2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A QUALITATIVE AND A QUANTITATIVE VARIABLE

Design and Data Analysis in Psychology II

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1. INTRODUCTION

- You may examine gender differences in average salary or racial (white versus black) differences in average annual income.
- The variable (salary) to be tested should be interval or ratio (quantitative), whereas the gender or race variable should be binary (qualitative).

1. INTRODUCTION

- These analyses are used to compare group means (independent or dependent groups).
- The term *independent* is used because groups are conformed randomly (independent samples). Two separate sets of independent and identically distributed samples are obtained.

1. INTRODUCTION

 The term dependent is used because groups are paired with respect to some measure (dependent samples). Dependent samples (or "paired") comparison consist of a sample of matched pairs of similar units, or one group of units that has been tested twice.

1. INTRODUCTION

 A typical example of the repeated measures would be where subjects are tested prior to a treatment, say for high blood pressure, and the same subjects are tested again after treatment with a blood-pressure lowering medication.

1. INTRODUCTION

- Three steps to carry out:
 - 1. Testing statistical assumptions.
 - 2. Statistical tests of significance.
 - 3. Statistical power.

2. STEP 1. TESTING ASSUMPTIONS

- Quantitative variable: Interval or ratio variable.
- Normal distribution: the populations from which the samples are selected must be normal (Tests for Normality: Kolmogorov-Smirnov 'D' + Histogram of predicted 'Z' scores).

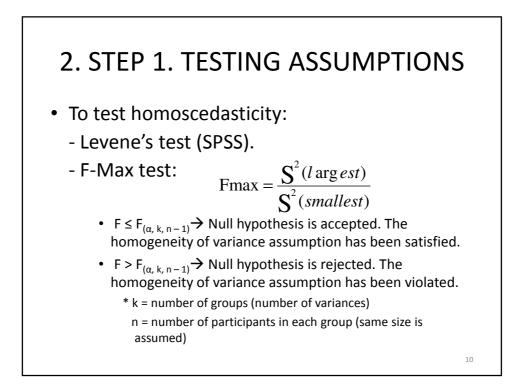
2. STEP 1. TESTING ASSUMPTIONS

The Central Limit Theorem says, however, that the distributions of y_1 and y_2 are approximately normal when N is large.

In practice, when $n_1 + n_2 \ge 30$, you do not need to worry too much about the normality assumption.

2. STEP 1. TESTING ASSUMPTIONS

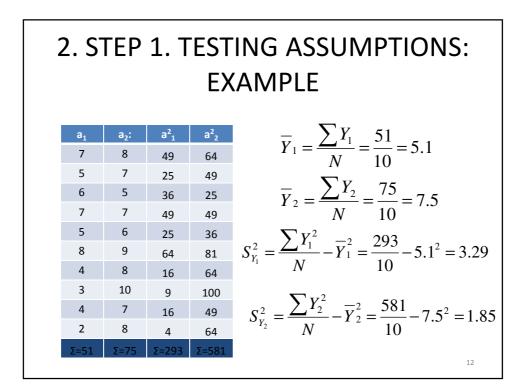
- Independence: the observations within each sample must be independent (Durbin-Watson 'D' + scatter plot X-e).
- Homoscedasticity (homogeneity of variance): the populations from which the samples are selected must have equal variances. In this kind of studies, it is the most important assumption to take into account (Levene's test, F Max' + scatter plot y'-absolute errors).



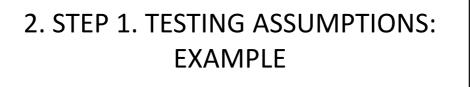
2. STEP 1. TESTING ASSUMPTIONS: EXAMPLE

Test the homogeneity of variance assumption in the following data (A = nationality; Y = level of depression; α =0.05):

a ₁ : Spanish	a ₂ : Japanese
7	8
5	7
6	5
7	7
5	6
8	9
4	8
3	10
4	7
2	8



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Fmax =
$$\frac{\mathbf{S}^2(l \arg est)}{\mathbf{S}^2(smallest)} = \frac{3.29}{1.85} = 1.778$$

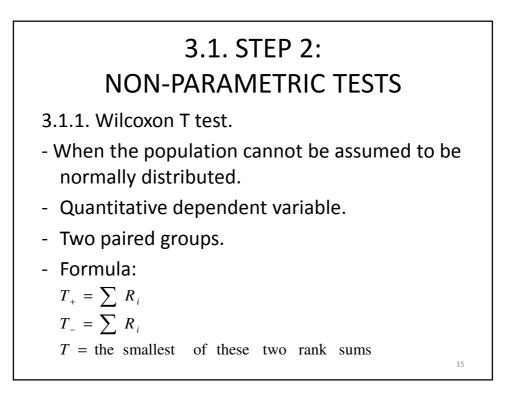
 $F_{(\alpha, k, n-1)} = F_{(0.05, 2, 10-1)} = 4.43$

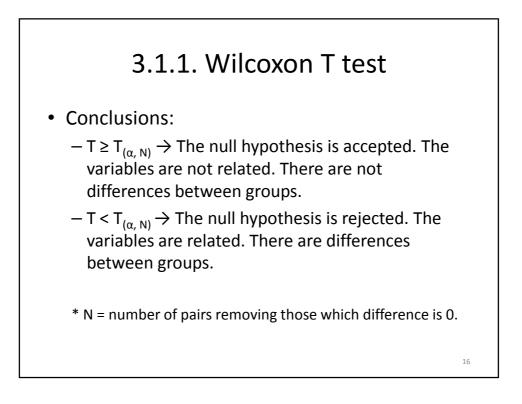
 $F ≤ F_{(\alpha, k, n-1)}$ → 1.778 ≤ 4.43 → Null hypothesis is accepted. The homogeneity of variance assumption has been satisfied.

3. Step 2. Statistical Tests of Significance

3.1. Step 2. Non-parametric Tests of Significance: assumptions are rejected

3.2. Step2. Parametric tests of significance: assumptions are accepted



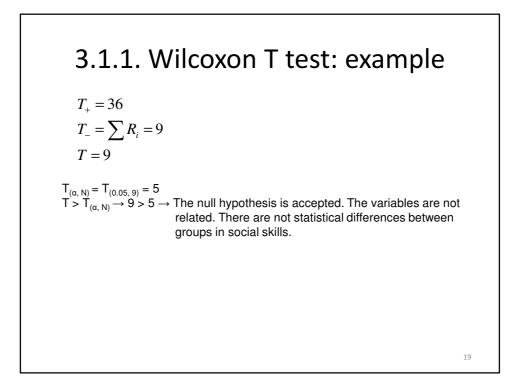


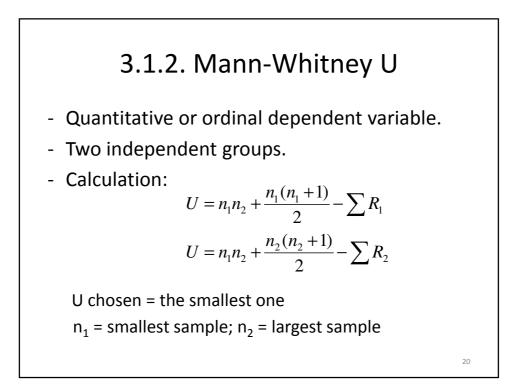
3.1.1. Wilcoxon T test: example

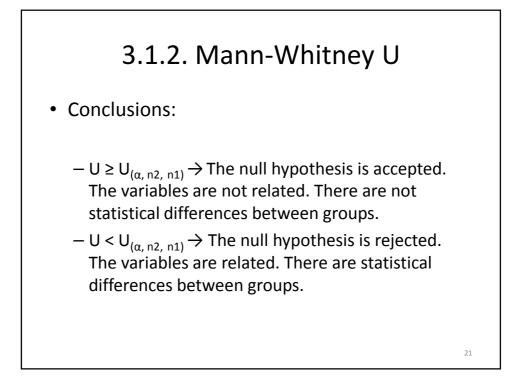
In the table below, you can see the punctuation in social skills that a twin who went to the kindergarten (a_1) for a course, and the other twin who stayed at home (a_2) . Are there statistical differences between both groups in social skills? (α =0.05).

