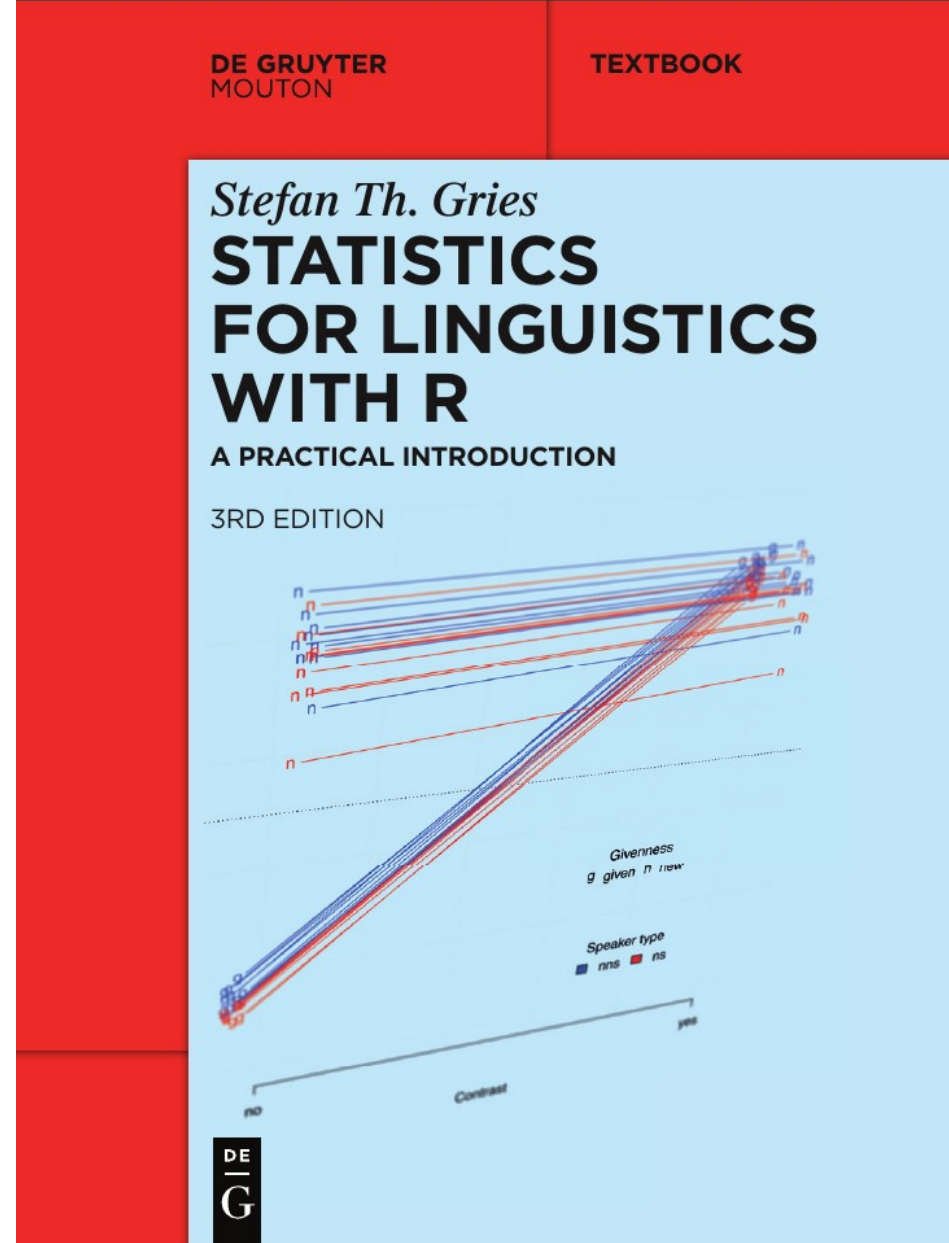
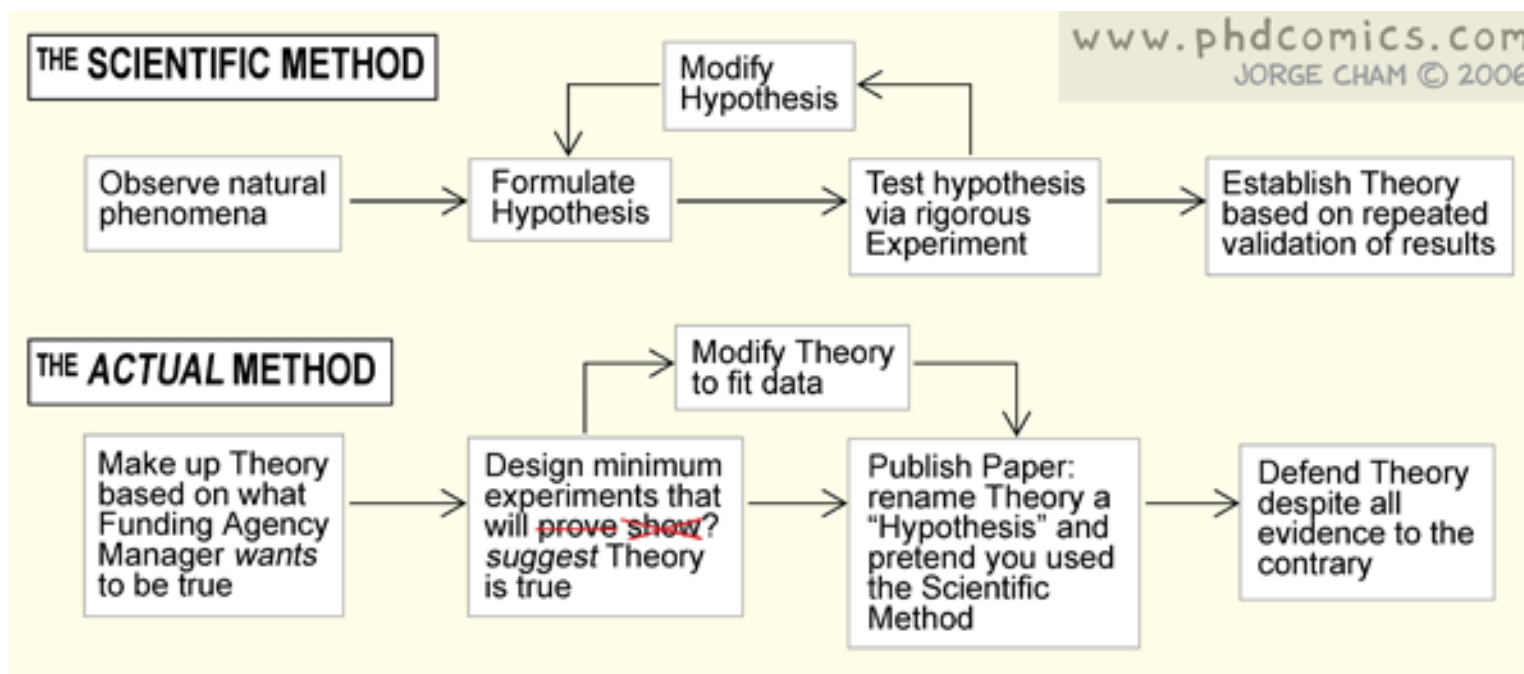


