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5 Tests for Trends and Association

Example 1: homework and final grade The following data shows a subset of the homework and final exam grade of students in Fall 2007.

Table 1: A subset of the grades

Student	1	2	3	4	5
Homework	0	96	65	58	56
Final exam	0	166	130	118	130

Question: How to assess the relationship between homework and final exam?

Example 2: reading ability. Is there a significant positive correlation between the rankings of 10 children on a reading test X and their teacher's ranking of their reading ability Y ?

Table 2: Reading ability

Student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
X	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Y	3	2	1	4	5	6	8	7	10	9

We first consider assessing the relationship between two continuous variables X and Y by using

- correlation coefficient ρ
- slope of least squares regression line β_1

5.1 Association between Quantitative Variables

5.1.1 Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient:

$$\rho = \frac{E\{(X - \mu_x)(Y - \mu_y)\}}{\sigma_x \sigma_y},$$

where

- μ_x and μ_y are the means of X and Y ;
- σ_x and σ_y are the standard deviations of X and Y ;
- the numerator is $Cov(X, Y)$.

Some properties of ρ :

- measures the linear relationship between X and Y ;
- $-1 \leq \rho \leq 1$;

- $\rho = 0 \Rightarrow$ no **linear** relationship;
- $\rho > 0$: positive linear association, Y tends to increase as X increases, and vice versa.

Suppose we observe $(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$. We can estimate ρ by the **Sample correlation coefficient**:

$$\hat{\rho} = r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_x S_y},$$

where

- $S_{xy} = 1/(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$
- $S_x^2 = 1/(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$
- $S_y^2 = 1/(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2$

Hypothesis test:

- If $(X_i, Y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$ is a random sample from a bivariate

normal distribution, then we can test $H_0 : \rho = 0$ with the test statistic

$$t_{corr} = \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}} r \sim t_{n-2} \text{ under } H_0.$$

That is,

- $H_a : \rho \neq 0$, reject H_0 if $|t_{corr}| > t_{\alpha/2, n-2}$
- $H_a : \rho > 0$, reject H_0 if $t_{corr} > t_{\alpha, n-2}$
- $H_a : \rho < 0$, reject H_0 if $t_{corr} < -t_{\alpha, n-2}$

5.1.2 Slope of Least Squares Line

Simple linear regression model:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

- β_0 : intercept;
- β_1 : slope, $\beta_1 = 0 \Rightarrow$ no linear relationship between Y_i and X_i ;

- ϵ_i : random error with mean 0 and finite variance.

Least squares estimates $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are the minimizers of

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 - \hat{\beta}_0 \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i - \hat{\beta}_1 \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i,$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = r \frac{S_y}{S_x},$$

$$\hat{\beta}_0 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_1 \bar{X}.$$

If ϵ_i *i.i.d.* are normally distributed, we can test $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_{10}$ with

$$t_{slope} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{10}}{se(\hat{\beta}_1)} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - \beta_{10}}{\sqrt{\frac{MSE}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}}} \sim t_{n-2} \text{ under } H_0,$$

where $MSE = SSE/(n - 2)$.

5.1.3 Permutation Test for ρ or β_1

The validity of the t -tests require the normal distribution assumption. When we are not willing to make distributional assumptions, we can perform permutation test to obtain the reference null distribution of $\hat{\rho}$ or $\hat{\beta}_1$.

Under $H_0 : \rho = 0$ or $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$,

- Y_i is likely to appear with X_j as it is to appear with X_i for $j \neq i$;
- i.e. all $n!$ ways of arranging the Y_i 's with the X_i 's are equally likely under H_0 .

Steps:

- Calculate $\hat{\beta}_{1,obs}$ (or r_{obs}).
- Permute the Y 's among the X 's in $n!$ ways (or a sample R of the permutations). That is, keep the order of X unchanged and permute Y .

- For each permutation, calculate $\hat{\beta}_1^*$ or r^* .