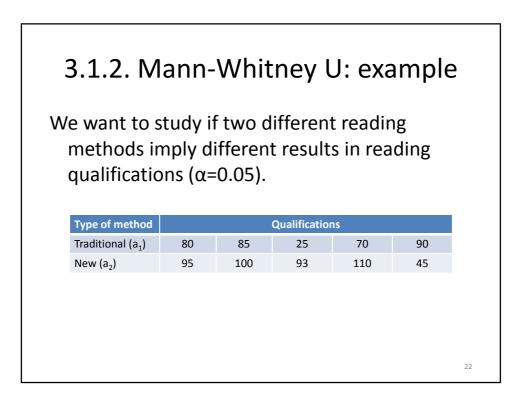
a ₁	a ₂
82	63
69	42
73	74
43	37
58	51
56	43
76	80
65	82
73	53
66	66 17

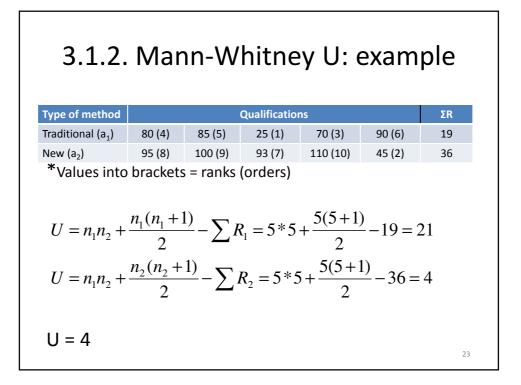
3.1.1	3.1.1. Wilcoxon T test: example						
	a ₁	a ₂	d	Rank	Sign		
	82	63	19	7	+		
	69	42	27	9	+		
	73	74	-1	1	-		
	43	37	6	3	+		
	58	51	7	4	+		
	56	43	13	5	+		
	76	80	-4	2	-		
	65	82	-17	6	-		
	73	53	20	8	+		
	66	66	0				
						18	

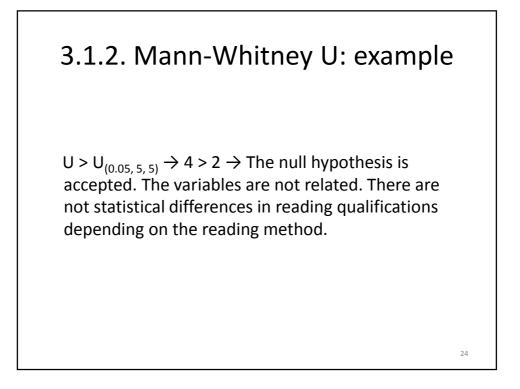


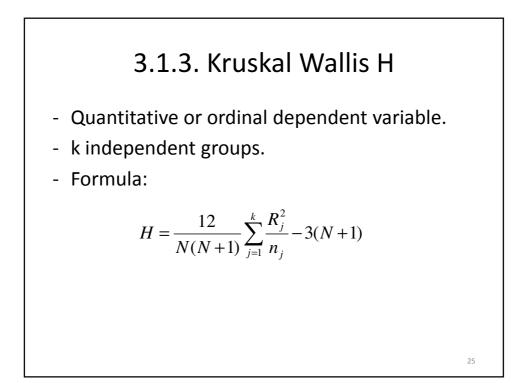


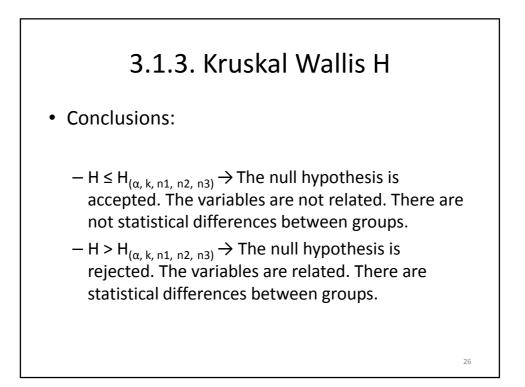










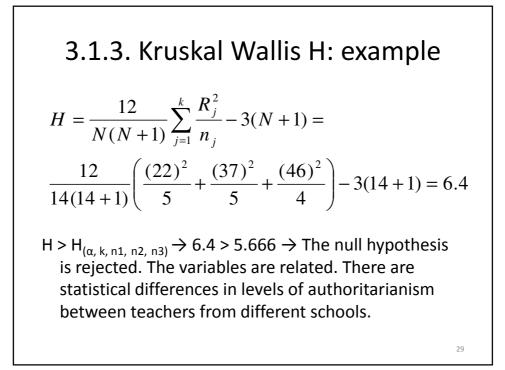


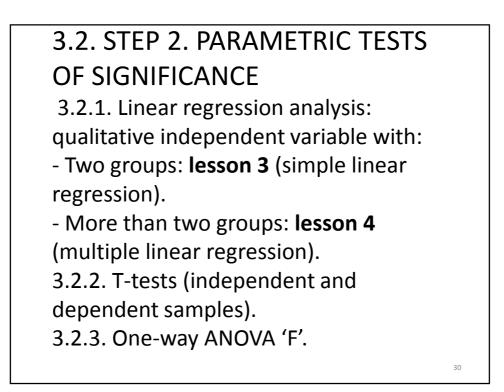
3.1.3. Kruskal Wallis H: example

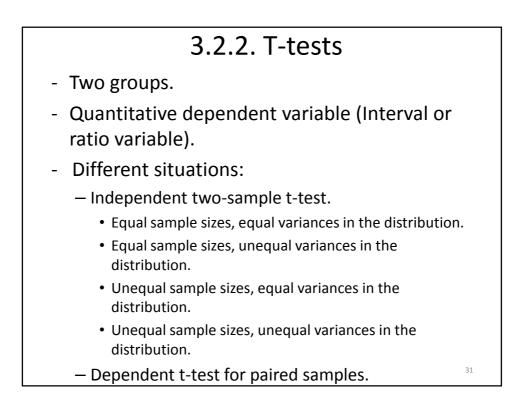
Do exist statistical differences in levels of authoritarianism between teachers from three different types of schools? (α =0.05)

State school (a ₁)	Private school (a ₂)	State-subsidized school (a ₃)
96	82	115
128	124	149
83	132	166
61	135	147
101	109	

