Today's topics:

- Some basic statistics concepts
- Research articles results

Background:

- Kaplan (2016), Appendix
- Treiman, Kessler, & Bick (2002)

Th Sept 26

0. Today's key points

- Descriptive vs. inferential statistics
- Some key descriptive statistics
 - Mean, standard deviation, correlation
- About "correlation is not causation"
- Inferential statistics, probability, and coincidence
 - Null hypothesis, *p* value
- Applying these concepts to Treiman et al. (2002)

• How many Avengers movies have the members of this class seen? (*N*=23)

0 30 34 34 26 7 10 6 15 5 1 7 28 3 31 5 25 5 7 0 28 27 30

• What are some ways we can communicate this data more effectively?

- Report the mean: 15.82
 the median: 10
- Create a data graphic:



These are ways of summarizing the data collected

Descriptive statistics

- Purpose: To **summarize** the data we have collected
- Commonly encountered:
 - Mean
 - Standard deviation
 - Correlation

Inferential statistics

 Purpose: To determine whether we can make predictions or generalizations beyond the data we have collected

Mean

• What is the mean of these values?

4 4 2 4 16

- How did you calculate this?

• What is the **concept** behind the mean?

Mean

- What is the **concept** behind the mean?
 - The amount each item would contribute to the total if **all contributions were equal**

Mean

- How is the mean (potentially) useful for:
 - **Describing** a data set?

- Making **predictions**?

Mean

- How is the mean (potentially) useful for:
 - **Describing** a data set?
 - Describes a central tendency of the data set
 - Making **predictions**?
 - *Might* give "**expected value**" for future cases
 - *Whether* this is a legitimate prediction to make can be **tested** with **inferential statistics**

Mean

• What are some potential **pitfalls** with using the mean in these ways?

Mean

- What are some potential **pitfalls** with using the mean in these ways?
- *Descriptive and predictive:* The mean might not resemble any actual value in the data set
 - Extreme **outliers** can skew the mean
 - Geography majors at UNC—the highest average salary after graduation?
 - The data set might be **bimodal**
 - Age: parents and toddlers

Mean

- What are some potential **pitfalls** with using the mean in these ways?
- Predictive: Were the items measured actually representative of their category?
 - \rightarrow inferential statistics

Standard deviation

• What does the standard deviation of a set of numbers indicate?

Standard deviation | Kaplan (2016: 266; my emphasis):

- The standard deviation reflects the **amount of 'spread'** in the data: a small SD means that the numbers in the set are clustered tightly around the mean, while a larger SD means that the numbers are more spread out.
- As a rule of thumb, more than half of the numbers in the set will fall within one standard deviation of the mean, and the vast majority will fall within two standard deviations—
- but all this depends on the specific properties of the set, and there are no guarantees.

Standard deviation

- How to calculate standard deviation (FYI only)
 - *Deviance* (for each data point): Find the difference from the mean
 - *Sum of squared deviances*: Square each deviance value and add them up
 - Variance: Divide the sum of squared deviances by (the number of data points minus 1)
 - **Standard deviation:** Square root of the variance
- A good source for basic statistics: Concepts & Applications of Inferential Statistics, by Richard Lowry—free online textbook at <u>http://vassarstats.net/textbook/</u>

Standard deviation

• Why is it important?

Are words *meaningfully* longer in intoxicated speech?

(Kaplan 2016: 266)

Table A.1 Average pitch (fundamental frequency), duration, and loudness (intensity) of consonant-vowel-consonant words in sober and intoxicated speech.

Measure	Sober		Intoxicated	
	M	(SD)	M	(SD)
Pitch (Hz)	154.0	(51.7)	156.4	(52.3)
Duration (ms)	442	(120)	467	(127)
Loudness (dB)	78.2	(5.8)	75.1	(5.3)

Many inferential statistics methods use standard deviation in their calculations

Correlation

• What is correlation (*r*)? What does positive / zero / negative correlation mean?

• What does correlation look like in a **scatterplot**?



 Is correlation an example of descriptive or inferential statistics?

