



# 412<sup>th</sup> Test Wing



*War-Winning Capabilities ... On Time, On Cost*



**U.S. AIR FORCE**

## **Ridit Analysis for Borg-Scale & Cooper-Harper Ratings: A Distance-Based Approach for Small Samples**

**Arnon Hurwitz, PhD.**

STATISTICAL METHODS OFFICE

EDWARDS AFB, EDWARDS, CA

[arnon.hurwitz@us.af.mil](mailto:arnon.hurwitz@us.af.mil)

661-527-4809

**Approved for public release; distribution is  
unlimited.**

**412TW-PA-16437**

*Integrity - Service - Excellence*



# Overview



- Redit method/example – Course Rating by Students
  - Basic Method & Notation
- Redit example – Borg Scores for Fatigue Levels
  - Means & Confidence Intervals using standard method
  - Distribution comparisons using a distance-based method
  - Confidence Intervals using randomization



# Ridit Analysis



- Consider a simple example: 27 students are asked to answer 'Course was good?' from #1 (Strongly Disagree) to #5 (Strongly Agree)

This year's scores

Last year's scores

This year's proportions

Last year's proportions

<i>Preference</i>	#	Comparison	Reference	ridits ( <i>r</i> )	<i>p</i>	<i>q</i>	<i>rp</i>	<i>rq</i>
Strongly Disagree	1	5	3	0.056	0.185	0.111	0.010	0.006
Disagree	2	8	6	0.222	0.296	0.222	0.066	0.049
Neither A. nor D.	3	6	6	0.444	0.222	0.222	0.099	0.099
Agree	4	2	4	0.630	0.074	0.148	0.047	0.093
Strongly Agree	5	6	8	0.852	0.222	0.296	0.189	0.252
SUM		27	27				0.411	0.500

Bad



Good



# Ridit Analysis – (continued)



Preference	#	Comparison	Reference	ridits (r)	p	q	rp	rq
Strongly Disagree	1	5	3	0.056	0.185	0.111	0.010	0.006
Disagree	2	8	6	0.222	0.296	0.222	0.066	0.049
Neither A. nor D.	3	6	6	0.444	0.222	0.222	0.099	0.099
Agree	4	2	4	0.630	0.074	0.148	0.047	0.093
Strongly Agree	5	6	8	0.852	0.222	0.296	0.189	0.252
SUM		27	27				0.411	0.500

- Proportions **p** and **q** (i.e. estimated probabilities) are computed from the data. E.g.  $0.185 = 5/27$ , etc.
- A population (Last year's) is set as the 'Reference'
- The *k*-th ridit of the Ref. population is defined as:

$$r_k = \begin{cases} \frac{q_1}{2} & \text{for } k = 1, \\ q_1 + \dots + q_{k-1} + \frac{1}{2}q_k & \text{for } k > 1 \end{cases}$$



# Ridit Analysis



<i>Preference</i>	#	Comparison	Reference	ridits (r)	p	q	rp	rq
Strongly Disagree	1	5	3	0.056	0.185	0.111	0.010	0.006
Disagree	2	8	6	0.222	0.296	0.222	0.066	0.049
Neither A. nor D.	3	6	6	0.444	0.222	0.222	0.099	0.099
Agree	4	2	4	0.630	0.074	0.148	0.047	0.093
Strongly Agree	5	6	8	0.852	0.222	0.296	0.189	0.252
<b>SUM</b>		<b>27</b>	<b>27</b>				<b>0.411</b>	<b>0.500</b>

To the left ↑  
To the rt. ↓

- Form columns **rp** and **rq**, and sum ( $\Sigma$ ) each one
- $\Sigma \text{rp} = 0.411$  is the probability that the **Reference** pop. will be 'to the left' of the Comparison pop.
  - If the p's are 'bunched' to the right versus the q's, then  $\Sigma \text{rq} < \Sigma \text{rp}$
  - that is, high  $\Sigma \text{rp} \Rightarrow$  **Reference** pop. (q's) is bunched 'to the left' of p's
  - that is, high  $\Sigma \text{rp} \Rightarrow$  **Reference** pop. (last year) was **worse** than this year
- Our HYPOTHESIS is that  $\Sigma \text{rp} \geq 0.5$  What does this mean?
  - If true, then last year's (**Reference**) scores are **worse** than this year's
  - However, it's obvious that  $\Sigma \text{rp} = 0.411 \leq 0.5$  - So was last year better?
  - Can only say this if experimental error = 0  $\rightarrow$  We need a statistical test!



