

# **Chapter 2: Overview**

---

*Statistical Literacy 2009*

**Chapter Summaries**

by

**Milo Schield**

*[www.StatLit.org/pdf/...](http://www.StatLit.org/pdf/...)*

*2009StatLitTextHandoutCh2.ppt*

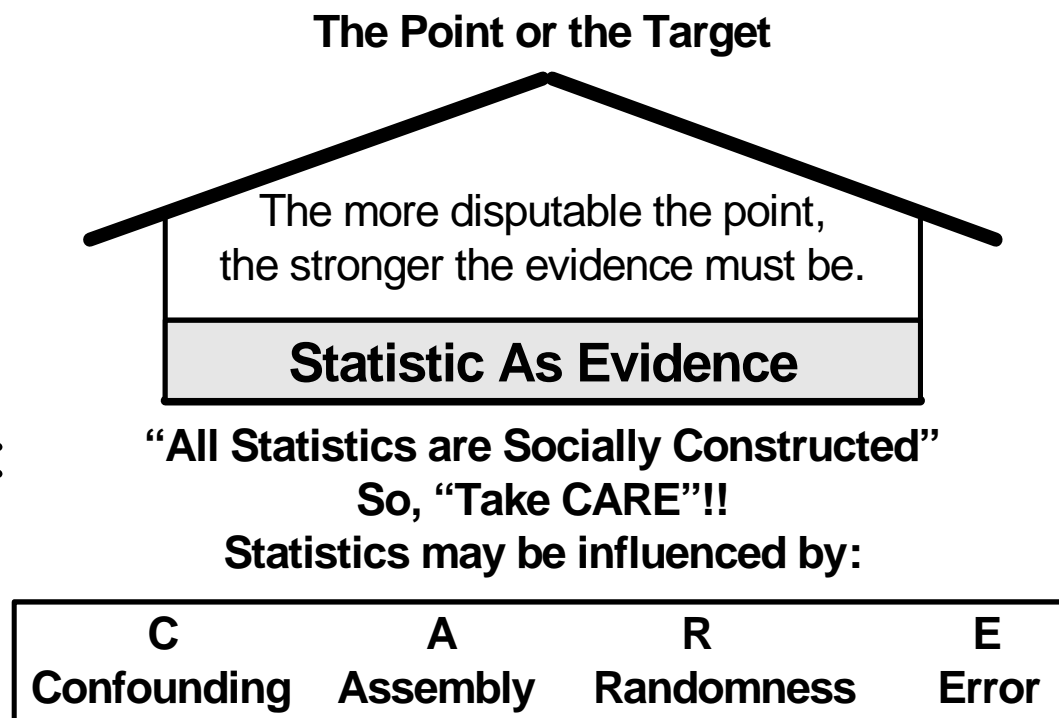
*2009StatLitTextHandoutCh2.pdf*

# Ch 1. Review

---

Statistics are generally used as evidence to support an argument.

The influences on a statistic are of four kinds: Context, Assembly, Randomness or Error.



# **Review of C.A.R.E.**

---

**Context:** Related factors taken into account; the confounders not taken into account.

**Assembly:** Choice in definition, measurement or presentation.

**Randomness:** Influence of chance.

**Error:** Systematic deviation of statistics from the underlying reality.

# Association: Arithmetic Comparisons

---

## 1. Simple Difference:

\_\_\_\_\_ is \_\_\_ more/less/\*er than \_\_\_\_\_.  
 {test}           # [T-B]                           {base}

## 2. Simple Ratio:

\_\_\_\_\_ is \_\_\_ times as much/many as \_\_\_\_\_.  
 {test}           # [T/B]                           {base}

‘\*er’ indicates comparative: bigger, smaller...

# **Association: Arithmetic Comparisons**

---

## 3. Relative Difference:

- **Percent difference:**

\_\_\_\_\_ is \_\_\_ % more/less/\*er than \_\_\_\_\_.

{test} #  $[100(T-B)/B]$  {base}

- **Times difference:**

\_\_\_\_\_ is \_\_\_ times more/less/\*er than \_\_\_\_\_.

{test} #  $[(T-B)/B]$  {base}

# Association: Percentage Points

---

Compare 15% with 10%.

- Simple Difference: 15% is 5% more than 10%.
- Simple Ratio: 15% is 1.5 times [as much as] 10%.
- Percent difference: 15% is 50% more than 10% .

First and last statements cannot both be true.

