

Methodological skills

rMA linguistics, week 7

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Types of the explanatory variables

× type of the dependent variable

Scale of the explanatory variable(s) is	categorical (nominal, ordinal)	quantitative (interval, ratio, logarithmic)
Dependent variable with categorical scale	<i>crosstabs</i>	<i>logistic regression</i>
Dependent variable with quantitative scale	<i>t-test, ANOVA</i>	<i>correlation, regression</i>

Student projects:

Motivation, background: anecdotal evidence, past data.

Precise research question, operationalized.

Units, variables, population, sample.

Sampling distribution of the mean: The Central Limit Theorem

NB: Sampling distribution of other statistics discussed later.

Central Limit Theorem

Four steps last week (note the colours: red, black and green):

1. An ugly mathematical function with two parameters (μ and σ):

$$y = N(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

2. *Normal distribution*: a distribution that follows such an ugly function.

3. A mathematician will tell you that

Mean of such a distribution (μ) = first parameter of the function (μ).

Std. dev. of such a distribution (σ) = 2nd param. of the function (σ).

4. Central Limit Theorem (next slide): $\mu = \mu$ and $\sigma = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$.

Central Limit Theorem

- Given population with any distribution.
Population mean is μ . Population standard deviation is σ .
- Draw a *simple random sample* (SRS) of size n .
Calculate sample mean \bar{x} . Sampling distribution of the mean: repeat sampling + averaging many times.
- **Central Limit Theorem:**
Sampling distribution of \bar{x} (approximately) follows a Normal distribution: $N\left(x \mid \mu = \mu = \mu, \sigma = \sigma = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$.

Central Limit Theorem

- **Central Limit Theorem** (version 1):

sampling distribution of \bar{x} is Normal: $N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$.

- This theorem is only approximately true if original population is not Normal, but n is large. (Not true if n is small.)

- **Central Limit Theorem** (version 2):

The sum (and, hence, the mean) of *independent* random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n approaches ('converges' to) a Normal distribution, as n grows larger.

- Therefore: many statistical procedures require:
 - Independence of the cases in the sample.
 - Normality of the population, or
 - close to Normal distribution and larger sample size, or
 - very large sample size (if Normality does not hold).

Additionally:

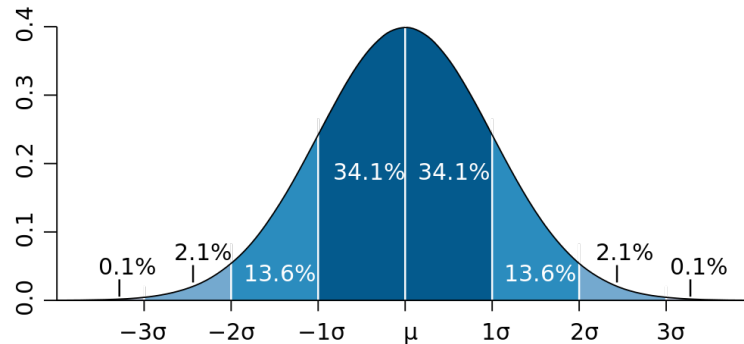
“Normality of the population” can be replaced by
“Normality of the sample” .

Testing Normality of the sample: Normal quantile plots!

Standard Normal (Gaussian) distribution

Normal (Gaussian) distribution

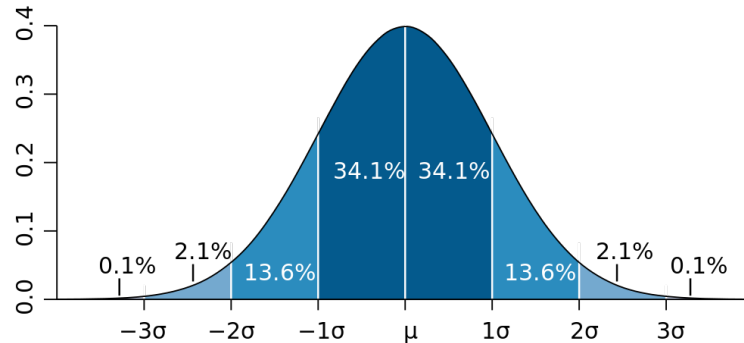
$$N(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$



- $e = 2.7182\dots$. Mean: μ . Standard deviation: σ .
- Area under curve is 1.
- 68–95–99.7 rule: area within 1/2/3 σ from μ .

