

# Introduction to Psycholinguistics

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Lecture 6

Experimental Methods II

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## Overview

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- Homework
- Exploring the data
  - ⇒ Quantitative data: e.g., reading times
    - Bargraphs of means & confidence intervals
    - Boxplots
    - Histograms: Skew and kurtosis
    - Testing for normality and homogeneity of variance
- Inferential statistics
  - ⇒ Parametric tests
    - Comparing two means: *t*-test
    - Comparing more than two means: *F*-statistic
  - ⇒ An example from the eye-tracking literature

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## Homework

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- Design an experiment
  - ⇒ Theory 1: There is a processing preference (e.g., subject-first) for both ambiguous and unambiguous sentences
  - ⇒ Theory 2: Such a preference exists only for ambiguous sentences
    - Operationalization, hypotheses, design + example sentences, and lists (only the condition coding per list); method
    - How many factors?
    - Assume 24 items
    - How many data points per condition for 1 participant?
    - Type of data and analysis?

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## Homework

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- Operationalization
  - ⇒ If information later in the sentence (e.g., NP2) disambiguates a sentence-initial ambiguous NP, we should observe processing difficulty
    - Hypothesis 0: Such difficulty should be observed for both initially structurally ambiguous and unambiguous sentences
    - Hypothesis 1: Such difficulty should only be observed for initially structurally ambiguous sentences
- Method
  - ⇒ Eye tracking (self-paced reading would also be possible)
- Your independent variables are ...
  - ⇒ Word order (SVO vs. OVS) & ambiguity (ambiguous vs. unambig.)
- Your dependent variable is ...
  - ⇒ Reading times in a word region

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# Homework

## Design

- ⇒ (1a) Die Mutter verabschiedet den Besucher nach der Party.
- ⇒ (1b) Die Mutter verabschiedet der Besucher nach der Party.
- ⇒ (2a) Der Vater verabschiedet den Besucher nach der Party.
- ⇒ (2b) Den Vater verabschiedet der Besucher nach der Party.

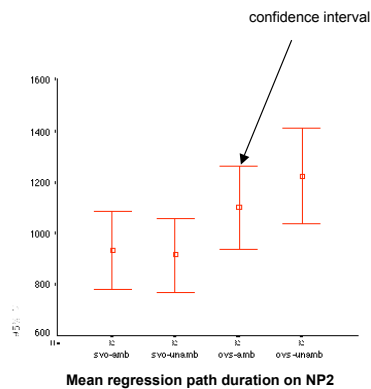
## Control

- ⇒ Plausibility, e.g., pretest in form of plausibility ratings on a scale from 1 (very implausible) to 7 (highly plausible)
- ⇒ Word length (+/-2chars)
- ⇒ Frequency of lemmas (e.g., *Celex*)

# Exploring the data

## Quantitative data

- ⇒ Compare mean reading times
  - Bar graphs with *confidence intervals* (CI): 95% CIs
    - ⇒ CIs indicate the range within which we expect the true value of the mean will fall
    - ⇒ 95% of the mean values in our population fall between the range indicated by the confidence intervals
  - So what does a narrow confidence interval indicate?
    - ⇒ The sample mean is close to the true mean
    - ⇒ Wide confidence interval: mean could be very different from true mean



# Homework

## Lists

- ⇒ For a 2x2 design with 2 levels for each factor, there are 4 exp. lists
- ⇒ One participant sees one list
- ⇒ Latin Square to ensure that there is for each list
  - Equal number of trials in each condition (24 items/4 conds: 6)

Item	List1	List2	List3	List4
1	a	b	c	d
2	b	c	d	a
3	c	d	a	b
4	d	a	b	c
5	a	b	c	d
6	b	c	d	a
7	c	d	a	b
8	d	a	b	c
9	a	b	c	d
...	...	...	...	...
21	a	b	c	d
22	b	c	d	a
23	c	d	a	b
24	d	a	b	c