# Ridit Analysis – Hypothesis Test



- ‘Experimental error’ means that, if the underlying situation stays the same, but we draw a new sample, the numbers (p’s and q’s) we see will be somewhat different. So conclusions might change
- To test  $H_0: \sum rp \geq \sum rq = 0.5$ , form  $z = (\sum rp - 0.5) / \sqrt{\left[\frac{1}{12m} + \frac{1}{12n} + \frac{1}{12mn}\right]}$
- For large samples, z is a Normal variate. However, in many tests we deal with small samples, so we shall rather use a t-distribution approximation, and with:  
 $m = n = 27$ . So  $t = (0.411 - 0.5) / \sqrt{0.0063} = -1.12$ , with d.f. =  $m+n-2 = 52$
- Left-tail, critical t (at 95% confidence, d.f.=52) = -1.675, so do not reject  $H_0$   
→ We cannot say that this year’s scores are any better than last year’s
- NOTE: We can also test  $H_0: \sum rp = \sum rq$  in the usual way
- NOTE: If we had another distribution (e.g. p-scores from another school,  $p^0$ ), we could test  $H_0: \sum rp \geq \sum rp^0$  using  $q$  as ref., and  $\text{var} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{1}{12m} + \frac{1}{12n}\right]}$



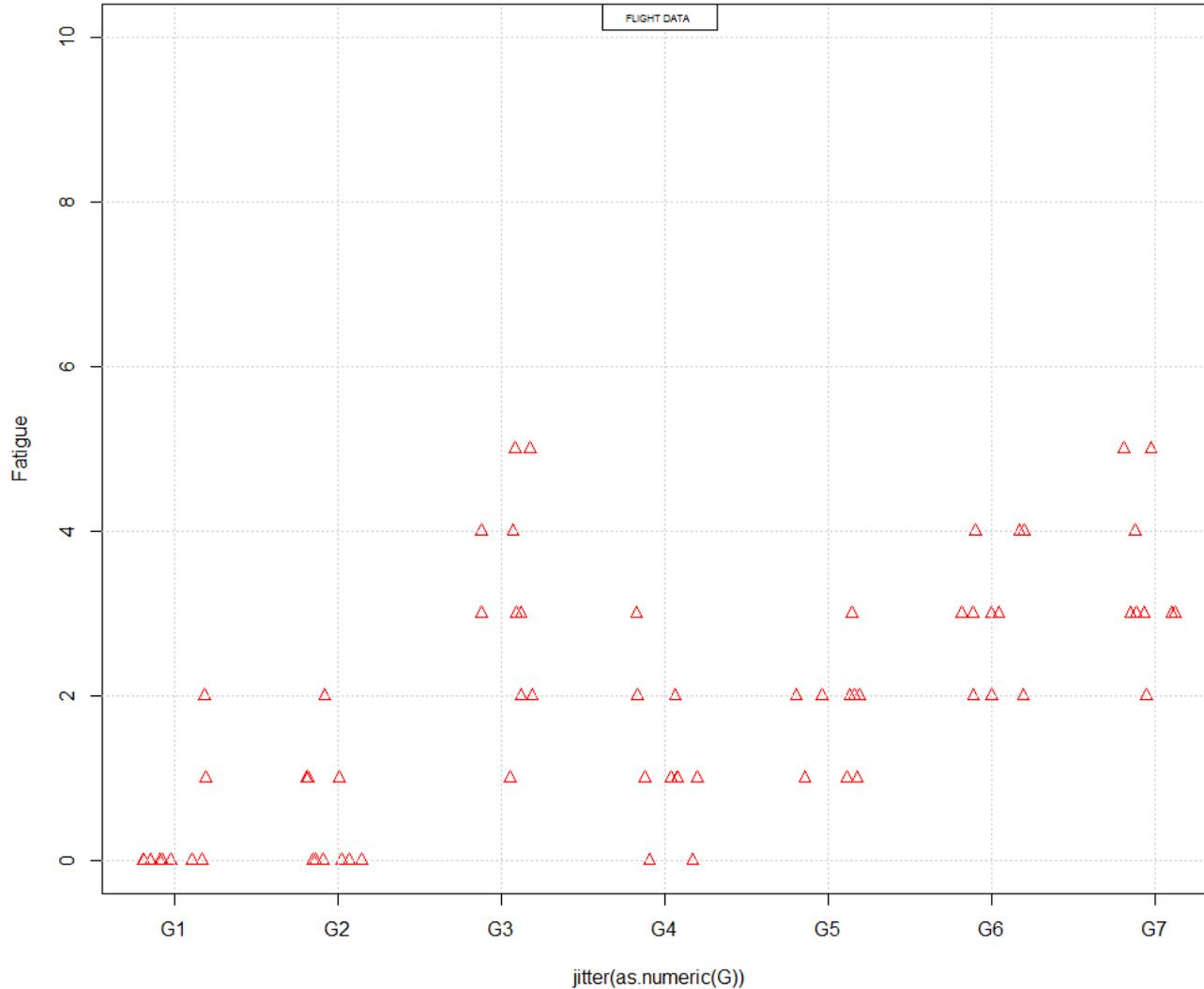
