Statistical Computing with R: Masters in Data Sciences 503 (S18) Fourth Batch, SMS, TU, 2025

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Unit 4: Review Preview 1

- Average
 - Geometric mean
 - Harmonic mean

- Moments
 - First order
 - Second order
 - Third order
 - Fourth order

- Normal distribution
 - Skewness
 - Kurtosis
- Relative measures
 - Quintiles
 - Percentiles
 - Standard or z-score
- Breakdown analysis: "apply"

Measures of central tendencies

 Computing measure of central tendency, dispersion, moments and relations position in R using packages and functions/scripts

- Measures of Central Tendency mean, median, mode, geometric mean, harmonic mean
- Measure of Dispersion standard deviation, inter-quartile range, range
- Moments mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis
- Relative position percentile, quartiles and z-score

Geometric mean in R:

https://www.r-bloggers.com/2021/08/calculate-geometric-mean-in-r/

- GM= $(x_1, x_2, x_3,, x_n)^{1/n}$
- exp(mean(log(x)))
- data <- c(1, 15, 12, 5, 18, 11, 12, 15, 18, 25)
- exp(mean(log(data)))
- 10.37383 (Interpretation?)

- data <- c(1, 15, 12, 5, 0,
 18, 11, 12, 15, 18, 25, 0,
 -11)</pre>
- exp(mean(log(data[data>0])))
- 10.37383
- Interpretation?
- Better for summarizing simple rates, ratios and proportions!

Harmonic mean in R: https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/harmonic-mean-in-r/

Harmonic mean (H) is defined as:

$$H = \frac{\frac{n}{1}}{\frac{1}{x_1} + \frac{1}{x_2} + \frac{1}{x_3} + \dots + \frac{1}{x_n}}$$

- It is available in "psych" package
- Syntax: harmonic.mean(x)

Harmonic mean in R: https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/harmonic-mean-in-r/

- # load the library
- library("psych")
- # create dataframe
- data=data.frame(col1=c(12,2,3,4),
- col2=c(34,32,1,0),
- col3=c(2,45,3,2)
- # display
- print(data)

- # harmonic mean of column1
- print(data\$col1)
- # harmonic mean of column2
- print(data\$col2)
- # harmonic mean of column3
- print(data\$col3)
- Interpretation?
- Better for summarizing instantaneous/marginal rates!

Moments in R: ChatGPT plug-in for Google Chrome

• To calculate moments in R, you can use the moments package, which provides functions for various statistical moments.

 Here's an example of calculating the first four moments (mean, variance, skewness, and kurtosis) for a numeric vector x:

- # Load the 'moments' package library(moments)
- # Calculate the moments of x <- c(1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
- mean_x <- mean(x) #First moment
- var_x <- var(x) #Second moment
- skewness_x <- skewness(x) #Third
- kurtosis_x <- kurtosis(x) #Fourth
- Interpretations?

Third and fourth moments

https://www.itl.nist.gov/div898/handbook/eda/section3/eda35b.htm

Skewness – symmetricity

Kurtosis – peakedness

- Pearson's coefficient of skewness
- Pearson's coefficient of kurtosis

- Bowley's coefficient of skewness
- Coefficient of excess kurtosis

Coefficient = 0 = Symmetrical

- 0 = Mesokurtic for excess kurtosis
- <0 = Platykurtic for excess kurtosis
- >0 = Letptokurtic for excess kurtosis

Percentile & quintiles in R: ChatGPT plug-in for Google Chrome

- In R, you can calculate percentiles or quartiles or quntiles using the quantile() function.
- The function takes two arguments: the data vector and the desired percentile.
- Here's an example:
- # Create a sample vector of data
- data <- c(12, 5, 9, 17, 3, 8, 10)

- # Calculate the 75th percentile
- percentile_75 <- quantile(data, 0.75)
- # Print the result
- print(percentile_75)
- The output will be the 75th percentile of the data vector, in this case, 11.5.

Standard score or z-score in R: ChatGPT plug-in for Google Chrome

- In R, you can calculate the zscore using the scale() function. The scale() function standardizes a numeric vector by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation.
- # Calculate the z-score
- z_scores <- scale(values)

- # Print the z-scores
- print(z scores)

- # Create a vector of numeric values
- values <- c(10, 15, 12, 8, 20)

 This will give you the standardized z-scores for each value in the vector.

