

Categorical data methods: Outline

- inference for one proportion
- inference for two proportions
- chi-squared tests (multinomial, goodness-of-fit)
- paired proportions

Inference for a single proportion

- Assume independent n identical trials, Y_i , $i = 1 \dots n$, binary (zero or one) responses, with constant $\Pr(\text{success}) = \pi$
- define $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = \#$ of successes in n trials
- define $p = \frac{Y}{n} =$ sample proportion of successes
- we write $Y \sim \text{Bin}(n, \pi)$
 - $f(y) = \Pr(Y = y) = \binom{n}{k} \pi^k (1 - \pi)^{n-k}$
for $y = 0, 1, \dots, n$
 - $EY = n\pi$
 - $\text{Var}(Y) = n\pi(1 - \pi)$
 - note $p = Y/n$ is not binomial;
 $Ep = \pi$ and $\text{Var}(p) = \pi(1 - \pi)/n$

Inference for a single proportion

- Independence of individual events (0/1 responses) is crucial!
- A corollary of independence:
each trial has same π
- Violation of either \rightarrow wrong Var p
- Key result:
 - if $n\pi \geq 5$ and $n(1 - \pi) \geq 5$,
then p is approx $N(\pi, \pi(1 - \pi)/n)$
 - Approximate $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for π is

$$p \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}},$$

can be < 0 or > 1 ,

- better approx. available (Fleiss, Stat. Meth. for Rates and Proportions).

Inference for a single proportion

- Test $H_0 : \pi = \pi_o$ using test statistic

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - \pi_o}{\sqrt{\pi_o(1 - \pi_o)/n}}$$

P -value from standard normal distn

- Note: variance calculated at π_o (H_0 value of π)
- If sample size is too small for above test or CI, then use exact binomial calculations (i.e. a randomization test)

Inference for two proportions

- Now consider methods for two proportions
- $Y_1 \sim \text{Bin}(n_1, \pi_1)$ and $Y_2 \sim \text{Bin}(n_2, \pi_2)$
 Y_1 and Y_2 are independent r.v's.
- Goal (for now) is inference for $\pi_1 - \pi_2$
- Assume n_1 and n_2 are sufficiently large (usual rule)
- Basic result:
 - $p_1 - p_2$ is approx $N\left(\pi_1 - \pi_2, \frac{\pi_1(1-\pi_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\pi_2(1-\pi_2)}{n_2}\right)$
 - $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval

$$p_1 - p_2 \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{p_1(1-p_1)}{n_1} + \frac{p_2(1-p_2)}{n_2}}$$

Inference for two proportions

- Test $H_0 : \pi_1 = \pi_2$
 - note: under H_0 std error of $p_1 - p_2$ is different than given on previous slide (since $\pi_1 = \pi_2$)
 - use pooled estimate $p = (Y_1 + Y_2)/(n_1 + n_2)$
 - $z = (p_1 - p_2) / \sqrt{p(1-p) \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$
 - P -value from standard normal distn

Odds and Odds ratio

- Definition: odds in favor of success = $\pi_1/(1 - \pi_1)$
- Odds ratio for pop'n 2 relative to pop'n 1

$$\phi = \frac{\pi_2/(1 - \pi_2)}{\pi_1/(1 - \pi_1)} = \frac{\pi_2(1 - \pi_1)}{(1 - \pi_2)\pi_1}$$

- Interpretation:
 - $\phi = 1$ means no difference in odds/proportions
 $\phi > 1$ means event more likely in population 2.
 - shows up frequently in medical statistics
 - later models allow for multiplicative changes to odds (e.g., logistic regression)
 - $\log \phi$ commonly used, is symmetric around 0