# Research methods and statistics for linguists



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# A few self-evident characteristics of empirical scientific inquiry



# A few self-evident characteristics of empirical scientific inquiry

- Objectives
  - **description**: what happens?
  - **explanation**: why does x happen?
  - **prediction**: what will happen with x if ...?
  - **control**: how can x be influenced?
- why use statistics for this?
  - to describe, explain, predict objectively and comparably
  - to describe, explain, predict precisely and concisely
  - to cope with variability and to generalize
    - one usually doesn't study the **population** but only a **sample**
    - different samples will yield different results so we need to
      - quantify this variability
      - separate random from systematic/meaningful variation
  - to assess the reliability of one's generalizations
- central notions
  - **objectivity**: independence of personal opinions
  - **reliability**: precision
  - **validity**: one measures what one wants to measure

# Pitfalls to avoid: overgeneralizations

- A published study on two English verbs A and B compared their complementation patterns on the basis of the following data

Verb	Pattern 1	Pattern 2	Totals
A	295 (74%)	104	399
B	131 (79%)	35	166
Totals	429	139	565

- one conclusion drawn from this data was "[c]omparing the postverbal elements in the two verbs, we can see that the proportion of [Pattern 1] for [B] is higher than for [A]"
- yes, 79% > 74%, but ...
- the distribution is not significantly different from chance

```
> freq.table <- matrix(c(295, 131, 104, 35), ncol=2)
> chisq.test(freq.table, correct=FALSE)
```

Pearson's Chi-squared test

```
data: freq.table
X-squared = 1.5679, df = 1, p-value = 0.2105
```

# Pitfalls to avoid: oversight

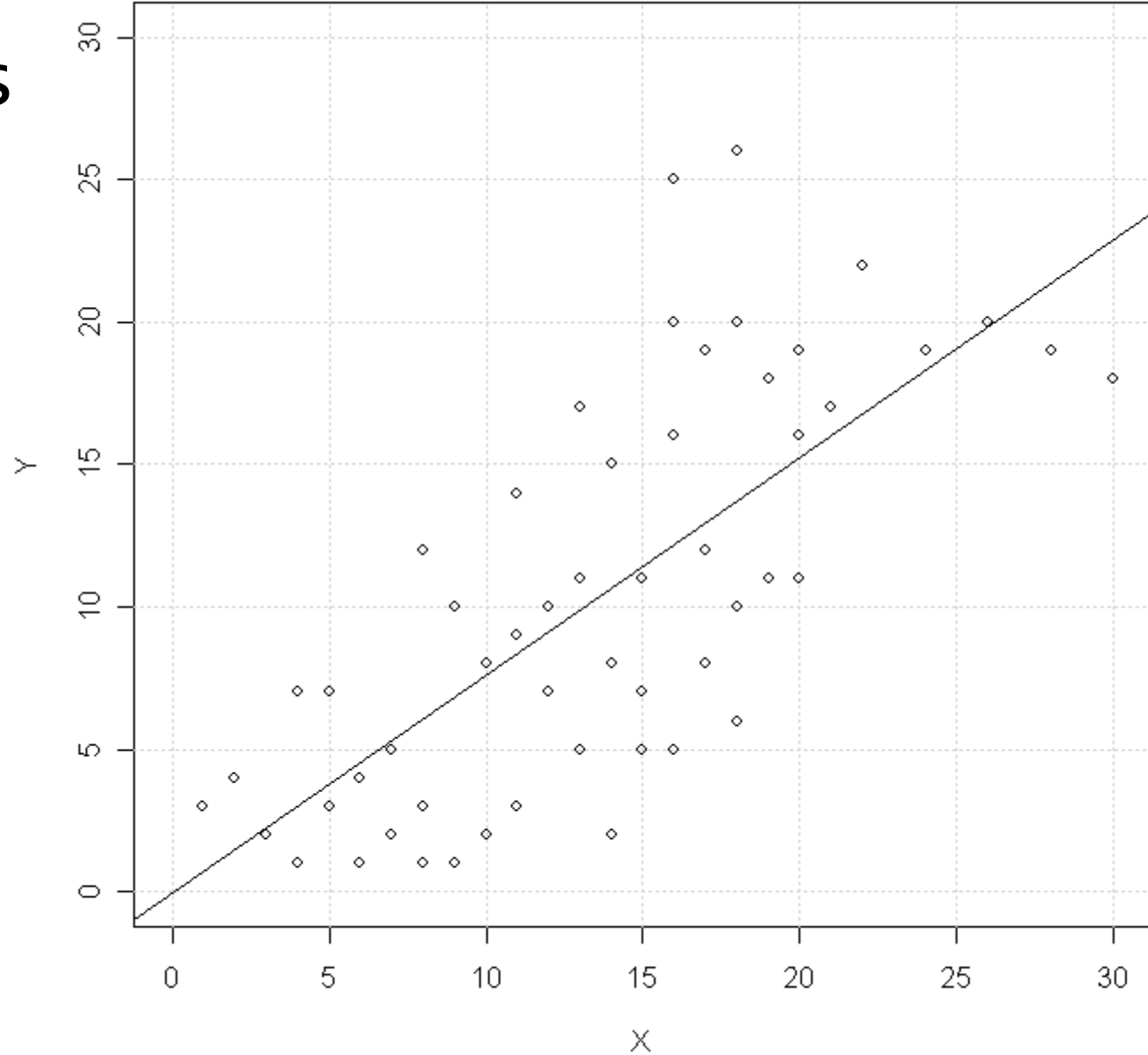
- A published study on two English expressions  $x$  and  $y$  discussed the distribution of different kinds of XPs after  $x$  and  $y$ ; these were the results

