Contingency Tables Part One

STA 312: Fall 2012

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Suggested Reading: Chapter 2

- Read Sections 2.1-2.4
- You are not responsible for Section 2.5
Overview

1. Definitions
2. Study Designs and Models
3. Odds ratio
4. Testing Independence
We are interested in **relationships** between variables

A *contingency table* is a joint frequency distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No Pneumonia</th>
<th>Pneumonia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Vitamin C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 mg. or more Daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A contingency table

- Counts the number of cases in combinations of two (or more) categorical variables
- In general, $X$ has $I$ categories and $Y$ has $J$ categories
- Often, $X$ is the explanatory variable and $Y$ is the response variable (like regression).
Cell probabilities $\pi_{ij}$

$i = 1, \ldots, I$ and $j = 1, \ldots, J$

### Passed the Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Did not pass</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catch-up</td>
<td>$\pi_{11}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{1+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream</td>
<td>$\pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{2+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>$\pi_{31}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{32}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{3+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{+1}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{+2}$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Marginal probabilities

- $Pr\{X = i\} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i+}$
- $Pr\{Y = j\} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \pi_{ij} = \pi_{+j}$
Conditional probabilities

\[
Pr\{Y = j|X = i\} = \frac{Pr\{Y = j \cap X = i\}}{Pr\{X = i\}} = \frac{\pi_{ij}}{\pi_{i+}}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Did not pass</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catch-up</td>
<td>(\pi_{11})</td>
<td>(\pi_{12})</td>
<td>(\pi_{1+})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream</td>
<td>(\pi_{21})</td>
<td>(\pi_{22})</td>
<td>(\pi_{2+})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>(\pi_{31})</td>
<td>(\pi_{32})</td>
<td>(\pi_{3+})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(\pi_{+1})</td>
<td>(\pi_{+2})</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Usually, interest is in the conditional distribution of the response variable given the explanatory variable.
- Sometimes, we make tables of conditional probabilities
### Cell frequencies

#### Passed the Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Did not pass</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catch-up</td>
<td>$n_{11}$</td>
<td>$n_{12}$</td>
<td>$n_{1+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream</td>
<td>$n_{21}$</td>
<td>$n_{22}$</td>
<td>$n_{2+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>$n_{31}$</td>
<td>$n_{32}$</td>
<td>$n_{3+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$n_{+1}$</td>
<td>$n_{+2}$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Did not pass</th>
<th>Passed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Catch-up</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>394</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Estimating probabilities

Should we just estimate $\pi_{ij}$ with $p_{ij} = \frac{n_{ij}}{n}$?

- Sometimes.
- It depends on the study design.
- The study design determines exactly what is in the tables.
Study designs

- Cross-sectional
- Prospective
- Retrospective
Cross-sectional design

- Both variables in the table are measured with
  - No assignment of cases to experimental conditions
  - No selection of cases based on variable values
- For example, a sample of $n$ first-year university students sign up for one of three calculus courses, and each student either passes the course or does not.
- Total sample size $n$ is fixed by the design.
- Multinomial model, with $c = IJ$ categories.
- Estimate $\pi_{ij}$ with $p_{ij}$
- Estimating conditional probabilities is easy.
Prospective design

- Prospective means “looking forward” (from explanatory to response).
- Groups that define the explanatory variable categories are formed before the response variable is observed.
- Experimental studies with random assignment are prospective (clinical trials).
- Cohort studies that follow patients who got different types of surgery.
- Stratified sampling, like interview 200 people from each province.
- Marginal totals of the explanatory variable are fixed by the design.
- Assume random sampling within each category defined by the explanatory variable, and independence between categories.
- Good for estimating *conditional* probability of response given a value of the explanatory variable.
Product multinomial

- Take independent random samples of sizes $n_{1+}, \ldots, n_{I+}$ from $I$ sub-populations.
- In each, observe a multinomial with $J$ categories. Compare.
- Example: Sample 100 entering students from each of three campuses. At the end of first year, observe whether they are in good standing, on probation, or have left the university.
- The $\pi_{ij}$ are now conditional probabilities: $\pi_{1+} = 1$
- Write the likelihood as

$$\prod_{i=1}^{3} \left[ \pi_{i1}^{n_{i1}} \pi_{i2}^{n_{i2}} (1 - \pi_{i1} - \pi_{i2})^{n_{i3}} \right]$$
Retrospective design

- Retrospective means “looking backward” (from response to explanatory).
- In a case control study, a sample of patients with a disease is compared to a sample without the disease, to discover variables that might have caused the disease.
- Vitamin C and Pneumonia (fairly rare, even in the elderly)
- Marginal totals for the response variable are fixed by the design.
- Product multinomial again
- Natural for estimating conditional probability of explanatory variable given response variable.
- Usually that’s not what you want.
- But if you know the probability of having the disease, you can use Bayes’ Theorem to estimate the conditional probabilities in the more interesting direction.
Meanings of $X$ and $Y$ “unrelated”