Breakdown analysis with "apply" function

https://www.geeksforgeeks.org/apply-lapply-sapply-and-tapply-in-r/

- tapply() function
- The <u>tapply()</u> helps us to compute statistical measures (mean, median, min, max, etc..) or a self-written function operation for each factor variable in a vector.
- It helps us to create a subset of a vector and then apply some functions to each of the subsets.

- # load library tidyverse
- library(tidyverse)
- # print head of diamonds dataset
- head(diamonds)
- # apply tapply function to get average price by cut
- tapply(diamonds\$price, diamonds\$cut, mean)

Question/queries so far?

Unit 4: Review Preview 2

- Probability distribution functions
 - Discrete
 - Continuous

Demo with selected distributions

 Normal approximations of binomial distribution

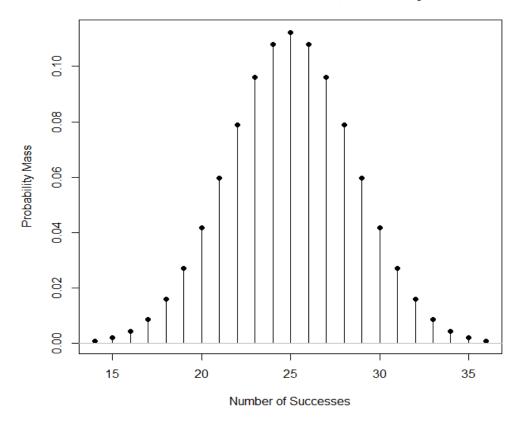
- Test of normality
 - Graphical
 - Test

Discrete probability distribution:

- Binomial
- Poisson
- Geometric
- Hypergeometric
- Negative binomial etc.

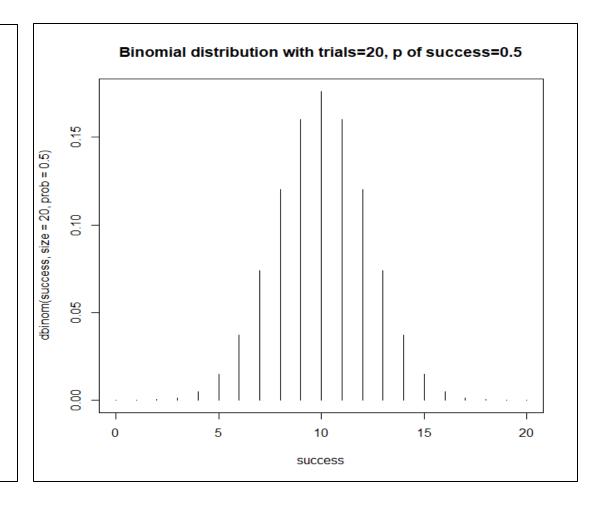
 Binomial distribution is used heavily in the classification models of supervised learning!

Binomial Distribution: Binomial trials=50, Probability of success=0.4



Discrete probability distribution: Binomial (Check with p=0.3 and p=0.7 vs p=0.5 below!)

#Number of trials success <- 0:20 # Binomial Probability distribution with success probability of 0.5 dbinom(success, size=20, prob=0.5) #Plot plot(success, dbinom(success, size=20, prob=0.5), type="h", main = Binomial distribution with n=20 and p of success=0.5")



Let's get/check the data of success and binomial probabilities (Do this in excel):

binomc <- cbind(success, binomd)</pre>

binomc (Results are on the right side >>>)

How was the "binomd" values created?

