

HOW TO USE SPSS®



A STEP-BY-STEP GUIDE TO ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

BRIAN C. CRONK

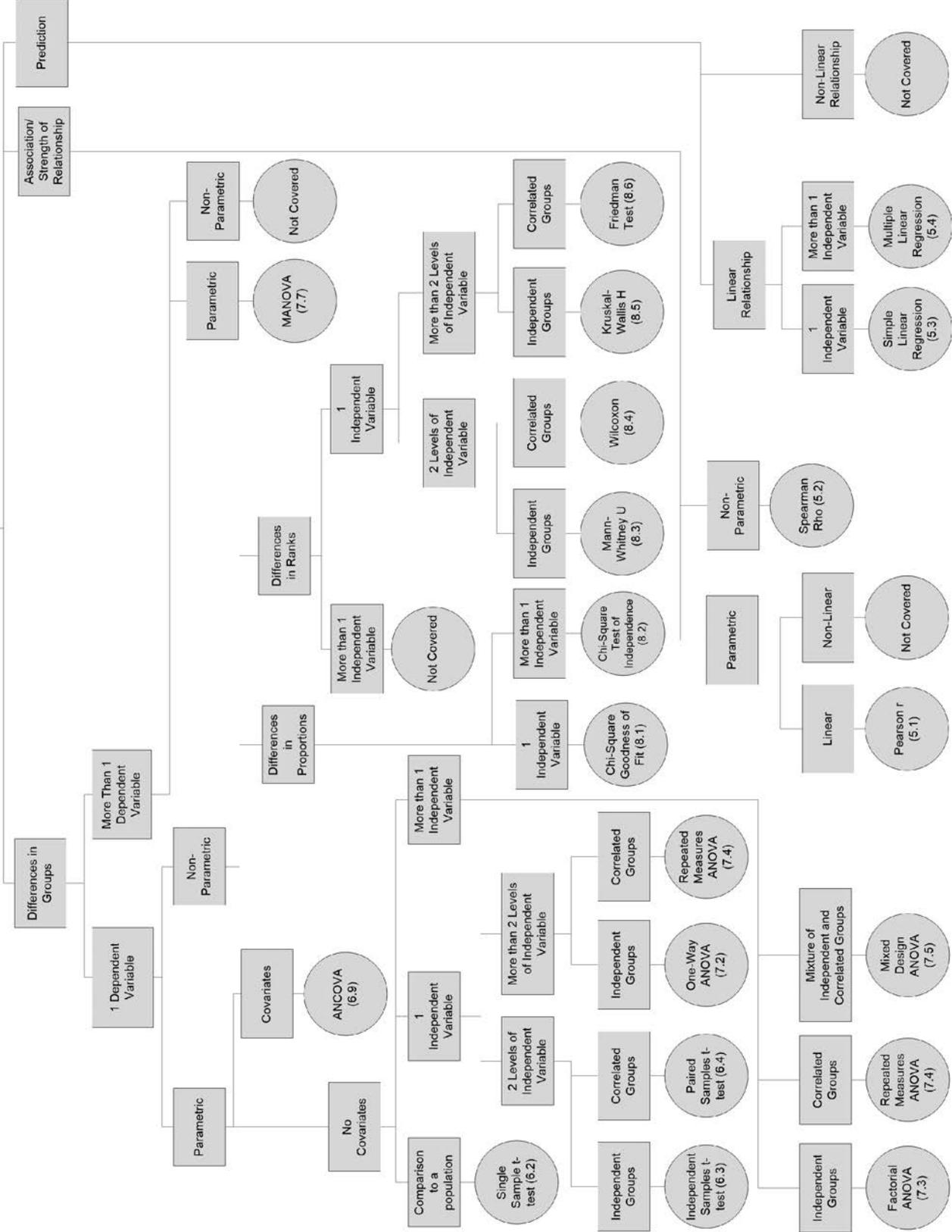
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HOW TO USE SPSS®

How to Use SPSS® is designed with the novice computer user in mind and for people who have no previous experience using SPSS. Each chapter is divided into short sections that describe the statistic being used, important underlying assumptions, and how to interpret the results and express them in a research report.

The book begins with the basics, such as starting SPSS, defining variables, and entering and saving data. It covers all major statistical techniques typically taught in beginning statistics classes, such as descriptive statistics, graphing data, prediction and association, parametric inferential statistics, nonparametric inferential statistics and statistics for test construction.

More than 250 screenshots (including sample output) throughout the book show students exactly what to expect as they follow along using SPSS. The book includes a glossary of statistical terms and practice exercises. A complete set of online resources including video tutorials and output files for students, and PowerPoint slides and test bank questions for instructors, make *How to Use SPSS®* the definitive, field-tested resource for learning SPSS.

New to this edition:

- Fully updated to SPSS 24 and IBM SPSS Statistics Cloud
- New chapter on ANOVA
- New material on inter-rater reliability
- New material on syntax
- Additional coverage of data entry and management

Brian C. Cronk is Professor and Chair, Department of Psychology, Missouri Western State University USA (PhD in Psychology 1993, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee).