Inference for odds ratio

- Estimate: $\hat{\phi} = \frac{p_2 (1-p_1)}{(1-p_2) p_1} = \frac{Y_2 (n_1 - Y_1)}{(n_2 - Y_2) Y_1}$
- For large n ,
 $\log \hat{\phi} \sim N(\log \phi, \frac{1}{n_1 \pi_1 (1-\pi_1)} + \frac{1}{n_2 \pi_2 (1-\pi_2)})$
- $\text{Var } \log \hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{Y_1} + \frac{1}{n_1 - Y_1} + \frac{1}{Y_2} + \frac{1}{n_2 - Y_2}$
- If 0's, add 0.5 to all counts:

$$\log \hat{\phi} = \frac{(Y_2 + 0.5) (n_1 - Y_1 + 0.5)}{(n_2 - Y_2 + 0.5) (Y_1 + 0.5)}$$

$$\text{Var } \log \hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{Y_1 + 0.5} + \frac{1}{n_1 - Y_1 + 0.5} + \frac{1}{Y_2 + 0.5} + \frac{1}{n_2 - Y_2 + 0.5}$$

Contingency tables

- Categorical data is often recorded in contingency tables

Rows	Columns			
	1	2	\dots	c
1	n_{11}	n_{12}	\dots	n_{1c}
2	n_{21}	n_{22}	\dots	n_{2c}
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
r	n_{r1}	n_{r2}	\vdots	n_{rc}

- Also called cross-classification tables or $r \times c$ table
- Can also be more than two-dimensional (we don't consider higher-dimensions here)
- We assume r rows and c columns

Contingency tables

- Examples

- comparing two proportions (2×2 table with rows = populations, cols = success/failure)
- comparing more than two proportions ($r \times 2$ table)
- comparing two multinomial distns (more than two outcomes for each of two populations in a $2 \times c$ table)
- comparing more than two multinomial distns ($r \times c$ table)
- analyzing a single population classified on two dimensions (test for indep of the two dimens)
- also allow possibility of $1 \times c$ table (test for goodness-of-fit to model)

Contingency tables

- Three possible probability structures for the counts in the table
 - a) If each row is a different population then it is natural to think of the proportions in each row (π_{ij} , $j = 1, \dots, c$) as summing to one
 - If the table is a single population then it is natural to think of the proportions in the entire table as summing to one $\sum_i \sum_j \pi_{ij} = 1$
 - b) Could fix the total # observations
 - c) or let total be an r.v.
 - a) is binomial sample, b) is multinomial sampling, c) is Poisson sampling

Contingency tables

- We focus on tests of hypotheses, it turns out that a similar procedure works for all of the examples
- Null hypothesis H_0 specifies a null model (e.g., same proportions in each row)
- Expected counts:
 - Compute expected count for each cell of table under the null model (call this E_{ij})
 - $E_{ij} = (\text{row } i \text{ total})(\text{col } j \text{ total})/(\text{table total})$
 - Why?
 - Consider row = pop, col=outcome.
 - col j total / table total = proportion of outcome j
 - under H_0 , all pop have same prop., so # with outcome j in pop i = $(\text{row } i \text{ total})(\text{prop. } j)$

Chi-squared tests

- Chi-squared test statistic compares observed and expected counts across table

$$C = \sum_{\text{cells}} \frac{(\text{observed} - \text{expected})^2}{\text{expected}} = \sum_{\text{cells}} \frac{(n_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

- under H_0 , $C \sim \chi^2$ with $(r - 1)(c - 1)$ degrees of freedom, if sample size is sufficiently large
- Cochran's rule: all $E_{ij} > 1$ and 80% of $E_{ij} > 5$
- traditional rule (all $E_{ij} > 5$) is conservative
- If sample size too small:
 - can combine rows or columns
 - use exact = randomization inference

2×2 table

- The two proportion problem in a 2×2 table

popul	success	failure	total
1	Y_1	$n_1 - Y_1$	n_1
2	Y_2	$n_2 - Y_2$	n_2
total	$Y_1 + Y_2$	$N - Y_1 - Y_2$	$N = n_1 + n_2$

- Expected counts (use first cell as example)

$$E_{11} = n_1(Y_1 + Y_2)/N = n_1p$$

where p is pooled sample proportion

- Chi-squared statistic (d.f. = $(2-1)(2-1) = 1$) is the square of the z statistic comparing the two proportions

χ^2 test and logistic regression

- Notice there is no distinction between “dependent” and “independent” variables in a contingency table.
 - Can interchange rows and columns without changing meaning/interpretation of the table.
 - Logistic regression has a clear distinction between Y and X .
- Consider 2 x 2 table on previous slide
Comparing P[success — population]
- Logistic regression model, i indicates row. n_i is the row total

$$Y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, \pi_i), \quad \text{logit } \pi_i = \tau + \gamma_i$$

