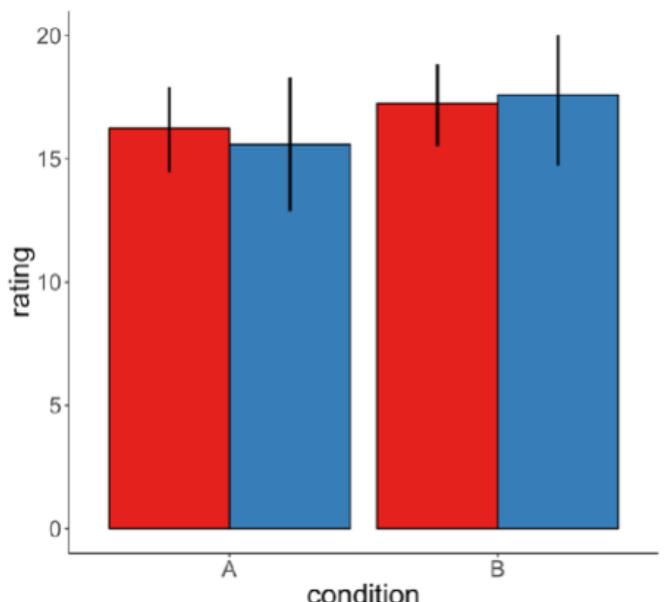
16

Different effect terms

- **main effect:** effect of one independent variable on the dependent variable
- **interaction effect:** when the effect of one independent variable depends on the level of another
- **simple effect:** comparison between two specific cell means

Who is the ANOVA champ?

Which effects are significant?



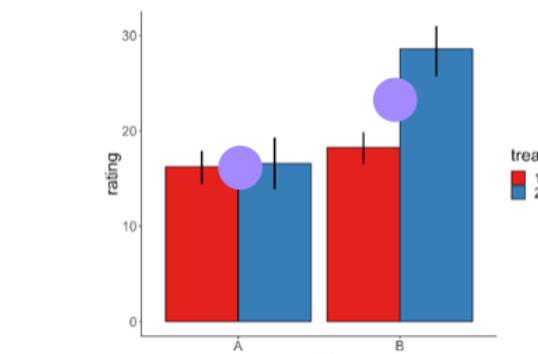
Condition	
Treatment	
Condition x Treatment	interaction effect
Condition, Treatment	two main effects
Condition, Condition x Treatment	
Treatment, Condition x Treatment	
Condition, Treatment, Condition x Treatment	



The winner gets chocolate!

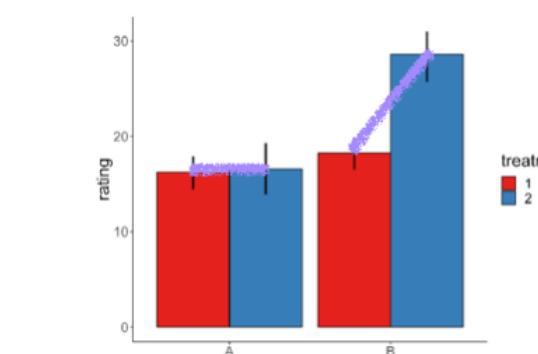
Solution

to detect main effects, try to visualize what the averaged group means would look like



main effect of condition

to detect interaction effects, try to visualize whether the slopes are different from each other



interaction effect

21

31

12

Quick recap: Unbalanced designs

Beware of unbalanced designs

```
1 lm(formula = balance ~ skill + hand, data = df.poker.unbalanced) %>%
2   anova()
```

Analysis of Variance Table					
Response: balance					
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
skill	1	74.3	74.28	4.2904	0.03922 *
hand	2	2385.1	1192.57	68.8827	<2e-16 ***
Residuals	286	4951.5	17.31		

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

flipped the order

```
1 lm(formula = balance ~ hand + skill, data = df.poker.unbalanced) %>%
2   anova()
```

Analysis of Variance Table					
Response: balance					
	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
hand	2	2419.8	1209.92	69.8845	<2e-16 ***
skill	1	39.6	39.59	2.2867	0.1316
Residuals	286	4951.5	17.31		

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

34

Type I Sums of Squares

Type I Sums of Squares are Sequential, so the order of variables in the models makes a difference. This is rarely what we want in practice!

Sums of Squares are Mathematically defined as:

- SS(A) for independent variable A
- SS(B | A) for independent variable B
- SS(AB | B, A) for the interaction effect

A

caution: this is what anova () uses by default

Type III Sums of Squares

The Type III Sums of Squares are also called partial sums of squares again another way of computing Sums of Squares:

- Like Type II, the Type III Sums of Squares are not sequential, so the order of specification does not matter.
- Unlike Type II, the Type III Sums of Squares do specify an interaction effect.

Sums of Squares are Mathematically defined as:

- SS(A | B, AB) for independent variable A
- SS(B | A, AB) for independent variable B

Unbalanced design

- There are different kinds of ANOVAs, for which the sums of squares are calculated differently.
- This makes a difference when we have an unbalanced design (i.e. the number of participants is not the same for each cell in our design).

this is the default in the literature (e.g. SPSS, SAS, Stata etc use it)

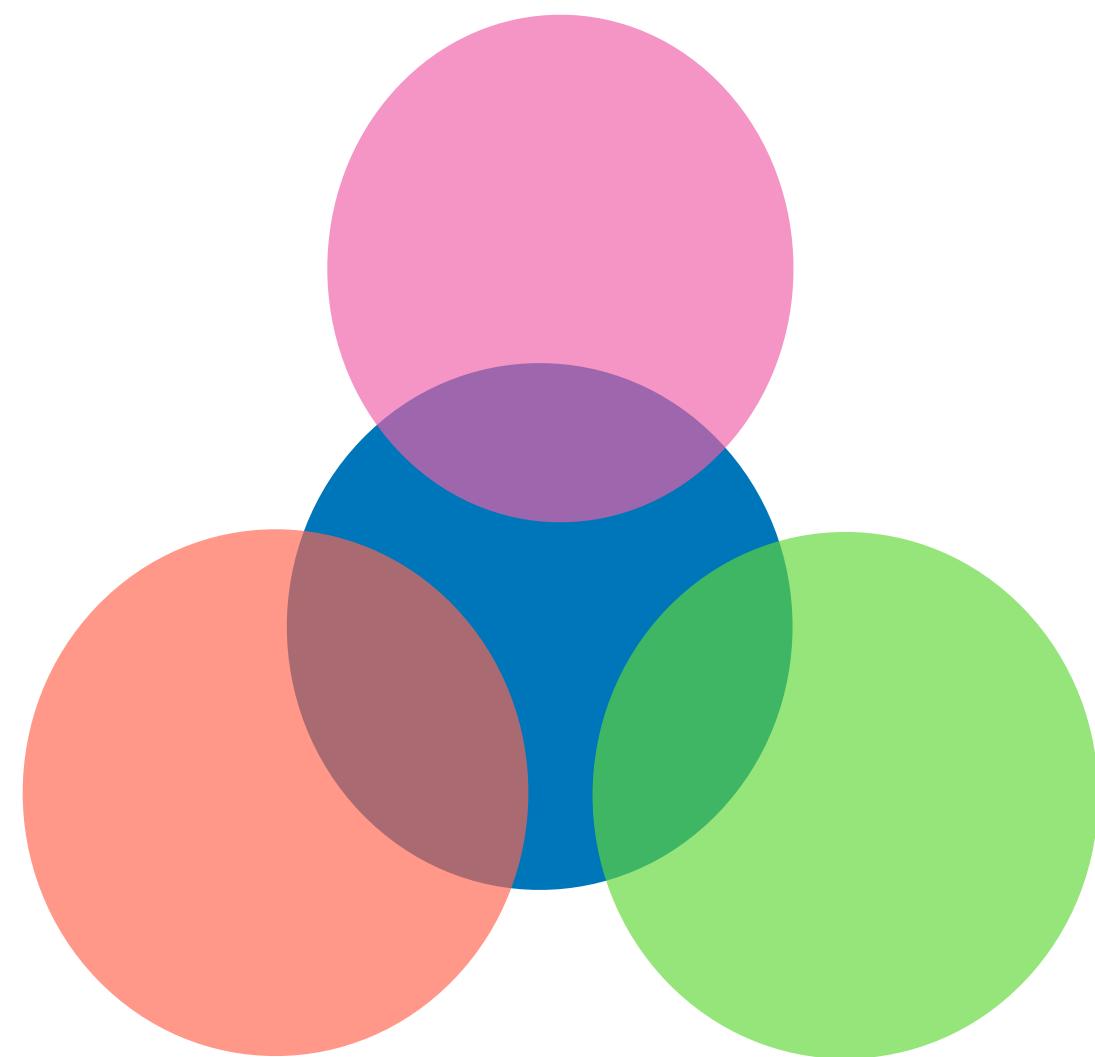
38

joint_tests () is your friend!

13

Quick recap: Unbalanced designs

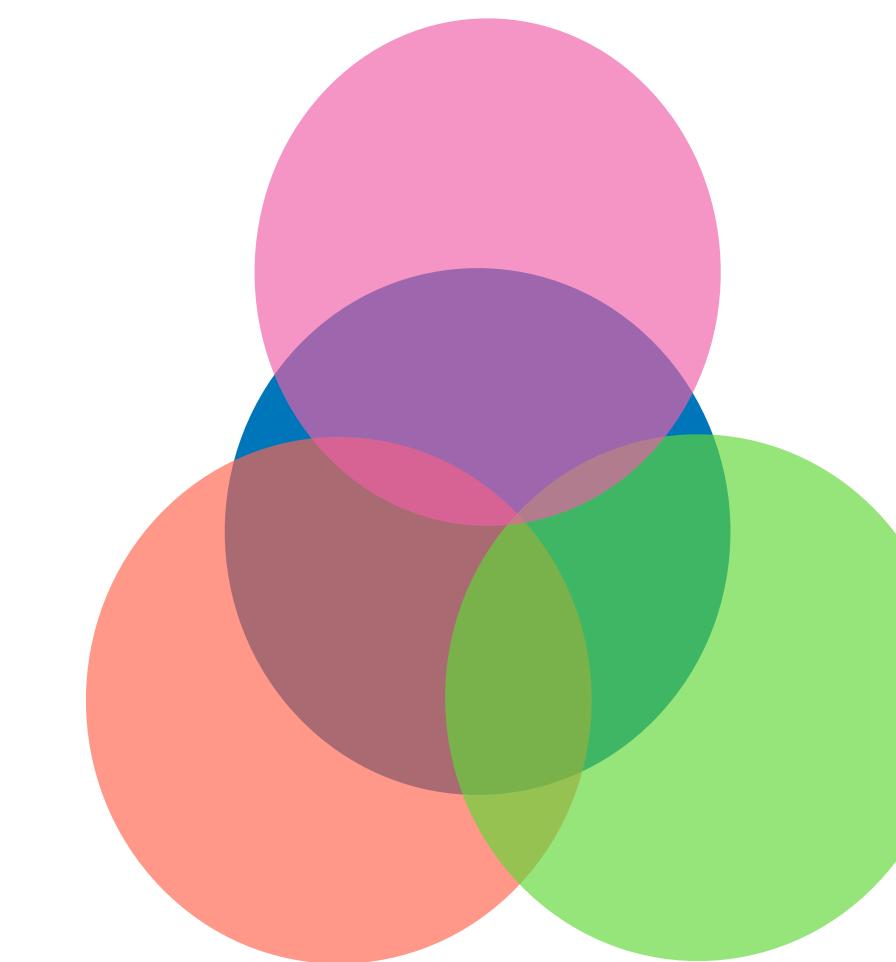
balanced designs



predictors are **uncorrelated**
(when we use sum contrasts to
code categorical variables)

**order of entering predictors
doesn't matter ...**

unbalanced designs

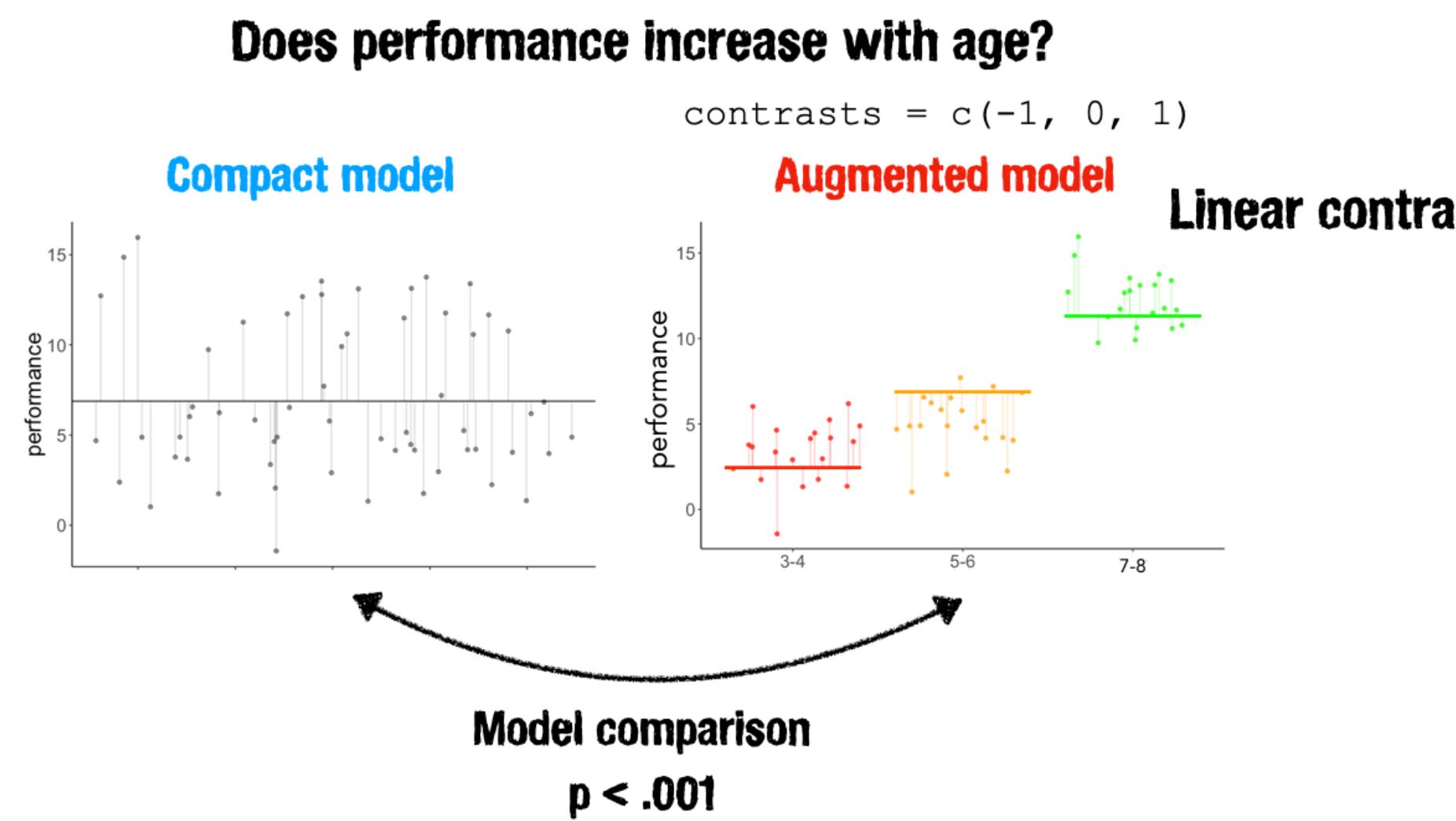


predictors are **correlated**

**order of entering predictors would
matter, so use Type 3 sums of
squares**

Quick recap: Linear contrasts

Contrasts



Linear contrasts in R

```
1 library("emmeans") # for calculating contrasts
2
3 # fit the linear model
4 fit = lm(formula = performance ~ group,
5           data = df.development)
6
7 # check factor levels
8 levels(df.development$group) [1] "3-4" "5-6" "7-8"
9
10 # define the contrasts of interest
11 contrasts = list(young_vs_old = c(-0.5, -0.5, 1),
12                   three_vs_five = c(-0.5, 0.5, 0))
13
14 # compute significance test on contrasts
15 fit %>%
16   emmeans("group",
17           contr = contrasts,
18           adjust = "bonferroni") %>%
19   pluck("contrasts")
```

compute the results

```
[1] "3-4" "5-6" "7-8"
contrast   estimate    SE df t.ratio p.value
young_vs_old 16.093541 0.4742322 57 33.936 <.0001
three_vs_five  1.606009 0.5475962 57  2.933  0.0097
P value adjustment: bonferroni method for 2 tests
```

Defining contrasts

- groups that we don't want to include in the comparison get a 0
- groups that we want to compare with one another should sum to 0
- this also means that all the contrasts together should sum to 0

Example:

```
contrasts = list(young_vs_old = c(-1, -1, 2),
                 three_vs_five = c(-1, 1, 0))
```

46

53

15

Generalized linear model

Titanic dataset



Titanic data set

891 passengers

passenger_id	survived	pclass	name	sex	age	sib_sp	parch	ticket	fare	cabin	embarked
1	0	3	Braund, Mr. Owen Harris	male	22	1	0	A/5 21171	7.25		S
2	1	1	Cumings, Mrs. John Bradley (Florence Briggs)	female	38	1	0	PC 17599	71.28	C85	C
3	1	3	Heikkinen, Miss. Laina	female	26	0	0	STON/O2. 3101282	7.92		S
4	1	1	Futrelle, Mrs. Jacques Heath (Lily May Peel)	female	35	1	0	113803	53.10	C123	S
5	0	3	Allen, Mr. William Henry	male	35	0	0	373450	8.05		S
6	0	3	Moran, Mr. James	male	NA	0	0	330877	8.46		Q
7	0	1	McCarthy, Mr. Timothy J	male	54	0	0	17463	51.86	E46	S
8	0	3	Palsson, Master. Gosta Leonard	male	2	3	1	349909	21.07		S
9	1	3	Johnson, Mrs. Oscar W (Elisabeth)	female	27	0	2	347742	11.13		S
10	1	2	Nasser, Mrs. Nicholas (Adele Achem)	female	14	1	0	237736	30.07		C

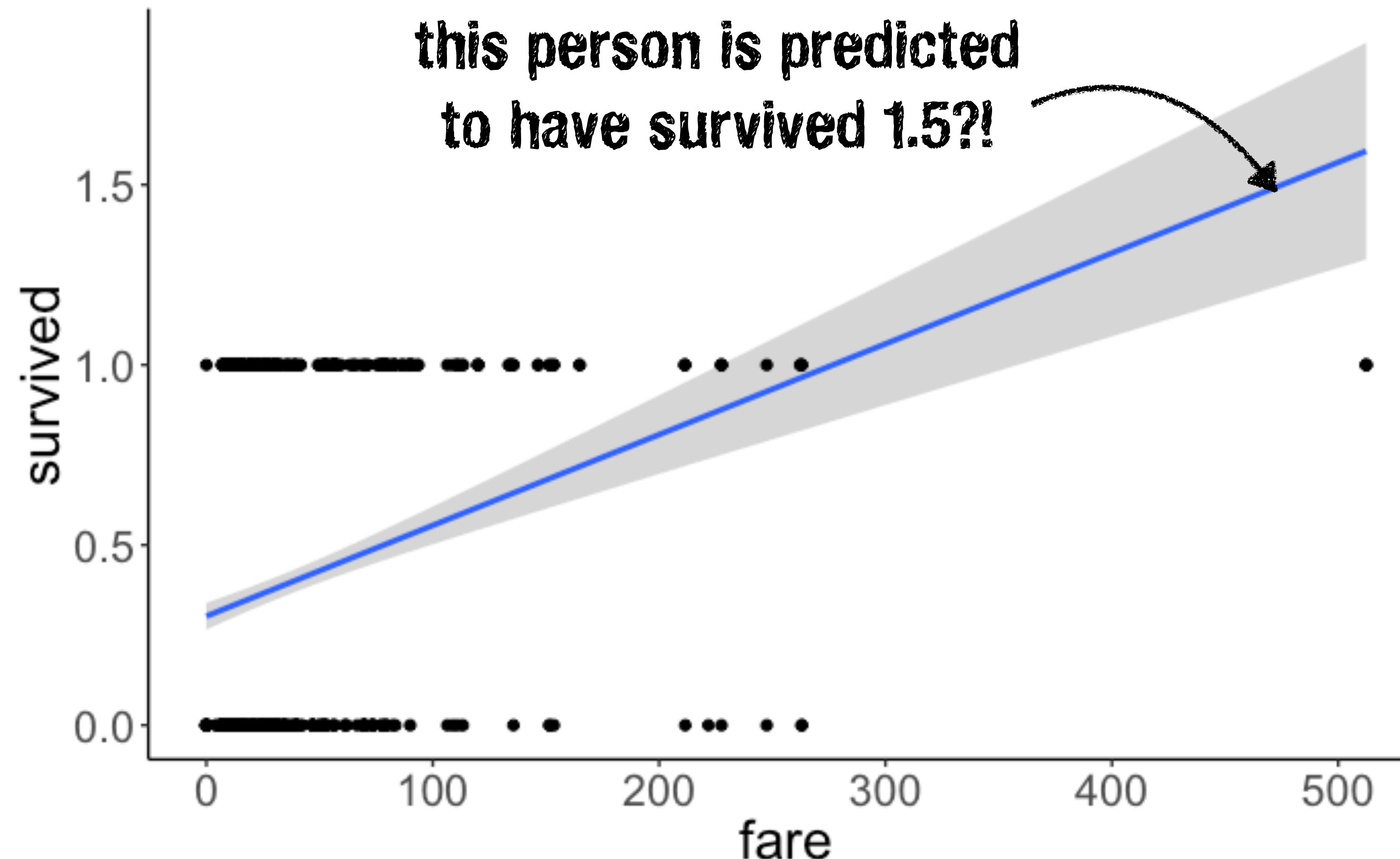
Is there a relationship between fare and survived?

```
1 fit.lm = lm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare,  
2               data = df.titanic)  
3  
4 fit.lm %>% summary()
```

```
Call:  
lm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, data = df.titanic)  
  
Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max  
-0.9653 -0.3391 -0.3222  0.6044  0.6973  
  
Coefficients:  
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)  
(Intercept) 0.3026994  0.0187849 16.114 < 2e-16 ***  
fare        0.0025195  0.0003174  7.939 6.12e-15 ***  
---  
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
  
Residual standard error: 0.4705 on 889 degrees of freedom  
Multiple R-squared:  0.06621, Adjusted R-squared:  0.06516  
F-statistic: 63.03 on 1 and 889 DF,  p-value: 6.12e-15
```

How should we interpret this parameter?