- Upper-tailed test $H_0 : \beta_1 > 0$:

$$p\text{-value} = \frac{\#\hat{\beta}_1^* \text{'s} \geq \hat{\beta}_{1,obs}}{R}.$$

- Lower-tailed test $H_0 : \beta_1 < 0$:

$$p\text{-value} = \frac{\#\hat{\beta}_1^* \text{'s} \leq \hat{\beta}_{1,obs}}{R}.$$

- Two-tailed test $H_0 : \beta_1 \neq 0$:

$$p\text{-value} = \frac{\#\left|\hat{\beta}_1^*\right| \text{'s} \geq \left|\hat{\beta}_{1,obs}\right|}{R}.$$

Remark. Recall that

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} = r \frac{S_y}{S_x},$$

and S_y and S_x are unchanged with permutations. Therefore, it's

equivalent to base the test on

- $r = \frac{S_{xy}}{S_x S_y}$
- or $(n - 1)S_{xy} = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i - n\bar{X}\bar{Y}$
- or $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i$

Large sample approximation for r : $Var(r) = \frac{1}{n-1}$, so for large n ,

$$Z_r = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1/(n-1)}} = r\sqrt{n-1} \sim N(0, 1) \text{ approximately.}$$

Example 5.1.1 *ST745 grades. X_i : middle term exam score, Y_i : final exam score, $i = 1, \dots, 21$. We have the following summary:*
 $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i = 1956$, $\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i = 1917$, $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i = 179203$, $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = 182738$, $\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2 = 176499$.
 Calculate r and $\hat{\beta}_1$, and test $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$.

See R code for the hypothesis testing results.

5.1.4 Spearman Rank Correlation

Consider the following data:

X_i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Y_i	1	16	81	256	625	1296	2401

- The sample correlation coefficient: $r = .89$.
- However, there is a perfect relationship: $Y_i = X_i^4$.
- Pearson's CC can only capture the linear relationship.

Notice that for the above data: when the rank of X_i increases, the rank of Y_i also increases.

Instead of limiting our definition of association to **linear** relationship, we consider measuring the extent to which Y increases with X by comparing the ranks of X_i 's with those of Y_i 's.

- **Spearman's rank correlation** (r_s) is the standard Pearson correlation applied to the ranks of X_i 's and the ranks of Y_i 's.
- r_s measures how well one variable is monotonically dependent on the other variable. When there are no ties, $r_s = 1$ (or -1) means one variable is a perfect monotone increasing (or decreasing) function of the other.
- Table A12 gives the limited critical values for the distribution of r_s under H_0 .
- Large sample approximation: for large n ,

$$Var(r_s) = \frac{1}{n-1}, \quad Z = \frac{r_s}{\sqrt{Var(r_s)}} = r_s \sqrt{n-1} \sim N(0, 1)$$

approximately under H_0 : no association between X and Y .

- One treatment of ties
 - use midranks to ties among X_i 's (or Y_i 's)

- then apply Pearson correlation to the ranks adjusted for ties
- use permutation to obtain an exact test
- or use the large sample approximation
- There exists some other complicated adjustments for ties but we recommend apply the permutation to ranks.

For the above artificial data:

R code and outputs:

```
x      1      2      3      4      5      6      7
y      1     16     81    256    625   1296   2401
> cor(x,y)
[1] 0.8903055
> rank(x)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
> rank(y)
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
> cor(rank(x), rank(y))
[1] 1
```

Example 5.1.2 Calculate the Spearman coefficient for the “Reading ability” data set, and test $H_0 : r_s = 0$ versus $H_a : r_s > 0$

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
y	3	2	1	4	5	6	8	7	10	9

```
> ## Spearman correlation
> (rs.obs = cor(x, y))
[1] 0.9272727

> ## permutation test for the Spearman correlation
> permr <- perm.approx.r(x, y, 1000)
> mean(permr >= rs.obs)
[1] 0
```

From Table A12, $p\text{-value} = P(r_s \geq 0.927) > P(r_s > 0.78) = 0.005$.

Q: Carry out the test based on the large sample approximation.

Example 5.1.3 *Scores (with ties) of ten projects at a science fair:*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
JudgeA x	8	8	7	8	5	6	6	9	8	7
JudgeB y	7	8	8	5	6	4	5	8	6	9

```

> (x = rank(x))
[1] 7.5 7.5 4.5 7.5 1.0 2.5 2.5 10.0 7.5 4.5
> (y = rank(y))
[1] 6.0 8.0 8.0 2.5 4.5 1.0 2.5 8.0 4.5 10.0
>
> ## Spearman's rank correlation
> (rs.obs = cor(x, y))
[1] 0.3750694
>
> ## permutation test for the Spearman correlation
> permr <- perm.approx.r(x, y, 1000)
> mean(permr >= rs.obs)
[1] 0.131

```


5.1.5 Kendall's τ

For this measure of association, we consider whether pairs are concordant or discordant.

