Simulation Study: Negative Correlations and Equality of Means

February 10, 2021

Session Info

```
Give the session info (reduced).
## [1] "R version 3.6.3 (2020-02-29)"
## [1] "x86_64-pc-linux-gnu"
```

Load Libraries

If the libraries are not installed yet, you need to install them using, for example, the command: install.packages("ggplot2").

```
library(MASS)
library(ggplot2)
library(plyr)
library(GGally)
library(rstatix)
```

Give the package versions.

```
## rstatix GGally plyr ggplot2 MASS ## "0.6.0" "2.0.0" "1.8.6" "3.3.3" "7.3-53"
```

Introduction

The purpose of this file is two-fold: a) It discusses under which conditions negative correlations (i.e. trade-offs) entail equi-complexity in the sense of a non-significant difference in the means of two distributions. b) It illustrates the decisions we take to statistically analyse the respective data, i.e. checking for normality of the data, choosing a statistical test for assessing equality in the mean values of two distributions, and getting effect sizes for this test. Both is achieved by using simulated data, i.e. pseudo-complexity measurements for two languages A and B, for which a negative correlation is pre-defined.

Theoretical Background

Trade-offs as Negative Correlations

Trade-offs are here conceptualized as negative correlations. We here choose the Pearson correlation coefficient r as an example. For samples from two random variables X and Y it is defined as

$$r_{xy} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \overline{y})^2}}.$$
 (1)

Where n is the number of data points in the paired samples, x_i and y_i are individual data points, and \overline{x} and \overline{y} are the sample means. We have a negative correlation $r_{xy} < 0$ iff the numerator is negative, i.e.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})(y_i - \overline{y}) < 0. \tag{2}$$

Note that the denominator cannot be negative.

Equi-Complexity as Equality of Means

Furthermore, we conceptualize equi-complexity as equality of means. Assume that the x_i s and y_i s represent complexity measurements for two languages A and B. We would then consider A and B equi-complex if

$$\overline{x} = \overline{y},$$
 (3)

where

$$\overline{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i,\tag{4}$$

and

$$\overline{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i. \tag{5}$$

Linear Transformation

We here proof that a negative Pearson correlation between any two samples x_i and y_i does not strictly entail equality of means, i.e. $\overline{x} = \overline{y}$. We therefore apply a linear transformation to one of the samples, i.e. multiplying the x_i s with a constant $\alpha > 0$. We thus get a new mean value

$$\overline{x}' = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha x_i = \frac{\alpha}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \alpha \overline{x}.$$
 (6)

We find that

$$\overline{y} \begin{cases} < \overline{x}' & \text{if } \alpha > 1 \\ > \overline{x}' & \text{if } 0 < \alpha < 1 \\ = \overline{x}' & \text{if } \alpha = 1 \end{cases}$$

Hence, after linear transformation it is the case that the sample means differ, i.e. $\overline{x}' \neq \overline{y}$ under the condition that $\alpha \neq 1$. For example, if we choose $\alpha = 2$ then the new sample mean would be twice the former sample mean, i.e. $\overline{x}' = 2\overline{y}$.

Generate Correlated Data

We here generate correlated pseudo-complexity measurements for two languages A and B. We then apply linear and non-linear transformations to illustrate how this impacts the results of correlation and mean value analyses.

```
# set the seed for random number generation in order to
# get the same result when the code is re-run
set.seed(1)
# set parameters
n = 20 # number of datapoints
r = -0.7 # predefined correlation
a = 2 # constant for linear transformation
# generate the data
data \leftarrow mvrnorm(n = n, mu = c(3, 3), Sigma = matrix(c(1, r, r, 1), nrow = 2),
                 empirical = TRUE)
langA <- data[, 1]</pre>
langB <- data[, 2]</pre>
# apply linear transformation to language B measures
langB.lt <- langB*a</pre>
\# apply non-linear transformation to language B measures
langB.nt <- sqrt(langB)</pre>
```

Standardize the data by centering and scaling it.

```
langA.stand <- scale(langA)
langB.stand <- scale(langB)
langB.lt.stand <- scale(langB.lt)
langB.nt.stand <- scale(langB.nt)</pre>
```

Put into short format (for scatterplots) and long format data frame (density distributions).

