Exploring SPSS for Data Analysis

دانشگاه علوم پزشکی ساوه

Imtroduction

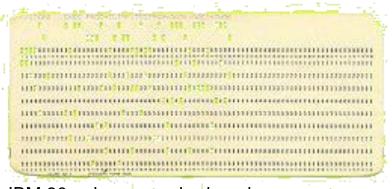
- SPSS is a software used for statistical analysis
- First released in 1968 and was developed by Norman H Nie, Dale H. Bent and C. Hadial Hull
- Since its release, SPSS was under SPSS Inc.
- However in July 28, 2009 SPSS was acquired by IBM for US\$1.2 billion
- Versions 17 and 18 were known as PASW (Predictive and Analytical Software)
- Version 19 was renamed as SPSS Statistics





SPSS Versions

- The earlier versions of SPSS ran on mainframe computers
- SPSS/PC+ was first introduced in 1984
- SPSS 6 for Windows was introduced in mid 1990's
- SPSS 15 November 2006
- SPSS 16 April 2008
- PASW Statistics 17 December 2008
- PASW Statistics 18 August 2009
- SPSS Statistics 19 2010
- SPSS Statistics 20 2011
- SPSS Statistics 21 2012
- SPSS Statistics 22 2013
- SPSS Statistics 23 2015



IBM 80-column punched card

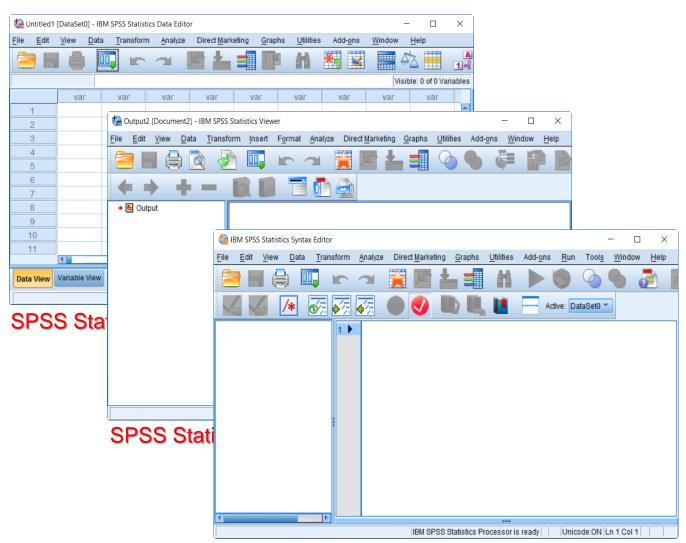


Card punch machine

Learning Objectives

Participants to be able to:

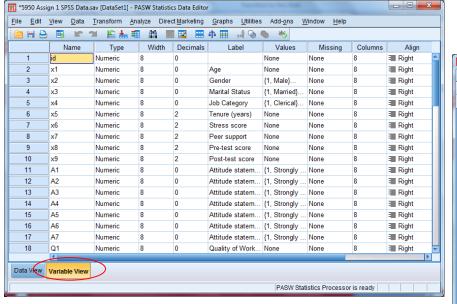
- Understand three SPSS windows
- 7 Steps in Data Preparation
- Oefine variable and enter data into Data Editor
- Perform data editing and transformation
- Selected statistical procedures
- Use SPSS coaches



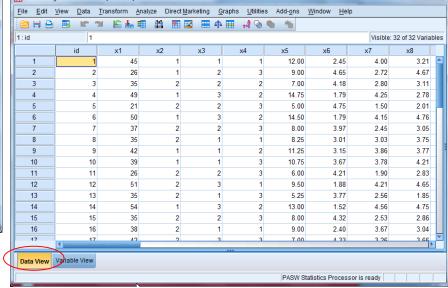
SPSS Statistics SYNTAX EDITOR

7 SPSS Statistics Data Editor

- Include two (2) tabs 1) Variable view and 2) Data view
- Two (2) tasks 1) Define variables and 2) Enter data



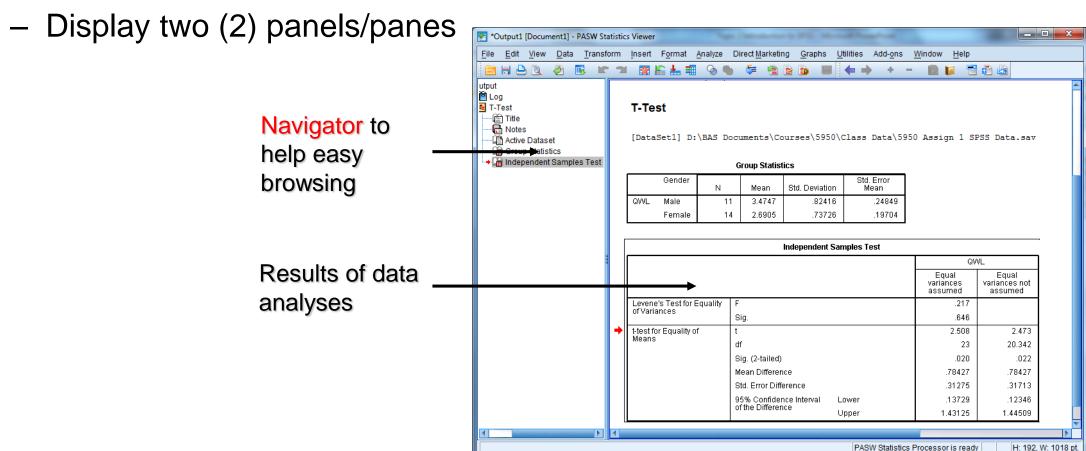
Variable view: Define variables



Data view: Enter data

2 SPSS Statistics Viewer

Display results of data analyses

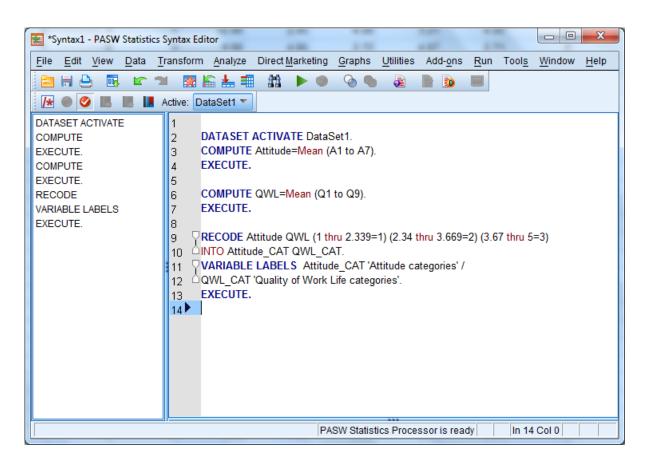


3 SPSS Statistics Syntax Editor

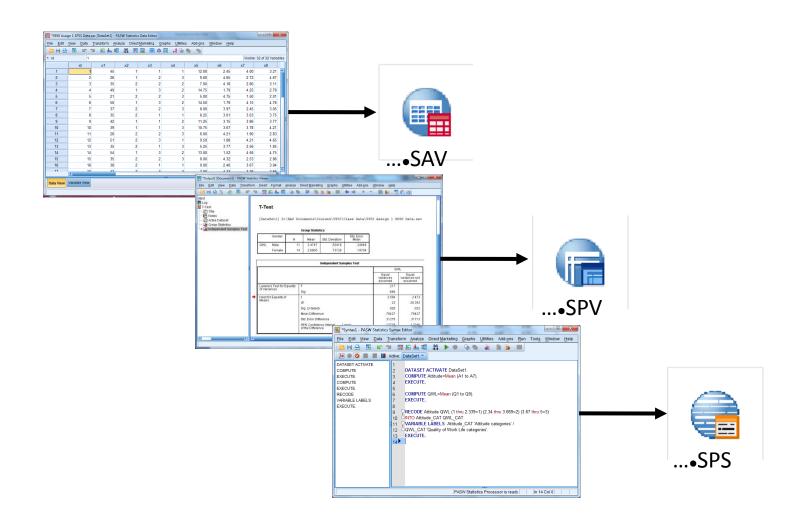
- Write, display, retrieve, run and save syntax/commands
- Use for two (2) purposes:
 - 1. For future reference
 - 2. Automate data analysis

Purpose of Syntax Editor:

- 1. For future reference
- 2. Automate data analysis



SPSS File Format

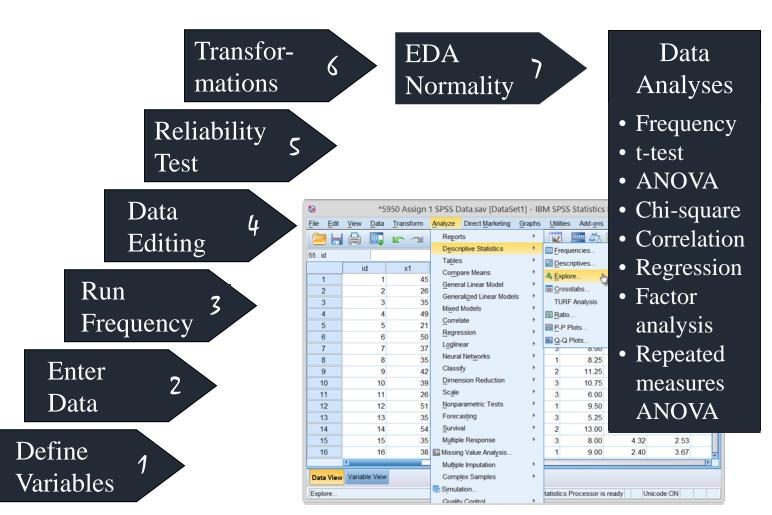




TICPS IN Data Preparation

Steps in Data Preparation

- Define variables
- 2. Enter data
- 3. Run frequencies
- 4. Edit data
- 5. Test reliability
- 6. Transform data:
 - Compute
 - Recode
- 7. Run Exploratory
 Data Analysis
 (EDA)

