

# Terminology Review

Psy 420

Andrew Ainsworth

# Concept review

Research Terminology

# Variables

- IVs and DVs
  - Independent variables
    - are controlled by the experimenter
    - and/or are hypothesized to influence other variables (e.g. DV)
    - and/or represent different groups or classifications participants belong to (either assigned or ascribed)
  - Dependent variables are what the participants are being measured on; the response or outcome variable
  - Think of them as “input/output”, “stimulus/response”, etc.
  - Usually represent sides of an equation

# Variables

- Qualitative vs. Quantitative
  - Qualitative variables are those that change in quality or kind
    - (e.g. male/female, ethnicity, etc.)
  - Quantitative variables are those that change in amount

# Variables

- Continuous, discrete and dichotomous
  - Continuous data
    - smooth transition from one to the other rather than in steps,
    - can take on any value in a given range
    - the number of given values in the range are only limited by the precision of the measuring instrument (can be infinite)

# Variables

- Continuous, discrete and dichotomous
  - Discrete
    - Categorical
    - Limited amount of values
    - And always whole values
  - Dichotomous
    - discrete variable with only two categories

# Variables

- Continuous, discrete and dichotomous
  - Continuous to discrete
    - often for the sake of simplicity continuous data is “dichotomized”, “trichotomized”.
    - Often because people are obsessed with anovas or some other stat they are accustomed to (chi-square, etc.)
    - Doing this will reduce your power and cloud your interpretation
    - Reinforce use of the appropriate stat at the right time

# Variables

- Continuous, discrete and dichotomous
  - Which type of data you have will decide what type of analysis you should or at least can use
  - Much of the differences in the chapters in this book have to do with what kind of data your dealing with (plus how it's collected and other things)



# Levels of Measurement

- Nominal – Categorical
- Ordinal – rank order
- Interval – ordered and evenly spaced; changes in the construct represent equal changes in what you are intended to measure
- Ratio – has absolute 0; a true absence of the trait.
  - $y(I, R)$  – one sample t-test
  - $y(O, N)$  – one-way chi-square
  - $y(I, R)$  and  $x(O, N)$  – two sample inde. t-test, one-way ANOVA
  - 2 xs  $(O, N)$  – two-way chi square
  - The last two are usually grouped together and treated as “continuous”.

# Types of input or treatment

- Qualitative input – sex (male/female), ethnicity, treatment groups, etc.
- Quantitative input – age groups, weight classes, years of education, etc. These can be quantitative categories (e.g. ANOVA) or continuous predictors (e.g. regression).

# Types of output or outcome measure

- Output variables can also be discrete, ordinal or continuous.
- Research using continuous outcome measures will be the focus of this class.
  - These outcomes measure the amount of something and also track the degree the amount changes between groups or time periods.
- Analyses of discrete or ordinal data is usually limited to analyses like a chi-square test or other non-parametric tests.
- Ordinal data can be treated as continuous as long as there are enough categories (7 or more) and it is believed that there is an underlying continuum.

# Number of outcomes

- Number of outcome measures changes the type of analysis you would use.
- Univariate, Bivariate, Multivariate
  - Uni - only one DV, can have multiple IVs; this is what we'll cover in this class
  - Bivariate – two variables no specification as to IV or DV ( $r$  or  $\chi^2$ )
  - Multivariate – multiple DVs, regardless of number of IVs; covered in psy 524

## Experimental vs. Non-Experimental

- Experimental – high level of researcher control, direct manipulation of IV, true IV to DV causal flow
- Non-experimental – low or no level of researcher control, pre-existing groups (gender, etc.), IV and DV ambiguous
- Experiments equal higher levels of internal validity (freedom from confounds), non-experiments typically will have higher generalizability (external validity)
- All of the stats we'll discuss can be applied to data collected in both experimental or non-experimental settings
- Causality in research is decided by the research design, you can apply sophisticated data analysis to crappy data and you still get crappy results

## Types of research designs

- Continuous outcomes (what we'll cover in this course)
  - Randomized (between) groups
    - One-way between groups fixed effects ANOVA
    - Factorial between groups fixed effects ANOVA
  - Repeated measures (within groups)
    - One-way within groups design
    - Factorial within groups design
  - Mixed between and within groups
    - Mixed ANOVA

## Types of research designs

- Continuous outcomes (what we'll cover in this course)
  - Adjusting for other variables
    - Analysis of Covariance
  - Pilot testing and incomplete designs
    - Latin squares designs
    - Screening and incomplete designs
  - Analyses of non-fixed effects
    - Random effects ANOVA and generalizability