- Contingency table model, ij indicates cell of the table, C_{ij} is the count in cell ij

$$C_{ij} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda_{ij}), \quad \log \lambda_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \alpha\beta_{ij}$$

χ^2 test and logistic regression

- CT model above fits the counts perfectly. χ^2 is a measure of lack-of-fit of the additive model (all $\alpha\beta_{ij} = 0$).
- γ_i in the LR model and $\alpha\beta_{ij}$ in the CT model parameterize the same quantity: the difference in probabilities between the rows
- Test statistics and p-values usually slightly diff. because LR uses deviance, CT uses χ^2 .

$r \times c$ table

- Null hypothesis depends on scenario
- Examples
 - $r \times 2$ table: let π_i = prob of success in pop. i ($i = 1, \dots, r$) and test $H_0 : \pi_1 = \pi_2 = \dots = \pi_r$
 - $2 \times c$ table: let $\{\pi_{ij}, j = 1, \dots, c\}$ represent the distrn of outcomes in popul i ($i = 1, 2$) and test $H_0 : \pi_{1j} = \pi_{2j}$ for all j
 - $r \times c$ table: let π_{ij} represent proportion of popul classified into row i , col j and test H_0 : row and col classifications are indep ($H_o : \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i+} \pi_{+j}$)
- Expected counts and d.f. are computed the same way in each case

$r \times c$ table

- Note: chi-squared test may have many d.f., small P values reject H_0 but don't tell how it fails
 - can look at chi-squared residuals: $(\text{observed} - \text{expected})/\sqrt{\text{expected}}$
 - Same as the Pearson χ^2 residual in a logistic regression
 - or test more focused hypotheses, i.e.
 - compute χ^2 for a subset of rows and columns
 - or, combine rows and / or columns
 - both, analogous to contrasts

$r \times c$ table

- Example:

Counts			Residuals		
50	20	10	1.831	-1.444	-1.021
10	20	10	-2.119	1.671	1.182
10	10	5	-0.596	0.470	0.332

- Overall $\chi^2 = 15.85$, 4 df, $p = 0.0032$
- Residuals pick out [2,1] entry as unusually low, [1,1] unusually high
- χ^2 on just 2'nd and 3'rd columns: $\chi^2 = 0$, 2 df, $p = 1.00$

“Continuity correction”

- A detail to be aware of
- Sometimes, test statistic computed as

$$C = \sum_{ij} \frac{(|O_{ij} - E_{ij}| - 0.5)^2}{E_{ij}}$$

- the -0.5 is called a continuity correction
- Motivation:
 - C is computed from integers, so support is a discrete set of values
 - theoretical distribution is continuous (χ^2)
 - -0.5 improves correspondence between the two distributions
- some use always. I never do.
 - reduces power.
 - Effect on α level of test small unless sample sizes are small
 - when you should be doing a randomization test anyway.

goodness-of-fit test

- Sometimes we have a $1 \times c$ table listing counts of different categorical outcomes and wish to compare the observed dn. to a model (e.g., Poisson, Binomial)
- Chi-squared test
 - same test statistic (sum of $(\text{obs} - \text{exp})^2 / \text{exp}$)
 - expected counts now computed using the hypothesized model
 - degrees of freedom = $c - 1$
 - assumes model completely specified.
 - Does not account for estimating parameters (e.g. $\hat{\lambda}$ in Poisson).
 - Theory exists (Kendall and Stewart, Adv. Theory of Statistics, 4th ed., section 30.11 et seq.)
 - fewer d.f. how many fewer depends on how parameters estimated
 - I don't know any program that computes this.

