#### MSc Social Research Methods

# Pre-sessional Statistics Bootcamp

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#### Before We Start

- Log into your computer with your SSO
- Go to the pre-sessional Moodle page and download:
  - > The slides for this bootcamp
  - The dataset we will use ("WDI\_Data.dta")
- Make sure to save the dataset in an easy-to-access folder
  - > A place you can also access from elsewhere (e.g., N-drive)

## Objectives of This Bootcamp

#### Overarching goal:

Ensuring we have some sort of common starting point + that we are ready to take on the quantitative MSc modules

#### For this purpose, we will:

- Refresh key statistical concepts
   E.g., sampling distributions, hypothesis testing
- Obtain basic familiarity with Stata

#### Statistical Inference

Statistical inference is used to learn from incomplete/imperfect data

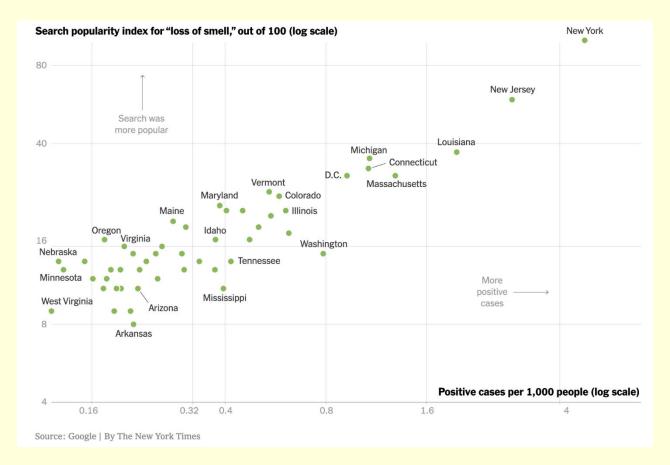
One way of thinking about statistical inference:

We wish to learn some characteristics of a population (e.g., the mean and standard deviation of the heights of all women in the UK), which we must estimate from a sample or subset of that population

Two types of statistical inference:

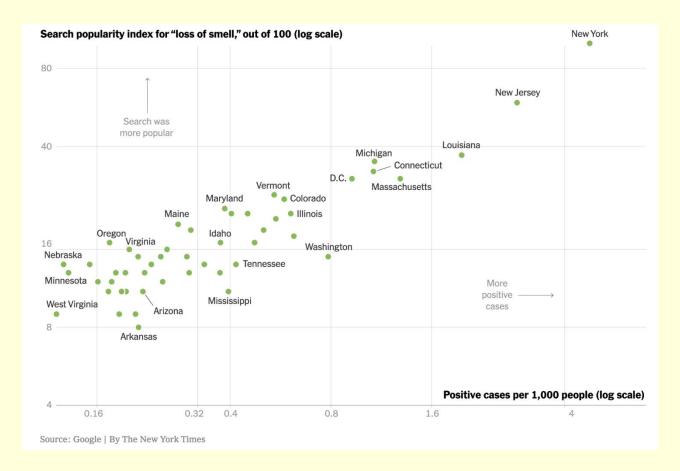
- 1. Descriptive inference: What is going on, or what exists?
- **2.** Causal inference: Why is something going on, why does it exist?

# Descriptive vs. Causal Inference



**Descriptive inference**: Does the search popularity of "loss of smell" increase as Covid cases are higher?

## Descriptive vs. Causal Inference



Causal inference: Why do people search more for "loss of smell" in some American states than in others?

#### Variables and Observations

A **variable** is anything that can vary across units of analysis: It is a characteristic that can have multiple values / categories E.g., sex, age, diameter, financial revenue, temperature

A unit of analysis is the major entity that you are analyzing:

E.g., individuals, objects, schools, countries

An **observation** is the value of a particular variable for a particular unit (sometimes a unit is in its entirety referred to as observation)

E.g., King Charles III is 73 years of age

## Different Types of Variables

#### **Continuous / interval-ratio variables:**

They have an ordering, they can take on infinitely many values, and you can do calculations with them

E.g., income, age, weight, time

#### **Categorical variables:**

Each observation belongs to one out of a fixed number of categories

- 1. Ordinal variables: there is a natural ordering of the categories
- Nominal variables: there is no natural ordering of the categories
   E.g., education level, Likert scales, gender, vote choice

## **Introducing Stata**

Stata is a powerful software package that allows you to do:

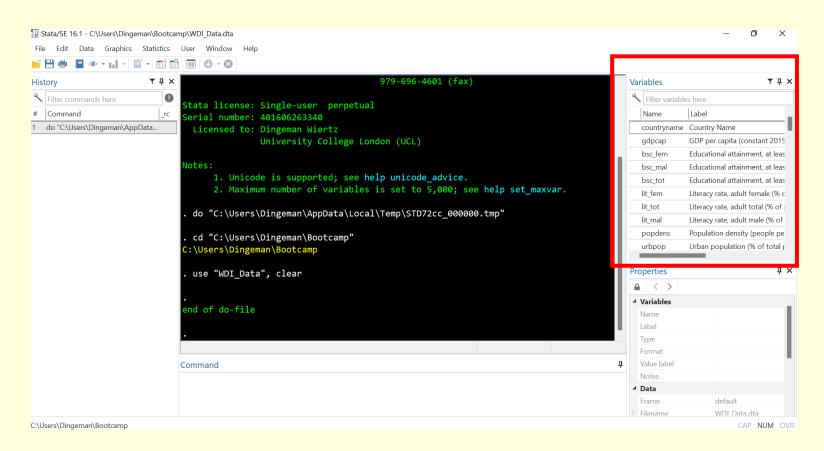
- Data management and manipulation
- Data visualization
- Statistical analysis

Stata has a compact command syntax that facilitates reproducibility

Other tools to conduct data analysis include **R**: a programming language and environment for statistical computing and graphics

 To some degree, Stata skills are transferable to such alternative platforms

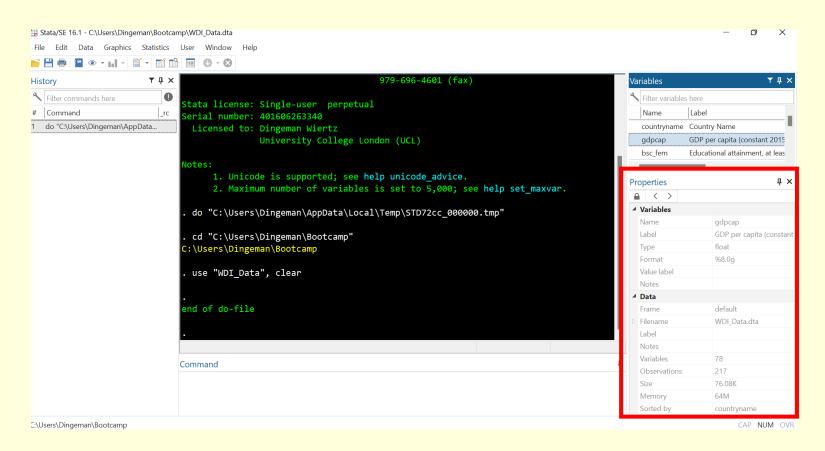
## Stata's Interface: Variables Window



The <u>variables</u> window displays all variables in your dataset

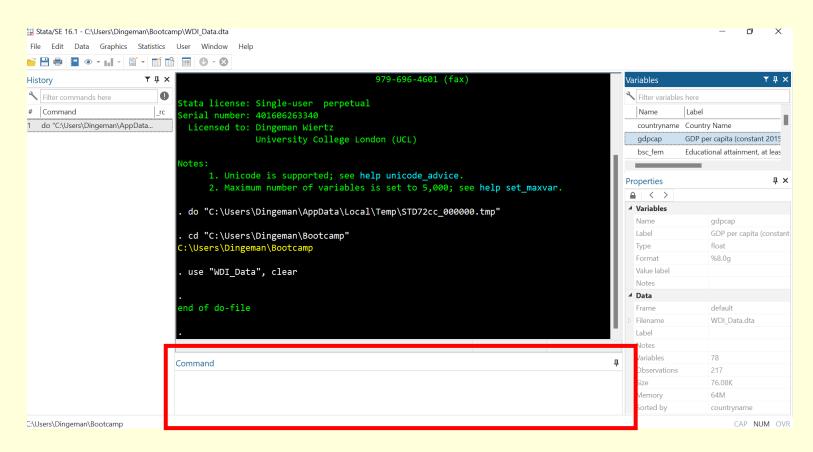
- Single click on variable names to see details in properties window
- Double click to make variables appear in command window