## Types of research designs

- Ordinal outcomes – non-parametric tests  
(Wilcoxon rank sum test, Sign test, etc.)
- Discrete outcomes
  - Chi-Square
  - Log-linear Models
  - Logistic Regression
- Time as an outcome
  - Survival Analysis



# Statistics Review

- **Statistic vs. Parameter**
  - Statistics describe samples
  - Parameters describe populations
  - Statistical inference
    - Often statistics are used to estimate parameters (this is statistical inference)
    - The process of making decisions (inferences) about populations based on a sample of participants.
    - Researcher sets up two hypothetical states of reality

# Measures of central tendency and dispersion

- Central Tendency

- Mode – value with highest frequency
- Median – value in the center of the distribution
- Mean – Average value

- For continuous variables

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

- For dichotomous variables

- 1 positive response (Success)  $\rightarrow P$
- 0 negative response (failure)  $\rightarrow Q = (1-P)$
- $MEAN(Y) = P$ , observed proportion of successes
- $VAR(Y) = PQ$ , max when  $P = .50$ , variance depends on mean (P)

# Measures of central tendency and dispersion

- Dispersion – spread of a distribution
  - Range – Max minus min
  - Deviation

$deviation = \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})$ , problem is this equals 0

So often each deviation from the mean is squared,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

# Measures of central tendency and dispersion

- Dispersion – spread of a distribution
  - Variance

$$\text{sample Variance} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}; \text{ comp formula } \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2}{n}}{n}$$

$$\text{estimated population Var} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}; \text{ comp formula } \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2}{n}}{n-1}$$

# Measures of central tendency and dispersion

- Dispersion – spread of a distribution
  - Standard Deviation – dispersion of a single sample

$$\text{sample SD} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}}; \text{ comp formula } \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2}{n}}{n}}$$
$$\text{estimated population SD} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}}; \text{ comp formula } \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - \frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right)^2}{n}}{n-1}}$$

# Measures of central tendency and dispersion

- Dispersion – spread of a distribution
  - Standard Error – dispersion of a sampling distribution of means

$$S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{SD_{n-1}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

# Relationships between variables

- Both variables discrete
  - Chi Square
    - “Goodness of fit” test – one-way test

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(o - e)}{e}$$

- Contingency tables
- Expected values can be given  
Or estimated

$$e = \frac{R * C}{T}$$

# Both Variables Continuous

- Correlation – non-directional relationship
  - Degree of co-relation
  - Range from -1 to positive 1
  - Positive vs. Negative Correlation
  - Computational formula

$$r = \frac{\sum XY - [(\sum X)(\sum Y)] / N}{\sqrt{\left[ \sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{N} \right] \left[ \sum Y^2 - \frac{(\sum Y)^2}{N} \right]}}$$



# Both Variables Continuous

- Regression – directional relationship

$$Y' = bx + a$$

$$b = \frac{\sum XY - [(\sum X)(\sum Y)] / N}{\sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{N}}$$

$$a = \bar{Y} - b\bar{X}$$

# Discrete predictor, continuous outcome

- z-test
  - Z-scores

$$z = \frac{x - \bar{x}}{SD}$$

- Z-test, when sigma is known

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma_{\bar{X}}}$$

# Discrete predictor, continuous outcome

- Z-test
  - Assumes that the population mean and standard deviation are known (therefore not realistic for application purposes)
  - Used as a theoretical exercise to establish tests that follow
  - Samples can come from any part of a distribution with a given probability, so taking one sample and comparing to the population distribution can be misleading
  - Sampling distributions are established; either by rote or by estimation (hypotheses deal with means so distributions of means are what we use)