State school (a ₁)	Private school (a ₂)	State-subsidized school (a ₃)
96 (4)	82 (2)	115 (7)
128 (9)	124 (8)	149 (13)
83 (3)	132 (10)	166 (14)
61 (1)	135 (11)	147 (12)
101 (5)	109 (6)	
ΣR ₁ = 22	ΣR ₂ = 37	ΣR ₃ = 46
Values into bra	ickets = ranks (or	ders)





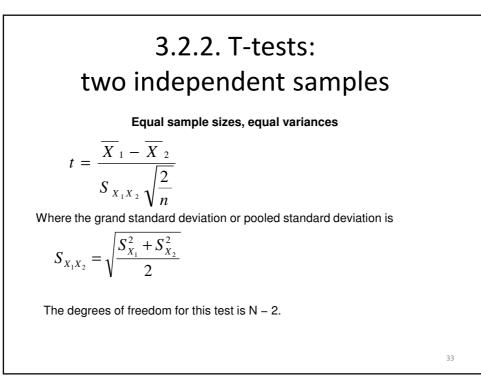


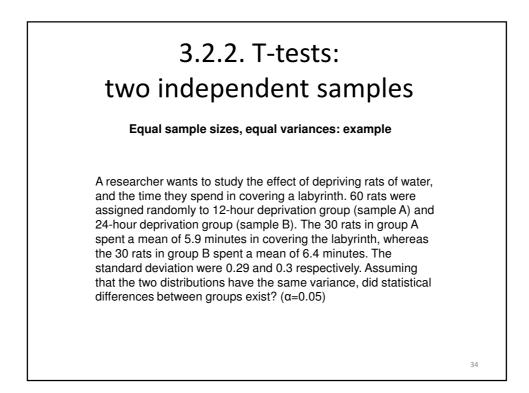
3.2.2. T-tests: significance in all cases

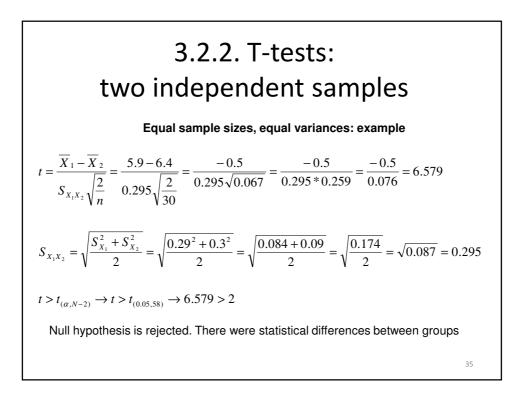
 $-t > t_{(theoretical)} \rightarrow$ Null hypothesis is rejected. The model is valid. The slope is statistically different from 0. There is, therefore, relationship between variables.

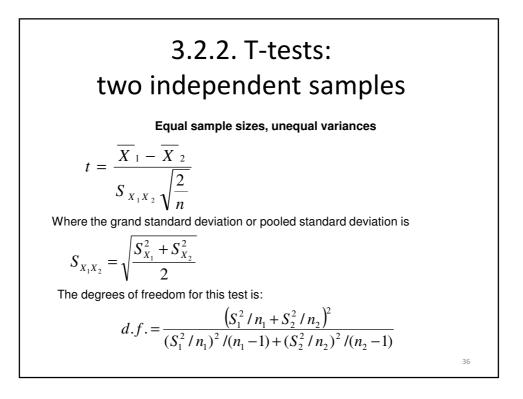
 $-t \le t_{(theoretical)} \rightarrow$ Null hypothesis is accepted. The model is not valid. The slope is statistically equal to 0. There is not, therefore, relationship between variables.

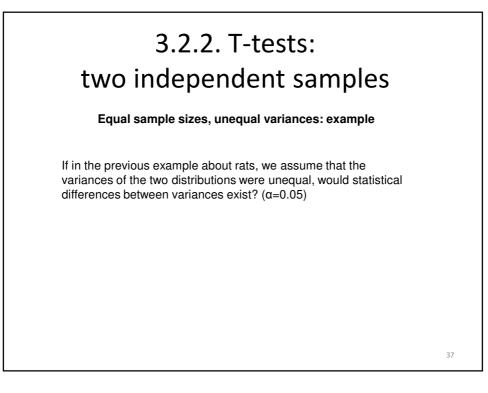
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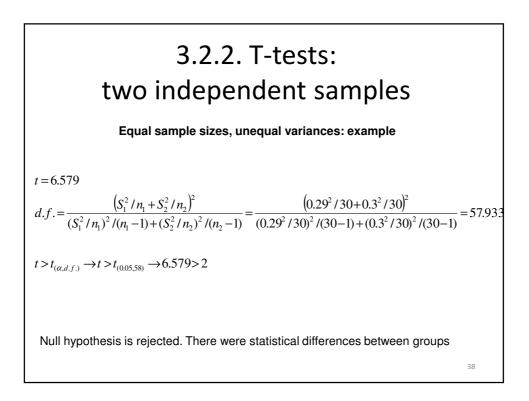