# Stata's Interface: Properties Window



The <u>properties</u> window displays details about selected variables as well as the entire dataset (e.g., number of observations, sort order)

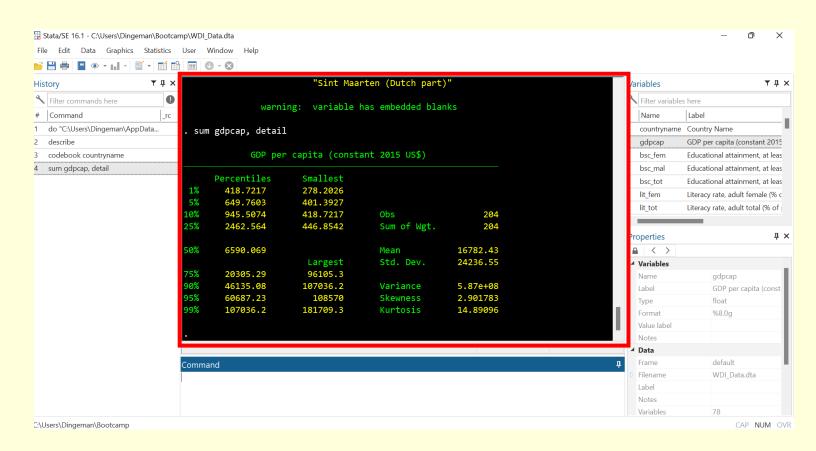
## Stata's Interface: Command Window



The command window is for entering and executing commands

But it is better to use do-files (same applies to drop-down menus)

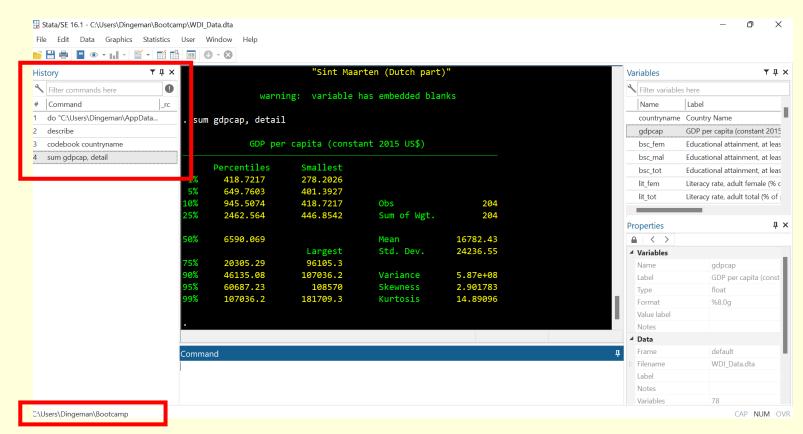
## Stata's Interface: Results Window



The results window displays all output of your commands

To change colour scheme: Select Edit from drop-down menu →
 Preferences → General preferences → Results → Classic

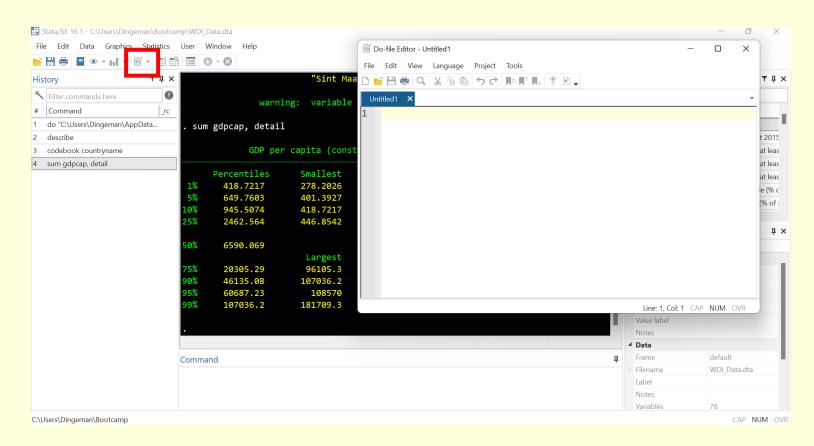
# Stata's Interface: Command History and Current Working Directory



The <u>command history</u> window lists previously run commands

At the bottom you can see the current working directory: the folder where any files will be loaded from and saved to

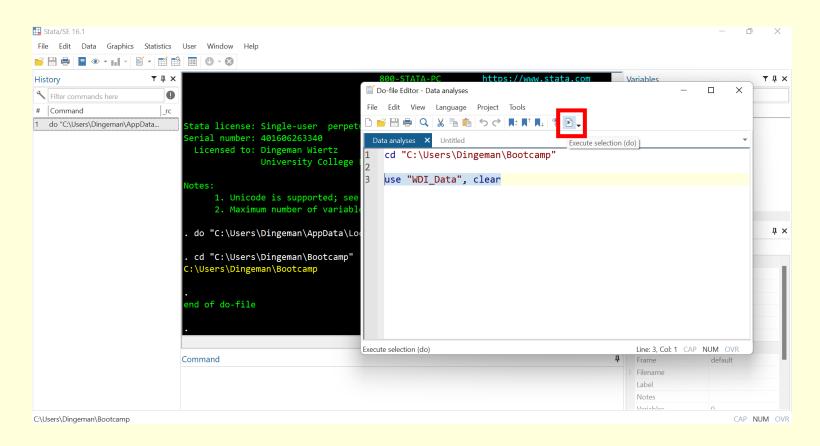
# Stata's Interface: Opening a Do File



Do files are text files where you can store commands for reuse

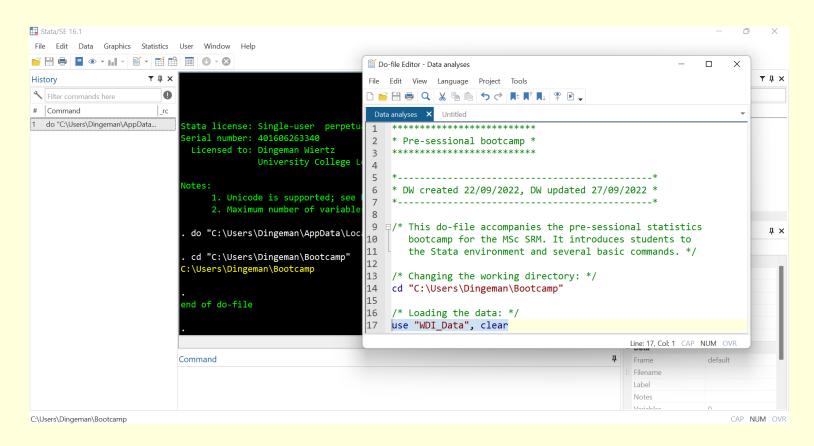
Huge payoffs for reproducibility, debugging, adapting commands

## Running Commands from a Do File



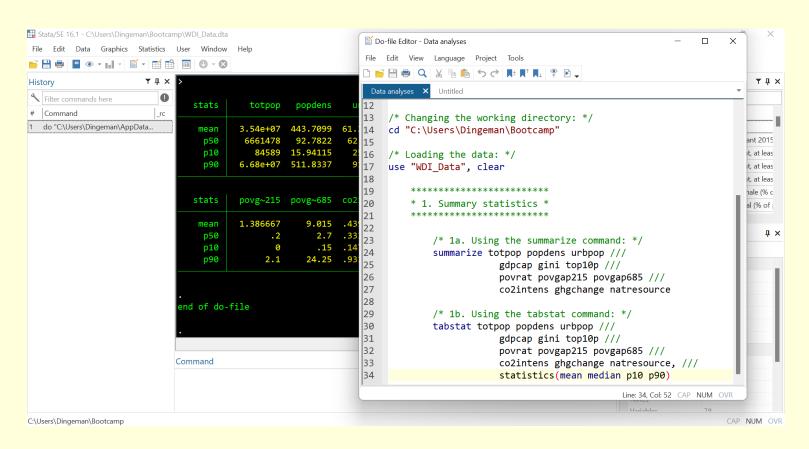
After entering a command, you select it, and then click the "execute" button or press "Ctrl+D"