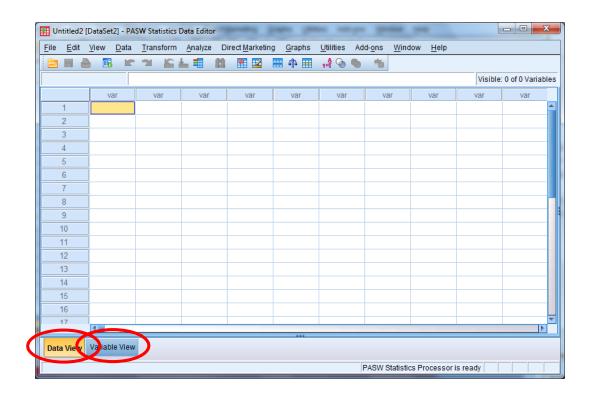


Define Variables Enter Data

SPSS Statistics Data Editor

In the Data Editor, you can:

- Define variables in Variable View window
- Enter data in Data View window

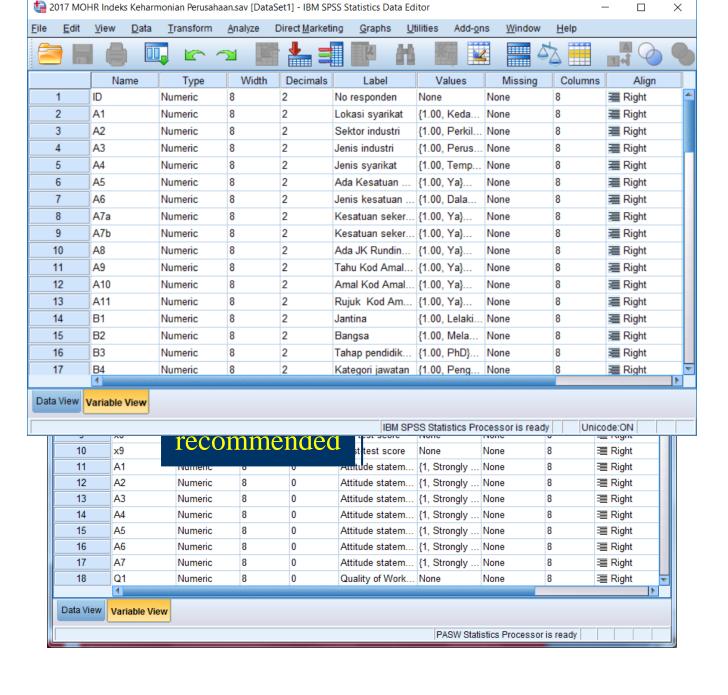




Click the Variable View tab

Define:

- Name
- Label
- Values



2 Enter Data

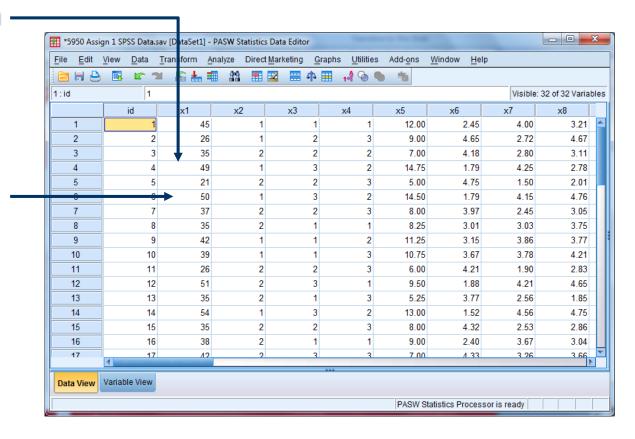
Enter data in **Data View** windows

One column

refers to one variable

One row

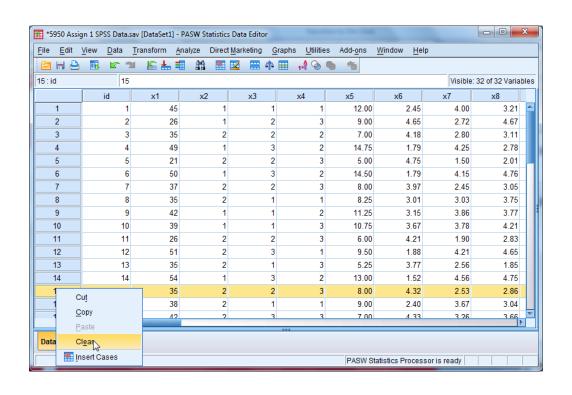
refers to one case or observation



Data Hilling & Transionsions

Data Editing

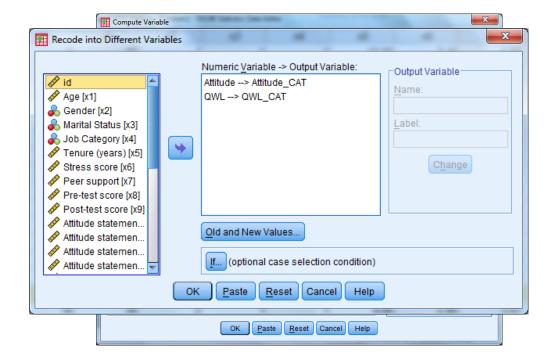
- Change data value
- Cut, copy and paste data value
- Add or delete case
- Add or delete variable
- Change sequence of variables



Data Transformations

Two commonly used data transformations:

- ① Compute
 - create new variable based on existing variable/s
- ② Recode used to:
 - Create categories from continuous variable
 - Change values
 Example: 1 → 2
 2 → 1



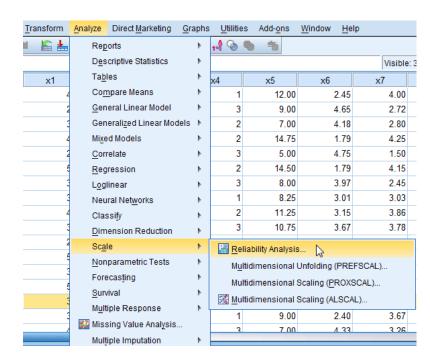
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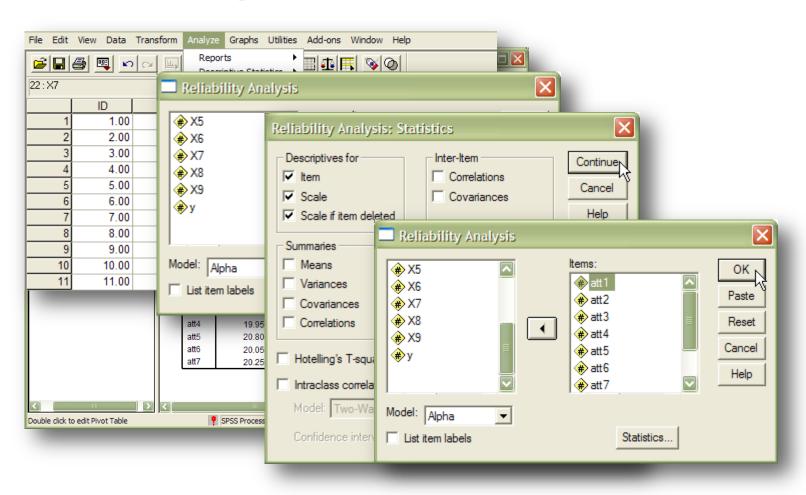
Statistical Procedures:

- Reliability test
- Exploratory data analysis
- Descriptive Statistics
 - Frequencies, crosstabs
- Compare group means
 - t-test and ANOVA
- Relationship between variables
 - Chi-square, Spearman rho, Pearson correlation, and regression analysis



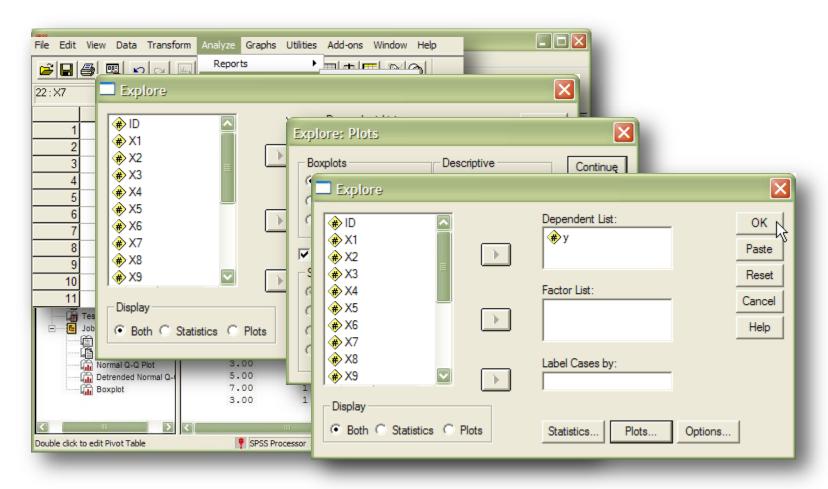


Reliability Test:



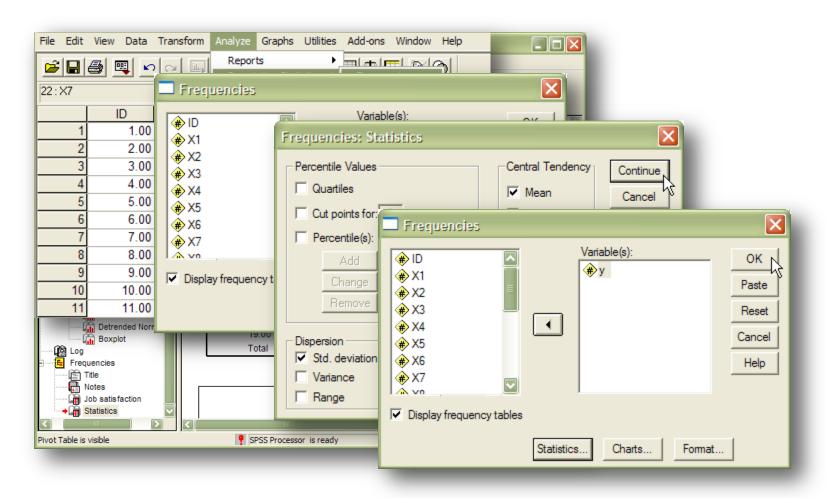


Exploratory Data Analysis:



