## r x c Contingency Table

Chi-square Test for Independence or Homogeneity
Purpose: comparing percentages or testing of association.

## Study of the effectiveness of antidepressant

|  | Relapse |  | Ros |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No | 10 | Row Total |  |
| Desipramine |  |  | 24 |
| Lithium | 14 | 18 | 24 |
| Placebo | 6 | 20 | 24 |
| Column Total | 4 | 48 | 72 |

## Hypothesis:

Ho: There is NO relation between variable 1 (treatment) and variable 2 (outcome variables).
Ha : There is relation between two variables.

## Compare Observed and Expected Frequencies

|  | Relapse |  |  |  | Row Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No |  | Yes |  |  |
| Desipramine | 14 | (8) | 10 | (16) | 24 |
| Lithium | 6 | (8) | 18 | (16) | 24 |
| Placebo | 4 | (8) | 20 | (16) | 24 |
| Column Total | 24 |  |  |  | 72 |

Numbers in (..) :
(i,j)th cell expected freq. $=\frac{\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{i}} \times \mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{j}}}{\mathrm{T}}$
$\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{i}}$ : i-th column total
$\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{j}}$ : j-th row total
T : grand total

## Test Statistic:

Test Statistics:

$$
\chi^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{r c} \frac{\left(O_{\mathrm{i}}-E_{\mathrm{i}}\right)^{2}}{E_{\mathrm{i}}} \sim \chi^{2}(\{\mathrm{r}-1\}\{\mathrm{c}-1\})
$$

Cochran's guidelines: (Assumption: Large sample.)

- None of the expected cell counts less than 1
- No more than $20 \%$ of the expected cell frequencies are less than 5.



## Decision Rule:

If $\chi^{2}>\chi^{2}{ }_{\alpha}$ or $p$-value $<\alpha$, the null hypothesis is rejected.
Test Statistics: $\chi^{2}=\frac{(14-8)^{2}}{8}+\frac{(10-16)^{2}}{16}+\frac{(6-8)^{2}}{8}+\frac{(18-16)^{2}}{16}+\frac{(4-8)^{2}}{8}+\frac{(20-16)^{2}}{16}$

$$
=10.5
$$

d.f. $=(3-1)(2-1)=2 \Rightarrow \chi^{2}{ }_{.05}=5.99 \quad$ (Chi-square table)
C.V. approach: Since $\chi^{2}=10.5>\chi^{2} .05=5.99$, so we reject null hypothesis. (See Table A.8, page A-26.)
$p$-value approach: With $\chi^{2}=10.5>9.210$, the $\boldsymbol{p}$-value of the test is less than 0.01 , null hypothesis is rejected.

Conclusion: The relation between treatment and outcome variables is statistically significant.
$2 \times 2$ Contingency Table (A special case of $\mathbf{r x c}$ table)

## Test Statistics:

$\chi^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{r c} \frac{\left(\left|O_{\mathrm{i}}-E_{\mathrm{i}}\right|-0.5\right)^{2}}{E_{\mathrm{i}}} \sim \chi^{2}(1)$, with Yate's correction, " -0.5 "

## Example:

Is there a relationship between treatment and heart disease?
(Is there a difference in the percentages of heart disease between people who took Placebo and those who took Aspirin?)

|  | Heart Disease |  | No - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Group | Yes + | $80(86)$ | 100 |
| Placebo | $20(14)$ | $135(192)$ | 150 |
| Aspirin | $15(21)$ | 215 | 250 |
| Total | 35 |  |  |

$35 \times 100 / 250=14$,
$35 \times 150 / 250=21$,
$215 \times 100 / 250=86$,
$215 \times 150 / 250=192$

Test Statistic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\chi^{2}= & \frac{(|20-14|-.5)^{2}}{14}+\frac{(|80-86|-.5)^{2}}{86}+\frac{(|15-21|-.5)^{2}}{21}+\frac{(|135-192|-.5)^{2}}{192} \\
& =4.19 \\
& \text { d.f. }=(2-1)(2-1)=1 \Rightarrow \chi_{.05}{ }^{2}=3.84 \quad \text { (Chi-square table) }
\end{aligned}
$$

C.V. approach:

Since $\chi^{2}=4.19>\chi^{2} .05=3.84$, reject null hypothesis.
$p$-value approach:
With $\chi^{2}=4.19, .025<p$-value $<.05$, null hypothesis is rejected.
Conclusion: There is significant association between the use of Aspirin and heart disease.
An equivalent formula:

|  | Heart Disease |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Group | Yes + | No - | Total |
| Placebo | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| Aspirin | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

Test Statistics: $\quad \chi^{2}=\frac{n[|a d-b c|-(n / 2)]^{2}}{(a+c)(b+d)(a+b)(c+d)} \sim \chi^{2}(1), \quad$ (computational convenient)
Example:
In Aspirin example : $\chi^{2}=\frac{250[|(20)(135)-(80)(15)|-(250 / 2)]^{2}}{(20+15)(80+135)(20+80)(15+135)}=4.19$
(For small sample, Fisher's Exact Test can be used for $2 \times 2$ contingency table.)