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$
; $x = 0,1,2,...,n$.

where
$$\binom{n}{x} = \frac{n!}{x! * (n-x)!}$$

$$n! = n * (n - 1) * ... * 3 * 2 * 1$$

Prove that: sum of "binomd" = 1 in R and Excel! Why is this important?

```
binomd
      success
 [1,]
            0 0.0000009536743
 [2,]
           1 0.0000190734863
[3,]
          2 0.0001811981201
[4,]
            3 0.0010871887207
[5,]
            4 0.0046205520630
[6,]
            5 0.0147857666016
[7,1]
           6 0.0369644165039
            7 0.0739288330078
[8,]
[9,] 8 0.1201343536377
[10,]
           9 0.1601791381836
           10 0.1761970520020
[11,]
[12,]
           11 0.1601791381836
[13,]
           12 0.1201343536377
[14,]
           13 0.0739288330078
[15,]
           14 0.0369644165039
[16,]
           15 0.0147857666016
[17,]
           16 0.0046205520630
```

What is normal approximation of binomial distribution? When to use it??

- Is it related to the sample size of the successes and failures?
- Earlier when n*p >5 and n*q>5, it was considered that it will approximate the normal distribution
- Now, it is set at n*p>10 and n*q>10! Important for class imbalance problems!!

- Which regression model is used when we need to use normal distribution for dichotomous or binary dummy dependent variable (Yes = 1 and No = 0)
- Logistic regression model because log transformation was used to convert the exponential equation form to make it linear model!
- What to do if we have class imbalance problem?

Q2: When and how to use?

Poisson distribution?

 Zero-inflated Poisson distribution. When to use?

Negative binomial distribution.
 When to use?

- Hypergeometric distribution?
 - Fisher's exact test??
 - When to use????

Continuous probability distributions:

- Normal
- T
- Chi-square
- F
- Exponential
- Logistic etc.

Normal Distribution Formula

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

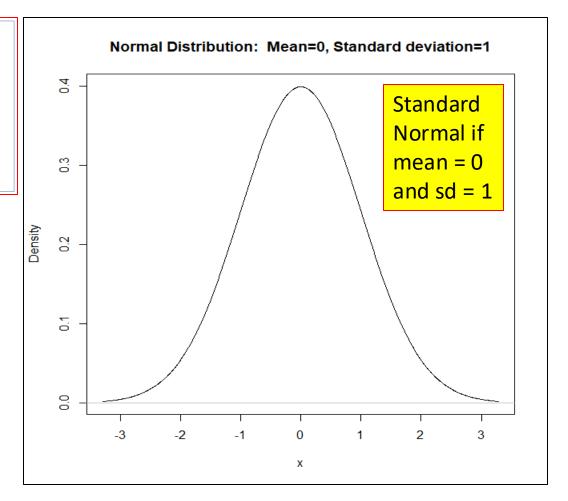
 $\mu = \text{mean of } x$

 σ = standard deviation of x

 $\pi \approx 3.14159 \dots$

 $e \approx 2.71828 ...$

 Normal/Standard Normal Distribution is used in the linear and general linear regression models of supervised learning!



Normal Distribution of values between -4 and +4 with pre-defined population mean and sd:

#Define mean and SD

pop_mean <- 50

pop_sd <- 5

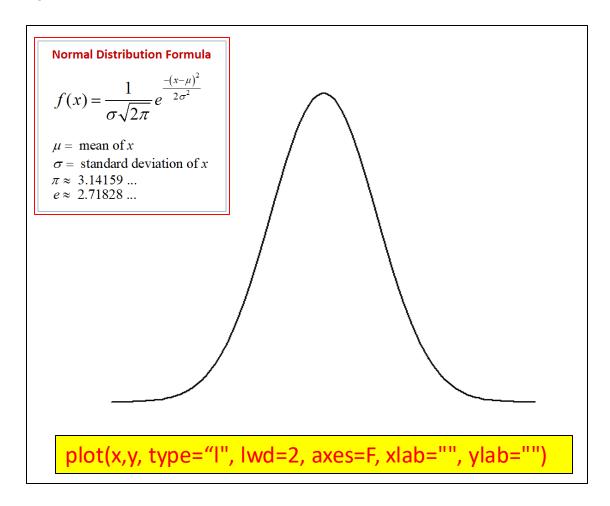
#Define lower and upper limits

LL <- pop_mean - pop_sd

UL <- pop_mean + pop_sd

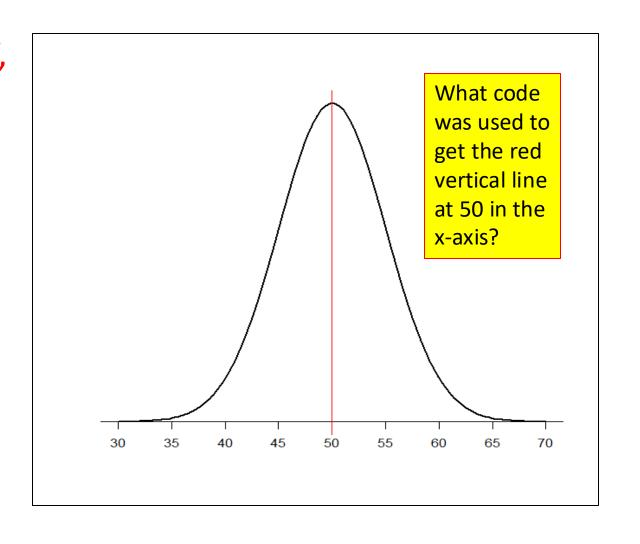
#Create a sequence of 100 x values based on pop mean and sd

x <- seq(-4,4, length=100)*pop_sd+pop_mean y <- dnorm(x, pop_mean, pop_sd)</pre>



Adding x-axis values and mean in the curve:

```
plot(x,y, type="l", lwd=2, axes=F,
xlab="", ylab="")
sd_axis_bounds = 5
axis bounds <- seq(-
sd axis bounds*pop sd+
pop mean,
sd axis bounds*pop sd +
pop mean, by=pop sd)
axis(side=1, at=axis bounds,
pos=0
abline(??)
```



Class work 1:

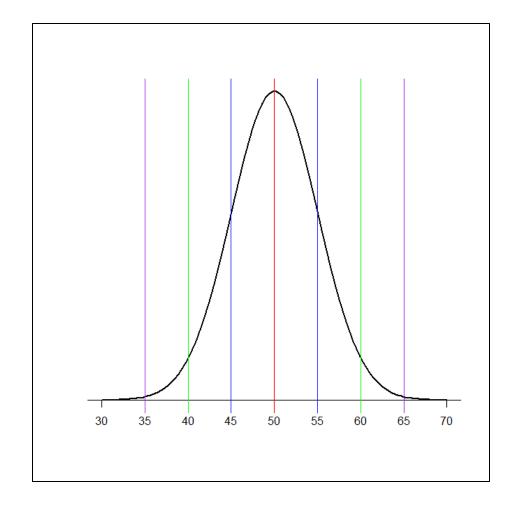
 Get this graph and provide annotation in it as follows:

• 45-55: mean ± 1SD = 67% data

• 40-60: mean ± 2SD = 95% data

• 35-65: mean ± 3SD = 99% data

Note: You can use ggplot2 package, if required!



Why normal distribution is important?

- When continuous variable follows the theoretical normal distribution then we <u>must</u> summarize that variable using mean and standard deviation
- We can also use t-test and 1-way ANOVA to compare means across two or more categories of categorical variables respectively
- When continuous variable do not follow the theoretical normal distribution then we <u>must</u> summarize that variable using median and inter-quartile range
- We can only use <u>median test</u> to compare median across two or more categories of the categorical variables

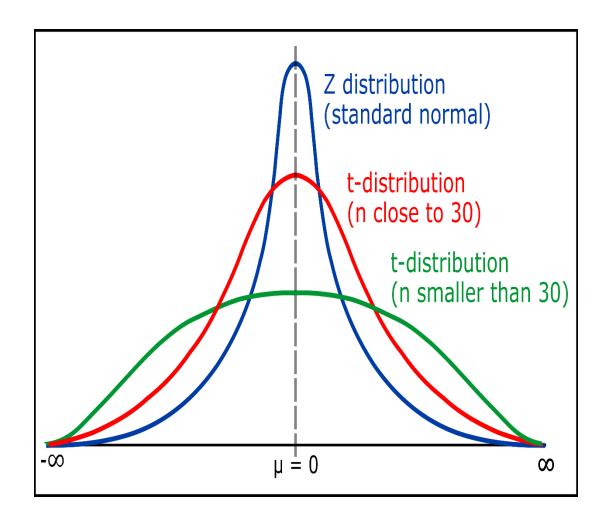
Q3: Why these test must NOT be used?

