Chi-square and ordinal tests

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Contents

1 Contingency tables

1.1 A contingency table

- The dataset `popularKids`, we study the **association** between the **factors** `Goals` and `Urban.Rural`:
  - `Urban.Rural`: The students were selected from urban, suburban, and rural schools.
  - `Goals`: The students indicated whether good grades, athletic ability, or popularity was most important to them.
  - In total 478 students from grades 4-6.
- Based on a sample we make a cross tabulation of the factors and we get a so-called **contingency table** (krydstabel).

```
popKids <- read.delim("https://asta.math.aau.dk/datasets?file=PopularKids.txt")
library(mosaic)
tab <- tally(~Urban.Rural + Goals, data = popKids, margins = TRUE)
tab
```

```
##             Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades Popular Sports Total
##    Rural        57      50     42   149
##    Suburban     87      42     22   151
##    Urban       103      49     26   178
##    Total       247     141     90   478
```

1.2 A conditional distribution

- Another representation of data is the probability distribution of `Goals` for each level of `Urban.Rural`, i.e. the sum in each row of the table is 1 (up to rounding):

```
##             Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades Popular Sports   Sum
##    Rural     0.383   0.336  0.282 1.000
##    Suburban  0.576   0.278  0.146 1.000
##    Urban     0.579   0.275  0.146 1.000
##    Total     0.517   0.295  0.188 1.000
```

- Here we will talk about the **conditional distribution** of `Goals` given `Urban.Rural`.
- An important question could be:
  - Are the goals of the kids different when they come from urban, suburban or rural areas? I.e. are the rows in the table significantly different?
- There is (almost) no difference between urban and suburban, but it looks like rural is different.

1.3 Independence

- Recall, that two factors are **independent**, when there is no difference between the population's distributions of one factor given the levels of the other factor.
- Otherwise the factors are said to be **dependent**.
- If we e.g. have the following conditional **population distributions** of `Goals` given `Urban.Rural`:

```
##             Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades Popular Sports
##    Rural       0.5     0.3    0.2
##    Suburban    0.5     0.3    0.2
##    Urban       0.5     0.3    0.2
```

- Then the factors `Goals` and `Urban.Rural` are independent.
- We take a sample and "measure" the factors F_1 and F_2. E.g. `Goals` and `Urban.Rural` for a random child.
- The hypothesis of interest today is:

$$H_0 : F_1 \text{ and } F_2 \text{ are independent}, \quad H_a : F_1 \text{ and } F_2 \text{ are dependent.}$$

1.4 The Chi-squared test for independence

- Our best guess of the distribution of `Goals` is the relative frequencies in the sample:

```
tab <- tally(~Urban.Rural + Goals, data = popKids)
n <- margin.table(tab)
pctGoals <- round(margin.table(tab, 2) / n, 3)
pctGoals
```

```
## Goals
##  Grades Popular  Sports
##   0.517   0.295   0.188
```

- If we assume independence, then this is also a guess of the conditional distributions of `Goals` given `Urban.Rural`.
- The corresponding expected counts in the sample are then:

```
##             Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades        Popular       Sports        Sum
##    Rural     77.0 (0.517)  44.0 (0.295)  28.1 (0.188) 149.0 (1.000)
##    Suburban  78.0 (0.517)  44.5 (0.295)  28.4 (0.188) 151.0 (1.000)
##    Urban     92.0 (0.517)  52.5 (0.295)  33.5 (0.188) 178.0 (1.000)
##    Sum      247.0 (0.517) 141.0 (0.295)  90.0 (0.188) 478.0 (1.000)
```

1.5 Calculation of expected table

```
pctexptab
```

```
##            Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades        Popular       Sports        Sum
##    Rural     77.0 (0.517)  44.0 (0.295)  28.1 (0.188) 149.0 (1.000)
##    Suburban  78.0 (0.517)  44.5 (0.295)  28.4 (0.188) 151.0 (1.000)
##    Urban     92.0 (0.517)  52.5 (0.295)  33.5 (0.188) 178.0 (1.000)
##    Sum      247.0 (0.517) 141.0 (0.295)  90.0 (0.188) 478.0 (1.000)
```

- We note that
  - The relative frequency for a given column is **column total** divided by **table total**. For example `Grades`, which is $\frac{247}{478} = 0.517$.
  - The expected value in a given cell in the table is then the cell's relative column frequency multiplied by the cell's **row total**. For example `Rural` and `Grades`: $149 \times 0.517 = 77.0$.
- This can be summarized to:
  - The expected value in a cell is the product of the cell's **row total** and **column total** divided by the **table total**