Consider the exam1 score X_i and exam2 scores Y_i of two students.

- A: $X_1 = 43, Y_1 = 64$
- B: $X_2 = 89, Y_2 = 72$

Note that as exam1 score increases from subject A to subject B, the exam2 score also increases, i.e. B performs better than A consistently in two exams.

We say a pair of points (X_i, Y_i) and (X_j, Y_j) are

- **concordant** if

$$X_i < X_j \Rightarrow Y_i < Y_j, \text{ or } (X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) > 0$$

- **discordant** if

$$X_i < X_j \Rightarrow Y_i > Y_j, \text{ or } (X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) < 0.$$

We say that X 's and Y 's have

- **a positive association** if pairs are more likely to be concordant than discordant;
- **a negative association** if pairs are more likely to be discordant than concordant;
- **no association** if pairs are equally likely to be discordant or concordant.

Assuming no ties, Kendall's τ is defined as

$$\tau = 2P\{(X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) > 0\} - 1,$$

so that $\tau \in [-1, 1]$.

Estimation of τ (standard approach)

For $i = 1, \dots, n, j = 1, \dots, n$, let

$$U_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & (X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) > 0 \\ 0, & (X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) < 0 \\ 1/2, & (X_i - X_j)(Y_i - Y_j) = 0, \end{cases}$$

and

$$V_i = \sum_{j=i+1}^n U_{ij},$$

that is, the number of pairs (X_j, Y_j) concordant with (X_i, Y_i) for $j \geq i + 1$. Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} V_i / \binom{n}{2}$$

is the fraction of concordant pairs. One estimation of τ :

$$r_\tau = 2 \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} V_i}{\binom{n}{2}} \right) - 1$$

Estimation of τ (simpler approach, equivalent when no ties)

1. Order the paired data (X_i, Y_i) so that X 's are in the increasing order $X_1 < X_2 < \dots < X_n$.
2. Count the number of pairs (Y_i, Y_j) such that $Y_i < Y_j$. If $Y_i = Y_j$, add $1/2$ to the sum.
3. $r_\tau = 2 \left(\frac{\text{sum in step 2}}{\binom{n}{2}} \right) - 1$

Large sample approximation for distribution of r_τ : under H_0 : no association, r_τ is approximately normal with $E(r_\tau) = 0$ and

$$\text{Var}(r_\tau) = \frac{4n + 10}{9(n^2 - n)}.$$

Note: the variance needs be adjusted when there are ties (see Higgins).

Example 5.1.4 *A subset of grades:*

student	1	2	3	4	5
homework X_i	0	96	65	58	56
final exam Y_i	0	166	130	118	130

Step1: order the pairs

homework X_i	0	56	58	65	96
final exam Y_i	0	130	118	130	166

Step2: total $4 + 1.5 + 2 + 1 = 8.5$ pairs (Y_i, Y_j) such that $Y_i < Y_j$,
 $\binom{5}{2} = 10$.

Step3: $r_\tau = 2 \frac{8.5}{10} - 1 = 0.7$. See R code for permutation test.

5.2 Qualitative Variables

5.2.1 Contingency Tables

Suppose individuals are placed into categories according to two characteristics. The **two-way contingency table** displays the counts of individuals falling into each of the categories. For example:

- Simple Random Sample (SRS) with questions: “favorite member of Beatles” and “favorite member of U2”

Beatles	U2				Total
	Bone	Edge	Larry	Adam	
John	15	12	0	1	28
Paul	14	8	2	1	25
George	8	4	2	5	19
Ringo	5	9	10	2	26
Total	42	33	14	9	98

- Stratified sample: attitudes about Jell-O

	Hate	Neutral	Love	Total
Utahns	10	20	70	100
Californians	50	40	10	100
Alaskans	20	60	20	100

- Designed experiment (CRD):

	No benefit	Mild benefit	Strong benefit	total
Drug A	10	20	40	80
Drug B	15	15	10	40

