STATS 111/202

Lecture 3: sampling, more tables, and ordinal data

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Notation reminder

- In the textbook, when considering proportions and conditional probabilities the author uses the notation:
 - π population parameter
 - p sample estimate of population parameter
- In previous classes we often see:
 - p population parameter
 - \hat{p} sample estimate of population parameter
- For this homework, we will accept either format. Just make sure you are differentiating between population vs sample estimate
- For future lectures, we will stick with "hat" notation. This will likely match up better with future courses and previous courses

Refresh of study/sampling types



2.1.5, 2.3.6

Studies

Observational study

- Participants are only observed or surveyed and measured
- When comparisons between groups are made, these are naturally formed
- Cause and effect conclusions cannot generally be made

Randomized experiment

- Participants are randomly assigned to treatment vs control groups
- Should account for potential confounding variables across groups
- When well-designed, cause and effect conclusions can generally be made

Studies

Confounding variables

- A variable that affects the response but is also related to the explanatory variable
- In this case, its effect on the response cannot be separated from the effect on the explanatory variable
- Example: eating more ice cream can lead to shark attacks

Designs

Prospective

 Collect the sample, then follow participants for a length of time to observe future events during the study period

• Examples:

- Cohort study: an observational study in which a cohort (a group sharing a common characteristic) is followed throughout the study and outcome variables are observed.
- Clinical trial: a randomized experiment where participants are randomly assigned treatments then followed throughout the study as outcome variables are observed

Retrospective

- Collect the sample, then ask about the past
- Example: case-control study observational study where a sample of cases is collected along with controls then explanatory variables are compared.

Designs

Cross-sectional

- A representative sample of a population is collected, and data are collected on those individuals at a specific point in time
- This is an observational study, but neither prospective or retrospective



General example

	Y=1	Y=0	Total	
X=1	n_{11}	n_{12}	$n_{1+} = n_{11} + n_{12}$	
X=0	n_{21}	n_{22}	$n_{2+} = n_{21} + n_{22}$	
Total	$n_{+1} = n_{11} + n_{21}$	$n_{+2} = n_{12} + n_{22}$	n	

Consider the scenario where a fixed number of subjects with X=0 and X=1 are sampled, and then we observe to see if they result in a Y=0 or Y=1

- Here n_{1+} and n_{2+} are fixed
- Take $p_0 = P(Y = 1 | X = 0)$ and $p_1 = P(Y = 1 | X = 1)$
- Then $n_{11} \sim Binomial(n_{1+}, p_1)$ and $n_{21} \sim Binomial(n_{2+}, p_0)$
- We compare p_0 to p_1

Other important quantities:

- Risk difference $RD = p_1 p_0$
- Relative risk (risk ratio): $RR = \frac{p_1}{p_0}$
- Odds ratio OR= $\frac{p_1/(1-p_1)}{p_0/(1-p_0)}$
- Odds is the probability of an event divided by the probability of no event

Odds ratio (OR)

- Strictly nonnegative $(0 \le OR < \infty)$
- When p_0 and p_1 are close to 0, OR will approximate RR
 - Because $(1 p_1)$ and $(1 p_0)$ are approximately equal to 1

Other important quantities:

• Risk difference $RD = p_1 - p_0$

- Estimate: $\hat{p}_1 \hat{p}_0$
- Relative risk (risk ratio): $RR = \frac{p_1}{p_0}$

Estimate: $\frac{\hat{p}_1}{\hat{p}_0}$

• Odds ratio OR= $\frac{p_1/(1-p_1)}{p_0/(1-p_0)}$

Estimate: $\frac{\widehat{p}_1/_{(1-\widehat{p}_1)}}{\widehat{p}_0/_{(1-\widehat{p}_0)}}$

• Odds is the probability of an event divided by the probability of no event

Estimates using table quantities

•
$$\hat{p}_1 = \frac{n_{11}}{n_{1+}}$$

• $\hat{p}_0 = \frac{n_{21}}{n_{2+}}$
• $\widehat{RD} = \hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_0$

•
$$\hat{p}_0 = \frac{n_{21}}{n_{2+}}$$

$$\bullet \quad \widehat{RD} = \hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_0$$

•
$$\widehat{RR} = \frac{\widehat{p}_1}{\widehat{p}_0}$$

•
$$\widehat{RR} = \frac{\widehat{p}_1}{\widehat{p}_0}$$

• $\widehat{OR} = \frac{\widehat{p}_1}{\widehat{p}_0/(1-\widehat{p}_0)}$

	Y=1	Y=0	Total	
X=1	n_{11}	n_{12}	$n_{1+} = n_{11} + n_{12}$	
X=0	n_{21}	n_{22}	$n_{2+} = n_{21} + n_{22}$	
Total	$n_{+1} = n_{11} + n_{21}$	$n_{+2} = n_{12} + n_{22}$	n	

