**Chapter 1: Concepts and Examples of Research**

Preview Questions

1. What is regression analysis?
2. What are the key concepts of applied regression analysis?
3. What are multivariable techniques?
4. What’s the difference between experimental, quasi-experimental, and observational research?
5. What is a response variable?
6. What is a predictor variable?
7. What are examples of the type of research that can be done using regression analysis?

Reading Summary

Key concepts in empirical research

* Empirical research examines the relationship among a number of variables.
* Variables are factors that are measured for observational units or subjects.
* Multivariable methods use statistical techniques to examine the relationship among at least three variables.
* Regression analysis is a type of multivariable method.

Types of research

* Experimental, in which observational units or subjects are randomly assigned levels of predictor variables.
* Quasi-experimental, in which observational units or subjects are assigned levels of predictor variables but not in a random manner.
* Observational, in which observational units are not assigned levels of predictor variables.

Characteristics of research

* Multivariable methods are applicable to all three types of research.
* Each type of research provides a different level of confidence one can have in the results.
* The response variable is the dependent variable, which is influenced by predictor variables.
* Predictor variables are independent variables, which influence the response variable.
* Typically one (1) response variable and one (1) or more predictor variables.
* Potential for drawing definitive conclusions: observational < quasi-experimental < experimental
* Difficulty of implementation: observational < quasi-experimental < experimental

Measuring variables

* Error is unavoidable in measuring variables.
* Error in measuring variables gives rise to the need for statistical design and analysis.

Types of statistical inference

* Estimation comprises describing the characteristics and strength of the relationship among variables by quantifying them.
* Hypothesis testing comprises prosing explanations about the relationship among variables, stating probabilities about the reasonableness of such explanations, and drawing conclusions based on the stated probabilities.

**Chapter 2: Classification of Variables and the Choice of Analysis**

Preview Questions

1. What is gappiness?
2. What is level of measurement precision?
3. What is meant by descriptive orientation?
4. How do you overlap variable classification systems?
5. How do you choose a method of analysis?

Reading Summary

Approaches to classifying variables

* Classifications for variables help in deciding which methods to use for an analysis.
* Three methods for classifying variables are:
  + By the gappiness
  + By the level of measurement precision
  + By the descriptive orientation

Gappiness

* Gappiness refers to whether or not gaps exist between successive observations of the values of a variable.
* Discrete variables have gaps.
* Non-numeric data may be numerically coded as discrete variables.
* Continuous variables DO NOT have gaps (i.e., between any two values another value can potentially exist).
* Data on discrete variables are represented by a line chart to display sampling frequency.
* Data for continuous variables are grouped into intervals (e.g., histogram) to display sampling frequency.
* Discrete variables can be treated like continuous variables for analysis purposes when the values of a variable are not far apart and cover a wide range of numbers.
* Continuous variables are sometimes treated like discrete variables for analysis purposes.
* Considerations when deciding whether to categorize continuous variables:
  + Makes data collection easier
  + Simplifies the presentation of results
  + Information is lost
* Considerations for deciding when to categorize continuous variables:
  + At the time of collection
    - Less expensive
    - Less time consuming
    - Less precise
    - More likely to introduce human error (i.e., classification error)
  + At the time of analysis
    - Less error prone
    - Enables consideration of various classification schemes
* Errors
  + Classification error is a factor with discrete variables.
  + Measurement error is a factor with continuous variables.

Level of measurement precision

* Three (3) levels of measurement precision
  + Nominal (i.e., categorical) indicates different categories for the variable.
  + Ordinal indicates different categories for the variable and the order of the categories matters.
  + Interval indicates different categories for the variable, the order of the categories matters, and the distance between categories has meaning.
* Ratio variables or ratio-scale variables are interval variables in which the scale has a true zero.
* Measurement error for ratio-scale variables often have a non-normal distribution and are proportional to the size of the measurement.
* An interval scale is also ordinal and nominal.
* An ordinal scale is also nominal.

Descriptive orientation

* Descriptive orientation indicates whether a variable is meant to describe or be described by other variables.
  + Response or dependent variables are typically denoted by letter Y.
  + Predictor, regressor, or independent variables are typically denoted by letter X.
* Control variables are independent variables that affect relationships among other independent variables in a study but are of no interest.
* Control variables are sometimes referred to as nuisance variables, covariates, or confounders.

Overlap of Classification Schemes

* Any variable can be labeled according to each scheme.
* See Figure 2.5 (p. 12) for diagram of classification scheme overlap.
* All nominal variables are discrete but NOT all discrete variables are nominal.
* All continuous variables are ordinal and interval but NOT all ordinal and interval variables are continuous.

Choosing a method of analysis

* There are four considerations:
  + Purpose of the research
  + Mathematical characteristics of the variables
  + Statistical assumptions about the variables
  + Data collection method (i.e., sampling procedure)
* See Table 2.1 (p. 13) regarding guidance for choosing analysis methods
* Methods not covered
  + Nonparametric methods, which don’t require the data to fit a normal distribution
  + Cluster analysis

**Chapter 3: Basic Statistics Review**

Preview Questions

1. What are descriptive statistics?
2. What are random variables?
3. How are random variables distributed?
4. What are sampling distributions?
5. What is statistical inference?
6. How is statistical inference done?
7. What are error rates?
8. How is the power of an analysis determined?
9. What is the impact of sample size on an analysis?

