

Evaluating experiments

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Spurious correlations

`http://www.tylervigen.com/spurious-correlations`

Piracy and global warming

- ▶ Average global temperatures have risen over the last 300 years
- ▶ Number of cases of sea piracy have dropped over the same period
- ▶ Global warming and piracy are (negatively) correlated

Piracy and global warming

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- ▶ Number of cases of sea piracy have dropped over the same period
- ▶ Global warming and piracy are (negatively) correlated
- ▶ Global warming caused by the absence of sea pirates?
- ▶ Would an effective way of reducing global warming be to encourage piracy?
- ▶ Absence of sea pirates caused by global warming?
- ▶ Would an effective way of reducing piracy be to increase our carbon emissions?
- ▶ Association does not demonstrate causation.

Depression and memory

- ▶ Depression is associated with over-general memory.
- ▶ Depression causes memory problems?
- ▶ Memory problems cause depression?
- ▶ Both causal directions?
- ▶ Neither causal direction (e.g. both caused by childhood trauma).
- ▶ It is not possible to distinguish between these accounts on the basis of correlational data.

Longitudinal data does not solve this problem

- ▶ Use of night lights in infancy is correlated with myopia in later life (true).
- ▶ Seems causal? Causes must precede effects. The later myopia cannot cause the earlier use of night lights. So, night lights must be causing myopia?
- ▶ Ban night lights? (genuinely recommended on basis on these data).

Third factor explanations are still possible in longitudinal research

- ▶ A third factor causes both the presence of night lights and myopia.
- ▶ Developing myopia in later life has a genetic component. If your parents are myopic, this increase the chance you will become myopic.
- ▶ Myopic adults, on average, favour higher levels of illumination. This drives their decision to use night lights in their baby's room.
- ▶ The parents' myopia causes both the presence of infant night lights and later myopia.
- ▶ Ban night lights? Clearly, this would be ineffective.

Correlation does not imply causation

- ▶ Correlational research is fundamentally limited.
- ▶ It is extremely unlikely that any two variables are completely unrelated.
- ▶ Many correlations in psychology are very small e.g.
 - ▶ Extroversion explaining 2% of the variation in some other variable.
 - ▶ 2% is detectably different from no correlation
 - ▶ but not meaningful (everything likely to be related to some degree).
- ▶ Partial solution - set a minimum effect size (e.g. ignoring anything below 20% of variation).
- ▶ Still doesn't establish causation.

Determining causation through the Experimental Method

- ▶ Simplest form
 - ▶ Take two groups of people
 - ▶ Do different things to those two groups.
 - ▶ Measure something
- ▶ Independent variable - Intended difference in what we do to the two groups
- ▶ Dependent variable - The thing we measure

Example: Testing a treatment for depression

- ▶ Group 1 - 6 weeks of the new therapy
- ▶ Group 2 - Nothing.
- ▶ Take measure of depression at end (e.g. Beck Depression Inventory).
- ▶ Group 1 are less depressed than Group 2
- ▶ This has the potential to show that the therapy *causes* a reduction in depression.
- ▶ Q: Other possibilities?

Pre-existing differences

- ▶ Group 1 - 6 weeks of the new therapy
- ▶ Group 2 - Nothing.
- ▶ What if Group 1 were happier to start with?
- ▶ Approaches to this problem
 - ▶ Detection
 - ▶ Prevention

Detection

- ▶ Take pre-treatment measures
- ▶ e.g. Measure BDI of both groups before (and after) treatment period.

	Pre	Post
Therapy	25	5
Control	25	25

Prevention

- ▶ Construct groups such that we eliminate pre-existing differences.
- ▶ Matching - Take BDI measures for everyone. Allocate people to groups in such a way that the average BDI for the two groups is identical (or at least, minimized).
- ▶ Randomization - Allocate people to groups randomly.
- ▶ Matching versus Randomization - pros and cons.

Our therapy experiment

- ▶ Use large, randomized groups.
- ▶ Take pre-treatment measures
- ▶ Treatment caused the reduction in depression?

	Pre	Post
Therapy	25	5
Control	25	25

Confounding variables

- ▶ Any variable, other than the one you are attempting to study, that varies between conditions, and which could potentially have led to the effect you observe.

Attrition

- ▶ Attrition - participants dropping out before the end of the study
- ▶ If attrition rates vary between conditions, you may have a major problem.