Example: Suppose we want to determine if people with a rare brain tumor are more likely to have been exposed to benzene than people without a brain tumor. One experimental design used to answer this question. First, we start with cases, people with a disease or condition (brain tumor) and find people who are as similar as possible but who do not have brain tumors. Those people are called controls.

$\left.\begin{array}{|c|cc|c|}\hline & \text { Case } & \text { Outcome } & \text { Control }\end{array}\right]$ Total | Exposure | 50 | 20 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 230 |  |  |
| Yes | 100 | 150 |
| No | 150 | 300 |
| Total |  |  |

At the level of significance $\alpha=0.05$, are "exposure to benzene" and "have brain tumors" independent?

## McNemar's Test (Paired-sample test)

Example: A program is designed to promote people to join public health profession. Is there a significant change in the percentage of people who wish to join the public health profession.

## Hypothesis:

Ho: There is no association between the promotion program and the people who wish to join the public health profession or not. (There is no association between two categorical variables.)
$\mathrm{H} a: \quad$ There is association between two variables.
(Pairs of dichotomous observations were collected.)

|  | Yes | Before |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| After | 9 | No | Total |
| Yes | $\mathbf{3 7}$ | 46 |  |
| No | $\mathbf{1 6}$ | 82 | 98 |
| Total | 25 | 119 | 144 |

Concordant pairs - provide no information for testing a null hypothesis about the difference in willing to join public health profession status. (i.e. 9,82 )
Discordant pairs - provide information for testing a null hypothesis about the difference in willing to join public health profession status. (i.e. $\mathrm{r}=37, \mathrm{~s}=16$ )
(If null hypothesis is true the discordant pairs should be almost equal to each other.)
Test Statistic: (based on discordant pairs)

$$
\chi^{2}=\frac{[|r-s|-1]^{2}}{(r+s)} \sim \chi^{2}(1)
$$

he example has a test statistic $\chi^{2}=\frac{[|37-16|-1]^{2}}{(37+16)}=7.5$
Decision Rule: $\chi^{2}=7.5>\chi^{2}{ }_{.05}=3.84$, or $p$-value $<.05$, therefore, reject the null hypothesis.

## The Odds Ratio

A method for estimating the effect of the exposure effect.
Risk factor is a variable that is thought to be related to some outcome variable, and it may be a suspected cause of some specific state of this outcome variable.

|  | Risk Factor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Exposed | Unexposed | Total |
| Disease | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| No Disease | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

$(a+b+c+d=n)$

|  | Risk Factor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Exposed | Unexposed | Total |
| Disease | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| No Disease | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

The odds of getting the disease, given that one has the exposure, are
$O_{+}=P$ [disease | exposed] / $P$ [no disease | exposed], can be estimated by $[a /(a+c)] /[c /(a+c)]$ or $a / c$

The odds of getting the disease, given that one has no exposure, are
$O_{-}=P$ [disease | unexposed] / $P$ [no disease | unexposed], can be estimated by $[b /(b+d)] /[d /(b+d)]$ or $b / d$

|  | Risk Factor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Exposed | Unexposed | Total |
| Disease | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| No Disease | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

The odds ratio, $\boldsymbol{O R}$, is then defined to be $\frac{O_{+}}{O_{-}}$, and its estimate $\quad O \hat{R}=\frac{[a /(a+c)] /[c /(a+c)]}{[b /(b+d)] /[d /(b+d)]}=\frac{a / c}{b / d}=\frac{a d}{b c}$

Example: Suppose we want to determine if people with a rare brain tumor are more likely to have been exposed to benzene than people without a brain tumor. One experimental design used to answer this question. First, we start with cases, people with a disease or condition (brain tumor) and find people who are as similar as possible but who do not have brain tumors. Those people are called controls.

|  | Exposure | No | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Yes | 100 | 150 |
| Case | 50 | 130 | 150 |
| Control | 20 | 230 | 300 |
| Total | 70 |  |  |

Odds ratio $=(50 / 20) /(100 / 130)=(50 \times 130) /(20 \times 100)=3.25$
(Is the odds ratio different from 1?)

|  | Risk Factor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Exposed | Unexposed | Total |
| Disease | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| No Disease | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

