

## Lecture 4: Chapter 3, Section 4 Designing Studies (Focus on Experiments)

- Definitions
- Randomization
- Control
- Blind Experiment
- Pitfalls
- Specific Experimental Designs

## Looking Back: Review

- 4 Stages of Statistics
  - Data Production
  - Displaying and Summarizing
  - Probability
  - Statistical Inference

## Looking Back: Review

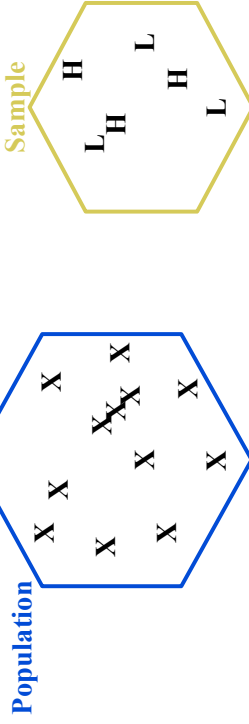
- 2 Types of Study Design
  - **Observational study:** record variables' values as they naturally occur
    - **Drawback:** *confounding variables* due to self-assignment to explanatory values
    - **Example:** *Men who drink beer are more prone to lung cancer than those who drink red wine (what is the confounding variable here?)*
  - **Experiment:** researchers control values of explanatory variable
    - *If well-designed, provides more convincing evidence of causation.*

## Definitions

- **Factor:** an explanatory variable in an experiment.
  - **Treatment:** value of explanatory variable imposed by researchers in an experiment.
- A **control group** (individuals receiving no treatment or base-line treatment) may be included for comparison.
- If individuals are human, we call them **subjects**.

## Example: Randomized Controlled Experiment

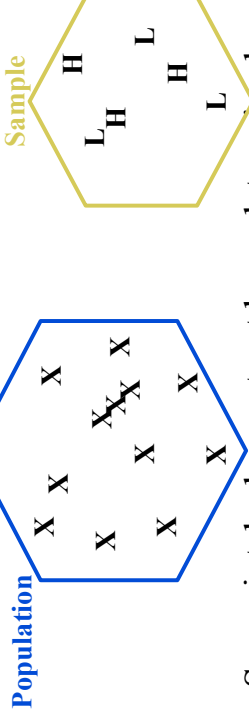
- **Background:** To test if sugar causes hyperactivity, researchers **randomly** assign some children to low and others to high levels of sugar consumption...



- **Question:** Why are **random** assignments best?
- **Response:** Randomization helps rule out

## Experiment vs. Observational Study

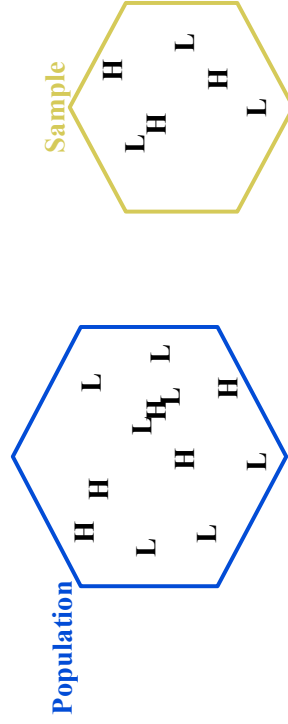
In an experiment, **researchers** decide who has low sugar intake (L) and who has high (H).



Sugar intake has not yet been determined. Researchers **assign** sugar intake L or H.

## Experiment vs. Observational Study

In observational study, **individuals** have already chosen low (L) or high (H) sugar intake.



Researchers make **no changes** to sugar intake.

## Example: Randomize at 1st or 2nd Stage?

- **Background:** Consider two **selection** issues in our sugar-hyperactivity experiment:
  - What individuals are included in the study?
  - Who consumes low and high amounts of sugar?
- **Question:** At which stage is randomization important?
- **Response:**
  - **1st stage:** Individuals studied \_\_\_\_\_ may be an issue. (Otherwise \_\_\_\_\_)
  - **2nd stage:** Assignment to sugar (L or H) \_\_\_\_\_ Volunteering which treatment to get is \_\_\_\_\_

## Must an experiment have a control group?

Recall our definition:

- **Experiment:** researchers manipulate explanatory variable, observe response

Thus, experiment may have no control group...

- if all subjects must be treated
- if simulated treatment is risky
- if the experiment is poorly designed

*As long as researchers have taken control of the explanatory variable, it is an experiment.*

## Definitions: Three Meanings of “Control”

- We **control** for a confounding variable in an observational study by separating it out.
- Researchers **control** who gets what treatment in an experiment by making the assignment themselves, ideally at random.
- The **control** group in an experiment consists of individuals who do not receive a treatment per se, or who are assigned a baseline value of the explanatory variable.

## Double-blind Experiments

Two **pitfalls** may prevent us from drawing a conclusion of causation when results of an experiment show a relationship between the so-called explanatory and response variables.

- If **subjects** are aware of treatment assignment
- If **researchers** are aware of treatment assignment

## Definitions

- The **placebo effect** is when subjects respond to the *idea* of treatment, not the treatment itself.
- A **placebo** is a “dummy” treatment.
- A **blind** subject is unaware of which treatment he/she is receiving.
- The **experimenter effect** is biased assessment of (or attempt to influence) response due to knowledge of treatment assignment.
- A **blind** experimenter is unaware of which treatment a subject has received.