1.6 Chi-squared (χ^2) test statistic

- We have an **observed table**:

```
tab
```

```
##            Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades Popular Sports
##    Rural        57      50     42
##    Suburban     87      42     22
##    Urban       103      49     26
```

- And an **expected table**, if H_0 is true:

```
##            Goals
## Urban.Rural Grades Popular Sports Sum
##    Rural     77.0   44.0    28.1  149.0
##    Suburban  78.0   44.5    28.4  151.0
##    Urban     92.0   52.5    33.5  178.0
##    Sum      247.0  141.0    90.0  478.0
```

- If these tables are "far from each other", then we reject H_0. We want to measure the distance via the Chi-squared test statistic:
  - $X^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$: Sum over all cells in the table
  - f_o is the frequency in a cell in the observed table
  - f_e is the corresponding frequency in the expected table.
- We have:

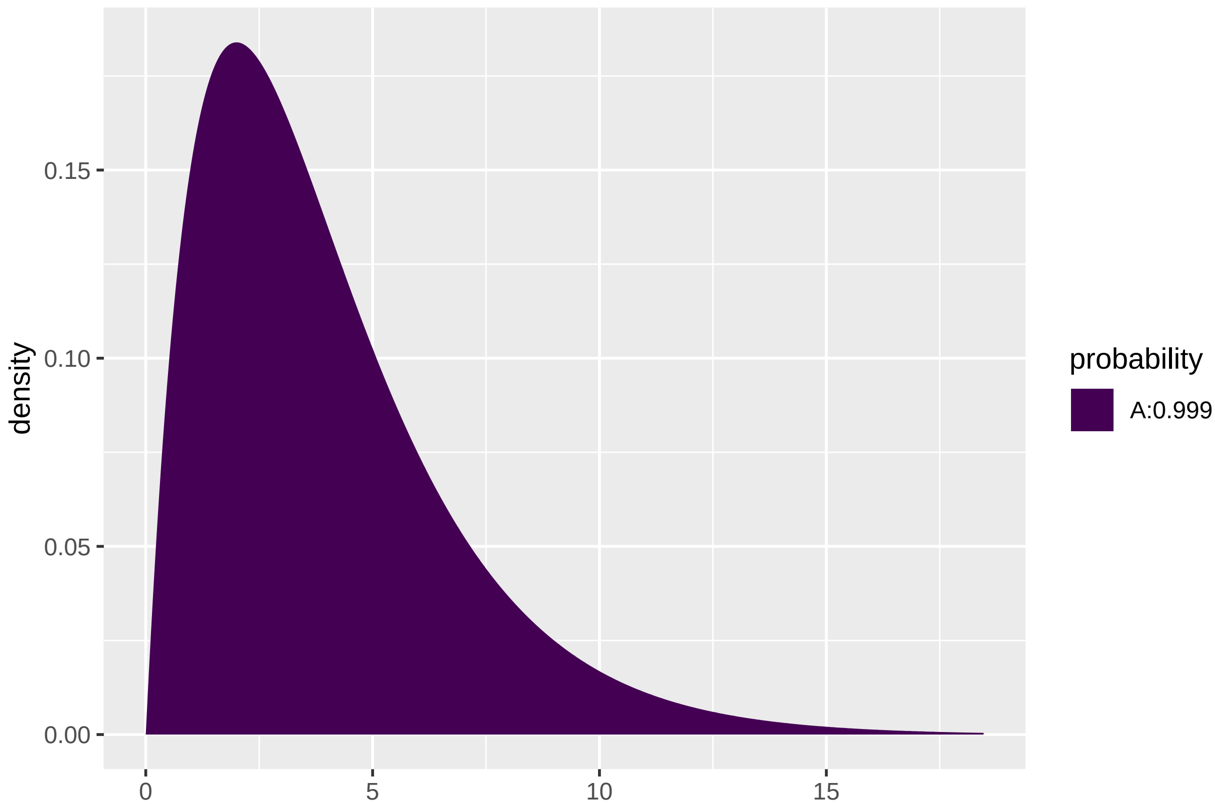
$$X^2_{obs} = \frac{(57-77)^2}{77} + \ldots + \frac{(26-33.5)^2}{33.5} = 18.8$$

- Is this a large distance??