Inference

Using some careful math, we can establish asymptotic normality of the estimates and compute standard errors:

Standard error estimates

 $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI

$$\widehat{se}(\widehat{RD}) = \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}_{1}(1-\hat{p}_{1})}{n_{1+}} + \frac{\hat{p}_{0}(1-\hat{p}_{0})}{n_{2+}}} \qquad \widehat{p}_{1} - \hat{p}_{0} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \times \widehat{se}(\widehat{RD})$$

$$\widehat{se}(\log(\widehat{RR})) = \sqrt{\frac{(1-\hat{p}_{1})}{\hat{p}_{1}n_{1+}} + \frac{(1-\hat{p}_{0})}{\hat{p}_{0}n_{2+}}} \qquad \log(\frac{\hat{p}_{1}}{\hat{p}_{0}}) \pm z_{\alpha/2} \times \widehat{se}(\log(\widehat{RR}))$$

$$\widehat{se}(\log(\widehat{OR})) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\hat{p}_{1}n_{1+}} + \frac{1}{(1-\hat{p}_{1})n_{1+}} + \frac{1}{\hat{p}_{0}n_{2+}} + \frac{1}{(1-\hat{p}_{0})n_{2+}}} \qquad \log(\frac{\hat{p}_{1}/(1-\hat{p}_{1})}{\hat{p}_{0}/(1-\hat{p}_{0})}) \pm z_{\alpha/2} \times \widehat{se}(\log(\widehat{OR}))$$

Inference

In general, for an estimate $\widehat{\theta}$ of population parameter θ , the 100(1 $-\alpha$)% CI follows the form:

$$(I,u) = (\hat{\theta} - z_{\alpha/2}se(\hat{\theta}), \hat{\theta} + z_{\alpha/2}se(\hat{\theta}))$$

Then we can get a CI for the log transformed RR and OR by back transformation (exponentiate it)

$$(RR_l, RR_u) = (e^l, e^u)$$

Inference: hypothesis testing

- As mentioned last week, generally interested in whether $p_1=p_0$
- Meaning, RD=0 or RR=1 or OR=1
- If true, then the categorical explanatory variable has no effect on the outcome!
- Testing RD=0 is equivalent to testing if RR=OR=1
- The null H_0 follows RD=0 or RR=OR=1, and the alternative H_α for RD can be of the form $\neq 0$ or one-sided < 0 or > 0 (and $\neq 1$ or one-sided < 1 or > 1 for RR or OR)

CHD example #1



- When the number of categories of X and/or Y increase, we will have many pairwise comparisons between levels of X and levels of Y
- Let the inference goal be whether the level of X is associated with the level of Y
- Let the explanatory variable X have I many levels, i=1,2,...,I
- Let the response Y have J levels, j=1,2,...,J

	Y=1	Y=2	•••	Y=J	Total
X=1	n_{11}	n_{12}	•••	n_{1J}	n_{1+}
X=2	n_{21}	n_{22}	•••	n_{2J}	n ₂₊
:	:	••	•••	•	:
X=I	n_{I1}	n_{I2}	•••	n_{IJ}	n_{I+}
Total	$n_{\pm 1}$	n_{+2}	•••	n_{+J}	n

- Now we want to test whether X and Y are independent (is X associated with Y?)
- X and Y are independent if the conditional distributions of Y given X are the same at each level of X
- Meaning, the level of X has no effect on the distribution of Y

- Let $p_{ij} = P(X = i, Y = j)$
- X and Y are independent if and only if $p_{ij}=p_{i+}p_{+j}$
- Where $p_{i+} = P(X = i)$ and $p_{+j} = P(Y = j)$ for i=1,2,...,I and j=1,2,...,J

- The null hypothesis will then be: H_0 : $p_{ij}=p_{i+}p_{+j}$ for all $i=1,2,\ldots,I$ and $j=1,2,\ldots,J$
- The alternative will then be: H_{α} : at least one combination of i and j has $p_{ij} \neq p_i p_j$
- The test statistics is of the form $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{(n_{ij} \widehat{\mu}_{ij})^2}{\widehat{\mu}_{ij}}$
- Where $\hat{\mu}_{ij}$ is the **estimated expected number** of observations where X=i, Y=j, **under** the null
 - The expected number of n_{ij} where n_{ij} is the observed number of observations