Is there a relationship between fare and survived?



Generalized linear model

- so far, we have only looked at situations where our dependent variable was continuous
- what about situations in which we have a binary dependent variable?
 - survived vs. died
 - correct vs. incorrect
 - benign vs. malignant
 - yes vs. no
 - ...



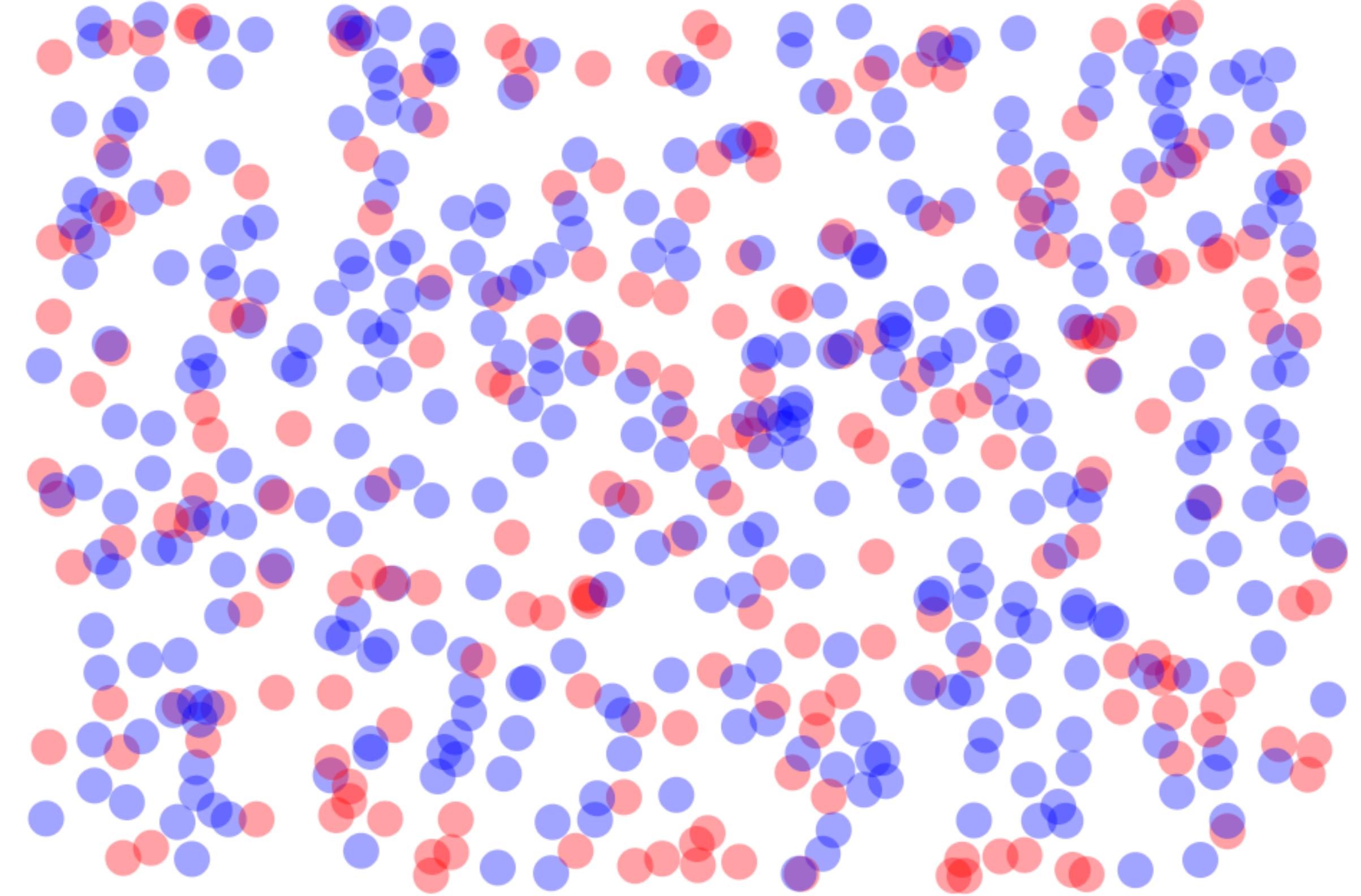
Logistic regression

Demo

[Introduction](#) [Data](#) [Modeling](#) [Predictions](#) [Thresholds](#) [Accuracy](#) [Vocab](#) [Sensitivity](#) [Specificity](#) [ROC](#) [About](#)

Binary Predictions Metrics

This visual explanation introduces the metrics of model fit used when predicting of **binary outcomes**. It uses the challenge of classifying tumors as **benign** or **malignant** to explore the importance of these metrics.



<http://mfviz.com/binary-predictions/>

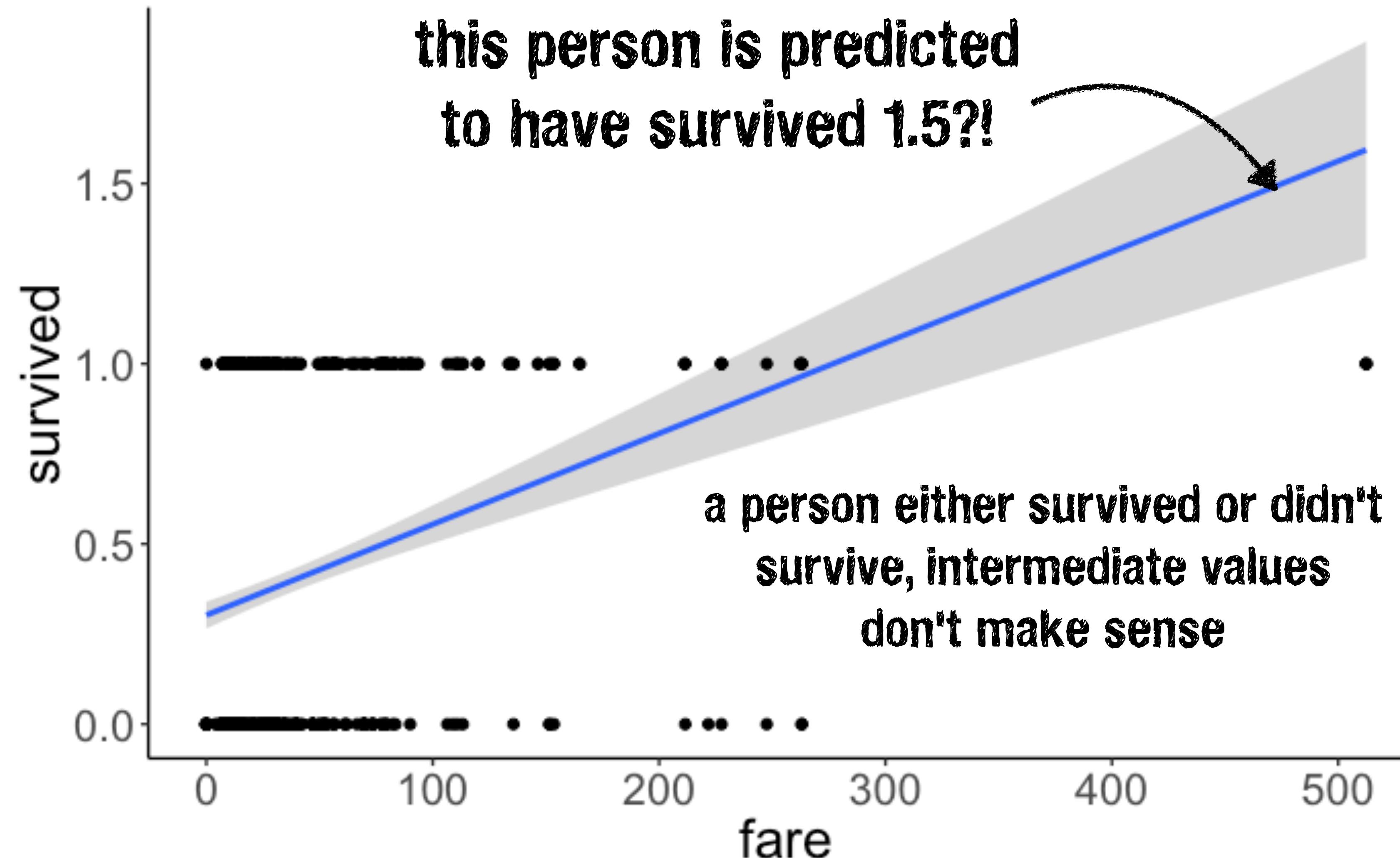
Is there a relationship between fare and survived?

Can we still use a linear model to make predictions about a binary outcome variable?

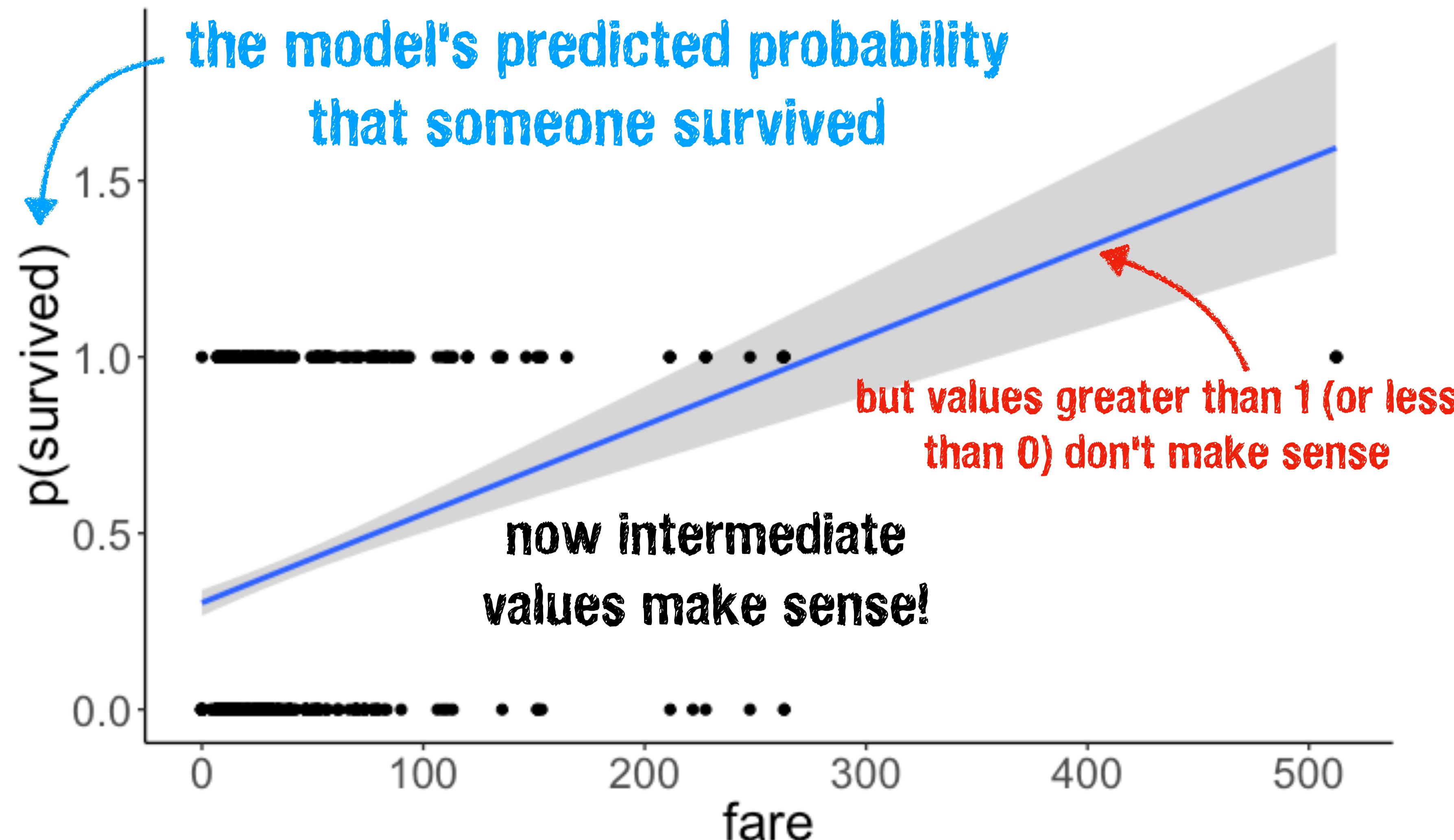
The fact that this class is called "**Generalized linear model**" suggests we can!

Is there a relationship between fare and survived?

```
fit.lm = lm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, data = df.titanic)
```



Is there a relationship between fare and survived?



From linear regression to logistic regression

$$Y_i = b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i + e_i \quad \text{predict the value of Y}$$

$$\pi_i = b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i \quad \text{predict the probability of Y}$$

$$\pi_i = P(Y_i = 1) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{let's just do a} \\ \text{logit transform} \end{matrix}$$

we need to map from $[-\infty, +\infty]$ to $[0, 1]$

Logit transform

$$\pi_i = b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i$$

$$\pi_i = P(Y_i = 1)$$

Step 1: Calculate the "odds"

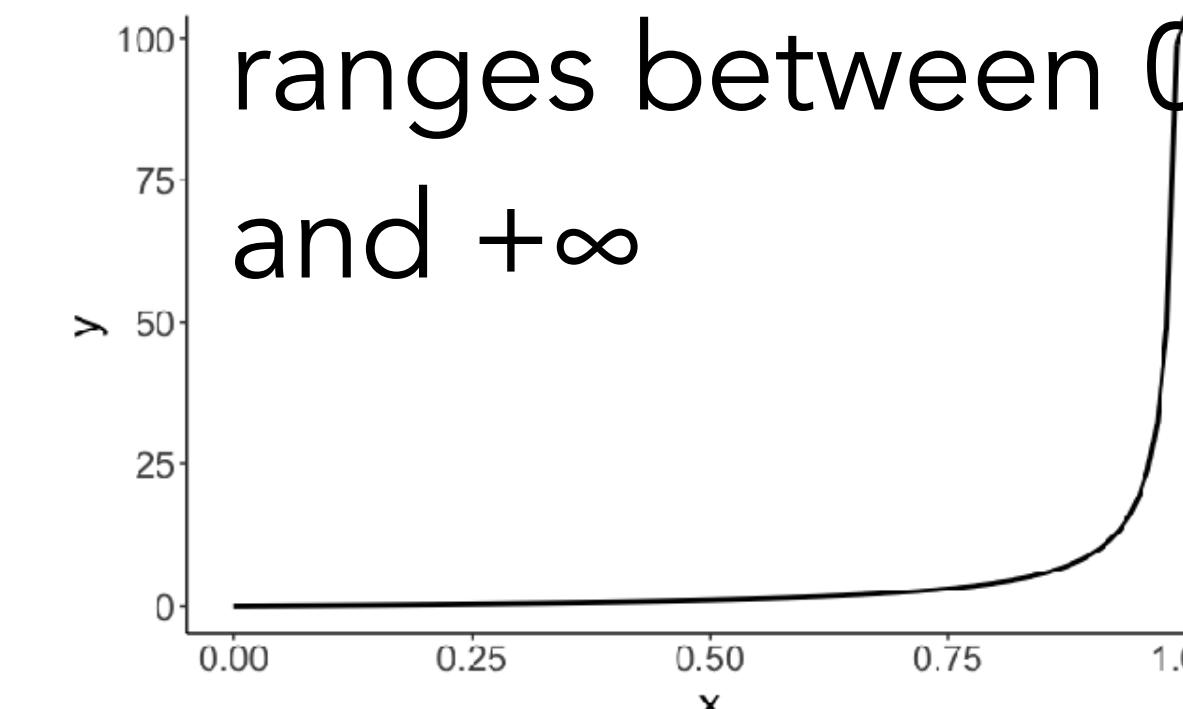
$$\frac{P(Y_i = 1)}{P(Y_i = 0)} = \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}$$