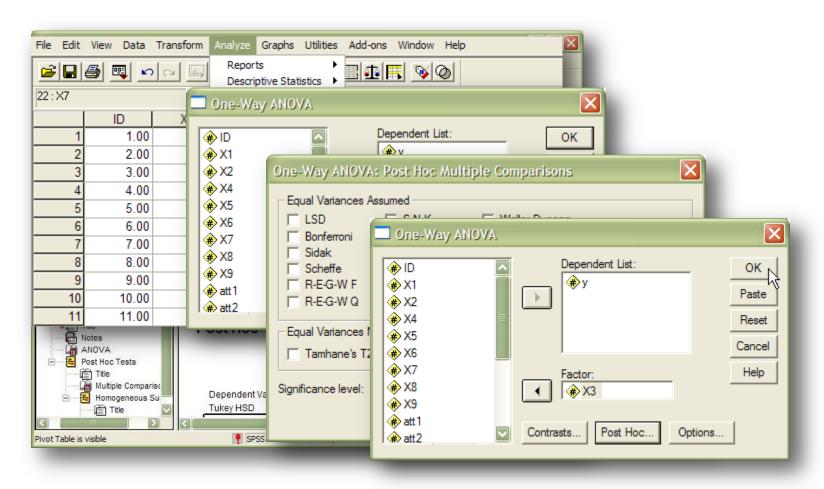


Frequencies:

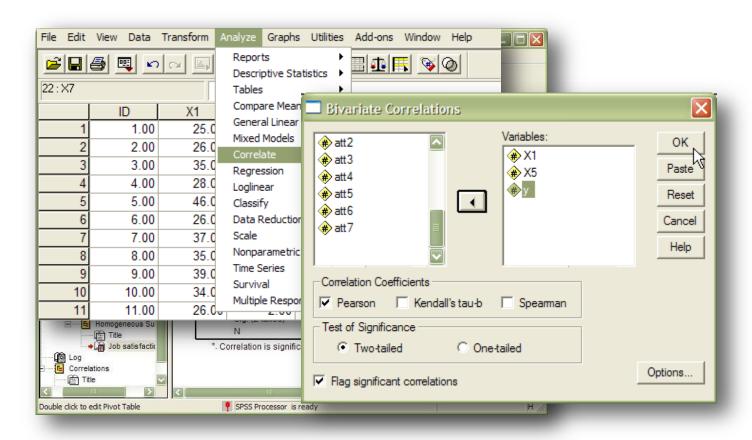




ANOWA:



Correlation Analyses:

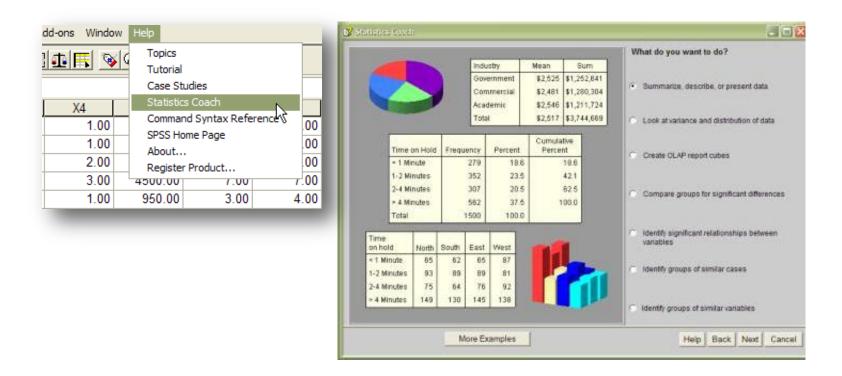




Guide in selecting the most appropriate

Sixisif Coach

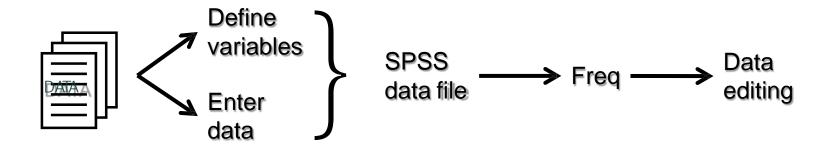
Guide in selecting the most appropriate statistical analysis



Case Similes Fleip to interpretus Statistical results

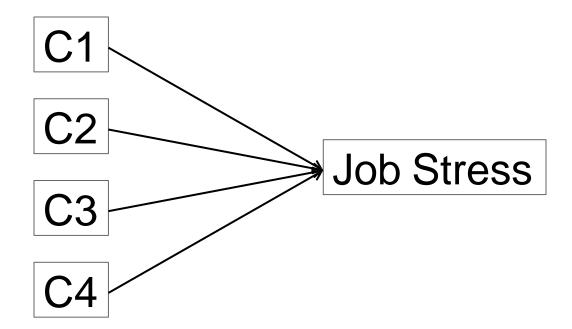
			Т	ests of N	lormality			
		Kolm	nogorov-Smir	nov ^a		Shapiro-Wilk		
4		Statistic	df	_	What's This?			Sig.
ľ	У	.153	20		Cut		20	.406
		s is a lower bound of the true si iefors Significance Correction		rue si tion	Copy Copy objects Paste After			
	Job sa	itisfactio	n		Create/Edit Auto Export	script		
	Job sat:	isfaction	Stem-and-	-Lea	Results Coach Case Studies SPSS Pivot Table	Object •		
L	Freque	ncy Ste	em & Leaf		oroo rivot lable	Object F		

Basic Steps





Why Compute?



Why Recode?

Stress

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	1.50	1	3.8
	1.75	1	3.8
	2.00	2	7.7
	2.25	3	11.5
	2.75	1	3.8
	3.00	7	26.9
	3.25	2	7.7
	3.50	2	7.7
	3.75	2	7.7
	4.00	3	11.5
	4.25	1	3.8
	4.50	1	3.8
	Total	26	100.0

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Job

Variables	Freq	Percent	
Job Stress			
Low (1 – 2.33)			
Moderate (2.34 – 3.66)			
High (3.67 – 5)			

Reliability Analysis

Reliabillity

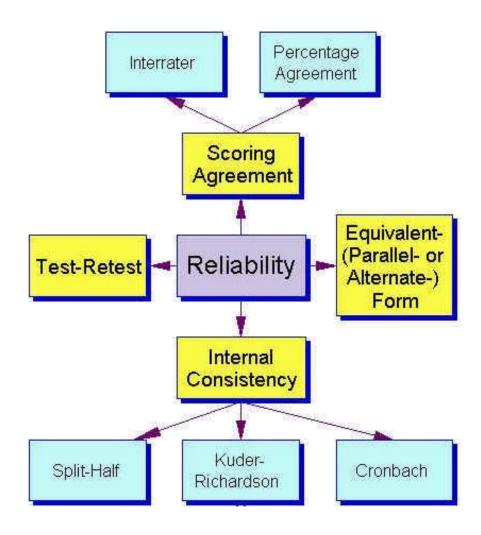
- Reliability relates to the quality of ofemeasurement.
- In its everyday sense, reliability is the "consistency" or "repeatability" of the study measures
- The extent workwhich are measure or instrument will yield the same score when administered in different times, locations, or populations



Types of Reliability

There are four general types of reliability estimates:

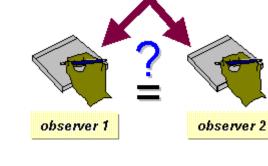
- 1 Inter-Rater Reliability
- 2 Test-Retest Reliability
- 3 Parallel-Forms Reliability
- 4 Internal Consistency Reliability



Types of Reliability

7 Inter-Rater Reliability

- Determine whether two observers are consistent in their observations
- Inter-rater reliability should be established prior the actual data collection



object or

- For categorical data, use Kappa (a measure of agreement between the raters)
- For continuous data, correlation coefficient is used a measure of reliability



Kappa

- Cohen's kappa coefficient is a measure of interrater agreement for categorical items
- Kappa ranges between -1 to 1
- Large numbers means better reliability
- Values near 0 suggest that agreement is attributable to chance
- Values < 0 signify that agreement is even less than that which could be attributed to chance
- Most statisticians prefer for Kappa values to be at least .60 and most often > .70 for a good level of agreement



Interpretation

κ	Indicator
< .20	Poor agreement
.2040	Fair agreement
.4060	Moderate agreement
.6080	Good agreement
.80 - 1.00	Very good agreement

[Altman DG (1991). Practical Statistics for Medical Research. London England: Chapman and Hall]



Example 1: Kappa

Two raters were requested to rate 50 research projects on a scale of excellent, good and poor. Data are as below:

Rater A	Rater B			
	Excellent	Good	Poor	
Excellent	37	1	1	
Good	2	4	1	
Poor	1	1	2	

Data: 6953 Reliability KAPPA



SPSS Data Editor and Procedures

Data | Weight Cases – by Count

Analyze | Descriptive Statistics | Crosstabs

Statistics - Kappa

*6953 Reliability KAPPA.sav [DataSet2] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor						
File Edit View Data Transform Analyze Graphs Utilities Add-ons						
19:						
	Rater1	Rater2	Weight	var	var	
1	1.00	1.00	37.00		1	
2	1.00	2.00	1.00		4	
3	1.00	3.00	1.00			
4	2.00	1.00	2.00		-	
5	2.00	2.00	4.00		1	
6	2.00	3.00	1.00		4	
7	3.00	1.00	1.00			
8	3.00	2.00	1.00			
9	3.00	3.00	2.00			
10		Marian A	ath.		- 1	
and the second second	No.	1	A STATE OF THE STA	atteller, auch		

SIPSS Results

Report Kappa, sig. and Cl

- 95% CI = Estimate \pm 1.96 (SE) $= .603 \pm 1.96 (.124)$ = .360, .846

Symmetric Measures

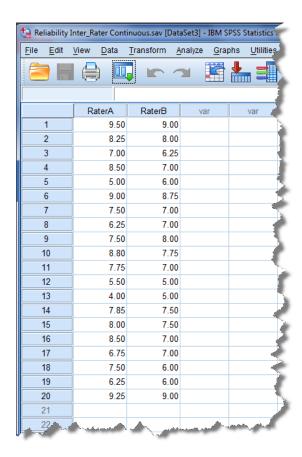
	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.603	124	5.503	,000
N of Valid Cases	50,			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.