Relative risk, $\boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{R}$, is a standard measure of strength of the exposure effect and is defined to be
$R R=P$ [disease $\mid$ exposed] $/ P$ [disease | unexposed]
and its estimate $\quad R \hat{R}=\frac{a /(a+c)}{b /(b+d)}=\frac{a(b+d)}{b(a+c)} \approx \frac{a d}{b c}=O \hat{R}$
When $a$ and $b$ are small relative to the values of $c$ and $d$ Odds Ratio is a good estimate of the relative risk.
Example: Suppose we conducted a prospective cohort study to investigate the effect of aspirin on heart disease. A group of patients who are at risk for a heart attack are randomly assigned to either a placebo or aspirin. At the end of one year, the number of patients suffering a heart attack is recorded.

|  | Placebo | Group | Aspirin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Heart Disease | 20 | 15 | 35 |
| Yes + | 80 | 135 | 215 |
| No - | 100 | 150 | 250 |
| Total |  |  |  |

Relative risk $=(20 / 100) /(15 / 150)=.2 / .1=2$
(The risk of a heart attack for people on placebo is twice that of people on aspirin.)

|  | Risk Factor |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Outcome | Exposed | Unexposed | Total |
| Disease | $a$ | $b$ | $a+b$ |
| No Disease | $c$ | $d$ | $c+d$ |
| Total | $a+c$ | $b+d$ | $n$ |

The $(1-\alpha) \mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ confidence interval estimate for the Odds Ratio is

$$
\left(e^{\ln (O \hat{R})-z_{\alpha / 2} \cdot s^{*}}, e^{\ln (O \hat{R})+z_{\alpha / 2} \cdot s^{*}}\right)
$$

where $O \hat{R}=\frac{a d}{b c}$, standard error of $\ln \left(O \hat{R}^{)}\right.$is $\mathrm{s}^{*}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{a}+\frac{1}{b}+\frac{1}{c}+\frac{1}{d}} \quad$, and $a, b, c$ and $d$ should not be zero.
The modified estimate is $\mathrm{s}^{*}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{a+.5}+\frac{1}{b+.5}+\frac{1}{c+.5}+\frac{1}{d+.5}}$
Example: In brain tumor example, the $95 \%$ confidence interval estimate for the odds ratio of getting brain tumor for person exposed to benzene versus not is $\left(e^{\ln (3.25)-1.96 \cdot s^{*}}, e^{\ln (3.25)+1.96 \cdot s^{*}}\right)$,
where $O \hat{R}=\frac{a d}{b c}=3.25$,
(People exposed to benzene are more than 3 times as likely to get brain tumor.)
$\mathrm{s}^{*}=\sqrt{\frac{1}{50+.5}+\frac{1}{100+.5}+\frac{1}{20+.5}+\frac{1}{130+.5}}=.294$.
The $95 \%$ confidence interval is $\left(e^{\ln (3.25)-1.96(.294)}, e^{\ln (3.25)+1.96(.294)}\right) \Rightarrow(\mathbf{1 . 8 3}, 5.78)$, and it does not contain 1.

This implies that there is significant association between benzene exposure and brain tumor.
(There is also confidence interval estimate for RR.)

## Odds Ratio Estimation for Paired-sample

The sample Odds Ratio of getting disease (or getting result) from exposed to the risk (or improvement) factor versus not for paired dichotomous data is $O \hat{R}=\mathbf{r} / \mathbf{s}(=37 / 16=2.31$. $)$

The $(1-\alpha) \mathbf{1 0 0 \%}$ confidence interval estimate of the odds ratio for "paired dichotomous data" is

$$
\left(e^{\ln (O \hat{R})-z_{\alpha / 2} \cdot s^{*}}, e^{\ln (O \hat{R})+z_{\alpha / 2} \cdot s^{*}}\right)
$$

where $\mathrm{s}^{*}=\sqrt{\frac{r+s}{r s}}=\sqrt{\frac{37+16}{(37)(16)}}=.299$
Example: (Promotion for public health program) The 95\% confidence interval estimate of the odds ratio of wishing to join public health profession after promotion program versus before promotion program is
$O \hat{R}=\mathbf{r} / \mathbf{s}(=37 / 16=2.31$.
$\mathrm{s}^{*}=\sqrt{\frac{r+s}{r s}}=\sqrt{\frac{37+16}{(37)(16)}}=.299$
$\left(e^{\ln (2.31)-1.96(.299)}, e^{\ln (2.31)+1.96(.299)}\right)$
$\Rightarrow(1.29,4.15)$.
This interval does not cover 1, it implies that there is significant effect from the promotional program.