Step 2: Take the (natural) log

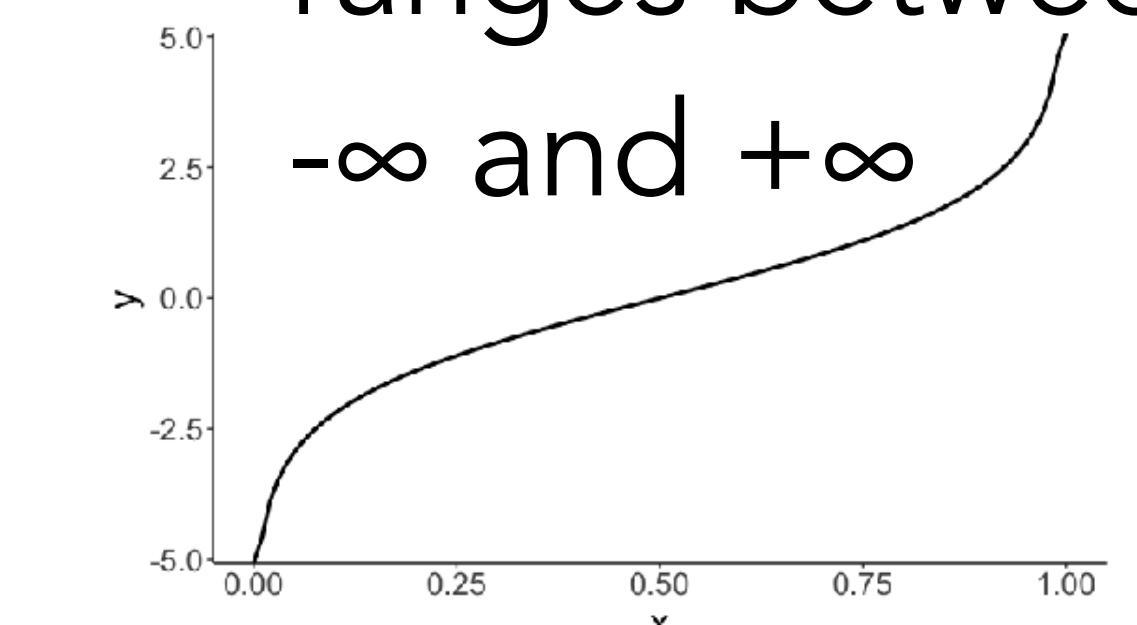
$$\ln\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i$$

predict the probability of Y

we need to transform the dependent variable so that it can take any value between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$ (we can then transform it back into a probability later)



ranges between 0 and $+\infty$



Logit transform

log odds

$$\ln\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i$$

$$\pi_i = P(Y_i = 1)$$

after transforming from a binary variable, to a probability, to odds, to log odds, the model looks like a normal linear model



if log odds == 0: $P(Y_i = 1) = P(Y_i = 0)$

if log odds > 0: $P(Y_i = 1) > P(Y_i = 0)$

if log odds < 0: $P(Y_i = 1) < P(Y_i = 0)$

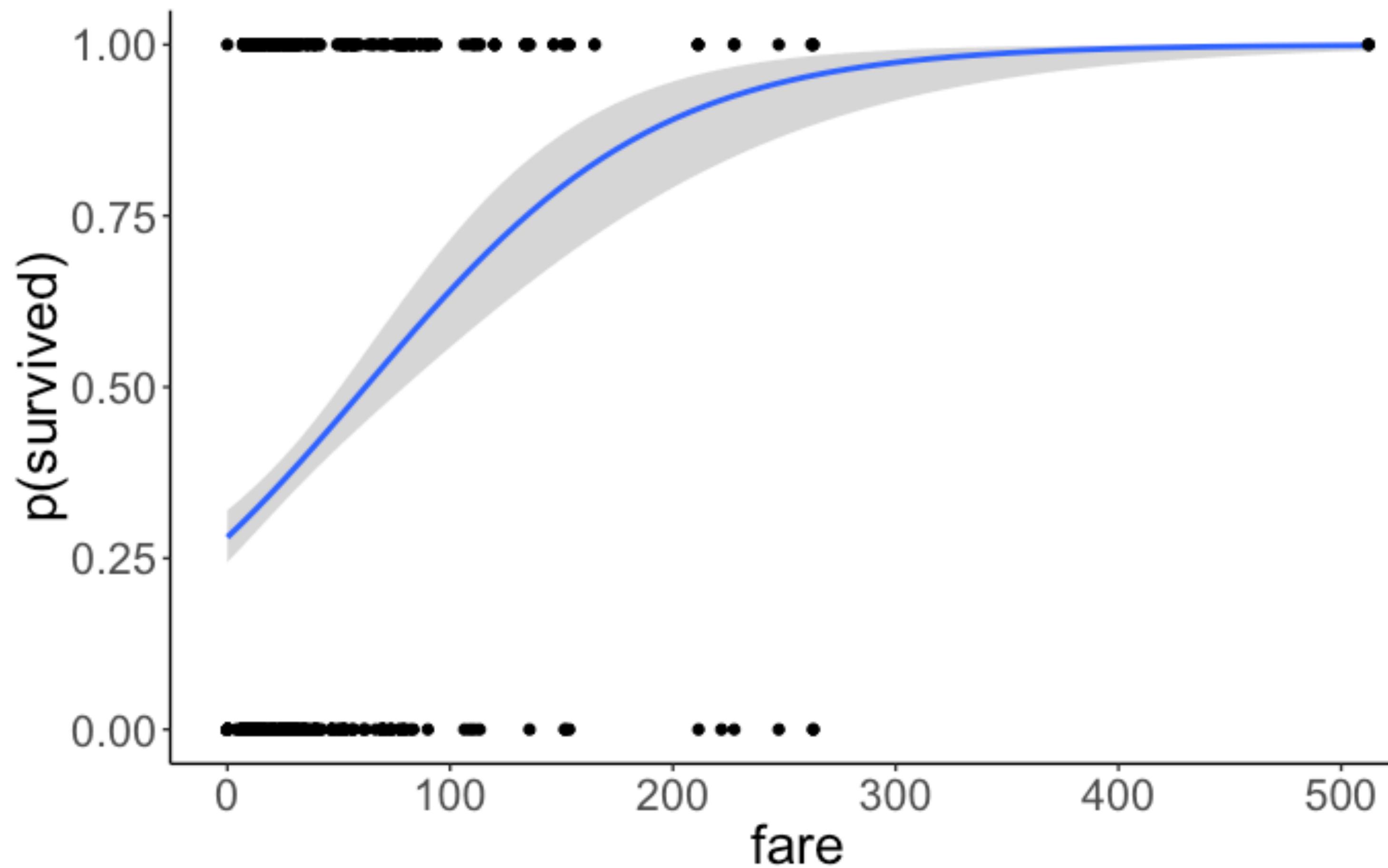
Fitting a logistic regression in R

```
1 fit.glm = glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare,  
2 family = "binomial",  
3 data = df.titanic)  
4  
5 fit.glm %>% summary()
```

```
Call:  
glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, family = "binomial", data = df.titanic)  
  
Deviance Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max  
-2.4906 -0.8878 -0.8531  1.3429  1.5942  
  
Coefficients:  
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)  
(Intercept) -0.941330  0.095129 -9.895 < 2e-16 ***  
fare         0.015197  0.002232  6.810 9.79e-12 ***  
---  
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
  
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)  
  
Null deviance: 1186.7 on 890 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 1117.6 on 889 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 1121.6  
  
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

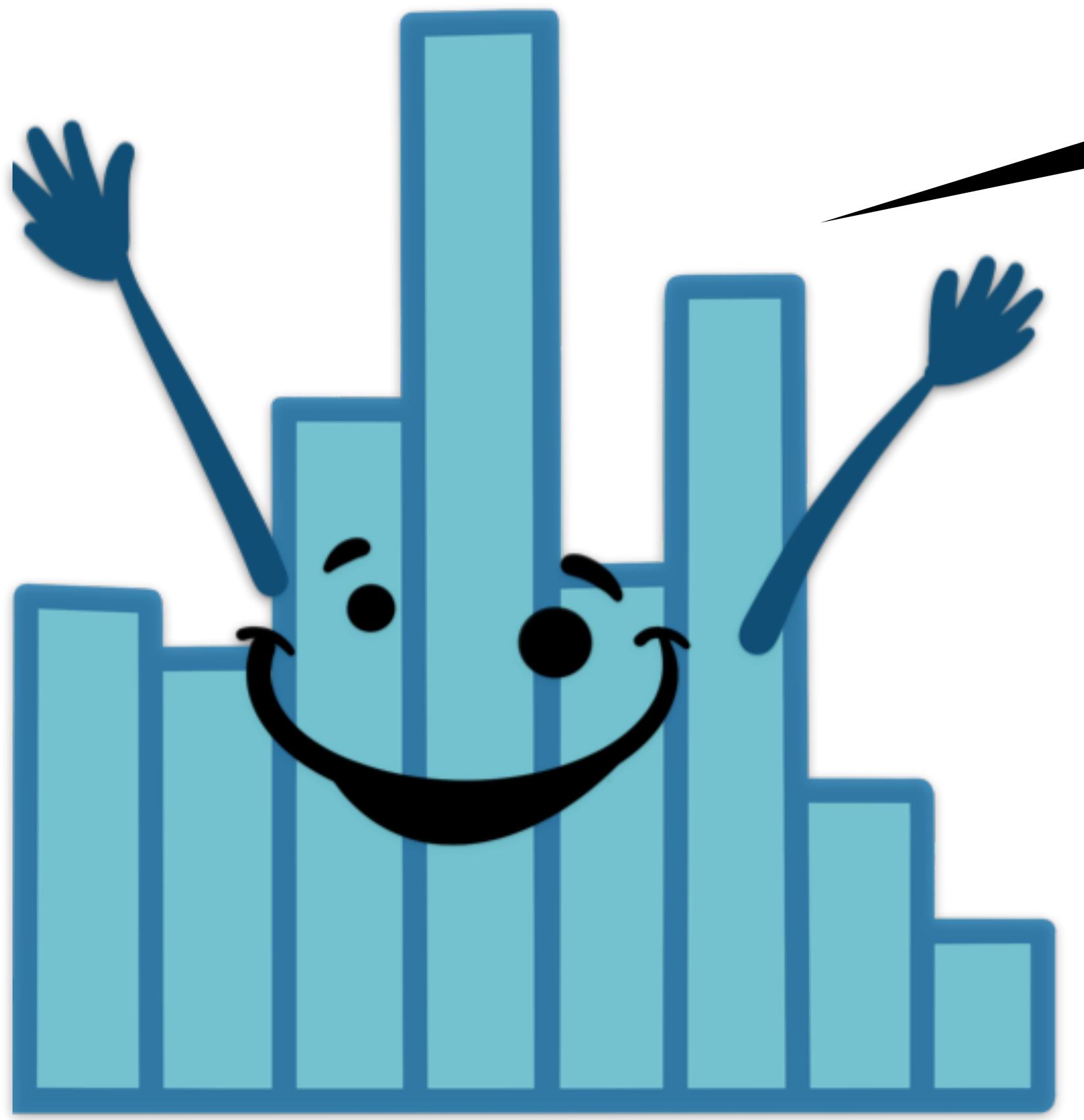
Visualize the model's predictions

```
1 ggplot(data = df.titanic,  
2         mapping = aes(x = fare,  
3                             y = survived)) +  
4     geom_smooth(method = "glm",  
5                  method.args = list(family = "binomial")) +  
6     geom_point() +  
7     labs(y = "p(survived)")
```



02:00

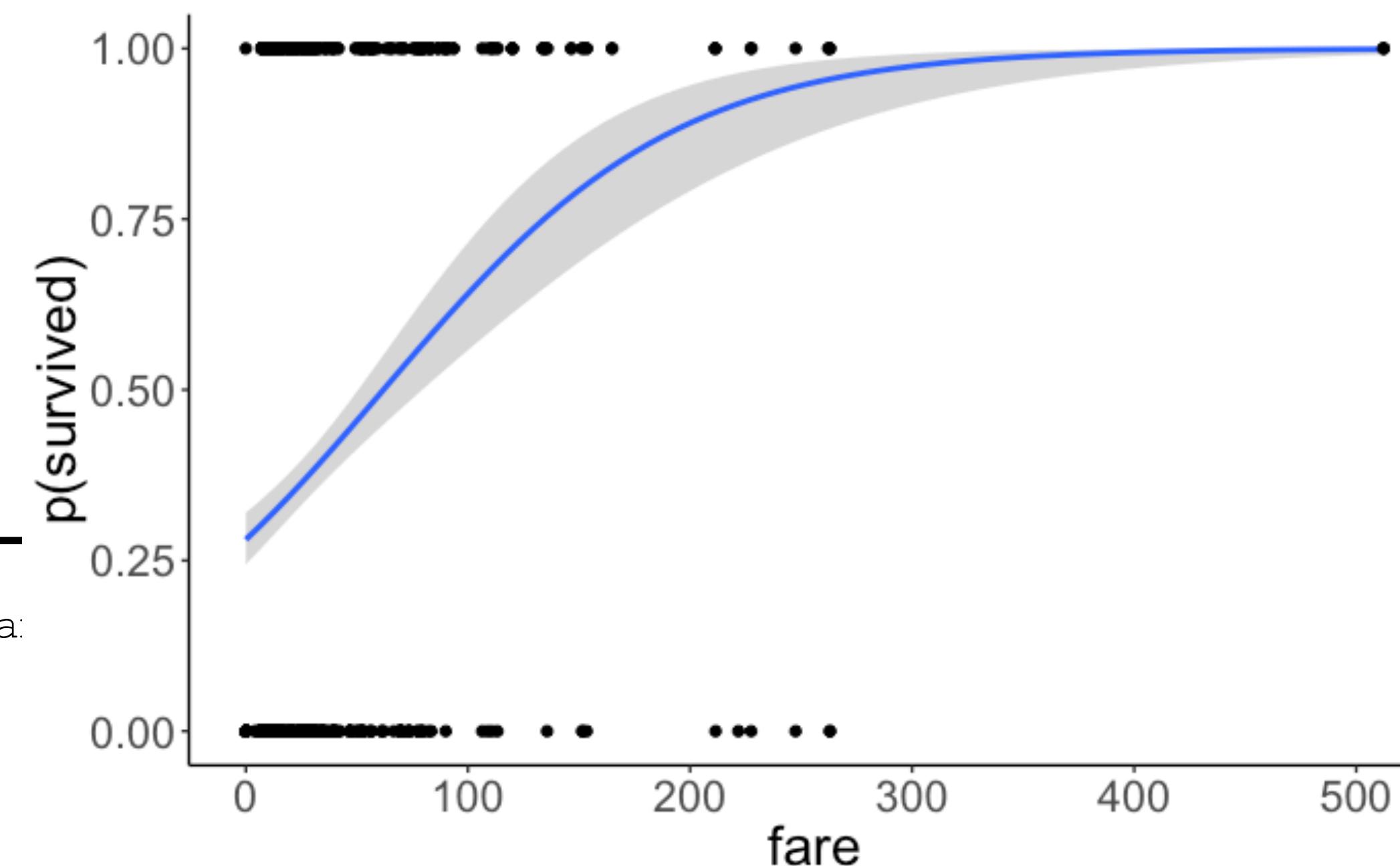
stretch break!



Interpreting the model output

Interpreting the model output

```
Call:  
glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, fa:  
  
Deviance Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q  
-2.4006 -0.8878 -0.853?  1.3429  
  
log odds ?  
Coefficients:  
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)  
(Intercept) -0.941330  0.095129 -9.895 < 2e-16 ***  
fare         0.015197  0.002232   6.810 9.79e-12 ***  
---  
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
  
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)  
  
Null deviance: 1186.7 on 890 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 1117.6 on 889 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 1121.6  
  
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```



Transform log odds into probability

$$\pi = P(Y = 1)$$

just a placeholder

$$\ln\left(\frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}\right) = V$$

logit transformation

$$\pi = \frac{e^V}{1 + e^V}$$

inverse logit

gives us back the probability
(which is much easier to interpret)

$$\pi_i = \frac{e^{b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i}}{1 + e^{b_0 + b_1 \cdot X_i}}$$