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HOW TO USE SPSS®

A Step-By-Step Guide to Analysis and Interpretation

Tenth Edition

Brian C. Cronk

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Contents

PREFACE TO THE 10TH EDITION	ix
CHAPTER 1 GETTING STARTED	1
CHAPTER 2 ENTERING AND MODIFYING DATA	13
CHAPTER 3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	21
CHAPTER 4 GRAPHING DATA	35
CHAPTER 5 PREDICTION AND ASSOCIATION	50
CHAPTER 6 BASIC PARAMETRIC INFERENTIAL STATISTICS AND <i>T</i> TESTS	65
CHAPTER 7 ANOVA MODELS	78
CHAPTER 8 NONPARAMETRIC INFERENTIAL STATISTICS	99
CHAPTER 9 TEST CONSTRUCTION	123
APPENDIX A EFFECT SIZE	129
APPENDIX B PRACTICE EXERCISE DATASETS	135
APPENDIX C SAMPLE DATA FILES USED IN TEXT	138
APPENDIX D SPSS SYNTAX BASICS	144
APPENDIX E GLOSSARY	147
APPENDIX F SELECTING THE APPROPRIATE INFERENTIAL TEST	150
INDEX	163



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Preface to the 10th Edition

Introduction

IBM® SPSS Statistics software (“SPSS®”) is a statistical package produced by IBM, Inc. Prior to 2009, SPSS was a separate company and produced statistical software under the SPSS and PASW names. IBM SPSS Statistics is designed to perform a wide range of statistical procedures. As with any other powerful program for the computer, there are certain conventions and techniques that must be mastered for efficient use of the software and to obtain consistently correct answers. By providing detailed, step-by-step guidance illustrated with examples, this book will help you attain such mastery.

In addition to showing you how to enter data and obtain results, this book explains how to select appropriate statistics and present the results in a form that is suitable for use in a research report in the social or behavioral sciences. For instance, the section on the independent t test shows how to state (i.e., phrase) the results of both a significant and an insignificant test.

Audience

This book is ideal as a supplement to traditional introductory- and intermediate-level statistics textbooks. It can also be used as a statistics refresher manual in a research methods course. Finally, students can use it as a desk reference guide in a variety of workplace settings after they graduate from college.

SPSS Statistics is an incredibly powerful program, and this text is not intended to be a comprehensive user’s manual. Instead, the emphasis is on the procedures normally covered in introductory- and intermediate-level courses in statistics and research methods.

Organization

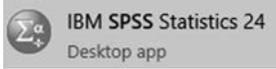
This book is divided into nine chapters plus several useful appendixes. The first two chapters deal with the basic mechanics of using the SPSS program. Each of the remaining chapters focuses on a particular class of statistics.

Each chapter contains several short sections. For the most part, these sections are self-contained. However, students are expected to master the SPSS basics in Chapters 1 and 2 before attempting to learn the skills presented in the rest of the book. Except for the skills in the first two chapters, this book can be used in a nonlinear manner. Thus, an instructor can assign the first two chapters early in a course and then assign other sections in whatever order is appropriate.

Appendix A contains a discussion of effect size. Appendix B contains datasets that are needed for the practice exercises interspersed throughout this book. Appendix C provides the sample data files that are used throughout this book. Appendix D provides information on choosing the appropriate statistical test. The Glossary in Appendix E provides definitions of most of the statistical terms used in this book. Because it is assumed that this text is being used in conjunction with a main

statistics textbook, the Glossary definitions are brief and are designed to serve only as reminders. Appendix F provides a text-based version of the decision tree on the inside front cover.

SPSS Versions

This text is designed to work with  through .

There are numerous versions of the SPSS Statistics package. This book was written for use with IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows Version 24.0, although it will work well with all prior versions of SPSS (and PASW) as well as the newer IBM SPSS Statistics Cloud. There are no material differences in terms of the content of this text between Versions 18 or higher of SPSS/PASW (only some minor differences in logos, etc.). Thus, this text is designed for use with all versions since Version 18.

SPSS also offers several modules. The screenshots in this text were taken using a “full” version of the software (all modules active and installed). Most institutions have at least the Base, Regression, and Advanced modules installed. With these three modules, or if you are using the *SPSS Statistics GradPack* or *Premium Gradpacks*, you can conduct all of the analyses in this text. If you are using the *SPSS Statistics Base GradPack*, some procedures will not be available. When this is the case, the text will clearly indicate that another product is necessary.

If you have different add-on modules installed, the menu bars shown in the illustrations of this text may be slightly different. If your menu bars look different, or if you cannot locate a menu item for a command presented in this book, it may be that your institution supports different modules. Ask your instructor for additional guidance.

Availability of SPSS

Some institutions purchase site licenses from IBM to provide the software at no charge to their faculty and, sometimes, to their students. If your institution has not purchased a site license, you should still be able to purchase the student version of the software in your campus bookstore at a price discounted for the educational community. Either of these will be a fully functional version of the software intended for your personal use. However, the student version is limited to 50 variables and 1,500 cases. If you need software with more functionality, you can purchase the *SPSS Statistics GradPack* from a variety of sources. A quick Internet search for “SPSS graduate pack” will bring up some choices. Please note that you can generally lease SPSS for a period of a single semester if you would like. You can also purchase a month-to-month license of the IBM SPSS Statistics Cloud product.

Conventions

The following conventions have been used throughout this book:

- Items in **bold** are defined in the Glossary in Appendix E.
- Items in *italics* are either buttons or menus from the SPSS program, or they are statistical symbols.
- Items in ALL CAPITAL LETTERS are either acronyms or the names of variables in the SPSS data file.

Screenshots

Screenshots have been used extensively throughout the text as a visual representation of what is described. In some instances, there may be minor differences between screenshots shown in the text and those on the student’s own screen. For instance, a screenshot captured while working

with a dataset that has been previously saved to the hard drive will show the filename and dataset number, whereas a dataset that has not yet been saved will simply show “*Untitled” and “[Data-Set0].” Because no two Windows computers are configured exactly alike, and because different modules and software versions can produce slightly modified screenshots, such minor differences are unavoidable.

Practice Exercises

Practice exercises are included for each skill presented. In addition, the skills acquired in this text can be used in practice exercises in other statistics texts or workbooks. In this respect, an excellent complement to this text is *Real Data: A Statistics Workbook Based on Empirical Data*.¹

New to This Edition

Prior editions of this text were published by Pyczak Publishing. In 2016 Pyczak Publishing was acquired by Routledge/Taylor & Francis, and this 10th edition is the first edition that is a pure Routledge product. As a result, the entire look and feel of the text has been updated.

