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Journal

World Cultures, 14(2)

Author

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Publication Date

2004

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Peer reviewed

2004 *World Cultures* 14(2):179-193

A Student's Guide to Statistics for Analysis of Cross Tabulations

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Cross tabulations of qualitative data are a fundamental tool of empirical research. Their interpretation in terms of testing hypotheses requires a number of relatively simple concepts in statistical analysis that derive from probability theory. When strictly independent events having two characteristics that are independently defined are tabulated in a contingency table, the laws of probability can be used to model, from the marginal totals (rows, columns) of the table, what its cell values would be if the variables were statistically independent. The actual cell values of the frequency table can be used to measure the correlation between variables (with zero correlation corresponding to statistical independence), they can be compared to expected values under the null hypothesis of statistical independence, and they can be used to give a significance-test estimate of the probability that the departure of the observed correlation from zero (statistical independence) is simply a matter of chance. Further, when the sample of observations departs from strict independence because of observed interactions between them, the correlations between interacting neighbors measured on the same variables can be used to deflate effective sample size in obtaining accurate significance tests.

1. INTRODUCTION

The goal here is to assist students in understanding the statistics they need in doing empirical research using cross tabulations of variables that are available for analysis observational samples, notably in the social sciences. Section 2, Core Ideas of Statistics for Hypothesis Testing in Empirical research, introduces the background in probability theory for the methods discussed in Statistical Analysis of Cross Tabulations (Section 3). This section, the core of this review, provides a minimal set of basic methods needed for the analysis of nominal and ordinal data. Abbreviated treatment of the problems of Controlling for Design Effects and Galton's Problem of Autocorrelation (Section 40 and Inferential Statistics (Section 5) are followed by a Conclusion (Section 6) that summarize the relevance of basic statistics for empirical research on sample data. Some on-line calculators, references for articles on autocorrelation, and on-line statistical references are recommended for student use are provided in Section 7.

Inferential statistics includes making predictions, determining relationships (e.g., using correlation coefficients), hypothesis testing with significance tests (e.g., both for the null hypothesis and for the similarity between two predicted outcomes), making inferences (e.g., generalizing from a sample statistic to population parameters). That will be the primary concern of this discussion. Descriptive statistics includes collecting, organizing, summarizing and presenting descriptive data. I will assume that the collection, data cleaning, and organization of data into variables has been done, and that the student has access to a database through a program such as SPSS (the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences).

Further, I will assume that the student has instructions on how to use the software to create cross-tabulations of variables. Use of the SPSS crosstabs procedure may be more successful if some rough guidelines are followed:

- a. Choose as the column variable the one that has fewer categories.
- b. Do not have too many categories (e.g., >8) for either row or column variables.
- c. If there are more than 2 categories per variable, ordered categories with respect to a hypothesis are preferred over unordered categories (ordering may be done by using the recode procedure).
- d. In addition to numeric codes, include short text labels for each category if possible

2. CORE IDEAS OF STATISTICS FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING IN EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Nominal Variables and the Laws of Probability

The product law of independent events states that joint probability is the product of independent probabilities. In a toss of two coins, for example, the first and the second toss are classes with equal but independent probabilities of $\frac{1}{2}$, and the chances of two heads in a row is $\frac{1}{2} * \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$. The sample space Ω of outcomes for a single toss is $\{H, T\}$, while that for two tosses is $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$, for four ordered outcomes. Abstractly, the probability of an event E that falls into two classes C_i and C_j in a sample space Ω that occur with independent $P\Omega(C_i)$ and $P\Omega(C_j)$ is:

$$P\Omega(E | E \text{ in } C_i \text{ and } E \text{ in } C_j) = P\Omega(C_i) * P\Omega(C_j) \quad \text{Law 1}$$