Expression	NP	PP	VP	AdjP	AdvP	Totals
$x$	302	8	145	19	8	482
$y$	73	0	5	3	0	81
Totals	375	8	150	22	8	563

- one conclusion drawn from this data was "[i]f we look at the distribution of  $x$  before major constituents we find that (a)  $x$  is more common before noun-phrases than before other constituents"
- yes, 302 = largest figure in the first row, but ...
- the focus of much of the study was on  $x$  compared to  $y$ , and compared to  $y$ ,  $x$  actually *dis*prefers to occur before NPs

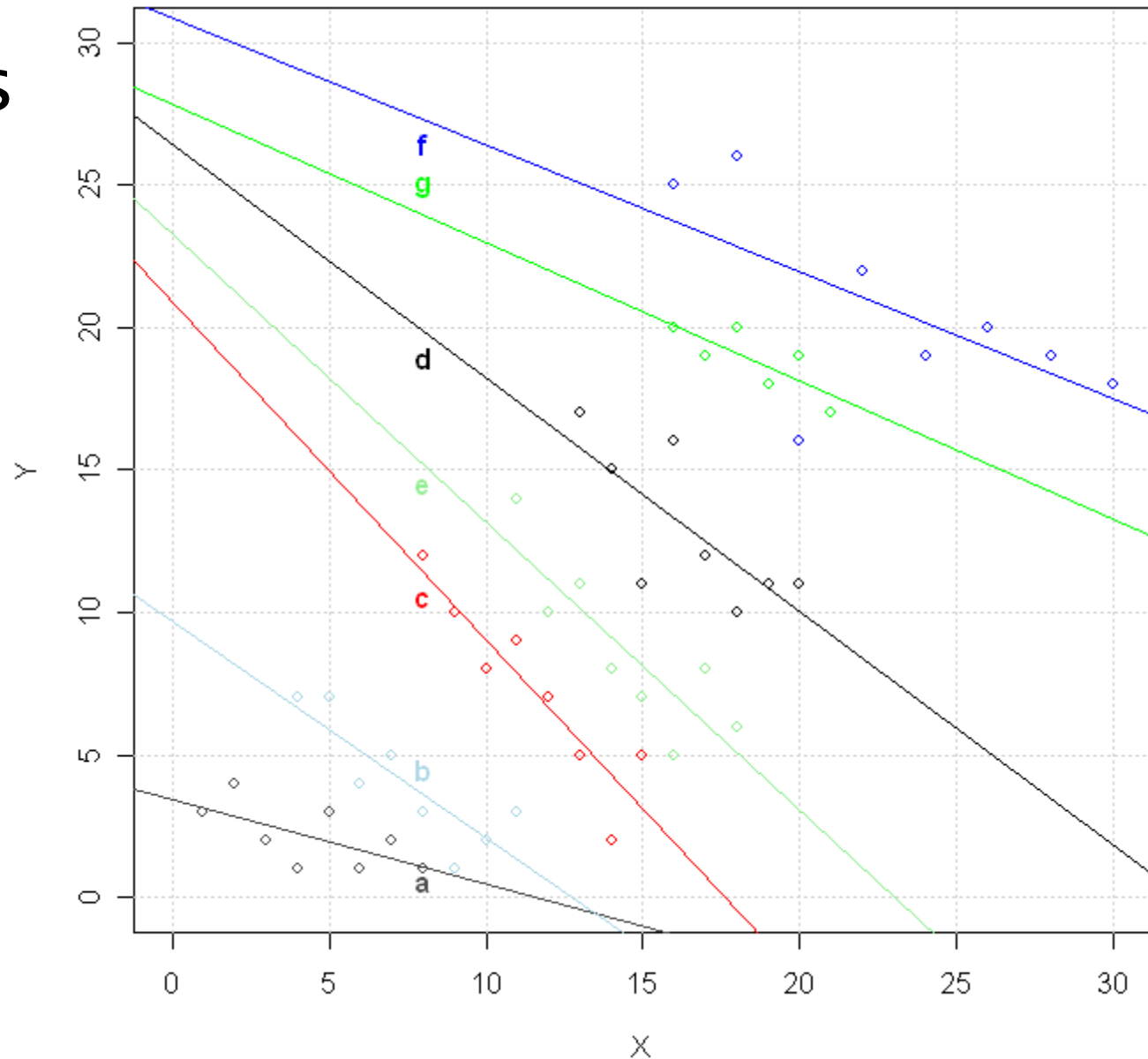
```
> freq.table <- matrix(c(302, 73, 8, 0, 145, 5, 19, 3, 8, 0), ncol=5)
> chisq.test(freq.table, correct=FALSE)$res
      [,1]      [,2]      [,3]      [,4]      [,5]
[1,] -1.063074  0.439797  1.463157  0.0380622  0.439797
[2,]  2.593250 -1.072836 -3.569209 -0.0928485 -1.072836
```

# Avoiding false interpretations



(Example from Crawley)

# Avoiding false interpretations



(Example from Crawley)

# Caveats regarding, and the structure of empirical quantitative studies

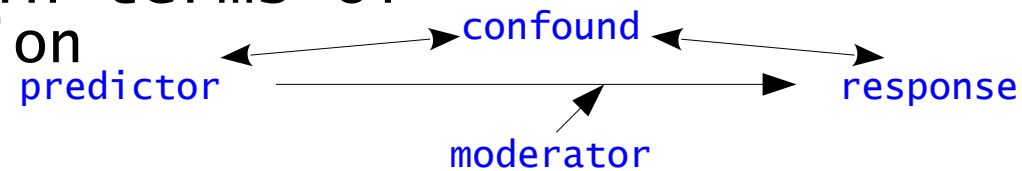
- Note, however,
  - statistics don't provide content – it's always the researcher who does that
  - statistics are only useful to the extent that the researcher has been successful
    - in operationalizing his variables appropriately
    - eliciting/collecting the data correctly
    - choosing the right statistical technique
- phases of an empirical quantitative study
  - reconnaissance
  - formulate hypotheses (text and statistical form)
  - data collection ((operationalizations of) variables)
  - evaluation of hypotheses in the light of the data
    - significance test ( $p$ -values)
    - effect sizes
    - graphs