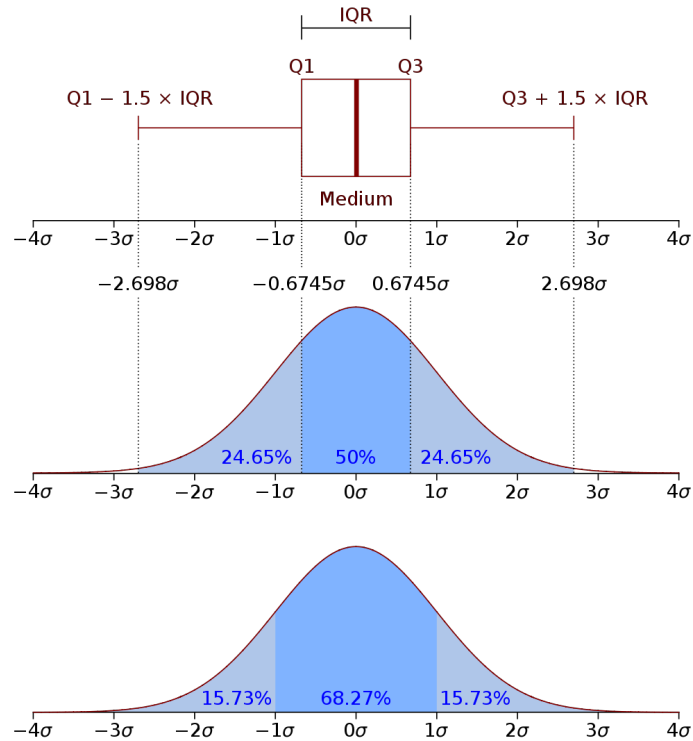
Standard Normal distribution

$$N(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$



- $e = 2.7182\dots$. Mean: $\mu = 0$. Standard deviation: $\sigma = 1$.
- Area under curve is 1.
- 68–95–99.7 rule: area within 1/2/3 from 0.

Standard Normal distribution



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Boxplot_vs_PDF.svg

Standard Normal distribution

A **Standard Normal Table**: *cumulative proportions*

http://bcs.whfreeman.com/ips6e/content/cat_050/ips6e_table-a.pdf

- Normal distribution is a **continuous distribution**:

Probability $P(a < X \leq b)$ of the random variable X having a value between a and b

is equal to the area under the *probability density* curve between a and b .

- Value for b in the Standard Normal table: $P(-\infty < X \leq b)$, the area between $-\infty$ and b .

Standard Normal distribution

A **Standard Normal Table**: *cumulative proportions*

http://bcs.whfreeman.com/ips6e/content/cat_050/ips6e_table-a.pdf

- Probability $P(a < X \leq b)$ of the random variable X having a value between a and b is the difference of the value for b and the value for a : $P(-\infty < X \leq b) - P(-\infty < X \leq a)$.
- Symmetry of the Standard Normal Distribution:
 $P(-\infty < X \leq b) = P(-b \leq X < +\infty)$.
- $P(|X| \geq |a|) = 2 \cdot P(-\infty < x \leq -|a|)$.

Normal calculations, inverse Normal calculations

- Calculate area *right* to $z = 1.47$.
- Find area from $z = -1.82$ to $z = 0.93$.
- What is z if left to it you find area 0.300?
- Similar questions with any other Normal distribution:
normalize it ($x \rightarrow z$) first.

Normal calculations, inverse Normal calculations

And now, you:

- For what z is 95% of area between $-z$ and z ?
- For what z is 5% of area right of z ?

Transforming variables: Standardizing observations

Standardizing observations

μ : population mean of variable X .

σ : population standard deviation of variable X .

