# Scientific Method \& Statistical Reasoning 

Paul Gribble<br>http://www.gribblelab.org/stats/

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## MD Chapters 1 \& 2

- The idea of pure science
- Philosophical stances on science
- Historical review
- Gets you thinking about the logic of science and experimentation


## Assumptions

## Lawfulness of nature

- Regularities exist, can be discovered, and are understandable
- Nature is uniform


## Causality

- events have causes; if we reconstruct the causes, the event should occur again
- can we ever prove causality?


## Reductionism

- Can we ever prove anything? What is proof?


## Assumptions

## Finite Causation

- causes are finite in number and discoverable
- generality of some sort is possible
- We don't have to replicate an infinite \# of elements to replicate an effect

Bias toward simplicity (parsimony)

- seek simplicity and distrust it
- start with simplest model: try to refute it; when it fails, add complexity (slowly)


## Philosophy of Science

- Logical Positivism
- Karl Popper \& deductive reasoning
- progress occurs by falsifying theories


## Logical Fallacy

Fallacy of inductive reasoning (affirming the consequent)

- Predict: If theory T , then data will follow pattern P
- Observe: data indeed follows pattern P
- Conclude: therefore theory T is true
example
- A sore throat is one of the symptoms of influenza (the flu)
- I have a sore throat
- Therefore, I have the flu

Of course other things besides influenza can cause a sort throat.
For example the common cold. Or yelling a lot. Or cancer.

## Falsification is better

## Falsification

- Predict: If theory T is true, then data will follow pattern P
- Observe: data do not follow pattern P
- Conclude: theory T cannot be true

We cannot prove a theory to be true.
We can only prove a theory to be false.

## Karl Popper

- Theories must have concrete predictions
- constructs (measures) must be valid
- empirical methodology must be valid


## Basis of Interpreting Data

the Fisher tradition

- statistics is not mathematics
- statistics is not arithmetic or calculation
- statistics is a logical framework for:
- making decisions about theories
- based on data
- defending your arguments
- Fisher (1890-1962) was a central figure in modern approaches to statistics
- The F-test is named after him


## The Fundamental Idea

THE critical ingredient in an inferential statistical test (in the frequentist approach):

- determining the probability, assuming the null hypothesis is true, of obtaining the observed data


## The Fundamental Idea

Calculation of probability is typically based on probability distributions

- continuous (e.g. z, t, F)
- discrete (e.g. binomial)

We can also compute this probability without having to assume a theoretical distribution

- Use resampling techniques
- e.g. bootstrapping


## Basis of Interpreting Data

- design experiments so that inferences drawn are fully justified and logically compelled by the data
- theoretical explanation is different from the statistical conclusion
- Fisher's key insight:
- randomization
- assures no uncontrolled factor will bias results of statistical tests


## A Discrete Probability Example



- Last fall in my lab we were making espresso, and I claimed that I could taste the difference between Illy beans (which are expensive) and Lavazza beans (which are less expensive).
- Let's think about how to design a test to determine whether or not I actually have this ability


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

Many factors might affect his judgment

- temperature of the espresso
- temperature of the milk
- use of sugar
- precise ratio of milk to espresso

Prior to Fisher

- you must experimentally control for everything
- every latte must be identical except for the independent variable of interest


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

How to design your experiment?

- a single judgment?
- he might get it right just by guessing
* this is the null hypothesis!
- $H_{0}$ is he does not have the claimed ability
- $H_{0}$ is that he is guessing


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

How many cups are required for a sufficient test?

- how about 8 cups (4 Illy, 4 Lavazza)
- present in random order
- tell subject that they have to separate the 8 cups into 2 groups: 4 Illy and 4 Lavazza
- is this a sufficient \# of judgments?
- how do we decide how many is sufficient?