Example 2: Correlation

Two raters were assigned to assess 20 essays written by students. The scores assigned range between 1 (poor) and 10 (excellent)



Data set: Reliability Inter-Rater Continuous

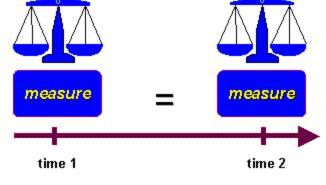
Correlations

d'		RaterA	RaterB
RaterA	Pearson Correlation	3	.857**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
RaterB	Pearson Correlation	.857**	.1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	:000	
	Ñ	20	20

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

2 Test-Retest Reliability

- Administer the same test to the same sample on two different occasions
- Assumes no substantial change in the instrument
- Use correlation to measure estimate of reliability



This estimate of reliability is affected by time elapses

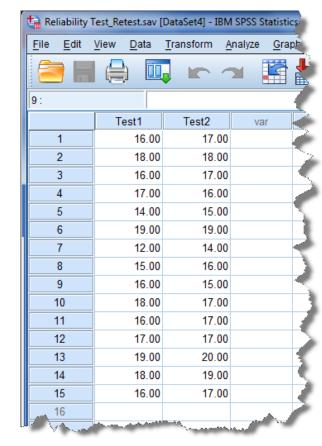
Example 3: Test-Retest

A selected group comprises 15 students was given a test and after a time lapse, the same test was administered to the group.

Variables:

Test1 Scores on Test 1

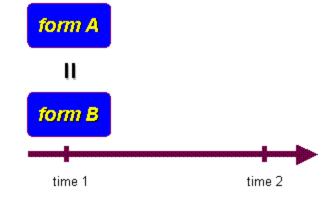
Test2 Scores on Test 2



Data set: Reliability Test-Retest

3 Parallel-Forms Reliability

- Prepare two parallel forms to measure a construct
- Administer the instruments to the same group of respondent
- This parallel-forms approach is similar to the split-half reliability



 The major different is the parallel forms can be used independent of each other

Example 4: Parallel-Forms

Two set of instruments (forms) were developed to measure perception of patients towards medical services received. These two instruments were administered to a group of patients.

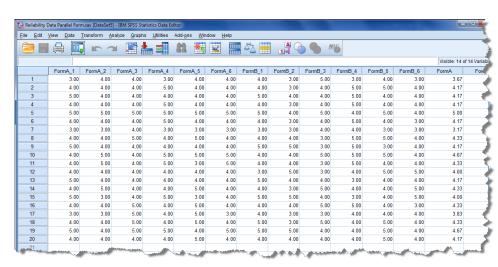
The instruments:

Form A:

ItemA_1 to ItemA_6

Form B:

ItemB_1 to ItemB_6



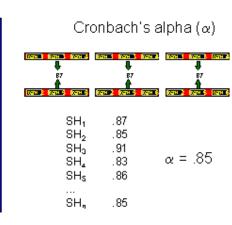
Data set: Reliability Parallel Form

2 Internal Consistency Reliability

- Use single measurement instrument to a group of respondents on one occasion
- Estimate the degree of consistency among the items that make up the instrument/scale
- Two estimates of internal consistency:
 - 1. Cronbach's alpha
 - 2. Split-half reliability

Cronbach's Alpha

- Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is the most common estimate of internal consistency
- It is mathematically equivalent to the average of all possible split-half estimates
- Kuder-Richardson 20 (KR20)
 is similar to Cronbach's
 alpha for dichotomous items
- In social science, the widely-accepted cut-off is that alpha should be .70 or higher



item 5

item 6

Interpretation

Alpha	Indicator
.9 – 1.0	Very good
.89	Good
.78	Acceptable
.67	Questionable
.46	Weak
< .4	Unacceptable

(George and Mallery, 2001))

Example 5: Cronbach Alpha

An instrument was used to measure emotional control. The instrument comprises 10 items using a 5-point Likert like scale (0 to 4)

The list of items:

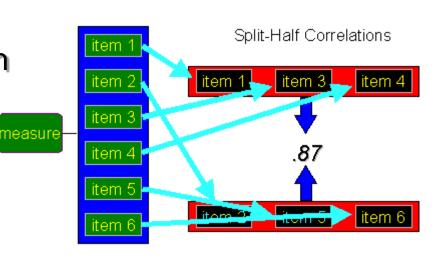
Item1 to Item10

Item4 and Item6 are negative statements. Recode these two items into Item4R and Item6R

Data set: Reliability Cronbach

Split-Half Reliability

- Randomly divide all the items into two sets
- Administer the entire instruments to a sample
- Total scores will be calculated for each set
- A reliability coefficient
 will be generated which
 is just the correlation
 between the two
 total scores



- Important to carefully choose items to include in each half so that the two halves are as equivalent as possible
- Different item splits may produce dramatically different results
- The best split of items is the one that produces equivalent halves

Example 6: Split Half

An instrument was used to measure emotional control. The instrument comprises 10 items using a 5-point Likert like scale (0 to 4)

The list of items:

Half 1 – item1, item3, item5, item8, and item10

Half 2 – item2, item4R, item6R, item7, and item9

Data set: Reliability Split Half

Data Transformations

Data Transformations

Two most commonly used data transformations in SPSS include:

- COMPUTE
 Create new variable based on existing variable/s
- 2. RECODE Can be used to:
 - a. Recategorize values
 - b. Create categories based on metric (interval/ratio) variables

Compute

Compute

Create a new variable based on existing variables

No	New variable	Existing variable	# of item
1.	Attitude	A1 – A7	7
2.	QWL	Q1 - Q9	9

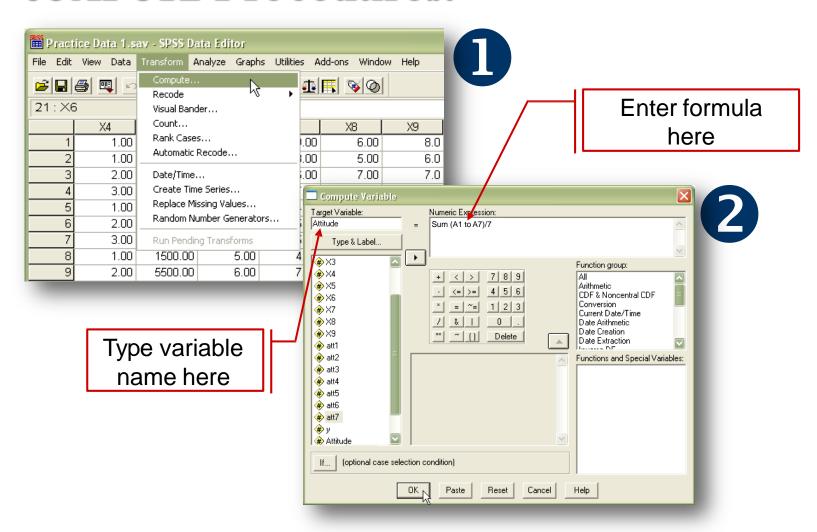
Compute an_income = X5 * 12

Compute Attitude = Mean (A1 to A7)

Variable name

Formula

COMPUTE Procedures:



Recolle

Recode

Categorize scores into categories

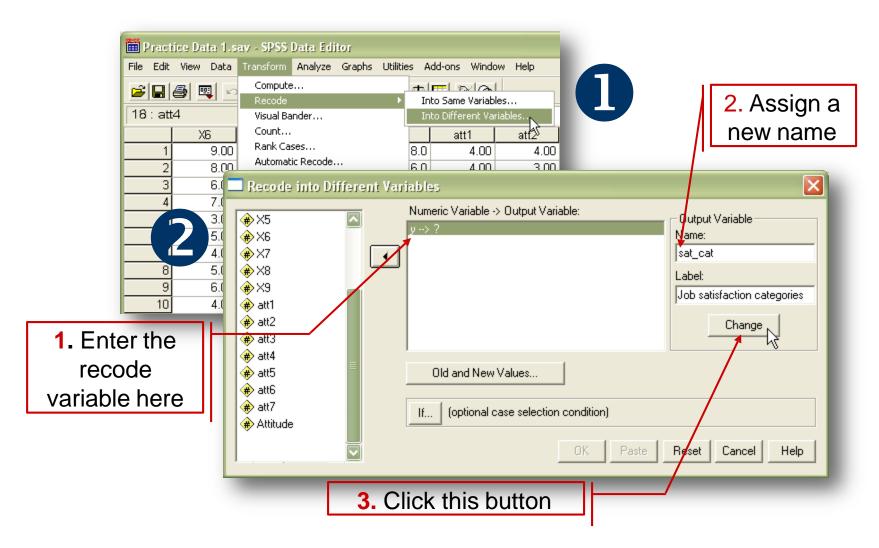
Ex. 1: Recode Y into Sat_cat

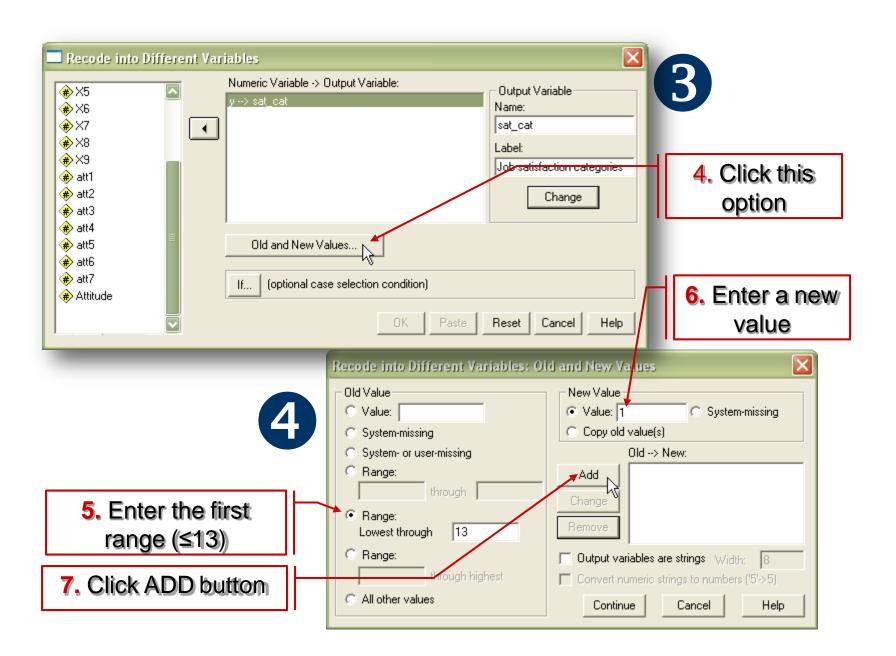
Category	Level	Range
1	Low	≤13
2	Moderate	14 - 16
3	Hìgh	>16