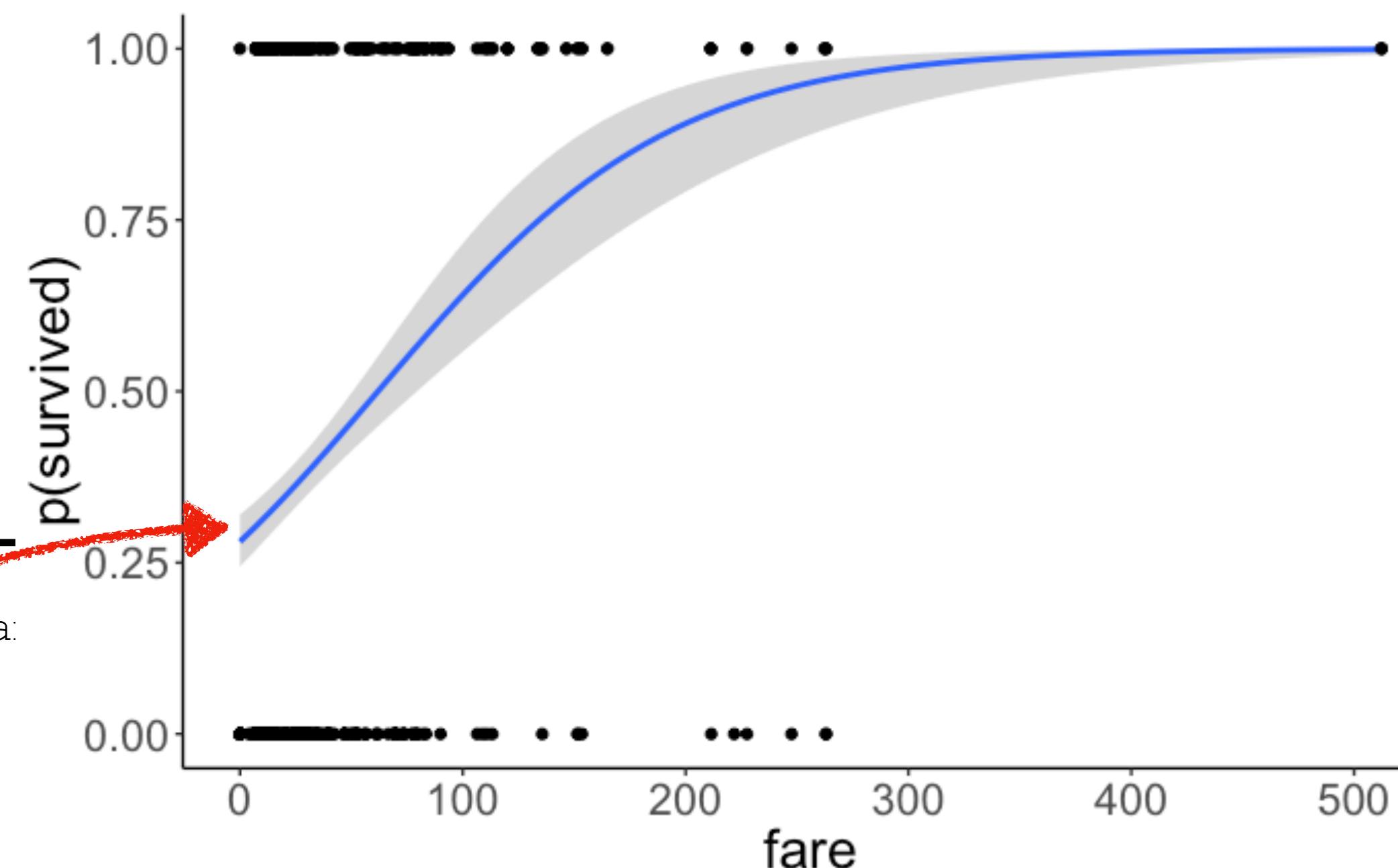
another way to
specify the model

Interpreting the model output

inverse logit

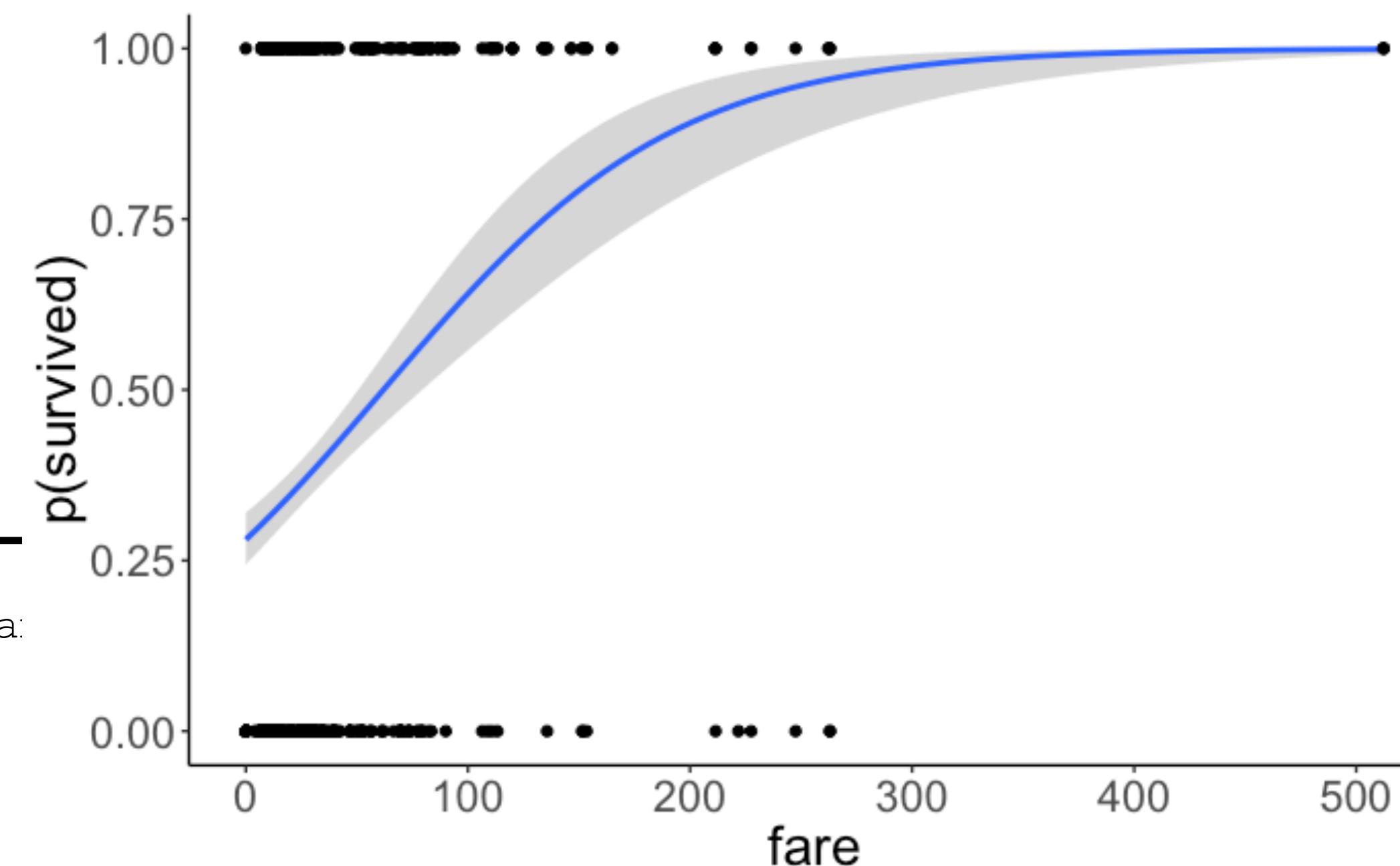
$$\pi = \frac{e^{-0.94}}{1 + e^{-0.94}} \approx 0.28$$

```
Call:  
glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, fa:  
  
Deviance Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q  
-2.4906 -0.8878 -0.8531  1.3429  
  
Coefficients:  
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)  
(Intercept) -0.941330  0.095129 -9.895 < 2e-16 ***  
fare          0.015197  0.002232   6.810 9.79e-12 ***  
---  
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
  
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)  
  
Null deviance: 1186.7 on 890 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 1117.6 on 889 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 1121.6  
  
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```



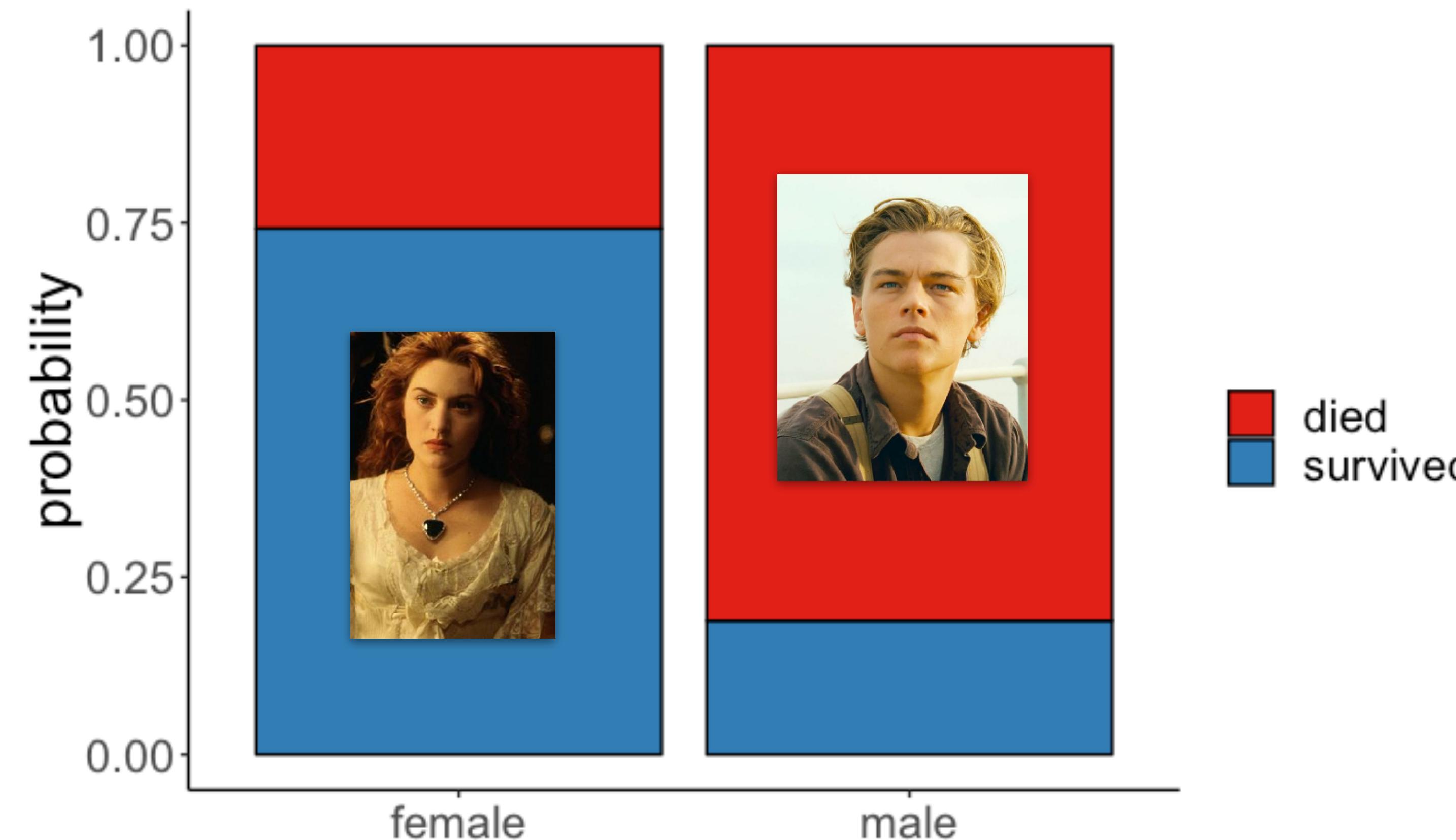
Interpreting the model output

```
Call:  
glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare, fa:  
  
Deviance Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q  
-2.4906 -0.8878 -0.8521  1.3429  
  
Coefficients:  
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)  
(Intercept) -0.941330  0.095129 -9.895 < 2e-16 ***  
fare          0.015197  0.002232   6.810 9.79e-12 ***  
---  
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1  
  
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)  
  
Null deviance: 1186.7 on 890 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 1117.6 on 889 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 1121.6  
  
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```



Let's consider a binary predictor

Was the probability of survival different between female and male passengers on the Titanic?



Let's consider a binary predictor

```
1 fit.glm2 = glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + sex,  
2 family = "binomial",  
3 data = df.titanic)  
4  
5 fit.glm2 %>% summary()
```

```
Call:  
glm(formula = survived ~ sex, family = "binomial", data = df.titanic)  
  
Deviance Residuals:  
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q      Max  
-1.6462 -0.6471 -0.6471  0.7725  1.8256  
  
Coefficients:  
            Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)  
(Intercept)  1.0566    0.1290   8.191 2.58e-16 ***  
sexmale     -2.5137    0.1672 -15.036 < 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: 1186.7 on 890 degrees of freedom  
Residual deviance: 917.8 on 889 degrees of freedom  
AIC: 921.8  
  
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 4
```

sex was significantly associated with survival

Let's consider a binary predictor

$$\ln\left(\frac{p(\text{survived})_i}{1 - p(\text{survived})_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot \text{sex}_i$$

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	1.0566	0.1290	8.191	2.58e-16 ***
sexmale	-2.5137	0.1672	-15.036	< 2e-16 ***

sex	survived	n	p	p(survived sex)
female	0	81	0.09	0.26
female	1	233	0.26	0.74
male	0	468	0.53	0.81
male	1	109	0.12	0.19

if sex == 0:

$$\ln\left(\frac{\widehat{p(\text{survived})}_i}{1 - \widehat{p(\text{survived})}_i}\right) = b_0$$

$$p(\text{survived})_i = \frac{e^{b_0}}{1 + e^{b_0}} = 0.74$$

Let's consider a binary predictor

$$\ln\left(\frac{p(\text{survived})_i}{1 - p(\text{survived})_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot \text{sex}_i$$

Coefficients:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)	
(Intercept)	1.0566	0.1290	8.191	2.58e-16	***
sexmale	-2.5137	0.1672	-15.036	< 2e-16	***

sex	survived	n	p	p(survived sex)
female	0	81	0.09	0.26
female	1	233	0.26	0.74
male	0	468	0.53	0.81
male	1	109	0.12	0.19

if sex == 1:

$$\ln\left(\frac{\widehat{p(\text{survived})}_i}{1 - \widehat{p(\text{survived})}_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1$$

$$p(\text{survived})_i = \frac{e^{b_0+b_1}}{1 + e^{b_0+b_1}} = 0.19$$

Now let's go back to a continuous predictor

$$\ln\left(\frac{p(\text{survived})_i}{1 - p(\text{survived})_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot \text{fare}_i$$

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z)
(Intercept)	-0.941330	0.095129	-9.895	< 2e-16 ***
fare	0.015197	0.002232	6.810	9.79e-12 ***

fare	prediction	p(survival)
0	-0.94	0.28
10	-0.79	0.31
50	-0.18	0.45
100	0.58	0.64
500	6.66	1.00

$$\ln\left(\frac{\widehat{p(\text{survived})}}{1 - p(\text{survived})}\right) = -0.94 + 0.015 \cdot 10$$

$$p(\text{survived})_i = \frac{e^{-0.94+0.015 \cdot 10}}{1 + e^{-0.94+0.015 \cdot 10}} = 0.31$$

Do we have to do this by hand?

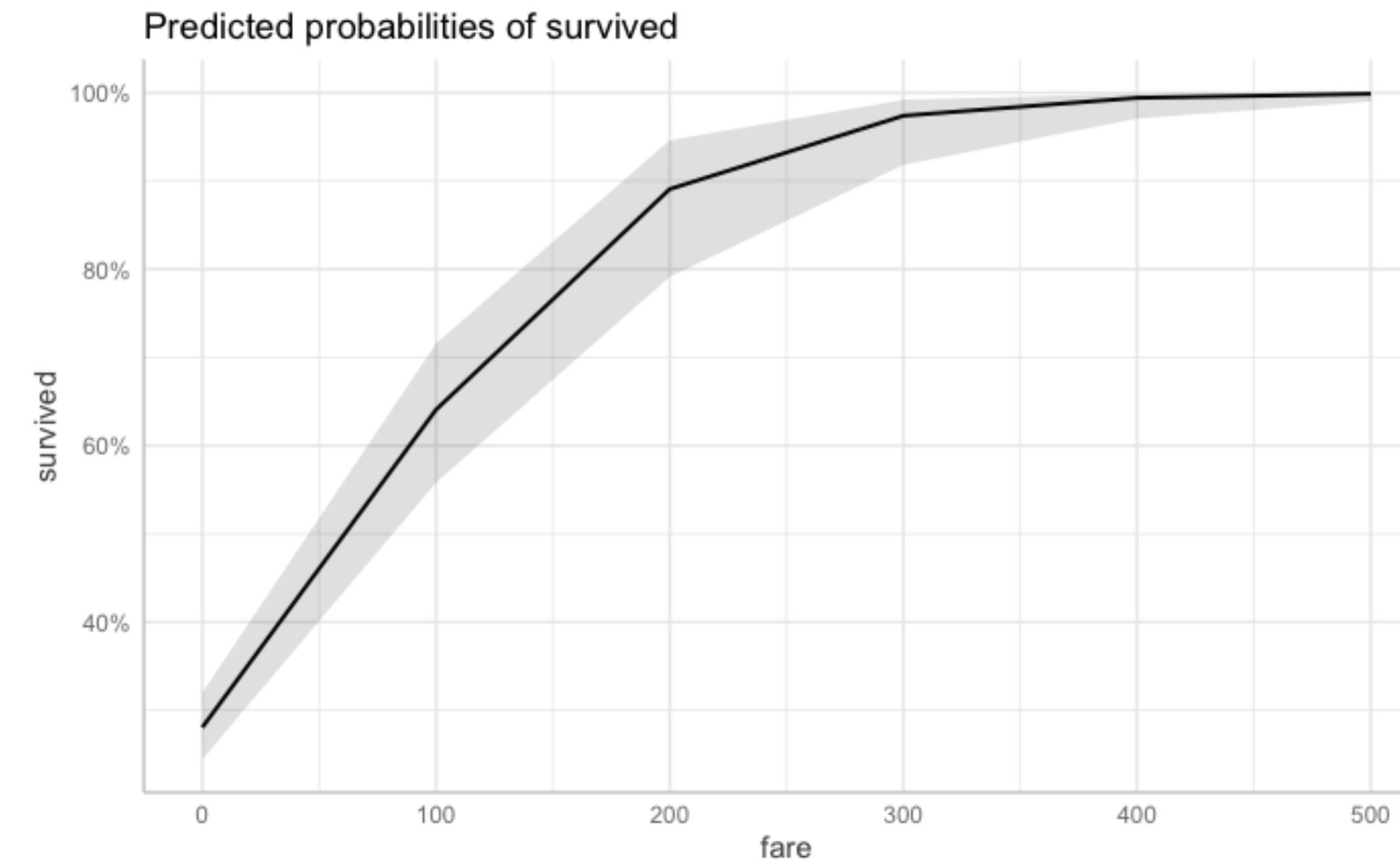


```
1 ggpredict(model = fit.glm,  
2             terms = "fare [0, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500]")
```

```
# Predicted probabilities of survived  
# x = fare
```

x	Predicted	95% CI

0	0.28	[0.24, 0.32]
100	0.64	[0.56, 0.72]
200	0.89	[0.79, 0.95]
300	0.97	[0.92, 0.99]
400	0.99	[0.97, 1.00]
500	1.00	[0.99, 1.00]



Models with several predictors

$$\ln\left(\frac{p(\text{survived})_i}{1 - p(\text{survived})_i}\right) = b_0 + b_1 \cdot \text{sex}_i + b_2 \cdot \text{fare}_i$$

```
Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept) 0.647100 0.148502 4.358 1.32e-05 ***
sexmale     -2.422760 0.170515 -14.208 < 2e-16 ***
fare        0.011214 0.002295  4.886 1.03e-06 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

controlling for "fare" there is still a significant difference between female and male passengers

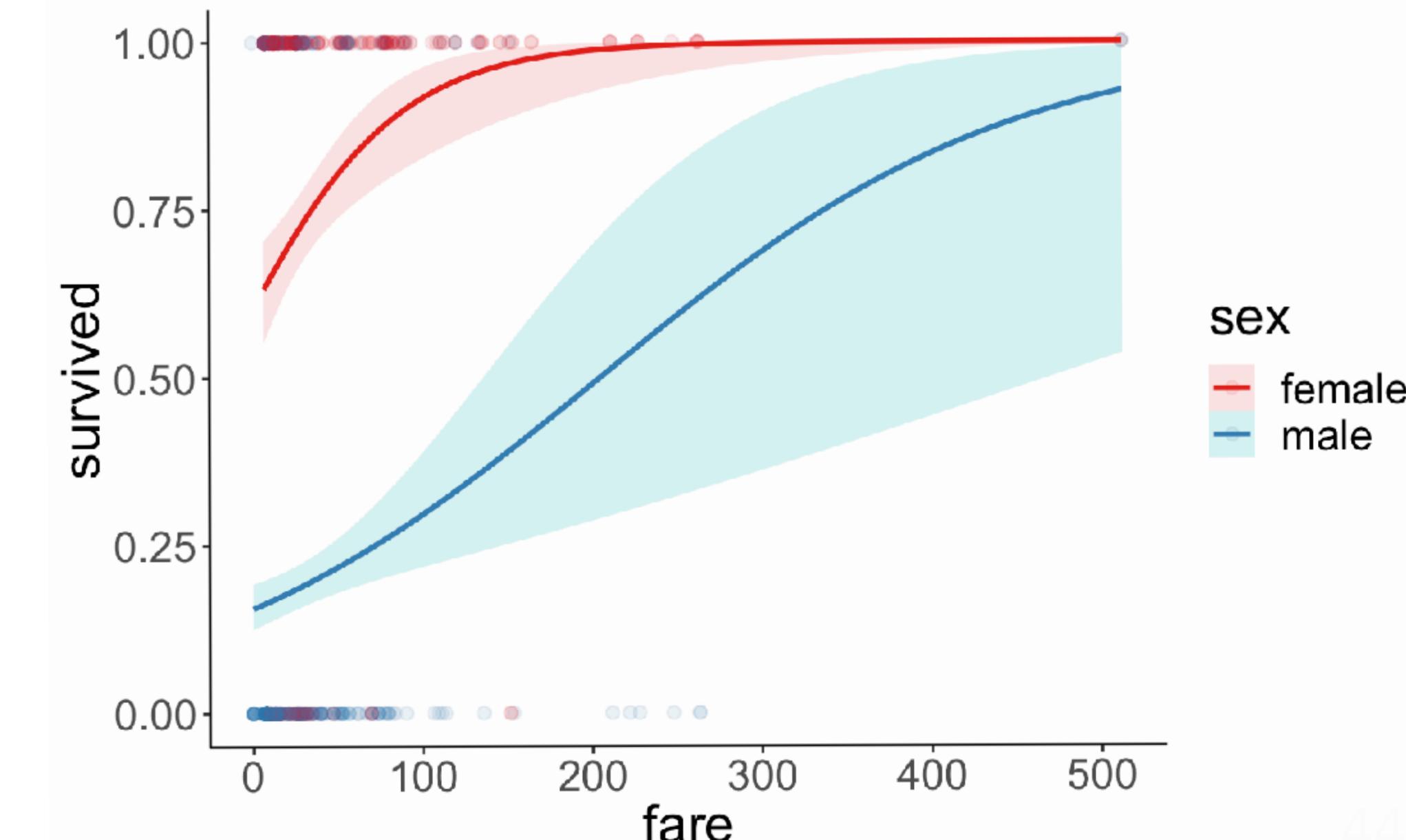
```
1 ggpredict(fit.glm,
2   terms = c("sex"))
```

```
# Predicted values of survived
# x = sex

x | Predicted | SE | 95% CI
---+-----+-----+-----+
female | 0.73 | 0.13 | [0.68, 0.78]
male | 0.20 | 0.11 | [0.16, 0.23]

Adjusted for:
* fare = 32.20
```

```
1 df.titanic %>%
2   mutate(sex = as.factor(sex)) %>%
3   ggplot(data = .,
4         mapping = aes(x = fare,
5                      y = survived,
6                      color = sex)) +
7   geom_point(alpha = 0.1, size = 2) +
8   geom_smooth(method = "glm",
9               method.args = list(family = "binomial"),
10              alpha = 0.2,
11              aes(fill = sex)) +
12   scale_color_brewer(palette = "Set1")
```



Fitting and reporting models

Simulating a logistic regression

```
1 # make example reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # set parameters
5 sample_size = 1000
6 b0 = 0
7 b1 = 1
8
9 # generate data
10 df.data = tibble(
11   x = rnorm(n = sample_size),
12   y = b0 + b1 * x,
13   p = inv.logit(y) ) >?
14   mutate(response = rbinom(n(), size = 1, p = p))
15
16 # fit model
17 fit = glm(formula = response ~ 1 + x,
18            family = "binomial",
19            data = df.data)
20
21 # model summary
22 fit %>% summary()
```

set some parameters

linear model (y is in log odds)

transform into probability

randomly draw response

fit a logistic regression

summarize the result

Simulating a logistic regression

```
1 # make example reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # set parameters
5 sample_size = 1000
6 b0 = 0
7 b1 = 1
8
9 # generate data
10 df.data = tibble(
11   x = rnorm(n = sample_size),
12   y = b0 + b1 * x,
13   p = inv.logit(y) ) %>%
14   mutate(response = rbinom(n(), size = 1, p = p))
15
16 # fit model
17 fit = glm(formula = response ~ 1 + x,
18            family = "binomial",
19            data = df.data)
20
21 # model summary
22 fit %>% summary()
```

```
Call:
glm(formula = response ~ 1 + x, family = "binomial", data = df.data)

Deviance Residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max 
-2.1137 -1.0118 -0.4591  1.0287  2.2591 

Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)    
(Intercept) -0.06214  0.06918 -0.898   0.369    
x             0.92905  0.07937 11.705 <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: 1385.4 on 999 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 1209.6 on 998 degrees of freedom
AIC: 1213.6