Example

- ▶ Pre-treatment BDI scores

						Mean
Therapy	6	8	12	15	30	14.2
Control	6	8	12	15	30	14.2

- ▶ The most-depressed 20% drop out of therapy (perhaps because the therapy is quite demanding).
- ▶ There are no drop-outs in the control condition (there's not much to drop out from).
- ▶ Both therapy and control are inert (no effect) - post-treatment BDI equals pre-treatment BDI.

Example

- ▶ Pre-test BDI scores

						Mean
Therapy	6	8	12	15	30	14.2
Control	6	8	12	15	30	14.2

- ▶ Post-test BDI scores

						Mean
Therapy	6	8	12	15		10.25
Control	6	8	12	15	30	14.2

- ▶ A therapy we know to be ineffective appears to have worked, due to non-random differential attrition.

Placebo effect

- ▶ Classic example
 - ▶ Someone has a headache
 - ▶ Give them a pill with no active ingredient
 - ▶ Tell them it's a headache tablet
 - ▶ Their headache symptoms reduce
- ▶ Lesson - In order to assess drug effectiveness you need to test drug vs. placebo, NOT drug vs. nothing.
- ▶ The placebo effect typically accounts for some, but not all, of a drug's effectiveness.
- ▶ In the case of anti-depressant medication, the effect seems to be almost entirely placebo.

Placebo effect in psychological therapy

- ▶ Perhaps the therapy is inert?
- ▶ The treatment group are happier because they have the expectation that what they are receiving will work.
- ▶ Problem - a placebo pill is known to be inert; what is the equivalent in therapy?
- ▶ There is no agreement - there's someone willing to endorse the effectiveness of almost any therapy.

Placebo effect in psychological therapy

- ▶ Solution - set out to show that your new therapy works better than an existing treatment (or, as well as existing treatment, if yours is better in some practical way e.g. cheaper).
- ▶ Problem - this is seldom done.
- ▶ Worse problem - where it is done, treatments seldom differ.
- ▶ Example - Posting a pamphlet on CBT as effective as 6 weeks of 1-to-1 sessions with therapist

Demand characteristics

- ▶ Participants' responses may be affected by a desire to comply with what they think the experimenter wants to see.

Example - Evaluative conditioning

- ▶ Pairing something neutral with something people already like increases their liking of the neutral item.
- ▶ Applied in advertising
- ▶ Coke can paired with beautiful smiling people.
- ▶ Department store paired with heart-warming story of cross-species friendship

Evaluative conditioning - Experimental demonstration

- ▶ Show picture of soft-drink can.
- ▶ Pair repeatedly with something positive.
- ▶ Liking ratings go up in this treatment group...
- ▶ .. but not in a control group where the can and smiles are both presented, but in an unpaired fashion.
- ▶ Evidence for evaluative conditioning?

Evaluative conditioning - Alternative explanation

- ▶ Participant thinks - “what’s going on here? The experimenter is showing me this coke can and then smiley faces. I think they expect me to like coke more as a result. I wouldn’t want to disappoint them so sure, let’s give it a higher rating than I did last time”.

Confounding variables

- ▶ Any variable, other than the one you are attempting to study, that varies between conditions, and which could potentially have led to the effect you observe.

Confounds discussed so far...

- ▶ Pre-existing differences (address by matching or randomization)
- ▶ Differential attrition (major issue, some partial solutions)
- ▶ Hawthorne effect / Placebo effect
- ▶ Demand characteristics

Therapy example

- ▶ Compare meditation-based therapy with relaxation training.
- ▶ Large, randomized groups.
- ▶ No pre-treatment differences in BDI
- ▶ No differential attrition
- ▶ BDI drops more for meditation than relaxation.
- ▶ Meditation is the more effective treatment.

Therapy example - Closer look

- ▶ Compare meditation-based therapy with relaxation training.
 - ▶ Meditation - Delivered by the people who developed the treatment
 - ▶ Relaxation - Delivered by people with no particular investment in relaxation therapy, who have been on a one-week training course in relaxation therapy.
- ▶ Large, randomized groups.
- ▶ No pre-treatment differences in BDI
- ▶ BDI drops more for meditation than relaxation.
- ▶ Meditation is the more effective treatment.