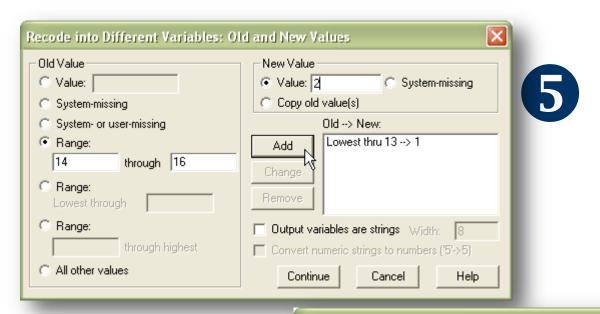
Ex. 2: Recode Attitude into Attitude_catt

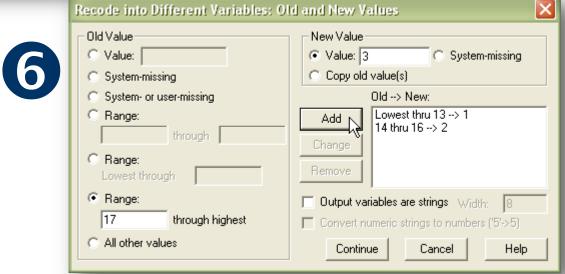
Category	Level	Range
1	Low	1.00 - 2.33
2	Moderate	2.34 - 3.66
3	Hìgh	3.67 - 5.00

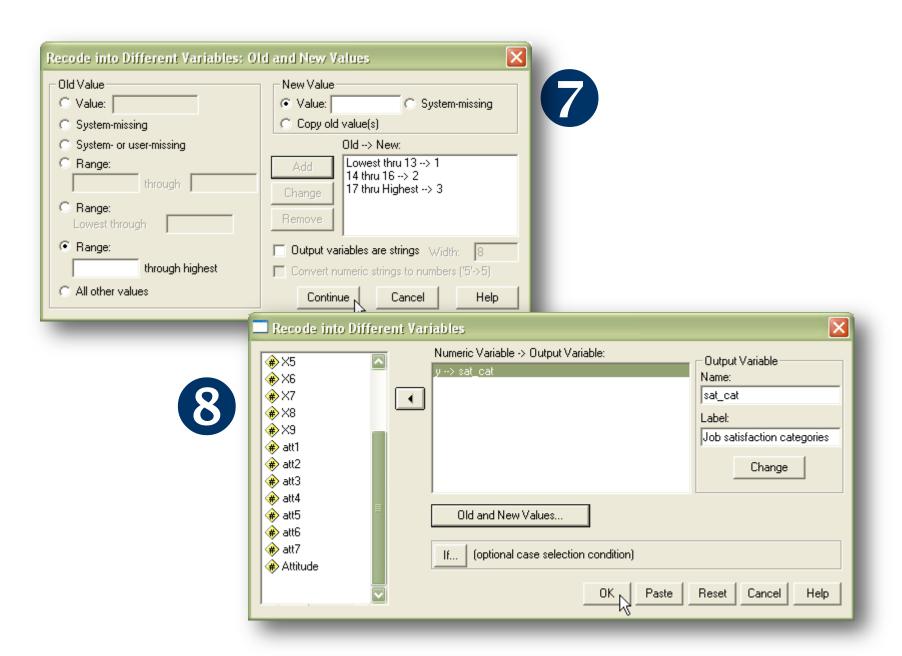
RECODE Procedures:



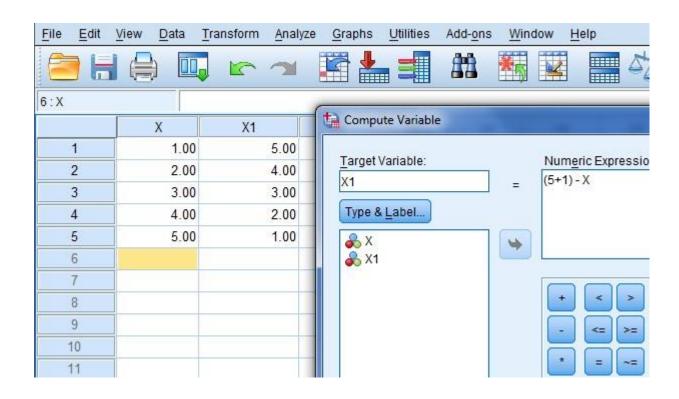








Recode Reverse coding





Data Set 3:

The above data set comprises the following variables:

Variables	Item
Support from peer	S1 - S9
Work environment	W1 - W11
Motivation	M1 - M12
Job performance (Y)	J1 - J13

Question

 Calculate the mean cumulative scores for each of the variables

Assign the new variables as:

- Support
- Work
- Motive
- Perform

... Cont.

Categorize the above mean scores into three categories below:

1 Low 1.00 – 2.33

2 Moderate 2.34 - 3.66

3 High 3.67 - 5.00

Assign the new variables as:

- Support_cat
- Work_cat
- Motive_cat
- Perform_cat

3. Present the results in the following tables:

Table 1: Distribution of Peer Support and Work Environment Scores

Variable	Freq	%	Mean	SD
Peer support Low (1.00 – 2.33) Moderate (2.34 – 3.66)	<u> </u>	_		
High (3.67 – 5.00)) Work environment		_		
Low (1.00 - 2.33) Moderate (2.34 - 3.66)				
High (3.67 – 5.00))				

Table 2: Distribution of Motivation and Job Performance Scores

Variable	Freq	%	Mean	SD
Motivation Low (1.00 – 2.33) Moderate (2.34 – 3.66) High (3.67 – 5.00)	<u> </u>	<u></u>		
Job performance Low (1.00 – 2.33) Moderate (2.34 – 3.66) High (3.67 – 5.00)	<u></u>	<u></u>		



Test of Normality

Normality Test

- One of the major assumption for parametric statistics is data in the population must be normally distributed
- How to check whether your data meet the above assumption?
- Use Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) in SPSS
- SPSS provides two statistics:
 - 1. Kolmogorov-Smirnov
 - 2. Shapiro-Wilk

- You data meet the assumption of normality
 - If the sig-value > alpha (.05)
- In addition, SPSS also produces Normality Plots:
 - Normal Q-Q Plot
 - Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot
- You data can be considered to be normally distributed
 - If majority of the points in the Detrended
 Normal Q-Q plot are within -.3 and +.3
- Data can be considered normal if skewness is between -1 and +1. However values between ±2 are in many cases acceptable (George, D and Mallery, P,2005) and Pallantt (2001)**

Skew is the tilt (or lack of it) in a distribution. The more common type is right skew, where the tail points to the right. Less common is left skew, where the tail is points left. A common rule-ofthumb test for normality is to run descriptive statistics to get skewness and kurtosis, then divide these by the standard errors. Skew should be within the +2 to -2 range when the data are normally distributed. Some authors use +1 to -1 as a more stringent criterion when normality is critical.

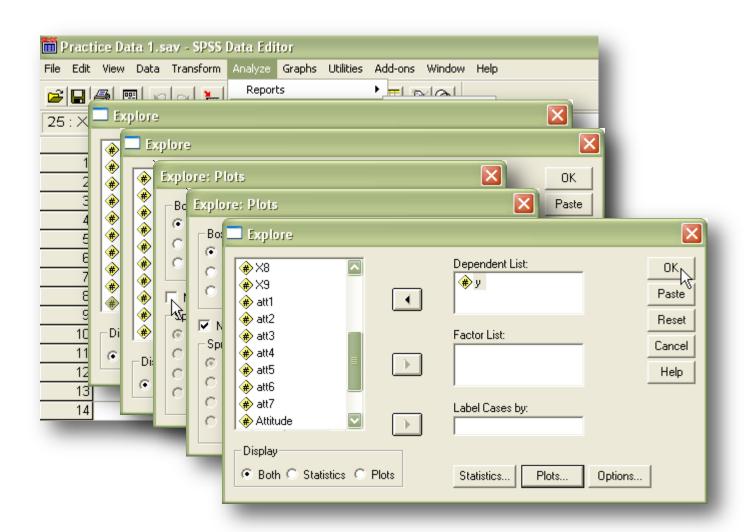
Skewness. The question arises in statistical analysis of deciding how skewed a distribution can be before it is considered a problem. One way of determining if the degree of skewness is "significantly skewed" is to compare the numerical value for "Skewness" with twice the "Standard Error of Skewness" and include the range **from minus twice** the Std. Error of Skewness **to plus twice** the Std. Error of Skewness falls within this range, the skewness is considered not seriously violated.

For example, from the above, twice the Std. Error of Skewness is 2 X .183 = .366. We now look at the range from �0.366 to + .366 and check whether the value for Skewness falls within this range. If it does we can consider the distribution to be approximately normal. If it doesn�t (as here), we conclude that the distribution is significantly non-normal and in this case is significantly positvely skewed.

http://www.une.edu.au/WebStat/unit_materials/c4_descriptive_st atistics/determine_skew_kurt.html

Kurtosis..

The same numerical process can be used to check if the kurtosis is significantly non normal. A normal distribution will have Kurtosis value of zero. So again we construct a range of "normality" by multiplying the Std. Error of Kurtosis by 2 and going from minus that value to plus that value. Here 2 X .363 = .726 and we consider the range from �0.726 to + 0.726 and check if the value for Kurtosis falls within this range. Here it doesn�t (12.778), so this distribution is also significantly non normal in terms of Kurtosis (leptokurtic).