## Berkson's Fallacy

An investigation surveyed 2784 individuals, 257 of them were hospitalized and examined to determine whether each subject suffered from a disease of the circulatory system or a respiratory illness or both. From only those 257 patients, the chi-square test indicates that there is significant association between having respiratory illness and having circulatory disease.
(Table with 257 individuals)

|  | Respiratory Disease |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Circulatory Disease | Yes | No | Total |
| Yes | 7 | 29 | 36 |
| No | 13 | 208 | 221 |
| Total | 20 | 237 | 257 |

odds ratio $=(7)(208) /(29)(13)=3.86, \quad p$-value $<.025$
(Table with 2784 individuals)

|  | Respiratory Disease |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Circulatory Disease | Yes | No | Total |
| Yes | 22 | 171 | 193 |
| No | 202 | 2389 | 2591 |
| Total | 224 | 2560 | 2784 |

Odds ratio $=1.52$, p -value $>0.1$ ?????

## Simpson's Paradox

## Example: (City College Admissions)

Overall: Admission rate for men is higher than women.
The Whole School

|  | Admitted | No admitted | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Men | 198 | 162 | 360 |
| Women | 88 | 112 | 200 |
| Total | 286 | 274 | 560 |

Men admitted = 55\%
Women admitted $=\mathbf{4 4 \%}$
Sample OR of men versus women $=(198)(112) /(162)(88)=1.56$
In separate schools: Admission rate for women is higher than men.??? Lurking variable "schools"
Business School

|  | Admitted | No admitted | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Men | 18 | 102 | 120 |
| Women | 24 | 96 | 120 |
| Total | 42 | 198 | 240 |

Men admitted = 15\%, Women admitted $=\mathbf{2 0 \%}$
Sample OR of men versus women $=(18)(96) /(102)(24)=0.71$
Law School

|  | Admitted | No admitted | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Men | 180 | 60 | 240 |
| Women | 64 | 16 | 80 |
| Total | 244 | 76 | 320 |

Men admitted =75\%, Women admitted $=\mathbf{8 0 \%}$
Sample OR of men versus women $=(180)(16) /(60)(64)=0.75$

## The Mantel-Haenszel Method

This same technique can also be used to combine results from several studies identified in a literature search on a specific topic. This technique is sometimes referred to as meta-analysis.

## Steps:

1. Test of Homogeneity of Odds Ratios for all contingency tables.
2. Summary Odds Ratio: $O \hat{R}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{g} a_{i} d_{i} / T_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{g} b_{i} c_{i} / T_{i}}, \boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ total of the $\boldsymbol{i}$-th table.
3. Test of Association: Ho: $\mathrm{OR}=1$ v.s. Ha: $\mathrm{OR} \neq 1$.

$$
\chi^{2}=\frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{g} a_{i}-\sum_{i=1}^{g} m_{i}\right]^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{g} \sigma_{i}^{2}} \sim \chi^{2}(1),
$$

where $\quad a_{i}=$ count in the $a$ cell count on the $i$-th table,

$$
m_{i}=\frac{M_{1 i} N_{1 i}}{T_{i}} \quad \sigma_{i}^{2}=\frac{M_{1 i} N_{1 i} M_{2 i} N_{2 i}}{T_{i}^{2}\left(T_{i}-1\right)}
$$

$M_{1 i}=$ the 1-th column total of the $i$-th table, $N_{1 i}=$ the 1-th row total of the $i$-th table,
$M_{2 i}=$ the 2-nd column total of the $i$-th table, $N_{2 i}=$ the 2-nd row total of the $i$-th table,
$T_{i}=$ the grand total of the $i$-th table.

| Sleep | LowHigh | Test results, Boys |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Fai | Pass |
|  |  | 20 | 100 |
|  |  | 15 | 150 |


|  | Test results, Girls |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Fail | Pass |  |
| Low | 30 | 100 |
| High | 25 | 200 |
|  |  |  |

Sleep variable is the risk factor
(Low => less than 8 hours, High => more than 8 hours)
The Breslow-Day test for homogeneity of the odds ratio is not significant ( $p$-value $=.698$ ), so we can be comfortable in combining these two tables.
The Odds Ratio of failing the test for low sleep hours v.s. high sleep hours can be estimated with confidence interval.

# Following is SAS output (Output from another statistical software) 

```
Mantel-Haneszel Chi-square Test
SUMMARY STATISTICS FOR SLEEP BY RESULTS CONTROLLING FOR GENDER
```



The confidence bounds for the $M-H$ estimates are test-based.

Breslow-Day Test for Homogeneity of the Odds Ratios

```
Chi-Square = 0.150
DF = 1
    Prob = 0.698
    Total Sample Size = 640
```