1.7 χ^2-test template.

- We want to test the hypothesis H_0 of independence in a table with r rows and c columns:
  - We take a sample and calculate X^2_{obs} - the observed value of the test statistic.
  - p-value: Assume H_0 is true. What is then the chance of obtaining a larger X^2 than X^2_{obs}, if we repeat the experiment?
- This can be approximated by the χ^2**-distribution** with $df = (r-1)(c-1)$ degrees of freedom.
- For `Goals` and `Urban.Rural` we have $r = c = 3$, i.e. $df = 4$ and $X^2_{obs} = 18.8$, so the p-value is:

```
1 - pdist("chisq", 18.8, df = 4)
```




```
## [1] 0.0008603303
```

- There is clearly a significant association between `Goals` and `Urban.Rural`.

1.8 The function `chisq.test`

- All of the above calculations can be obtained by the function `chisq.test`.

```
tab <- tally(~ Urban.Rural + Goals, data = popKids)
testStat <- chisq.test(tab, correct = FALSE)
testStat
```

```
##
##  Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
## data:  tab
## X-squared = 18.828, df = 4, p-value = 0.0008497
```

```
testStat$expected
```

```
##           Goals
## Urban.Rural   Grades  Popular   Sports
##    Rural     76.99372 43.95188 28.05439
##    Suburban 78.02720 44.54184 28.43096
##    Urban     91.97908 52.50628 33.51464
```

- The frequency data can also be put directly into a matrix.

```
data <- c(57, 87, 103, 50, 42, 49, 42, 22, 26)
tab <- matrix(data, nrow = 3, ncol = 3)
row.names(tab) <- c("Rural", "Suburban", "Urban")
colnames(tab) <- c("Grades", "Popular", "Sports")
tab
```

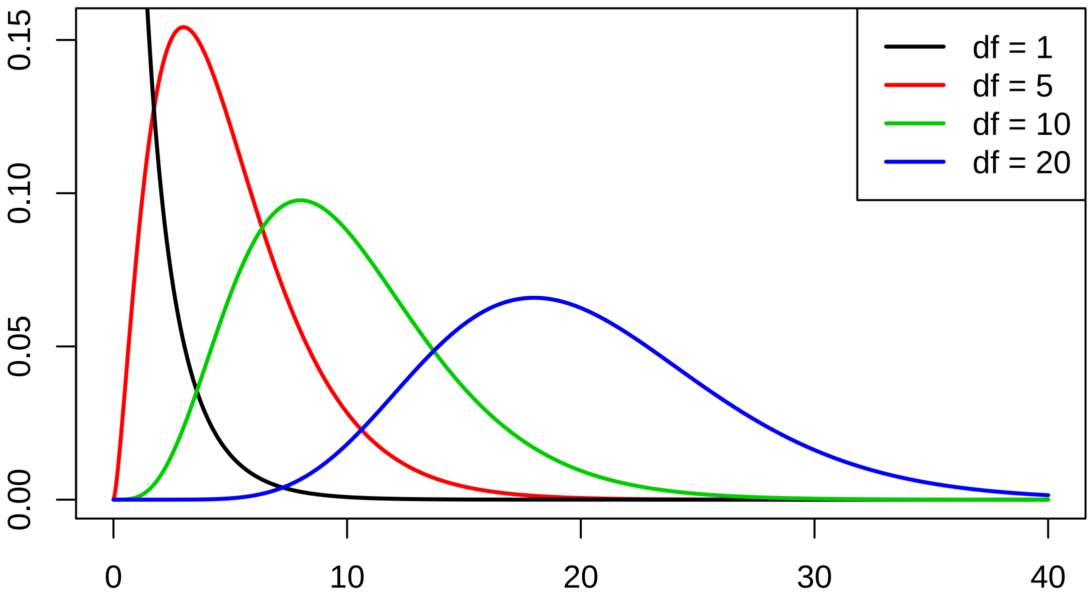
```
##          Grades Popular Sports
## Rural        57      50     42
## Suburban     87      42     22
## Urban       103      49     26
```

```
chisq.test(tab)
```

```
##
##  Pearson's Chi-squared test
##
## data:  tab
## X-squared = 18.828, df = 4, p-value = 0.0008497
```

1.9 The χ^2-distribution

- The χ^2-distribution with df degrees of freedom:
  - Is never negative. And $X^2 = 0$ only happens if $f_e = f_o$.
  - Has mean $\mu = df$
  - Has standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{2df}$
  - Is skewed to the right, but approaches a normal distribution when df grows.