The content on parametric inferential statistics has been split into two chapters (Chapters 6 and 7) to provide a clearer distinction between *t*-test models and ANOVA models and to make the chapters a more manageable size.

A section on using SPSS to calculate inter-rater reliability has been added to Chapter 9.

A brand new Appendix D has been added which covers the basics of using SPSS Syntax rather than just the point and click menus.

Acknowledgments

This book is dedicated to the students in my Introductory Psychological Statistics and Research Team courses. While teaching those courses, I became aware of the need for an SPSS manual that did more than simply tell students how to start the program and enter data. I am deeply indebted to Wendy Schweigert at Bradley University, who first showed me the power, simplicity, and usefulness of statistics. I would also like to thank the hundreds of instructors who adopted previous editions of this text and provided me with constructive feedback. Of course, this text would not have been possible without the support of my family—especially my children Jonathan and Katherine. A lot has changed since the first edition of this text. My son had just been born as I wrote the proposal for the first edition. By the time you buy this book he will be a student at a university just like you.

Brian C. Cronk

Note

1. Holcomb, Z. (1997). *Real data: A statistics workbook based on empirical data*. Los Angeles, CA: Pyczak Publishing.



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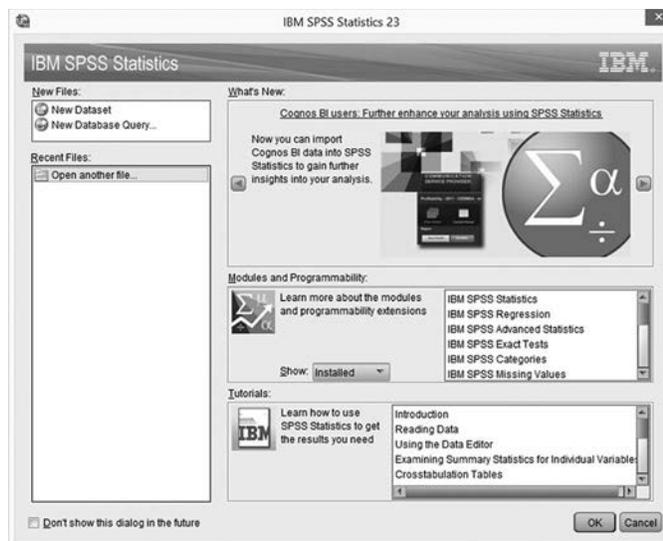
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Getting Started

Section 1.1 Starting SPSS

Startup procedures for SPSS will differ slightly, depending on the configuration of the machine on which it is installed. If you have difficulty finding it look for a *IBM SPSS Statistics* section of your *Start Menu*. This text uses screenshots from the Windows version of SPSS. The MacOS and Unix versions will have the same functionality, but could appear differently than what is depicted herein.



When SPSS is started, you may be presented with the **dialog box** above, depending on the options your system administrator selected for your version of the program. If you have the **dialog box**, click *Type in data* and *OK*, which will present a blank **data window**.¹

If you were not presented with the **dialog box** above, SPSS should open automatically with a blank **data window**.

The **data window** and the **output window** provide the basic interface for SPSS. A blank **data window** is shown below.

Section 1.2 Entering Data

One of the keys to success with SPSS is knowing how it stores and uses your data. To illustrate the basics of data entry with SPSS, we will use Example 1.2.1.

Example 1.2.2

ID
 Day of class
 Class time
 Morning person
 Final grade
 Whether or not the student works outside school

In the SPSS **data window**, columns represent variables, and rows represent participants. Therefore, we will be creating a data file with six columns (variables) and two rows (students/participants).