# Phase (1 and) 2: Variables

- A variable is a "method for assigning to a set of observations a value from a set of possible outcomes" or "characteristics that—contrary to a constant—can exhibit at least two different states"
- they can be distinguished in terms of

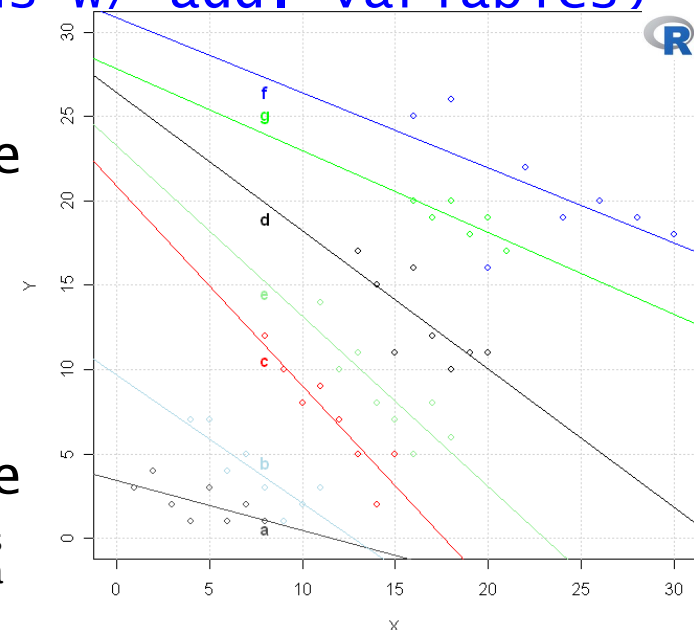
- their role in an investigation



- **predictor/independent**
- **response/dependent**
- **confound** (controlled, accounted for, or residualized out)
- **moderator** (accounted for by interactions w/ add. variables)

- their information value

- **categorical (nominal/binary)**
  - different values → different properties
- **ordinal**
  - categorical +
  - different values → different ranks
- **numeric (interval/ratio)**
  - categorical + ordinal +
  - different values → sizes of difference



## Phase (1 and) 2: variables

Time	Rank	Name	Number	Medal
9.86	1	S. Davis	453473	1
9.91	2	J. white	563456	1
10.01	3	S. Hendry	756675	1
20.02	4	C. Lewis	585821	0

num/ord/cat    ord/cat    cat    cat    num/ord/cat

# Phase 2: Text hypotheses → operationalization → statistical hypotheses

- What are hypotheses?
  - **universal statement** (going beyond a singular event)
  - implicit structure of a **conditional sentence**
    - if ..., then ...
    - the more/less ..., the more/less ...
  - **empirically testable** and **potentially falsifiable**
  - statements postulating a distribution of (a) response(s) or statements relating (a) predictor(s) to (a) response(s)
- kinds of (text and statistical) hypotheses
  - **alternative hypothesis H1**: a statement postulating a particular distribution of a (response) variable
    - a relation between 2+ predictors and/or response variables
  - **null hypothesis H0**: the logical counterpart to H1, an alternative hypothesis with *not* in it

# Phase 2: Text hypotheses → operationalization → statistical hypotheses

## Operationalization

### - definition 1

- pinpointing and fleshing out the notions that the text hypotheses refer to

### - definition 2

- translating the text hypotheses into something that involves numbers (i.e., can be counted, measured, ...)

### - most frequent statistical measures

- counts/frequencies
- distributions
- averages/means
- dispersions
- correlations

### examples: how would one operationalize

- the physical fitness of humans
- the financial wealth of a person The younger bachelors ate the nice little parrot.
- the lengths of sentences
- the givenness/accessibility of referents of subjects
- the knowledge of a foreign language

## Phase 2: Text hypotheses → operationalization → statistical hypotheses

- On the basis of the operationalization, the text hypotheses H0 and H1 are 'translated' into **statistical hypotheses**
  - text form
    - H1: subjects are shorter than direct objects
    - H0: subjects are not shorter than direct objects
  - statistical form 1
    - H1:  $\text{mean}_{\text{word length of subjects}} < \text{mean}_{\text{word length of dir. objects}}$
    - H0:  $\text{mean}_{\text{word length of subjects}} \geq \text{mean}_{\text{word length of dir. objects}}$  (often =)
  - statistical form 2
    - H1: no. of subjects longer than average < no. of dir. objects longer than average
    - H0: no. of subjects longer than average  $\geq$  no. of dir. objects longer than average (often =)
  - other statistical forms are possible, too

## Phase 3 and the right type of format for the data

- For nearly all cases, it is best to store the data in the so-called **case-by-variable format** as defined by the following rules
  - each data point (i.e., measurement of the dependent variable) is listed in a row on its own
  - every variable or every other characteristic of a data point is recorded in a column on its own
  - the first row contains the names of all variables
  - missing data are marked as NA – do not use empty cells
  - do not use numbers for categorical variables
- additional rules (optional, but still useful)
  - the first column lists the names of all data points (either just a number or a real name)
  - the variable names in the first row are all in caps
  - the non-numeric data in all other rows are all in small letters

# Phase 3 and the wrong type of format for the data

Sentence	Subj	Obj
The younger bachelors ate the nice little cat	3	4
He was locking the door	1	2
The quick brown fox hit the lazy dog	4	3

CASE	SENT_NO	SENTENCE	RELATION	LENGTH
1	1	The younger bachelors ate the nice little cat	subj	3
2	1	The younger bachelors ate the nice little cat	obj	4
3	2	He was locking the door	subj	1
4	2	He was locking the door	obj	2
5	3	The quick brown fox hit the lazy dog	subj	4
6	3	The quick brown fox hit the lazy dog	obj	3

# Phase 4: questions to help you choose the right statistical test 1

- what kind of study is being conducted?
  - exploratory
  - hypothesis-testing
- How many and what kinds of variables are involved?
  - 1 response, → goodness-of-fit tests
  - 1 predictor and 1 response → monofactorial tests for independence
  - 2+ predictors and 1 response → multifactorial tests/analyses
  - 2+ responses → multivariate analyses
- are data points related such that you can associate them with each other in a meaningful principled way?
  - no → tests for independent samples
  - yes → tests for dependent samples (Dolgalev et al. 2010, *Kardiologia*; Groyecka et al. 2018, *Appetite*)
  - the latter are usually more powerful