**Percentage points** for a simple difference in two %.

- 15% is 5 percentage points more than 10%

# Assembly: Choice of Base

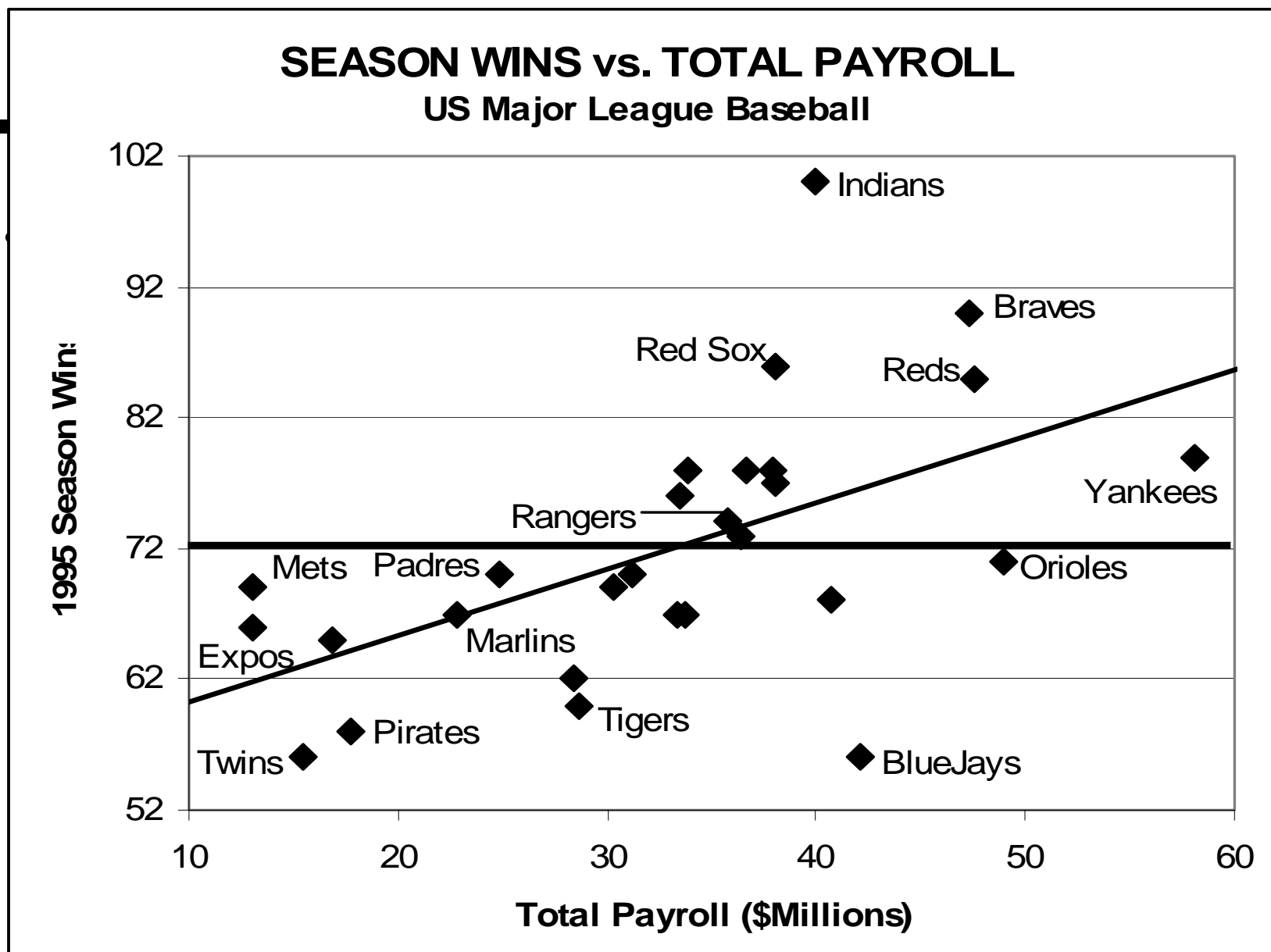
---

Suppose 99% of married men (90% of married women) are happy with their spouse.

Minimizes the difference: “Men are **10% more likely to be happy** with their spouse than are women.” [99% is 10% more than 90%]

Maximize the difference: “Women are **10 times as likely to be unhappy** with their spouse as are men.” [10% is 10 times 1%]

# Context





# **Context: Study Design**

---

**Experiment:** “Study in which the researcher intentionally alters one or more factors under controlled conditions in order to study the effects of so doing.”

**Observational study:** “A study where the investigator observes without intervening.”

Most studies are observational – even in medical journals.