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3
```

Assessing the model fit

actual value

predicted value

$$\text{log-likelihood} = \sum_{i=1}^n [Y_i \cdot \ln(P(Y_i)) + (1 - Y_i) \cdot \ln(1 - P(Y_i))]$$

- calculate the probability of the observed response
- take the log of these probabilities
- sum them up to get the log-likelihood of the data (given the model)

Clue guide to probability

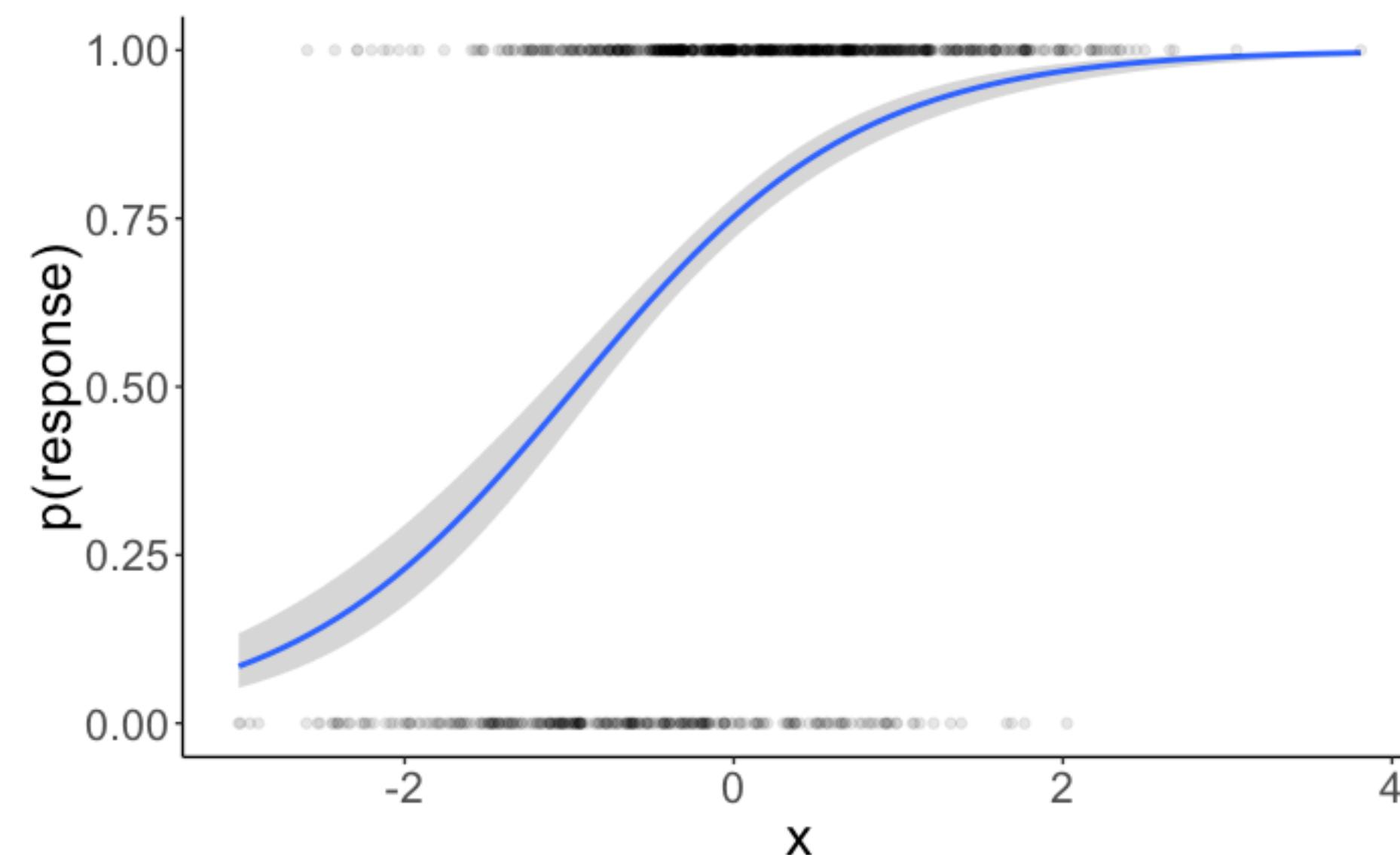
- joint probability:
- if A and B are independent then
- Definition: $p(A, B) = p(A) \cdot p(B)$
- $p(\text{Prof Plum, candle stick}) = p(\text{Prof Plum}) \cdot p(\text{candle stick}) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{36}$



response	$p(Y = 1)$	$p(Y = \text{response})$	$\log(p(Y = \text{response}))$
1	0.34	0.34	-1.07
0	0.53	0.47	-0.75
1	0.30	0.30	-1.20
1	0.81	0.81	-0.22
1	0.56	0.56	-0.58
0	0.30	0.70	-0.36
1	0.60	0.60	-0.52
1	0.65	0.65	-0.43
1	0.62	0.62	-0.48
0	0.41	0.59	-0.54

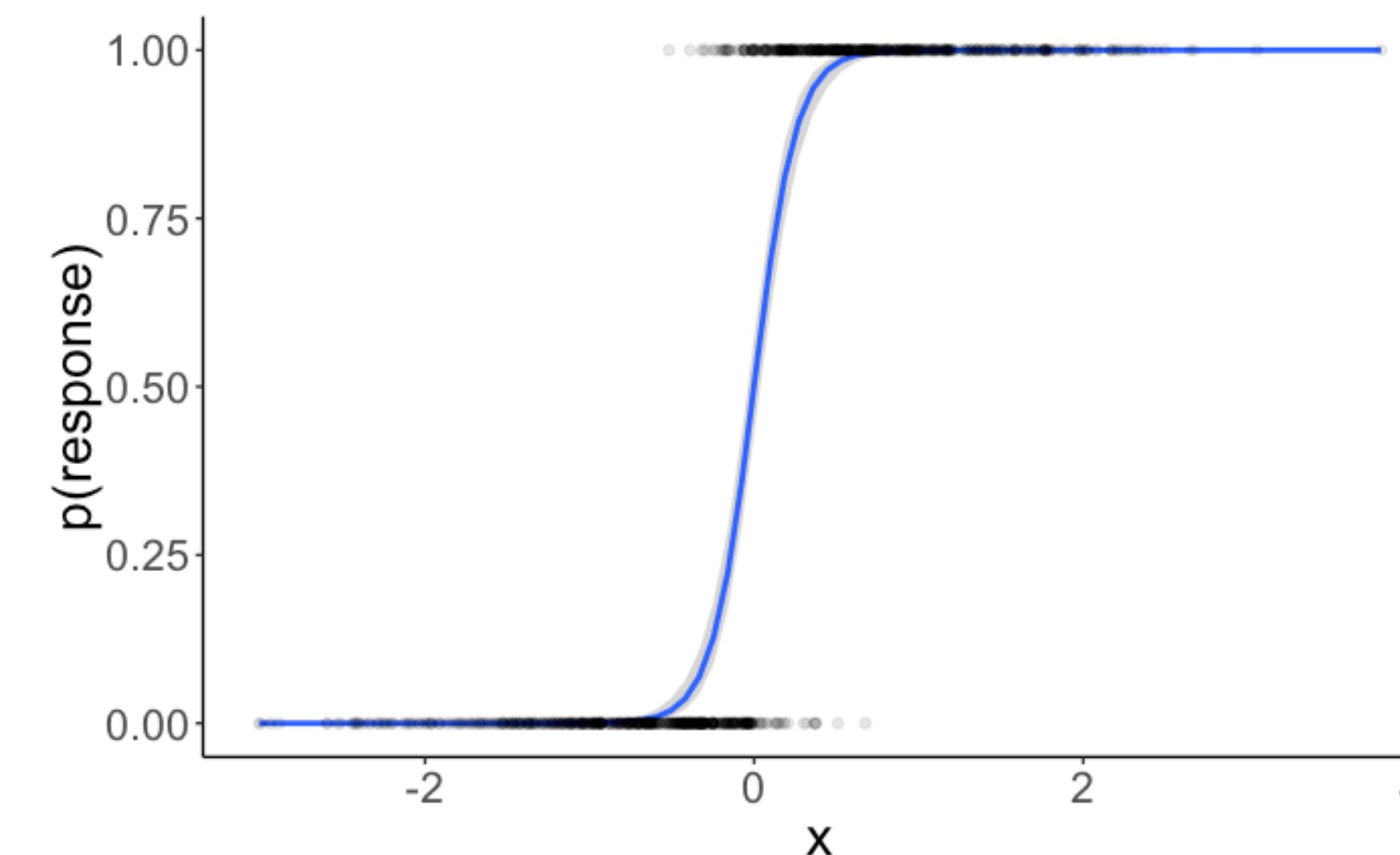
Assessing the model fit

doesn't predict the response very well



logLik	AIC	BIC
-501.65	1007.3	1017.12

predicts the response much better



logLik	AIC	BIC
-156.37	316.74	326.55

Testing hypotheses

aka checking
whether it's **worth it**

```
1 # fit compact model
2 fit.compact = glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + fare,
3                         family = "binomial",
4                         data = df.titanic)
5
6 # fit augmented model
7 fit.augmented = glm(formula = survived ~ 1 + sex + fare,
8                         family = "binomial",
9                         data = df.titanic)
10
11 # likelihood ratio test
12 anova(fit.compact, fit.augmented, test = "LRT")
```

we need to specify that we
want a likelihood ratio test

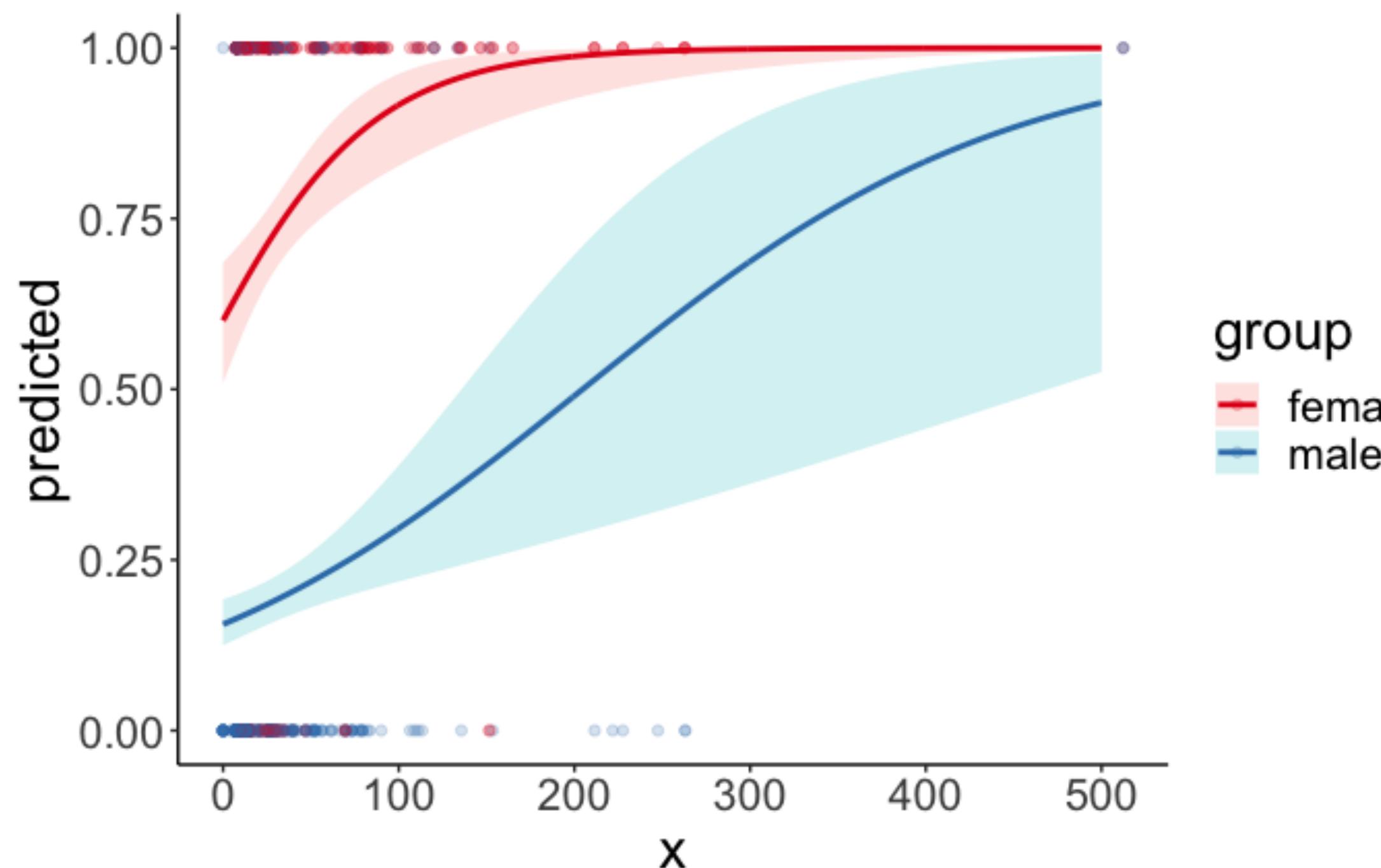
```
Analysis of Deviance Table

Model 1: survived ~ 1 + fare
Model 2: survived ~ 1 + sex + fare
  Resid. Df Resid. Dev Df Deviance Pr(>Chi)
1       889    1117.57
2       888    884.31  1     233.26 < 2.2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Reporting results



- Visualize the data
- Show a table with the regression results
- Report significance of different factors
- Interpreting parameter estimates is tricky -- probably best to report probabilities for a few example cases



```
# Predicted values of survived
# x = fare

# sex = female

x | Predicted | SE | 95% CI
---+-----+-----+-----
0 | 0.60 | 0.19 | [0.51, 0.69]
100 | 0.92 | 0.42 | [0.83, 0.96]
200 | 0.99 | 0.95 | [0.93, 1.00]
300 | 1.00 | 1.48 | [0.97, 1.00]
400 | 1.00 | 2.02 | [0.99, 1.00]
500 | 1.00 | 2.55 | [1.00, 1.00]

# sex = male

x | Predicted | SE | 95% CI
---+-----+-----+-----
0 | 0.16 | 0.13 | [0.12, 0.19]
100 | 0.30 | 0.21 | [0.22, 0.39]
200 | 0.49 | 0.44 | [0.29, 0.70]
300 | 0.69 | 0.69 | [0.36, 0.90]
400 | 0.83 | 0.94 | [0.44, 0.97]
500 | 0.92 | 1.19 | [0.53, 0.99]
```

Assumptions

- linearity (between predictors and log odds)
- independence
- no multi-collinearity
- model fails to converge when there is **complete separation:**
 - if outcome variable can be perfectly predicted by a (combination of) predictor(s)

Different kinds of generalized models

Different linking functions

```
binomial(link = "logit")  
  
gaussian(link = "identity")  
  
Gamma(link = "inverse")  
  
inverse.gaussian(link = "1/mu^2")  
  
poisson(link = "log")  
  
quasi(link = "identity", variance = "constant")  
  
quasibinomial(link = "logit")  
  
quasipoisson(link = "log")
```

**apply different transformations to the
dependent variable**

Power analysis

Making decisions

Type I Error



Type II Error



H_0 : Not pregnant. H_1 : Pregnant.

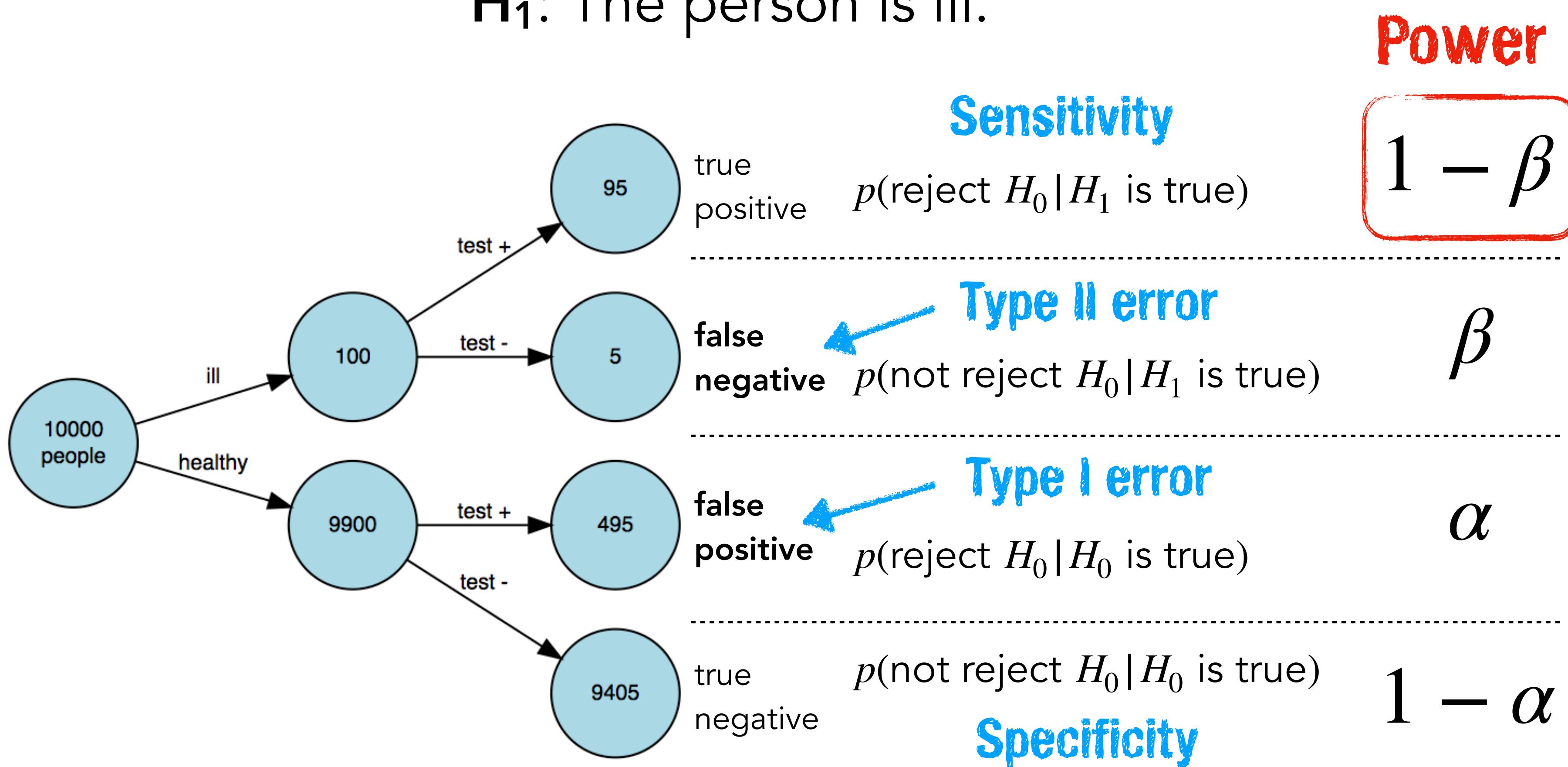
Type I Error: Falsely rejecting the null hypothesis (even though it is true).

Type II Error: Failing to reject the null hypothesis (even though it is false).

Clue guide to probability

H_0 : The person is healthy.

H_1 : The person is ill.



What affects power?