## Phase 4: questions to help you choose the right statistical test 2

- what is the statistic of the dependent variable in the statistical hypothesis? (cf. above)
  - counts/frequencies, → often chi-squared tests
  - distributions → often Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
  - averages/means, → often  $t$ -tests
  - dispersions → often  $F$ -tests
  - correlations, → often  $r$  or  $\rho$  or  $\tau$
- what does the distribution of the data look like?
  - normal, → (often) parametric test
  - non-normal, → non-parametric or exact test
- How big are the samples to be collected?
  - $<30$ , → often a risk to normality assumptions
  - $\geq 30$ , → often supporting normality assumptions

# Phase 4: rejection and falsification of statistical hypotheses

- The logic of statistical testing is that of **hypothesis falsification**
- one does not prove that one's own  $H_1$  is correct
- one 'proves' that the  $H_0$  is wrong, which means one's  $H_1$  is right
- steps
  - 1: one defines a **significance level**  $p_{\text{critical}}$ , a threshold quantifying how quickly one will reject  $H_0$  / accept  $H_1$
  - 2: one computes the effect  $e$  observed in one's data (using the statistic from the statistical hypothesis)
  - 3: one computes the **probability of error**  $p$  how likely it is to find  $e$  if  $H_0$  is correct
  - 4: decision
    - if  $p < p_{\text{critical}}$ , one rejects  $H_0$  and accepts  $H_1$
    - if  $p \geq p_{\text{critical}}$ , one accepts / sticks to  $H_0$  and cannot accept  $H_1$
- this is not as weird as it sounds ...

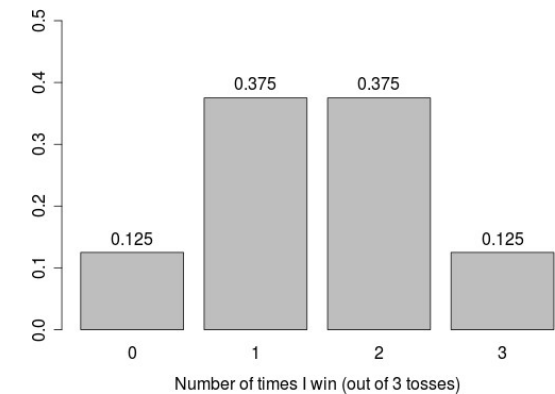
# Phase 4: rejection and falsification of statistical hypotheses

- You and I play a game, tossing a coin 100 times
  - heads: \$1 for me; tails: \$1 for you
- **your** text hypotheses
  - H0: both players are honest
  - H1: STG is not honest
- **your** statistical hypotheses
  - H0:  $p_{\text{heads}} = p_{\text{tails}} = 0.5$
  - H1:  $p_{\text{heads}} > 0.5$  and therefore  $p_{\text{tails}} < 0.5$
- now, how often do **you** have to lose before **you** begin to accuse me of cheating a.k.a. accepting H1?
  - when **you** lose 51 times?
  - when **you** lose 55 times?
  - when **you** lose 60 times?
- what are **you** doing? **You**'re looking at an effect  $e$  (your losses) and are determining when  $e$  becomes too unlikely to still believe in H0 ...