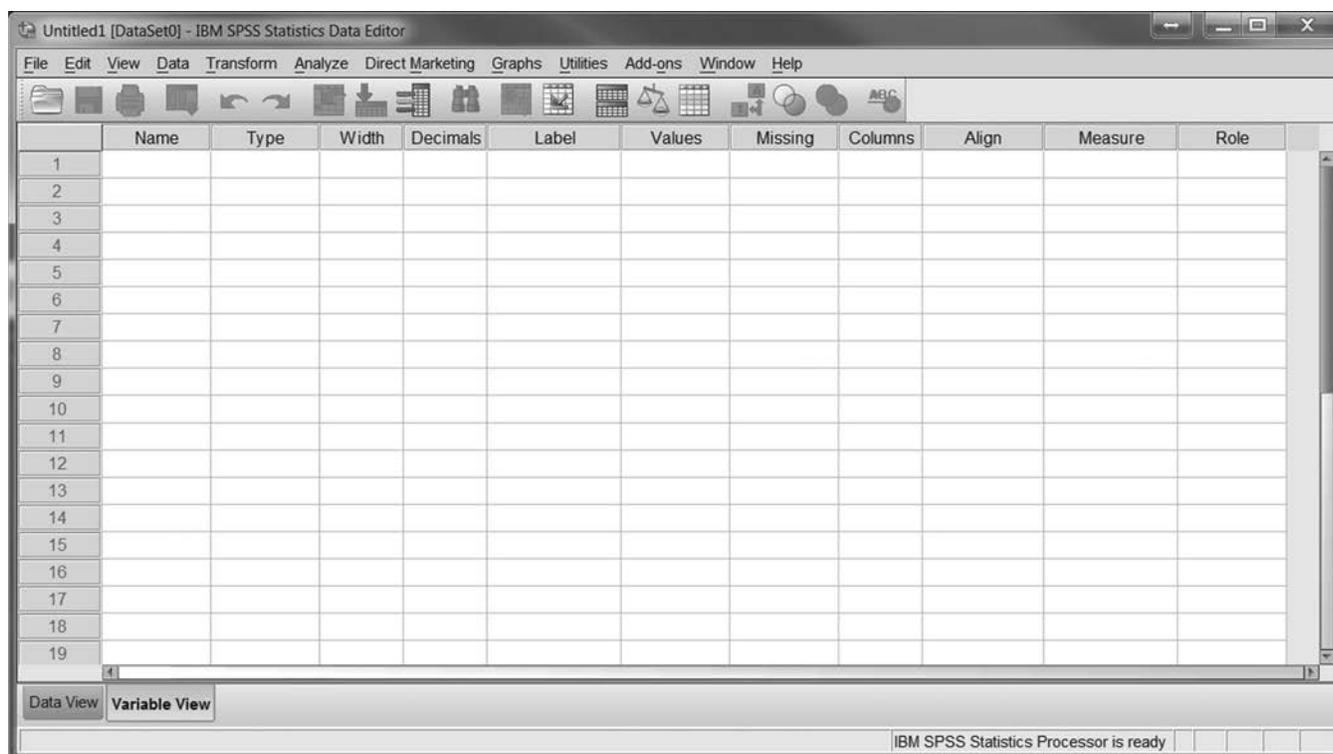
Section 1.3 Defining Variables

Before we can enter any data, we must first enter some basic information about each variable into SPSS. For instance, variables must first be given names that

- begin with a letter, and
- do not contain a space.

Thus, the variable name “Q7” is acceptable, while the variable name “7Q” is not. Similarly, the variable name “PRE_TEST” is acceptable, but the variable name “PRE TEST” is not. Capitalization does not matter, but variable names are capitalized in this text to make it clear when we are referring to a variable name, even if the variable name is not necessarily capitalized in screenshots.

To define a variable, click on the *Variable View* tab at the bottom of the main screen (see image to the right). This will show you the *Variable View* window. To return to the *Data View* window, click on the *Data View* tab.

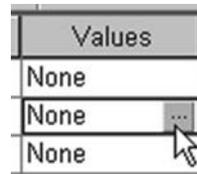


From the *Variable View* screen, SPSS allows you to create and edit all of the variables in your data file. Each column represents some property of a variable, and each row represents a variable. All variables must be given a name. To do that, click on the first empty cell in the *Name* column and type a valid SPSS variable name. The program will then fill in default values for most of the other properties.

One useful function of SPSS is the ability to define variable and value labels. Variable labels allow you to associate a description with each variable.

Value labels allow you to associate a description with each value of a variable. For instance, for most procedures, SPSS requires numerical values. Thus, for data such as the day of the class (i.e., Mon/Wed/Fri and Tues/Thurs), we need to first code the values as numbers. We can assign the number 1 to Mon/Wed/Fri and the number 2 to Tues/Thurs. To help us keep track of the numbers we have assigned to the values, we use value labels.

To assign value labels, click in the cell you want to assign values to in the *Values* column (in this case, for Variable 2). This will bring up a small gray button (shown below). Click on that button to bring up the Value Labels **dialog box**.



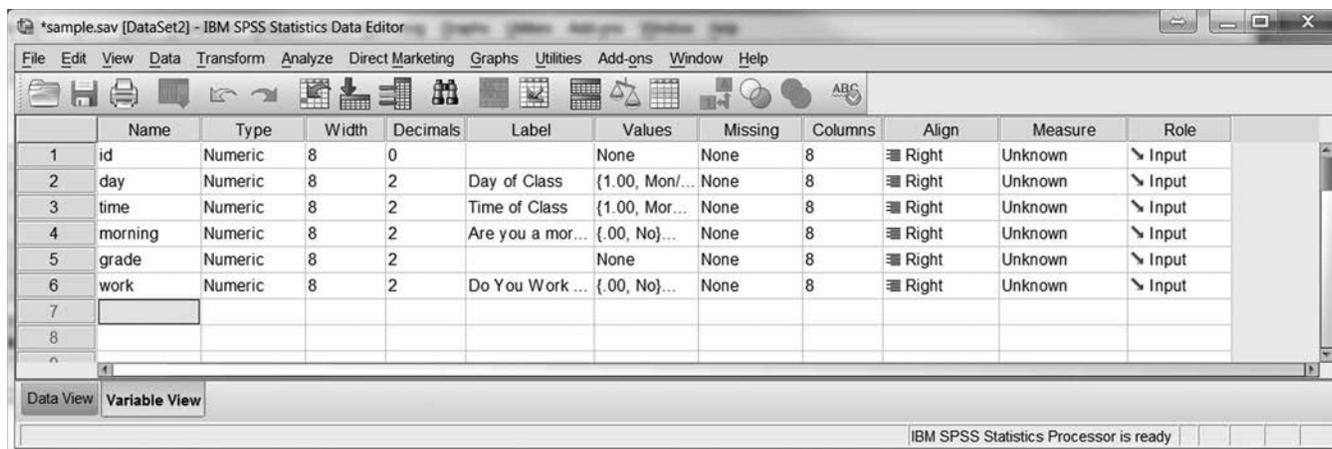
When you enter a value label, you must click *Add* after each entry. This will move the value and its associated label into the bottom section of the window. When all labels have been added, click *OK* to return to the *Variable View* window.

In addition to naming and labeling the variable, you have the option of defining the variable type. To do so, simply click on the *Type*, *Width*, or *Decimals* columns in the *Variable View* window. The default value is a numeric field that is eight digits wide with two decimal places displayed. If your data are more than eight digits to the left of the decimal place, they will be displayed in scientific notation (e.g., the number 2,000,000,000 will be displayed as 2.00E+09).² SPSS maintains accuracy beyond two decimal places, but all output will be rounded to two decimal places unless otherwise indicated in the *Decimals* column.