Correlation (*descriptive* statistics! \rightarrow current data only)

- Correlation (*r*): Measures to what extent the value of variable *y* is **predicted by** the value of variable *x*
 - If we know how long each student studied for an exam, can we predict how well they did?
- Correlation can be **positive**, **zero**, or **negative**
 - Positive ($0 < r \le 1$): when x increases, y increases
 - Zero correlation: no relationship between *x*, *y*
 - Negative $(-1 \le r < 0)$: when x increases, y decreases
- *r*² shows what % of variation in *y* is explained by *x*



- Can you get a sense here of what it means to say that knowing *x* does/does not help us predict *y*?

- You've likely heard: "Correlation is not causation!"
 - What does this actually mean?
 - How should we use it in interpreting experiment results?

- You've likely heard: "Correlation is not causation!"
 - What does this actually mean?
- What this does NOT mean:
 - Correlation is not "real"
 - Correlation tells us nothing
 - Correlation means sample size wasn't large enough

- You've likely heard: "Correlation is not causation!"
 - What does this actually mean?
- What this DOES mean:
 - Finding that x and y are correlated is not
 enough for us to conclude that x causes y
- Suppose we find that x and y are correlated.
 What are the logical possibilities for causation?

- Suppose we find that x and y are correlated.
 What are the logical possibilities for causation?
 - Maybe *x* causes *y*
 - Maybe *y* causes *x*
 - Maybe *z* causes both *x* and *y*: in this case, *z* is a **confounding factor**

• Example: Are *x* and *y* correlated? Can we **prove** causation? Is there a **plausible** causal relationship?



- Average combined SAT scores by state in 1993

From Richard Lowry's *Concepts & Applications of Inferential Statistics*, <u>http://vassarstats.net/textbook/ch</u> <u>3pt1.html#top</u>

- Take-home points:
 - Correlation does NOT imply causation, but it *can* still be informative
 - We should try to minimize confounding factors in experiments

- Descriptive statistics give us a summary of the information in a particular data set
 - We can describe phenomena we have observed
- But usually, we do experiments to understand general questions, not specific cases
 - Do the phenomena we have observed allow us to make broader predictions about the world?
 Some examples:
 - Will different people behave similarly?
 - Will different stimuli produce similar results?

- Inferential statistics How likely are the patterns in the data to have arisen by coincidence?
 - Lower probability of coincidence means patterns in the data are more likely to represent facts about the world

- LAST TIME | Pick a number: 7 or 13?
- Results:
 picked 7 *picked* 13
 18 5
- Data graphic:



• Is this pattern of results **evidence** that people prefer 7, or just a **coincidence**?

- Is this pattern of results **evidence** that people preferred 7, or just a **coincidence**?
- Probability of 18+ / 23 participants choosing 7 if everyone was equally likely to pick either: 0.0053 (exact binomial test)
 - Highly unlikely to be a coincidence!
 - Do these results *tell* us why 7 was preferred? | No!
 - Lucky/unlucky numbers?
 - Smaller/bigger number?
 - Appeared first in the list of answers?

- THIS TIME | Pick a number: 13 or 7?
- Results:
 picked 7 *picked* 13
 11 12
- Data graphic:



• Is this pattern of results **evidence** that people prefer 13, or just a **coincidence**?

- Is this pattern of results **evidence** that people preferred 7, or just a **coincidence**?
- Probability of 12+ / 23 participants choosing 13 if everyone was equally likely to pick either: 0.5 (exact binomial test)
 - Highly likely to be a coincidence!
- Combined results: Probability of 29+ / 46 participants choosing 7 if everyone was equally likely to pick either: 0.0512 (exact binomial test)

 In its most basic form, an experiment compares two conditions to see if they are different

Group discussion

• What are the **two conditions** for Case 1 in Treiman et al. (2002)'s Experiment 1?

 In its most basic form, an experiment compares two conditions to see if they are different

Group discussion

- What are the **two conditions** for Case 1 in Treiman et al. (2002)'s Experiment 1?
- What is the **null hypothesis** for Case 1/Expt 1?

