

## Agenda

- o Critical statistics (seriously):
  - o Types of variables.
  - o The mean (and what it means in measurement).
  - o Variance.
  - o Covariance & correlation.

# Views of Variables

## ◦ **Random**

- Unknown before a study is carried out.
- We can model the *expected value* of random variables but we do not know the actual values until we have the data.

## ◦ **Observed vs. latent** (unobservable - inferred).

- A variable can be latent without being a construct.



## ◦ **Discrete vs. continuous**

- Implications for the way we set up and interpret our statistical models.
- R&M: If a variable takes on fewer than 15 different values, model it as discrete.
- This means most item responses are viewed as discrete...

# The Mean and What it Means

- You all know how to calculate the mean.
- When you have a binary variable (0 or 1), the mean is (exactly) equivalent to the probability of scoring 1.
  - Getting the item correct, choosing the keyed answer.
- With binary items, it is easy to think of this as the **difficulty** of the item.
  - The probability of getting it right.
  - Higher numbers = lower difficulty.
- We extend this logic to continuous variables as well: the item mean = item difficulty.
  - Difficulty = extremeness.
  - **Not** about cognitive effort!

# Variance

- Conceptually, what is the variance of a variable?
- Calculated by:
  - $\hat{\sigma}_X^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$
- Variance is **good** in psychological tests.
  - What we really want is lots of **true** variance.
  - Need lots of overall variance to make that happen.
- The standard deviation is just another way to write the variance – puts it in interpretable units.
- We will mostly work with variances (not SDs).

# Covariance


- Indicator of the relatedness of two variables:
  - $c_{X,Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})$
  - $(X_i - \bar{X})$  = distance of the X value from the mean of X
  - $(Y_i - \bar{Y})$  = distance of the Y value from the mean of Y
  - Covariance gets bigger when both  $(X_i - \bar{X})$  and  $(Y_i - \bar{Y})$  are positive, OR both are negative.
    - When X & Y deviate from the mean in the same direction.
  - Covariance gets smaller when one is positive and the other is negative.



## Good Things to Know About Covariances

- o The bigger  $(X_i - \bar{X})$  and  $(Y_i - \bar{Y})$  are, the larger the covariance can be.
  - o In other words... having more variance (variability) gives you more potential to see sizable covariances.
  - o Having very little variability – everything clustered around the mean – makes it hard to have a high covariance with anything else.
  - o Related to *restriction of range*.
- o The variance of a variable is its covariance with itself:
- o  $c_{X,Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(X_i - \bar{X}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$
- o So we can find a variance-covariance matrix by finding the covariances among every possible pair of variables.

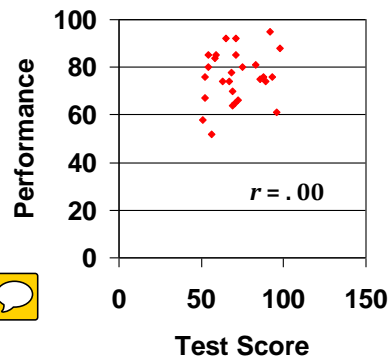
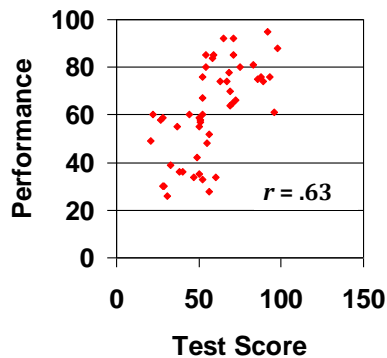
## Covariance and Correlation

- o Covariances don't have meaningful units – hard to compare and interpret.
- o So we often transform them into correlations.
  - o  $\hat{\rho}_{X,Y} = \frac{Cov(X,Y)}{\sqrt{Var(X)Var(Y)}}$  (Equation 2.6)
- o This is equivalent to finding the variance using z-scores instead of raw differences from the mean (Equation 2.7).
- o What this means is that the correlation is the *standardized* version of the covariance.
  - o We can use this later in factor analysis to get standardized estimates of item parameters. 

## Restriction of Range

- We've already said that you can't have covariance if you don't have variance.
- Sometimes, our measures or our samples prevent us from seeing the full variance of a latent variable.
  - Can you think of examples?
- When this happens, even if a true relationship between the variables exists, we will see only a weak correlation.

## Restriction of Range



# Implications of Range Restriction

- o Item writing:
  - o If you write an item that has very little variance, it will not correlate well with other items.
  - o If you are surprised by the poor performance of an item, look at its variance – lack of variance is often the reason.
  - o This is (one reason) why your pilot/development sample needs to be reasonably representative of your population!
- o Using tests:
  - o Same principle applies. If there is not much variance in your outcome, you can't predict it. If variance is artificially restricted, you may miss a true relationship.
- o Restriction of range makes correlations smaller; not bigger.


# Correlations and Statistical Significance

- o You can test the likelihood that a particular observed correlation would occur even if the true population correlation is zero.
- o However, this is not much use. Why?
- o Significance tests for correlations are hugely dependent on sample size.
  - o This is true for all sig tests, but tests for correlations are particularly sensitive.
  - o A correlation of .10 is significant if you have 272 participants. Not if you have 271. A correlation of .01 is significant if you have 30,000 participants.
- o In measurement, we are much more interested in the effect size.

## Correlations and Effect Sizes

- o Even a small correlation can have a big practical effect.
  - o Example: a new cancer treatment
  - o With no treatment, 60% of patients die and 40% live.
  - o With the treatment, 40% of patients die and 60% live.
  - o Is that worthwhile?
- o Correlation:  $r = .20$ ,  $r^2 = .04$
- o In measurement we are much more concerned with *patterns* of correlations than with the “significance” of any one of them.
  - o So long as you have a large enough sample to give you some confidence in those patterns...

## Linear Combinations

- o A linear combination is a mathematical process that involves:
  - o Adding
  - o Subtracting
  - o Multiplying 
  - o Dividing
  - o And NO other math (no square roots, logs, etc.).
- o Linear combinations do not change the shape of the underlying distributions of our variables.

## Variances of Linear Combinations

- o If you have a set of variables  $X_1, X_2$ , etc., and you want to add them all together.
  - o For example, a set of items you want to add into a total test score.
- o The variance of the sum is equal to the sum of the item variances plus the covariances among all the items (counted twice).
  - o Assuming you are weighting all the items equally.
  - o It's only slightly more complicated for weighted items (see Equation 2.8).

## Item and Test Variance

- o Imagine an item covariance matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11} & \sigma_{21} & \cdots & \sigma_{j1} \\ \sigma_{12} & \sigma_{22} & \cdots & \vdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sigma_{1j} & \sigma_{2j} & \cdots & \sigma_{jj} \end{bmatrix}$$

- o The variances of linear combinations formula means that we can find total test variance by adding up all the elements of this matrix.
- o We want large item variances *and* large item covariances.



# Questions?

For next time:  
Classical Test Theory  
Read: DeVellis Ch. 2  
4<sup>th</sup> Reading Response