

## Lecture 6: Analysis of Independent Groups Design

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- Analysis of Independent Groups Design involves two types of statistical concepts and procedures.
  - Descriptive statistics are used to summarize a data set, to estimate population parameters, and to reduce a large body of raw information (observations) to a smaller body of summarized information
  - Inferential statistics are used to make some judgments about the population of interest based upon the sample statistics.

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- Let's discuss a particular study
  - College students are told of Jane and Bob who were resting by a tree on campus.
    - They were told how Bob climbed the tree and played on one of the branches while Jane was watching. Also how Bob sidled up to Jane and she scampered away.
  - Students were then asked to judge whether "Bob was romantically interested in Jane" on a 7-point Likert scale
    - "Very Strong Agree" to "Strongly Disagree"

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- There was one IV and one DV.
  - Fifteen students were randomly assigned to the "student" condition, where Bob and Jane were described as students who lived on campus.
  - Another fifteen students were randomly assigned to the "squirrel" condition, where Bob and Jane were described as squirrels who lived on campus.
  - It was hypothesized that the explanation would be judged more acceptable in the Human than the Squirrel condition.

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

##### LIKERT SCALE

LIKERT SCALE	Frequency
1. I very strongly agree with the explanation.	1
2. I strongly agree with the explanation.	3
3. I agree with the explanation.	5
4. I neither agree nor disagree with the explanation.	12
5. I disagree with the explanation.	5
6. I strongly disagree with the explanation.	3
7. I very strongly disagree with the explanation.	1

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- Compute the mean of the sample
  - A measure of central tendency found by computing the average observation.
  - $M = \Sigma X/n$
  - $120/30 = 4$

### III ANALYSIS

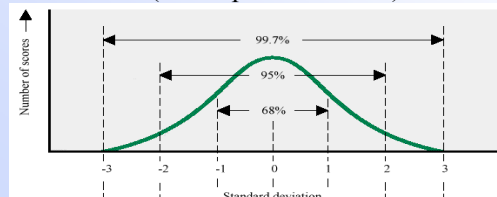
#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- Compute the Standard Deviation of the sample:
  - A measure of variability found by computing the average distance from the mean of the observations.
  - $\sqrt{\Sigma(X-M)^2/(n-1)}$
  - $\sqrt{52/29} = 1.34$
  - $sd^2 = s \text{ (variance)} = 1.34^2 = 1.80$

### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- Having a mean (M) and a standard deviation (sd) of a sample is a powerful combination of numbers with which you can figure out a lot!
- You can figure out properties of the sampled distributions (Descriptive statistics)



### III ANALYSIS

#### A. Descriptive Statistics

- But you can do more with these values than that!
- You can use the mean and standard deviation to infer characteristics of the population.
  - **Sample:** a subset of the subjects chosen from the population by a specified procedure
  - **Population:** the subjects, items, elements or units in a defined group.
- Moving from a sample to a population is the goal of **Inferential Statistics**

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- The descriptive statistics have a corresponding inferential one.

SAMPLE	POPULATION
Mean (M)	Mu ( $\mu$ )
Standard Deviation (SD)	Sigma ( $\sigma$ )

- Knowing our sample's M and sd, we can make inferences about the population of all students.
  - We can estimate the quality  $\mu$  of as an estimate of M.
- This may be important not just as an end in itself, but for us to figure out what to expect by way of other sample means.

### III ANALYSIS

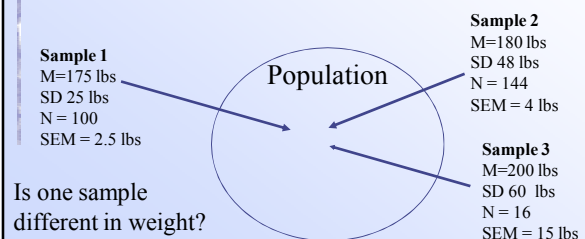
#### B. Inferential Statistics

- The way to go from sample M to population  $\mu$  is to compute the **Standard Error of the Mean**.
  - SEM is a measure of the extent to which different samples may have different means.
  - The SEM is computed by dividing the sample SD by the square root of the number of estimates.
  - $SD/\sqrt{n}$
  - $1.34/5.48 = .24$

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- Imagine randomly selecting classes in the university and weighing the students in them.



### III ANALYSIS

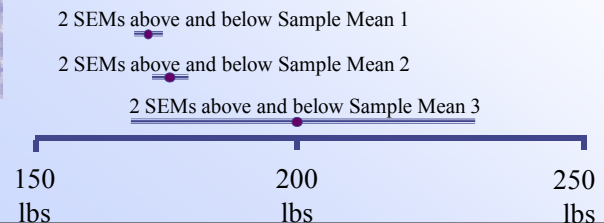
#### B. Inferential Statistics

- Sample 3 looks different from the other samples
  - From a Descriptive Statistics point of view, it looks a lot different!
    - Its mean is much higher (200 vs. 175 & 180 lbs)
    - Its standard deviation is much higher (60 vs. 25 & 48 lbs)
    - Its SEM is also much higher (15 vs. 2.5 & 4 lbs)
  - From an Inferential Statistics point of view, Sample 3 may not be so different!
    - Its SEM suggests that it is a weak estimate of the population mean, ranging from 170 lbs (2 SEMs below its mean) to 230 lbs (2 SEM above its mean)
    - This range includes the ranges of the other means

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

It is very reasonable to assume that sample 3 is consistent with samples 1 and 2, in terms of the population each sample is estimating!



### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- B. Null Hypothesis Testing**
  - This exercise in judging whether separate samples make the same estimates of populations is at the heart of *Null Hypothesis Testing*.
  - The logic of null hypothesis testing is at the heart of analyzing IG designs:
    - Assume that the independent groups are the same. (Null Hypothesis)
    - Find evidence that they are different. (Significance Testing)
    - Conclude with a degree of certainty that your initial assumption was incorrect. (Statistical Conclusion)

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- B.1.i Null Hypothesis**
  - Why do we form the null hypothesis ( $M_1=M_2$ )?
    - Trying to fool ourselves? Pretend that we don't want to find what we want to find?
  - Statistically, we are assuming that they are sampled from the same population.
    - The population estimates of each sample will be compared to see whether they *triangulate* – that is, whether they agree on the same estimates.
    - While the samples may be quite different, they may agree on the same population estimates.

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Significance Testing

- To test whether samples agree on population estimates, we have to do significance testing
  - Significance testing asks the question, Do group means differ from each other more than we would expect from chance?
  - If so, then the difference between groups is not just a difference that may be expected by sampling two random samples from the same population.
  - Rather, the two groups differ because they can not be said to come from the same population!

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Significance Testing

- Growing Plants:
  - You want to find out whether or not the fertilizer you use is cost-effective in growing tomatoes.
  - Randomly assign plots of land to be treated or untreated by the fertilizer
  - Grow tomato plants on both plots and find that the fertilized plots have 1.65 more tomatoes per plant.
  - Is it worth using the fertilizer?
  - Yes, if you expect little variability in the number of tomatoes per plant. No, if you expect much more.

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Significance Testing

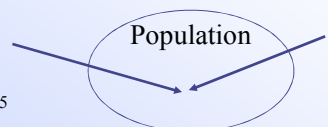
- We just outlined the basic procedure of *t*-test.
- *t*-Statistic: Compares the difference between the means to an estimate of the extent to which randomly selected sample means will vary.
  - $t = \text{Difference between means} / \text{SEMs}$

$$\frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{(SD_1/\sqrt{n_1})^2 + (SD_2/\sqrt{n_2})^2}}$$

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Significance Testing

- Test of the Squirrels vs. Human study
- |  |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| <b>Humans</b><br>M=3.07<br>SD .96<br>N = 15<br>SEM = .25 |  | <b>Squirrels</b><br>M=4.93<br>SD .96<br>N = 15<br>SEM = .25 |
|--|---|---|

2 SEMs above and below Human Mean

2 SEMs above and below Squirrel Mean



### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Significance Testing

- If the  $t$ -value ratio is above roughly 2, then we say that the difference between groups is real, not due to chance.
- Why “2” is a long story, but basically because 2 standard deviations from the mean represents a very unlikely event ( $p < .05$ ), so a critical ratio of 2 is also considered very unlikely to occur by chance alone.
- Actually, the critical  $t$  value is determined as a function of the DEGREES OF FREEDOM ( $n-2$ ) and checked on a “critical values of  $t$ ” table.

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.2.ii Statistical Conclusion

- The critical value of  $t$  further depends on whether your test is one-tailed or two-tailed.
  - A two-tailed test assumes no directionality to the hypothesis. The prediction is that one group is different than the other, without specifying which one.
  - A one-tailed test assumes directionality to the hypothesis. The prediction specifies that one particular group (Students) scores higher than the other (Squirrels).

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

##### ▪ B.3. Other Concepts

##### ▪ 1. Type 1 and Type II Error

- When the observed value of  $t$  is greater than the critical value of  $t$ , we conclude that the difference is significant!
- It doesn't mean it's an important or valuable difference, only one which is greater than what we would expect by chance.
- Statistically significant doesn't even mean not unlikely, only that the difference would happen 5 times or less out of 100.

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- We may be wrong in our inferential conclusion!
- **Type I Inference Error:** Reject null hypothesis when it's true
  - CONSEQUENCE: You earn a bad reputation because you will publish data which looks significant but can't be replicated.
- **Type II Inference Error:** Fail to reject null hypothesis when it's false
  - CONSEQUENCE: Lost chance at finding significance. It was there, but you missed it!

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- **B.3. Other Concepts**
- **2. Parametric and Non-Parametric Statistics**
- A *t*-test is a parametric statistic because it requires making estimates of populations.
  - Such estimates are central in null hypothesis testing.
  - But sometime such estimates make no sense.
  - Consider a distribution of 10 boys and 10 girls, what is the population estimate of gender? 1.5?
  - Only Interval and Ratio scaled variables can be assumed to offer meaningful population estimates.