## Do File Dos and Don'ts



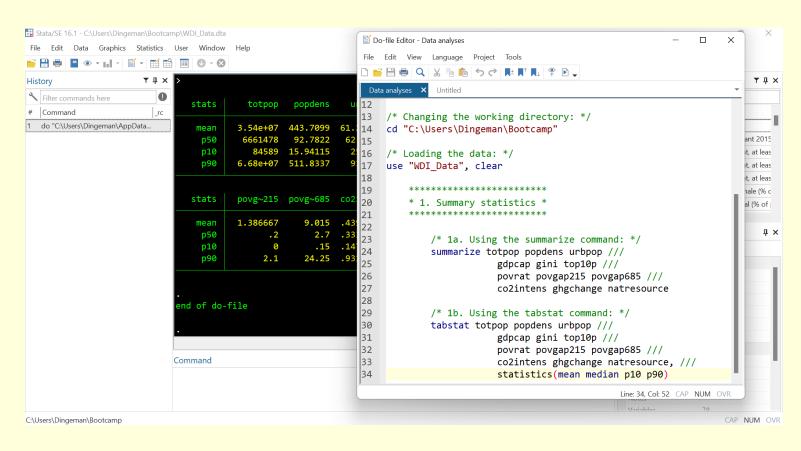
Use annotations to facilitate replicability (incl. for future self!):
 Use \* for single-line comments and /\* \*/ for multiple lines

## Do File Dos and Don'ts



- 2. Break down code into clearly labelled sections / subsections
- 3. Use tab indentations to making things easy to read

## Do File Dos and Don'ts



4. Don't put too much information on a single line:

Use /// to continue your command on the next line and write "top-to-bottom" instead of "left-to-right"

## Now Have a Look Around Yourself...

#### Useful commands to get started:

- cd: sets your working directory
  - > Where any data will be loaded from and saved to
  - E.g., cd "C:\Users\Dingeman\Bootcamp"
- use: opens a stored dataset
  - > Dataset needs to be in .dta format
  - Add clear option if you already had another dataset open
  - ► E.g., use "WDI\_Data", clear

## Now Have a Look Around Yourself...

#### Useful commands to get started:

- describe: provides a description of variables
  - > If you specify no variables, the command will be applied to all
  - > E.g., describe forest co2intens or describe
- codebook: examines labels, data etc. to produce a codebook
  - > If you specify no variables, command will be applied to all
  - > E.g., codebook countrycode femparl or codebook

#### Now Have a Look Around Yourself...

#### Some questions to guide your explorations:

- How many variables are there in this dataset?
- How many countries are identified in this dataset?
- For which continent do we observe the most countries and for which continent the fewest?
- What are the labels of the variables femmanage and armyexp?
- How many missing values do femmanage and armyexp have?
- What are the means for femmanage and armyexp?
- Which countries have the highest scores for femmanage and armyexp?

## **Describing Data**

Describing data is necessary because there is usually too much of it, so it does not make any sense by itself

• E.g, what can you say about the world income distribution based on this table?

Country	GDP / capita	Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita		Country GDP / capita	
Afghanistan	555.139	Bosnia an	5578.27	Croatia	14068	Georgia	4773.42	Italy	32119.7	Malaysia	11414.6	Nigeria	2502.65	Serbia	6567.91	Thailand	6612.23
Albania	4543.39	Botswana	7051.35	Cuba	8031.04	Germany	43329.1	Jamaica	5065.38	Maldives	10197.1	North Ma	5386.2	Seychelles	16990	Timor-Les	1466.81
Algeria	4115.4	Brazil	8622.07	Curacao	17796.7	Ghana	2053.59	Japan	36081.1	Mali	815.379	Northern	18141.9	Sierra Leo	649.76	Togo	630.791
American Sam	11368.6	British Virgin Islands		Cyprus	28211.1	Gibraltar		Jordan	4133.55	Malta	28363.6	Norway	76005.2	Singapore	61340.2	Tonga	4652.59
Andorra	39003.5	Brunei Daı	30646.1	Czech Rep	20202.2	Greece	19003.8	Kazakhsta	11402.8	Marshall I	3612.6	Oman	16694.1	Sint Maarten	(Dutch part)	Trinidad a	16320
Angola	2612.35	Bulgaria	8234.78	Denmark	57553.1	Greenland	47908.1	Kenya	1602.79	Mauritani	1621	Pakistan	1497.99	Slovak Rej	18167.5	Tunisia	4208.07
Antigua and B	a 16786.4	Burkina Fa	738.219	Djibouti	3110.99	Grenada	10133.1	Kiribati	1505.16	Mauritius	10643.8	Palau	14754.6	Slovenia	24071.3	Turkiye	11955.4
Argentina	12713	Burundi	278.203	Dominica	7894.31	Guam	35666.3	Korea, Dem.	People's Rep.	Mexico	9819.53	Panama	15073	Solomon I	2289.53	Turkmenis	7692.58
Armenia	4350.47	Cabo Verc	3482.45	Dominicar	8314.34	Guatemal	4254.04	Korea, Rej	31640.2	Micronesi	2921.15	Papua Nev	2816.72	Somalia	446.854	Turks and	28693.1
Aruba	29769.3	Cambodia	1441.18	Ecuador	5853.81	Guinea	945.507	Kosovo	4219.08	Moldova	3435.48	Paraguay	5774.17	South Afri	6125.74	Tuvalu	3933.16
Australia	58781	Cameroor	1449.28	Egypt, Ara	3964.99	Guinea-Bi:	650.069	Kuwait	27207.1	Monaco	181709	Peru	6613.88	South Sudan		Uganda	894.52
Austria	46669.8	Canada	45109.2	El Salvado	3993.53	Guyana	6478.29	Kyrgyz Rep	1226.82	Mongolia	4394.99	Philippines	3664.79	Spain	28101.5	Ukraine	2425.63
Azerbaijan	5348.27	Cayman Is	83639.8	Equatorial	7412.58	Haiti	1373.88	Lao PDR	2579.25	Monteneg	7684.18	Poland	15016.7	Sri Lanka	4228.15	United Ara	40438.3
Bahamas, The	32285.5	Central Af	418.722	Eritrea		Honduras	2499.49	Latvia	16056	Morocco	3044.91	Portugal	21617.4	St. Kitts ar	20472.4	<b>United Kin</b>	47750.9
Bahrain	21317.3	Chad	660.07	Estonia	20408.4	Hong Kong	44192.4	Lebanon	6815.91	Mozambic	598.814	Puerto Ric	30191.9	St. Lucia	10914.5	United Sta	60687.2
Bangladesh	1581.57	Channel Islands		Eswatini	3833.25	Hungary	15041.1	Lesotho	1126.84	Myanmar	1548.46	Qatar	59149.3	St. Martin (Fr	ench part)	Uruguay	16036.3
Barbados	16678.5	Chile	13828.6	Ethiopia	799.795	Iceland	57818.9	Liberia	650.413	Namibia	4504.62	Romania	11221.7	St. Vincen	7792.16	Uzbekista	3161.42
Belarus	6264.86	China	10155.5	Faroe Islands		India	1965.54	Libya	8993.09	Nauru	8325.9	Russian Fe	9958.46	Sudan	1969.12	Vanuatu	2881.75
Belgium	43065.5	Colombia	6384.54	Fiji	5869.02	Indonesia	3877.42	Liechtensteir	า	Nepal	1069.79	Rwanda	885.638	Suriname	9035.2	Venezuela,	RB
Belize	4712.84	Comoros	1284.35	Finland	46135.1	Iran, Islam	5308.92	Lithuania	17241.3	Netherlan	48443.7	Samoa	4504.92	Sweden	53490.4	Vietnam	3250.57
Benin	1201.56	Congo, De	512.586	France	38912.3	Iraq	5132.7	Luxembou	108570	New Caledo	onia	San Marin	44552.2	Switzerlan	88413.2	Virgin Islaı	36273.1
Bermuda	107036	Congo, Re	1793.03	French Po	21320.4	Ireland	75143	Macao SA	79747.5	New Zeala	40599	Sao Tome	1672.9	Syrian Arab F	Republic	West Banl	3378.43
Bhutan	3238.06	Costa Rica	12755.2	Gabon	7116.08	Isle of Ma	96105.3	Madagasc	488.914	Nicaragua	1982.63	Saudi Arak	19817.8	Tajikistan	1174.08	Yemen, Re	1279.21
Bolivia	3317.37	Cote d'Ivo	2327.75	Gambia, T	714.542	Israel	38995.2	Malawi	401.393	Niger	523.884	Senegal	1384.4	Tanzania	1071.35	Zambia	1348.74
																Zimbabwe	1414.83