Therapy example - Closer look

- ▶ Compare meditation-based therapy with relaxation training.
 - ▶ Meditation - Delivered by the people who developed the treatment
 - ▶ Relaxation - Delivered by people with no particular investment in relaxation therapy, who have been on a one-week training course in relaxation therapy.
- ▶ Alternative explanation? - It's not the type of therapy that matters. It's some combination of therapist's belief in the treatment, their experience in delivering it, their general level of therapeutic expertise.

Experimenter Effects - Data analysis - Example

- ▶ Diary entries as a measure of happiness.
- ▶ Participants write about their feelings
- ▶ Experimenter rates for level of happiness.
- ▶ If experimenter knows which condition the participant is in, this may bias their assessment of happiness.

Experimenter Effects - Data analysis

- ▶ Objective measures immune?
- ▶ No! - Data analysis typically involves many decisions, all open to bias.
 - ▶ Should I exclude outliers?
 - ▶ If so, what's the cut-off?
 - ▶ Should I use a parametric or non-parametric test?
 - ▶ Are these tests multiple comparisons I should correct for, or separate analyses (for which I don't correct)?
- ▶ If the experimenter knows which condition the participants are in, this could bias their decisions.

Data analysis - Example

- ▶ My theory predicts people react more quickly to auditory than to visual alarm signals.
- ▶ I find this result if I exclude all reaction times above 3 seconds
- ▶ But not if I keep all RTs
- ▶ and not if I exclude all reaction times below 100ms.
- ▶ I choose the 3 second cut-off
- ▶ Am I sure that decision was unbiased?

Blind testing

- ▶ Single-blind testing - participant does not know which condition they are in.
 - ▶ e.g. Drug vs. placebo. Participants do not know which condition they are in.
- ▶ Double-blind testing - single-blind testing plus the experimenters do not know which condition is which until after they have completed their analysis.

Order effects

- ▶ Auditory versus visual alarm signals, within-subjects design
- ▶ Visual (300ms) → Auditory (250ms)
- ▶ Auditory faster?
- ▶ Or, practice effect?

Order effects

- ▶ Auditory versus visual alarm signals, within-subjects design
- ▶ Auditory (250ms) → Visual (300ms)
- ▶ Auditory faster?
- ▶ Or, fatigue effect?

Order effects

- ▶ Auditory versus visual alarm signals, within-subjects design
- ▶ Randomly allocate participants to the two orders
- ▶ Auditory (250ms) → Visual (300ms)
- ▶ Visual (300ms) → Auditory (250ms)
- ▶ Auditory faster - irrespective of order.
- ▶ No practice or fatigue effect (mean RT across conditions 275 ms at time 1 and time 2).

Difference versus no difference designs

- ▶ The preferred hypothesis is that people differ in the speed with which they react to auditory and visual alarm signals.
- ▶ The alternative theory against which this is compared is that there is no difference (nil hypothesis).
- ▶ Problem - Experimental control is never perfect.
- ▶ Thus - the nil hypothesis is almost certainly wrong, and detectably so if you test enough people.
- ▶ Thus - the result of the study is known before you run it.
- ▶ Thus - There was no point in running it.

Better alternatives 1

- ▶ One-tailed tests

- ▶ The preferred theory is that auditory is faster.
- ▶ The alternative theory against which this is compared is that there is no difference (nil hypothesis).
- ▶ If you find visual faster, you have disproved your theory.
- ▶ So, whatever the result, there was a point to running this experiment (because the theory was falsifiable).

Better alternatives 2

- ▶ Ordinally different theories
 - ▶ One well-established theory predicts that auditory is faster.
 - ▶ Another well-established theory predicts that visual is faster.
 - ▶ Whatever you find in this study, you've gained information (except in the unlikely case where the nil hypothesis was true).

Next week's workshops

- ▶ Bring a laptop!
- ▶ Games:
 - ▶ Horse-race game: Normal distribution
 - ▶ Exam-hall bingo: Sample size and statistical power
 - ▶ Shove ha'penny: Regression to the mean
 - ▶ Good and evil: Illusory correlation
- ▶ Worksheets and practical activities:
 - ▶ Introduction to R Studio
 - ▶ Exploring data
 - ▶ Group difference
 - ▶ Evidence
 - ▶ Analyzing your own data

Further reading/ watching

Only lecture content on these topics is examinable.

- ▶ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NW2EmATcb6o>
- ▶ <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZgXfWmgA9NE> (don't watch this one if you are easily upset or offended)
- ▶ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hawthorne_effect

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