Chi-square and ordinal tests

The ASTA team

Contents

1	Con	tingency tables	1
	1.1	A contingency table	1
	1.2		2
	1.3	Independence	2
	1.4	The Chi-squared test for independence	2
	1.5	Calculation of expected table	3
	1.6	Chi-squared (χ^2) test statistic	3
	1.7		4
	1.8		5
	1.9	The χ^2 -distribution	6
	1.10	Summary	6
	1.11	Residual analysis	7
	1.12	Residual analysis in R	7
	1.13	Cramér's V	8
2	Ord	linal variables	8
	2.1	Association between ordinal variables	8
	2.2	Gamma coefficient	9
	2.3	Gamma coefficient	9
	2.4	Example	9
3	Vali	idation of data 1	0
	3.1	Goodness of fit test	0
	3.2	Example	0
	3.3	Goodness of fit test	0
	3.4	Example	0
	3.5	Test in R	1

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</pre>
```

##	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:

 $H_0: F_1$ and F_2 are independent, $H_a: F_1$ and F_2 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)</pre>
n <- margin.table(tab)</pre>
pctGoals <- round(margin.table(tab, 2) / n, 3)</pre>
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	3	Popula	ar	Sports	3	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)

Calculation of expected table 1.5

pctexptab

##	(Goals							
##	Urban.Rural	Grades	3	Popula	ar	Sports	3	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

Chi-squared (χ^2) test statistic 1.6

• 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:

##	(
##	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:

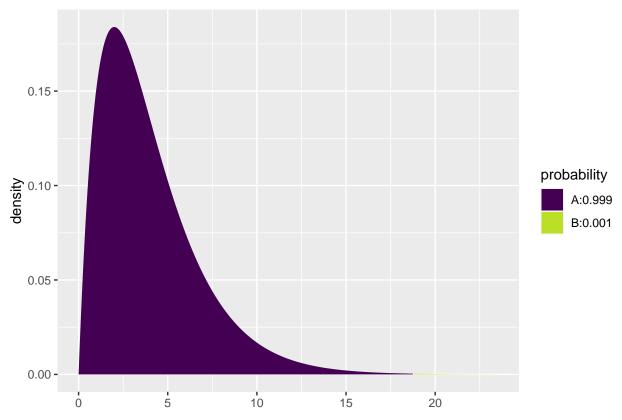
$$X_{obs}^{2} = \frac{(57 - 77)^{2}}{77} + \ldots + \frac{(26 - 33.5)^{2}}{33.5} = 18.8$$

• 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_{obs}^2 , 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 $X_{obs}^2 = 18.8$, 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</pre>
```

 ##
 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)</pre>
```

```
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</pre>
```

49

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

Urban

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

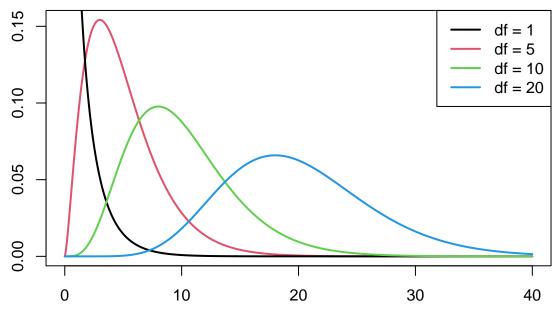
1.9 The χ^2 -distribution

103

- The χ^2 -distribution with df degrees of freedom:
 - Is never negative. And $X^2 = 0$ only happens if $f_e = f_o$.

26

- 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 Chi-squared statistic, X^2 , to be appropriate we require that the expected values have to be $f_e \ge 5$.
- 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, $f_e \ge 5$ in all cells
- 2. Hypotheses: H_0 : Statistical independence of variables

 H_a : Statistical dependence of variables

3. Test statistic: χ² = Σ (f_o - f_e)²/f_e, where f_e = (Row total)(Column total) Total sample size
4. P-value: P = right-tail probability above observed χ² value, for chi-squared distribution with df = (r - 1)(c - 1)
5. Conclusion: Report P-value If decision needed, reject H₀ at α-level if P ≤ α

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

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

• 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 $(f_e \text{ vs } f_o)$ 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</pre>
```

```
## 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

```
library(DescTools)
```

```
##
## Attaching package: 'DescTools'
## The following object is masked from 'package:mosaic':
##
## MAD
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
$< 15 \mathrm{k}$	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:

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
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

$$\pi = (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_k)$$

where π_i is the proportion which belongs to group number i, i = 1, 2, ..., k in Hirtshals.

• Consider the sample represented by the vector:

$$O = (O_1, \ldots, O_k),$$

where O_i is the observed number of individuals in group number i, i = 1, 2, ..., 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(0_vector)
E_vector <- n * pi_vector
E_vector</pre>
```

```
## [1] 74.10 49.40 61.75 61.75
  • X^2 statistic:
Xsq = sum((0_vector - E_vector)^2 / E_vector)
Xsq
## [1] 18.00945
  • p-value:
p_value <- 1 - pchisq(Xsq, df = k-1)</pre>
p_value
## [1] 0.0004378808
      Test in R
3.5
Xsq_test <- chisq.test(0_vector, p = pi_vector)</pre>
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.