# Phase 4: computing $p$ -values (a small example)

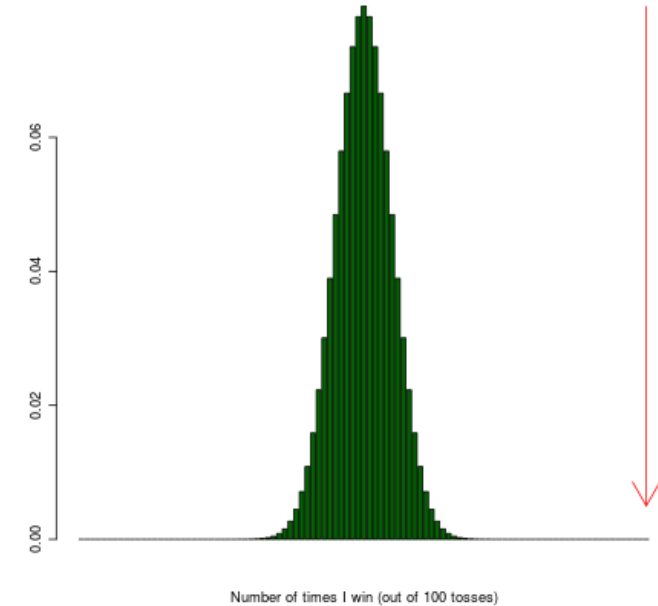
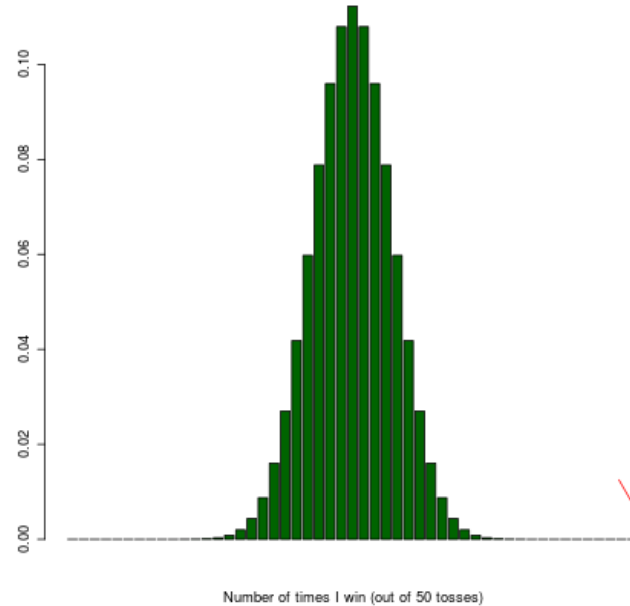
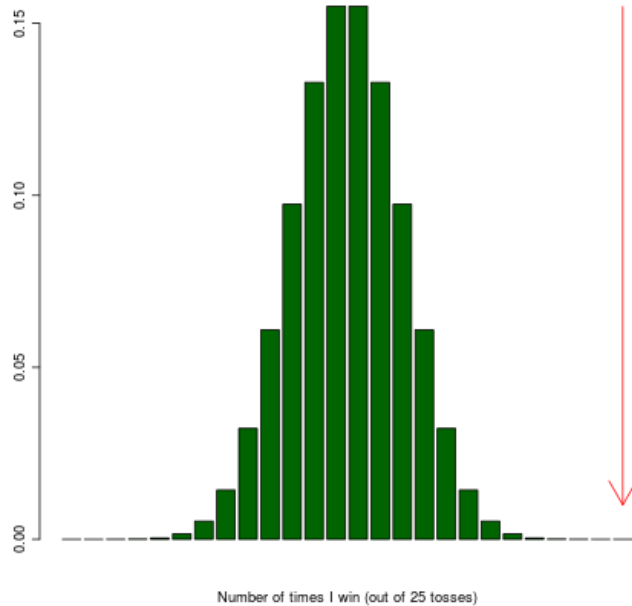
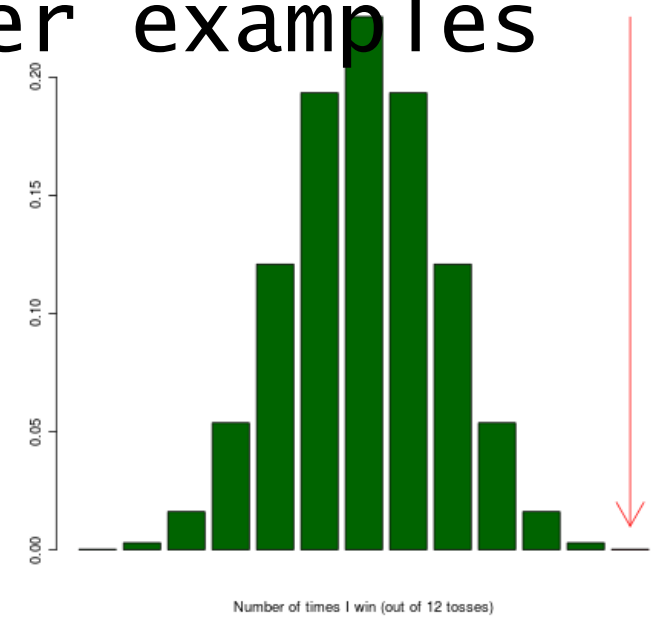
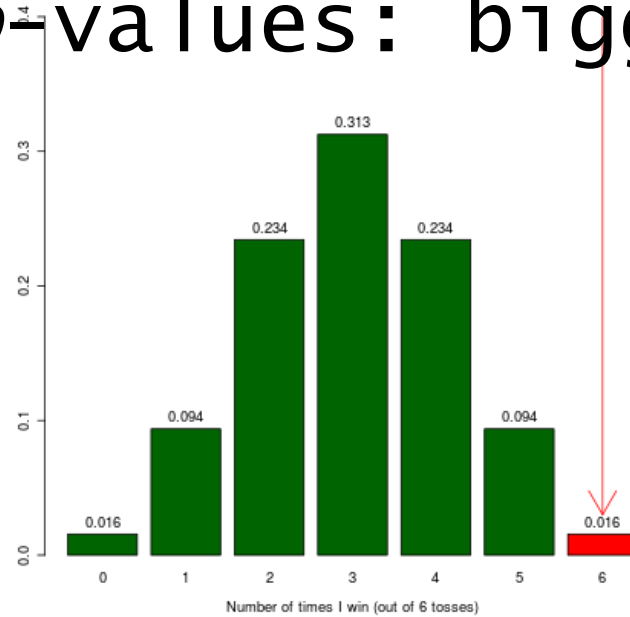
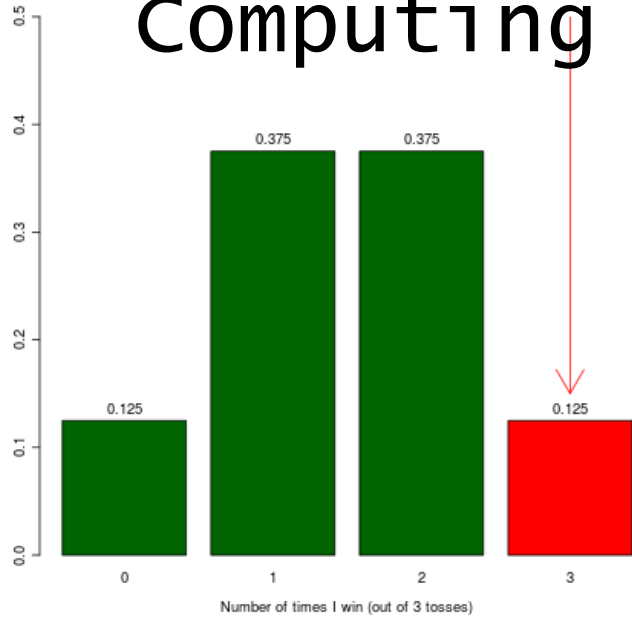
- Imagine we only tossed the coin 3 times, in which case one can just write up the whole result space

Toss 1	Toss 2	Toss 3	# heads	# tails	$p$ (result)
heads	heads	heads	3	0	0.125
heads	heads	tails	2	1	0.125
heads	tails	heads	2	1	0.125
heads	tails	tails	1	2	0.125
tails	heads	heads	2	1	0.125
tails	heads	tails	1	2	0.125
tails	tails	heads	1	2	0.125
tails	tails	tails	0	3	0.125



- if you lose 3 times, this is the falsificatory logic
  - 1: significance level  $p_{\text{critical}}=0.05$  (5%)
  - 2: effect  $e$ : you won 1.5 times less than expected
  - 3: probability of error  $p=0.125$  (12.5%)
  - 4: decision
    - $p \geq p_{\text{critical}}$ , you accept / stick to  $H_0$  and cannot accept  $H_1$
- back to more coin tosses ...