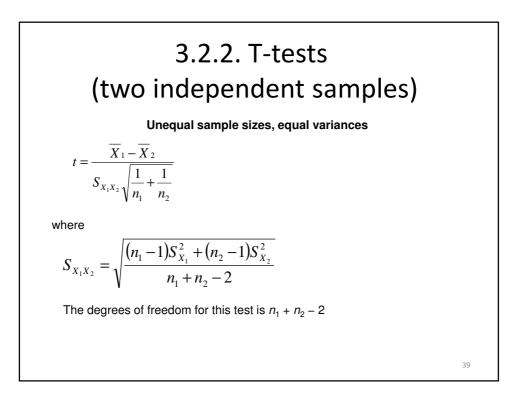


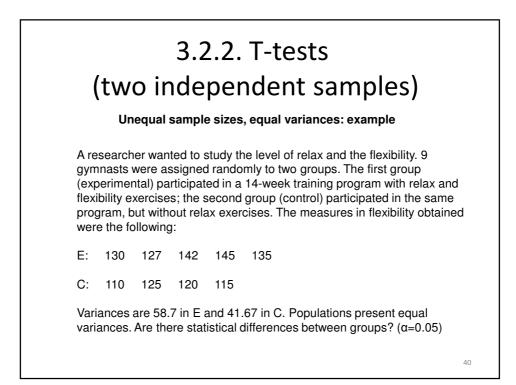


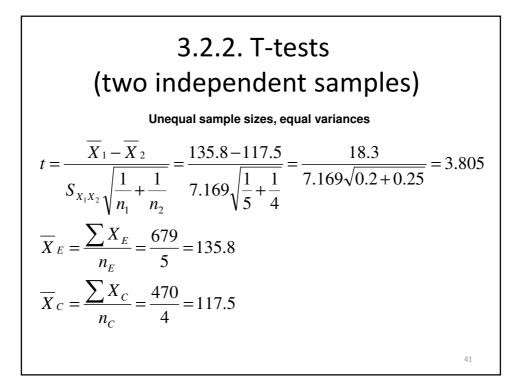


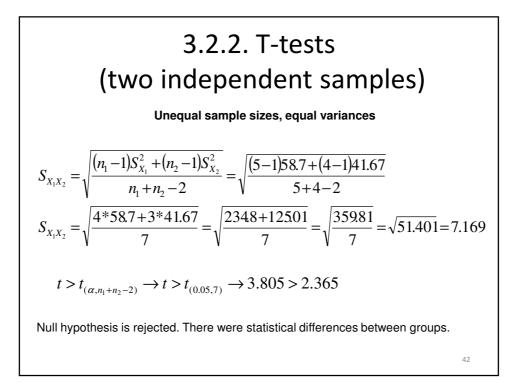


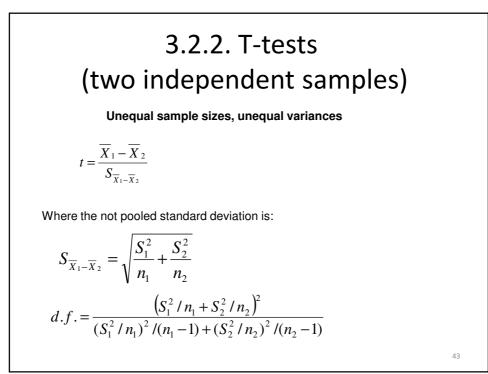


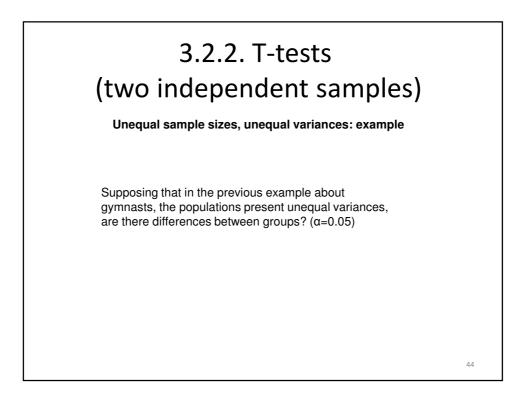


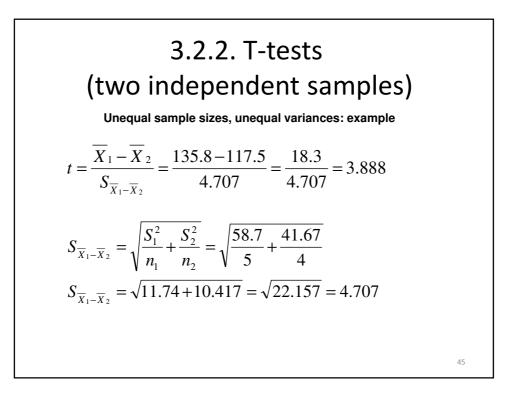


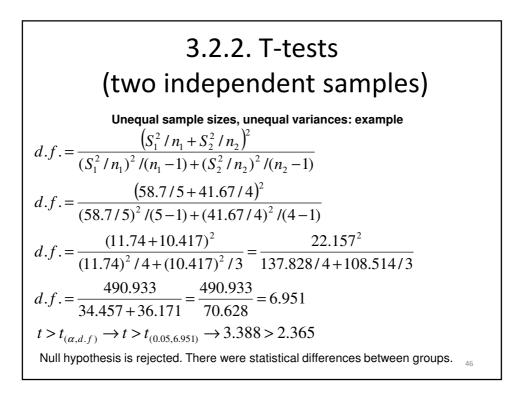


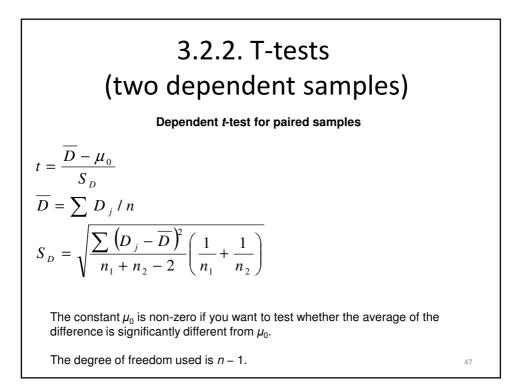


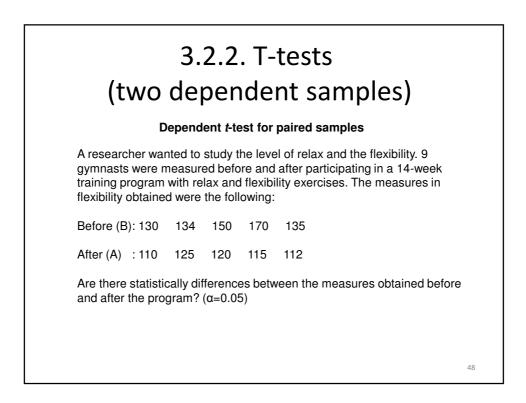




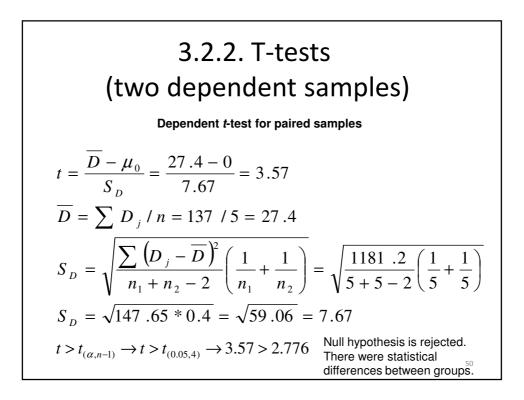








(two dependent samples) Dependent <i>t</i> -test for paired samples				
В	А	Dj	$D_j - \overline{D}$	$(D_j - \overline{D})^2$
130	110	20	-7.4	54.76
134	125	9	-18.4	338.56
150	120	30	2.6	6.76
170	115	55	27.6	761.76
135	112	23	-4.4	19.36
719	582	137	0	1181.2



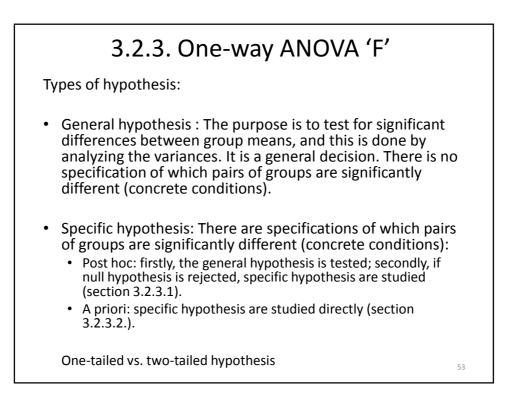
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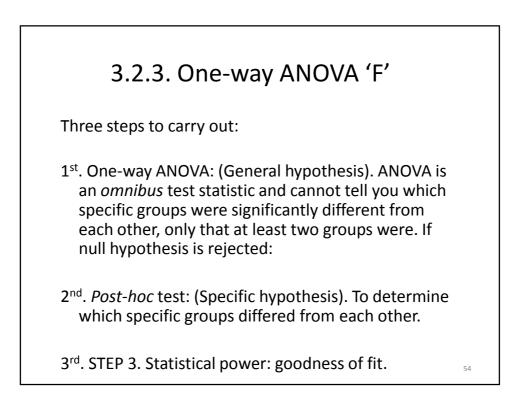
3.2.3. One-way ANOVA 'F'

 While the t-test is limited to compare means of two groups, one-way ANOVA can compare more than two groups. Therefore, the t-test is considered a special case of one-way ANOVA.