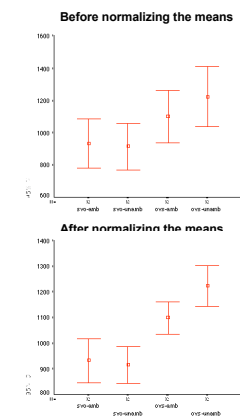
## Conducting the experiment

- Analysing the data to find out whether our manipulation (ambig. vs. unambig.) had an "effect"?
  - ⇒ Exploring the data
  - ⇒ Inferential statistics

# Exploring the data

## Error bar graphs for repeated measures design

- ⇒ Stats programs treat data as if from diff. groups
  - ⇒ Solution
    - Eliminate between-subjects variability
    - Normalize participants' means
    - All participants have same mean across conditions
1. Calculate mean time for each part, across conditions
  2. Compute grand mean of all the participants' means
  3. Calculate adjustment factor:  $adjust = grand\ mean - participant\ means$
  4. Create adjusted values for each variable:  $Var. + adjust$



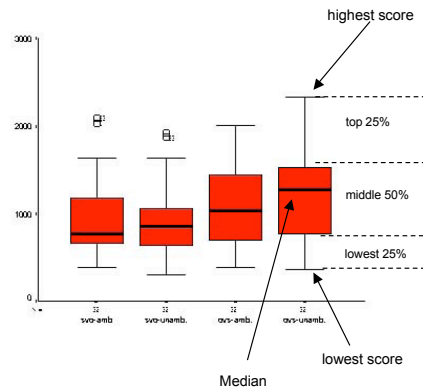
## Exploring the data

### Boxplots (box-whisker diagrams)

#### ⇒ Quartiles

- Top/bottom quartile
  - ⇒ Range between which top/lowest 25% of scores fall
- Interquartile range
  - ⇒ Range in which the middle 50% of the scores fall
- Median
  - ⇒ Middle score if you arranged the reading times in order (≠ mean)

#### ⇒ Looking for outliers



## Assumptions about the data

- If we ultimately wanted to do more than just descriptively explore the data
  - ⇒ We need to decide which test to use
- For our data (reading times) we typically use *parametric tests*
  - ⇒ Parametric tests are based on the normal distribution
  - ⇒ There are certain requirements for performing parametric tests
    - The data
      - ⇒ Must be at least interval-scale data
      - ⇒ Must be normally distributed
      - ⇒ Variances in populations/groups/conditions roughly equal (*homogeneity of variance*)
    - Test for independent (between-subjects) design in addition assume
      - ⇒ Scores that we compare are independent (i.e., from different people)
  - ⇒ So we need to check first whether our data meets these requirements

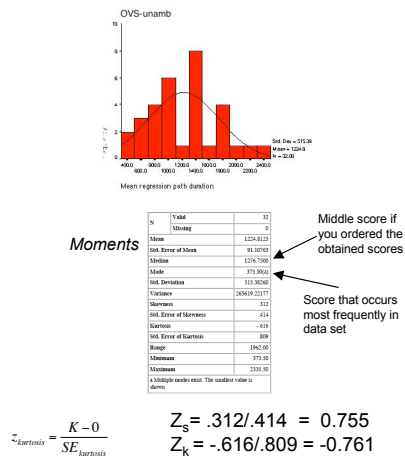
## Exploring the data: skew and kurtosis

- In a normal distribution, skew (lack of symmetry) and kurtosis (pointyness) should be zero
  - ⇒ Positive values of skewness means left-skewed
  - ⇒ Negative skewness values indicate right-skewed
  - ⇒ Positive kurtosis values indicate a pointy distribution
  - ⇒ Negative kurtosis indicates a flat distribution

- The further the skewness/kurtosis values from zero, the more likely it is that the data are not normally distributed

#### ⇒ Actual values for skew/kurtosis not informative

#### ⇒ z-transformation $z_{skewness} = \frac{S-0}{SE_{skewness}}$



$$Z_S = .312/.414 = 0.755$$

$$Z_K = -.616/.809 = -0.761$$

## Testing for normality

- Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality
  - ⇒ Should you test the data overall or rather for each condition?