<i>Cases</i>	X	Y	...	$Z = X \text{ standardized}$
case 1	x_1			$z_1 = \frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
case 2	x_2			$z_2 = \frac{x_2 - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
...				
case i	x_i			$z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
...				
case n	x_n			$z_n = \frac{x_n - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
<i>sample mean</i>	\bar{x}			$\bar{z} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
<i>sample std. dev.</i>	s			

Standardizing observations

- μ : population mean of variable X .
 σ : population standard deviation of variable X .
- Transform each data point: $z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$.
- Averaging over the entire sample: $z := \bar{z} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$.
- z -statistic: a new statistic that we measure on the sample.
- Sampling distribution of \bar{x} is $N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$.
Thus, the sampling distribution of the z -statistic is $N(0, 1)$.

Toward the inference for the mean

Suppose $\mu = 3.5$ and $\sigma = 1.5$.

You draw a random sample of size $n = 9$, and calculate \bar{x} .

- What is the probability that $\bar{x} > 3.5$?
The same as the probability of $z = \frac{\bar{x} - 3.5}{1.5/\sqrt{9}} > 0$.
- What is the probability that $\bar{x} < 2.5$?
The same as the probability of $z < -2$.
- What is the probability that $3 < \bar{x} < 4$?
The same as the probability that $-1 < z < +1$.

Inference for the mean: z -test and p -scores

Suppose you know that $\sigma = 1.5$. You have drawn a Simple Random Sample (SRS) of size $n = 9$. You have got $\bar{x} = 4$.

Your null-hypothesis H_0 is that $\mu = 3.5$. Supposing H_0 is true,

- (... what is the probability of drawing a SRS with $\bar{x} = 4$?)
- ... what is the probability of drawing a SRS with an \bar{x} at least as extreme 4: $\bar{x} \geq 4 = \mu + 0.5$? or $\bar{x} \leq \mu - 0.5$?
- ... what is the probability of drawing a SRS with an \bar{x} at least as extreme 4: $\bar{x} \geq 4 = \mu + 0.5$? or $\bar{x} \leq 3 = \mu - 0.5$?

Inference for the mean: confidence interval

Suppose you know that $\sigma = 1.5$. You have drawn a Simple Random Sample (SRS) of size $n = 9$. You have got $\bar{x} = 4$.

- What is the best guess you can give for μ ?
- Find an interval such that
if μ falls within that interval,
then the probability of drawing a SRS
with \bar{x} not more extreme than 4
is less than $p < 0.05$.

Normal quantile plots

Do data follow Normal distribution?

- Arrange observed data values from smallest to largest. Record what percentile a value occupies.
- Normal score: z value of a percentile in the Standard Normal distribution. The value that the corresponding percentile should have, if the distribution were really Normal.
- Plot data against corresponding Normal score.

If data follow Normal distribution, then plotted points lie close to a straight line.

Basics of inference

(Cf. Cohen's two articles.)

H_0 , H_a and H_1

- H_0 (null-hypothesis): effect size $ES = 0$ (most often).
(Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)': "nil hypothesis")
- H_a (alternative hypothesis): there is an effect, $ES \neq 0$.
Cohen: the "nil hypothesis" is (practically) always true!
- Cf. Cohen, 'A Power Primer':
 H_1 : there is a well-defined small/medium/large ES.

Goal: reject H_0 to argue for H_a .

The (in)famous p -value

- H_0 (null-hypothesis): effect size $ES = 0$ (most often).

Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)': "nil hypothesis"

→ which (usually) correspond to statistic = 0.

Sampling distribution of the test statistic:

if H_0 is true, then test statistic is most often close to 0.

- H_a (alternative hypothesis): there is an effect, $ES \neq 0$.

H_1 : the effect is ES (where $ES \neq 0$).

→ which (usually) correspond to a statistic $\neq 0$.

The (in)famous p -value

- H_0 (null-hypothesis): effect size $ES = 0$ (most often).
Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)': "nil hypothesis"
→ which (usually) correspond to statistic = 0.

Sampling distribution of the test statistic:

if H_0 is true, then test statistic is most often close to 0.

p = the probability of (obtaining a test statistic at least as extreme as the one we have just obtained based on our observations | provided that H_0 is true).

The (in)famous p -value

p = the probability of (obtaining a test statistic at least as extreme as the one we have just obtained based on our observations | provided that H_0 is true).