- Mann-Whitney U test must not be used to compare medians across two categories of a categorical variable?
- Kruskal-Wallis W test must not be used to compare medians across two categories of a categorical variable?

- e.g. comparing age by sex as sex variable normally has two categories "male" and "female" if age is not normally distributed
- e.g. comparing age by socioeconomic status (SES) variable as SES has 3 categories (low, middle, high) or 5 categories (lowest, low, middle, high, highest) if age is normal!

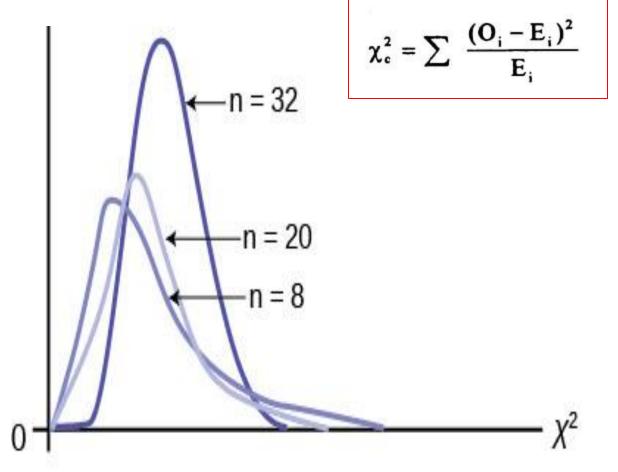
T and Z distributions: Old school approach!

- T distribution is <u>normally</u> used when there is small sample size, say, random samples < 30
- As the sample size increases tdistribution behaves like normal distribution so we can use it for large samples too!
- Linear regression is extension of ttest and linear correlation! Thus, two assumptions are important!



Chi-square and Z distributions:

- Chi-square distribution is normally used in contingency tables or crosstabulations to find "association" between dependent and independent variable categories. It is also used for goodness-of-test and comparing proportions across categories!
- As the sample size increases chisquare distribution also behaves like normal distribution
- Logistic regression is extension of <u>chi-square test!</u>



Q4: Why?

- Logistic regression is described as the extension of the Pearson's chi-square test?
- Both are used to get/test the association between two (or more variables)
- p-value<0.05 means association is statistically significant!

- Prove it with an example!
- Hint: Create a two-by-two table e.g. smoking vs lung cancer
- Get p-value from chi-square test
- Get p-value from bivariate logistic regression
- Are they same? If yes then good!

Class work 2: Statistical tests are "robust"!

- Get stem-leaf plot, histogram and normal q-q plot of <u>mpg</u> <u>variable</u> of the "mtcars" data
- Test the normality of mpg variable of mtcars data using shapiro wilk test (Why this test?)
- shapiro.test(data)

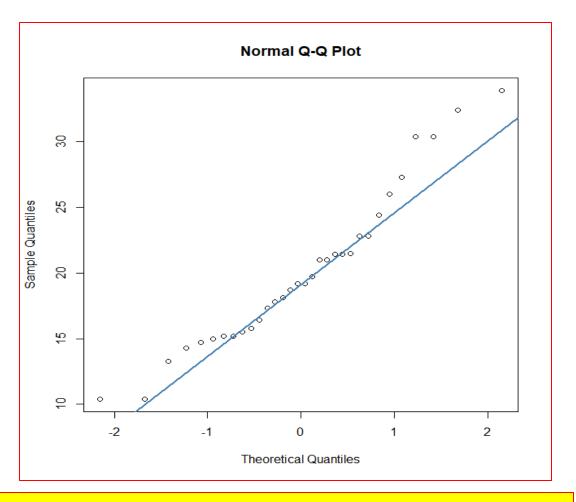
Shapiro-Wilk normality test

data: mtcars\$mpg

W = 0.94756, p-value = 0.1229

H₀: Data follows normal distribution (p>0.05)

 H_1 : Data do not follow normal distribution (p<=0.05)



H₀: No difference between data and normal distribution

H₁: Difference between data and normal distribution

Question/queries so far?

• Next class:

Hypothesis testing with:

- Z-test
- T-test
- Proportion test ...

Thank you!

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