A nominal variable V_i is a classification of events into m mutually exclusive and coexhaustive classes $C_{j=1,m}$, as, for example, a coin toss having $m = 2$, with $j = 1$ for heads and $j = 2$ for tails. The total probability law for mutually exclusive and coexhaustive classes of any sample space Ω is that probabilities must sum to one:

$$\sum (E | E \text{ in } P\Omega(C_j))_{j=1,m} = P(\Omega) = 1.0 \quad \text{Law 2}$$

The additive law of mutually exclusive classes is that the probability of events in two such classes is the sum of their independent probabilities:

$$P\Omega(E | E \text{ in } C_{j=1} \text{ or } C_{j=2} : \text{mutually exclusive}) = P\Omega(C_{j=1}) + P\Omega(C_{j=2}) \quad \text{Law 3}$$

The probability laws apply if the probability of each class is computed as its fraction in the sample space Ω . In so doing we treat a nominal classification as a probabilistic or random variable. The fraction, or relative frequency, of events in a class is its frequency divided by N , the size of Ω . We also have to take into account the difference between a set of ordered outcomes, such as HT or TH in a two coin toss, versus the unordered outcome of one head and one tail. To compute this probability as an unordered outcome $HT = \{HT, TH\}$, we have to use Law 3 to add the probabilities of the outcomes in an ordered sample space Ω that resolve to those in an unordered sample space Ω^* . Thus $P\Omega^*(HT) = P\Omega\{HT, TH\} = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$.

Unlike heads and tails in a coin toss, the probability of even or odd in roulette does not sum to one because casino profits derive from a sample space Ω with 37 outcomes, one of which is neither {red, black} nor {even, odd} (In the casino photo at <http://www.roulette.sh/>, the 37th slot is conveniently concealed). Here the probability $P\Omega$ (even) = $P\Omega$ (odd) = $18/37 < 1/2$ and by Law 3 $P\Omega$ (even or odd) = $18/37 + 18/37 = 36/37 < 1.0$. Adding probabilities, Law 2 is satisfied by $P(\Omega) = P\Omega$ (even or odd) or $P\Omega$ (neither even or odd) = $36/37 + 1/37 = 1.0$. Although the probability $P\Omega$ (odd) = $18/37 < 1/2$ and that of $P\Omega$ (red) = $18/37 < 1/2$, the probability of both red and odd is not the direct product of their probabilities on the space Ω of 37 outcomes. It is only the sample space Ω^* of the 36 outcomes where red and odd are independent that $P\Omega^*$ (red and odd) = $1/2 * 1/2 = 1/4 = 8/36$ by Law 3. For the space Ω of 37 outcomes, Law 2 applies so that $P\Omega$ {(red and odd} or outcome 37) = $P\Omega$ {(red and odd)} + $P\Omega$ (outcome 37) = $8/37 + 1/37 = 9/37$. Hence $P\Omega$ {(red and odd)} = $8/37 < 1/4$. Probabilities in a coin toss would be identical to those in roulette if the chances of neither heads nor tails (i.e., balancing on the edge) were $1/37$.

Application of probability theory to empirical examples requires careful assessment of what event classes are independent and in what sample space. Law 3, for example, is especially sensitive to nonindependence of units sampled where there are clustered similarities in the sample space Ω . These problems are taken up in section 4, Controlling for Design Effects and Galton's Problem of Autocorrelation. As Kruskal (1988:929) warned: "do not multiply lightly" (meaning: take care in evaluating the assumption of independence in Law 3, and make appropriate adjustments). Dow (1993), for example, has examined the adjustments required for the analysis of cross-tabulations for samples with clustered similarities.

Ordinal, Interval and Ratio Scale Variables

An ordinal variable V_i is a classification of events into mutually exclusive classes that are rank-ordered by some criterion. An interval variable V_i is a classification of events by a numeric measurement in which one unit on the scale represents the same magnitude on the trait or characteristic being measured across the whole range of the scale. Operations of addition and multiplication by constants do not change the interval property of the scale. Such transformations are made, for example, in converting Centigrade to Fahrenheit temperature: multiply °C by 1.6 and add 32 to get °F. Twenty degrees is not twice as hot, however, than ten degrees. That property is the characteristic of a ratio scale such as the Kelvin scale of temperature in which 0°K is absolute zero, and 20°K is twice the heat (measured by motion of molecules) as 20°K.

3. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF CROSS TABULATIONS

Cross Tabulations of Nominal Variables

Distinct nominal variables that categorize the characteristics of each observation in a sample of events may be tabulated in a contingency table to show the frequency of co-occurrence of the mutually exclusive characteristics of each variable, as labeled by the rows, columns, and other layers of the cross tabulation. For two variables, for example, the row sums will correspond to the frequencies of the categories of the row variable, and by Law 2 the probabilities of all occurrences in these cells sum to those in the table total.

Expected Probability

By Law 1, the *expected probability* of all occurrences in any cell of a cross tabulation of nominal variables (under the assumption of independent probabilities for each variable) is defined as the product of the probabilities of this type of event for each variable. For a simple example, we take a fair roulette table with only 36 outcomes corresponding to the numbers 1 to 36, half of which are assigned to red and half to black for each of the odd and even number series. Then $P(\text{red and odd}) = \frac{1}{4}$ corresponds to the upper right cell in the Table 1 cross tabulation of independent probabilities of outcomes of our two variables.

Table 1. Probabilities of outcomes at the roulette table with no #37

	RED	BLACK	total
ODD	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
EVEN	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
Total	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1

In $N = 36$ throws at this roulette table, the expected frequencies are those in Table 2:

Table 2. Expected Frequencies at the roulette table with no #37

	RED	BLACK	total
ODD	9	9	18
EVEN	9	9	18
Total	18	18	36

Given an empirical cross tabulation, the null hypothesis is that the variables tabulated are statistically independent, that is, there is no relation between them. The likelihood of this occurring is known as a test of statistical significance.

Expected Frequencies under the Null Hypothesis

Say, for example, an investigator surveyed 36 people whether they preferred the color red or the color blue. There were different numbers of males and females in the sample and the outcome of the survey are given in Table 3:

Table 3. Survey Results

	RED	BLUE	total
FEMALE	4	15	19
MALE	7	10	17
Total	11	25	36

Overall, blue was preferred to red. Is there a difference between the preferences of males and females? The expected frequencies $H_{r,c}$ under the null hypothesis of no difference can be computed as follows by the formula $H_{r,c} = N * P_r * P_c$ where the probabilities of row and column characteristics P_r and P_c are estimated from the relative proportions of the row and column sums, F_r and F_c in the total sample. Hence $P_r = F_r / N$ for row $r=1,2$ and $P_c = F_c / N$ for column $c=1,2$. Thus $P_{r=1}(\text{red}) = F_{r=1}(\text{red}) / N = 11/36 = 0.305555$, as in Table 4. Expected frequencies are given in Table 5.

Table 4. Survey Results with row and column probabilities calculated from frequencies

	RED	BLUE	Total F_r	P_r
FEMALE	4	15	19	0.527777
MALE	7	10	17	0.472222
Total F_c	11	25	36	
P_c (red, blue)	0.305555	0.694444		

Table 5. Expected Frequencies from independent row and column probabilities

	RED	BLUE	Total F_r	P_r
FEMALE	5.805	13.195	19	0.527777
MALE	5.195	11.805	17	0.472222
Total F_c	11	25	36	
P_c (red, blue)	0.305555	0.694444		

Chi-square Statistic for Measuring Departure from Null Hypothesis

One way to calculate the degree of difference between males and females in this survey is to compute the Chi-square statistic. Because larger differences between expected and actual frequencies are more important than smaller ones, the differences are computed and then squared in Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6. Difference between Survey Results and Expected Frequencies

Difference:	RED	BLUE	Squared Difference:	RED	BLUE
FEMALE	+1.805	-1.805		3.26	3.26
MALE	-1.805	+1.805		3.26	3.26

Table 7. Squared Differences Divided by Expected Frequencies

	RED	BLUE
FEMALE	$3.26 / 5.805 = 0.562$	$3.26 / 13.195 = 0.247$
MALE	$3.26 / 5.195 = 0.623$	$3.26 / 11.805 = 0.276$

To get a total Chi-square statistic for a table, the Chi-square values $\chi^2_{r,c}$ for individual r,c cells of the table are summed, so that $\chi^2 = \sum \chi^2_{r,c}$. In the case of Table 7, $\chi^2 = 1.71$.