1.10 Summary

- For the the Chi-squared statistic, X^2, to be appropriate we require that the expected values have to be $f_e \geq 5$.
- Now we can summarize the ingredients in the Chi-squared test for independence.

TABLE 8.5: The Five Parts of the Chi-Squared Test of Independence

1. Assumptions: Two categorical variables, random sampling, $f_e \geq 5$ in all cells
2. Hypotheses: H_0: Statistical independence of variables
   H_a: Statistical dependence of variables
3. Test statistic: $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$, where $f_e = \frac{\text{(Row total)(Column total)}}{\text{Total sample size}}$
4. P-value: P = right-tail probability above observed χ^2 value,
   for chi-squared distribution with $df = (r-1)(c-1)$
5. Conclusion: Report P-value
   If decision needed, reject H_0 at α-level if $P \leq \alpha$

1.11 Residual analysis

- If we reject the hypothesis of independence it can be of interest to identify the significant deviations.
- In a given cell in the table, $f_o - f_e$ is the deviation between data and the expected values under the null hypothesis.
- We assume that $f_e \geq 5$.
- If H_0 is true, then the standard error of $f_o - f_e$ is given by

$$se = \sqrt{f_e(1 - \textbf{row proportion})(1 - \textbf{column proportion})}$$

- The corresponding z-score

$$z = \frac{f_o - f_e}{se}$$

should in 95% of the cells be between ± 2. Values above 3 or below -3 should not appear.

- In `popKids` table cell `Rural and Grade` we got $f_e = 77.0$ and $f_o = 57$. Here **column proportion** $= 0.517$ and **row proportion** $= 149/478 = 0.312$.

- We can then calculate

$$z = \frac{57 - 77}{\sqrt{77(1 - 0.517)(1 - 0.312)}} = -3.95$$

- Compared to the null hypothesis there are way too few rural kids who find grades important.

- In summary: The standardized residuals allow for cell-by-cell (f_e vs f_o) comparision.

1.12 Residual analysis in R

- In `R` we can extract the standardized residuals from the output of `chisq.test`:

```
tab <- tally(~ Urban.Rural + Goals, data = popKids)
testStat <- chisq.test(tab, correct = FALSE)
testStat$stdres
```

```
##              Goals
## Urban.Rural      Grades    Popular     Sports
##    Rural     -3.9508449  1.3096235  3.5225004
##    Suburban   1.7666608 -0.5484075 -1.6185210
##    Urban      2.0865780 -0.7274327 -1.8186224
```

1.13 Cramér's V

- To measure the strength of the association, the Swedish mathematician Harald Cramér developed a measure which is estimated by

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{n \cdot \min(r-1, c-1)}}$$

where r and c are the number of columns and rows in the contingency table and n is the sample size.

- Property:
  - Cramér's V lies between 0(no association) and 1(complete association)

- In the situation with the factors `Goals` and `Urban.Rural` from the dataset `popularKids` we get

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{n \cdot \min(r-1, c-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{18.8}{479 \cdot \min(3-1, 3-1)}} = 0.14,$$

which indicates a weak (but significant) association.

- The function `CramerV` in the package `DescTools` gives you the value and a confidence interval

```r
library(DescTools)
```

```
##
## Attaching package: 'DescTools'

## The following object is masked from 'package:mosaic':
##
##     MAD
```

```r
CramerV(tab, conf = 0.95, type = "perc")
```

```
##   Cramer V     lwr.ci     upr.ci
## 0.14033592 0.06014641 0.19419139
```

2 Ordinal variables

2.1 Association between ordinal variables

- For a random sample of black males the General Social Survey in 1996 asked two questions:
  - Q1: What is your yearly income (`income`)?
  - Q2: How satisfied are you with your job (`satisfaction`)?
- Both measurements are on an ordinal scale.

	VeryD	LittleD	ModerateS	VeryS
$<$ 15k	1	3	10	6
15-25k	2	3	10	7
25-40k	1	6	14	12
$>$ 40k	0	1	9	11

- We might do a chi-square test to see whether Q1 and Q2 are associated, but the test does not exploit the ordinality.
- We shall consider a test that incorporates ordinality.