- In its most basic form, an experiment compares two conditions to see if they are different
- What is the **null hypothesis** for such experiments?
 - The **null hypothesis** is that there is **no actual difference** between the conditions

- The null hypothesis is that there is no actual difference between conditions in an experiment
 - Any *apparent* difference between conditions *in our data* would therefore be due to **coincidence**
- Inferential statistics helps us ask:
 - How **likely** are the differences we observed to have **occurred** (i.e., by coincidence)...
 - ...if the null hypothesis is correct?
- If **very unlikely**, we **reject** the null hypothesis
 - We conclude: the differences are **meaningful**

- We can ask: What is the probability (p) that a difference of this size would be observed if the null hypothesis is actually correct?
 - Low probability → unlikely to have arisen
 by chance → statistically significant
 (we reject the null hypothesis)
- "Low" probability how low is low enough? Thresholds (α levels) often seen in research articles:
 - *p*<0.001 very highly significant
 - *p*<0.01 highly significant
 - *p*<0.05 significant
 - *p*<0.1 'marginally significant' (sometimes noted)

- Trade-off: There is no magically "right" *p*-value
 - Threshold (α) too strict? Might reject results too often
 - But α of *p*<0.05 is sometimes too lax (<u>xkcd #882</u>)
- Recent trend in research: Focus on measures such as effect size and confidence intervals instead
 - But you will encounter *p*-values in many articles

• What is the **probability** (*p*) that a difference of this size would be observed if null hyp. is correct?

[More info: VassarStats Binomial Distributions, Binomial Probabilities]

Table A.2 p-values for various outcomes of a coin-tossing experiment, testing the null hypothesis that heads and tails are equally likely.

(Kaplan 2016: 272)

Tosses	Heads	р
10	6	.754
20	12	.503
50	30	.203
100	60	.0569
200	120	.00569
500	300	.00000894

- Which of these coins do you think are **unfair**?

- Reading about experiment results: What to look for
 - What was the null hypothesis?
 (might be assumed rather than stated explicitly!)
 - What **statistical test** was performed?
 - Were any comparisons **statistically significant**?
 - Do the results show
 - a **main effect** (factor matters in the same way across all experiment conditions)?
 - an **interaction** (factor matters differently in different conditions)?

• Some things to watch out for...

Kaplan (2016: 274)

- It's tempting to use the *p*-value of a statistical test as a binary decision-making tool: if *p* < 0.05, the result is real; otherwise, it's not.
- If null hypothesis can't be rejected (null result): Really no difference, or sample size too small?
- A statistically significant difference can still be too small to matter in practical terms
- Correlation does not prove causation

Null results and experimental power

- If the sample size in an experiment is too small, it may not produce a low enough *p*-value, even if the effect is real
 - A 'null result' doesn't **prove** there is **no** effect
 - But we can trust a null result more confidently if the experiment was large, or many experiments have found a null result
 - Compare the coin-toss example above... If we get **60% heads**, is the coin unfair?

Experiment 1 (Treiman et al. 2002)

• Where are the **results** reported in the paper?

Experiment 1

- Results are reported in Table 2
 - Which values shown here are **descriptive** statistics?
 - Which are **inferential** statistics?
 - Where do we find information about **statistical significance**?

Experiment 1

- Results are reported in Table 2
- A *t*-test determines whether the difference between two sample means is statistically significant (for more info, see <u>VassarStats</u>, Ch 9–12)
 - **By-subjects** analysis: If significant, these results can be extended to other adult English spellers
 - **By-items** analysis: If significant, these results can be extended to other words of same shape

Experiment 1

- What answer do the authors find for the measurable RQ?
- What are the implications for the big-picture RQ(s)?

5. Other potential points for discussion

 Are there any implications of the findings of this article for the role of **phonics** in reading and spelling instruction?

5. Other potential points for discussion

- How was **your experience** reading the article?
 - What do you think helped make your experience easy or hard?

6. For next time

- Use the preparation questions to get ready for group and class discussion of some aspects of Rayner, Sereno, Lesch, & Pollatsek (1995)
 - Research questions
 - Experiment design
 - Results
 - Statistical analysis
 - What do they think their findings mean?
- Stay tuned for information about your article group — coming soon