# Borg-scale Fatigue Levels vs. G



- The Borg Scale measures physiological exertion and is given over a range of 6 through 20, with 6 being 'No exertion at all'
- Five pilots flew several repeat sorties at different G levels and recorded 'Fatigue' on a modified Borg scale of 0 through 10 – (very similar to a Cooper-Harper scale)
- The G levels were: G1, G2, ... ,G6, G7 with G1 slightly above ground-level zero G as a 'baseline,' and G6 and G7 being repeated maneuvers at 8G and 9G respectively
- Is Fatigue at higher G levels significantly greater than Fatigue at G1 ? No observed Fatigue rating was > 5



# Adjusted Borg scores for 'Fatigue' vs. increasing G levels





# Adjusted Borg scores given by pilots flying at increasing G levels



Score	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	Reference
0	8	6	0	2	0	0	0	8
1	1	3	1	5	3	0	0	1
2	1	1	2	2	6	3	1	1
3	0	0	3	1	1	4	6	0
4	0	0	2	0	0	3	1	0
5	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0
SUM	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10



# Ridit Analysis of the Borg scores

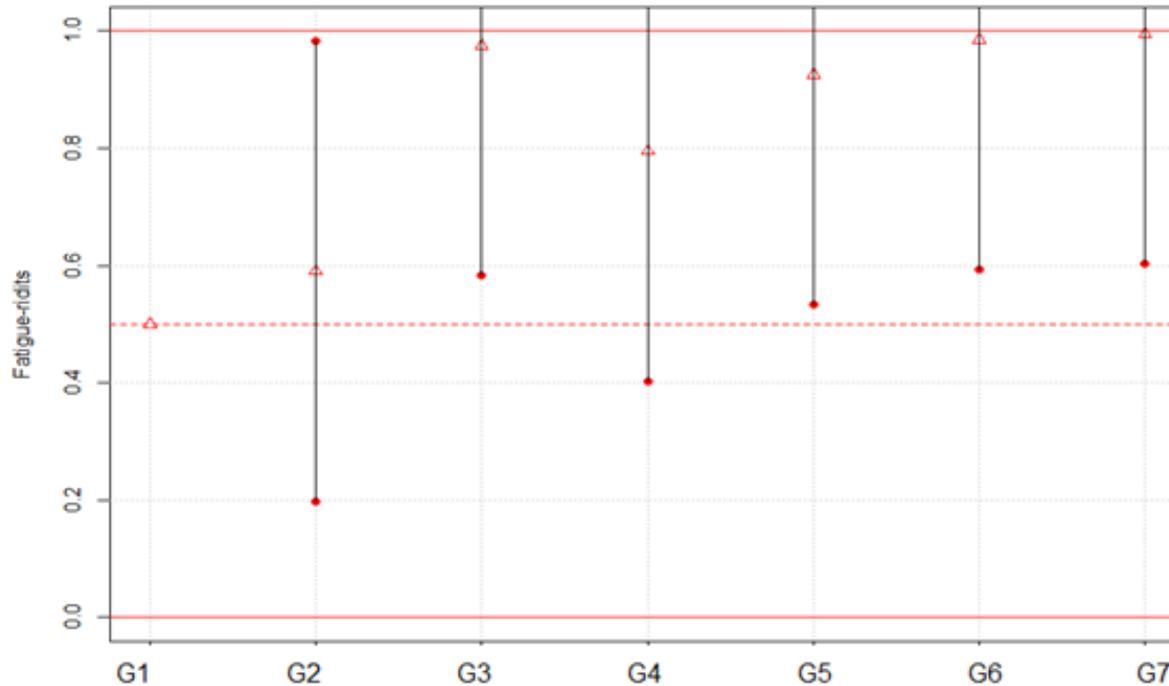


	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7
ridit value	0.500	0.590	0.975	0.795	0.925	0.985	0.995
probabiliity	0.500	0.252	0.001	0.019	0.002	0.001	0.000