- Conditional distribution of $Y|X = x$ is the same for every $x$
- Conditional distribution of $X|Y = y$ is the same for every $y$
- $X$ and $Y$ are independent (if both are random)

If variables are not unrelated, call them “related.”
Put probabilities in table cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$Y = 1$</th>
<th>$Y = 2$</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$X = 1$</td>
<td>$\pi_{11}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X = 2$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21} + \pi_{22}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12} + \pi_{22}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$$Pr\{Y = 1 | X = 1\} = \frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}}$$
Conditional distribution of $Y$ given $X = x$

Same for all values of $x$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$Y = 1$</th>
<th>$Y = 2$</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}$</td>
</tr>
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<td>$\pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21} + \pi_{22}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12} + \pi_{22}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ Pr\{Y = 1|X = 1\} = Pr\{Y = 1|X = 2\} \]

\[ \Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}} = \frac{\pi_{21}}{\pi_{21} + \pi_{22}} \]

\[ \Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}(\pi_{21} + \pi_{22}) = \pi_{21}(\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}) \]

\[ \Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}\pi_{21} + \pi_{11}\pi_{22} = \pi_{11}\pi_{21} + \pi_{12}\pi_{21} \]

\[ \Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}\pi_{22} = \pi_{12}\pi_{21} \]

\[ \Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11}\pi_{22}}{\pi_{12}\pi_{21}} = \theta = 1 \]
## Cross product ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>( Y = 1 )</th>
<th>( Y = 2 )</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( X = 1 )</td>
<td>( \pi_{11} )</td>
<td>( \pi_{12} )</td>
<td>( \pi_{11} + \pi_{12} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( X = 2 )</td>
<td>( \pi_{21} )</td>
<td>( \pi_{22} )</td>
<td>( \pi_{21} + \pi_{22} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>( \pi_{11} + \pi_{21} )</td>
<td>( \pi_{12} + \pi_{22} )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\theta = \frac{\pi_{11}\pi_{22}}{\pi_{12}\pi_{21}}
\]
Conditional distribution of $X$ given $Y = y$

Same for all values of $y$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$Y = 1$</th>
<th>$Y = 2$</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$X = 1$</td>
<td>$\pi_{11}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{12}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X = 2$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21} + \pi_{22}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{11} + \pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{12} + \pi_{22}$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\Pr\{X = 1\mid Y = 1\} = \Pr\{X = 1\mid Y = 2\}
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11} + \pi_{21}} = \frac{\pi_{12}}{\pi_{12} + \pi_{22}}
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}(\pi_{12} + \pi_{22}) = \pi_{12}(\pi_{11} + \pi_{21})
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}\pi_{12} + \pi_{11}\pi_{22} = \pi_{11}\pi_{12} + \pi_{12}\pi_{21}
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \pi_{11}\pi_{22} = \pi_{12}\pi_{21}
\]

\[
\Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11}\pi_{22}}{\pi_{12}\pi_{21}} = \theta = 1
\]
X and Y independent
Meaningful in a cross-sectional design

Write the probability table as

\[
\pi = \begin{bmatrix}
  x & a - x & a \\
  b - x & 1 - a - b + x & 1 - a \\
  b & 1 - b & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Independence means \( P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y). \)
If \( x = ab \) then

\[
\pi = \begin{bmatrix}
  ab & a(1 - b) & a \\
  b(1 - a) & (1 - a)(1 - b) & 1 - a \\
  b & 1 - b & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

And the cross-product ratio \( \theta = 1. \)
Conversely

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$x$</td>
<td>$a-x$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b-x$</td>
<td>$1-a-b+x$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>$1-b$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If $\theta = 1$, then

$x(1-a-b+x) = (a-x)(b-x)$

$\Leftrightarrow x - ax - bx - x^2 = ab - ax - bx - x^2$

$\Leftrightarrow x = ab$

Meaning $X$ and $Y$ are independent.
In a $2 \times 2$ table, $\theta = 1$ if and only if the variables are unrelated, no matter how “unrelated” is expressed.

- Conditional distribution of $Y|X = x$ is the same for every $x$
- Conditional distribution of $X|Y = y$ is the same for every $y$
- $X$ and $Y$ are independent (if both are random)

It’s meaningful for all three study designs: Prospective, Retrospective and Cross-sectional.