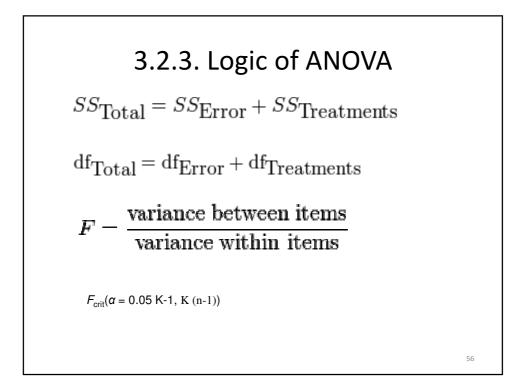
3.2.3. One-way ANOVA 'F'

- 'Factor': Qualitative independent variable (number of values ≥ 2; number of conditions).
- Quantitative dependent variable (Interval or ratio variable).
- Dependent variable normally distributed.
- Independence of error effects.
- Homogeneity of variance.
- Sphericity (in longitudinal studies).





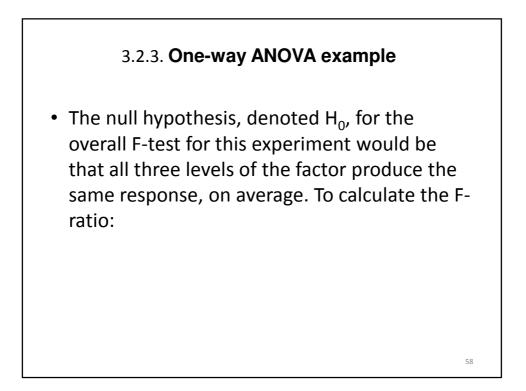
Sources of variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F
Treatments Between groups	$n\sum_{j=1}^{n} \left(\overline{y}_{ij} - \overline{y}_{ij}\right)^2$	K-1	SS _b /df _b	
Residuals/Error Within groups	$\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_{ij} - \overline{y}_{j})^2$	K (n-1)	SS _W /df _W	MS _b /MS _w
Total	$\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=1}^{i} \left(\boldsymbol{y}_{ij} - \bar{\boldsymbol{y}}_{ij}\right)^{2}$	N -1		

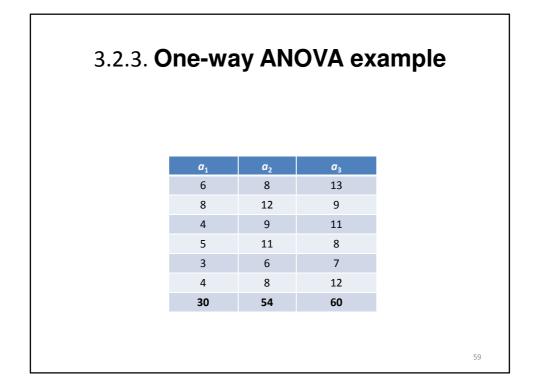


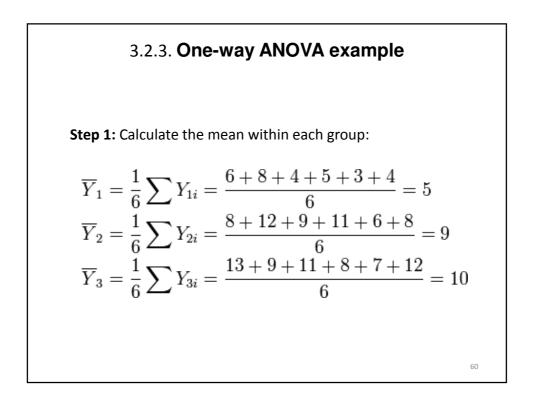
3.2.3. One-way ANOVA: example

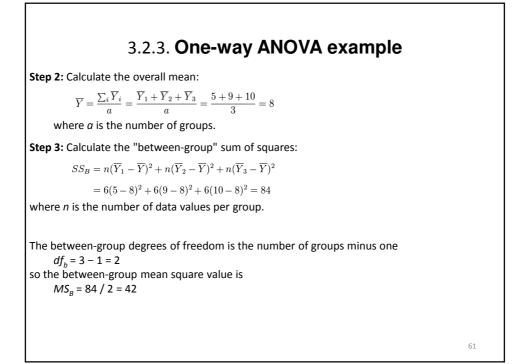
Consider an experiment to study the effect of three different levels of some factor on a response (e.g. three types of fertilizer on plant growth). If we had 6 observations for each level, we could write the outcome of the experiment in a table like the following, where a_1 , a_2 , and a_3 are the three levels of the factor being studied. (α =0.05)

a 1	a2	a ₃
6	8	13
8	12	9
4	9	11
5	11	8
3	6	7
4	8	12









3.2.3. One-way ANOVA example Step 4: Calculate the "within-group" sum of squares. Begin by centering

U 1		
<i>a</i> ₁	<i>a</i> ₂	<i>a</i> ₃
6 - 5 = 1	8 - 9 = -1	13 - 10 = 3
8 – 5 = 3	12 - 9 = 3	9 - 10 = -1
4 – 5 = -1	9 - 9 = 0	11 - 10 = 1

11 - 9 = 2

6 – 9 = -3

8 - 9 = -1

The within-group sum of squares is the sum of squares of all 18 values in this table $SS_W = 1 + 9 + 1 + 0 + 4 + 1 + 1 + 9 + 0 + 4 + 9 + 1 + 9 + 1 + 1 + 4 + 9 + 4 = 68$ The within-group degrees of freedom is $df_W = a(n-1) = 3(6-1) = 15$

Thus the within-group mean square value is

5 - 5 = 0

3 - 5 = -2

4 - 5 = -1

the data in each group

 $MS_W = SS_W/df_W = 68/15 \approx 4.5$

8 - 10 = -2

7 - 10 = -3

12 - 10 = 2

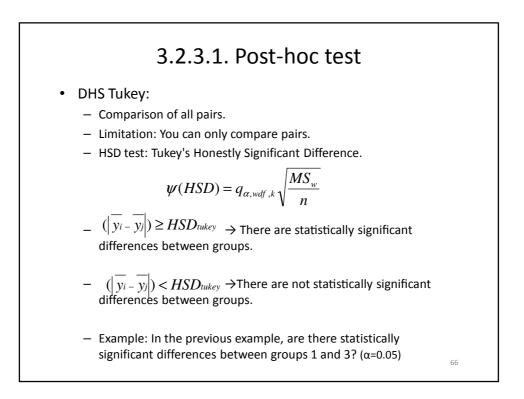
 $\begin{array}{l} \text{SS}_{r}=84+68=152\\ \text{df}_{r}=18-1=17 \end{array}$ Step 5: The F-ratio is $F=\frac{MS_B}{MS_W}\approx 42/4.5\approx 9.3$ $F_{\text{crit}}(2,15)=3.68 \text{ at } \alpha=0.05.$ Since F=9.3>3.68, the results are significant at the 5% significance level. One would reject the null hypothesis, concluding that there is strong evidence that the expected values in the three groups differ.

