# Contingency Tables Part One ${ }^{1}$ 

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.

|  | No Pneumonia | Pneumonia |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No Vitamin C |  |  |
| 500 mg. or more Daily |  |  |

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 $\pi_{i j}$

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

## Passed the Course

| Course | Did not pass | Passed | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Catch-up | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{1+}$ |
| Mainstream | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{2+}$ |
| Elite | $\pi_{31}$ | $\pi_{32}$ | $\pi_{3+}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{+1}$ | $\pi_{+2}$ | 1 |

Marginal probabilities

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


## Conditional probabilities

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=j \mid X=i\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=j \cap X=i\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{X=i\}}=\frac{\pi_{i j}}{\pi_{i+}}
$$

Passed the Course

| Course | Did not pass | Passed | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
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| Elite | $\pi_{31}$ | $\pi_{32}$ | $\pi_{3+}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{+1}$ | $\pi_{+2}$ | 1 |

- 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

| Course | Did not pass | Passed | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Catch-up | $n_{11}$ | $n_{12}$ | $n_{1+}$ |
| Mainstream | $n_{21}$ | $n_{22}$ | $n_{2+}$ |
| Elite | $n_{31}$ | $n_{32}$ | $n_{3+}$ |
| Total | $n_{+1}$ | $n_{+2}$ | $n$ |

## For example

Passed the Course

| Course | Did not pass | Passed | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Catch-up | 27 | 8 | 35 |
| Mainstream | 124 | 204 | 328 |
| Elite | 7 | 24 | 31 |
| Total | 158 | 236 | 394 |

## Estimating probabilities

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

- 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 $c=I J$ categories.
- Estimate $\pi_{i j}$ with $p_{i j}$
- 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.
- Product multinomial model: A product of I multinomial likelihoods.
- 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 entring 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 $\pi_{i j}$ are now conditional probabilities: $\pi_{1+}=1$
- Write the likelihood as

$$
\left.\prod_{i=1}^{3}\left[\pi_{i 1}^{n_{i 1}} \pi_{i 2}^{n_{i 2}}\left(1-\pi_{i 1}-\pi_{i 2}\right)^{n_{i 3}}\right)\right]
$$

## 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 $Y \mid X=x$ is the same for every $x$
- Conditional distribution of $X \mid Y=y$ 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

|  | $Y=1$ | $Y=2$ | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X=1$ | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}$ |
| $X=2$ | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}$ |  |

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=1 \mid X=1\}=\frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}}
$$

## Conditional distribution of $Y$ given $X=x$

## Same for all values of $x$

|  | $Y=1$ | $Y=2$ | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X=1$ | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}$ |
| $X=2$ | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}$ |  |

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=1 \mid X=1\}=\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=1 \mid X=2\}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}}=\frac{\pi_{21}}{\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11}\left(\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}\right)=\pi_{21}\left(\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}\right)
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11} \pi_{21}+\pi_{11} \pi_{22}=\pi_{11} \pi_{21}+\pi_{12} \pi_{21}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11} \pi_{22}=\pi_{12} \pi_{21}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11} \pi_{22}}{\pi_{12} \pi_{21}}=\theta=1
$$

## Cross product ratio

|  | $Y=1$ | $Y=2$ | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X=1$ | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}$ |
| $X=2$ | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}$ |  |

$$
\theta=\frac{\pi_{11} \pi_{22}}{\pi_{12} \pi_{21}}
$$

## Conditional distribution of $X$ given $Y=y$

## Same for all values of $y$

|  | $Y=1$ | $Y=2$ | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X=1$ | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{12}$ |
| $X=2$ | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{21}+\pi_{22}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}$ |  |

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{X=1 \mid Y=1\}=\operatorname{Pr}\{X=1 \mid Y=2\}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Leftrightarrow \quad \frac{\pi_{11}}{\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}}=\frac{\pi_{12}}{\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}} \\
& \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11}\left(\pi_{12}+\pi_{22}\right)=\pi_{12}\left(\pi_{11}+\pi_{21}\right) \\
& \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11} \pi_{12}+\pi_{11} \pi_{22}=\pi_{11} \pi_{12}+\pi_{12} \pi_{21} \\
& \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi_{11} \pi_{22}=\pi_{12} \pi_{21}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi_{11} \pi_{22}}{\pi_{12} \pi_{21}}=\theta=1
$$

## $X$ and $Y$ independent

Meaningful in a cross-sectional design

Write the probability table as

$\boldsymbol{\pi}=$| $x$ | $a-x$ | $a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b-x$ | $1-a-b+x$ | $1-a$ |
| $b$ | $1-b$ | 1 |

Independence means $P(X=x, Y=y)=P(X=x) P(Y=y)$. If $x=a b$ then

$\boldsymbol{\pi}=$| $a b$ | $a(1-b)$ | $a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b(1-a)$ | $(1-a)(1-b)$ | $1-a$ |
| $b$ | $1-b$ | 1 |

And the cross-product ratio $\theta=1$.