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>(a)</sup>		Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
OSOS	.100	32	.200(*)	.971	32	.529

\* This is a lower bound of the true significance.

<sup>a</sup> Lilliefors Significance Correction

- If the result of the K-S test are significant you cannot perform a parametric test on that data
  - ⇒ Transform the data
    - E.g., log transformations squash the right tail of the distribution, and can reduce a positive skew

## Testing for homogeneity of variance

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- For between-subject designs
  - ⇒ [Levene's test](#)
- For repeated measures
  - ⇒ [Sphericity assumption in repeated measures analysis of variance \(ANOVA\)](#)
- Once we have explored the data in this way
  - ⇒ [And are sure they meet the assumptions of parametric tests](#)
    - We can test differences between the means using *inferential statistics*

## Statistical tests

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- Which test should we chose?
- We distinguish between parametric and non-parametric tests
  - ⇒ [Parametric tests](#)
    - For data that are based on the normal distribution (e.g., interval scale and above)
    - T-Test: For 1-factor designs with 2 levels
    - Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)
      - ⇒ [Can test the independent effect of a factor: \*main effect\*](#)
      - ⇒ [Can test for \*interactions\* \(relationships between effects\)](#)
  - ⇒ [Non-parametric tests](#)
    - Do not assume the data are from a normal distribution (e.g., for categorical data)
      - ⇒ [Chi-square test](#)
      - ⇒ [Log-linear models](#)
  - ⇒ [For our data \(inspection duration \) we use parametric tests](#)

## Statistical tests

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- So, how do test statistics “work”?
- Two types of variance for both dep./indep. designs
  - ⇒ [Systematic variation: result of experimental manipulation](#)
    - E.g., SVO vs. OVS sentence condition
  - ⇒ [Unsystematic variation: variation due to random factors: e.g., age, gender](#)
- Test statistics
  - ⇒ [Discover how much variation there is in performance](#)
  - ⇒ [How much of this variation is \*systematic\* versus \*unsystematic\*](#)
  - ⇒ [Is there more variation than without the experimental manipulation?](#)

## Data collection and variation

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- In our decision tree, why do we get a distinction between tests for “dependent” and “independent” data collection?
- Unsystematic variation in data differs depending on the type of data collection
  - ⇒ [Within-subjects \(dependent\) design](#)
    - One participants receives all conditions
    - So other factors (e.g., age, IQ etc.) are constant across conditions
  - ⇒ [Between-subjects \(independent\) design](#)
    - Even in the absence of an experimental manipulation, we would find differences between the groups since these contain different participants that differ in gender, IQ, age, etc.
- Repeated measures designs are good at detecting true effects
  - ⇒ [Why?](#)
    - Unsystematic variation ('noise') is kept to a minimum

## Minimize unsystematic variation

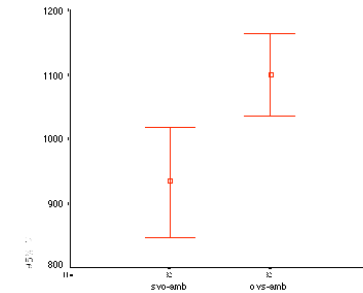
- In both types of design: minimize unsystematic variation
  - ⇒ Randomization: eliminates sources of systematic variation other than our manipulation
    - Repeated-measures
      - ⇒ Practice effects: after 10 OVS sentences, they become easy
      - ⇒ Boredom effects
    - Solution
      - ⇒ Ensure that these effects produce no systematic variation between our conditions
      - ⇒ Counterbalance the order in which a person participates in a condition
    - Independent designs
      - ⇒ Confounding factors contribute to variation (e.g., age, IQ),
      - ⇒ But: ensure they contribute to unsystematic, not systematic, variation
    - Solution
      - ⇒ Allocate participants randomly to an experimental condition