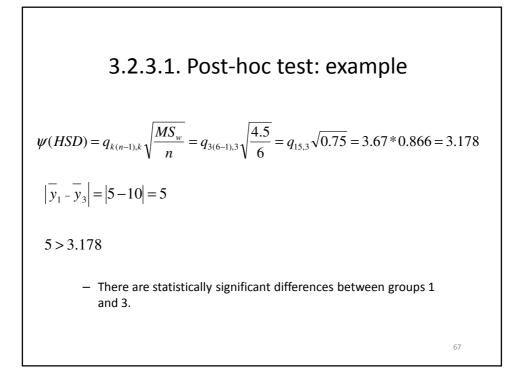
3.2.3. One-way ANOVA example SV SS df MS Between 84 2 42 9.3 Within 68 15 4.5 Total 152 17 64

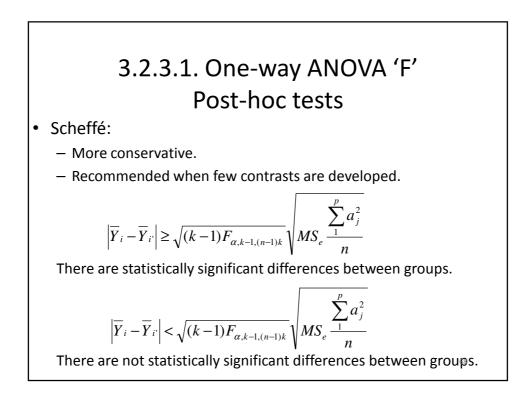
3.2.3.1. 2nd step. Post-hoc test: (Specific hypothesis): To determine which specific groups differed from each other.

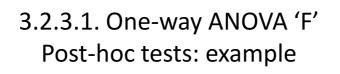
 Post hoc tests can only be used when the 'omnibus' ANOVA found a significant effect. If the F-value for a factor turns out nonsignificant, you cannot go further with the analysis. This 'protects' the post hoc test from being (ab)used too liberally. They are designed to avoid hence of type I error.

- Tukey.
- Scheffé.

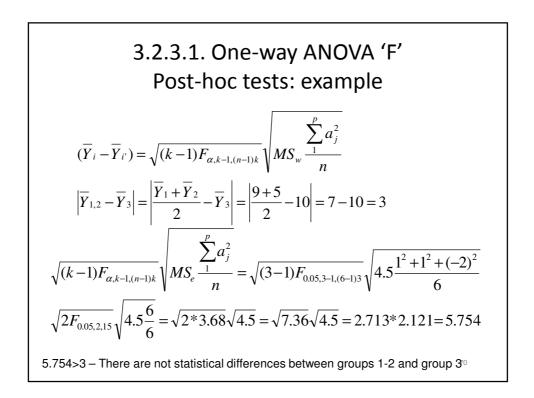








Example: Are there statistical differences between groups 1-2 and group 3?



3.2.3. One-way ANOVA example

The p-value for this test is 0.002.

After performing the F-test, it is common to carry out some "post-hoc" analysis of the group means. In this case, the first two group means differ by **4** units, the first and third group means differ by **5** units, and the second and third group means differ by only **1** unit.

Thus the first group is strongly different from the other groups, as the mean difference is more times the standard error, so we can be highly confident that the population of the **first group differs** from the population means of the other groups. However there is no evidence that the second and third groups have different population means from each other, as their mean difference of one unit is comparable to the standard error.

Note F(x, y) denotes an F-distribution with x degrees of freedom in the numerator and y degrees of freedom in the denominator.

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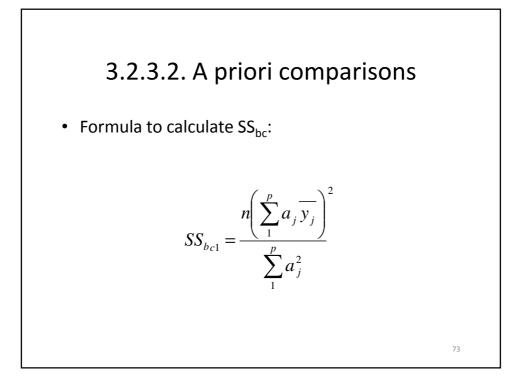
3.2.3.2. A priori comparisons They are used when the general hypothesis is not of interest; only specific

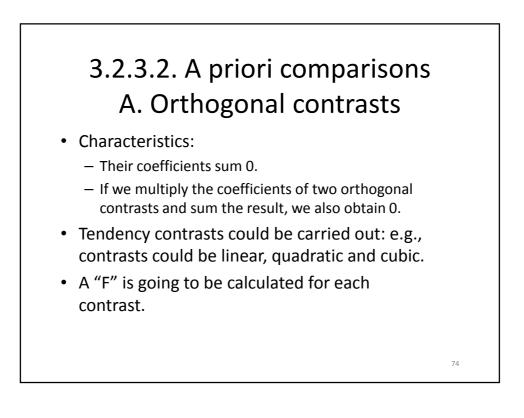
• Snedecor F is not calculated.

hypothesis are set out.

- Types of a priori comparisons:
 - Non-orthogonal contrasts:
 - When lot of contrasts are done, type I error (α =probability of being wrong when rejecting the null hypothesis) increases.
 - When c>k-1(c=number of contrasts), correction of α is required.
 - When c≤k-1, some authors recommend the correction and others consider that it is not necessary.
 - Orthogonal contrasts: α does not increase, so correction is not necessary (in post-hoc contrasts, the correction is not necessary either because Scheffé and Tukey formulas already control this increase).

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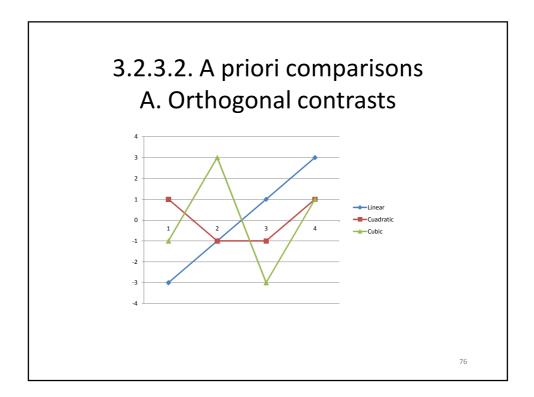




3.2.3.2. A priori comparisons A. Orthogonal contrasts

- k-1 possible contrasts.
- Example of coefficients to study tendency:

Linear	a ₁ -3	a ₂ -1	a ₃	a ₄
Quadratic	1	-1	-1	1
Cubic	-1	3	-3	1



3.2.3.2. A priori comparisons A. Orthogonal contrasts

Example 1: how to create orthogonal coefficients

Contrast 1	a ₁ +4	a ₂ -1	a ₃ -1	-1	a ₅ -1
Contrast 2	0	-1	-1	+3	-1
Contrast 3					
Contrast 4					

	C	l contr		nts
a ₁	a ₂	a ₃	a ₄	a ₅
+4	-1	-1	-1	-1
0	-1	-1	+3	-1
0	+2	-1	0	-1
0	0	+1	0	-1
	a ₁ +4 0 0	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

3.2.3.2. A priori comparisons A. Orthogonal contrasts

Example 2: how to create orthogonal coefficients

	a ₁	a ₂	a ₃	a ₄	a ₅
Contrast 1	+3	+3	-2	-2	-2
Contrast 2	0	0	+1	-2	+1
Contrast 3					
Contrast 4					