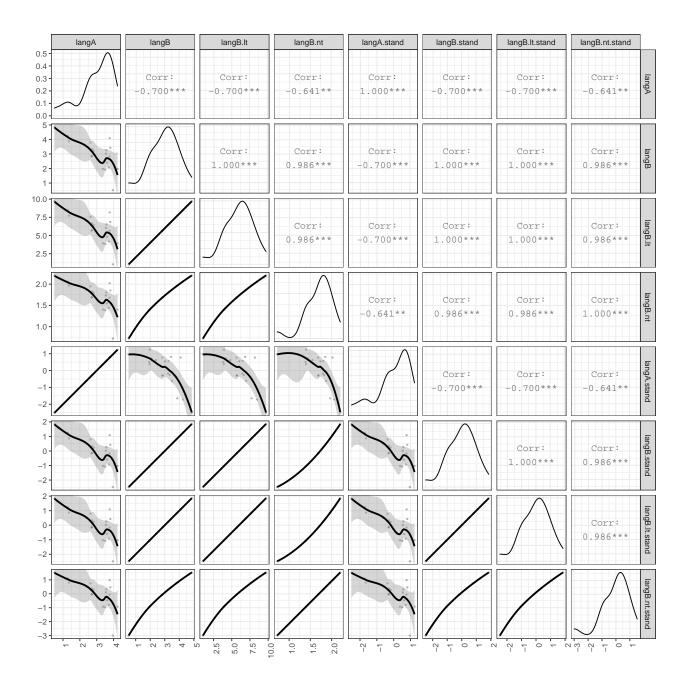
```
# standardized
value <- c(langA.stand, langB.stand, langB.lt.stand, langB.nt.stand)</pre>
measurement \leftarrow rep(c(1:n), times = 4)
language <- c(rep("Language A (standardized)", times = n),</pre>
              rep("Language B (standardized)", times = n),
              rep("Language B (linear trans., standardized)", times = n),
              rep("Language B (non-linear trans., standardized)", times = n)
simulation.df.long.stand <- data.frame(language, measurement, value)</pre>
head(simulation.df.long.stand)
##
                      language measurement
                                                 value
## 1 Language A (standardized)
                                        1 1.2388953
## 2 Language A (standardized)
                                        2 0.7675818
## 3 Language A (standardized)
                                        3 0.5075114
                                        4 -2.5099680
## 4 Language A (standardized)
```

5 0.5492195 6 0.3744419

Scatterplot with Correlations

5 Language A (standardized)

6 Language A (standardized)



Density Distributions

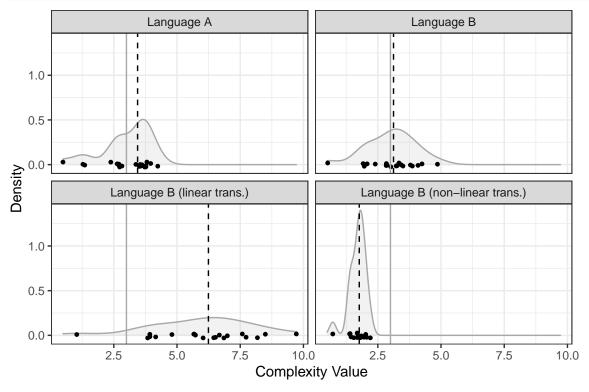
Plot density distributions of complexity pseudo-measurements by language. Individual values for each complexity pseudo-measurement are plotted as black dots. The central value (0) is indicated by a vertical dotted line for visual reference. The median and mean values of complexity pseudo-measurements per language might also be indicated.

Non-Standardized Vectors

Get mean, median, and standard deviation values.

```
# get mean values for each language
mu <- ddply(simulation.df.long, "language", summarise, grp.mean = mean(value, na.rm = T))
# get median values for each language
med <- ddply(simulation.df.long, "language", summarise, grp.median = median(value, na.rm = T))
# get standard deviation values for each language
sdev <- ddply(simulation.df.long, "language", summarise, grp.sd = sd(value, na.rm = T))</pre>
```

Plot density distributions with indication of median (mean) values.



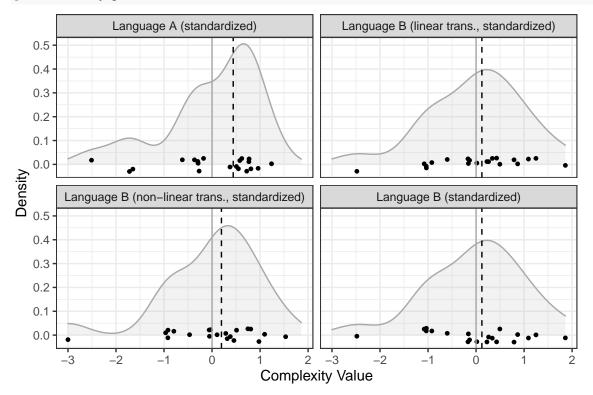
Standardized Vectors

Get mean, median, and standard deviation values.

```
# get mean values for each language
mu <- ddply(simulation.df.long.stand, "language", summarise, grp.mean = mean(value, na.rm = T))
# get median values for each language
med <- ddply(simulation.df.long.stand, "language", summarise, grp.median = median(value, na.rm = T))</pre>
```

```
# get standard deviation values for each language
sdev <- ddply(simulation.df.long.stand, "language", summarise, grp.sd = sd(value, na.rm = T))</pre>
```

Plot density distributions with indication of median (mean) values.