### III ANALYSIS

#### B. Inferential Statistics

- **B.3. Other Concepts**
- **2. Parametric and Non-Parametric Statistics**
- Non-parametric statistics (e.g., chi-square) do not require making population estimates.
  - Non-parametric statistical methods can be used to perform statistical significance testing on Nominal or Ordinal variables.

### III ANALYSIS

#### C. Chance and the *t* distribution

- 2. Experiments as the production of variance.
- Science as the production and understanding of variance can now understood not only at the level of design (IV → DV), but also at the level of statistical analysis.
  - A *t*-test is an examination of two types of variability (difference between means and variability of groups) and computing a ratio between them.
- Think variability.

### III ANALYSIS

#### C. Chance and the *t* distribution

- **1. Research with Statistics in mind.**

$$\frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{(SD_1/\sqrt{n_1})^2 + (SD_2/\sqrt{n_2})^2}}$$

What is the consequence on the significance of the *t*-value of...

1. Lowering alpha level (p<.05) to (p.<01)?
2. Increasing sample size?
3. 2-tail vs.1-tail testing?
4. Increasing effect size (M<sub>1</sub>-M<sub>2</sub>)/sd (pooled)

Significance is ...

1. harder to find
2. easier to find
3. depends
4. easier to find

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

- 1. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests
  - Premised by the idea of a triangulation of *variance estimates* of a population mean, which can be estimated by
    - averaging the deviations of **each observation** in the sample from the overall mean.
    - averaging the deviations of **each subgroup mean** (IV level) in the sample from the overall mean.
  - If estimates converge, then the subgroups are assumed to be sampled from the same overall population, but if not, then the subgroups are not assumed to be sampled from different populations.

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

- Think of the estimates within and between groups in the study of Humans/Squirrel.



Do estimates of the variance of the overall mean based on variability of the two samples converge with estimates based on variability within the sample of 30 participants ?

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

- ANOVAs analyze the variance in the data.
- In a simple ANOVA, variance is divided or partitioned into.
  - Between Group Variation:** Variability in scores associated with IV but also with individual differences and error. Assumed to contain both *Error* and *Systematic* Variance.
    - What is the variance of the population mean, based on the sample means?
  - Within Group Variation:** Variability in scores associated with individual differences and measurement error. Assumed to contain only *Error* Variance.
    - What is the variance of the population mean, based on the overall sample?

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

- An *F*-ratio is computed to test for significance in an ANOVA
  - The *F* ratio is relates variability between Between Groups / Within Groups.
    - Error + Systematic Variance / Error Variance
    - These sources of variability is computed as the **sum of squares** (squared differences from the mean)
      - Just like a *t*-ratio, The *F*-ratio provides information about the ratio of IV-related variability relative to the variability expected by chance.
    - If that ratio is higher than a critical value (on an ANOVA table) it is significant.



### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

##### 2. X<sup>2</sup> (chi square) Test

- The chi-square test is a non-parametric test as there is no estimating of population statistics.
  - For use with nominal variables.
- In a simple chi-square test, observed distribution of scores is compared to an expected chance distribution.
- Consider a study of whether blondes do indeed have more fun.
  - Blonde and non-blonde participants took a "Fun" questionnaire and divided into those having and not having fun

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

	Blonde	Non-blonde	
Fun	10 (7.5)	5 (7.5)	15
No Fun	5 (7.5)	10 (7.5)	15
	15	15	30

### III ANALYSIS

#### D. F and X<sup>2</sup> Tests

##### 2. X<sup>2</sup> (chi square) Test

To compute the Chi-square test, the formula is:

$$\frac{\sum(O-E)^2}{E}$$

$$4 \frac{(\sum(2.5)^2/7.5)}{7.5} = 4 (.83) = 3.33$$

Chi Square Critical = 3.84 (with df= 1 and p = .05)

So there is no significance

### IV PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

#### A. Statistics for Researchers

- The moral of the statistics story for researchers is that you have design research with statistics in mind! Two particularly important rules:
  - **1. Think about error variance and try to minimize it because all error variance will lower your chances of finding significance.**
    - Use reliable instruments!
    - Hold extraneous variables constant
    - Match or control variables
    - Randomize error variance across groups through random assignment.
      - May not reduce error variance but it will minimize Type I error.

#### IV PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

##### A. Statistics for Researchers

- Floor and Ceiling effects in measurement can now be understood as a dangerous source of Type 1 (Bad Reputation) error.
- If a measuring instrument has (unnaturally) little variability, what happens to sd, SEM, t- and F-ratios?
- The sd and SEM lower, making the t- and F-ratios much higher, resulting in unwarranted statistical significance (Type 1 error).

#### IV PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

##### A. Statistics for Researchers

- **2. Increase the Effectiveness of your IV**
  - Use extreme groups, weak IVs produce only Type II error.
  - Use sensitive DVs which will detect differences in IVs.