5.2.2 Chi-square Test for Association

Observations in an $r \times c$ contingency table:

	Col 1	Col 2	\dots	Col c	Row Totals
Row 1	n_{11}	n_{12}	\dots	n_{1c}	$n_{1.}$
Row 2	n_{21}	n_{22}	\dots	n_{2c}	$n_{2.}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Row r	n_{r1}	n_{r2}	\dots	n_{rc}	$n_{r.}$
Col Totals	$n_{.1}$	$n_{.2}$	\dots	$n_{.c}$	n

Two different cases:

- Case 1 (SRS): all n individuals are randomly selected and classified according to row/column characteristics.
- Case 2 (stratified or CRD):
 - a fixed number $n_{i.}$ is selected according to row characteristics,

$$i = 1, \dots, r$$

– then classified according to column characteristics

Hypotheses:

- Case 1: $H_0 : p_{ij} = p_{i.}p_{.j}$ (independence), where

$$p_{ij} = \frac{E(n_{ij})}{n}, \quad p_{i.} = \sum_{j=1}^c p_{ij}, \quad p_{.j} = \sum_{i=1}^r p_{ij},$$

and p_{ij} is the expected proportion of the cell (i, j) , $p_{i.}$ is the expected proportion of row i , and $p_{.j}$ is the expected proportion of the column j .

- Case 2: $H_0 : p_{j|i} = p_{j|i'}$ for all i, i' and j (homogeneity), where

$$p_{j|i} = \frac{p_{ij}}{p_{i.}}$$

is the conditional probability of column j given row i . E.g. for the example “attitudes about Jell-O”, $p_{1|2}$: the expected proportion of

Californians who hate Jell-O.

- The two null hypotheses are equivalent: test if there is any association between the row and the column factors.

Chi-square test statistic:

- Observed counts in each cell: n_{ij}
- Expected counts under H_0 :

$$e_{ij} = \frac{n_{i.}n_{.j}}{n}$$

- Chi-square test statistic

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c \frac{(n_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}.$$

- If $e_{ij} \geq 5$ for all i, j , then χ^2 is distributed $\chi^2_{(r-1)(c-1)}$ under H_0 .

Permutation χ^2 test: when some $e_{ij} < 5$, the chi-square distribution may not be valid. But we can still create permutation distribution of the χ^2 statistic under H_0 .

Example 5.2.1 *satisfaction with pain-relief treatment versus gender*

	Not satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied	row total
Female	2	2	0	4
Male	0	1	2	3
col total	2	3	2	7

The expected counts: $e_{11} = \frac{4 \times 2}{7} = 8/7$, $e_{12} = 12/7$, $e_{13} = 8/7$, $e_{21} = 6/7$, $e_{22} = 9/7$, $e_{23} = 6/7$. So

$$\chi_{obs}^2 = \frac{(8/7 - 2)^2}{8/7} + \dots + \frac{(6/7 - 2)^2}{6/7} = 4.28.$$

The **permutation null distribution** of χ^2 . Under H_0 ,

- all assignments of the 4 females and 3 males to the 3 column groups are equally likely;
- or equivalently, all assignments of 2 non-, 3 somewhat-, and 2 very-satisfied to the genders are equally likely

Steps for the permutation chi-square test:

1. Calculate χ_{obs}^2
2. For each permutation, randomly choose n_i of the column labels to be placed in row i and calculate χ^{2*} for each permutation. For the pain-relief treatment example,
 - there are total 7 subjects, having 7 labels $N_1, N_2, S_3, S_4, S_5, V_6, V_7$
 - assigning 7 labels: 4 to one treatment, and 3 to the other treatment has $\frac{7!}{4!3!} = 35$ ways

3. Calculate $p\text{-value} = \#\{\chi^{2*} > \chi_{obs}^2\}/R$, where R is the number of permutations (or a sample of all permutations).