## Describing Data

Describing data is necessary because there is usually too much of it, so it does not make any sense by itself

We thus have to look for ways to summarize central tendencies, variation, and relationships that exist in the data

There are many different ways to do this

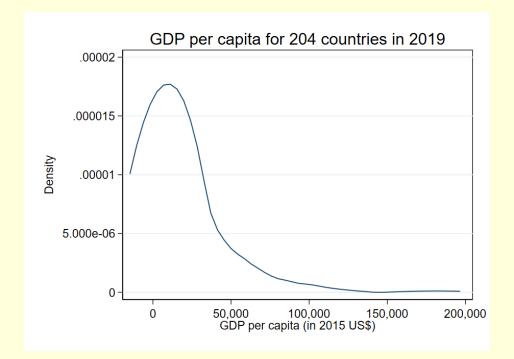
- Numerical descriptions
- Visual depictions

#### Distributions

Variables can be characterized by their **frequency distribution**:

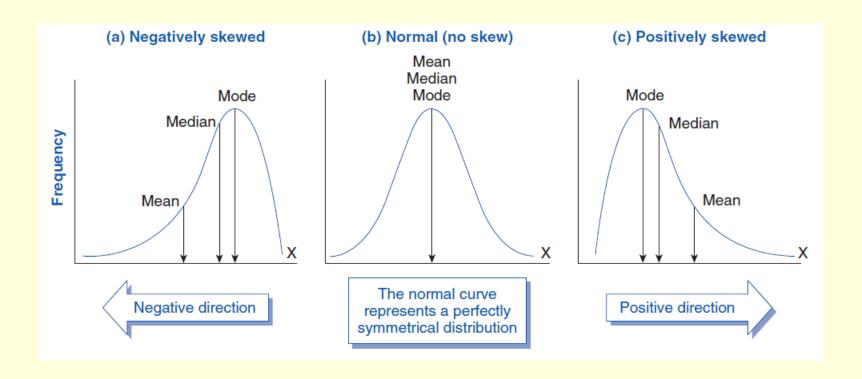
The distribution of the (relative) frequencies of their values

- In a sample or in the population
- > E.g., we can graph the world income distribution:



#### Distributions

Distributions can take on many different shapes; some examples:



## Measures of Central Tendency

Common measures to denote central tendencies of distributions:

- 1. Mean: conventional average calculated by adding all values for all units and dividing by the number of units
  - $\rightarrow$   $Mean = \bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{N}$  with units i and number of units N
  - May give a distorted impression if there are outliers
- 2. Median: value that falls in the middle if we order all units by their value on the variable
- 3. Mode: most frequently occurring value across all units

# Measures of Dispersion / Spread

1. Variance: average of the squared differences between each observed value on a variable and its mean

> 
$$Variance = s^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{N}$$

- > Why the square? To treat + and differences alike
- 2. Standard deviation: average departure of the observed values on a variable from its mean
  - > Standard deviation =  $s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i \bar{x})^2}{N}}$
  - It is the square root of the variance; it "reverts" the squaretaking in the variance calculation, to bring the statistic back to the original scale of the variable

#### A Note on Notation

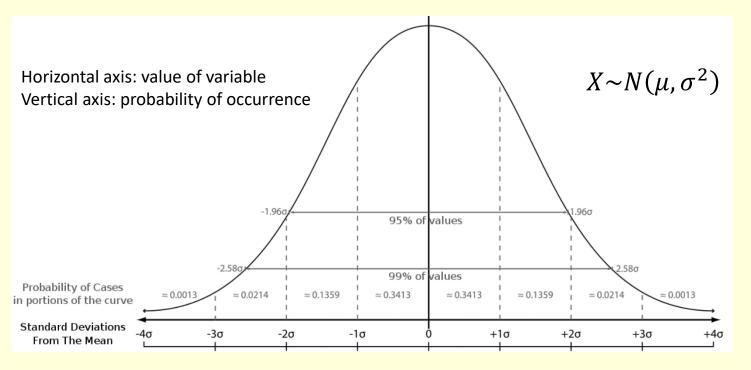
Typically, we use Roman letters for <u>sample</u> statistics and Greek letters for <u>population</u> statistics:

- Sample mean =  $\bar{x}$ , population mean =  $\mu$
- Sample variance =  $s^2$ , population variance =  $\sigma^2$
- Sample standard error = s, population standard deviation =  $\sigma$
- In a regression context:
  - $\triangleright$  Coefficient estimate based on sample = b
  - $\succ$  True underlying coefficient in the population =  $\beta$

Recall: the sample is what we observe, the population is what we want to make inferences about

## The Normal Distribution

If a variable X is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ :



- $\succ$  The normal distribution is symmetric around  $\mu$  and bell-shaped
- > 95% of all cases lie between  $X = \mu 1.96\sigma$  and  $X = \mu + 1.96\sigma$

## Standard Normal Distribution

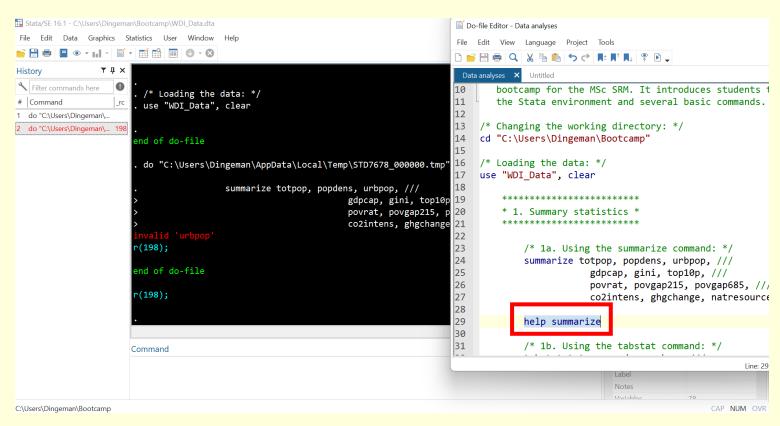
To calculate probabilities for a normal variable, we must **standardize** it by subtracting its mean and dividing by its standard deviation:

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu_{\chi}}{\sigma_{\chi}}$$

The thus obtained **Z-scores** indicate the number of standard deviations a value is from the mean of a distribution

The **standard normal distribution** is the normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1

- > Z-scores have a standard normal distribution:  $Z \sim N(0,1)$
- Z-scores and are extensively used in hypothesis testing



If you forgot how a command works or receive an error message, access Stata's help files by running: help ...