2.2 Gamma coefficient

- Consider a pair of respondents, where **respondent 1** is below **respondent 2** in relation to Q1.
  - If **respondent 1** is also below **respondent 2** in relation to Q2 then the pair is *concordant*.
  - If **respondent 1** is above **respondent 2** in relation to Q2 then the pair is *disconcordant*.
- Let:

C = the number of concordant pairs in our sample.

D = the number of disconcordant pairs in our sample.

- We define the estimated *gamma coefficient*

$$\hat{\gamma} = \frac{C-D}{C+D} = \underbrace{\frac{C}{C+D}}_{concordant\ prop.} - \underbrace{\frac{D}{C+D}}_{discordant\ prop.}$$

2.3 Gamma coefficient

- Properties:
  - Gamma lies between -1 og 1
  - The sign tells whether the association is positive or negative
  - Large absolute values correspond to strong association
- The standard error $se(\hat{\gamma})$ on $\hat{\gamma}$ is complicated to calculate, so we leave that to software.
- We can now determine a 95% confidence interval:

$$\hat{\gamma} \pm 1.96 se(\hat{\gamma})$$

  and if zero is contained in the interval, then there is no significant association, when we perform a test with a 5% significance level.

2.4 Example

- First, we need to install the package `vcdExtra`, which has the function `GKgamma` for calculating gamma. It also has the dataset on job satisfaction and income built-in:

```r
library(vcdExtra)
JobSat
```

```
##          satisfaction
## income    VeryD LittleD ModerateS VeryS
##   < 15k       1       3        10     6
##   15-25k      2       3        10     7
##   25-40k      1       6        14    12
##   > 40k       0       1         9    11
```

```r
GKgamma(JobSat, level = 0.90)
```

```
## gamma        : 0.221
## std. error   : 0.117
## CI           : 0.028 0.414
```

- A positive association. Marginally significant at the 10% level, but not so at the 5% level.

3 Validation of data

3.1 Goodness of fit test

- You have collected a sample and want to know, whether the sample is representative for people living in Hirtshals.
- E.g. whether the distribution of gender, age, or profession in the sample do not differ significantly from the distribution in Hirtshals.
- Actually, you know how to do that for binary variables like gender, but not if you e.g. have 6 agegroups.

3.2 Example

- As an example we look at k groups, where data from Hjørring kommune tells us the distribution in Hirtshals is given by the vector
$$\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k),$$
where π_i is the proportion which belongs to group number i, $\quad i = 1, 2 \dots, k$ in Hirtshals.
- Consider the sample represented by the vector:
$$O = (O_1, \dots, O_k),$$
where O_i is the observed number of individuals in group number i, $\quad i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.
- The total number of individuals:
$$n = \sum_{i=1}^{k} O_i.$$
- The expected number of individuals in each group, if we have a sample from Hirtshals:
$$E_i = n\pi_i, \; i = 1, 2, \dots, k$$

3.3 Goodness of fit test

- We will use the following measure to see how far away the observed is from the expected:
$$X^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$
- If this is large we reject the hypothesis that the sample has the same distribution as Hirtshals. The reference distribution is the χ^2 with $k - 1$ degrees of freedom.

3.4 Example

- Assume we have four groups and that the true distribution is given by:

```
k <- 4
pi_vector <- c(0.3, 0.2, 0.25, 0.25)
```

- Assume that we have the following sample:

```
O_vector <- c(74, 72, 40, 61)
```

- Expected number of individuals in each group:

```
n <- sum(O_vector)
E_vector <- n * pi_vector
E_vector
```

```
## [1] 74.10 49.40 61.75 61.75
```

- X^2 statistic:

```
Xsq = sum((O_vector - E_vector)^2 / E_vector)
Xsq
```

```
## [1] 18.00945
```

- p-value:

```
p_value <- 1 - pchisq(Xsq, df = k-1)
p_value
```

```
## [1] 0.0004378808
```

3.5 Test in R

```
Xsq_test <- chisq.test(O_vector, p = pi_vector)
Xsq_test
```

```
##
##  Chi-squared test for given probabilities
##
## data:  O_vector
## X-squared = 18.009, df = 3, p-value = 0.0004379
```

- As the hypothesis is rejected, we look at the standardized residuals (z-scores):

```
Xsq_test$stdres
```

```
## [1] -0.01388487  3.59500891 -3.19602486 -0.11020775
```

- We conclude that group 1 and 4 is close to true distribution in Hirtshals, but in groups 2 og 3 we have a significant mismatch.