## T-Test

- Comparing means between two groups/conditions
  - ⇒ Let's look at a simple test statistics: T-Test
  - ⇒ Independent means t-test
    - When there are two conditions and different participants assigned to each condition (*independent measures/samples t-test*)
  - ⇒ Dependent means t-test
    - Same participants took part in both conditions (*matched-pairs/paired-samples t-test*)
- We have collected data and calculated the means
- If from the same population, the means should be roughly equal
  - ⇒ H0: experimental manipulation has no effect on participants, and sample means should be very similar
    - I.e., mean reading time for SVO-amb. is similar to OVS-amb.
  - ⇒ Means might differ by chance
    - But: large differences should occur infrequently by chance

## Comparing two means

- Let's assume for a first test that we had an experiment with only 2 conditions (1 factor, 2 levels)
  - ⇒ SVO and OVS ambiguous
  - ⇒ Effect of independent variable 'sentence type' on reading times
    - Error bars for regression path duration on NP2
    - It looks as if the ovs-amb. mean is much higher than the svo-amb. mean
  - ⇒ Test: Comparing two means
  - ⇒ Is the difference due to **chance** (e.g., noise) or our **experimental manipulation**?
  - ⇒ Statistical tests provide us with a probability ( $p$ ) that the difference is genuine (and not due to chance)



## T-Test

- Compare difference between obtained sample means to difference between means that you would expect by chance
  - ⇒ That means you need a measure of two things
    - How different the observed difference between your sample means is from the difference that you would expect in population means (if H0 is true this second diff. would be 0)
  - ⇒ We further need a measure of *unsystematic* variation (i.e., noise that we would get by chance)
  - ⇒ We need to know how likely it is that a difference between the means could result from the fact that for our data sample means differ a lot already by chance
- Recall the standard error (SE)
  - ⇒ Measure of variability between sample means
    - Small SE: most samples should have similar means
    - Large SE: large differences in sample means by chance alone

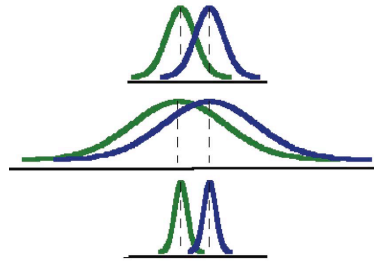
## Variance

- Variance is the average variability in the data (*spread*)

- medium variability

- high variability

- low variability



## T-Test

- Let's assume

⇒ The difference between our obtained samples (SVO-amb. & OVS-amb.) is larger than the what we would expect based on the SE

- Sample means in our population vary a lot by chance & our two samples are atypical of our population
- The two samples came from different populations & are typical of their respective population

⇒ Difference between samples represents a true difference

⇒ As observed diff. between sample means gets larger, the more confident we can be that the second option is correct

- The result for the t-test is *t*-value that helps us decide whether we have found a true difference or not

⇒ The bigger the *t*, the more likely we found a true diff.

$$t = \frac{\text{Observed difference between sample means} - \text{Expected difference between population means (if null hypothesis is true)}}{\text{Estimate of the standard error of the difference between two sample means}}$$

## The dependent T-Test

- The t-test

⇒ Compares the mean difference between our samples ( $\bar{D}$ ) with the difference we would expect to find between populations means ( $\mu_D$ )

- The effect of our manipulation

⇒ Takes into account the standard error of the differences ( $s_D/\sqrt{N}$ )

- I.e., unsystematic variation

$$t = \frac{\bar{D} - \mu_D}{s_D / \sqrt{N}}$$

- For our 1-factor (2levels) example the result is

⇒  $t(31) = -2.77, p < 0.01$

- But actually, for the 2-factor example from your homework, we need a more complicated analysis: repeated measures ANOVA