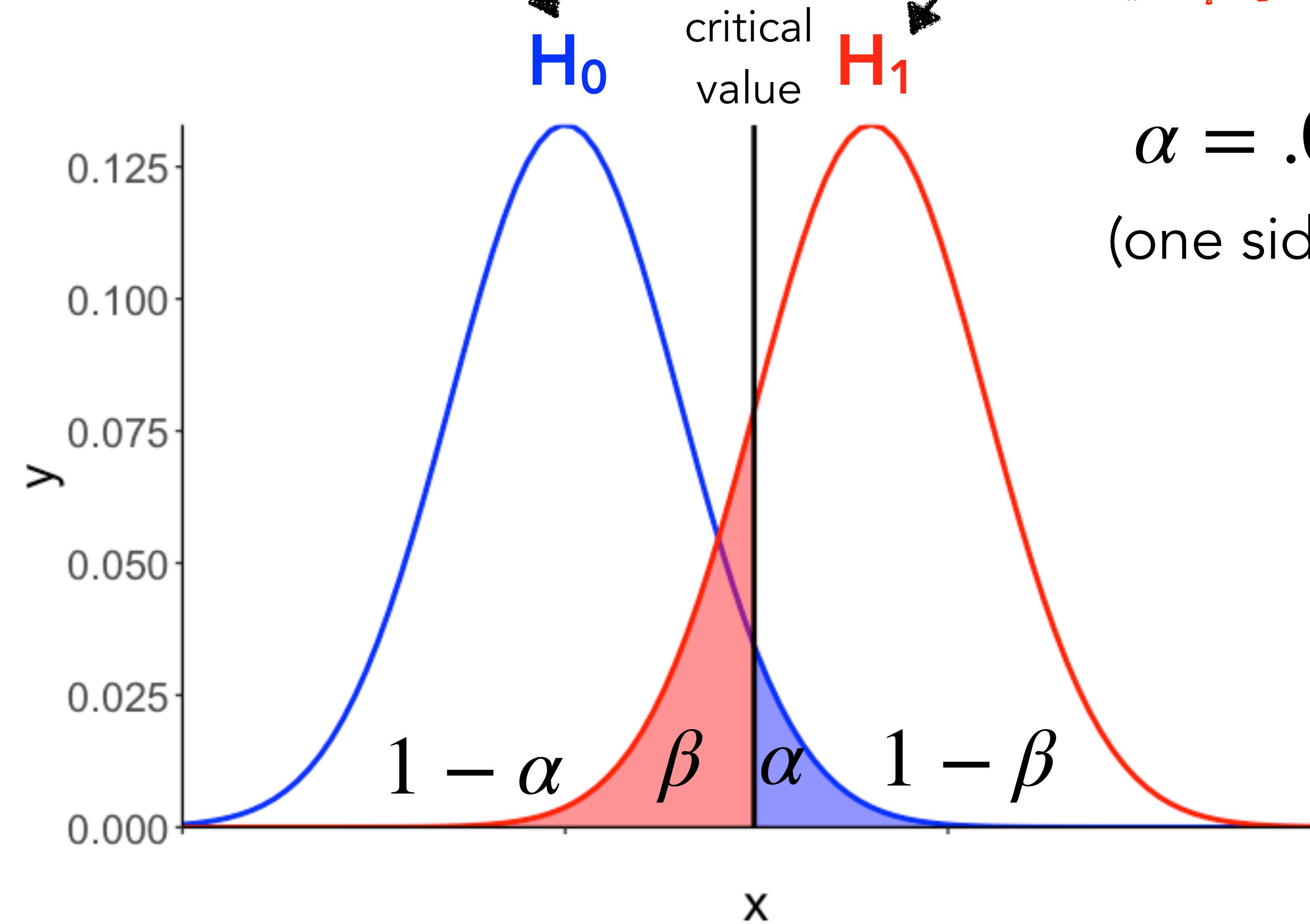
sampling distribution
if H_0 is true

H_0

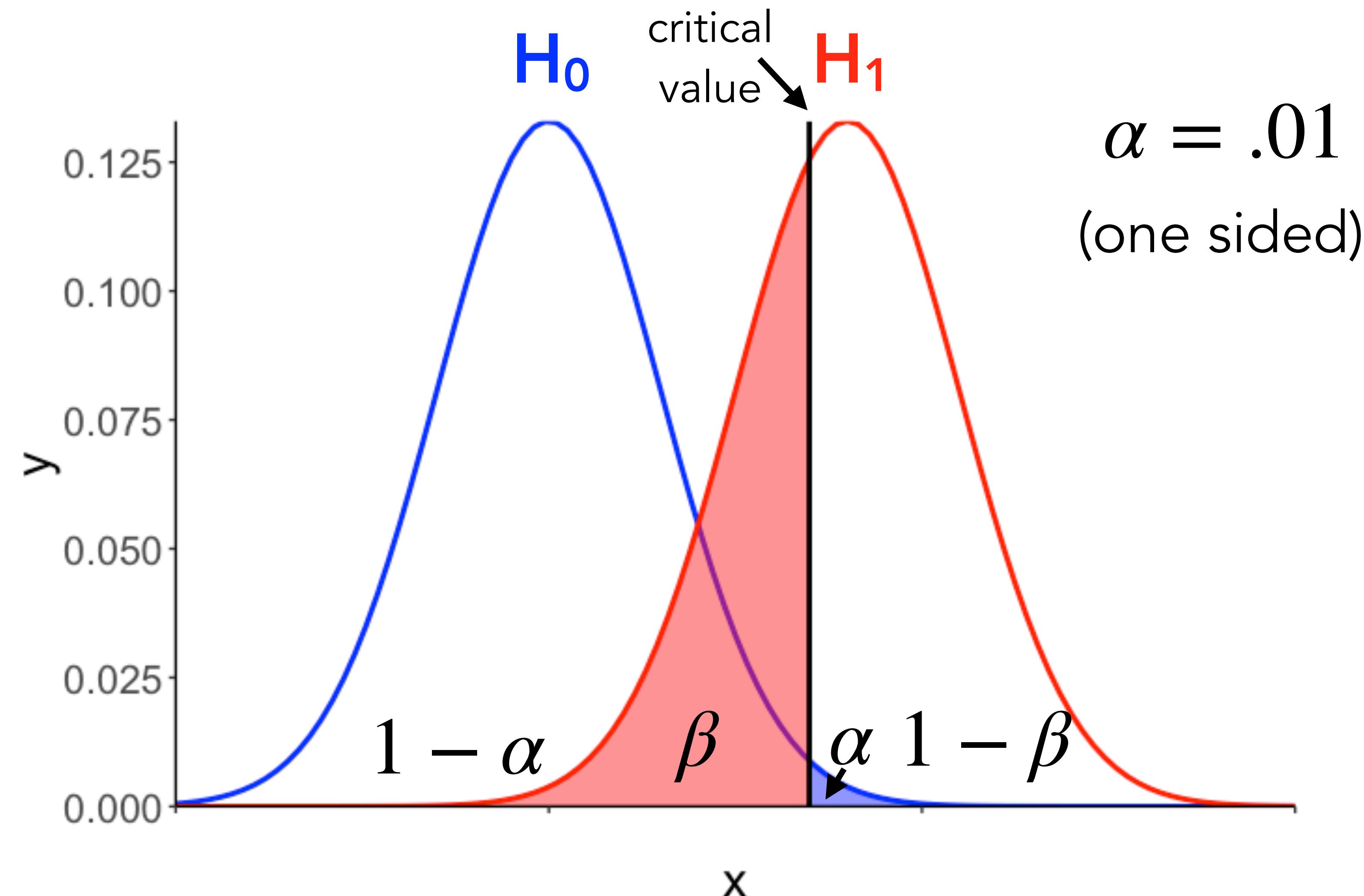
sampling distribution
if H_1 is true

H_1

$\alpha = .05$
(one sided)

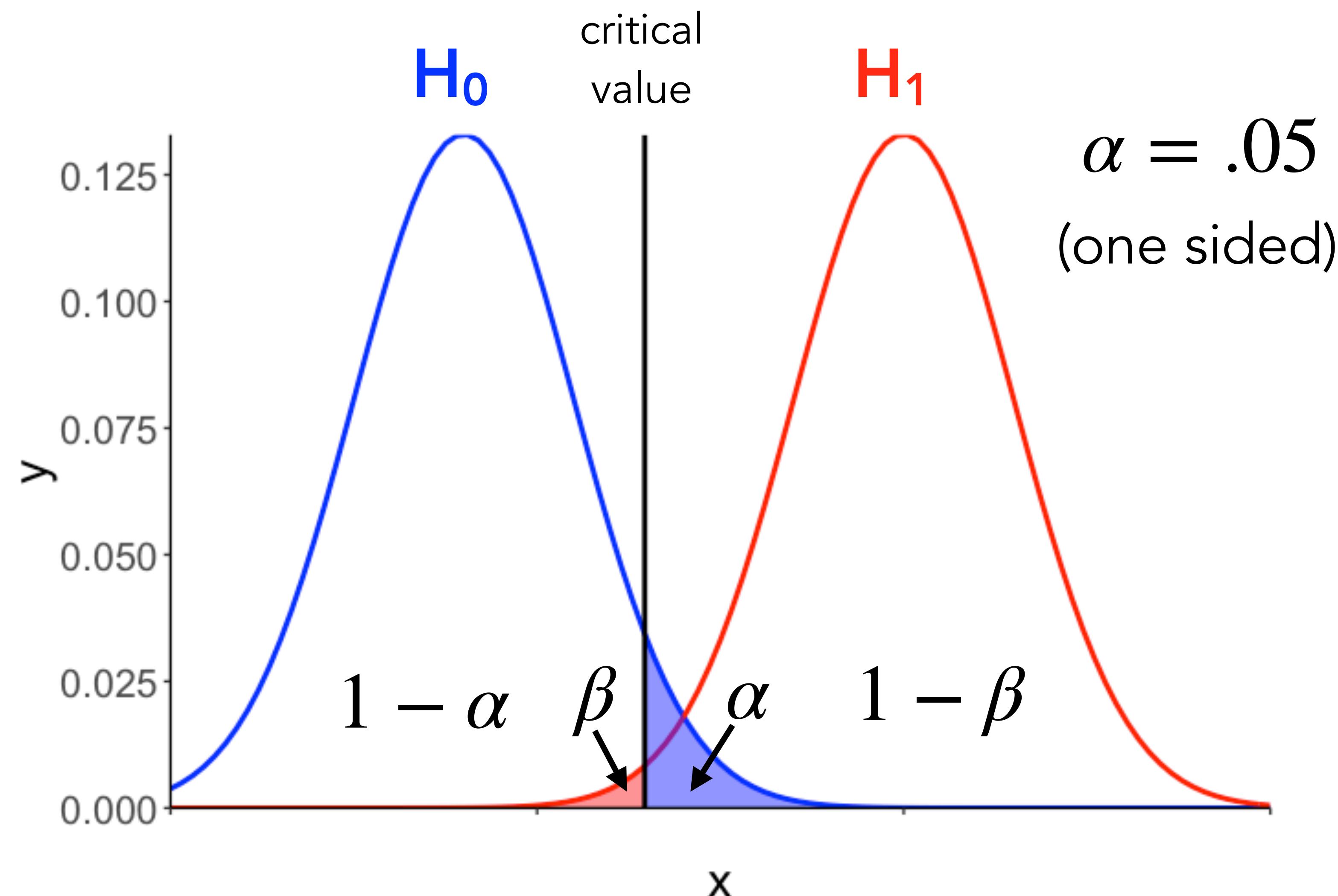


What affects power?



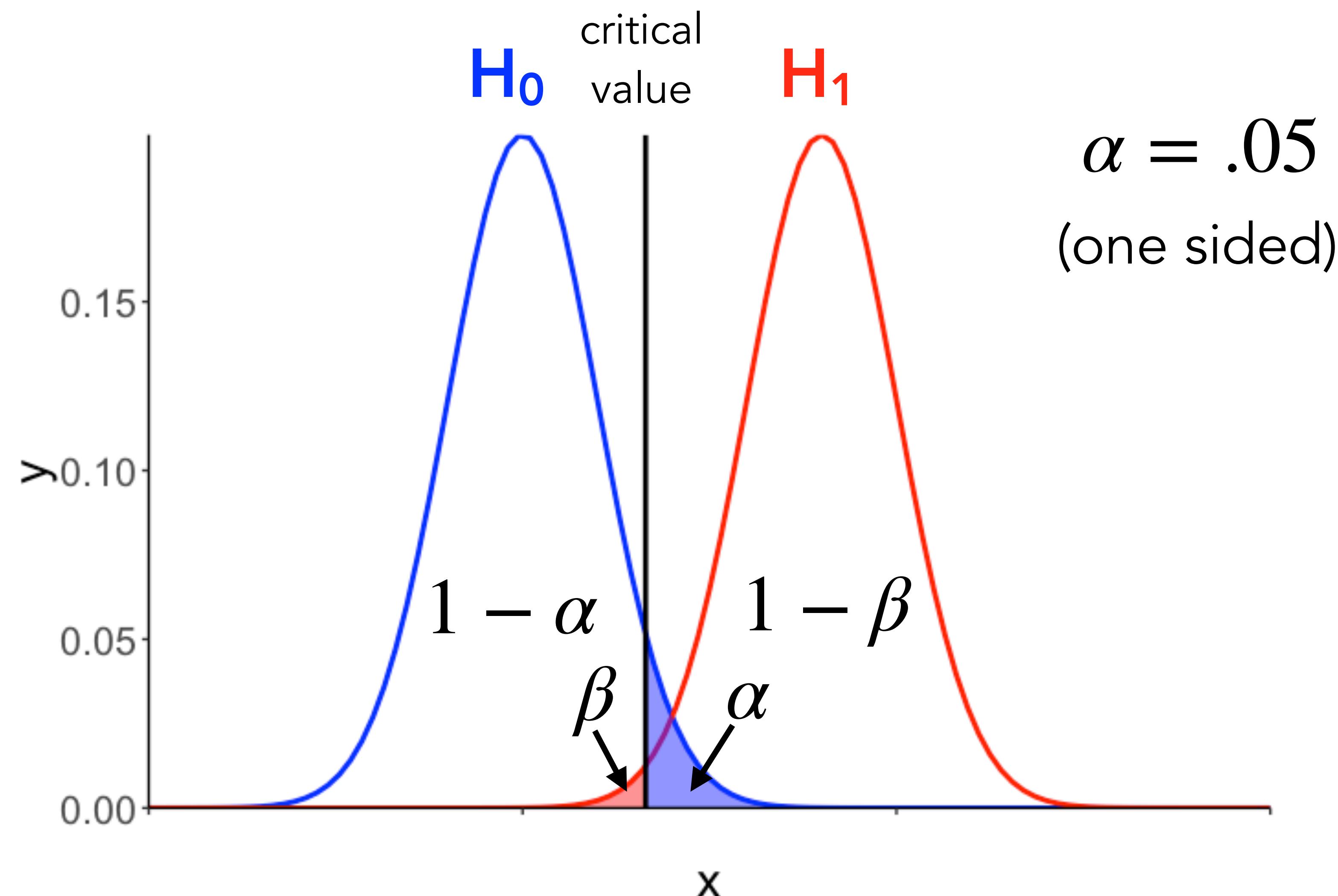
a affects power

What affects power?



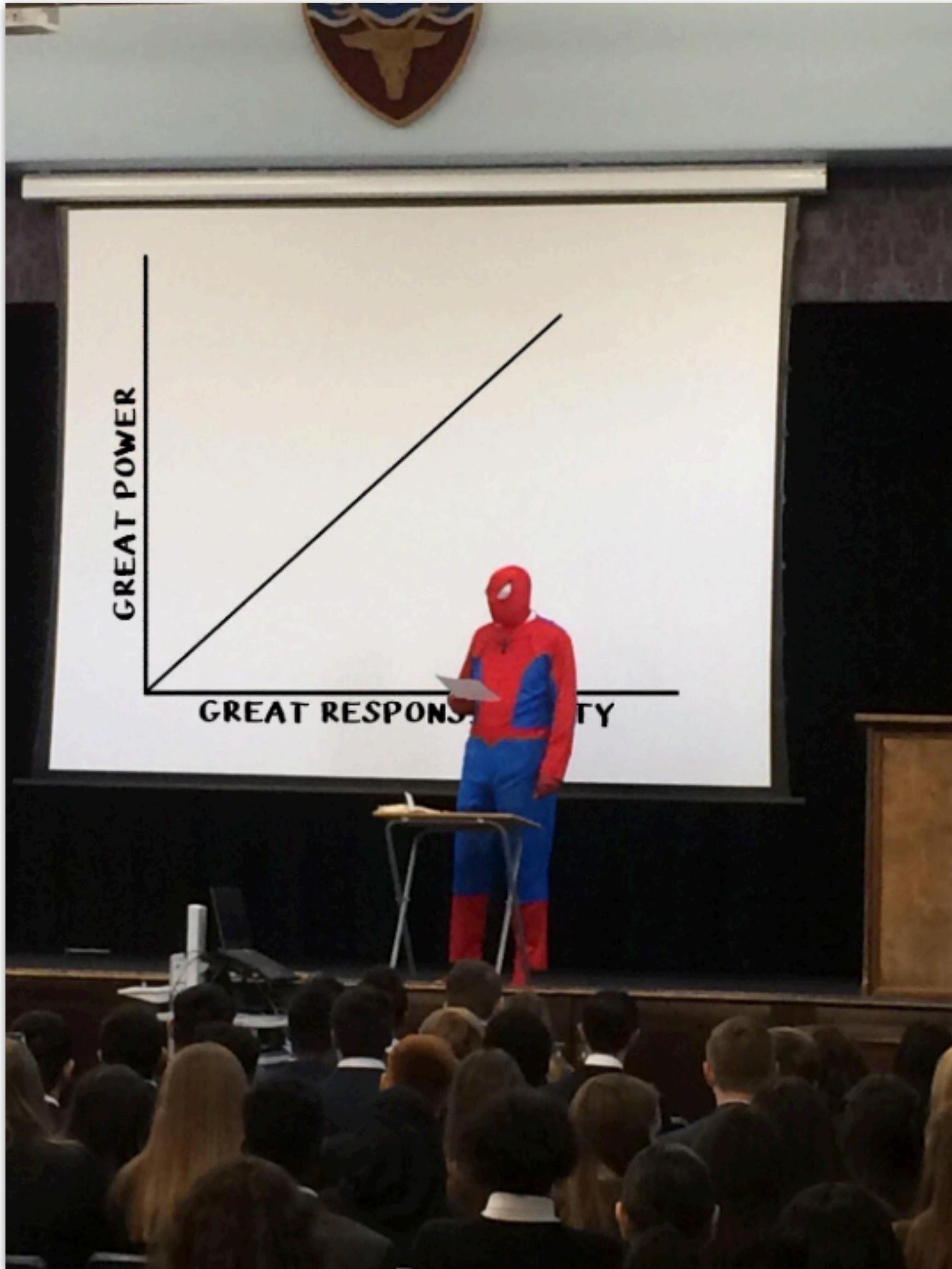
distance between means affects power

What affects power?

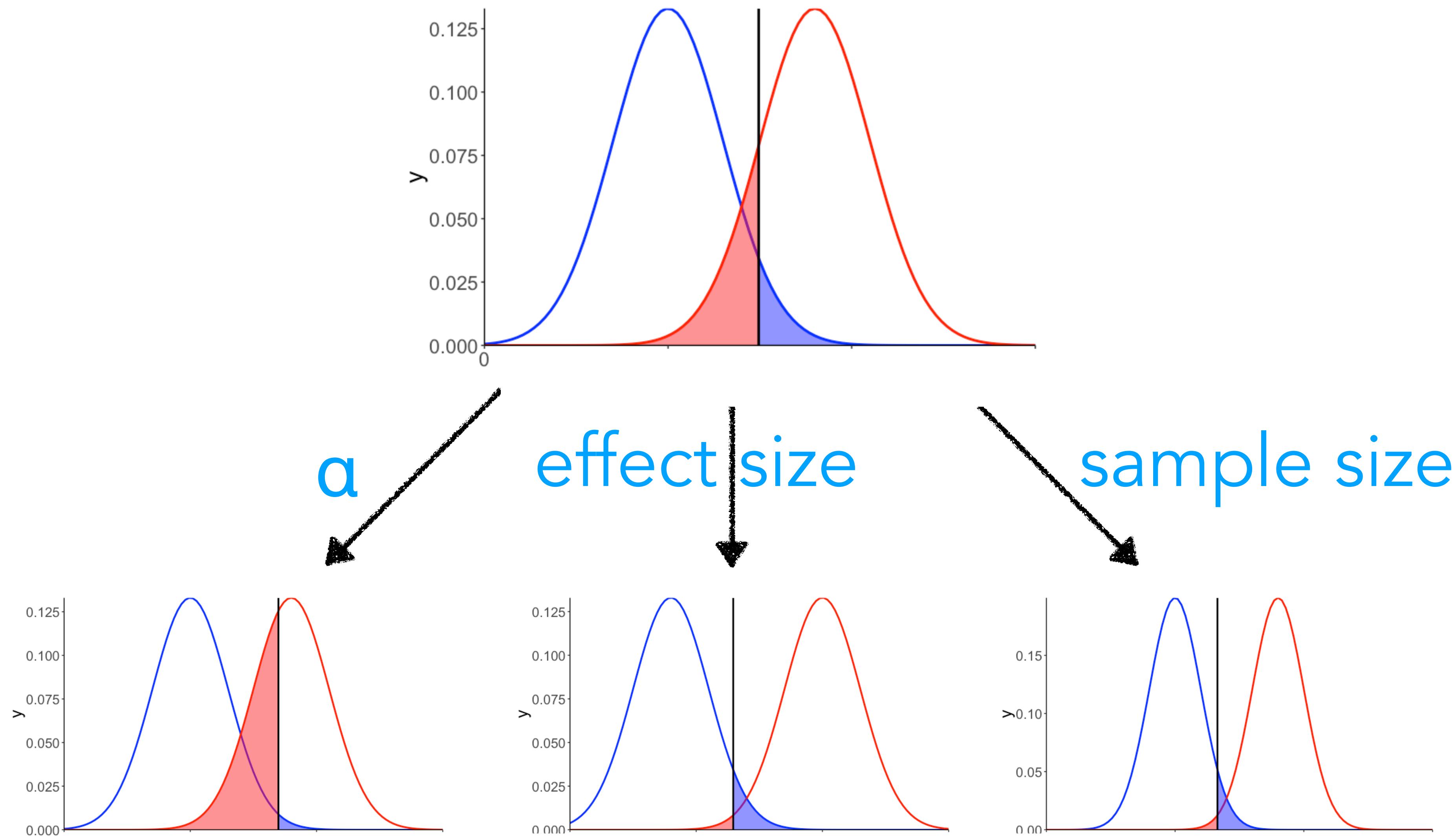


Calculating power

With great power comes ...



