



Analysis of count tables

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Program

- Examples of count tables
- Goodness-of-fit test
 - The χ^2 -distribution
- 2×2 tables
- $r \times k$ tables
- Fisher's exact test
- One-sided hypothesis in a 2×2 table
- Odds and odds-ratio



Slide 2 — Statistics for Life Science (Week 7-2) — Analysis of count tables

Example: Traps and coyotes

Type of trap	Injury		
	In	II	III
Northwood	9	7	4
Soft-Catch	11	3	6

- I: No or little leg injury
- II: Injury to the skin
- III: Leg broken



Do the two types of traps give different injuries?



Slide 3 — Statistics for Life Science (Week 7-2) — Analysis of count tables

Example: Mendel's pea plants

Class	Number
Round, yellow	315
Round, green	108
Wrinkled, yellow	101
Wrinkled, green	32

According to Mendel's theory the frequencies should be in proportions 9 : 3 : 3 : 1.



Are the data in agreement with Mendel's theory?



Slide 4 — Statistics for Life Science (Week 7-2) — Analysis of count tables

Goodness-of-fit test

Test of the hypothesis that the probabilities of the categories agree with **specified values**.

Test statistic:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \frac{(\text{observed}_i - \text{expected}_i)^2}{\text{expected}_i}$$

where the sum is over **all** categories.

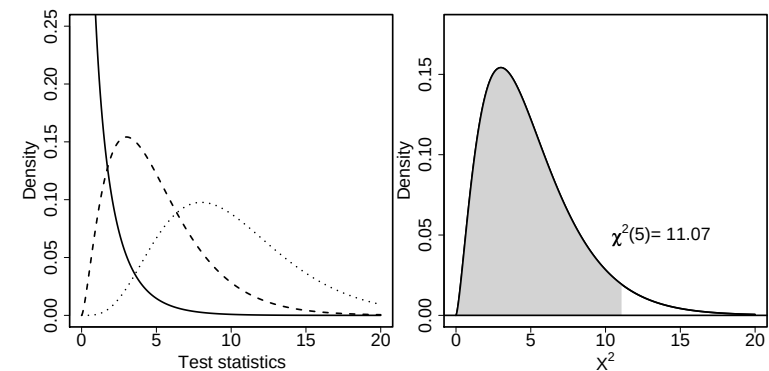
- Small values of χ^2 : data and hypothesis agree well.
- Large values of χ^2 : data are in disagreement with the hypothesis.

It may be shown that if the hypothesis is true then χ^2 follows (approximately) a so-called $\chi^2(r)$ -distribution with r degrees of freedom, where

$$r = \text{degrees of freedom} = \text{number of categories} - 1$$



The $\chi^2(r)$ -distribution



Example: Mendel's pea plants (cont.)

Mendel's hypothesis

$$H_0: p_{ry} = \frac{9}{16}, \quad p_{rg} = \frac{3}{16}, \quad p_{wy} = \frac{3}{16}, \quad p_{wg} = \frac{1}{16}.$$

$$\chi^2 = \dots = 0.470$$

This value is to be compared with a $\chi^2(3)$ -distribution. The P-value is

$$1 - P(\chi^2_3 \geq 0.470) = 1 - 0.075 = 0.925,$$

which is far from significant. The data are in excellent agreement with Mendel's hypothesis.

Rule of thumb

To calculate the P-value the χ^2 -distribution may be used if the **expected** number of observations for each category is at least 5.



2×2 count tables

With two binary classification criteria the results may be summarized in a 2 by 2 table:

	Response 1	Response 2	Total
Pop 1	y_{11}	y_{12}	$n_1 = y_{11} + y_{12}$
Pop 2	y_{21}	y_{22}	$n_2 = y_{21} + y_{22}$
Total	$c_1 = y_{11} + y_{21}$	$c_2 = y_{12} + y_{22}$	$n = n_1 + n_2 = c_1 + c_2$

Estimates

$$\hat{p}_{11} = \frac{y_{11}}{n_1}, \quad \hat{p}_{21} = \frac{y_{21}}{n_2}.$$

Question: Is $p_{11} = p_{21}$?



Example: Avadex and mice

	Tumor	No tumor	Total
Avadex	4	12	16
Control	5	74	79
Total	9	86	95

Does the pesticide Avadex increase the occurrence of tumors?

Hypothesis $p_t = p_c$. Estimates are

$$\hat{p}_t = \frac{4}{16} = 0.25 \quad \hat{p}_c = \frac{5}{79} = 0.0633.$$

and a 95% confidence interval for $p_t - p_c$ is

$$(-0.0321, 0.4056)$$

which contains 0.