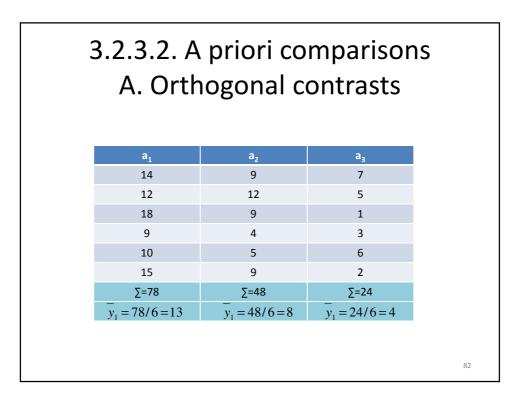
A	. Orth	priori ogona	l conti	rasts	
			1	1	1
	a_1	a ₂	a ₃	a_4	a ₅
Contrast 1	a ₁ +3	a ₂ +3	a ₃ -2	a ₄ -2	a ₅ -2
Contrast 1 Contrast 2	1				
	+3	+3	-2	-2	-2

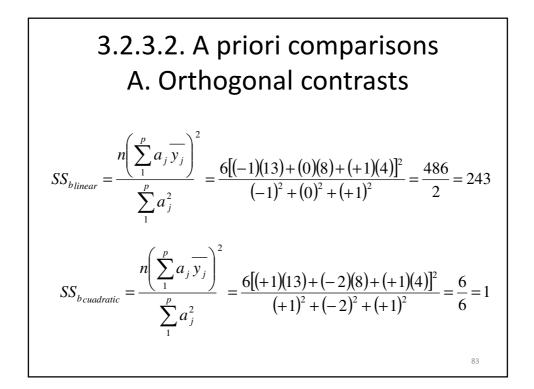


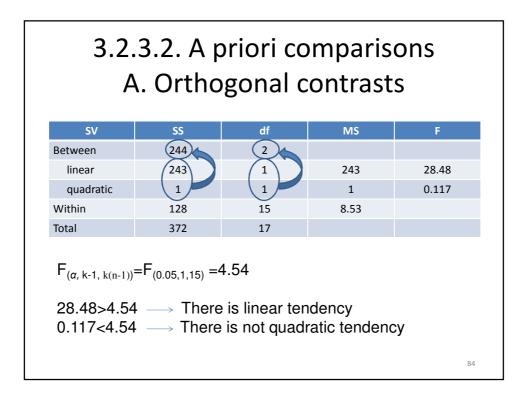
 Example (obtained from López, J., Trigo, M. E. y Arias, M. A.(1999). *Diseños experimentales. Planificación y análisis*. Sevilla: Kronos):

a ₁	a ₂	a ₃
14	9	7
12	12	5
18	9	1
9	4	3
10	5	6
15	9	2

Knowing that SS_w=128, do this data present linear or quadratic tendency? (α =0.05) $$_{\rm 81}$



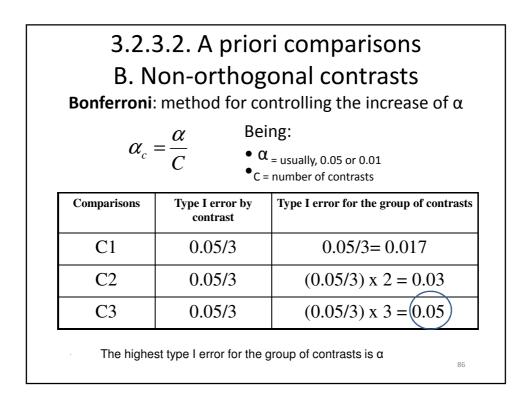




3.2.3.2. A priori comparisonsB. Non-orthogonal contrasts

When lot of contrasts are done, type I error (α =probability of being wrong when rejecting the null hypothesis) increases for the group of contrasts :

C1	0.05	0.05
	0.05	0.05
C2	0.05	$0.05 \ge 2 = 0.1$
C3	0.05	0.05 x 3 = 0.15



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3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

- In a longitudinal study, each participant presents at least a score for each condition.
- The most important assumption to take into account is the **sphericity**.
- Steps:
 - 1. Testing assumptions.
 - 2. One-way ANOVA F.
 - 3. Effect size.

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

Step 1. Testing assumptions:

- **Normality:** it is not important because F is robust even when it is violated.
- Independence of errors: it is usually violated because the measurements of the same person tends to be similar.
- **Homoscedasticity:** it is usually violated because the scores obtained closer in time are more similar.

Although the two last assumptions are violated, F could be used if the relationship between variances and covariances are of **sphericity**.

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies Step 2. One-way ANOVA F							
SV	SS	df	MS	F			
BETWEEN SUBJECTS	$k \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_{})^{2}$	n-1					
WITHIN SUBJECTS	$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} (y_{ij} - \overline{y}_{i.})^{2}$	n(k-1)					
А	$n\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left(\overline{y}_{i,j}-\overline{y}_{i,i}\right)^{2}$	k-1	SS_A/df_A	MS _A /MS _{SxA}			
Subjects x A (error)	$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{k} (y_{ij} + \bar{y}_{} - \bar{y}_{i.} - \bar{y}_{.j})^{2}$	(n-1)(k-1)	SS _{SxA} /df _{SxA}				
TOTAL	$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \left(y_{ij} - \overline{y}_{} \right)^{2}$	nk-1					
				89			

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

Step 2. One-way ANOVA F

- Three stages test:
 - It is used in order to try to avoid unnecessary calculations. Adjusted ε has to be calculated if we can not conclude based on the two first stages, and we have to carry out the third one.
 - $-\epsilon$ (epsilon = measurement of the degree in which the assumption sphericity is violated) is going to be multiplied by the degrees of freedom of the theoretical F.

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3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

Step 2. One-way ANOVA F

Stage 1: normal F (ϵ =1) (too easy to reject H₀).

- If H_o is accepted, we do not have to do anything else.
- If H_o is rejected, accepting this conclusion would imply to have a high level of possibility of committing type I error. We carry out stage 2.

Stage 2: conservative F; $\epsilon = 1/(k-1)$ (too difficult to reject H₀).

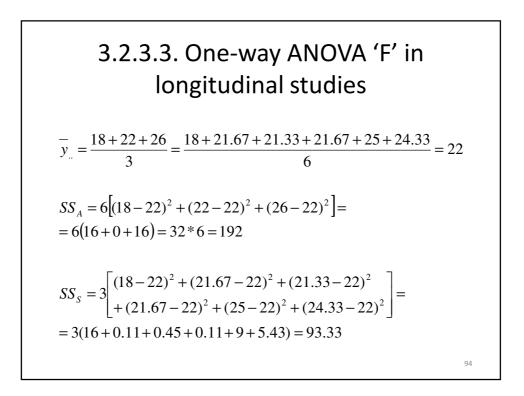
- If H_o is rejected, we do not have to do anything else.

- If H_o is accepted, we have to carry out stage 3.

Stage 3: F; 1/(k-1)< ε <1.