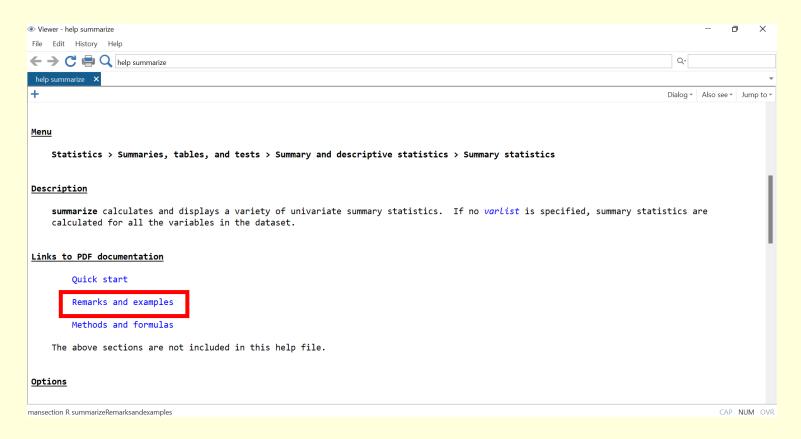
(inserting the relevant command name)



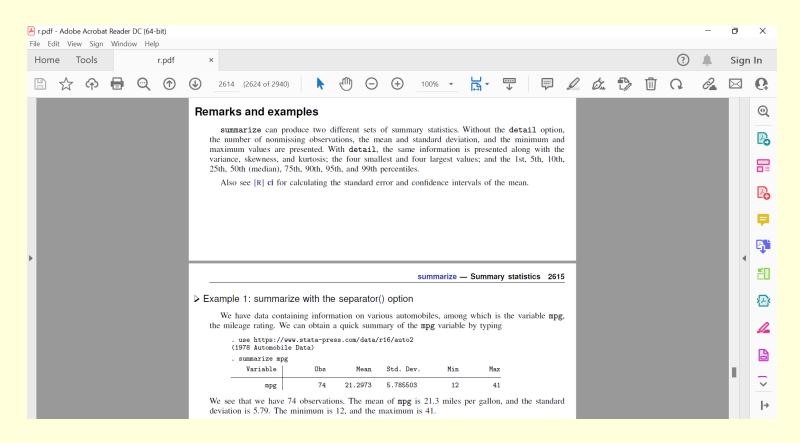
- Syntax section describes uses of command + how to specify them
- See also the link to the Stata manual (with extended help)



- Options section gives details about the options of the command
- Examples section gives examples (extended ones in manual)



- Description section provides extended description of command
- See also further links to Stata manual



- The Stata manual is even more helpful than the help files
- Other "friends": Google and the Stata list (statlist.org)

### General Stata Command Syntax

```
summarize [varlist] [if] [in] [weight] [, options]
```

Stata commands mirror everyday commands in their structure:

- They often start with a verb: "Bring me..."
- They then list an object: "... a pint of milk..."
- They may add a condition: "... if it is still before noon..."
- They may specify further details about what needs to be done: "... and quickly please" or "... but I only want semi-skimmed"

#### General Stata Command Syntax

```
summarize [varlist] [if] [in] [weight] [, options]
```

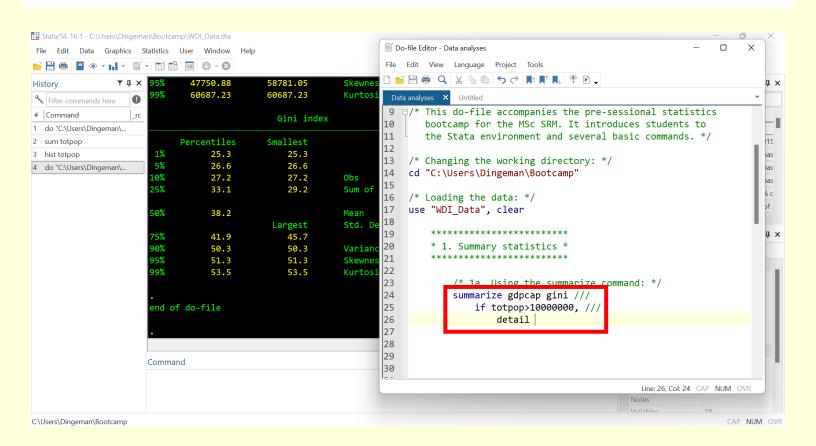
In nearly all cases, Stata syntax consists of four parts:

- 1. Command: What action do you want to see performed?
- 2. Names of variables, files, objects: On what objects is the command to be performed ("varlist")
- **3. Qualifier(s) on observations**: Which observations are to be taken into account (and how)? ("if", "in", "weight")
- **4. Options**: What special things should be done in the execution?

Part 1 is always there and Part 2 is most often also present

#### General Stata Command Syntax

#### summarize [varlist] [if] [in] [weight] [, options]



#### Viewing Your Dataset

To view all your data, simply run the command browse:



 Black columns are numeric variables, red columns string variables, blue columns numeric variables with string labels

#### Viewing Your Dataset

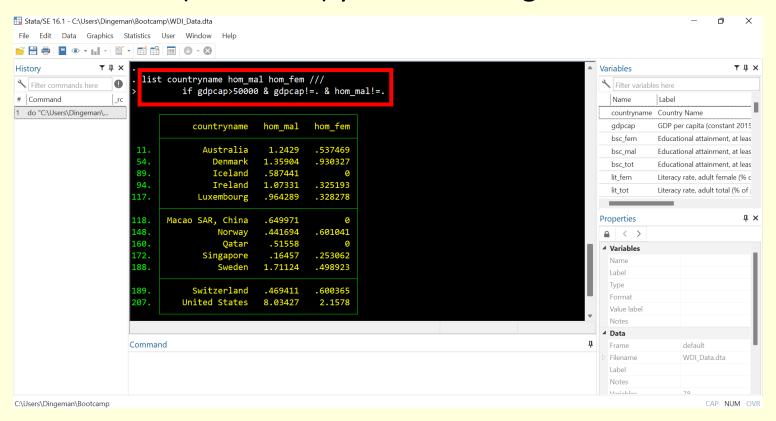
To view all your data, simply run the command browse:



- > For numeric variables, missing values are recorded as "."
- For string variables, missing values are recorded as ""

#### Viewing Your Dataset

You can also view (subsets of) your data using the list command:



In addition to or instead of "if", you can also use "in": e.g.,
list ... in 1/20 selects the first 20 cases of the dataset

#### Stata's Logical and Relational Operators

In "if" statements, you often need the following operators:

Operator	Meaning
==	is equal to
!=	is not equal to
>	greater than
<	smaller than
>=	greater or equal to
<=	smaller or equal to
&	and
	or

#### Over to You Again...

<u>Task</u>: Pick a few variables (perhaps first run describe) and describe their distributions:

- For numerical descriptions, use summarize
- For visual descriptions, use histogram

#### **Further instructions:**

- Run help commandname if you run into problems
- > Try to find the median of the variables
- Try to change the look of the histograms
- Consider low vs. high income countries separately
- Consider Europe and another continent separately

#### Random Sampling and Sampling Distribution

- Sampling theory plays a huge role in specifying the assumptions upon which our statistical inferences rely
- We draw inferences from the sample about the population
- Most statistical methods rely on averages or weighted averages of a sample of data
- The values of the variables in our sample constitute random variables, and so any average we take of those values will also constitute a random variable

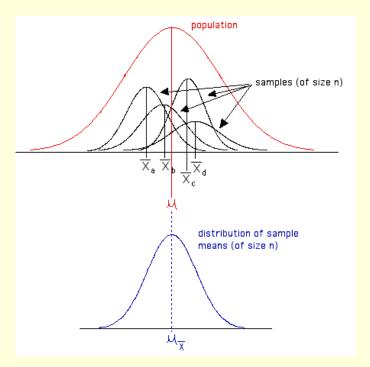
## What If We Don't Have a Simple Random Sample?