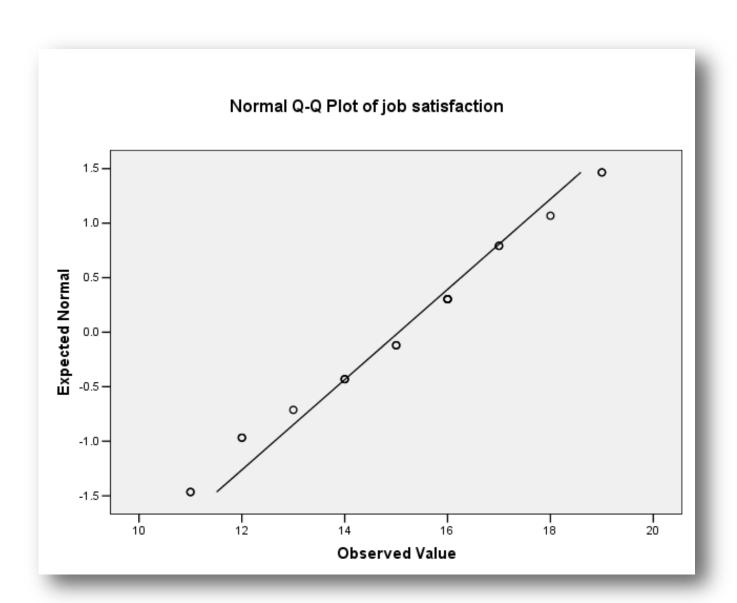


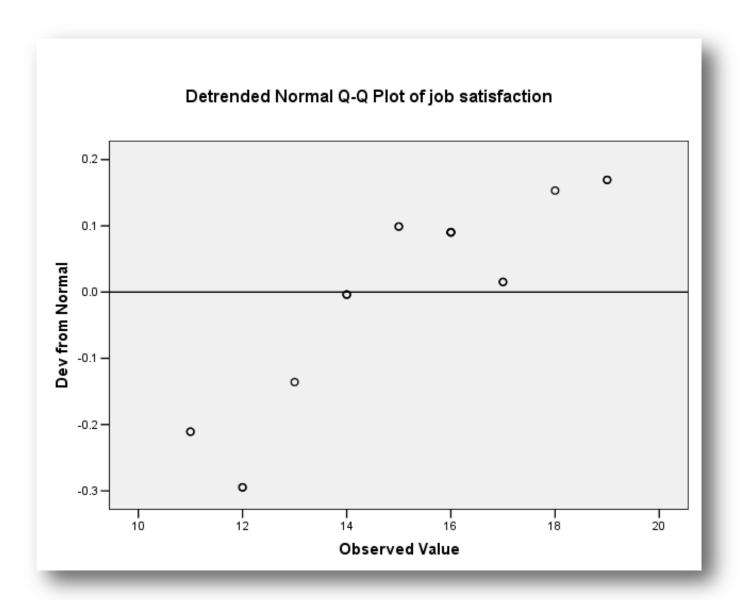
	Descriptives					
			Statistic	Std. Error		
У	Mean		15.0500	.54035		
	95% Confidence	Lower Bound	13.9190			
	Interv al for Mean	Upper Bound	16. 1810			
	5% Trimmed Mean		15.0556			
	Median		15.5000			
	Variance		5.839			
	Std. Dev iation		2.41650			
	Minimum		11.00			
	Maximum		19.00			
	Range		8.00			
	Interquartile Range		3.50			
l	Skewness		139	.512		
	Kurtosis		726	.992		

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a Shapiro-Wilk					
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
У	.153	20	.200*	.952	20	.406

^{*.} This is a lower bound of the true signif icance.

a. Lillief ors Signif icance Correction







Data Set 3:

The above data set comprises the following variables:

Variables	Item
Support from Peers	S1 - S9
Work environment	W1 - W11
Motivation	M1 - M12
Job Performance (Y)	J1 - J13

Question

Test the normality assumption of the following variables:

- Support
- Work
- Motive
- Perform

State your conclusion and justify your answer

Table 1: Normality Test of Study Instruments

Instrument	Kolmogorov	p
Support from Peers Work environment		
Metivatien		
Job Performance		

Basic Statistics

Objectives

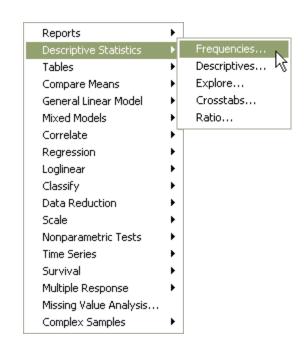
Participants to be able to:

- 1. Run frequency procedure
- Extract relevant information to be presented in appropriate presentation mode
- 3. Prepare tables and charts

Frequencies

Frequency is an SPSS procedure to obtain:

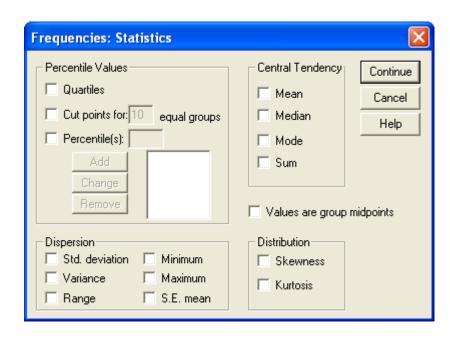
- Frequency distribution
- Percentage distribution
- Basic statistics



Basic Statistics

Statistics option in Frequency procedure provides the following statistics:

- Percentile Values
- Central Tendency
- Dispersion
- Distribution



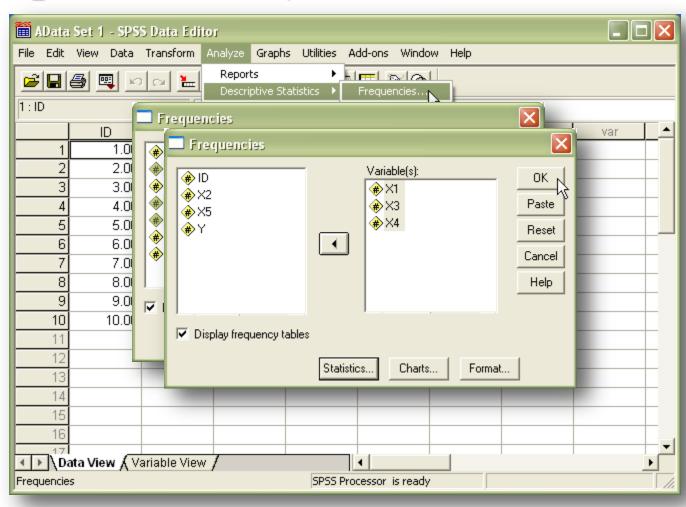
werking EXAMPLES

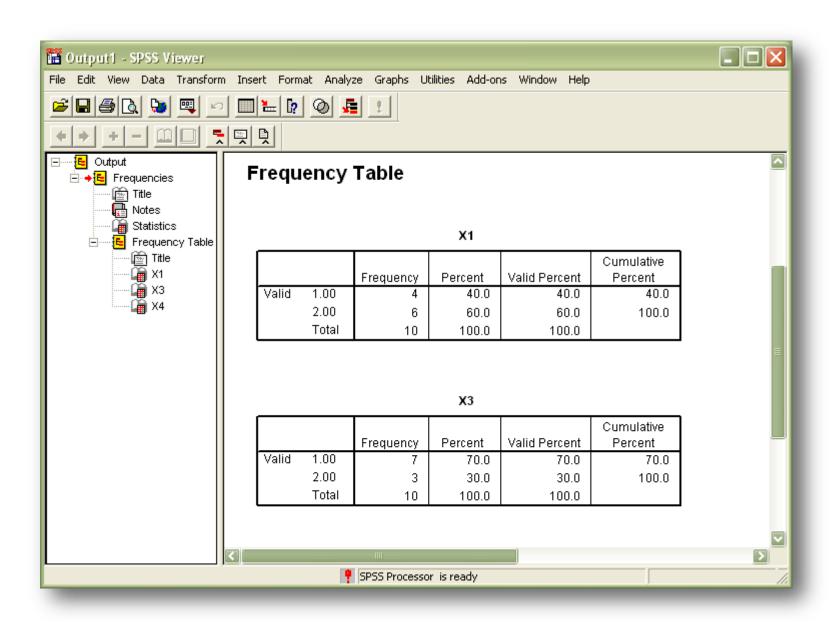


In this example, you will be using the Practice Data. Run the Frequencies procedure, extract and present the results in the given tables.

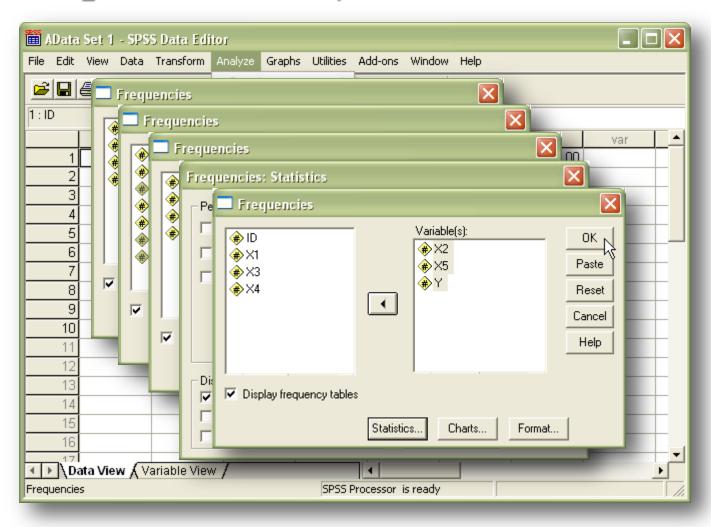
- Run Frequencies for Gender (X1), Marital status (X3) dan Job Category (X4)
- Run Frequencies for Age (X2), Tenure (X5), Jobo Commitment (X6) and Job Performance (Y).
 Request for Mean and Std. deviation

Frequencies: X1, X3 and X4





Frequencies: X2, X5 and Y



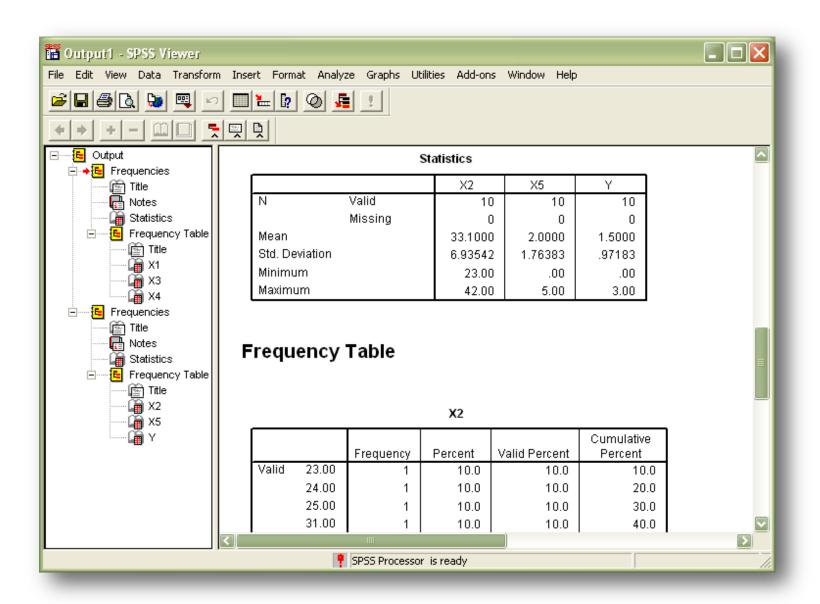


Table 1:: Gender, Marital Status and Job Categories

Variables	Freq	%
Gender Male Female		
Marital Status Married Widowed Bachelor		
Job Categories Support Clerical Administrator		

Table 2: Age, and Tenure

Variable	Freq	%	Mean	SD
Age (years)				
< 30				
30 – 40 > 40				
Tenure (years)	_			
1 – 3				
4-6 >6				
> 0				

Table 3: Job Commitment and Performance

Variable	Freq	%	Mean	SD
Job Commitment				
Low (1 – 3)				
Moderate (4 – 6)				
High (7 9))				
Job Performance				
Low (6 – 13)				
Moderate (14 – 22)				
High (23 – 30)				



Use the QWL Data and run Frequencies for the following variables and present the results in the given tables.