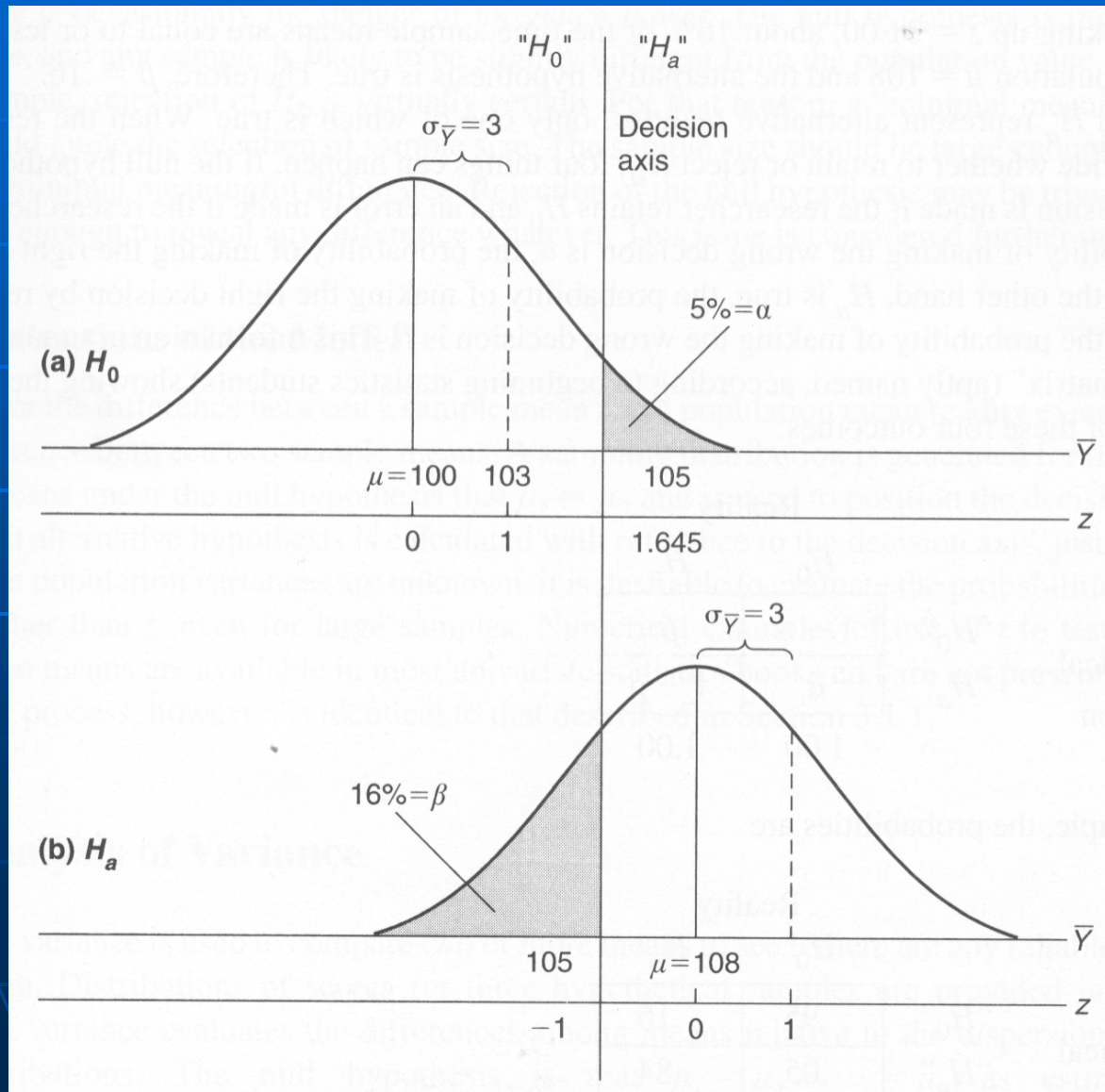
# Hypothesis Testing and Z

- Decision axes established so we leave little chance for error
  - Type 1 error – rejecting null hypothesis by mistake (Alpha)
  - Type 2 error – keeping the null hypothesis by mistake (Beta)

		Reality	
		H <sub>0</sub>	H <sub>A</sub>
Your Decision	“H <sub>0</sub> ”	1 - $\alpha$	$\beta$
	“H <sub>A</sub> ”	$\alpha$	1 - $\beta$
		1.00	1.00

		Reality	
		H <sub>0</sub>	H <sub>A</sub>
Your Decision	“H <sub>0</sub> ”	.95	.16
	“H <sub>A</sub> ”	.05	.84
		1.00	1.00

# Hypothesis Testing and Z



# Power and Z

- Power is established by the probability of rejecting the null given that the alternative is true.
- Three ways to increase it
  - Increase the effect size
  - Use less stringent alpha level
  - Reduce your variability in scores (narrow the width of the distributions) more control or more subjects
- “You can never have too much power!!” – this is not true
- t-tests are realistic application of z-tests because the population standard deviation is not known (need multiple distributions instead of just one)

## Discrete predictor, continuous outcome

- one sample t-test – when sigma is unknown and has to be estimated

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S_{\bar{X}}}$$

# Discrete predictor, continuous outcome

- independent samples t-test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B}{S_{\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B}}$$

$$S_{pooled}^2 = \frac{(n_A - 1)s_A^2 + (n_B - 1)s_B^2}{n_A + n_B - 2}$$

$$S_{\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B} = \sqrt{\frac{S_{pooled}^2}{n_A} + \frac{S_{pooled}^2}{n_B}}$$



# Discrete predictor, continuous outcome

- dependent samples t-test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_d - 0}{s_{\bar{d}}}$$

$$s_{\bar{d}} = \frac{SD_d}{\sqrt{n}}$$