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

Key Idea

- consider the possible results of the experiment, and the probability of each, given the null hypothesis that he is guessing
- there are many ways of dividing a set of 8 cups into Illy and Lavazza
- $\operatorname{Pr}($ correct by chance $)=$ (\# exactly correct divisions) / (total \# possible divisions)


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

- only one division exactly matches the correct discrimination
- therefore numerator $=1$
- what about the denominator?
- how many ways are there to classify 8 cups into 2 groups of 4 ?
- equals \# ways of choosing 4 Illy cups out of 8 (since the other 4 Lavazza are then determined)


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

- 8 possible choices for first of 4 Illy cups
- for each of these 8 there are 7 remaining cups from which to choose the second Illy cup
- for each of these 7 there are 6 remaining cups from which to choose the third Illy cup
- for each of these 6 there are 5 remaining cups from which to choose the fourth and final Illy cup
- total \# choices $=8 \times 7 \times 6 \times 5=1680$


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

- total \# choices $=1680$
- does order of choices matter? (no)
- any set of 4 things can be ordered 24 different ways ( $4 \times 3 \times 2$ x1)
- each set of 4 Illy cups would thus appear 24 times in a listing of the 1680 orderings
- so total \# of distinct sets (where order doesn't matter) $=(1680 / 24)=\mathbf{7 0}$ unique sets of 4 Illy cups


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

- we can calculate this more directly using the formula for "\# of combinations of $\mathbf{n}$ things taken $\mathbf{k}$ at a time"
- " 8 choose 4"

```
nCk = (n!) / (k! (n-k)! )
= 8! / (4! (8-4)! )
= (8x7x6x5x4x3x2x1) / (4x3x2x1)x(4x3x2x1)
= (8x7x6x5) / (4x3x2x1)
= 70
```


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

- we have now formulated a statistical test for our null hypothesis
- the probability of me choosing the correct 4 Illy cups by guessing is

$$
(1 / 70)=0.014=1.4 \%
$$

- so if I do pick the correct 4 Illy cups, then it is much more likely ( $\mathbf{9 8 . 6}$ \%) that I was not guessing
- you cannot prove I wasn't guessing
- you can only say that the probability of the observed outcome, if I was guessing, is low (1.4 \%)


## Testing Mr. EspressoHead

from the Chapter

- $\operatorname{Pr}($ perfect or $3 / 4$ correct $)=(1+16) / 70=24 \%$
- nearly $1 / 4$ of the time, just by guessing!
- so observed performance of $3 / 4$ correct may not be sufficient to convince us of my claim


## Logic of Statistical Tests

review

- to design a scientific test of Mr. EspressoHead's claim, we designed an experiment where the chances of him guessing correctly $4 / 4$ were low
- so if he did get $4 / 4$ correct then what can we conclude?
- we could choose to reject the null hypothesis that he was guessing, because we calculated that the chances of this happening, are low


## How low should you go?

how low is low enough to reject the null hypothesis?

- $5 \%(1$ in 20$) \mathrm{p}<.05$
- 2 \% (1 in 50) $\mathrm{p}<.02$
- 1 \% (1 in 100) $\mathrm{p}<.01$
- 0.0001 \% ( 1 in $1,000,000$ ) $\mathrm{p}<.000001$
answer:
it is arbitrary, YOU must decide
but consider convention in:
your lab / journal / field


## How low should you go?

what is the relative cost of making a wrong conclusion?

- concluding YES he has the ability when in fact he doesn't (type-I error)
- concluding NO he doesn't have the ability when in fact he does (type-II error)
costs may be different depending on the situation
- drug trial for a new, but very expensive (but potentially beneficial) cancer drug
- your thesis experiment, which appears to contradict a major accepted theory in neuroscience
- your thesis experiment, which appears to contradict your own previous study


## Tests based on Distributional Assumptions

Instead of counting or calculating possible outcomes we typically rely on statistical tables

- give probabilities based on theoretical distributions of test statistics
- typically based on the assumption that the dependent variables are normally distributed
- allows generalization to population, not just a particular sample
- e.g. the t-test (next week)

We can however proceed without assuming particular theoretical distributions

- non-parametric statistical tests
- resampling techniques


## for next week

catch up on readings

- MD 1 \& 2 (today's class)
- Start in on readings for Hypothesis Testing (MC3, MC7, MCt, N14)