Phi-square Correlation Coefficient Φ^2

The correlation coefficient $\text{phi}(\Phi)$ is computed as $\Phi^2 = \chi^2 / N$, which in the case of Table 3-7 is $\Phi^2 = 1.71 / 36 = 0.0475$. Phi square (Φ^2) is a measure of the variance accounted for in predicting one variable from the other. Is this a significant correlation? It is obviously quite low since it is close to zero, and less than 5% of the variance in responses is predicted from differences in gender.

A crucial condition for the accuracy of Phi square and Chi square in contingency table analysis is that expected frequencies under the hypothesis of independence must exceed five for each cell in the table. When this assumption is violated, chi square values do not qualify for theoretical interpretation (the inaccuracy comes from dividing by expected values), and the phi square may even exceed 1.0, which is automatically disqualified by the definition of a correlation coefficient. To satisfy this condition, the contingency table must not have row or column sums that are too small, and in general, with lower sample sizes, only those crosstabs with relatively few categories will be appropriate for these statistical tests. Fisher exact tests, however, are appropriate for uneven marginals and small sample sizes, and calculators can be found for not only 2x2 tables, but for tables having up to 2x5 cells (see <http://home.clara.next.sisa>).

Are males and females different? Consider the value that Φ^2 would take in the case of perfect correlation of $\Phi^2 = \Phi = 1.0$ that would have occurred if all males said red and all females said blue. Here if we compute Chi square we get $\chi^2 = 36.0$ and $\Phi^2 = 36/36 = 1.0$, as expected. This shows that Phi square conforms to the rule that the maximum value of a correlation coefficient is 1.0.

Phi Correlation Coefficient Φ : Assigning a Positive or Negative Sign

What if we had a negative correlation? Then we would expect a correlation coefficient to take the value of -1.0 . Since Φ^2 as calculated from χ^2 is always positive, when we compute $\Phi = \sqrt{\Phi^2}$ we have a choice of assigning a positive or negative sign to Φ since square roots of positive numbers may be positive or negative. In Table 8 the negative correlation is between female and red, male and blue, but we can also say that the positive correlation is between male and red, female and blue; i.e., depending on how we view the table.

Table 8. A Hypothetical Perfect Correlation, with $\Phi^2 = 1.0$ for the Survey Sample

	RED	BLUE	Total F_r	P_r
FEMALE	0	19	19	0.527777
MALE	17	0	17	0.472222
Total F_c	17	19	36	
P_c (red, blue)	0.47222	0.527777		

Evaluating Cross Tabulations of Nominal Variables

Care must be taken in giving a sign to Φ because Φ^2 in general is a measure of predictability between nominal variables. If our respondents fell into three sets, as in Table 9, we might have difficulty assigning a sign to Φ because, while the relationship between age and color preference is perfectly predictive ($\Phi^2 = 1.0$), there is no sense of a positive or negative correlation with age in Table 9 since the relationship to color preference is curvilinear.

Table 9. A Hypothetical Perfect Correlation, with $\Phi^2 = 1.0$ for the Survey Sample

	RED	BLUE	Total F_r	P_r
15-25 year olds	0	12	12	0.333333
26-40 year olds	12	0	12	0.333333
41-60 year olds	0	12	12	0.333333
Total F_c	12	24	36	
P_c (red, blue)	0.333333	0.666667		

Cross Tabulations of Ordinal Variables

If, however, the sample of responses had looked like that of Table 10, we could assign the Φ coefficient a negative sign, $\Phi = -1.0$ between age and preference for blue. Equivalently, we could say that $\Phi = 1.0$ between age and preference for red. The three categories of age in this table constitute an ordinal variable because they are rank ordered by the criterion of age. In this context, if the proportions of red :: blue in successive rows and those of young :: middle age :: elderly in successive columns are monotonically increasing or decreasing in every case, Phi can be given a sign and interpreted as an ordinal correlation.