The knobs we can turn to affect power



Visualization demo

Settings

Solve for? Power Alpha n d

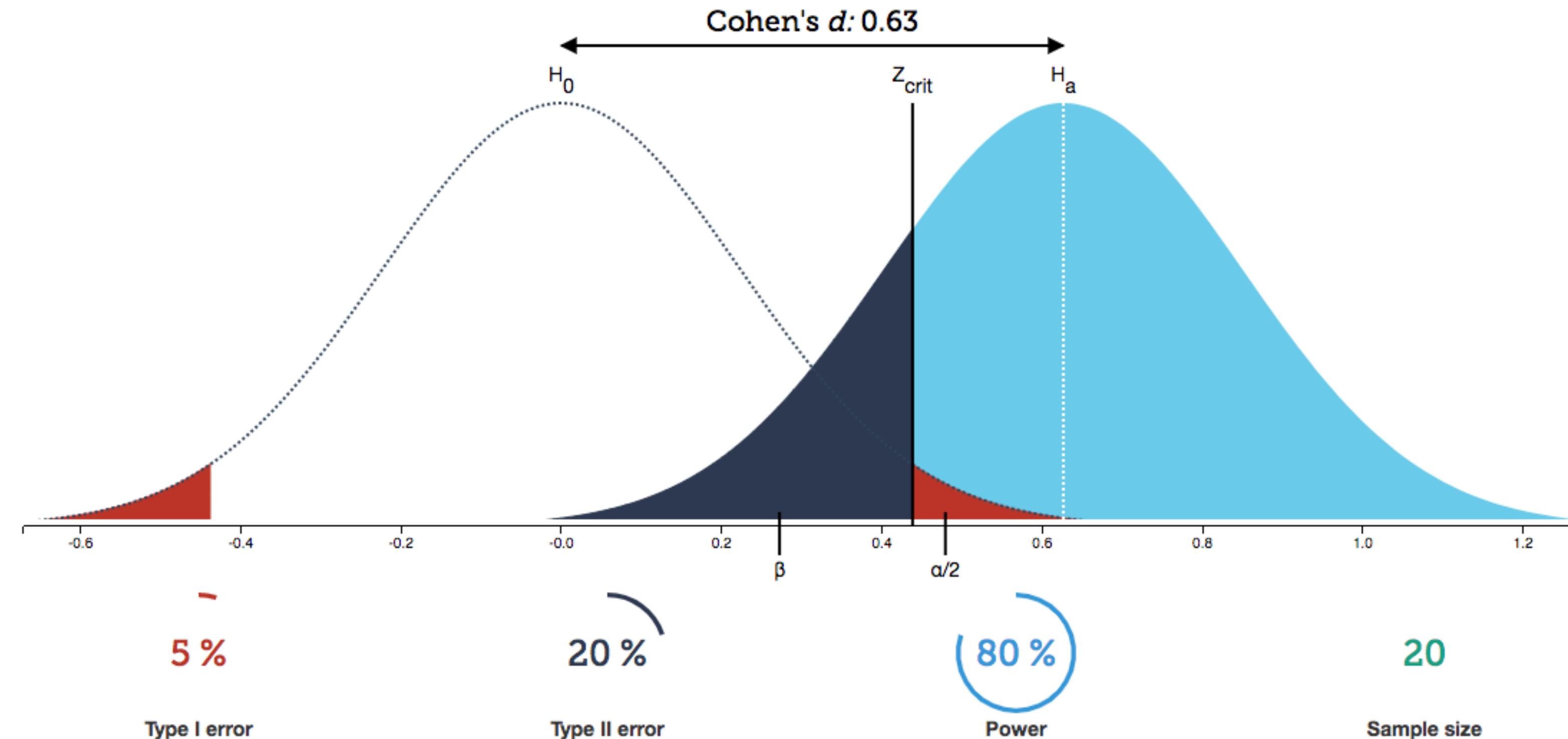
Power ($1-\beta = 0.8$)

Significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$)

Sample size ($n = 20$)

One-tailed Two-tailed

Reset zoom



The **power** of a binary hypothesis test is the probability that the test rejects the null hypothesis (H_0) when a **specific** alternative hypothesis (H_1) is true.

H_0 : Students and non-students have the same balance.

Model C

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \epsilon_i$$

$$\beta_1 = 0$$

H_1 : Students and non-students have different balances.

Model A

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

$$\beta_1 \neq 0$$

We cannot calculate power in this case.
We need a specific alternative hypothesis!

The **power** of a binary hypothesis test is the probability that the test rejects the null hypothesis (H_0) when a **specific** alternative hypothesis (H_1) is true.

H_0 : Students and non-students have the same balance.

Model C

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \epsilon_i$$

$$\beta_1 = 0$$

H_1 : Students and non-students have different balances.

Model A

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

$$\beta_1 = 300$$

We can calculate power in this case (since we have a specific alternative hypothesis)!

Effect sizes

Effect sizes

- a p-value tells us whether we can reject the H_0
- effect sizes is a measure of the strength of the actual effect

**Why can't we just use p-values
as a measure of the effect size?**

$$F = \frac{\text{PRE}/(\text{PA} - \text{PC})}{(1 - \text{PRE})/(n - \text{PA})}$$

PRE = proportional reduction in error

PA = # parameters in the augmented model

PC = # parameters in the compact model

n = sample size

any PRE will become significant if n gets large enough

statistical vs. practical significance

Effect sizes

PRE = proportional reduction in error

Compact model

SSE(C)

Augmented model

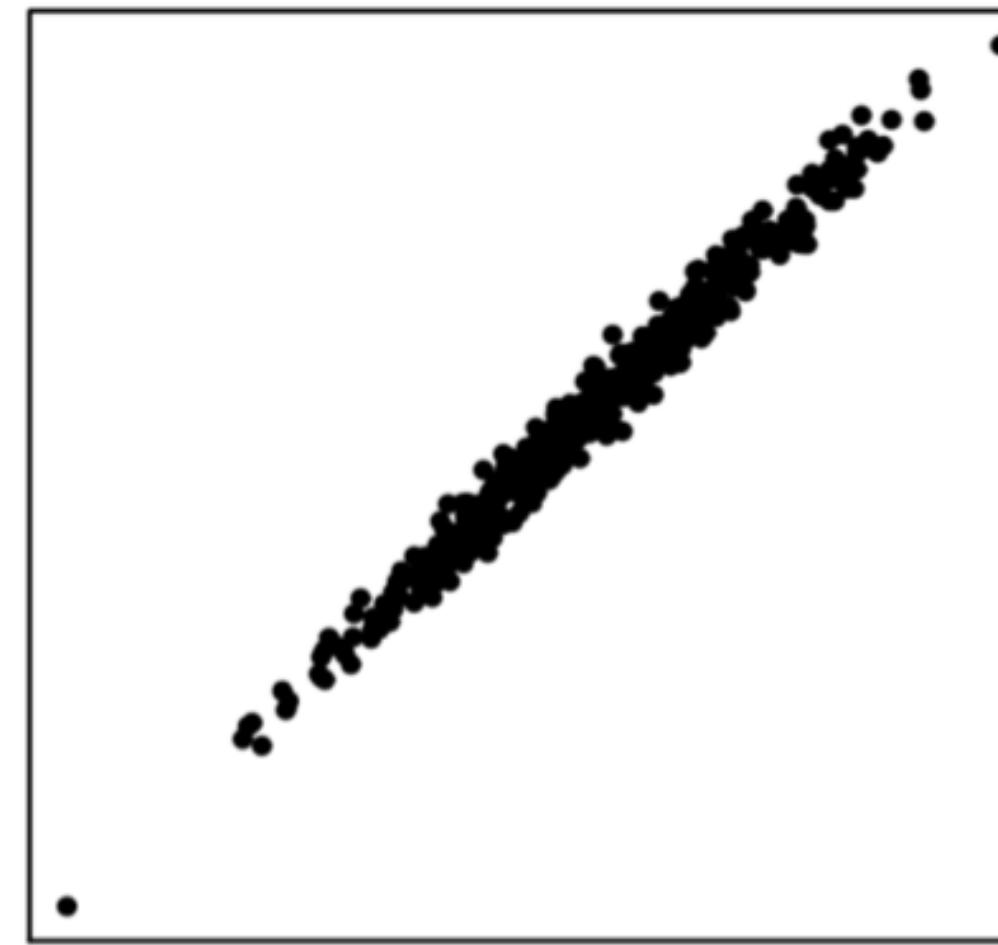
SSE(A)

$$\text{PRE} = 1 - \frac{\text{SSE}(A)}{\text{SSE}(C)}$$

SSE = sum of squared errors

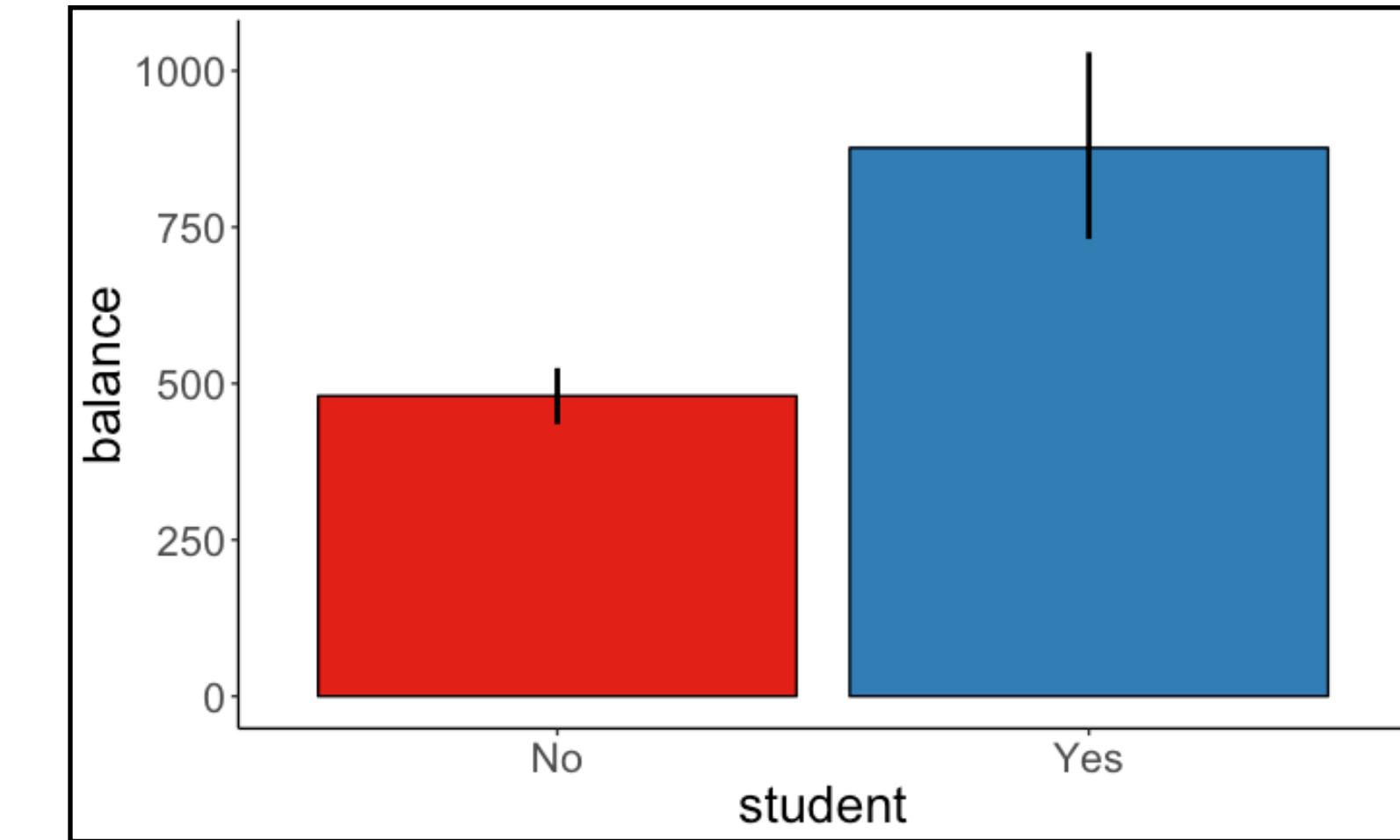
Common effect sizes

Relationships between variables



r correlation

Differences between groups



Cohen's d

Correlation

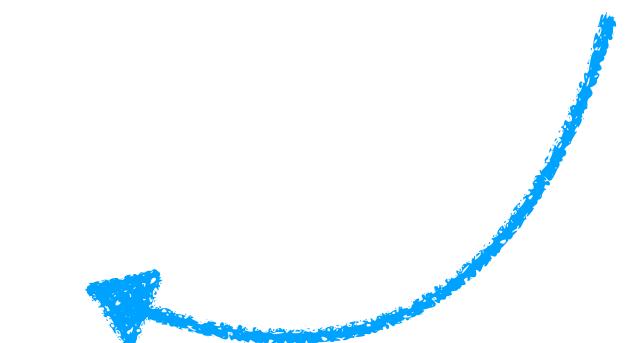
Pearson correlation

$$r(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}}$$

Cohen's guidelines for the social sciences

Effect size	r
Small	0.1
Medium	0.3
Large	0.5

depends very
much on the
domain



Cohen's d

- standardized difference between two means

absolute difference between means

$$d = \frac{|\bar{y}_1 - \bar{y}_2|}{s_p}$$

pooled standard variation

$$s_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

Effect size	d
Very small	0.01
Small	0.20
Medium	0.50
Large	0.80
Very large	1.20
Huge	2.0

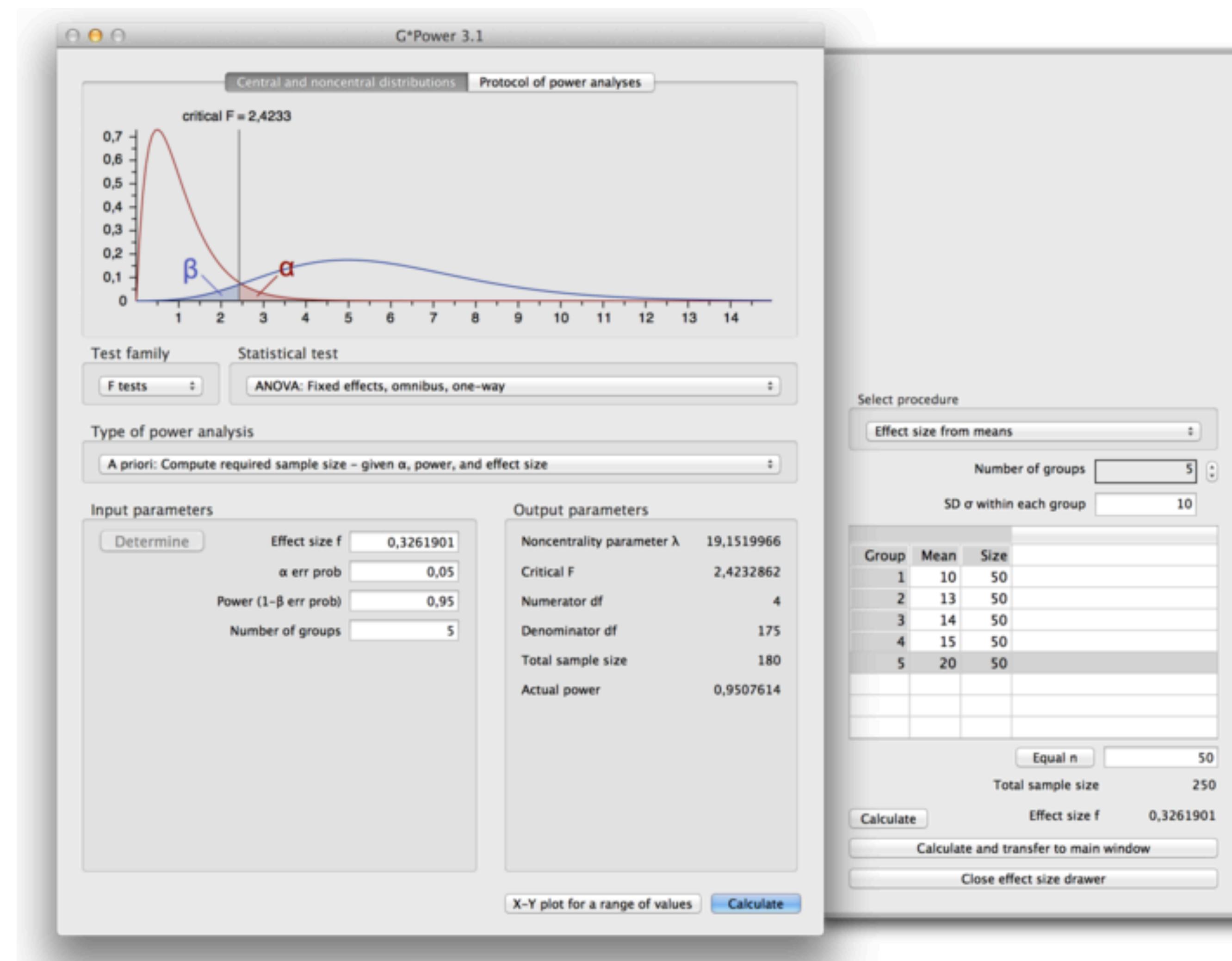
Difference between two means in pooled standard deviation

Determining sample size

**How many participants do I need to run to have a
good chance of detecting a true effect?**

G*Power 3.1: Alternative software for power calculations

Option 1

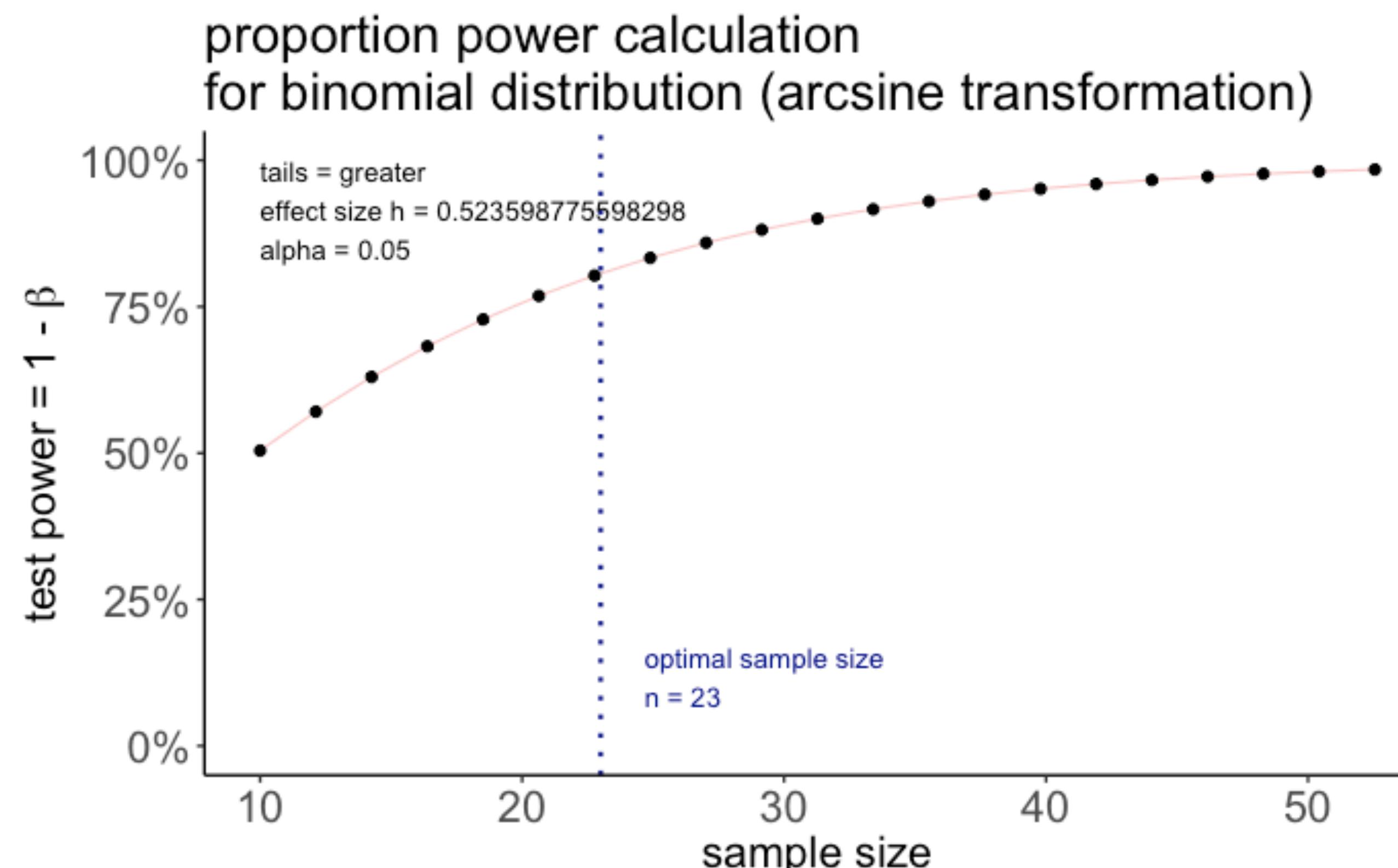


<http://www.gpower.hhu.de/>

"pwr" package in R

Option 2

```
1 library("pwr")
2 pwr.p.test(h = ES.h(p1 = 0.75, p2 = 0.50),
3              sig.level = 0.05,
4              power = 0.80,
5              alternative = "greater") %>%
6 plot()
```