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies Example. We would like to study the effect that different revisions of a material (a₁=first revision; a_2 =second revision; a_3 =third revision) produce in the memorization. Participants 1 14 18 22 2 16 22 27 3 14 20 30 4 18 23 24 22 26 27 5 24 23 6 26 92

Participants a_1 a_2 a_3 Σ y_i 1141822541821622276521.6731420306421.3341823246521.675222627752562423267324.33 Σ 108132156108 y_i 18222626	3.2.3. 			•	IOVA udies		ו
2 16 22 27 65 21.67 3 14 20 30 64 21.33 4 18 23 24 65 21.67 5 22 26 27 75 25 6 24 23 26 73 24.33 Σ 108 132 156	Participants	a ₁	a ₂	a ₃	Σ	У _{<i>i</i>.}	
3 14 20 30 64 21.33 4 18 23 24 65 21.67 5 22 26 27 75 25 6 24 23 26 73 24.33 Σ 108 132 156 5 5	1	14	18	22	54	18	
4 18 23 24 65 21.67 5 22 26 27 75 25 6 24 23 26 73 24.33 Σ 108 132 156	2	16	22	27	65	21.67	
5 22 26 27 75 25 6 24 23 26 73 24.33 Σ 108 132 156	3	14	20	30	64	21.33	
6 24 23 26 73 24.33 Σ 108 132 156	4	18	23	24	65	21.67	
Σ 108 132 156	5	22	26	27	75	25	
	6	24	23	26	73	24.33	
v 18 22 26	Σ	108	132	156			
<i>y</i> _{.j} 20 22 20	$\overline{y}_{.i}$	18	22	26			



3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

$$\begin{split} SS_{AxS} &= (14+22-18-18)^2 + (16+22-21.67-18)^2 + (14+22-21.33-18)^2 + \\ (18+22-21.67-18)^2 + (22+22-25-18)^2 + (24+22-24.33-18)^2 + \\ (18+22-18-22)^2 + (22+22-21.67-22)^2 + (20+22-21.33-22)^2 + \\ (23+22-21.67-22)^2 + (26+22-25-22)^2 + (23+22-24.33-22)^2 + \\ (22+22-18-26)^2 + (27+22-21.67-26)^2 + (30+22-21.33-26)^2 + \\ (24+22-21.67-26)^2 + (27+22-25-26)^2 + (26+22-24.33-26)^2 = \\ 0+2.79+11.09+0.11+1+13.47+0+0.33+1.77+1.77+1+1.77+0+1.77 + \\ +21.81+2.79+4+5.43=70.67 \end{split}$$

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies SV SS df MS F BETWEEN 5 93.33 **SUBJECTS** WITHIN 262.67 12 SUBJECTS А 192 2 96 13.58 Subjects x A (error) 70.67 10 7.07 TOTAL 356 17

3.2.3.3. One-way ANOVA 'F' in longitudinal studies

 $F_{(\alpha, k-1, (n-1)(k-1))} = F_{(0.05, 2, 10)} = 4.1$

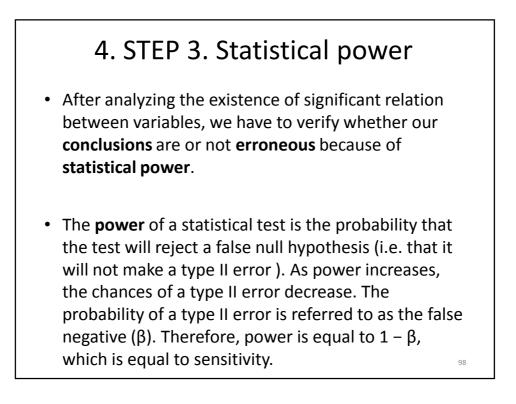
Three stages test:

Stage 1: normal F (ε=1).

 $\begin{aligned} F_{(\alpha, (k-1)\varepsilon, (n-1)(k-1)\varepsilon} = F_{(0.05, 2*1, 10*1)} = 4.1 \\ 13.58 > 4.1 \rightarrow H_o \text{ is rejected, so we have to carry out stage 2.} \end{aligned}$

Stage 2: conservative F; $\epsilon = 1/(k-1) = 1/(3-1) = 0.5$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{F}_{(\alpha, \, (k-1)\epsilon, \, (n-1)(k-1)\,\epsilon} = \mathsf{F}_{(0.05, \, 2^{*}0.5, \, 10^{*}0.5)} = \mathsf{F}_{(0.05, \, 1, \, 5)} = 6.61 \\ 13.58 > 6.61 \rightarrow \mathsf{H}_{o} \text{ is rejected, so we do not have to carry out stage} \\ 3. This is the final decision. \end{array}$



4. STEP	3. Statistical	power
	DECIS	SION
	Accept H _o	Reject H_o
$\rm H_{o}$ is true	1-α: Level of confidence	α : Type I error
$\rm H_{o}$ is false	β: Type II error	1- β Power

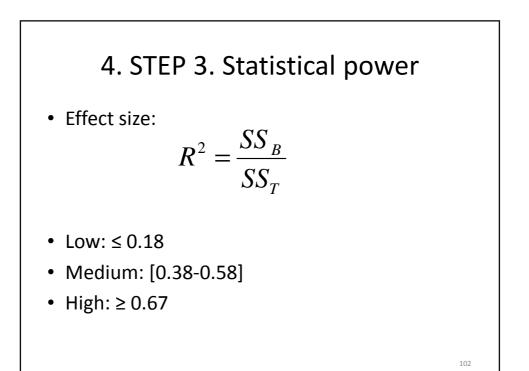
4. STEP 3. Statistical power

- Power analysis can be used to calculate the minimum sample size required to accept the outcome of a statistical test with a particular level of confidence. It can also be used to calculate the minimum effect size that is likely to be detected in a study using a given sample size.
- In statistics, an **effect size** is a measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables in a statistical population, or a sample-based estimation of that quantity.

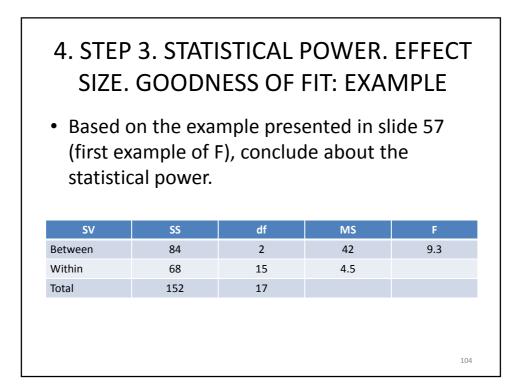
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4. STEP 3. Statistical power

- Pearson's correlation, often denoted 'r', is widely used as an effect size when two quantitative variables are available; for instance, if one was studying the relationship between birth weight and longevity.
- A related effect size is the coefficient of determination (r-squared = R²). In the case of two variables, this is a measure of the proportion of variance shared by both, and varies from 0 to 1. An R² of 0.21 means that 21% of the variance of a variable is shared with the other variable.



4. STEP 3. STATISTICAL POWER. EFFECT SIZE. GOODNESS OF FIT					
	Significant effect	Non-significant effect			
High effect size	The effect probably exists	The non- significance can be due to low statistical power			
Low effect size	The statistical significance can be due to an excessive high statistical power	The effect probably does not exist			



4. STEP 3. STATISTICAL POWER. EFFECT SIZE. GOODNESS OF FIT: EXAMPLE

• Medium effect size:

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_B}{SS_T} = \frac{84}{152} = 0.553$$

- Significant: 9.3 > 3.68
- Conclusion: The effect probably exists

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