

Statistics

Week 1: Collecting Data (Chapter 3)

ESD, SUTD

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SINGAPORE UNIVERSITY OF
TECHNOLOGY AND DESIGN

Established in collaboration with MIT

Outline

- 1 From last class
- 2 Sampling designs
- 3 Experimental studies
- 4 Block design and Latin square

Excel

If you use *Excel* on a Mac:

Download StatPlus:mac LE for free from AnalystSoft, and then use it while running *Excel*.

It should work similarly to the Analysis ToolPak.

Unmatched count

For the 1991 Race and Politics Survey, see the paper J. H. Kuklinski and M. D. Cobb, *Racial Attitudes and the "New South"*, The Journal of Politics, **59** (1997), p323–349.

Some conclusion:

- For the non-South regions, unmatched count failed to give meaningful results (many people upset about everything). Other techniques gave racial discrimination at about 10%.
- For the South, unmatched count gave meaningful results. Racial discrimination at around 40%.

Randomized response

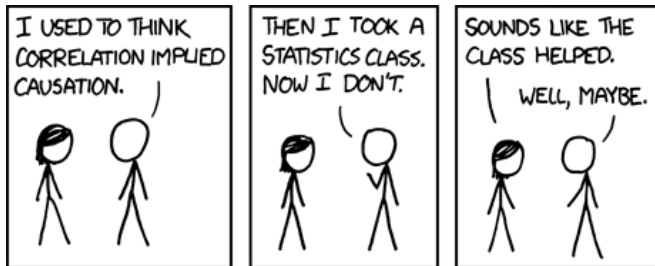
See file on *eDimension*.

For this question, you can partially *check* your answer by considering some simple (boundary) cases:

- What would be the proportion of YES if the consumption rate was 0%?
- What would be the proportion of YES if the consumption rate was 100%?

Being able to check your own work is extremely important.

From <http://xkcd.com/552/>



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Sampling

In many applications, the population is so large that sampling is the only practical option.

In some applications, destructive testing (such as crash tests) is required, so sampling is the only feasible option.

Before you sample, you need to:

- Define the population of concern.
- Specify what you want to measure.
- Specify a sampling method.
- Determine the sample size.

Questions

Why do we have to specify what to measure? (Multiple testing.)

Why do we have to stick to the sample size? (Why can't we stop whenever we want?)

Sampling methods

Convenience sampling: use a sample that is readily available.
(E. g. many psychological studies are done on psychology students.)

Snowball sampling: the first respondent refers to a friend. This friend refers to the next friend, etc.

Simple random sampling: a sample of size n is drawn from a population of size N without replacement, such that each possible sample of size n has the same chance of being chosen.

Demo: we can do this in Excel by creating a list of random numbers and sorting them.

More sampling methods

Systematic sampling: select every k th unit (useful for items coming off an assembly line).

Cluster sampling: divide the population into heterogeneous clusters (e. g. geographic areas), then draw simple random samples from each one. This method saves cost.

Stratified sampling: divide the population into homogeneous groups/strata (e. g. ethnicity, age group), then draw simple random samples. This method is more accurate.

For example, the General Household Survey 2015 used stratified sampling based on dwelling types and planning areas. Within each group, systematic sampling was used.

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Treatment and placebo

Often, the aim of an experiment is to determine the effectiveness of a particular *treatment*.

Examples: medical treatments, diets, new ways of teaching, different work conditions, different production techniques, ...

Problem: the *placebo* effect. A placebo is a simulated and otherwise ineffectual treatment.

Frequently, a patient given a placebo treatment (without knowing it) will have a perceived or actual improvement.

In medicine, common placebos include inert tablets (such as sugar pills) or inert injections.

Examples of placebo

- Placebos that are perceived to be more expensive tend to work better.
- When (falsely) told that a placebo has a certain smell/taste, some patients start to believe that they can smell/taste it.
- When (falsely) told that a placebo has a side-effect (e. g. numbs pain, or causes a rash), some patients actually experience the side-effect.
- Red placebo pills work better as stimulants while blue pills work better as depressants (e. g. sleeping pills).
- Even renaming a medication will temporarily make it more effective due to the novelty.

Examples of placebo

Occasionally, the placebo effect may be advantageous, for instance if a clinic runs out of pain killers.

For a real life example of the placebo effect, watch www.youtube.com/watch?v=udJ31KKXBKk from 1:50 onwards.

There are many related effects, such as the Hawthorne effect: any change in work conditions will temporarily increase productivity, due to the novelty and the perception that the workers are getting attention.

Control group

Therefore, it is important in a study to have a *control group*, which receives either no treatment, the standard treatment, or an ineffectual (placebo) treatment, whichever is most appropriate. This group provides a baseline for comparison.

The control group and treatment group should be allocated randomly.

A study is called *double blind* if both the researcher and the subject are kept unaware of which group they belong to. This removes psychological effects and is more accurate.

However, using placebos in an experiment raises ethical questions as it can be seen as a form of deception. Therefore, any research that involves human subjects must be reviewed and approved by the appropriately authority (at SUTD: the IRB).

Real life examples

- Salk polio vaccine trial: > 200 000 people each in placebo and treatment groups. '6 sigma' (the meaning will be explained later).
- For many vaccines, roughly the same percentage of people in placebo and treatment groups experience side effects.
- 'Although there have been reports of an MSG-sensitive subset of the population, this has not been demonstrated in placebo-controlled trials.'

From M. Freeman, *Reconsidering the effects of monosodium glutamate: a literature review*, J Am Acad Nurse Pract, **18** (2006), p482-486.

Exercise

How would you design an experiment to test whether video games improves one's reflexes?

Think about: whether the study should be observational or experimental, whether to use control groups, etc.

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Randomized block design

Example: suppose we want to compare three medical treatments, A , B and C , for their effectiveness.

It is known that the treatments may affect people of different ages differently.

We are only interested in A , B and C (the *treatment factor*), not in the ages (the *noise factor*).

How to design an experiment? As in stratified sampling, put people of the same age group in a 'block'. Randomize treatment within each block.

11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
A	B	C	A	B
C	A	B	C	C
B	C	A	B	A

Why randomize? To reduce the effects of any hidden variables not accounted for by blocking.

Latin square design

What if there are two noise factors?

Example: suppose we want to compare four types of air fresheners (labeled 1, 2, 3, 4). The tests are done in 4 different rooms and in 4 different months. Both the room and the month have an effect on air quality.

	R_1	R_2	R_3	R_4
M_1				
M_2				
M_3				
M_4				

We can fill in the grid as if it is a (simplified) sudoku puzzle. This is an example of a *Latin square* design.