Power simulation recipe

- assume:
 - α , n , effect size
- simulate a large number of data sets of size n with the specified effect size
- for each data set, run a statistical test to calculate the p-value
- determine the probability of rejecting the H_0 (given that H_1 is true)

Simulating a power analysis

Power simulation recipe

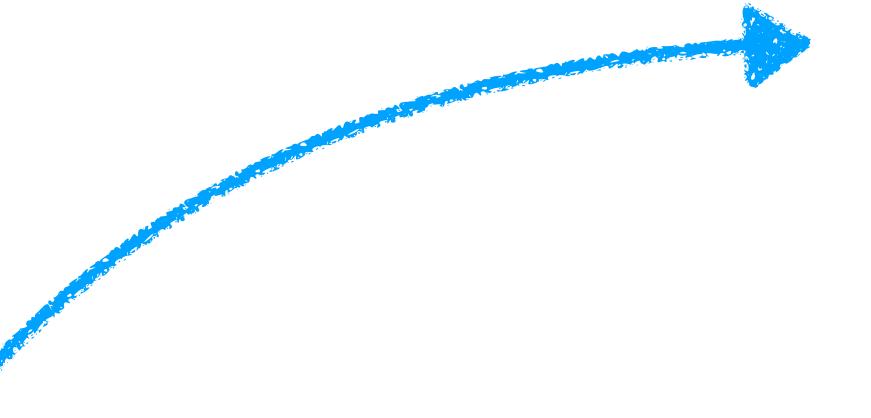
- assume:
 - α , n , effect size
- simulate a large number of data sets of size n with the specified effect size
- for each data set, run a statistical test to calculate the p-value
- determine the probability of rejecting the H_0 (given that H_1 is true)

Let's simulate ...

```
1 # make reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # number of simulations
5 n_simulations = 5
6
7 # run simulation
8 expand_grid(n = seq(10, 40, 2),
9             simulation = 1:n_simulations,
10            p = 0.75) %>%
11 mutate(index = 1:n(),
12         .before = n) %>%
13 group_by(index, n, p, simulation) %>%
14 mutate(response = rbinom(n = 1,
15                           size = n,
16                           prob = p),
17         p.value = binom.test(x = response,
18                               n = n,
19                               p = 0.5,
20                               alternative = "two.sided")$p.value) %>%
21 group_by(n, p) %>%
22 summarize(power = sum(p.value < 0.05) / n())
```

Let's simulate ...

```
1 # make reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # number of simulations
5 n_simulations = 5
6
7 # run simulation
8 expand_grid(n = seq(10, 40, 2),
9             simulation = 1:n_simulations,
10            p = 0.75) %>%
11 mutate(index = 1:n(),
12         .before = n) %>%
```



index	n	simulation	p
1	10	1	0.75
2	10	2	0.75
3	10	3	0.75
4	10	4	0.75
5	10	5	0.75
6	12	1	0.75
7	12	2	0.75
8	12	3	0.75
9	12	4	0.75
10	12	5	0.75

Let's simulate ...

```
1 # make reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # number of simulations
5 n_simulations = 5
6
7 # run simulation
8 expand_grid(n = seq(10, 40, 2),
9             simulation = 1:n_simulations,
10            p = 0.75) %>%
11 mutate(index = 1:n(),
12         .before = n) %>%
13 group_by(index, n, p, simulation) %>%
14 mutate(response = rbinom(n = 1,
15                           size = n,
16                           prob = p),
```

index	n	simulation	p	response
1	10	1	0.75	8
2	10	2	0.75	7
3	10	3	0.75	8
4	10	4	0.75	8
5	10	5	0.75	7
6	12	1	0.75	10
7	12	2	0.75	8
8	12	3	0.75	11
9	12	4	0.75	10
10	12	5	0.75	11



Let's simulate ...

```
1 # make reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # number of simulations
5 n_simulations = 5
6
7 # run simulation
8 expand_grid(n = seq(10, 40, 2),
9             simulation = 1:n_simulations,
10            p = 0.75) %>%
11  mutate(index = 1:n(),
12         .before = n) %>%
13  group_by(index, n, p, simulation) %>%
14  mutate(response = rbinom(n = 1,
15                           size = n,
16                           prob = p),
17          p.value = binom.test(x = response,
18                                n = n,
19                                p = 0.5,
20                                alternative = "two.sided")$p.value) %>%
```

index	n	simulation	p	response	p.value
1	10	1	0.75	8	0.11
2	10	2	0.75	7	0.34
3	10	3	0.75	8	0.11
4	10	4	0.75	8	0.11
5	10	5	0.75	7	0.34
6	12	1	0.75	10	0.04
7	12	2	0.75	8	0.39



Let's simulate ...

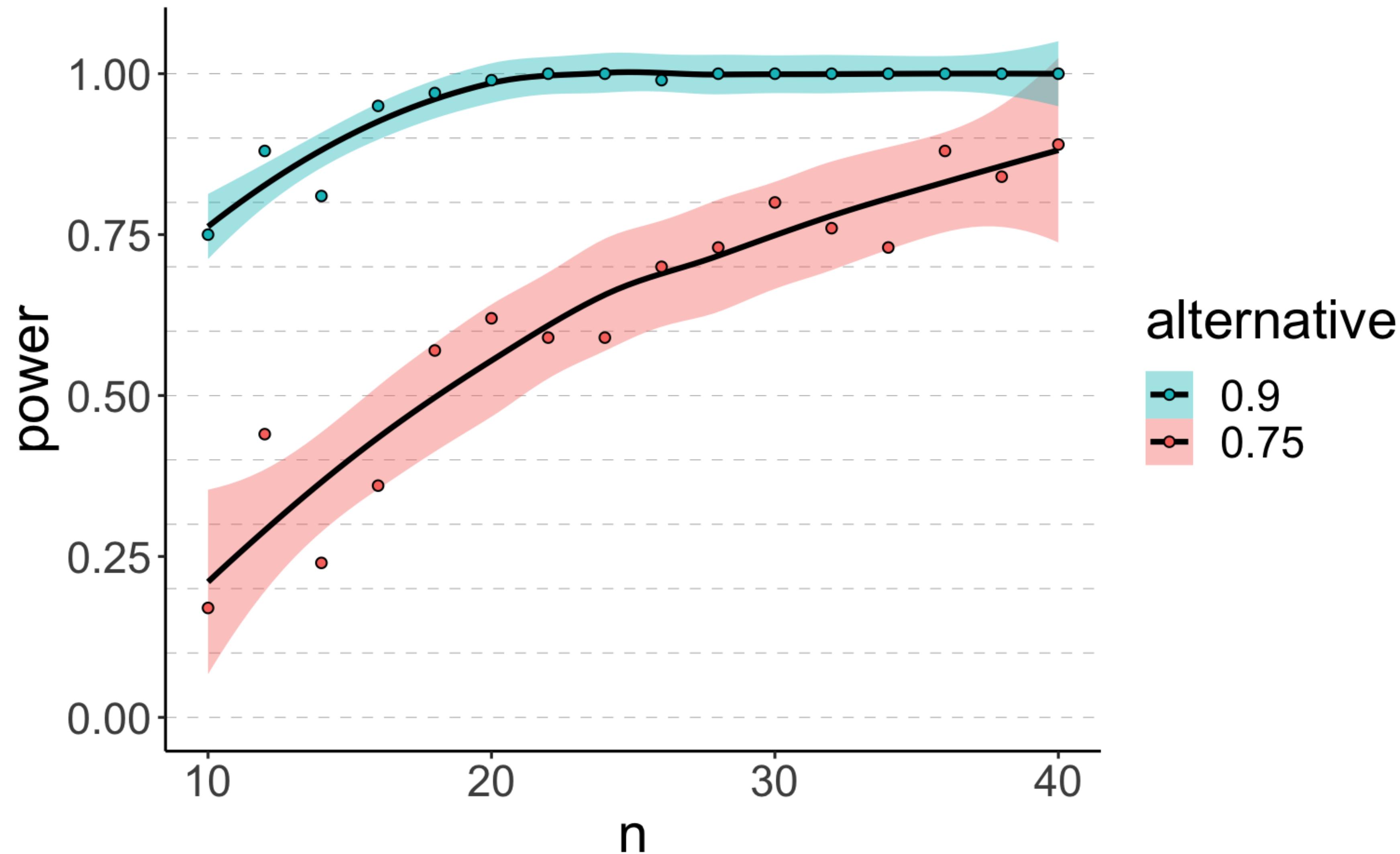
```
1 # make reproducible
2 set.seed(1)
3
4 # number of simulations
5 n_simulations = 5
6
7 # run simulation
8 expand_grid(n = seq(10, 40, 2),
9             simulation = 1:n_simulations,
10            p = 0.75) %>%
11 mutate(index = 1:n(),
12         .before = n) %>%
13 group_by(index, n, p, simulation) %>%
14 mutate(response = rbinom(n = 1,
15                           size = n,
16                           prob = p),
17         p.value = binom.test(x = response,
18                               n = n,
19                               p = 0.5,
20                               alternative = "two.sided")$p.value) %>%
21 group_by(n, p) %>%
22 summarize(power = sum(p.value < 0.05) / n())
```

n	p	power
10	0.75	0.2
12	0.75	0.2
14	0.75	0.4
16	0.75	0.2
18	0.75	0.6
20	0.75	0.8
22	0.75	0.6
24	0.75	0.4
26	0.75	0.6
28	0.75	0.8
30	0.75	0.8



Let's simulate ...

in this example, I looked at the power for two different alternative hypotheses



Let's simulate ...

- here, I've used a simple example (Binomial test)
- but: we can use the same recipe for any statistical test that we are planning on running

Power simulation recipe

- assume:
 - α , n , effect size
- simulate a large number of data sets of size n with the specified effect size
- for each data set, run a statistical test to calculate the p-value for a given α
- determine the probability of rejecting the H_0 (given that H_1 is true)

Let's simulate

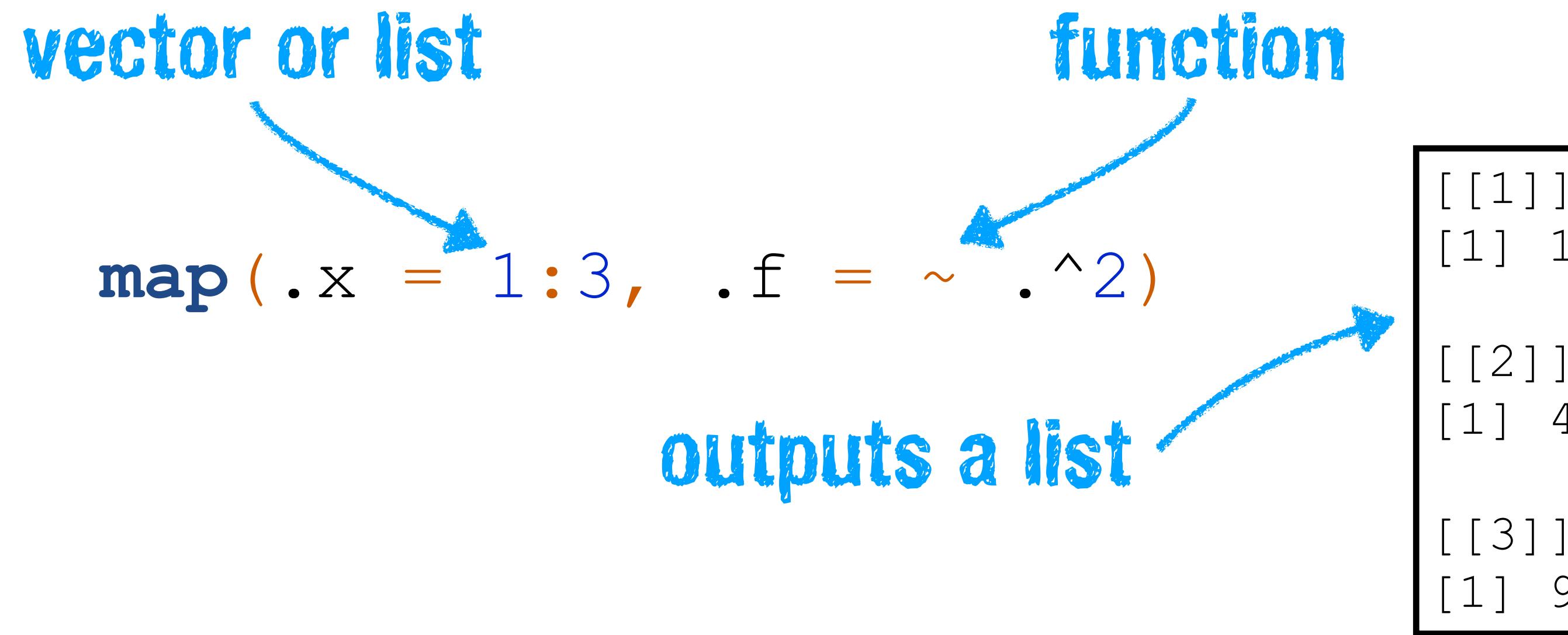
```
library("purrr")
```



automatically loaded with
library("tidyverse")

map ()

map ()



- **map**(list, function) applies a function to each element of the list
- it's a unified version of the many different **apply**() functions in base R
- you already know a cousin of **map**(): **replicate**()
- use **map**(), don't write `for () {}` loops!
- it's extremely powerful in combination with data frames

map ()

same same but different

```
map (.x = 1:3, .f = ~ .x^2)
```

```
map (1:3, ~ .x^2)
```

```
map (1:3, ~ .^2)
```

```
map (.x = 1:3, .f = function (.x) .x^2)
```

```
# using a function
```

```
square = function (x) {x^2}  
map (1:3, square)
```

INTERACTIVE COURSE

Foundations of Functional Programming with purrr

[Start Course For Free](#)

[Bookmark](#)

⌚ 4 hours ⏹ 13 Videos ↗ 44 Exercises 📃 7,769 Participants 🏆 3,750 XP

Course Description

Lists can be difficult to both understand and manipulate, but they can pack a ton of information and are very powerful. In this course, you will learn to easily extract, summarize, and manipulate lists and how to export the data to your desired object, be it another list, a vector, or even something else! Throughout the course, you will work with the `purrr` package and a variety of datasets from the `reprex` package, including data from Star Wars and Wes Anderson films and data collected about GitHub users and GitHub repos. Following this course, your list skills will be purrrfect!

1 Simplifying Iteration and Lists With purrr FREE

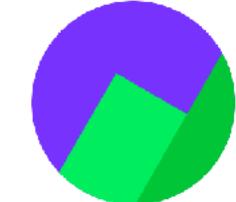
0%

Iteration is a powerful way to make the computer do the work for you. It can also be an area of coding where it is easy to make lots of typos and simple mistakes. The `purrr` package helps simplify iteration so you can focus on the next step, instead of finding typos.

- | | |
|---|--------|
| ▶ The power of iteration | 50 xp |
| ◀/▶ Introduction to iteration | 100 xp |
| ◀/▶ Iteration with purrr | 100 xp |
| ◀/▶ More iteration with for loops | 100 xp |
| ◀/▶ More iteration with purrr | 100 xp |
| ▶ Subsetting lists; it's not that hard! | 50 xp |
| ◀/▶ Subsetting lists | 100 xp |
| ◀/▶ Subsetting list elements | 100 xp |

This course is part of these tracks:

Intermediate Tidyverse Toolbox



DataCamp Content Creator

Course Instructor

This instructor prefers to remain anonymous.

[See More](#)

COLLABORATOR(S)

- | | |
|--|---------------|
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| | Becca Robins |

<https://www.datacamp.com/courses-foundations-of-functional-programming-with-purrr>

Plan for today

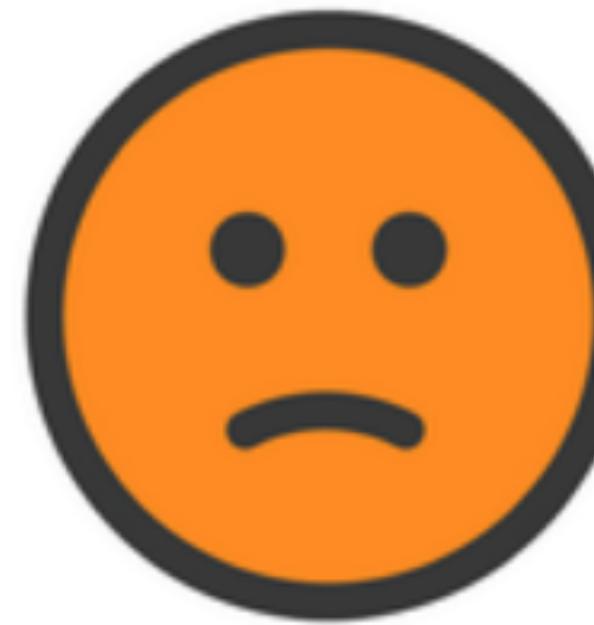
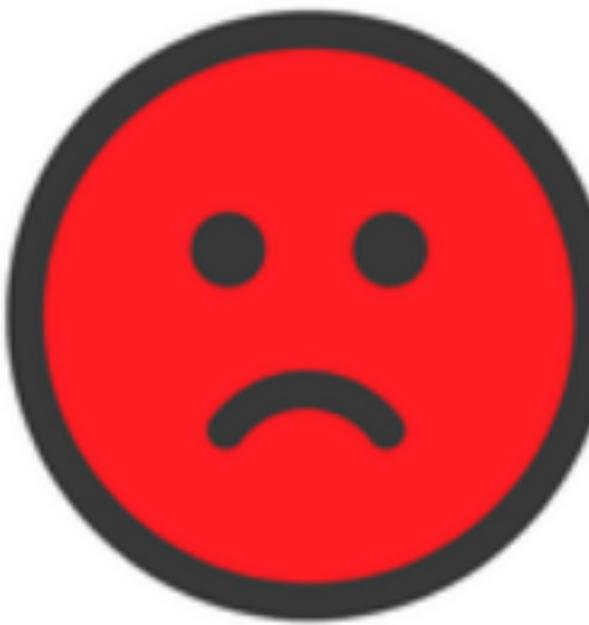
- Quick recap
- Generalized linear model
- Power analysis
 - Making decisions
 - Calculating power
 - Effect sizes
 - Determining sample size

Feedback

How was the pace of today's class?

much a little just a little much
too too right too too
slow slow fast fast

How happy were you with today's class overall?



What did you like about today's class? What could be improved next time?

Thank you!