Reading Summary

Basic overview

* Statistical analysis includes collecting, classifying, summarizing, and analyzing data.
* The text focuses on summarizing and analyzing data.
* Statistical inference is drawing valid conclusions about a population based on information about a sample from that population.
* A population is any set of items or measurements.
* A sample is any subset taken from a population.
* Descriptive statistics should be reviewed before making statistical inferences.
* Statistical inference
  + Two types are estimation and hypothesis testing
  + Based on certain assumptions about the distribution of random variables

Descriptive Statistics

* Descriptive statistics are measures computed from a set of data designed to describe aspects of the data.
* Most common types of descriptive statistics:
  + Central tendency (mean, median, and mode), which indicates average value of a variable.
  + Variability (dispersion), which indicates the extent to which the values of a variable differ from one another.
* Sample mean uses all observations in its calculation, but median and mode do not.
* Most common measures of variability:
  + Sample variance is the averaged squared deviation about the mean (Eq. on p. 17)
  + Sample variance (S2), which is expressed in squared units of the variable of interest
  + Sample standard deviation (S) = square root of sample variance, which is expressed in the same units of the variable of interest
* Plots of the data are a convenient way to examine data and are often revealing
  + Histogram (see Figure 3.1 on p. 18), which can be converted to a stem-and-leaf diagram
  + Stem-and-leaf diagram(see Figure 3.1 on p. 18)
  + Schematic plot, which is also called a box-and-whiskers plot
* Box-and-whiskers plot
  + Bottom line of box is the 25th percentile of data
  + Middle line of box is the 50th percentile of data
  + Top line of box is the 75th percentile of data
  + Top line - Bottom line = interquartile range (ICR)
  + + in box indicates the mean
  + Vertical lines extend from box as far as the data extend up to 1.5 ICRs
  + O beyond the vertical lines indicate moderate outliers

Random variables and distributions

* A random variable is a variable in which the observed values can be considered to result of a random experiment and cannot be anticipated with any certainty.
* Stochastic means randomly determined sequence of observations.
* Random variables denoted by capital letters.
* The probability distribution of a random variable is the pattern of the relative frequencies of all possible values in a population.
* The probability distribution is represented by a table, graph, or equation.
* For discrete random variables, the height of the lines of the line chart represents the probabilities of each possible outcome.
  + The sum of all probabilities for a random variable equal 1.
* For continuous random variables, the area under the curve between two points represents the probability associated with that range of values.
  + The total area under the curve equals 1.
  + The probability of any one particular value is 0.

Binomial distribution, B(n,π)

* The number of occurrences of a particular event in a series of n trials, where:
  + The trials are conducted in the same way.
  + There are only two possible outcomes for each trial, which is represented as π and 1-π
  + The outcome of any one trial is NOT affected by the outcome of any other trial.
  + The probability of success (π) remains the same for each trial.
* X ᴖ B(n,π) 🡪 random variable X as distributed by the binomial distribution with a probability of success of π in n trials.

Normal distribution, N(μ,σ)

* Symmetrical bell curve
* μ is the mean of the distribution
* σ is the standard deviation of the distribution

Standard normal distribution

* μ = 0, σ = 1
* To standardize X ᴖ N(μX,σX)
  + Z = (X - μX) / σX
  + X = μX + σX Z
* P(a <= X <= b) = P[(a - μX) / σX  <= Z <= (b - μX) / σX ]
  + Look up equivalent probability statement about Z in the N(0,1) table
* When X is normally distributed and the sample size is moderately large, the same rule applies to the mean
  + Z = (Ẋ - μX) / σẊ = (Ẋ - μX) / ( σX / Sqrt(n))
  + Ẋ = μX + ( σX / Sqrt(n)) Z = μX + ( σX Z / Sqrt(n))
* Z function can be used to approximated binomial distribution B(n,π) when n > 20
  + μ = nπ
  + σ = Sqrt[nπ(1-π)]

Normal probability plot

* Assesses how well sample data adheres to a normal distribution
* Plot ordered data values against corresponding percentiles from an estimated normal distribution.
* Cumulative relative frequencies of a normal distribution plot as a straight line.

Assessing normality

* Skewness indicates the amount of asymmetry of a distribution
  + Represented by sk(X)
  + Skewness is the average of cubed deviations about the mean (Eq. on p. 23)
* Kurtosis indicates the heaviness of the tail relative to the middle of a distribution
  + Represented by Kur(X)
  + The average of the fourth power of the deviations about the mean (Eq. on p. 23).
  + Is always non-negative.
  + Kurtosis for standardized normal distribution is 3.
  + -3 <= Kur(Z) < 0 for flat distributions with short tails.
  + Kur(Z) ≈ 0 for moderate to large random samples from a normal distribution.
  + Kur(Z) > 0 for heavy-tailed distributions.

Sampling distributions