Investigate $\theta$ a bit more.
Odds

Denoting the probability of an event by $\pi$,

$$\text{Odds} = \frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}.$$

- Implicitly, we are saying the odds are $\frac{\pi}{1-\pi}$ “to one.”
- If the probability of the event is $\pi = \frac{2}{3}$, then the odds are $\frac{2/3}{1/3} = 2$, or two to one.
- Instead of saying the odds are 5 to 2, we’d say 2.5 to one.
- Instead of saying 1 to four, we’d say 0.25 to one.
- The higher the probability, the greater the odds.
- And as the probability of an event approaches one, the denominator of the odds approaches zero.
- This means the odds can be any non-negative number.
Odds ratio

- Conditional Odds is an idea that makes sense.
- Just use a conditional probability to calculate the odds.
- Consider the ratio of the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 1$ to the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 2$.
- Could say something like “The odds of cancer are 3.2 times as great for smokers.”

\[
\frac{\text{Odds}(Y = 1|X = 1)}{\text{Odds}(Y = 1|X = 2)} = \frac{P(Y = 1|X = 1)}{P(Y = 2|X = 1)} \div \frac{P(Y = 1|X = 2)}{P(Y = 2|X = 2)}
\]
Simplify the odds ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>$X = 2$</td>
<td>$\pi_{21}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{2+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{+1}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{+2}$</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
\frac{\text{Odds}(Y = 1|X = 1)}{\text{Odds}(Y = 1|X = 2)} = \frac{P(Y = 1|X = 1)}{P(Y = 2|X = 1)} \div \frac{P(Y = 1|X = 2)}{P(Y = 2|X = 2)}
\]

\[
= \frac{\pi_{11}/\pi_{1+}}{\pi_{12}/\pi_{1+}} \div \frac{\pi_{21}/\pi_{2+}}{\pi_{22}/\pi_{2+}}
\]

\[
= \frac{\pi_{11}\pi_{22}}{\pi_{12}\pi_{21}}
\]

\[
= \theta
\]

So the cross-product ratio is actually the odds ratio.
The cross-product ratio is the odds ratio

- When $\theta = 1$,
  - The odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 1$ equal the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 2$.
  - This happens if and only if $X$ and $Y$ are unrelated.
  - Applies to all 3 study designs.
- If $\theta > 1$, the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 1$ are greater than the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 2$.
- If $\theta < 1$, the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 1$ are less than the odds of $Y = 1$ given $X = 2$. 
Odds ratio applies to larger tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dept.</th>
<th>Admitted</th>
<th>Not Admitted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dept. A</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. B</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. C</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. D</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. E</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dept. F</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>668</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The (estimated) odds of being accepted are

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{(601)(668)}{(332)(46)} = 26.3$$

times as great in Department A, compared to Department F.
Some things to notice
About the odds ratio

- The cross-product (odds) ratio is meaningful for large tables; apply it to 2x2 sub-tables.
- Re-arrange rows and columns as desired to get the cell you want in the upper left position.
- Combining rows or columns (especially columns) by adding the frequencies is natural and valid.
- If you hear something like “Chances of death before age 50 are four times as great for smokers,” most likely they are talking about an odds ratio.
Testing independence with large samples

For cross-sectional data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
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</tr>
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<td>$\pi_{22}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{2+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>$\pi_{31}$</td>
<td>$\pi_{32}$</td>
<td>$1 - \pi_{1+} - \pi_{2+}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$\pi_{+1}$</td>
<td>$1 - \pi_{+1}$</td>
<td>$1$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under $H_0: \pi_{ij} = \pi_{i+}\pi_{+j}$

- There are $(I - 1) + (J - 1)$ free parameters: The marginal probabilities.

- MLEs of marginal probabilities are $\hat{\pi}_{i+} = p_{i+}$ and $\hat{\pi}_{+j} = p_{+j}$

- Restricted MLEs are $\hat{\pi}_{ij} = p_{i+}p_{+j}$

- The null hypothesis reduces the number of free parameters in the model by $(IJ - 1) - (I - 1 + J - 1) = (I - 1)(J - 1)$

- So the test has $(I - 1)(J - 1)$ degrees of freedom.
Estimated expected frequencies
Under the null hypothesis of independence

\[
\hat{\mu}_{ij} = n \hat{\pi}_{ij} = n \hat{\pi}_i \hat{\pi}_j = n \frac{n_i + n_j}{n} \frac{n_i + n_j}{n} = \frac{n_i + n_j}{n}
\]

(Row total) \times (Column total) \div (Total total)
Test statistics
For testing independence

\[ G^2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} n_{ij} \log \left( \frac{n_{ij}}{\hat{\mu}_{ij}} \right) \]

\[ X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(n_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{ij})^2}{\hat{\mu}_{ij}} \]

With expected frequencies

\[ \hat{\mu}_{ij} = \frac{n_i + n_j}{n} = \frac{(\text{Row total}) (\text{Column total})}{\text{Total total}} \]

And degrees of freedom

\[ df = (I - 1)(J - 1) \]
This slide show was prepared by Jerry Brunner, Department of Statistics, University of Toronto. It is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution - ShareAlike 3.0 Unported License. Use any part of it as you like and share the result freely. The \LaTeX{} source code is available from the course website: http://www.utstat.toronto.edu/~brunner/oldclass/312f12