Computing expected number of observations in a given cell

- Estimate μ_{ij} by
 - $\hat{\mu}_{ij} = n \, \hat{p}_{ij} = n \hat{p}_{i+} \hat{p}_{+j} = n \frac{n_{i+}}{n} \frac{n_{+j}}{n} = \frac{n_{i+}n_{+j}}{n}$

Test statistic

- From our test statistic, we have a chi-squared distribution with (I-1)(J-1) degrees of freedom
- To obtain a p-value, we compute the area above the test statistic using a chisquared distribution with (I-1)(J-1) degrees of freedom
 - In R, this would be 1-pchisq(X,(I-1)(J-1)), where X is the test statistic that was computed

Degrees of freedom

- Like before in regression, the degrees of freedom is the difference in the number of parameters between the full model and the reduced model
- The reduced model is the one under the null. So we have I-1 parameters to be estimated for the p_{+i} and another J-1 for the p_{i+}
- This gives a total of (I-1) + (J-1) parameters under the null
- The unconstrained model has to estimate all p_{ij} of which there are IJ-1 to estimate
- So the difference and total df follows: (IJ-1) [(I-1) + (J-1)] = (I-1)(J-1)

Testing for independence in R

- We use the chisq.test() function
- Need to input the entire IxJ table
- The null is that X and Y are independent and the alternative is that this does not hold (i.e., X and Y are dependent)
- Can also have R compute all expected counts under the null
 - Say your IxJ table is stored under object 'x'
 - To get the expected counts take: chisq.test(x)\$expected

CHD example #2



Ordinal data



2.5

- We will extend these methods to account for explanatory variables that are ordinal in nature
 - Ex: medicine dosage, blood pressure
 - It can be argued that it is reasonable to assume the probability of the response being 1 (Y=1) is increasing (or decreasing) as we move down the two-way table
- Incorporating this information allows for testing more precise alternatives
- It is a stronger scientific statement if one hypothesizes a linear trend and later rejects in favor of that alternative

- Now we assign numeric scores to each possible outcome
 - Scores $u_1 \le u_2 \le \cdots \le u_I$ for the I levels of X
 - Scores $v_1 \le v_2 \le \cdots \le v_I$ for the J levels of Y
- Scores should match the ordering believed to be inherent in the categorical levels.
- Categories close to one another should have scores close together and vice versa
- A common approach is to naturally order outcomes (e.g., $u_1=1,u_2=2,\ldots,u_I=I$ and the same for v scores)

- With scores assigned, this is closer to our regression setting. We can look for a linear trend and use sample correlation between scores to form a test statistic
- Recall correlation: $\rho = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$
- Under the scores we have:

•
$$r = \frac{\sum_{i,j} (u_i - \bar{u})(v_j - \bar{v}) p_{ij}}{\sqrt{[\sum_i (u_j - \bar{u})^2 p_{i+}][\sum_j (v_j - \bar{v})^2 p_{+j}]}}$$

- Where $\bar{u} = \sum_i u_i p_{i+}$ denotes the sample mean of row scores
- $\bar{v} = \sum v_i p_{+i}$ denotes the sample mean of column scores

- We use the test statistic: $M^2 = (n-1)r^2 \sim \chi_1^2$
 - Meaning, it is distributed approximately chi-squared with 1 df
- Since we have 1 df, this means the full model has 1 extra parameter than the reduced
- Similar to testing a single slope parameter in a linear regression setting where the explanatory variable is the categorical explanatory variable being treated like a discrete ordinal variable (or rather, continuous)

- Let's say we have two levels for Y (0/1) and I levels for X
- Let $p_i = P(Y = 1 | X = j)$, the probability Y=1 given the jth category of X
- For hypothesis testing, we have
 - H_o : $p_1 = p_2 = \cdots = p_i$ (X and Y are independent)
 - H_{α} : $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_I$ or $p_1 > p_2 > \cdots > p_I$ (testing a trend, either increasing or decreasing)
- This assumes scores were generated such that the are increasing
- This is a trend test, and will give evidence that there is a trend in probabilities or not
 - Need to look at data to see whether it is increasing or decreasing

CHD example #3



Announcements

- HW 1 due this Sunday at 11:59pm PT
- For additional practice:
 - See questions 1.1, 1.3, 1.7, 1.9, 1.15, 2.1a, 2.3, 2.5, 2.9, 2.11, 2.13, 2.15, 2.19a, 2.21 in the textbook (all have solutions in the back/online)