Table 10. A Hypothetical Perfect Correlation, with $\Phi^2 = 1.0$ for a Different Survey Sample

	RED	BLUE	Total F_r	P_r
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CROSS TABULATIONS / White				
15-25 year olds	0	12	12	0.333333
26-40 year olds	12	0	12	0.333333
41-60 year olds	12	0	12	0.333333
Total F _c	24	12	36	
P _c (red, blue)	0.666667	0.333333		

In general, the sign of correlations between dichotomous or ordinal variables are an indication of which diagonal in the cross tabulation has the greatest concentration of scores. For 2x2 tables where a, b, c, and d represent the frequencies in the four cells, Phi also may be calculated directly with the formula:

$$\phi = \frac{a * d - b * c}{\sqrt{(a + b) * (c + d) * (a + c) * (b + d)}} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

2x2 Cross Tabulations of Ordinal Variables with a Sign for Φ

Every cross tabulation involving two dichotomous variables, as in Table 3, is by default an ordinal table, since a dichotomy is a binary order. Hence, it is always possible to assign a positive or negative correlation coefficient to Φ in this case. Φ^2 remains a measure of variance accounted for and is equivalent in this case to Pearson's r^2 that has the same interpretation of variance accounted for.

Kendall's Tau-b coefficient is a measure of association for ordinal or ranked variables that takes ties into account and is based on the number of inversions in the rankings. Like other correlations, the sign of the coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship, and possible values range from -1.0 to +1.0, while its absolute value indicates the strength of the association, with larger absolute values indicating stronger relationships (see SPSS: help, Index, Kendall's tau-b). Tau-b is equivalent to Phi and Pearson's r for 2x2 tables, so that Tau-b squared is a measure of the variance explained, and in each case a value of -1.0 or +1.0 can be obtained only from square tables. For crosstabs larger than 2x2, Tau-b outperforms Pearson's r when there is extreme nonnormality in the data.

Fisher Exact Significance Test for 2x2 Cross Tabulations

The 2x2 cross tabulation in Table 3, as we have seen, has $\Phi^2 = 0.0475$, which corresponds to a Φ of -0.218 (the negative sign is because as we move from the first to the second row the excess of actual over expected frequencies that exceed changes from the second to the first column, i.e., a negative correlation). If we consider the row and column totals of this table as fixed, a probabilistic sampling space for this table may be constructed by considering all possible distributions of the 36 cases that have combinations of {red, blue} by "female, male} that conform to these fixed marginals. Each distribution D_i can be indexed from $i = 0$ to m , where m is the minimum of all the row and column sums, in this case 11. In the present case, i could be used to index the frequency in the {female, red} cell, which determines the frequency in every other cell in the table. Table 8 would correspond to the case where $i = 0$,

and to the last table in Table 11 (next page), which shows only those tables indexed to $i = 0,3$, that represent a more extreme distribution than that in Table 3.

Given this indexing system for the sampling space from which the actual distribution may be drawn with fixed independent probabilities of the variables tabulated, the probability of each specific distribution D_i for $i = 0$ to m can be computed exactly by a permutational formula called the Fisher Exact test. Here the product of successive integers from 1 to N ($N!$ or N factorial) defines the size of the total sample space of all possible cell values of 2×2 tables with $N = 36$. Subsamples that meet the four marginal constraints for cells $F_{rc}!F_{\sim rc}!F_{r\sim c}!F_{\sim r\sim c}!$ and marginals $F_{r.}!F_{\sim r.}!F_{.c}!F_{.\sim c}!$ are defined by the expression (M choose m) that refers to the number of ways there are to draw m elements in a cell given the marginal total of size M . Then the probability P_{rc} of the value in a cell with F_{rc} elements is:

$$P_{rc} = (F_{r.} \text{ choose } F_{rc})(F_{\sim r.} \text{ choose } F_{\sim rc})(F_{.c} \text{ choose } F_{r\sim c})(F_{.\sim c} \text{ choose } F_{\sim r\sim c}) / N! \\ = (F_{r.}!F_{\sim r.}!F_{.c}!F_{.\sim c}) / N!F_{rc}!F_{\sim rc}!F_{r\sim c}!F_{\sim r\sim c}!$$