## Conversely

| $x$ | $a-x$ | $a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b-x$ | $1-a-b+x$ | $1-a$ |
| $b$ | $1-b$ | 1 |

If $\theta=1$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x(1-a-b+x)=(a-x)(b-x) \\
\Leftrightarrow & x-a x-b x-x^{2}=a b-a x-b x-x^{2} \\
\Leftrightarrow & x=a b
\end{aligned}
$$

Meaning $X$ and $Y$ are independent.

## What we have learned about the cross-product ratio $\theta$

- 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 $Y \mid X=x$ is the same for every $x$
- Conditional distribution of $X \mid Y=y$ 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 $\pi=2 / 3$, 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."
$\frac{\operatorname{Odds}(Y=1 \mid X=1)}{\operatorname{Odds}(Y=1 \mid X=2)}=\frac{P(Y=1 \mid X=1)}{P(Y=2 \mid X=1)} / \frac{P(Y=1 \mid X=2)}{P(Y=2 \mid X=2)}$


## Simplify the odds ratio

|  | $Y=1$ | $Y=2$ | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $X=1$ | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{1+}$ |
| $X=2$ | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{2+}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{+1}$ | $\pi_{+2}$ | 1 |

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\operatorname{Odds}(Y=1 \mid X=1)}{\operatorname{Odds}(Y=1 \mid X=2)} & =\frac{P(Y=1 \mid X=1)}{P(Y=2 \mid X=1)} / \frac{P(Y=1 \mid X=2)}{P(Y=2 \mid X=2)} \\
& =\frac{\pi_{11} / \pi_{1+}}{\pi_{12} / \pi_{1+}} / \frac{\pi_{21} / \pi_{2+}}{\pi_{22} / \pi_{2+}} \\
& =\frac{\pi_{11} \pi_{22}}{\pi_{12} \pi_{21}} \\
& =\theta
\end{aligned}
$$

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

|  | Admitted | Not Admitted |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| Dept. A | 601 | 332 |
| Dept. B | 370 | 215 |
| Dept. C | 322 | 596 |
| Dept. D | 269 | 523 |
| Dept. E | 147 | 437 |
| Dept. F | 46 | 668 |

The (estimated) odds of being accepted are

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

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 $2 \times 2$ 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

Passed the Course

| Course | Did not pass | Passed | Total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Catch-up | $\pi_{11}$ | $\pi_{12}$ | $\pi_{1+}$ |
| Mainstream | $\pi_{21}$ | $\pi_{22}$ | $\pi_{2+}$ |
| Elite | $\pi_{31}$ | $\pi_{32}$ | $1-\pi_{1+}-\pi_{2+}$ |
| Total | $\pi_{+1}$ | $1-\pi_{+1}$ | 1 |

Under $H_{0}: \pi_{i j}=\pi_{i+} \pi_{+j}$

- There are $(I-1)+(J-1)$ free parameters: The marginal probabilities.
- MLEs of marginal probabilities are $\widehat{\pi}_{i+}=p_{i+}$ and $\widehat{\pi}_{+j}=p_{+j}$
- Restricted MLEs are $\widehat{\pi}_{i j}=p_{i+} p_{+j}$
- The null hypothesis reduces the number of free parameters in the model by $(I J-1)-(I-1+J-1)=(I-1)(J-1)$
- So the test has $(I-1)(J-1)$ degrees of freedom.


## Estimated expected frequencies

Under the null hypothesis of independence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{\mu}_{i j} & =n \widehat{\pi}_{i j} \\
& =n \widehat{\pi}_{i+} \widehat{\pi}_{+j} \\
& =n p_{i+} p_{+j} \\
& =n \frac{n_{i+}}{n} \frac{n_{+j}}{n} \\
& =\frac{n_{i+} n_{+j}}{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

$($ Row total $) \times($ Column total $) \div($ Total total $)$

## Test statistics

For testing independence

$$
G^{2}=2 \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} n_{i j} \log \left(\frac{n_{i j}}{\widehat{\mu}_{i j}}\right) \quad X^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{\left(n_{i j}-\widehat{\mu}_{i j}\right)^{2}}{\widehat{\mu}_{i j}}
$$

With expected frequencies

$$
\widehat{\mu}_{i j}=\frac{n_{i+} n_{+j}}{n}=\frac{(\text { Row total })(\text { Column total })}{\text { Total total }}
$$

And degrees of freedom

$$
d f=(I-1)(J-1)
$$

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