

8- Hypothesis testing with qualitative variables

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Readme

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Introduction

- Categorical variables represent facts that can be better described with *labels* than with numbers.
 - Example: Sex, better choose from {Male , Female} than from: {1,2}.
- Sometimes ordering of labels makes sense, although it is not reasonable to assign numbers to categories:
 - Example: Tumor stage: {1,2,3,4}, but $1 + 2 \neq 3!!!$
- Sex is an example of a categorical variable in nominal scale
- Stage is an example of a categorical variable in ordinal scale

```
sex <- factor(c("Female", "Male"))  
stage <- factor(1:4, ordered=TRUE)
```

Example

- Select one of the datasets that you have worked with during the course
 - diabetes.xls
 - osteopòrosis.csv
 - demora.xls
- Read the dataset and check that the categorical variables you are interested in are converted into factors.
- Confirm the conversion by summarizing the variables

The analysis of categorical variables

- The analysis of categorical data proceeds as usual:
 - Start exploring the data with the tables and graphics
 - Proceed to estimation and testing if *appropriate*
- Estimation
 - Proportions: Point estimates, confidence intervals, Sample Size
- Testing
 - One variable (tests with proportions)
 - Does the proportion (% affected) match a given value?
 - Is the proportion (% affected) the same in two populations?
 - With two variables (chi-square and related)
 - Is there an association between two categorical variables?
 - Is there a relationship between the values of a categorical variable before and after treatment?

Example

Consider the following study relating smoking and cancer

Load data: "dadescancer.csv"

	Smoking $X=1$	Non smoking $X=0$	TOTAL
CANCER $Y=1$	190	87	277
NO CANCER $Y=0$	60	163	223
TOTAL	250	250	500

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Crosstabulating a dataset

```
dadescancer <- read.csv("datasets/dadescancer.csv", stringsAsFactors = FALSE)
```

```
attach(dadescancer)
mytable <- table(cancer, fumar)
mytable
```

##		fumar	
##	cancer	Fuma	No fuma
##	Cancer	190	87
##	No cancer	60	163

Crosstabulation (2): Marginal tables

```
margin.table(mytable, 1) # A frequencies (summed over B)
```

```
## cancer
```

```
##      Cancer No cancer
```

```
##      277      223
```

```
margin.table(mytable, 2) # B frequencies (summed over A)
```

```
## fumar
```

```
##      Fuma No fuma
```

```
##      250      250
```


Crosstabulation (2): In percentages

```
prop.table(mytable) # cell percentages
```

```
##           fumar
## cancer      Fuma No fuma
##   Cancer    0.380  0.174
##   No cancer 0.120  0.326
```

```
prop.table(mytable, 1) # row percentages
```

```
##           fumar
## cancer      Fuma  No fuma
##   Cancer    0.6859206 0.3140794
##   No cancer 0.2690583 0.7309417
```

```
# prop.table(mytable, 2) # column percentages
```

Exercise

- With the osteoporosis dataset repeat the crosstabulation done above using
 - Two categorical variables
 - Variable “MENOP” and a newly created variable “catBUA” created by properly categorizing variable BUA.

One variable: Proportion tests

- According to medical literature, in the period 1950-1980, the proportion of obese individuals (defined by medical criteria: $\text{BMI} \geq 30$) was 15% in the population of men over 55 years old.
- A random sample obtained from the same population between 2000 and 2003 showed that, over a total of 723 men older than 55, 142 were obese.
- Considering that the significance level that we use is 5%, can we say that the population of men older than 55 in 2000-2003 had the same proportion of obese cases than that population had in 50'-80'?

Proportion tests with R

```
prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15)
```

```
##  
## 1-sample proportions test with continuity correction  
##  
## data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15  
## X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.0005768  
## alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.15  
## 95 percent confidence interval:  
## 0.1684325 0.2276606  
## sample estimates:  
##          p  
## 0.1964039
```

Estimation comes with proportion test

- `prop.test` does **three** distinct calculations
 - A test for the hypothesis $H_0 : p = p_0$ is performed
 - A confidence interval for p is built based on the sample
 - A point estimate for p is also provided.

```
> prop.test(x=142, n=723, p=0.15)
```

1-sample proportions test with continuity correction

data: 142 out of 723, null probability 0.15
X-squared = 11.849, df = 1, p-value = 0.0005768
alternative hypothesis: true p is not equal to 0.15

Hypothesis Test

95 percent confidence interval:
0.1684325 0.2276606

Confidence interval

sample estimates:

p
0.1964039

Point estimate

Exercise

- In the osteoporosis dataset
 - Test the hypothesis that the proportion of women with osteoporosis is higher than 7%
 - In the global population of the study
 - Only in women with osteoporosis
 - Select a sample of size 100 and repeat the test. How do the results change?
 - What sample size should we have taken so that the precision of the confidence intervals would have been at most 3% with a probability of 95%?

Contingency tables

- A contingency table (a.k.a cross tabulation or cross tab) is a matrix-like table that displays the (multivariate) frequency distribution of the variables.
- It is bidimensional, and classifies all observations according with two qualitative variables (A and B, rows and columns).

Clasif	B_1	B_2	...	B_s	Total
A_1	n_{11}	n_{12}	...	n_{1s}	$n_{1\bullet}$
A_2	n_{21}	n_{22}	...	n_{2s}	$n_{2\bullet}$
...	
A_r	n_{r1}	n_{r2}	...	n_{rs}	$n_{r\bullet}$
Total	$n_{\bullet 1}$	$n_{\bullet 2}$		$n_{\bullet s}$	N

Chi-squared test

Chi squared independence test

- When the sample comes from a single population with 2 qualitative variables, the aim is to determine if there is relationship between vars:

Chi squared homogeneity test

- When each row is a sample from distinct populations (groups, subgroups. . .), the aim is to determine if both groups have significative differences in that variable

Chi-squared tests

- When we have:
 - quantitative data,
 - one or more categories,
 - independent observations,
 - adequate sample size (>10)
- and our questions are like...
 - *Do the number of individuals or objects that fall in each category differ significantly from the number you would expect?*
 - *Is this difference between the expected and observed due to sampling variation, or is it a real difference?*

Chi squared.test: Observed vs expected

Observades	Braf -	Braf +
Grau 1	97	5
Grau 2	81	7
Grau 3	32	18

Esperades	Braf -	Braf +
Grau 1	89.25	12.75
Grau 2	77.00	11.00
Grau 3	43.75	6.25

Chi squared tests with R

```
mytable <-table(cancer, fumar)
chisq.test (mytable)
```

```
##
```

```
## Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
```

```
##
```

```
## data: mytable
```

```
## X-squared = 84.214, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

Alternatively use Fisher test

```
fisher.test(mytable)
```

```
##
```

```
## Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data
```

```
##
```

```
## data: mytable
```

```
## p-value < 2.2e-16
```

```
## alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is not equal to 1
```

Exercise

- Use the osteoporosis dataset to study if it can be detected an association between the variables `menop` and `classific` in the osteoporosis dataset.
- Do not start with a test but with an appropriate summarization and visualization!