- **Ridits for the Borg Fatigue scores vs. increasing G levels, and the probability that each value is less than the G1 reference level (by Bonferroni-adjusted t-value)**



# Ridit Plot + Confidence Intervals



- Plot of mean ridits and their 95% Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals for the Borg Fatigue scores vs. G
- Problem: Several CI's show overlap of (0, 1).
  - This implies that our distribution theory is only approximate



# COMPARING TWO DISTRIBUTIONS



- In OCD analysis, we really want to test if two score distributions—for example, G1 and G7 scores—differ
- Consider how we'd compare two distributions that we've turned into probabilities, like:  $G1 \rightarrow \{p_i\}$ ,  $G7 \rightarrow \{q_i\}$
- A 'distance' measure is  $H^2 = 1 - \sum \sqrt{p_i q_i}$
- $H^2$  is called the 'Squared Hellinger Distance', and is 1 if the  $\{p_i\}, \{q_i\}$ , do not overlap, and in  $[0, 1)$  if they do. This seems OK as a 'distance', but there's a problem: In the table below, Gx vs Gy has  $H^2 = 1$ , which we'd expect, but so do Gx and Gz

Score	i	Gx	Gy	Gz
0	1	8	0	0
1	2	0	0	8
2	3	2	0	0
3	4	0	1	2
4	5	0	5	0
5	6	0	4	0



# FITTING BETA DISTRIBUTIONS



- A solution to this problem is to fit continuous distributions to the observed discrete probability data.
- A flexible distribution to fit, in the case of a discrete distribution lying in  $[0, 1]$ , is the Beta( $\alpha, \beta$ ) distribution
- For any given discrete probability distribution, we need an estimate of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . These are given by the 'Method of Moments' formulas:

$$\hat{\alpha} = \bar{x} \left( \frac{\bar{x}(1-\bar{x})}{\bar{v}} - 1 \right), \text{ if } \bar{v} < \bar{x}(1 - \bar{x}), \quad \bar{x} \text{ is a mean}$$

$$\hat{\beta} = (1 - \bar{x}) \left( \frac{\bar{x}(1-\bar{x})}{\bar{v}} - 1 \right), \text{ if } \bar{v} < \bar{x}(1 - \bar{x}), \quad \bar{v} \text{ a variance}$$

$$\bar{x} = \sum r_i p_i \text{ for each distribution, } \bar{v} = \sum p_i (r_i - \bar{x})^2 .$$