- Low p -value \rightarrow either H_0 is false, or we have bad luck.
- We reject H_0 with **confidence level** α if $p < \alpha$
— the level of “bad luck” that we hope never to have.
- If statistic from data $>$ critical value corresponding to α , then $p < \alpha$.

The (in)famous p -value

p = the probability of (obtaining a test statistic at least as extreme as the one we have just obtained based on our observations | provided that H_0 is true).

- High p -value $\rightarrow H_0$ is either true, or false (e.g., small effect size), or we have bad luck.
- We say we do not have sufficient evidence to reject H_0 .
- BIG ERROR: to conclude that H_0 is true!

Example: z -test

- (Suppose we know std. dev. of population is σ .)
- H_0 : the population mean is m .
- Sample of size n . Data x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

Calculate sample mean \bar{x} , then z -statistic: $z := \frac{\bar{x} - m}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$.

- $P(z = \dots | H_0)$: what is the chance of getting such a value for z , supposing H_0 is true?
- Hence, is it probable that H_0 is true?

Example: z -test

- (Known σ .) H_0 : the population mean is m .
Sample of size n . Calculate z -statistic: $z := \frac{\bar{x} - m}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$.
- From the Central Limit Theorem we know that if H_0 is true, then probability of $|z| > 1.96$ is less than 5%.
So, critical value for $C = 95\%$ confidence level: $z^* = 1.96$.
If $z > z^* = 1.96$, then reject H_0 with confidence level $\alpha = 0.05$ (two-tailed).
- Higher n or higher $\frac{\bar{x} - m}{\sigma}$ ('effect size') \rightarrow higher $z \rightarrow$ higher chance to reject H_0 , given a simple random sample (SRS).

Some of the problems with inference

(Cf. Cohen's two articles.)

H_0 , H_a and H_1

- H_0 (null-hypothesis): effect size $ES = 0$ (most often).
(Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)': "nil hypothesis")
- H_a (alternative hypothesis): there is an effect, $ES \neq 0$.
Cohen: the "nil hypothesis" is (practically) always true!
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 H_1 : there is a well-defined small/medium/large ES.

Goal: reject H_0 to argue for H_a .

H_0 , H_a and H_1

(Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)':

A correct, non-probabilistic Aristotelian *modus tollens*:

- If H_0 is correct, then data D cannot occur.
- D has, however, occurred.
- Therefore, H_0 is false.

H_0 , H_a and H_1

(Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)':

An incorrect probabilistic "*modus tollens*":

- If H_0 is correct, then data D would probably not occur.
- D has, however, occurred.
- Therefore, H_0 is probably false.

Conditional probability

- $P(A|B)$: probability of A , provided that we know that B is true. $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$.
- Researcher interested in $P(H_0|D)$:
the probability that H_0 is true, given observation D .
- Statistics can only provide $P(D|H_0)$:
probability of obs. data (and more extreme data), given H_0 .

Bayes' theorem:

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A)}$$

H_0 , H_a and H_1

(Cohen, 'The Earth Is Round ($p < .05$)':

Result	normal	schizophrenic	Total
Negative test	949	1	950
Positive test	30	20	50
Total	979	21	1000

Test is “good”: most normal people tested as negative, and most schizo people tested as positive. Still, a positive test does not prove schizophrenia ($p = 0.60$), because very low $P(H_0)$.

Type I error and Type II error

Statistical procedure set at conf. level C	H_0 is true in reality	H_1 / H_a is true in reality
Effect-size is	$= 0$	$\neq 0$
rejects H_0	Type I error	
does not reject H_0		Type II error

$$\alpha = 1 - C = P(\text{Type I error} | H_0) ; \beta = P(\text{Type II error} | H_a)$$

What interests us: **power** of the statistical test = $1 - \beta$:
the probability of rejecting H_0 if H_0 is false.

Cohen: power depends on Effect-size, n and C (or α).

SPSS lab

<http://www.biroth.hu/courses/2012-methodology/lab2.html>

Sections A-D. (Sections E and F deferred to next week.)

In two weeks time

- Finish z -test, t -test, power, etc.
- Either ANOVA or crosstabs.
- SPSS-lab.
- Two student presentations.

See you in two weeks!