# Computing $p$ -values: bigger examples



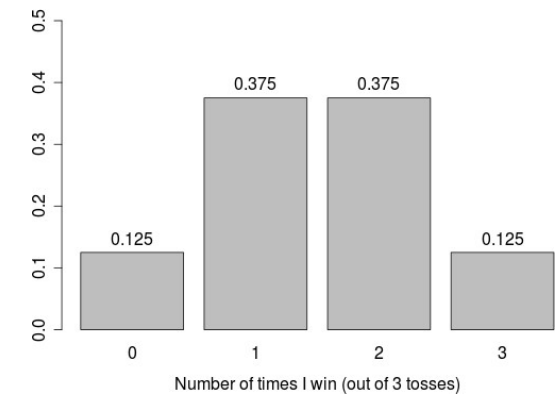
# Phase 4: rejection and falsification of statistical hypotheses

- You and I play a game, tossing a coin 100 times
  - heads: \$1 for me; tails: \$1 for you
- an independent observer's text hypotheses
  - H0: both players are honest
  - H1: at least one player is not honest
- an independent observer's statistical hypotheses
  - H0:  $p_{\text{heads}} = p_{\text{tails}} = 0.5$
  - H1:  $p_{\text{heads}} > 0.5$  or  $p_{\text{tails}} > 0.5$
- now, how often does one of us have to lose before the independent observer begins to accuse the other one of cheating a.k.a. accepting H1?
  - when one of us loses 51 times?
  - when one of us loses 55 times?
  - when one of us loses 60 times?
- what is the independent observer doing? He's looking at an effect  $e$  (one's losses) and is determining when  $e$  becomes too unlikely to still believe in H0 ...

# Phase 4: computing $p$ -values (a small example)

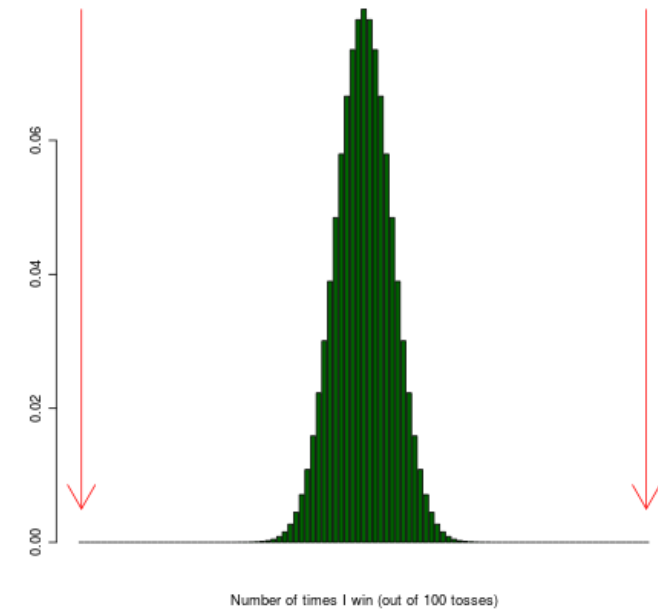
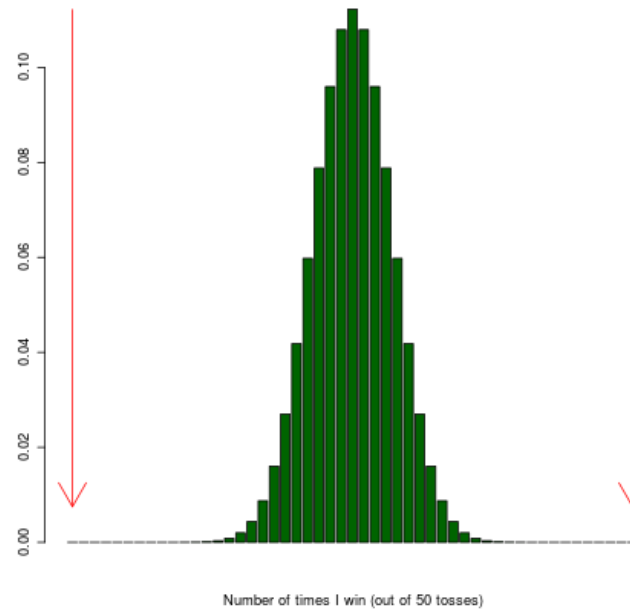
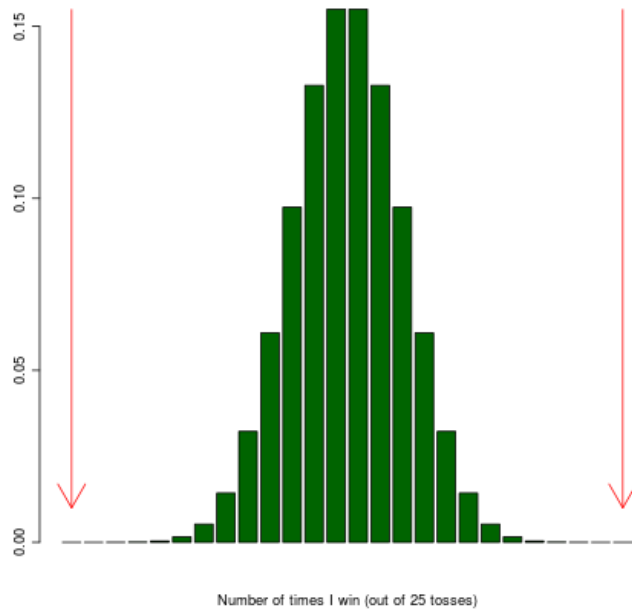
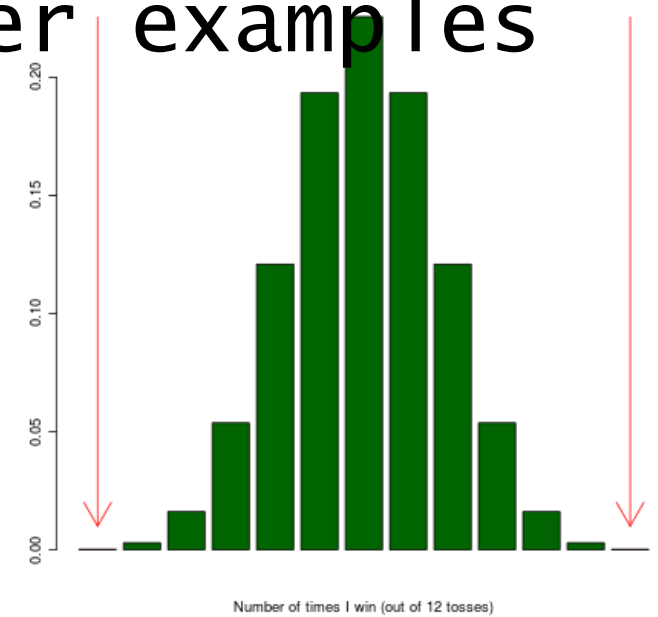
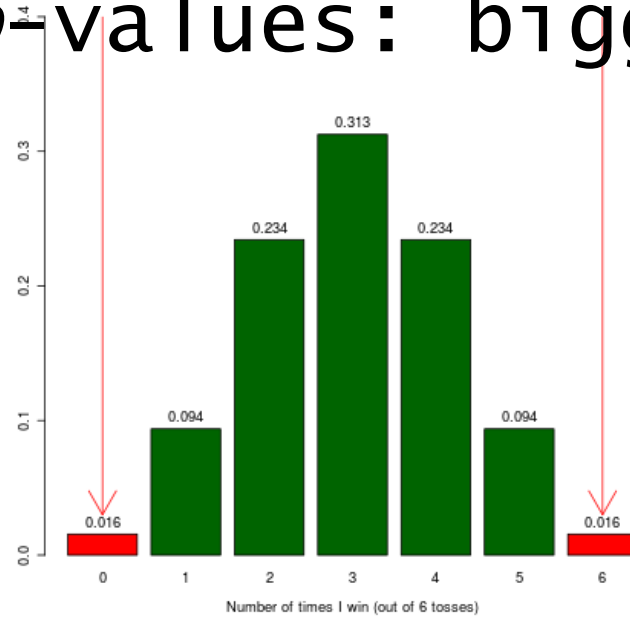
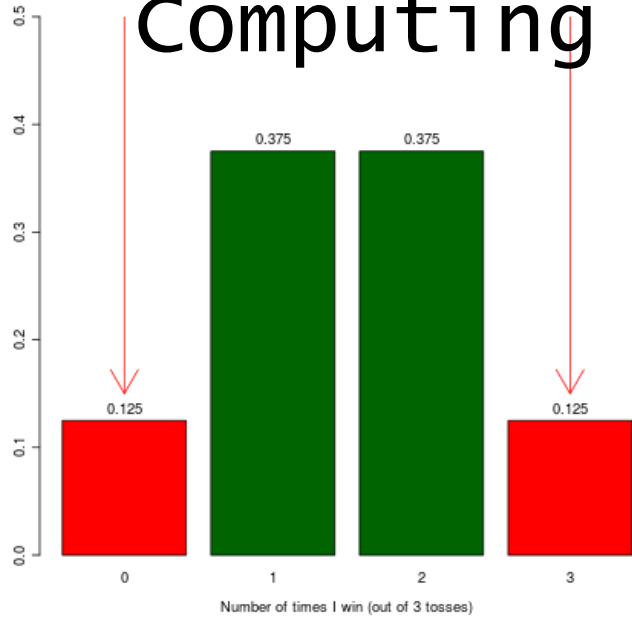
- Imagine we only tossed the coin 3 times, in which case one can just write up the whole result space