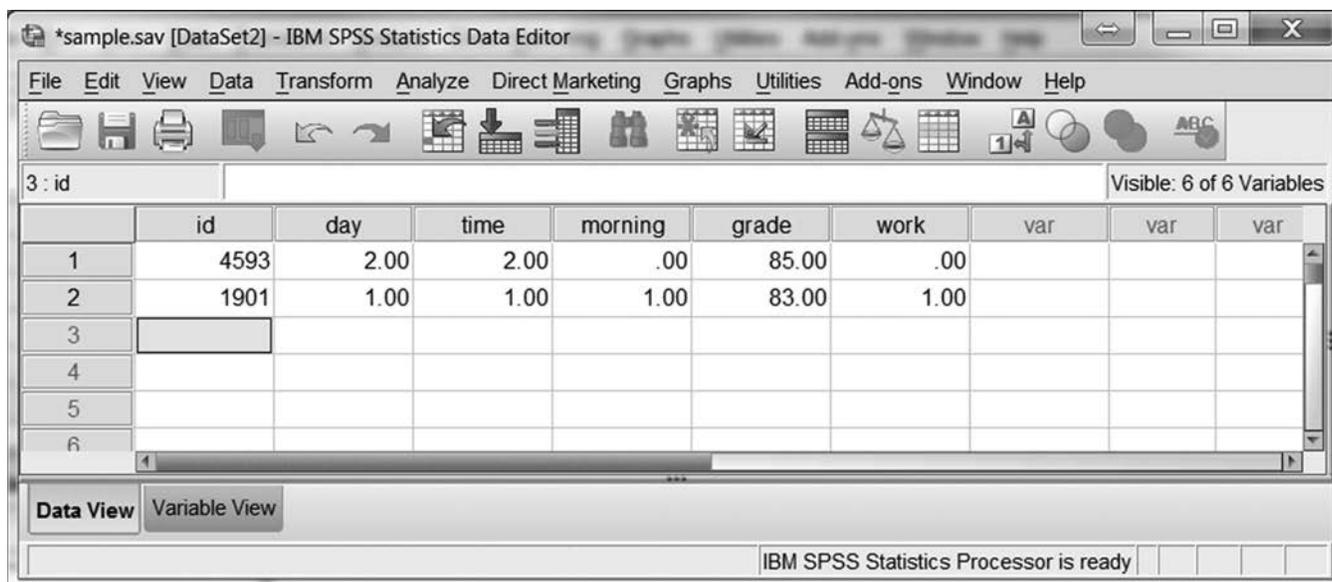
There are several other options available in this screen, which are beyond the scope of this text. In our example, we will be using numeric variables with all the default values.

Practice Exercise

Create a data file for the six variables and two sample students presented in Example 1.2.1. Name your variables: ID, DAY, TIME, MORNING, GRADE, and WORK. You should code DAY as 1 = Mon/Wed/Fri, 2 = Tues/Thurs. Code TIME as 1 = morning, 2 = afternoon. Code MORNING as 0 = No, 1 = Yes. Code WORK as 0 = No, 1 = Part-time, 2 = Full-time. Be sure you enter value labels for the different variables. Note that because value labels are not appropriate for ID and GRADE (because the values themselves serve as labels), these are not coded. When complete, your *Variable View* window should look like the screenshot below.

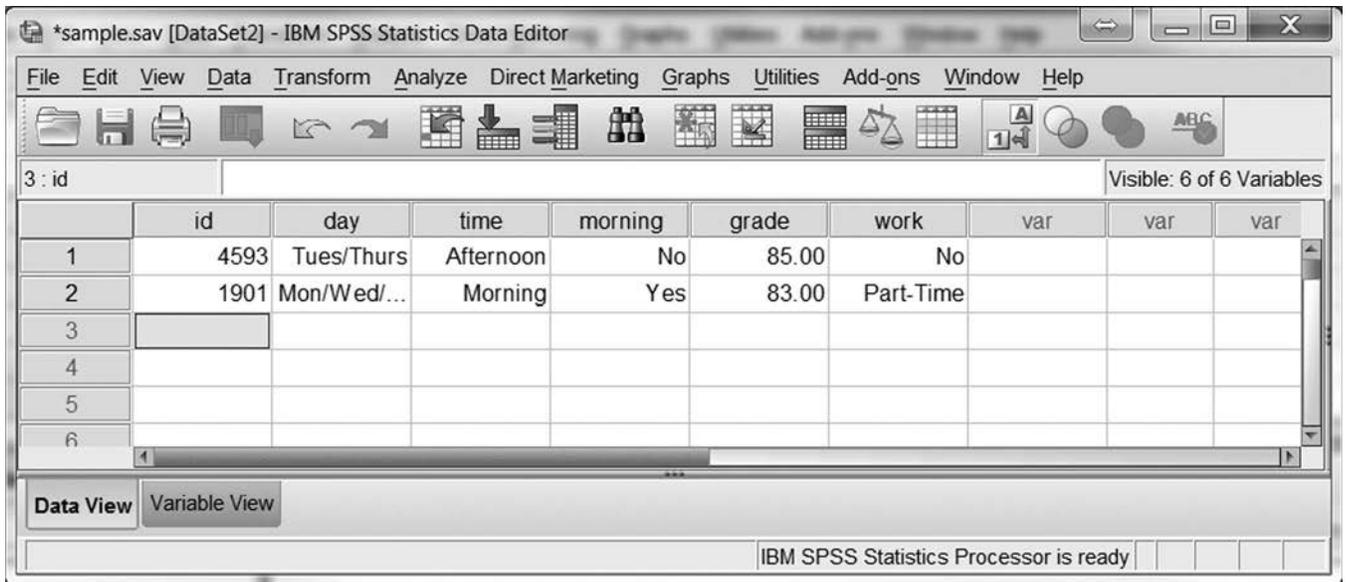


Click on the *Data View* tab to open the data-entry screen. Enter data horizontally, beginning with the first student's ID number. Enter the code for each variable in the appropriate column. To enter the GRADE variable value, enter the student's class grade.