- Simple random sample: every unit has an equal probability of being selected
  - > I.e., selecting units from a population without replacement
- Stratified random sample: the population is divided into strata (e.g., based on sex, ethnicity, region) and a simple random sample is drawn from each stratum
- Convenience sample: chosen in a way convenient to the researcher, not at random from the population of interest
  - > E.g., snowball sampling, or only selecting UCL students when one is really interested in the entire UK population

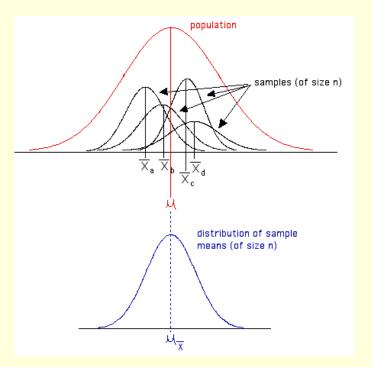
• In a **simple random sample**, n objects are drawn at random from a population and each object is equally likely to be drawn

• The sample mean is: 
$$\overline{Y} = \frac{Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n}{n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} Y_i}{n}$$

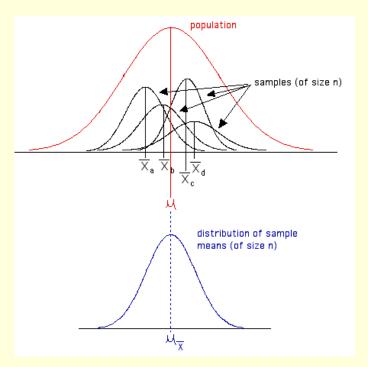
- The value of  $\overline{Y}$  will differ from one random sample to the next
- As  $\overline{Y}$  is random (recall a variable derived from a random variable is also a random variable itself), it has a probability distribution, which is called the **sampling distribution** of  $\overline{Y}$ 
  - > Example: we repeatedly draw a sample from this classroom to determine the average age of all students present



- The sampling distribution gives an idea how much the values of the estimate (sample mean) might vary from sample to sample
  - > Example: How much does the average age vary across repeated samples that we draw from this classroom?



- The sampling distribution tells us something about the <u>uncertainty</u> in the estimate obtained from the one sample we actually observe
  - How predictive is the average age in our 1st classroom sample w.r.t. the underlying average age in the total classroom?



- There exist sampling distributions for any estimand (i.e., the thing that we try to estimate based on our sample)
  - $\triangleright$  E.g., also for a regression coefficient  $\beta$  that captures the linear association between student age and exam results

#### Hypothesis Testing

- A theory is a tentative conjecture about the causes of some phenomenon of interest; once a theory has been developed, we can restate it into one or more testable hypotheses
  - E.g., girls read more books than boys and thus have better reading skills
- A **hypothesis** is a theory-based statement about a relationship that we expect to observe
  - > E.g., girls achieve higher scores than boys on reading tests
- Theories and hypotheses both pertain to the population
  - > E.g., we expect girls to be better readers across all students

### Hypothesis Testing

- A hypothesis is a theory-based statement about a relationship that we expect to observe
  - > E.g., girls achieve higher scores than boys on reading tests
- For every hypothesis there is a corresponding null hypothesis
  - > About what we would expect if our theory is incorrect
  - > E.g., there is no association between Y and X in the population
  - In our example: girls are not better readers than boys

#### The Logic of Hypothesis Testing

- We have a coin we suspect may be biased in favour of heads
  - > How would we decide whether it is indeed biased?
- We try tossing it 10 times (i.e., we draw a sample), and we find that it comes up heads 8 times
- We formulate our <u>null hypothesis</u> that the coin is fair, and ask:
  - What is the **probability** that we would see 8 or more heads in ten tosses if this coin is indeed fair?
  - $> H_0 = \text{coin is fair,}$
  - $> H_1 =$  coin is biased in favour of heads

### The Logic of Hypothesis Testing

- We essentially ask: What is P(8 or more heads | H<sub>0</sub>)?
- If this probability turns out very small, we will "reject the null"
  - > I.e., we will conclude that the coin is not fair but biased
- Now, the probability of 8 heads in 10 tosses of a fair coin is:

> B(8; 10; 0.5) = 
$$(\frac{10!}{8!})(\frac{1}{2^{10}}) = 0.044$$

- > Likewise, we can calculate B(9; 10; 0.5) and B(10; 10; 0.5)
- > Added together, P(8 or more heads  $| H_0 \rangle \approx 0.055$

### The Logic of Hypothesis Testing

- So, P(8 or more heads  $|H_0\rangle \approx 0.055$ 
  - > We call this value the **p-value**: the probability of observing something at least as extreme as we do observe, if  $H_0$  were true
- We reject the null when the p-value is small
  - > In that case, there is a low probability that the claim made by the null is true in the population of interest
- How low should the p-value be?
  - > This depends on the chosen level of statistical significance ( $\alpha$ ), which captures how tolerant we are of incorrectly rejecting  $H_0$
  - > In the social sciences,  $\alpha$  typically equals 0.05, 0.01, or 0.001

#### Hypothesis Testing: Central Limit Theorem

• To calculate the <u>p-value</u>, we rely on information about the sampling distribution of the parameter of interest (e.g., the sample mean  $\bar{x}$  or the regression coefficient  $b_x$ )

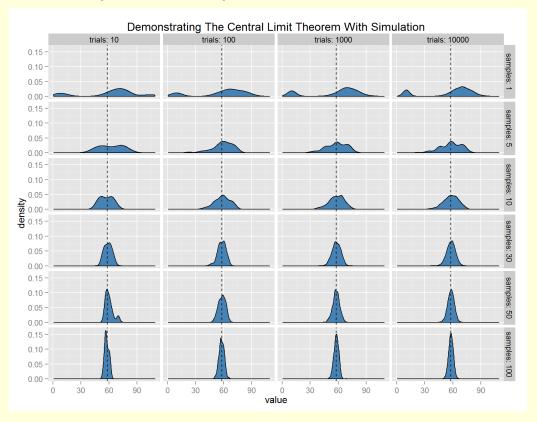
In particular, we apply the central limit theorem:

If sufficiently large random samples are repeatedly drawn from a population, then the sampling distribution of the sample means will be approximately normally distributed

Sample sizes of N ≥ 30 are typically large enough

#### Hypothesis Testing: Central Limit Theorem

If sufficiently large random samples are repeatedly drawn from a population, then the sampling distribution of the sample means will be approximately normally distributed  $\rightarrow$  An illustration:



#### Hypothesis Testing: Central Limit Theorem

- Implication <u>central limit theorem</u>:
  - If we take repeated samples from a population, the means from those samples will fall in a **normal distribution** around the population mean
- This principle is used in hypothesis testing to calculate the <u>p-value</u>:
  - Applying this principle, we can determine the probability of observing what we do observe in our sample if the null hypothesis about the underlying population was true

### Hypothesis Testing: Type of Errors

In hypothesis testing, we can make two types of errors:

- Type-I error (false positive): rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true
  - > Covid test says you have got the virus even though you don't
- Type-II error (false negative): not rejecting  $H_o$  when it is false
  - > Covid test says you don't have the virus even though you do
- There is a trade-off between avoiding Type-I and Type-II errors

#### Hypothesis Testing: Type of Errors

In hypothesis testing, we can make two types of errors:

- Type-I error (false positive): rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true
- Type-II error (false negative): not rejecting  $H_0$  when it is false
- Hypothesis testing rules are constructed to make the probability of committing a Type-I error (false positive) fairly small
  - > We define the significance level of a test  $(\alpha)$  as the probability of committing a Type-I error
  - $\triangleright$  E.g.,  $\alpha$  = 0.05 implies that, with repeated sampling, we will incorrectly reject the null hypothesis 5% of the time
    - In the Covid test example: in 5% of cases, the test tells us that someone has Covid even though they don't

#### Hypothesis Testing: Test Statistics

- A test statistic is a single number that quantifies the difference between the <u>observed data</u> in our sample, and the <u>expected</u> <u>data</u> under the null hypothesis
  - > E.g., it compares a sample mean to the hypothesised population mean, or a sample regression coefficient to the assumed population regression coefficient
- Examples of test statistics:  $\chi^2$ , F, T, Z
  - The test statistic that should be used in a given test depends on the type of analysis

#### T-test

For tests about means and OLS coefficients, we use **T-tests**:

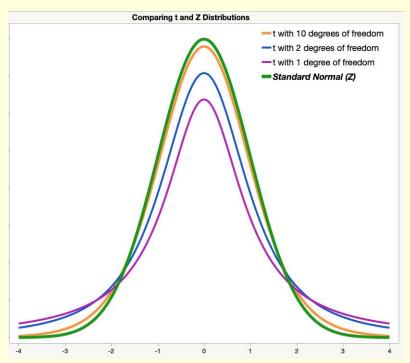
- Because we must estimate the standard deviation by using the standard error, we must use the t-distribution rather than the standard normal (Z) distribution
- T-distribution controls for the fact that the estimate of the standard deviation is going to be a bit off for smaller samples
- T-statistic is similar to Z-statistic, except it uses the standard error of the parameter of interest as denominator:

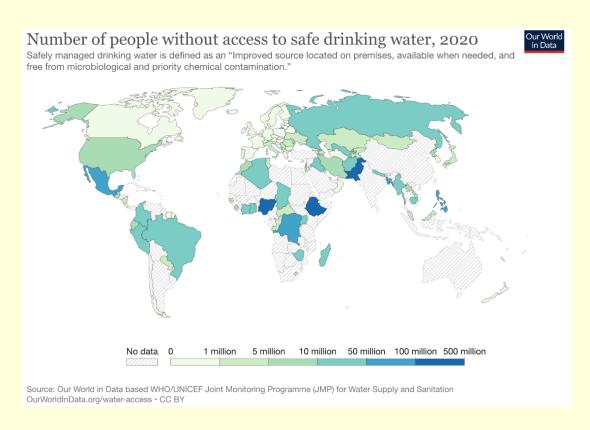
$$t = \frac{Sample \; mean - Population \; mean}{Sample \; standard \; error}$$

#### T-test

For tests about means and OLS coefficients, we use **T-tests**:

- T-distribution looks like a standard normal distribution but it has fatter tails (and degrees of freedom attached to it)
- T-distribution will be flatter in smaller samples, but it approximates the Z-distribution as sample size increases





#### **Testable statement:**

People who live in higher-income countries and lower-income countries do not have equal access to safe drinking water

#### Testable statement:

People who live in higher-income countries and lower-income countries do not have equal access to safe drinking water

This statement concerns a difference of population means

- If  $\mu_1$  = population mean higher-income countries,  $\mu_2$  = population mean lower-income countries, and  $\Delta = \mu_1 \mu_2$ :
  - > Then the null hypothesis reads  $H_o: \Delta = 0$
  - > Although the <u>two-sided</u> alternative hypothesis  $H_a: \Delta \neq 0$  is considered here, you can also test <u>one-sided</u> alternative hypotheses, i.e.,  $H_a: \Delta < 0$  or  $H_a: \Delta > 0$

Before going ahead with our test, we first need to group countries into higher-income and lower-income ones

- We can create a variable for this, which equals 0 for lower-income countries and 1 for higher-income countries
- We use the generate and replace commands for this:

```
generate high_income = 0
replace high_income = 1 if gdpcap > 12695
replace high_income = . if gdpcap == .
```

 generate creates completely new variables, replace changes the values of existing variables

Before going ahead with our test, we first need to group countries into higher-income and lower-income ones

- We can create a variable for this, which equals 0 for lower-income countries and 1 for higher-income countries
- It is always important to check your data manipulations; here we can use tabulate and/or summarize for this:

```
tabulate gdpcap high_income
summarize gdpcap if high_income == 0
summarize gdpcap if high income == 1
```

Before going ahead with our test, we first need to group countries into higher-income and lower-income ones

- We can create a variable for this, which equals 0 for lower-income countries and 1 for higher-income countries
- It is also smart to attach informative labels to new variables:

```
label variable high_income ///
    "Whether country is higher-income"
label define HIGH_INCOME ///
    0 "Lower-income country" ///
    1 "Higher-income country"
label values high_income HIGH_INCOME
```

Remember to check the Stata help files for more information on the set-up, syntax, and working of these commands, e.g.:

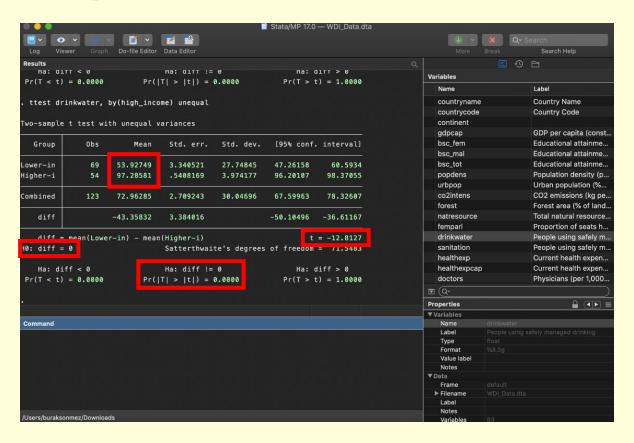
help generate help tabulate help label

#### **Bonus item:**

Another way to construct the same grouping variable based on income level is with the recode command. Have a look at the help file for recode and see whether you can reproduce the "high\_income" variable using recode.

#### We can now conduct the t-test by running:

- ttest drinkwater, by (high income) unequal
- See help ttest for details about this command

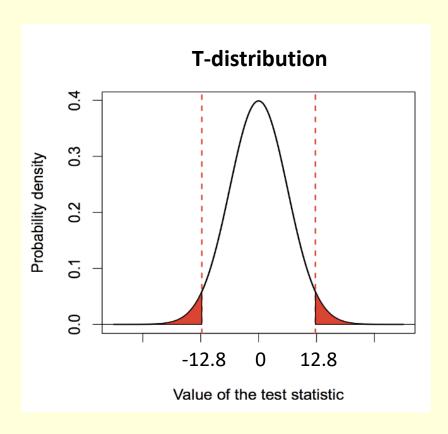


#### Key questions to answer:

- If in the population there was no association between a country's income level and access to safe drinking water, what are the chances of observing the group means that we do observe in our sample data?
- In other words, what is the probability of observing a group mean difference of at least 43 percentage points if in reality there is no difference between these two groups?
- The **t-value** for the observed group mean difference is -12.8, and the **p-value** (i.e., the probability of observing something at least as extreme by pure chance if  $H_0$  is true) is <0.0001

A graphical illustration of what we are testing:

What is the size of the red area in this graph?



### Hypothesis Testing: Stata Example

#### Conclusions that we can draw from this test:

- Given that the p-value is smaller than  $\alpha$  (whether we set  $\alpha$  at 0.05, 0.01, or 0.001), we can **reject the null** that there is no association b/w a country's income level and access to safe drinking water
- It is extremely unlikely that we observe what we do in our sample data if in reality there was no difference in access to safe drinking water between higher-income and lower-income countries
- In fact, if we set  $\alpha$  at 0.05, the <u>critical t-value</u> equals 1.96
  - > This means that a t-value larger than 1.96 or smaller than -1.96 would already have been enough to reject the null hypothesis

### Uncertainty – Confidence Intervals

- We may also wish to know the range within which the population parameter of interest is likely to fall
- We can refer to confidence intervals for this, which quantify the uncertainty embedded in our inferences
  - > We can identify confidence intervals at different levels (e.g., 90%, 95%, 99% confidence intervals)
- In general, confidence intervals are formulated as follows:

```
(estimate -k * SE, estimate +k * SE)
```

> SE is the standard error of the estimate, and the value for "k" depends on the chosen confidence level (e.g., 1.96 for 95%)

### Uncertainty – Confidence Intervals

In general, confidence intervals are formulated as follows:

```
(estimate -k * SE, estimate +k * SE)
```

- > SE is the standard error of the estimate, and the value for "k" depends on the chosen confidence level (e.g., 1.96 for 95%)
- The width of a confidence interval depends on the standard error of the estimator, which partially depends on the sample size
  - ➤ Larger sample size → smaller standard error
  - ➤ Smaller standard error → narrower confidence interval
  - > Narrower confidence interval = more precise estimate

### Uncertainty – Confidence Intervals

- In our Stata example, the 95% confidence interval for the difference in access to safe drinking water for lower-income vs. higher-income countries is: (-50.1; 36.3)
- What a 95% confidence interval tells us:
  - With repeated sampling, 95% of the confidence intervals calculated based on these samples will contain the population parameter of interest
- What a 95% confidence interval does not tell us:
  - The population parameter of interest has a 95% probability of lying within the confidence interval that we have calculated based on this particular sample

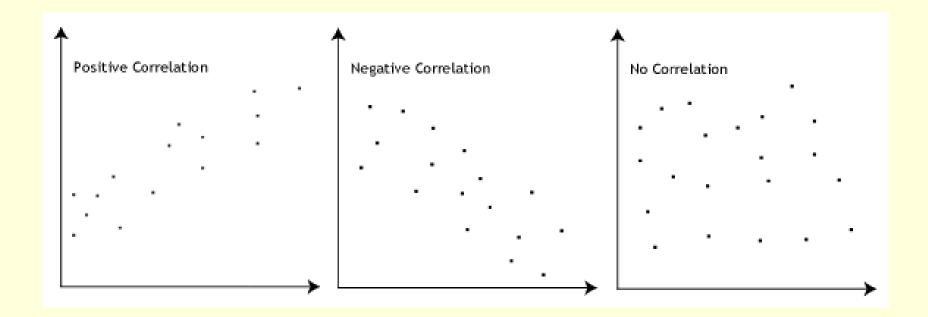
#### Time for a Task...