# A Common Domain is Required

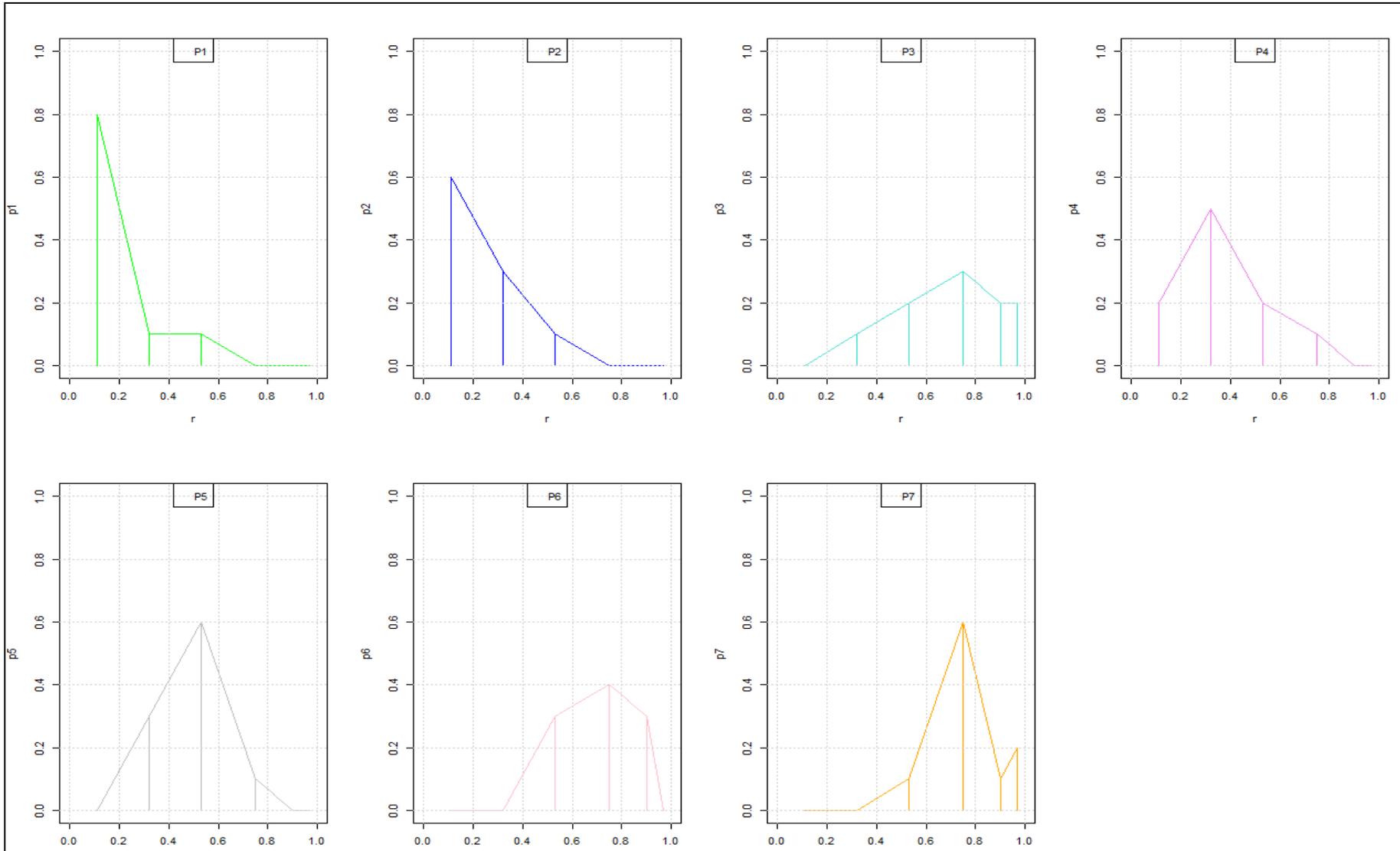


- Hellinger's Distance requires that the distributions we are comparing be defined over a common domain
- Our reference-derived ridits will serve as the domain over [0,1] but, using G1 as the ref. basis, pushes us to the left
- A solution is to use the row sums of G1...G7 as reference:
- This spreads the domain out better, and gives new means

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	
Score	p1*r	p2*r	p3*r	p4*r	p5*r	p6*r	p7*r	r
0	0.091	0.069	0.000	0.023	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.114
1	0.032	0.096	0.032	0.161	0.096	0.000	0.000	0.321
2	0.053	0.053	0.106	0.106	0.317	0.159	0.053	0.529
3	0.000	0.000	0.225	0.075	0.075	0.300	0.450	0.750
4	0.000	0.000	0.180	0.000	0.000	0.270	0.090	0.900
5	0.000	0.000	0.194	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.194	0.971
Mean Ridits=SUM	0.176	0.218	0.737	0.364	0.489	0.729	0.787	