Fisher's exact test

- Previous methods ALL assume large samples
- Fisher's exact test for comparing two proportions examines n_{11} and computes the exact probability of observing a table as or more extreme assuming the row and column totals stay fixed
- Why fix row and col totals?
 - (they were fixed by design in Fisher's example)
 - but very rare in practice.
 - theory: row and col totals are ancillary for inferences about odds ratio(s)
 - so condition on observed total even if not fixed
- Hypergeometric distn is the relevant reference distn

$$\Pr(N_{11} = n_{11}) = \frac{n_{1+}!n_{2+}!n_{+1}!n_{+2}!}{N!n_{11}!n_{12}!n_{21}!n_{22}!}$$

Fisher's exact test

- P -value is sum of probability for tables as or more extreme, e.g., if we observe

pop	succ.	fail.
1	1	7
2	4	4

then as or more extreme tables are

pop	succ.	fail.	pop	succ.	fail.
1	1	7	1	0	8
2	4	4	2	5	3

- problem for randomization-based inference because set of possible outcomes larger if do not condition on row and col totals. active discussion, no consensus
- traditional solution is to condition and use Fisher's exact test, in spite of possible problems.

Paired data

- What if the data are repeated measurements (e.g., success/failure at time 1 and success/failure at time 2)
- Still get a 2×2 table but now we don't have independent proportions
- Pairing often ignored - bad analysis!
- Correct analysis: A new 2×2 table.
 - cross-classify each pair
 - Row = response at time 1,
 - Col = response at time 2
- Notation: let π_{ij} = proportion with resp i at time 1 and j at time 2; take the table total to be n

Time 1	Time 2		total
	1(+)	2(-)	
1(+)	π_{11}	π_{12}	π_{1+}
2(-)	π_{21}	π_{22}	
total	π_{+1}		

Paired data

- Diagonals have no information about change over time
- Tests only use pairs with discordant responses: $(-,+)$ or $(+,-)$
- Under H_0 : $\pi_1 = \pi_2$, $p_{-+} = p_{+-}$
- Two approaches:
 - Standard (large sample) approach gives
 - $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI for $\pi_{1+} - \pi_{+1}$ as:

$$p_{1+} - p_{+1} \pm z_{1-\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}(p_{1+}(1 - p_{1+}) + p_{+1}(1 - p_{+1}) - 2(p_{11}p_{22} - p_{12}p_{21}))}$$

- and normally distributed test statistic $z = (n_{12} - n_{21})/\sqrt{n_{12} + n_{21}}$
- Small sample test of $H_0 : \pi_{1+} = \pi_{+1}$ looks only at off-diagonals: use $n_{12} \sim \text{Bin}(n_{12} + n_{21}, 0.5)$ to find P -value (known as McNemar's test - agrees with prev test in large samples)

More complicated models

- What about more complicated models? i.e. binary response with:
 - factorial treatment structure: below
 - continuous X's (regression): logistic regression
 - random effects: generalized linear mixed models
 - ordered categories: e.g. Yes, somewhat, No. Hard
- A 6 x 2 x 2 table: Seed germination study

		Amount of water					
Cover	Germinate?	1	2	3	4	5	6
No	Yes	22	41	66	82	79	0
	No	78	59	34	18	21	100
Yes	Yes	45	65	81	55	31	10
	No	55	35	19	45	69	90

3 way tables

- Can consider as a logistic regression with 2 factors
- or a 3 way contingency table

$$C_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + \gamma_k + \alpha\beta_{ij} + \alpha\gamma_{ik} + \beta\gamma_{jk} + \alpha\beta\gamma_{ijk}$$

- i indexes cover, j indexes water, k indexes germinated (Y row or N row)
- Don't care about μ , α_i , β_j , γ_k , and $\alpha\beta_{ij}$
- They depend on total # germinated, total # in each column, total # in each row, and # in each cover/water category
- Interactions with γ_k parameterize differences in germination
 - $\alpha\gamma_{ik}$: between cover levels summing over water
 - $\beta\gamma_{jk}$: between water amounts summing over cover
 - $\alpha\beta\gamma_{ijk}$: 2 way interaction between cover and water

3 way tables

- Why even think about such analysis???
 - 1 It's complicated,
 - 2 indirect, (interactions with γ)
 - 3 and ignores the obvious response: germination
- LR can have numerical difficulties fitting factor models
- Will happen for these data because of the 0's at water amount 6.
- LR β for water amount 6 is $-\infty$
- CT analysis avoids such problems.