Test in 2×2 count tables

Expected counts

The expected counts in cell (i, j) in a two-way count table is

$$\text{Expected count} = \frac{(\text{Row total}) \cdot (\text{Column total})}{\text{Grand total}}$$

Test statistic: as with goodness-of-fit test we use the "chi-squared" statistic

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \frac{(\text{observed}_i - \text{expected}_i)^2}{\text{expected}_i}$$

and the test statistic follows a $\chi^2(1)$ -distribution! [Notice that $df=1$]



Example: Avadex and mice (cont.)

	Tumor	No tumor	Total
Avadex			16
Control		71.52	79
Total	9	86	95

The test statistic is

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(4 - 1.52)^2}{1.52} + \frac{(12 - 14.48)^2}{14.48} + \frac{(5 - 7.48)^2}{7.48} + \frac{(74 - 71.52)^2}{71.52} = 5.4083$$

Using the χ^2 approximation (with $df=1$) we get the P-value

$$1 - P(\chi_1^2 \geq 5.4083) = 0.020,$$

seemingly in disagreement with the confidence interval. Conclusion?



Two situations — one method

The chi-squared test is used for two situations:

- 1 **Test for homogeneity:** Two (or more) independent populations, in which all units are categorized according to **one criterion**.
- 2 **Test for independence:** A single sample in which each unit is classified according to **two criteria** (rows and columns).

For both situations we may use the chi-squared test as described. It is not always easy to distinguish the two situations.



$r \times k$ count tables

The method applies to an $r \times k$ -table as well as a 2×2 table.

	Column 1	Column 2	...	Column k	Total
Row 1	y_{11}	y_{12}	...	y_{1k}	n_1
Row 2	y_{21}	y_{22}	...	y_{2k}	n_2
...	...	...	...	...	...
Row r	y_{r1}	y_{r2}	...	y_{rk}	n_r
Total	c_1	c_2	...	c_k	n

Test statistic

$$\chi^2 = \sum_i \frac{(\text{observed}_i - \text{expected}_i)^2}{\text{expected}_i},$$

where

$$E_{ij} = \frac{(\text{Row total}) \cdot (\text{Column total})}{\text{Grand total}}$$

which is (approximately) χ^2 -distributed with

$$\text{df} = (r - 1) \cdot (k - 1).$$



Example: 1111 cats

1111 cats received at an animal shelter

Other animals	Behavioral problems	
	yes	no
Yes	53	502
No	115	410
No information	17	14

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(53 - 92.42)^2}{92.42} + \dots + \frac{(14 - 25.84)^2}{25.84} = 63.1804$$



Two situations — still the same method

The chi-squared test applies to two situations:

- 1 **Test for homogeneity**: r independent populations, in which all units are categorized according to **one criterion**.
- 2 **Test for independence**: A single sample in which each unit is classified according to **two criteria** (rows and columns).
 - For each of three populations, behavioral status is determined on a sample.
 - For a single population, behavioral status *and* presence of other animals in the home are determined.



One-sided hypotheses

For 2×2 -tables the alternative hypothesis may occasionally be **one-sided**, that is,

$$H_0 : p_{11} = p_{21} \quad \text{vs.} \quad H_A : p_{11} > p_{21}$$

meaning that we regard it as unthinkable that $p_{11} < p_{21}$, whether the hypothesis is true or not.

Test method of for one-sided test:

- 1 Check whether the estimates are in the direction of alternative hypothesis.
- 2 If no then there is no indication of disagreement with the null-hypothesis and the p -value is 1.
- 3 If yes then the p -value is half of the p -value, you would get by a two sided test using the χ^2 distribution.



One-sided hypothesis: diabetes

	Diabetes	No diabetes	Total
Neutered group	26	24	50
Non-neutered group	12	38	50
Total	38	62	100

Null-hypothesis

$$H_0 : p_t = p_c \quad \text{mod} \quad H_A : p_t > p_c.$$

Test statistic:

$$X^2 = 8.3192.$$

What is the conclusion?



Example: Avadex and mice

	Tumor	No tumor	Total
Avadex	4	12	16
Control	5	74	79
Total	9	86	95

Does the pesticide Avadex increase the occurrence of tumors?

Expected values under the hypothesis $H_0 : p_t = p_c$:

	Tumor	No tumor	Total
Avadex	1.52	14.48	16
Control	7.48	71.52	79
Total	9	86	95



Fishert's exact test

Exact test in 2×2 -tables. No approximations needed.

Advanced: The idea is that the row- and column-totals tells nothing about the relation. Hence we consider those as given in advance and compute the conditional probability of the test statistic given the marginal totals.

What to **do**? Compute the p-value as the sum of probabilities of tables that are equal to or more extreme than the observed.