Equation 2

Table 11. Possible tables from the probabilistic sampling space of Table 3, but which are more extreme (higher negative correlation) than Table 3.

$i = 3$	RED	BLUE	total
FEMALE	3	16	19
MALE	8	9	17
Total	11	25	36

$i = 2$	RED	BLUE	total
FEMALE	2	17	19
MALE	9	8	17
Total	11	25	36

$i = 1$	RED	BLUE	total
FEMALE	1	18	19
MALE	10	7	17
Total	11	25	36

$i = 0$	RED	BLUE	total
FEMALE	0	19	19
MALE	11	6	17
Total	11	25	36

Starting with the observed table, Table 3, and continuing through the tables with more extreme departure from randomness but the same marginal totals (those in Table 11), P values for five distinctive tables are computed, indexed on the {red, female} cell frequency $i = 0$ to m :

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{rc} &= 19!17!11!25! / 36!4!15!7!10! = 0.12547 && \text{[Table 3]} \\
 &= 19!17!11!25! / 36!3!16!8!9! = 0.03921 && \text{[Table 11.1]} \\
 &= 19!17!11!25! / 36!2!17!9!8! = 0.00692 && \text{[Table 11.2]} \\
 &= 19!17!11!25! / 36!1!18!10!7! = 0.00062 && \text{[Table 11.3]} \\
 &= 19!17!11!25! / 36!0!19!11!6! = 0.00002 && \text{[Table 11.4]} \\
 &\text{These sum to:} && 0.17224
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $p = 0.17224$ is the exact probability for the occurrence of Table 3 or more extreme distributions with the same marginals.

Degrees of Freedom

The degrees of freedom, df , of a crosstab are the number of cells that must be filled before all the cell values are determined by the marginal (row, column) totals. In a 2×2 table there is one degree of freedom. If R is the number of rows and C is the number of columns:

$$df = (R - 1) * (C - 1) \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

Significance Tests: The Chi-square Approximation

Significance in a statistical sense is the probability that the observed χ^2 and Φ^2 values would occur, given the N of the table, if the probabilities of the two nominal variables were independent. For a 2×2 cross tabulation, Fishers Exact test is the most direct, accurate and powerful way to calculate this. Significance tests indicate whether it is worthwhile to interpret a contingency table. A significant result means that the cells of a contingency table should be interpreted. A non-significant test means that no effects were discovered and chance could explain the observed differences in the cells. In this case, an interpretation of the cell frequencies is not useful. Standard cut-offs considered significant are $p \leq 0.05$ and $p \leq 0.01$, which mean there are respectively fewer than five or one chances in 100 that the observed correlation is due to chance.

Chi-square can be used to give a conservative approximation of the level of significance as calculated by the Fisher Exact Test, or, in the more general case of tables with more than two rows and columns, a conservative approximation of the level of significance. Since the shape of the theoretical distribution relating Chi-square values to probabilities changes from a monotonically decreasing function at one degree of freedom towards a more normal (or Gaussian) curve as degrees of freedom increase, there are lookup tables and calculators to make the conversion. The calculator at <http://www.stat.sc.edu/webstat/> gives the corresponding probability of $p = 0.19$ for the Chi-square value in Table 3 ($df = 1$), which is close to, but less sensitive than, the exact probability ($p = 0.17$) from Fisher's Exact test.