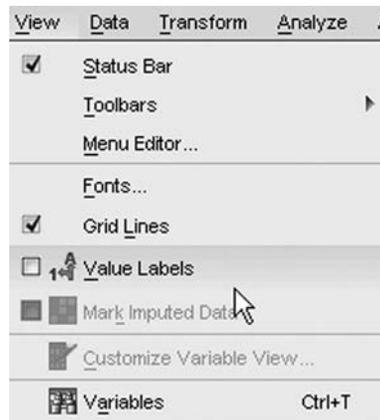


The previous **data window** can be changed to look like the screenshot below by clicking on the *Value Labels* icon (see below). In this case, the cells display value labels rather than the corresponding codes. If data are entered in this mode, it is not necessary to enter codes, as clicking the button that appears in each cell as the cell is selected will present a drop-down list of the predefined labels. You may use whichever method you prefer.

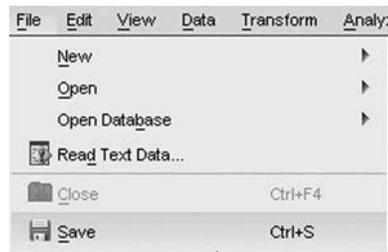




Instead of clicking the *Value Labels* icon, you may toggle between views by clicking *Value Labels* under the *View* menu.



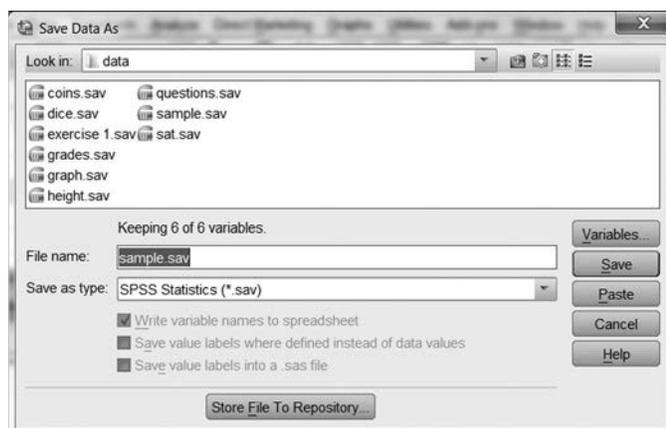
Section 1.4 Loading and Saving Data Files



Once you have entered your data, you will need to save it with a unique name so that you can retrieve it when necessary for later use.

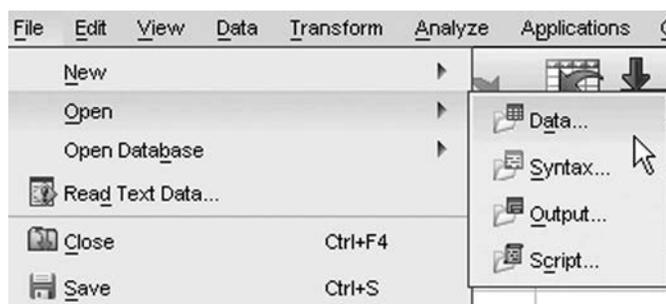
Loading and saving SPSS data files works in the same way as most Windows-based software. Under the *File* menu, there are *Open*, *Save*, and *Save As* commands. SPSS data files have a “.sav” extension, which is added by default to the end of the filename (that is, do not type “.sav” after the filename; SPSS will add it automatically). This tells Windows that the file is an SPSS data file. Other SPSS extensions include “.spv” for saved output files and “.sps” for saved syntax files.

Save Your Data



When you save your data file (by clicking *File*, then clicking *Save* or *Save As* to specify a unique name), pay special attention to where you save it. You will probably want to save your data on a removable USB drive so that you can take the file with you.

Load Your Data



When you load your data (by clicking *File*, then clicking *Open*, then *Data*, or by clicking the open file folder icon), you get a similar window. This window lists all files with the “.sav” extension. If you have trouble locating your saved file, make sure you are looking in the right directory.

Practice Exercise

To be sure that you have mastered saving and opening data files, name your sample data file “SAMPLE” and save it to a removable storage medium. Once it is saved, SPSS will display the name of the file at the top of the **data window**. In the screenshot here the file is called “DataSet2”.



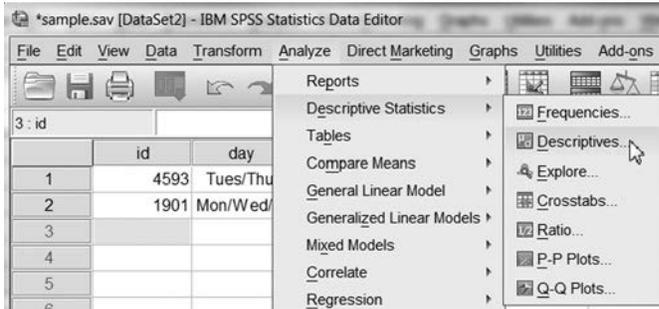
It is wise to save your work frequently, in case of computer crashes. Note that filenames may be uppercase or lowercase. In *this* text, uppercase is used for clarity. In naming files, though, screenshots may show lowercase only.

After you have saved your data, exit SPSS (by clicking *File*, then *Exit*). Restart SPSS and load your data by selecting the “SAMPLE.sav” file you just created.