- Frequencies for Marital status (X3) Job category (X4)
- Run Frequencies for Peer Support (X7),
 Attitude, and Quality of Work Life (QWL).
 Request for Mean, Std. deviation, Minimum and Maximum

Table 4: Marital status and Job Categories

Variables	Freq	%	
Marital Status			
Married			
Divorced			
Bachelor			
Job Categories			
Support			
Administrator Management			
wiariagerrient			

Table 5: Peer Support, Attitude and QWL

Variable	Freq	%	Mean	SD
Peer Support Low (≤ 3) Moderate (4-6)				
High (> 6)	<u>—</u>	<u> </u>		
Attitude				
Low (1 - 2.33)		<u> </u>		
Moderate (2.34 - 3.66) High (3.67 - 5)				
Quality of Work Life				_
Low (1 = 2.33)				
Moderate (2.34 - 3.66) High (3.67 - 5)	<u>=</u>	<u>=</u>		

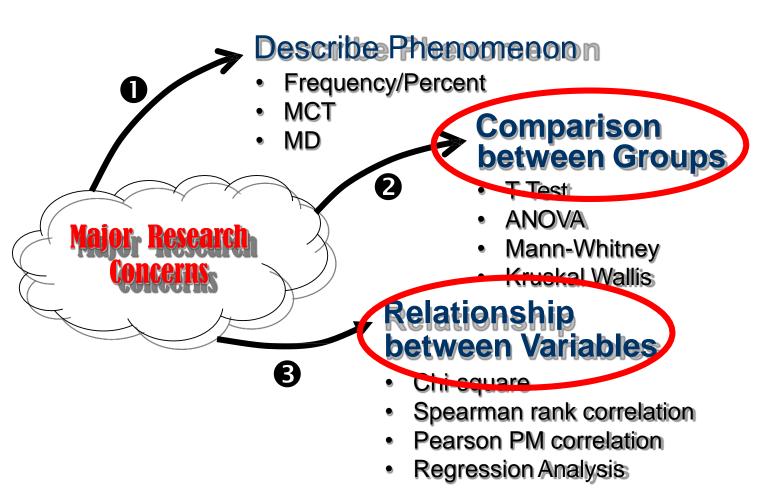
Hypothesis Testing

Objectives

Participants to be able to:

- Define hypothesis
- Name two (2) types of hypotheses
- List five (5) steps in hypothesis testing
- Define criteria in making decision
 - Manual calculation
 - SPSS
- Describe two (2) types of errors

Research Concerns/Objectives



Comparing Group Difference

Are you interested to prove:

→ No difference

- → No difference $μ_1 = μ_2$ → There is a difference $μ_1 ≠ μ_2$

$$\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$



- → H_O Null hypothesis
- \rightarrow H_A Alternative hypothesis

Hypothesis Testing

- Hypothesis refers to educated guess or assumption to be tested
- Hypothesis is formulated following the review of related literature, prior to the execution of the study

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- Setting up and testing hypotheses is an essential part of statistical inference
- Types of hypotheses:
 - 1. Research hypothesis HA
 - 2. Null hypothesis Ho

Characteristics

- A major characteristic of a good research hypothesis is that it is consistent with previous research
- A good hypothesis is a tentative, reasonable explanation for the occurrence of certain behaviors, phenomena, or events
- A /ggoddhypothlesissstates as clearly and condisely as possible the expected relationship or difference between two variables
- A well-stated and defined hypothesis must be testable

Research Hypothesis — IIA

- Also known as alternative hypothesis
- A statement of what a statistical hypothesis test is set up to establish
- In an experiment, the alternative hypothesis might be that the new teaching method has a different effect, on average, compared to that of the current method
- Or the alternative hypothesis might also be that the new method is better, on average, than the current method

Null Hypothesis - Ho

Also known as hypothesis of NO DIFFERENCE or NO RELATIONSHIP

Example:
$$H_0$$
: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
 H_0 : $\rho = 0$

Used to facilitate testing of the research hypothesis

$$H_{\Theta}$$
: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
 H_{A} : $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

The logic:

It is difficult to prove something to be TRUE but is much easier to prove something to be NOTTRUE

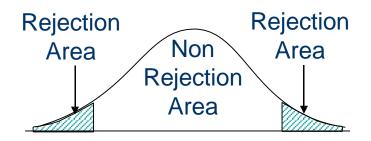
Types of Hypothesis

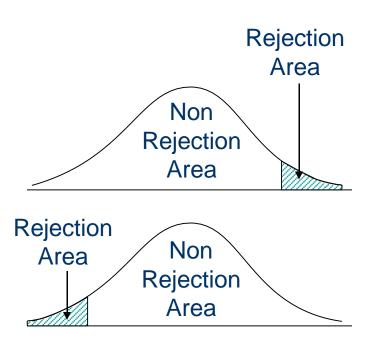
One-tailed (directional)

 $H_A: \rho \ge 0$

 H_A : $\rho < 0$

2 Two-tailed (non directional)) H_A : $\rho \neq 0$





Steps in Hypothesis Testing

- State the null and alternative hypotheses
- Set the confident/alpha level
- Report test statistic and sig. values
- Make decision
- Conclusion



State Hypothesis State Hypothesis

Comparison $H_O: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Comparison
$$H_O: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$
 bet. groups: $H_A: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ Two-tailed $\mu_1 > \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ One-tailed (More than) $\mu_1 < \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ One-tailed (Less than)

Relationship $H_O: \rho=0$

Set Confidence Level MEMBERS ONLY Set Confidence Level

Generally, in social science studies, alpha is set at .05



From the SPSS output, report:

- Value of the test statistic
- Sig-value (p)
 - Degrees of freedom df
 - 2 Confidence level (α) By convention, in social science $\alpha = .05$



Decision Criteria

SPSS

Reject H_0 : sig-value < α

Fail to reject H_o: sig-value ≥ α

Criteria	Decision
Sig- $F < \alpha$	Reject H _O
Sig- $F \ge \alpha$	Fail to reject H _O



Relate to the hypothesis

If Reject Ho: Significant Difference/

Relationship

If Fail to

Reject Ho: No Significant Difference/

Relationship

Types of Errors

Hypothesis

 H_0 True

H_O False



Type I	Correct
Error	Decision
Correct	Type II
Decision	Error

Type I Error

- Type I error occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected when it is in fact true; that is, H_o is wrongly rejected
- A type I error is often considered to be more serious, and therefore more important to avoid, than a type II error
- The probability of a type I error can be precisely computed as:

P(type I error) = significance level = alpha (α)

Type II Error

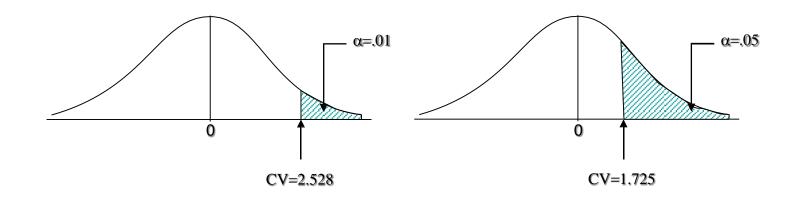
- A type II error occurs when the null hypothesis is not rejected when it is in fact false
- A type II error is frequently due to sample sizes being too small.
- The probability of a type II error is symbolized as beta

P(type II error) = beta (but is generally unknown).

General Observation

Reference: Statistic: t df: 20

- ▶ If you reject H_O at .01, you will SURELY reject the H_O at .05
- ► If you reject H_O at .05, you may OR may not reject the H_O at .01





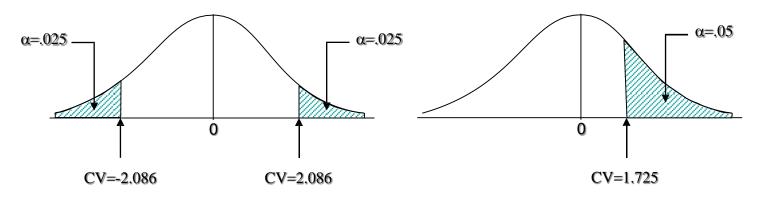
Reference:

Statistic: t

 $\alpha = .05$

df = 20

- If you reject an H_⊙ at a two-tailed test, you will SURELY reject the H_⊙ attaione-tailed test
- ▶ If you reject an H_O at a one-tailed test, you may OR may not reject the H_O at a two-tailed test

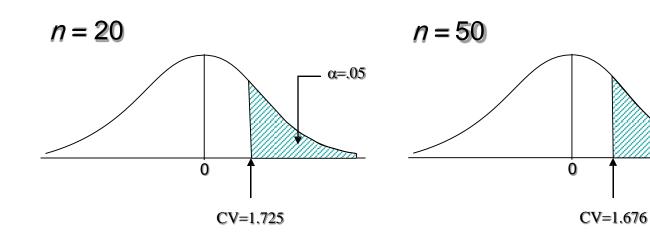


General Observation

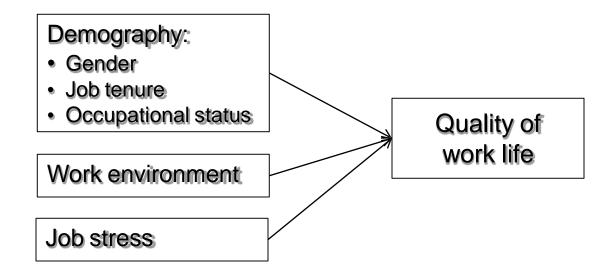
Reference: Statistic: t $\alpha = .05$

 $\alpha = .05$

- If you reject an H_☉ at n=20, you will SURELY reject the H_☉ at a higher n (50)
- If you reject an H_☉ at n=50, you may OR may not reject the H_☉ at a smaller n (20)



Hypothesis Testing

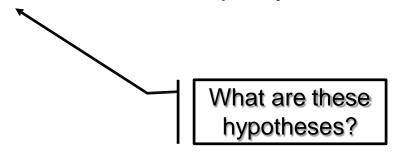


Objectives:

- 1. Compare differences in Quality of work life by gender
- 2. Determine relationship between job stress and quality of work life

What would be the possible hypotheses?