4. CONTROLLING FOR DESIGN EFFECTS AND GALTON'S PROBLEM OF AUTOCORRELATION

Chi-square and Fisher Exact Tests err in rejecting the null hypothesis too often when data have been generated using a sampling scheme that does not ensure complete independence of sampling units (see Dow, Burton and White 1982; Dow et al. 1984; Dow 1993; Ferguson, Genest and Hallin 2000). The units sampled are not independent, for example, when subsets of given numbers of related observations in a sample – related by spatial adjacency or networks of interaction – are more similar than comparable subsets drawn at random. Analytical, empirical and simulation studies of this problem show that the effectively independent size of a sample is not the original N , but typically varies between N and $N/2$ depending on the degree of nonindependence, with the design effect (DE) of nonindependence varying accordingly from $DE = 1$ for a simple random sample of independent cases to not much more than $DE = 2$ (the fractional divisor) for a sample with highly nonindependent clusters. My current rule of thumb for adjusting the significance of a Φ^2_{12} Phi-square correlation between two variables is to let $DE = 1 + \Phi^2_{11} + \Phi^2_{22} + \Phi_{11} \Phi_{22}$, where Φ^2_{11} and Φ^2_{22} are the Φ^2 variance autocorrelations between neighbors for each of the variables (1 and 2), and $\Phi_{11} \Phi_{22}$ is their product. Some samples, however, have much higher design effects.

5. PROBLEMS OF INFERENCE

From Sample Statistics to Population Parameters

If observations are sampled randomly from a population, or one or more observations are sampled randomly from local clusters of cases known to interact, inferences can be drawn from correlations in the sample as to correlations in the population. Typically, sample estimates of correlations are unbiased estimates of population correlations, regardless of the degree of nonindependence of cases, which usually requires deflation of effective sample sizes in computing significance levels and thus lowering the rejection rate of the null hypotheses. In exceptional cases, however, Φ_{11} and Φ_{22} autocorrelations and interactions among sample units bias the estimation of population correlations and the estimation of correlations based on samples of strictly independent cases in the population, which are slightly different problems of inferential statistics. In any case, potential sources of bias – such as observer bias, measurement bias, selection bias, mortality bias, and possible autocorrelation bias (like the effects of negative Φ_{11} and positive Φ_{22} autocorrelations) – require examination in their own right as safeguards to valid inferences from contingency tables.

Naive Cross Tabulation Tests and the Problem of Specification

Statistically significant correlations, even with corrections for autocorrelation, are not indices of causal relationships among variables. The model specification problem is one of choosing the best fit among alternative models, which implies that all variables relevant to

the problem have been considered. It is not really possible to tell when a model is correctly specified, except to say that with a sufficient number of observations, a correctly specified model should give the same results when other unspecified variables are entered into the prediction. A clue to misspecification in predicting outcome variables from a set of independent variables, for example in multiple regression models where variables and error terms in fitting models are continuous, is that the error terms are not randomly distributed.

Software programs for statistical analysis with cross tabulation allow multiple layers to be added to cross tabulations (SPSS, for example, has a place for additional layer variables beyond row and column using the 'next' command to add subsequent layers). With cross tabulation, the addition of control variables makes it possible to study higher order interactions among three or more variables (given a sufficient number of observations) and to test for misspecification by adding a control variable to determine whether lower order interactions are altered by the presence or absence of the control. Misspecification occurs when the control variable makes a significant difference, which implies that the lower order relationship among variables is unstable. In this context, it is meaningful to discuss the specification problem with respect to two types of error in testing the null hypothesis:

Type I error is rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true
Type II error is accepting the null hypothesis when it is false.