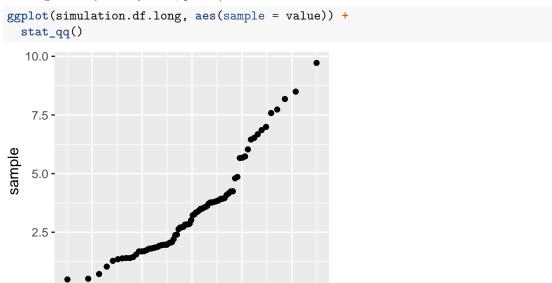
Save figure to file.

```
\#ggsave("Figures/Simulation/scatterplot.pdf", density.plot, dpi = 300, scale = 1, \\ \# device = cairo_pdf)
```

Normality

The assumption that the tested data stems from a normally distributed population is often necessary for the mathematical proofs underlying standard statistical techniques. We might apply normality tests to check for this assumption (e.g. Baayen 2008, p. 73), but some statisticians advise against such pre-tests, since they are often too sensitive (MacDonald 2014, p. 133-136, Rasch et al. (2020), p. 67). In fact, Rasch et al. (2020, p. xi) argue based on earlier simulation studies that almost all standard statistical tests are fairly robust

against deviations from normality. However, it is still advisable to check for gross deviations from normality in the data. One common way of doing this is quantile-quantile plots. The points should here roughly follow a straight line (Crawley 2007, p. 281).



Choose statistical tests

theoretical

Select a statistical test: Standard t-tests can be used to assess significant differences in the means of the pseudo-complexity distributions, if we assume that the underlying population distributions are normal. Wilcoxon tests are a non-parametric alternative, i.e. they do not make assumptions about the underlying population distribution, e.g. normality (Crawley 2007, p. 283; Baayen 2008, p. 77).

Run pairwise Wilcoxon tests.

```
# we add some random noise here to the value vector with
# the function jitter(), since we otherwise get warnings due to ties in the data
p.values <- pairwise.wilcox.test(jitter(simulation.df.long$value), simulation.df.long$language,
                     paired = F, p.adjust.method = "holm")
p.values$p.value
##
                                    Language A
                                                  Language B
## Language B
                                  8.830570e-01
                                  8.445624e-07 2.471386e-06
## Language B (linear trans.)
## Language B (non-linear trans.) 1.041642e-04 2.774694e-06
##
                                  Language B (linear trans.)
## Language B
                                                           NA
## Language B (linear trans.)
```

1.816803e-07

Effect Size

Language B (non-linear trans.)

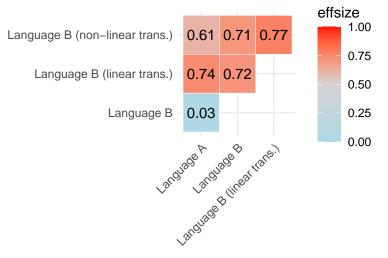
Statistical significance is only one part of the story. For instance, a difference in complexity values might be statistically significant, but so small that it is negligible for any theorizing. In fact, it is sometimes argued

that effect sizes - rather than p-values - should be the aim of statistical inquiry (Cahusac 2020, p. 12-15). An overview of effect size measures per statistical test is given in Patil (2020). In conjunction with the Wilcoxon signed rank test we here use the statistic r (i.e. function wilcox effsize() of the "rstatix" package).

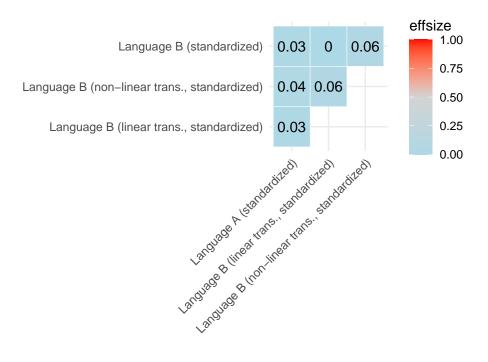
```
# non-standardized
effect.sizes <- wilcox_effsize(simulation.df.long, value ~ language, paired = F)
# standardized
effect.sizes.stand <- wilcox_effsize(simulation.df.long.stand, value ~ language, paired = F)
#print(effect.sizes)</pre>
```

Effect Size Heatmap

Plot a heatmap with effect sizes to get a better overview.



For the standardized vectors.



References

Baayen, R. H. (2008). Analyzing linguistic data: A practical introduction using statistics in R. Cambridge University Press.

Cahusac, P. M. B. (2021). Evidence-based statistics. John Wiley & Sons.

Crawley, M. J. (2007). The R book. John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

McDonald, J.H. (2014). Handbook of Biological Statistics (3rd ed.). Sparky House Publishing, Baltimore, Maryland. online at http://www.biostathandbook.com

Patil, I. (2020). Test and effect size details. online at https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/statsExpressions/vignettes/stats_details.html.

Rasch, D., Verdooren, R., and J. Pilz (2020). Applied statistics. Theory and problem solutions with R. John Wiley & Sons Ltd.