# Observed Probability ~'s for G1...G7

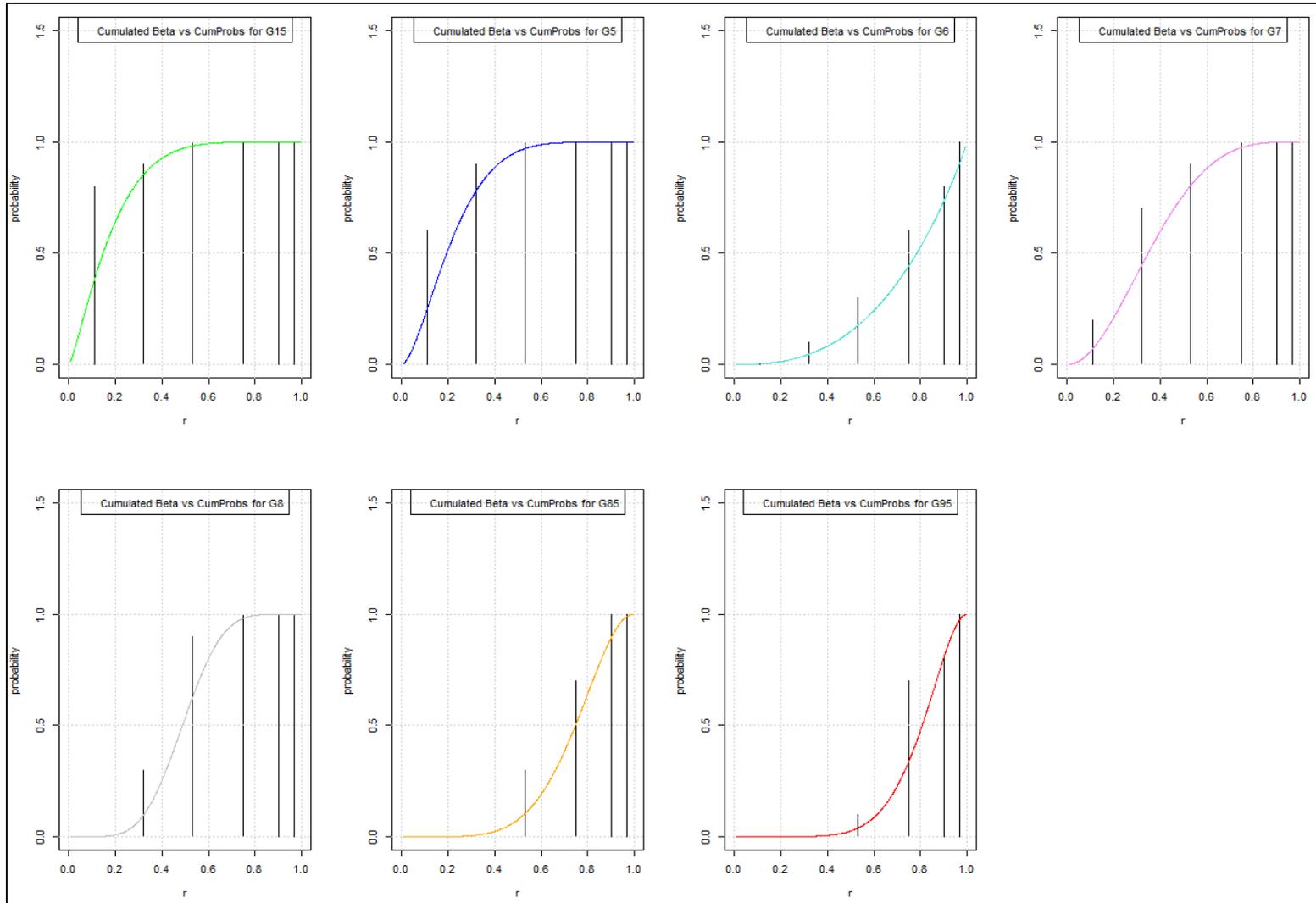




# Fitted Beta ~'s for G1...G7



412TW





# The $H^2$ Distances Computed



- Hellinger distances for the continuous Beta distributions can now be computed (B is the beta-function) as:

$$H^2 = 1 - \frac{B\left(\frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}, \frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{2}\right)}{\sqrt{B(\alpha_1, \beta_1)B(\alpha_2, \beta_2)}}$$

- Applying the above formulas, obtain  $\{\alpha, \beta\}$  for all seven distributions and their  $H^2$  distances from G1:

	G1.5	G5	G6	G7	G8	G85	G95
variance	0.018	0.019	0.042	0.034	0.016	0.021	0.016
mean(1-mean)	0.145	0.170	0.194	0.232	0.250	0.198	0.168
alpha	1.281	1.705	2.638	2.139	7.059	6.132	7.678
beta	5.979	6.120	0.941	3.734	7.389	2.285	2.076