The correlation between postmarital residence of husband and wife and female contribution to subsistence labor (hunting, gathering, fishing, animal husbandry and agriculture), for example, is so close to zero even for large samples of societies (e.g., $N = 1280$) as to be non-significant. Korotayev (2000) ran a multiple regression analysis of General Non-Sororal Polygyny and Female Contribution to Subsistence as predictors of Marital Residence that showed a negative regression coefficient for the former independent variable ($\beta = -0.34$, $p < 0.001$) and a positive coefficient for the latter ($\beta = +0.10$, $p = 0.02$) in the same sample with $N = 1280$ (including missing cases) and with nearly identical results in a smaller sample ($N = 186$) with lesser clustering of similar cases. Thus, the zero correlation relationship between residence and division of labor is misspecified without inclusion of whether non-sororal polygyny is present (in which case the correlation is zero) or absent, in which case the correlation between matridominant labor and matrilocality is positive (and similarly for patridominant labor and patrilocality).

For the larger sample analyzed by Korotayev, a recoding and cross tabulation of variables similar to his (Table 12, next page) shows that when non-sororal polygyny is absent $\Phi = 0.165$ ($p = 0.020$) and $\tau\text{-}b = 0.11$ ($p = 0.012$), supporting his result. If the middle category of residence is removed, where the bride does not move to live with the husband's group nor the reverse, then $\Phi = 0.159$ ($p = 0.011$) and $\tau\text{-}b = 0.135$ ($p = 0.009$), a somewhat stronger result. However, when a further layer is added to control for region, only the indigenous societies of North America show a significant positive $\tau\text{-}b$ (0.153 , $p = 0.042$). Hence, the three-way interaction between these variables may still be underspecified. That is, other, as yet unspecified, variables may also intervene in the relationship between division of labor and residential pattern.

6. CONCLUSION

When strictly independent events having two characteristics that are independently defined are tabulated in a contingency table, the laws of probability can be used to model, from the marginal totals (rows, columns) of the table, what its cell values would be if the variables were statistically independent. The actual cell values of the frequency table can be used to measure the correlation between the variables (with a correlation of zero corresponding to statistical independence), they can be compared to expected values under the null hypothesis of statistical independence, and they can be used to give a significance-test estimate of the probability that the departure of the observed correlation from zero (statistical independence) is simply a matter of chance. Further, when the sample of observations departs from strict independence because of observed interactions between them, the correlations between interacting neighbors measured on the same variables can be used to deflate effective sample size to obtain accurate significance tests.

Table 12. Influence of a Third Variable on Two-Way Cross Tabulation Results

Polygyny	Division of Labor	Residence Rule			Total
Monogamy or sororal polygyny	Male Dominant	104 64.6%	31 19.3%	26 16.1%	161 100.0%
	Balanced	102 66.7%	21 13.7%	30 19.6%	153 100.0%
	Female Dominant	58 49.6%	25 21.4%	34 29.1%	117 100.0%
TOTAL		264 61.3%	77 17.9%	90 20.9%	431 100.0%
Non-Sororal polygyny	Male Dominant	37 88.1%	2 4.8%	3 7.1%	42 100.0%
	Balanced	56 86.2%	4 6.2%	5 7.7%	65 100.0%
	Female Dominant	75 88.2%	6 7.1%	4 4.7%	85 100.0%
TOTAL		168 87.5%	12 6.3%	12 6.3%	192 100.0%

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Acknowledgement

My thanks to Andrey Korotayev and Patrick Gray for helpful commentary on earlier drafts.

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World Cultures CD Data Disk

The CD with this issue of *World Cultures* contains the following files in the different directories. In addition, with this issue of WC we begin a new feature where we include the Program and Abstracts of the Annual Meetings of the Society for Cross-Cultural Research.

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\\Std Cross-Cultural Sample Manuals

This subdirectory contains the codebooks for the 2,000 variables in the SCCS and the ethnographic references for the 186 societies in the sample.

\\Std Cross-Cultural Sample SPSS Data Files

This subdirectory contains all the variables (approx. 2,000) published for the *Standard Cross-Cultural Sample* with codebooks (186 societies). Data file is in SPSS *.sav format.

\\Western North American Indians Data Set

This subdirectory contains all the variables (approx. 441) for the 172 North American Indian societies compiled by Dr. Harold Driver. Data file is in SPSS *.sav format.

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