Other tables with same marginal totals

	+	-	Total
Avadex	4	12	16
Control	5	74	79
Total	9	86	95

	+	-	Total
Avadex	2	14	16
Control	7	72	79
Total	9	86	95

	+	-	Total
Avadex	3	13	16
Control	6	73	79
Total	9	86	95

	+	-	Total
Avadex	1	15	16
Control	8	71	79
Total	9	86	95



The probability of a table

$$\Pr(Y = 3) = \frac{\binom{16}{3} \binom{79}{6}}{\binom{95}{9}} = 0.1325$$

$$\Pr(Y = 2) = \frac{\binom{16}{2} \binom{79}{7}}{\binom{95}{9}} = 0.2960$$

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \frac{\binom{16}{1} \binom{79}{8}}{\binom{95}{9}} = 0.3553$$

$$\Pr(Y = 0) = \frac{\binom{16}{0} \binom{79}{9}}{\binom{95}{9}} = 0.1752$$

$$\Pr(Y \leq 4) = 0.0349 + 0.1325 + 0.2960 + 0.3553 + 0.1752 = 0.994$$

$$\Pr(Y \geq 4) = 1 - 0.994 + 0.0349 = 0.041$$



Odds

Odds: a different way to express a probability.

Odds 1:1 for the event A corresponds to $P(A) = 1/2$.

Odds 3:1 for the event A corresponds to $P(A) = 3/4$.

Odds 1:7 for the event A corresponds to $P(A) = 1/8$.

Odds for an event A are defined as

$$\text{Odds}(A) = \frac{P(A)}{1 - P(A)}$$

Notice that while the probability is between 0 and 1,

$$0 \leq \text{Odds}(A) \leq \infty, \quad 0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$$



Comparison of risks

Three common ways to compare probabilities, for example probability of a disease for two age groups:

- **Difference** in probability: $p_1 - p_2$
- **Relative risk**: p_1/p_2
- **Odds ratio**: $\text{Odds}_1(A)/\text{Odds}_2(A) = \frac{p_1}{1-p_1} / \frac{p_2}{1-p_2}$.

The hypotheses that the two probabilities are the same ($p_1 = p_2$) may be written

$$\text{probability difference} = 0, \quad \text{RR} = 1, \quad \text{OR} = 1,$$

in terms of probabilities, relative risk and odds ratio, respectively, but the magnitude of the deviation depends on which of the three representations is used.



Comparison of two risks

Example: Risk of finding pesticide residues in strawberries

- before wash: $p_1 = 0.04$
- after wash: $p_2 = 0.01$

Probability difference = 0.03, RR = 0.25, OR = 0.242.

Compare the cases

$(p_1, p_2) =$	(0.04, 0.01)	(0.40, 0.10)	(0.99, 0.96)
Difference, $p_1 - p_2$	0.03	0.30	0.03
RR	4.00	4.00	1.03
OR	4.13	6.00	4.13



Odds-ratio

Odds-ratio is ratio between the odds in two groups:

$$OR = \frac{\frac{p_1}{1-p_1}}{\frac{p_2}{1-p_2}} = \frac{p_1 \cdot (1-p_2)}{p_2 \cdot (1-p_1)}$$

The value 1 means that the two odds are the same. Hence, a test for $H_0 : OR = 1$ is a test of equality of odds (and hence probabilities in the two groups!



Example: Avadex and mice (cont.)

	Tumor	No tumor	Total
Avadex	4	12	16
Control	5	74	79
Total	9	86	95

The estimate of OR is

$$OR = \frac{4 \cdot 74}{5 \cdot 12} = 4.93, \quad \ln(OR) = 1.596$$

The standard error of the *logarithm* of OR is

$$SE(\ln(OR)) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{74}} = 0.74$$

The 95%-confidence interval for $\ln(OR)$ then becomes $1.60 \pm 1.96 \cdot 0.74 = (0.15, 3.05)$, which is translated back to OR by the exponential function:

$$\exp(0.15) < OR < \exp(3.05).$$



Case-control investigation

	Infected	Not infected	Sum
Have eaten the product yes	10	4	14
no	6	41	47
sum	16	45	61

After a number of cases of *Salmonella Manhattan* 16 persons with *Salmonella* infection were asked whether they had eaten sliced smoked fillet from a certain slaughterhouse. A control group was asked the same question.



Case-control and odds-ratio

Row- and column probabilities are **not** the same ($\frac{10}{14} \neq \frac{10}{16}$), but odds-ratio is the same if rows and columns are switched.

	Infected	Not infected
yes	10	4
no	6	41

$$OR = \frac{10 \cdot 41}{6 \cdot 4}$$

Thus, the OR for infection among the "yes" group vs. the "no" group is identical to the OR for "yes" among infected vs. non-infected. $OR = 17.1$ seems to indicate that the product has to do with the risk of infection.



Lecture summary: main points

- Analysis of count tables
- Goodness-of-fit test
- Analysis of two-way count tables
 - 2×2 tables
 - $r \times k$ tables
 - Fishers exact test for 2×2 tables
 - Test of hypotheses with one-sided alternatives
 - Odds and odds-ratio