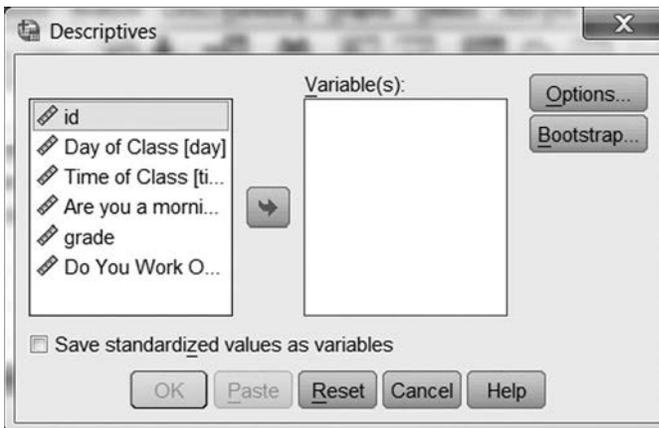
Section 1.5 Running Your First Analysis

Any time you open a **data window**, you can run any of the analyses available. To get started, we will calculate the students' average grade. (With only two students, you can easily check your answer by hand, but imagine a data file with 10,000 student records.)

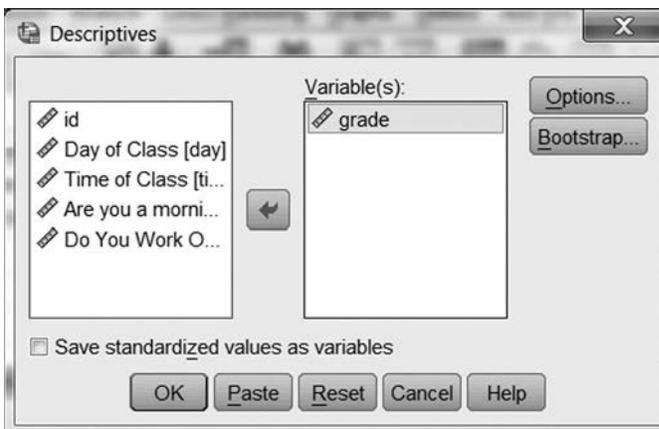
The majority of the available statistical tests are under the *Analyze* menu. This menu displays all the options available for your version of the SPSS program (the menus in this book were created with SPSS Statistics Version 23.0 and 24.0). Other versions may have slightly different sets of options.



To calculate a **mean** (average), we are asking the computer to summarize our dataset. Therefore, we run the command by clicking *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Descriptives*.



This brings up the Descriptives **dialog box**. Note that the left side of the box contains a list of all the variables in our data file. On the right is an area labeled *Variable(s)*, where we can specify the variables we would like to use in this particular analysis.



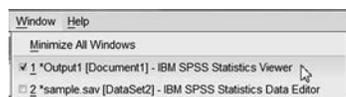
We want to compute the **mean** for the variable called GRADE. Thus, we need to select the variable name in the left window (by clicking on it). To transfer it to the right window, click on the right arrow between the two windows. The arrow always points to the window opposite the highlighted item and can be used to transfer selected variables in either direction. Note that double-clicking on the variable name will also transfer the variable to the opposite window. Standard Windows conventions of “Shift” clicking or “Ctrl” clicking to select multiple variables can be used as well. Note: Some configurations of SPSS show the variable names, and others show the variable labels (if any). This can be changed under *Edit* → *Options* → *General*.

When we click on the OK button, the analysis will be conducted, and we will be ready to examine our output.

Section 1.6 Examining and Printing Output Files

After an analysis is performed, the output is placed in the **output window**, and the **output window** becomes the active window. If this is the first analysis you have conducted since starting SPSS, then a new **output window** will be created. If you have run previous analyses and saved them, your output is added to the end of your previous output.

To switch back and forth between the **data window** and the **output window**, select the desired window from the *Window* menu bar. Alternately, you can select the window using the taskbar at the bottom of the screen.



The **output window** is split into two sections. The left section is an outline of the output (SPSS refers to this as the *outline view*). The right section is the output itself.

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
grade	2	83.00	85.00	84.0000	1.41421
Valid N (listwise)	2				

The section on the left of the **output window** provides an outline of the entire **output window**. All of the analyses are listed in the order in which they were conducted. Note that this outline can be used to quickly locate a section of the output. Simply click on the section you would like to see, and the right window will jump to the appropriate place.

Clicking on a statistical procedure also selects all of the output for that command. By pressing the *Delete* key, that output can be deleted from the **output window**. This is a quick way to be sure that the **output window** contains only the desired output. Output can also be selected and pasted into a word processor or spreadsheet by clicking *Edit*, then *Copy* to copy the output. You can then switch to your word processor and click *Edit*, then *Paste*.

To print your output, simply click *File*, then *Print*, or click on the printer icon on the toolbar. You will have the option of printing all of your output or just the currently selected section. Be careful when printing! Each time you run a command, the output is added to the end of your previous output. Thus, you could be printing a very large output file containing information you may not want or need.

One way to ensure that your **output window** contains only the results of the current command is to create a new **output window** just before running the command. To do this, click *File*, then *New*, then *Output*. All your subsequent commands will go into your new **output window**.

You can also save your output files as SPSS format files (.spv extension). Note that SPSS saves whatever window you have open. If you are on a **data window** you will save your data. If you are on an **output window** it will save your output.

Practice Exercise

Load the sample data file you created earlier (SAMPLE.sav). Run the *Descriptives* command for the variable GRADE, and print the output. Next, select the **data window** and print it.

Section 1.7 Modifying Data Files

Once you have created a data file, it is really quite simple to add additional cases (rows/participants) or additional variables (columns). Consider Example 1.7.1.

Example 1.7.1

Two more students provide you with surveys. Their information is as follows:

Response Sheet 3

ID:	<u>8734</u>			
Day of class:	<u> </u>	MWF	<u> X </u>	TTh
Class time:	<u> X </u>	Morning	<u> </u>	Afternoon
Are you a morning person?	<u> </u>	Yes	<u> X </u>	No
Final grade in class:	<u>80%</u>			
Do you work outside school?	<u> </u>	Full-time	<u> </u>	Part-time
	<u> X </u>	No		

Response Sheet 4

ID:	<u>1909</u>			
Day of class:	<u> X </u>	MWF	<u> </u>	TTh
Class time:	<u> X </u>	Morning	<u> </u>	Afternoon
Are you a morning person?	<u> X </u>	Yes	<u> </u>	No
Final grade in class:	<u>73%</u>			
Do you work outside school?	<u> </u>	Full-time	<u> X </u>	Part-time
	<u> </u>	No		

Adding data and variables are logical extensions of the procedures we used to originally create the data file. Save this new data file. We will be using it again later in this book.