## Example: Subjects Not Blind

- **Background:** Suppose after children are randomly assigned to consume either low or high amounts of sugar, researchers find proportion hyperactive is greater for those who consumed higher amounts.
- **Question:** Can we conclude sugar causes hyperactivity?
- **Response:**

**Improvement:**

## Example: Experimenters Not Blind

- **Background:** Suppose after children are randomly assigned to diets sweetened either artificially or with sugar, researchers find proportion hyperactive is greater for those who consumed sugar.
- **Question:** Can we conclude sugar causes hyperactivity?
- **Response:**

More problematic if responses are assessed

**Improvement:**

## Best Evidence of Causation

In general, conclusions of causation are most convincing if a relationship has been established in a randomized controlled double-blind experiment.

*A Closer Look: In the original studies reporting a relationship between sugar and hyperactivity, conducted in the 1970's, experimenters may have been aware of the children's diet when they assessed behavior (randomized controlled **single-blind**). Many studies since then have failed to establish a relationship.*

## Other Pitfalls in Experimentation

- Lack of realism (lack of ecological validity)
- Hawthorne effect (people's performance is improved due to awareness of being observed)
- Non-compliance
- Treatments unethical
- Treatments impractical/impossible to impose

## Example: Hawthorne Effect, Lack of Realism

- **Background:** Suppose researchers want to determine if TV makes people snack more. *While study participants are presumably waiting to be interviewed, half are assigned to a room with a TV on (and snacks), the other half to a room with no TV (and snacks). See if those in the room with TV consume more snacks.*
- **Question:** If participants in the room with TV snack more, can we conclude that, in general, people snack more when they watch TV?
- **Response:** No: \_\_\_\_\_ (TV & snacking habits different in contrived setting); \_\_\_\_\_ (if people suspect they're observed).

## Example: Non-Compliance in Experiment

- **Background:** To test if sugar causes hyperactivity, researchers randomly assign 50 children to low and 50 to high levels of sugar consumption; 20 drop out of each group. For remaining children (30 in each group), suppose proportion hyperactive is substantially greater in the high-sugar group.
- **Question:** Can we conclude sugar causes hyperactivity?
- **Response:** \_\_\_\_\_ makes treatment and control groups different in ways that may affect response.

## Example: Another Flawed Experiment

- **Background:** To test if stuttering is a learned (rather than inborn) trait, a researcher in Iowa in 1939 randomly assigned subjects to...
  - Control: 11 orphans in ordinary speech therapy
  - Treatment: 11 orphans badgered and interrupted in sessions with speech therapistOf the 11 in treatment group, 8 became stutters.
- **Question:** What's wrong with this experiment?
- **Response:** \_\_\_\_\_

## Examples: Treatments Impossible/Impractical

- **Taller** men get married sooner, promoted quicker, and earn higher wages...
- There is a link between **obesity** and low **socio-economic status** in women...  
**Height** is impossible to control.  
**Weight** is difficult to control.  
**Socio-economic status** is too costly to control.

## Modifications to randomized experiment

- **Blocking:** Divide first into groups of individuals who are similar with respect to an outside variable that may be important in relationship studied.
- **Paired design:** Randomly assign one of each pair to receive treatment, the other control. (*Before-and-after* is a common paired design.)

*Looking Back: blocking is to experimentation as stratification is to sampling.*

## Example: Blocked Experiment

- **Background:** Study tested theory that use of stronger sunscreen *causes* more time in sun. Before vacation, 40+ students given weak sunscreen, 40+ given strong. Students recorded time spent in sun each day.
- **Question:** How to incorporate **blocking**, if researchers suspect location plays a role in relationship between type of sunscreen and amount of time spent in sun?
- **Response:**

## Example: Paired Experiment

- **Background:** Study tested theory that use of stronger sunscreen *causes* more time in sun. Before vacation, 40+ students given weak sunscreen, 40+ given strong. Students recorded time spent in sun each day.
- **Question:** How to incorporate **paired design**, if researchers suspect location plays a role in relationship between type of sunscreen and amount of time spent in sun?
- **Response:**

## Advantage of Paired Design

The paired design helps to ensure that treatment and control groups are **as similar as possible** in all other respects, so that if their responses differ, we have evidence that the treatment is responsible.

**Discussion Question:** *Why do not just twins, but also researchers, flock to the annual festival in Twinsburg, Ohio?*

## Example: Combining Paired and Two-Sample Designs

- **Background:** Studies often randomly assign one group to a placebo and the other to a drug. Responses to the variable of interest are assessed before and after a period of time, then compared to see benefits or side effects.
- **Question:** What aspect of the design is **two-sample**, and what aspect is **paired**?
- **Response:** **two-sample:** **paired:**

## Lecture Summary (Experiments)

- Definitions
- Randomization; 2 stages of selection
- Control group
- “Blind” study design
  - Subjects blind to avoid placebo effect
  - Researchers blind to avoid experimenter effect
- Other pitfalls of experiments: lack of realism, Hawthorne effect, non-compliance, unethical or impractical treatment
- Specific experimental designs
  - Blocked
  - Paired or two-sample