# **Context: Study Design**

---

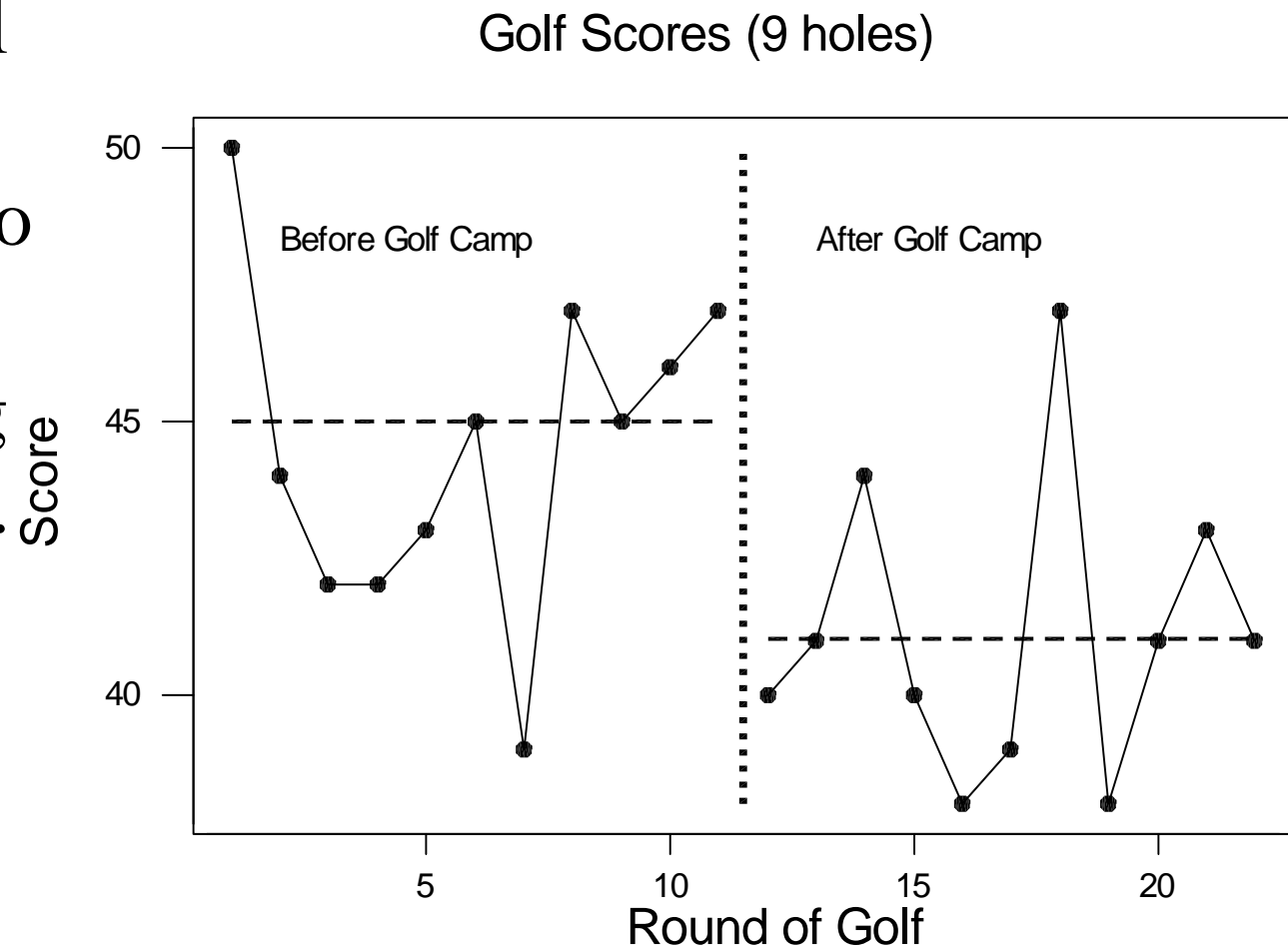
**Longitudinal study** involves repeated measures: measurement of the outcome at two different times (before and after a treatment or exposure).

**Cross-sectional study** involves counts and measures at one time: a single moment in time (unemployment) or a time interval (death rate).

Cross sectional studies are cheaper, more common than longitudinal.

# Context: Longitudinal Studies

Longitudinal study is still susceptible to influence of time-varying confounders.



# **Context: Controlled Study**

---

**Controlled study** involves at least two groups or subgroups at the same time.

A controlled study is not always an experiment. Most controlled studies are observational.

A single measurement, count or percentage is often from an uncontrolled study or survey. E.g., 25% of those ages 25-29 have had only one sex partner since age 18.