## ANOVA

- Just like a T-Test, the ANOVA tells you whether

⇒ Differences between conditions are due to your manipulation

⇒ Due to unsystematic variation

⇒ The two types of variance allow us to draw inferences about means

- The ANOVA can help us analyse differences between means in more complicated designs (e.g., 2x2)

⇒ The result of an ANOVA analysis is a *F*-value

- Ratio of the variance due to your experimental manipulation over unsystematic variation

- A high *F*-value indicates a lot of the variation results from your manipulation

$$F = \frac{\text{systematic variation}}{\text{unsystematic variation}}$$

⇒ This is a very general formula, and the exact calculations will differ depending on your type of measurement (dependent vs. indep.)

## Example study

Traxler, Pickering, & McElree, 2002, *JML*

### □ Semantic interpretation

- ⇒ Verbs like *begin* can occur with NP-arguments of different semantic types
  - Event: *start a fight*
  - Entity: *start a puzzle*
  - Verbs like *begin* and *start* appear to prefer an event as argument
- ⇒ Coercion operation that type-shifts an entity to an event by inserting additional semantic structure
  - *The boy started solving the puzzle* (7a) The boy started the fight after school today. Event verb + event NP.
- ⇒ 2x2 design
  - Factor 1: NP type (entity, event) (7b) The boy saw the fight after school today. Neutral verb + event NP.
  - Factor 2: Verb type (entity, event) (7c) The boy started the puzzle after school today. Event verb + entity NP.
  - Target region: *the fight/puzzle* (7d) The boy saw the puzzle after school today. Neutral verb + entity NP.

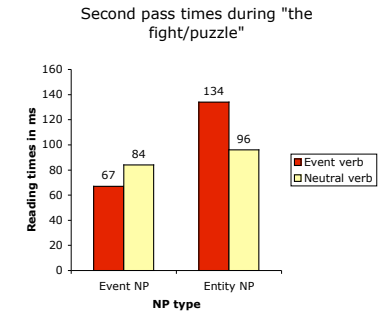
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## Main effect and interaction

### □ Main effect

- ⇒ The unique effect of an independent variable
- ⇒ Reading times for entity NP conditions are higher than for event-type NPs
- ⇒ Main effect of NP type confirms this observation
  - $F(1, 35) = 14.4, p < 0.01$
  - $F(1, 31) = 5.74, p < 0.05$
- ⇒ *F*: signal-to-noise; the bigger the *F*, the stronger the effect of our manipulation
- ⇒ *p*: probability that the findings are due to chance



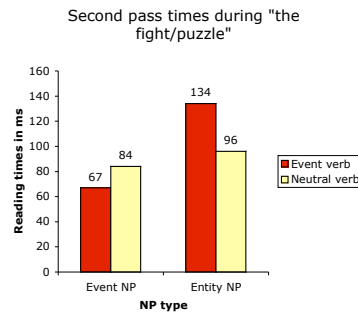
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## Main effect and interaction

### □ Interaction

- ⇒ The combined effect of two or more independent variables on the dependent variable
- ⇒ The verb-type factor affects reading times differently for Entity-type NPs than for Event NPs



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## Summary

### □ Homework: experiment design

- Exploring data (here: at least interval-scale)
  - ⇒ Error bar graphs
  - ⇒ Box plots
  - ⇒ Testing for normal distribution and homogeneity of variance

### □ Inferential statistics

- ⇒ Comparing two means (1 factor, 2 levels): *T*-Test
- ⇒ ANOVA
- ⇒ An example reading study: main effect vs. interaction

### □ Reading for next week:

- ⇒ Lexical processing and the mental lexicon. In: A. Radford, M. Atkinson, D. Britain, H. Clahsen, & A. Spencer (1999). *Linguistics: an introduction* (pp. 226-239). Cambridge, CUP.

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