- 1. Quality of work life is different by gender
- 2. Job stress correlates with quality of work life



These are your research or alternative hypotheses, H_A The hypothesis can be written as:

 H_A : $\mu_m \neq \mu_f$

 H_A : $\rho \neq 0$

However, in any hypothesis test, you need to have the null hypothesis.

$$H_{O}$$
: $\mu_{m} = \mu_{f}$

$$H_0$$
: $\rho = 0$

BUT - Why do you need the null hypothesis, H_o?

ANSWER:

Difficult to prove something to be true BUT much easier to prove something to be not true

$$H_0$$
: $\mu_m = \mu_f$ H_0 : $\rho = 0$ H_A : $\rho \neq 0$

One or Two-tailed Hypotheses

Also known as directional and non-directional hypotheses Rejection

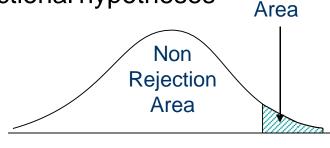
One-tailed = directional

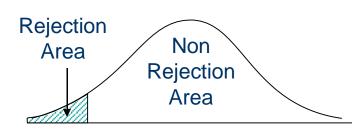
Two-tailed = non-directional

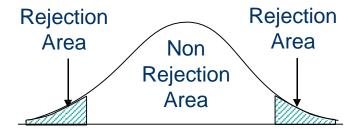
For the above hypotheses:

$$H_{O}$$
: $\mu_{m} = \mu_{f}$ H_{O} : $\rho = 0$
 H_{A} : $\mu_{m} \neq \mu_{f}$ H_{A} : $\rho \neq 0$
 $\mu_{m} > \mu_{f}$ $\rho > 0$
 $\mu_{m} < \mu_{f}$ $\rho < 0$

Which one is MORE POWERFUL?
One-tailed OR two-tailed?







Steps in Hypothesis Testing

- State the null and alternative hypotheses
- Set the confident/alpha level
- Run statistical analysis and report: test statistic and sig. (p)value
- Make decision
- Conclusion

State Hypothesis State Hypothesis

Comparison $H_O: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

Comparison
$$H_O: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$
 bet. groups: $H_A: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ Two-tailed $\mu_1 > \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ One-tailed (More than) $\mu_1 < \mu_2 \longleftarrow$ One-tailed (Less than)

Relationship $H_O: \rho=0$



Generally, in social science research, alpha is set at .05





From the SPSS output, report:

- Value of the test statistic
- Sig-value (p)



Decision Criteria

SPSS

Reject H_0 : sig-value < α

Fail to reject H_o: sig-value ≥ α

Criteri	Decision
a Sig-	Reject H _O
< α	Fail to reject H _O



Relate to the hypothesis

If Reject Ho: Significant Difference/

Relationship

If Fail to

Reject Ho: No Significant Difference/

Relationship

T-Test Statistics

Objectives

Participants to be able to:

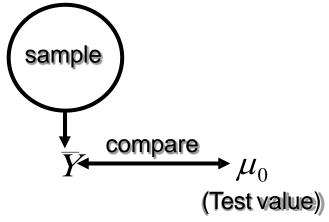
- 1. Understand when to apply t-test
- 2. Differentiate between three types of t-test
- 3. Run each *t*-test using SPSS
- 4. Interpret results of t-test analyses

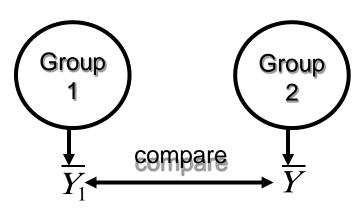
Types of Flest

- One Sample t-test
- Paired or Dependent Sample t-test
- Independent Sample t-test



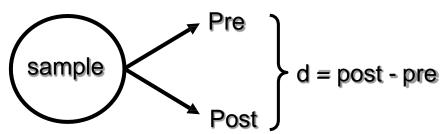
Differentiation Three Types of Fiest





Independent sample t-test

One-sample t-test



Paired-sample t-test



Introduction

- Dependent sample t-test is a bivariate, parametric and inferential statistics
- Employed in experimental research that involves repeated or dependent measures
- Example: Test effect of experimental treatment by comparing pre- and post-test scores

Purpose

- Compare differences between two (2) dependent mean scores
- Example: Test the effect of diet formula to loose weight by comparing pre- and post-test mean weight

$$\overline{Y}_{pre} \longleftrightarrow \overline{Y}_{post}$$



Requirements

- Pre-test and Post-test scores are Interval or Ratio
- Ex: Compare mean weight between pre-test and post test
- Mean weight: Ratio

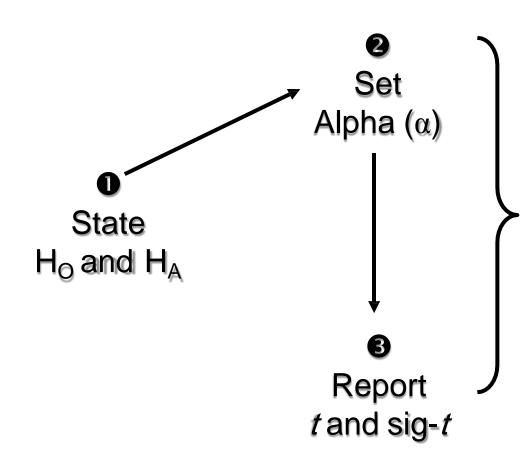
ASSUMPTIONS

- The pre-test and post-test scores are normally distributed
- 2. The cases represent random samples from the populations and the scores on the test variable are independent of each other

What to Expect?







CriteriaDecision $sig-t \le \alpha$ Reject H_O $sig-t > \alpha$ Fail to reject H_O

Decision Conclusion

5-Step Hypothesis Test

5-Sieps Hypoinesis Tesi

- 1 State H_O and H_A
 - **2** Set Confidence Level (α)
 - Report t and sig-t
 - 4 Decision
- **5** Conclusion



Siep 1: Siaie Π_0 & Π_1

 H_0 : $\mu_d = 0$

 H_A : $\mu_d \neq 0$

 $\mu_{\rm d}$ > 0

 $\mu_{\rm d}$ < 0



Step 2: Set Confidence Level

Generally, confident level is set at .05

$$\alpha = .05$$

Step 3: Report / and sig-/

Simply report:

1. t

2. sig-*t*

Paired Samples Test

			Pair 1
			post - pre
Paired Differences	Mean		.50000
	Std. Deviation		.70711
	Std. Error Mean		.22361
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	00583
		Upper	1.00583
t			2.236
df			9
Sig. (2-tailed)			.052

Step 4: Decision

Only two (2) possible decisions.

Reject or Fail to Reject H_o

Reject H_0 : $sig - t \le \alpha$

Fail to reject H_0 : $sig-t > \alpha$



CriteriaDecision $sig-t \le \alpha$ Reject H_O $sig-t > \alpha$ Fail to reject H_O

Step 5: Conclusion

Reject Ho

There is significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores

Fail to reject Ho

There is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores

Effect Size

The magnitude of the difference (1988) proposed d as a measure of effect size

$$d = \frac{\overline{d}}{s_d}$$

Interpretation: <.2 Trivial .2 Small .5 Medium

Large

Note

- For t-test analysis, SPSS does not provide option for a one-tailed test.
- For the two-tailed test, simply use the given sig-t and compare against alpha (α) to make your decision
- For a one-tailed test, divide the sig-t (2-tailed) by
 two (2) and use this value to compare against alpha
 (α)

Example/Exercise



A training program was conducted to improve participants' knowledge on ICT. Data were collected from a selected sample both before and after the ICT training program.

- 1. Test the hypothesis that the training is effective to improve participants knowledge on ICT at $\alpha = .05$
- 2. Calculate and interpret the effect size (d)

One- OR Two-Tailed Test?

Data set:			
Pre	Post		
12	13		
14	15		
13	13		
11	12		
12	13		
10	11		
15	16		
13	13		
9	8		
14	14		

Data Pairedttest t

1. Hypothesis: Significance of relationship

a. Hypotheses

 H_0 : $\mu_d = 0$

 H_A : $\mu_d > 0$

b. Set confidence level

 $\alpha = .05$

c. Report:

t = 2.236sig-t = .026 (1-tailed)

Paired Samples Test

		Pair 1	
			post - pre
Paired Differences	Mean		.50000
	Std. Deviation		.70711
	Std. Error Mean		.22361
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	00583
		Upper	1.00583
t			2.236
df			9
Sig. (2-tailed)			.052

d. Decision

Since sig-t (.026) < α (.05)

∴ Reject H_O

Criteria	Decision
sig- <i>t</i> ≤α	Reject H _O
$sig-t>\alpha$	Fail to reject H _O

e. Conclusion

There is significant increase in knowledge on ICT. Thus the training program is significantly effective to improve participants' knowledge on ICT at .05 level of significance

Table 1: Results of paired *t*-test between preand post test scores

Scores	Mean	SD	t	р
Post-test	12.8	2.20	2.236	.026
Pre-test	12.3	1.89		

2. Effect Size

$$d = \frac{\overline{d}}{s_d}$$

$$= \frac{.50}{.70711}$$

$$= .707$$

Medium effect size

Interpretation: <.2 Trivial .2 Small .5 Medium .8 Large

Paired Samples Test

			Pair 1
			post - pre
Paired Differences	Mean		.50000
	Std. Deviation		.70711
	Std. Error Mean		.22361
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower	00583
		Upper	1.00583
t			2.236
df			9
Sig. (2-tailed)			.052