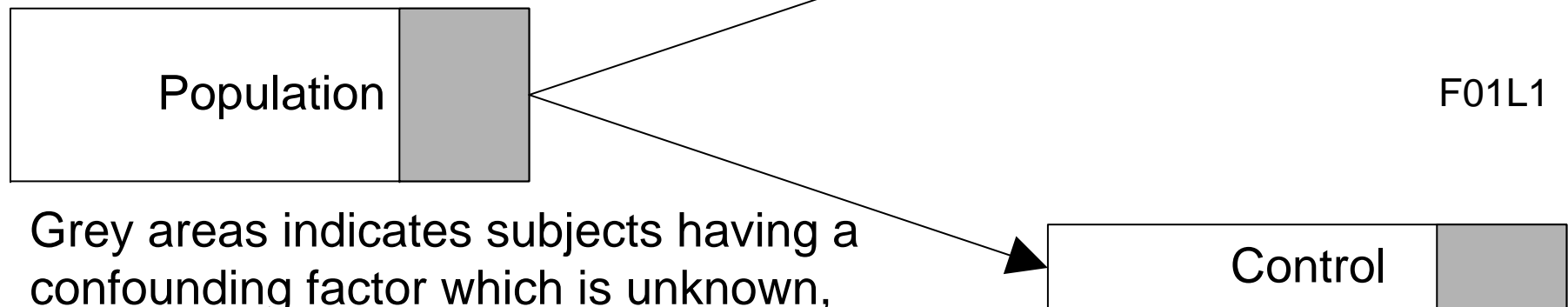
# Context:

## Random Assignment

---

Random assignment *statistically* nullifies all pre-existing confounders. Same mix in both groups. Random assignment is the “gold standard”.

### RANDOMIZED TRIAL with Ideal Outcome



Grey areas indicates subjects having a confounding factor which is unknown, unmeasurable or unmeasured

# **Context: Benefits of Study Design**

---

*A longitudinal study* controls for confounders that don't change over time.

E.g., race, gender, etc.

*A cross-sectional study* controls for confounders that involve a change over time.

E.g., change in age, in prices, etc.

*Randomized assignment* controls for any (all) pre-existing confounders.

# Random: Best Representative

---

A **population** is any group of interest.

A **sample** is any part of the population.

- **Representative samples** are samples similar to the whole population. *Problem:* Getting a representative sample is very difficult with people.
- **Random samples** are samples where each member of a population is equally likely to be selected. *Benefit:* Most likely to yield a representative sample on all factors—known and unknown.
- **Convenience samples** are non-random.

# Randomness: Margin of Error

---

The **margin of error (ME)** is the variability due to random sampling. The smaller the sample, the larger the margin of error.

A tell-tale sign is the  $\pm$  followed by an amount.

Margin of error only measures sampling error.

A **95% confidence interval** is the range that contains the population statistic – with 95% confidence.

Confidence intervals range from low (statistic minus margin of error) to high (statistic plus margin of error).



# **Randomness: Statistical Significance**

---

Being “**statistically significant**” means that something (a value, a difference, a ratio or an association) is very unlikely if due just to chance.

Getting all 13 cards in one suit in a random deal of card would be statistically significant!

A small study found a statistically-significant difference between men and women in the percentage who dream in color .

# Randomness: Non-Overlap Rule

---

If a two sample statistics have overlapping confidence intervals, then their difference is not *statistically significant*.

If the intervals do not overlap, then the difference in sample statistics is *statistically significant*.

An increase from 8% last year to 10% this year would not be *statistically significant* if the margin of error was 1 percentage point.

# 1) Respondent Bias:

---

**Three common forms:**

**Placebo Effect:** A health-improvement in subjects getting a placebo: an inert medication or procedure.

**Hawthorne effect:** A systematic change in response when the subjects know they are the subject of attention (e.g., being watched).

**Safety Effect:** An increase in risky behavior because the subject knows they have safer equipment.

## 2) Measurement Bias:

---

**Researcher bias:** A change in outcome due to a researcher's knowledge of who is in which group.

A researcher with this knowledge may generate biased evaluations or may communicate that knowledge to the subject and generate subject bias.

**Halo effect:** when the researcher's optimism influences the data so it supports their optimism.

**Devil/Horns effect:** the opposite.

## 3) Sampling Bias:

---

Two common causes of non-representative samples:

**Non-response bias:** Subjects who select out by not participating in a survey are different from those who do participate.

**Completion/dropout bias:** The outcome is different for those who complete a survey or study than for those who do not.

# Minimizing Bias

---

**A single-blind study** blinds subjects as to whether they are in the treatment or control group; it minimizes respondent bias.

**A double-blind study** blinds the researcher as well as the subject from knowing which group a subject is in. This minimizes both respondent bias and researcher measurement bias.

# Summary: Defaults

---

Media stories often omit details. If the story does

- not say random assignment, assume non-random.
- not say experiment, assume observational study.
- not say longitudinal, assume cross-sectional.
- not give exact definitions, assume opportunism.
- not say random selection, assume convenience.
- not indicate large sample size, assume small.
- not give the questions in a survey, assume bias.

# Conclusion

---

Take CARE in evaluating statistics used as evidence in arguments.

Statistics can be influenced by context, assembly, randomness and error/bias.

Comparisons, study design and random selection can block or nullify some of these influences.