Simple implementation of Step 2:

- Create vectors x and y (length n) with row labels $(1, \dots, r)$ and column labels $(1, \dots, c)$ as elements. For the pain-relief treatment example

x	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
y	1	1	2	2	2	3	3

- Randomly permute values in x (or in y) while keeping the other vector unchanged to get table and χ^{2*} statistic. Example tables for pain-relief example under H_0 (note that each table has the same row totals and column totals)

Permuted x : 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2 gives the permuted frequency table:

	N	S	V
Female	2	1	1
Male	0	2	1

Permuted x : 1, 2, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1 gives the permuted frequency table:

	N	S	V
Female	1	1	2
Male	1	2	0

Example 5.2.2 See the R code for the permutation test of the following examples

- *Satisfaction v.s. Gender*
- *Gender v.s. Party*
- *Presidential preference v.s. Region*

5.2.3 Fisher's Exact Test for a 2×2 Contingency Table

Permutation test applied to a 2×2 contingency table is Fisher's exact test. Fisher's exact test is used for small sample size, as p-value can be calculated exactly under the null hypothesis rather than based on large sample approximation. Fisher's exact test is named after its inventor R. A. Fisher, .

The lady tasting tea experiment: The lady, Muriel Bristol, claimed that she was able to tell whether the tea or the milk was added first to a cup. Fisher prepared 8 cups of tea, 4 with tea added first and 4 with milk added first. The lady was informed of the design (4 tea first, 4 milk first). Then Fisher presented the 8 cups to her in random order. She was asked to identify the 4 cups with milk first. Below is the result:

Guess	Order of Actual Pouring	
	Tea first	Milk first
Tea first	3	1
Milk first	1	3

The question is: does the lady have the discriminating skill? What's the probability that she got such answers when everything is due to chance (p-value)?

The null and alternative hypotheses:

H_0 : there is no association between the true order of pouring and the lady's guess

versus H_a : there is a positive association.

We can generalize the table as follows:

Guess	Order of Actual Pouring		Total
	Tea first	Milk first	
Tea first	X		4
Milk first			4
	4	4	8

- Since the design fixes the row and column totals to 4 each, the entire table is fixed after X is chosen ($X = 3$ in the lady tea example).
- Rephrase the problem. There are total 8 cups, among which 4 have milk added first ("success"). The lady is asked to choose 4 cups (that she believes has milk added first). X is the number of milk-first cups among the 4 that the lady choose, that is, the number of success among 4 randomly chosen from the population.
- There are total $\binom{8}{4}$ of ways of choosing 4 cups among 8.

- Suppose H_0 is true, i.e. the lady has no discriminating skill. Then all $\binom{8}{4}$ are equally likely. Under H_0 , X follows the hypergeometric distribution $Hyper(m = 4, n = 4, k = 4)$.
- $Hyper(m, n, k)$ is a discrete distribution. The hypergeometric distribution can be understood by using the urn model. Suppose a urn has total n black marbles, and m white marbles (“successes”). Suppose you are asked to draw k marbles from the urn without replacement, and denote X as the number of white marbles you get among k . Then $X \sim Hyper(m, n, k)$ and

$$P(X = x) = \frac{\binom{m}{x} \binom{n}{k-x}}{\binom{m+n}{k}},$$

for $\max\{0, k - \min(n, k)\} \leq x \leq \min(m, k)$.

- Under H_0 :

$$P(X = 3) = \frac{\binom{4}{3} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{8}{4}} = 0.229$$

$$P(X = 4) = \frac{\binom{4}{4} \binom{4}{0}}{\binom{8}{4}} = 0.014$$

- In R, function `dhyper(x, m, n, k)` gives $P(X = x)$ for hypergeometric distribution.

```
dhyper(0:4, m, n, k)
```

```
# 0.01428571 0.22857143 0.51428571 0.22857143 0.01428571
```

- The probability that $X = 3$ is equivalent to the probability that we get exactly 3 white marbles among 4 draws in the urn containing total 4 white marbles and 4 black marbles.
- For testing H_0 : no association between the true order and the lady's guess
versus
 H_a : there is a positive association (i.e. the lady has the discriminating skill).

Then H_a implies that X is large and

$$p\text{-value} = P(X \geq 3) = P(X = 3) + P(X = 4) = 0.243.$$

So there is no significant positive association.

Example 5.2.3 *Cross-classification of 13 states by presidential preference and region*

	<i>Bush</i>	<i>Kerry</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>West</i>	6	1	7
<i>East</i>	4	2	6
<i>Total</i>	10	3	13

Use Fisher's exact test to test H_0 : no association between region and preference versus H_a : western states prefer Bush more.