# Use $H^2$ to test distribution differences



- Now we have the distance from G1 (as a reference) to all the other six distributions, we can use the  $H^2$ 's to run randomization tests to find the probability that a null hypothesis of the type  $H_0: G1=G2$  is false:
  - Given:  $H^2(G1, G2) = 0.016$
  - Take a random sample of size  $n=10$  from G1, and another from G1 again. Compute  $H^2$  between these two samples. Do this 10,000 times
  - Compute  $\{\text{number of times } H^2 \geq 0.016\} / 10000$ . This is the estimated probability  $P$  that  $H^2 = 0.016$  will occur given  $H_0$  is true
  - $P = 0.789$ , so  $H_0$  is likely to be true. All prob.'s shown below:

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7
H2	0.000	0.016	0.648	0.164	0.497	0.773	0.855
Prob.	1.000	0.789	0.000	0.067	0.000	0.000	0.000



# Use *Beta* $\sim$ 's for confidence intervals on differences between means



1. Draw two samples, each size  $n=10$ , at random from each of two Beta distributions
2. Compute the difference between the means.
3. Do 1 & 2 10,000 times
4. Compute  $100(1-\alpha/(2K))$  C.I. quantiles based on proportions where  $K$ =number of comparisons we will make (and gives the Bonferroni correction for a 95% overall confidence level;  $K=6$ ; upper / lower quantile = 99.6% / 0.42%).

This method, comparing G1's ridit mean to all other means, gives C.I.'s: So G3, ...,G7 are all  $\neq$  G1: The probability that their OCD distributions are different to G1 is confirmed. (G4 is 'borderline').

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7
upper (99.6%)	0.159	0.200	0.745	0.376	0.457	0.701	0.753
mean difference	0.000	0.042	0.561	0.188	0.311	0.551	0.612
lower (0.42%)	-0.155	-0.117	0.343	0.001	0.147	0.380	0.451



# Summary & Conclusions



- It is important to use ridsits, or some other nonparametric method, when comparing different flight-test situations with ordinal categorical data (OCD) ratings such as Cooper-Harper, or the Borg scale
- RIDIT ANALYSIS is recommended as a simple technique to replace the incorrect use of ordinal categorical data as ratio-scale numbers.
- We have demonstrated the use of ridit analysis in its standard form, and examined it for the case of student scores and Borg-scale ratings
- We have shown that ridit analysis applies to these cases, and that a new method –using fitted Beta distributions, a Distance-based method, along with randomization trials produce comparisons of mean values, and C.I.'s, that give valid probability results.



# References



1. Agresti, A. (1984). Analysis of Ordinal Categorical Data. New York: Wiley & Sons
2. Beder and Heim (1990). On the use of Ridit Analysis. *Psychometrika*, vol. 55, No. 4. 603-616.
3. Borg, G. (1970). Perceived exertion as an indicator of somatic stress. *Scandinavian journal of rehabilitation medicine* 2 (2): 92–98.
4. Box, G.E.P., Hunter, W.G., and Hunter, J.S. (1978). Statistics for Experimenters. Wiley, New York.
5. Bross, I.D.J. (1958). How to use ridit analysis. *Biometrics*, 14. 18-38.
6. Cooper, G. and Harper, R. (1969). The use of pilot rating in the evaluation of aircraft handling qualities. Technical Report TN D-5153, NASA
7. Croushore, D. & Schmidt, R.M. (2010). Ridit analysis of student score evaluations. Robins School of Business, Univ. of Richmond, VA 23173 (USA).
8. R Core Team. (2013). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL <http://www.R-project.org>.
9. Selvin, S. (1977). A further note on the interpretation of ridit analysis. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 105. 16-20.
10. Selvin, S. (2004) *Statistical Analysis of Epidemiologic Data*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. OUP. 176-177
11. Wikipedia, 2014. Cooper-Harper. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cooper-Harper>
12. Wilson, D.J. & Riley, D.R. (1989). Cooper-Harper Pilot Rating Variability. American Institute of Aeronautics & Astronautics. (© McDonnell Douglas Aircraft Corp., St. Louis, MO 63166)
13. Wilson, D.J. & Riley, D.R. (1990). More on Cooper-Harper Pilot Rating Variability. American Institute of Aeronautics & Astronautics. (© McDonnell Douglas Aircraft Corp., St. Louis, MO)
14. Wu, C. (2007). On the application of Grey relational analysis and Ridit analysis to Likert Scale surveys. *International Mathematical Forum*, 2, No. 14. 675-687.