<u>Task</u>: Conduct a similar t-test to compare two group means as in the example above, based on the WDI dataset

- > See help ttest if you are unsure about the command
- As grouping variable, you can again use countries' level of income, but for example also their continent, or a newly created grouping based on any other variable
- > Prior to conducting your test, form a hypothesis
- Reflect on your results with a peer, paying attention to the observed difference in this dataset, and the accompanying p-value, t-value, and 95% confidence interval

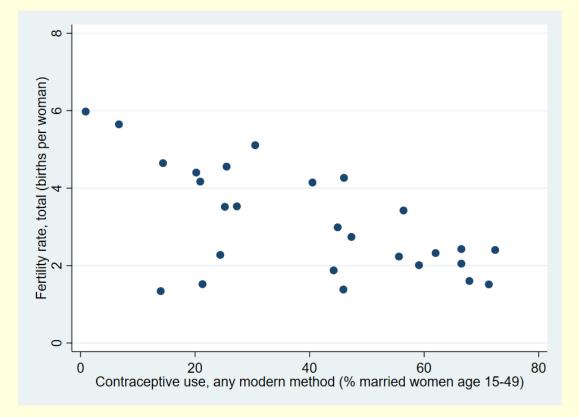
If you have any spare time, conduct a second test

- In everyday language, the terms dependence, association and correlation are used interchangeably
  - However, statistically, association is synonymous with dependence but different from correlation
- Association is a general relationship: one variable provides information about another
  - > Two variables are associated if there is a pattern in a scatter plot that is too strong to arise simply by chance
- Correlation measures a specific form of association: two variables are correlated when there is a <u>linear trend</u>



To create a scatter plot, use the scatter command

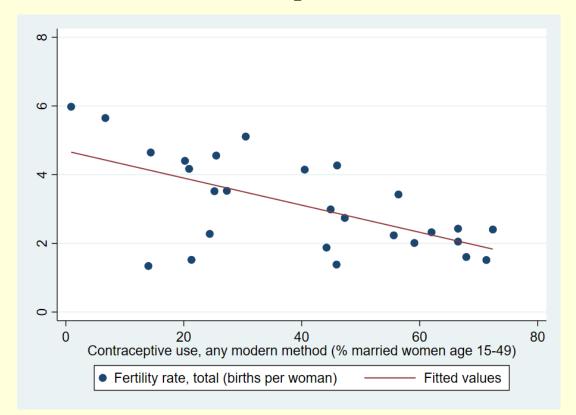
- > The first variable listed will be plotted along the vertical axis
- > The second variable will be plotted along the horizontal axis
- > E.g., scatter tfr contracep



To create a scatter plot, use the scatter command

- > We can add another plot after specifying ||
- > E.g., we can add a best-fitting line using lfit:

```
scatter tfr contracept || lfit tfr contracept
```



#### Covariance

- Covariance refers to the idea that the pattern of variation for one variable corresponds to the pattern of variation for another variable: the two variables "vary together"
- Statistically speaking, covariance is the multiplication of the deviations from the mean for the first variables and the deviations from the mean for the second variable:

$$cov(X,Y) = \frac{\sum_{i}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{n}$$

- The covariance tells us the <u>direction</u> of an association: + or
  - It does not tell us about the <u>strength</u> of the association (reference to underlying distributions of variables is missing)

### Pearson's Correlation

For continuous data, we can calculate **Pearson's correlation (r)** 

- > r measures strength & direction of association for linear trends
- > r rescales the covariance to the underlying distributions of the variables involved; in formula format:  $\mathbf{r} = \frac{cov(X,Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$

Dividing the covariance by the product of the standard deviations normalizes the covariance to a range from -1 to +1

- > -1 = perfectly negative correlation (all points on decreasing line)
- > +1 = perfectly positive correlation (all points on increasing line)
- > 0 = no correlation (random cloud of points)
- > Correlation is weaker closer to 0 and stronger closer to +/-1

#### Pearson's Correlation

In Stata, we can use the pwcorr command to get Pearson's r:

- > E.g., pwcorr tfr contracep
- > pwcorr stands for "pairwise correlation"
- We can add the options obs and sig to get the underlying number of observations and the p-value of the correlation
- > You can also obtain correlation coefficients for more than 2 variables add a time; you just extend the variable list for this

```
. pwcorr tfr contracep, sig obs

tfr contra~p

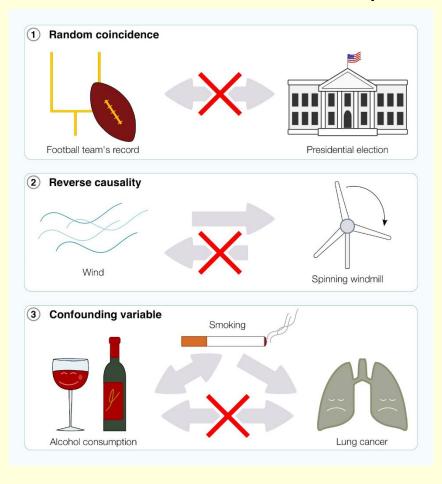
tfr 1.0000

200

contracep -0.6094 1.0000
0.0007
27 27
```

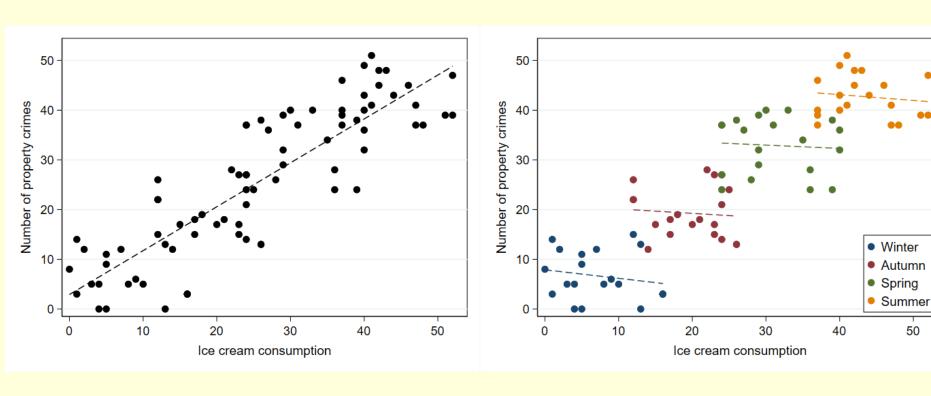
### **Spurious Correlations**

Not all correlations reflect causal relationships:



## **Spurious Correlations**

Not all correlations reflect causal relationships:



50

## Spurious Correlations

#### Not all correlations reflect causal relationships:



#### Final Exercise

<u>Task</u>: Please go back to the WDI dataset and try to identify a potential spurious correlation

- > Report the correlation coefficient
- > Draw a scatter plot of the association
- > Explain why you think the relationship is not causal
- Investigate how the association varies across different types of countries
  - You can apply "if" conditions and create new variables to group countries together

### Questions

- Please ask any remaining questions now or feel free to email us at <u>b.sonmez@ucl.ac.uk</u> or <u>d.wiertz@ucl.ac.uk</u>
- Feedback on this bootcamp is also very welcome
- Good luck with your MSc at UCL!