Toss 1	Toss 2	Toss 3	# heads	# tails	$p$ (result)
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heads	tails	heads	2	1	0.125
heads	tails	tails	1	2	0.125
tails	heads	heads	2	1	0.125
tails	heads	tails	1	2	0.125
tails	tails	heads	1	2	0.125
tails	tails	tails	0	3	0.125



- if one of us loses 3 times, this is the falsificatory logic
  - 1: significance level  $p_{\text{critical}}=0.05$  (5%)
  - 2: effect  $e$ : one of us won 1.5 times less than expected
  - 3: probability of error  $p=0.25$  (25%)
  - 4: decision
    - $p \geq p_{\text{critical}}$ , the observer sticks to  $H_0$  and cannot accept  $H_1$
- back to more coin tosses ...

# Computing $p$ -values: bigger examples





# (Normal) Distributions, sample sizes, and directional hypotheses

- There are two lessons to be learned
  - on distributions and **parametric testing**
    - in this case of binomial trials, with increasing sample sizes, we obtain a bell-shaped normal distribution
    - thus, if the sample sizes are large enough and the distribution looks like one we can describe easily, then ...
    - we can use a **parametric/asymptotic test** – but only then!
  - on alternative hypotheses: there are
    - **non-directional/two-tailed alternative hypotheses**, which postulate an effect, a difference, a correlation, *but not* its direction (in the above examples, the independent observer)
    - **directional/one-tailed alternative hypotheses**, which postulate an effect, a difference, a correlation *and* its direction (in the above examples, you)
    - prior knowledge is rewarded: the latter are easier to accept

# Phase 4: evaluation and decision

Levon, Erez. 2010. Organizing and processing your data: the nuts and bolts of quantitative analyses. In Lia Litosseliti (ed.). /Research methods in linguistics/. London & New York: Continuum.

## 80 Research Methods in Linguistics

Recall that the standard p-value required in the humanities and social sciences is 0.05. When we look at the relevant requirement for this p-value, we see that we need to have a chi-square statistic that is at least 5.991. With our chi-square value of 66.9, we go above and beyond this requirement, and thus can claim statistically significant findings.<sup>3</sup>

What does this statistical significance mean? It means that there is at least a 95% chance that the null hypothesis is *incorrect*. That indicates that we have *quantitative* support for our experimental hypothesis that educational and functional level in English affects speakers' use of null non-specific indefinite articles. If we were writing up this result in an essay or presenting it in an aca-

# Phase 4: evaluation and decision

## Significance

- again, the  $p$ -value indicates how likely the observed result is, given  $H_0$  - nothing else!
- often, levels of significance are distinguished
  - $0.1 > p \geq 0.05$  → marginally significant ms
  - $0.05 > p \geq 0.01$  → significant \*
  - $0.01 > p \geq 0.001$  → very significant \*\*
  - $p < 0.001$  → highly significant \*\*\*

effect sizes are correlated with  $p$ -values, but not deterministically so - often

- strong effects will be significant, and
- weak effects will be insignificant, but
- given large sample sizes, even very weak effects can be significant

	♂	♀	totals
spat1	20	15	35
soc1	15	20	35
totals	35	35	70

ns

	♂	♀	totals
spat1	200	150	350
soc1	150	200	350
totals	350	350	700

\*\*\*