Practice Exercise

Follow the previous example (where TRAINING is the new variable). Make the modifications to your SAMPLE.sav data file and save it.

Notes

1. Items that appear in the Glossary in Appendix E are presented in **bold**. *Italics* are used to indicate menu items.
2. Depending upon your version of SPSS, it may be displayed as 2.0E + 009.

Entering and Modifying Data

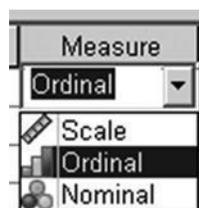
In Chapter 1, we learned how to create and save a simple data file, perform a basic analysis, and examine the output. In this section, we will go into more detail about variables and data.

Section 2.1 Variables and Data Representation

In SPSS, variables are represented as columns in the data file. Participants are represented as rows. Thus, if we collect four pieces of information from 100 participants, we will have a data file with four columns and 100 rows.

Measurement Scales

There are four types of measurement scales: **nominal**, **ordinal**, **interval**, and **ratio**. While the measurement scale will determine which statistical technique is appropriate for a given set of data, SPSS generally does not discriminate. Thus, we start this section with this warning: If you ask it to, SPSS may conduct an analysis that is not appropriate for your data. For a more complete description of these four measurement scales, consult your statistics text or the Glossary in Appendix E.

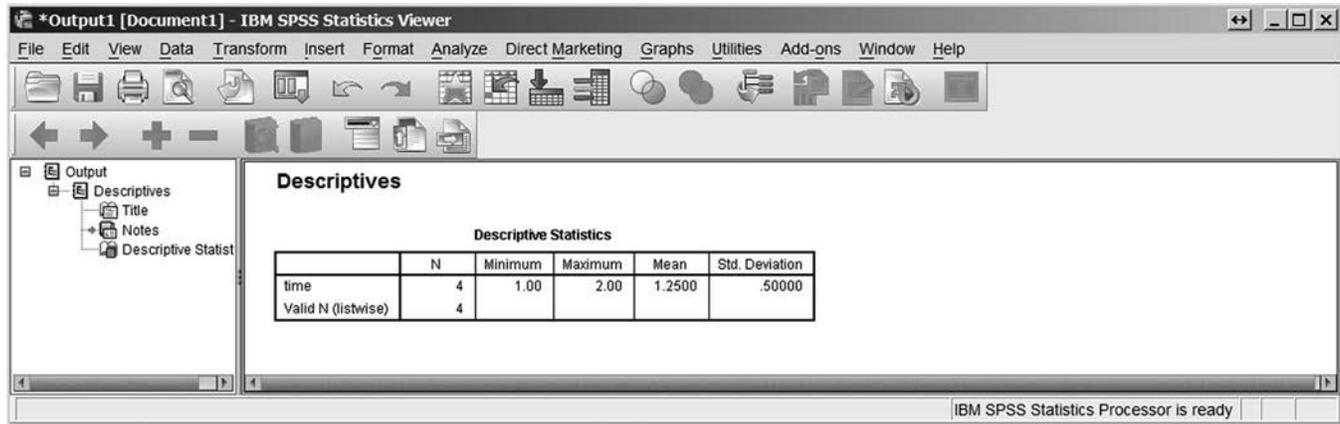


Newer versions of SPSS allow you to indicate which types of data you have when you define your variable. You do this using the *Measure* column. You can indicate *Scale*, *Ordinal*, or *Nominal* (SPSS does not distinguish between **interval** and **ratio** scales).

Look at the SAMPLE.sav data file we created in Chapter 1. We calculated a **mean** for the variable GRADE. GRADE was measured on a **ratio scale**, and the **mean** is an acceptable summary statistic (assuming that the distribution is **normal**).

We could have had SPSS calculate a **mean** for the variable TIME instead of GRADE. If we did, we would get the output presented below.

The output indicates that the average TIME was 1.25. Remember that TIME was coded as an ordinal variable (1 = morning class, 2 = afternoon class). Though the **mean** is not an appropriate



statistic for an **ordinal scale**, SPSS calculated it anyway. The importance of considering the type of data cannot be overemphasized. Just because SPSS will compute a statistic for you does not mean that you should use it. Later in the text, when specific statistical procedures are discussed, the conditions under which they are appropriate will be addressed. Please note that there are some procedures (e.g., graphs and nonparametric tests) where SPSS limits what you can do based on the measurement scale. However, more often than not, it is up to the user to make that decision.

Missing Data

Often, participants do not provide complete data. For example, for some students, you may have a pretest score but not a posttest score. Perhaps one student left one question blank on a survey, or perhaps she did not state her age. Missing data can weaken any analysis. Often, a single missing answer can eliminate a subject from all analyses.

q1	q2	total
2.00	2.00	4.00
3.00	1.00	4.00
4.00	3.00	7.00
2.00	.	.
1.00	2.00	3.00

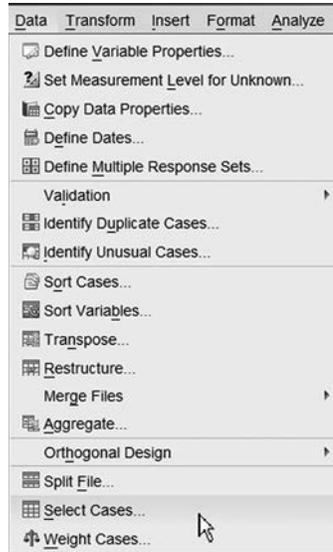
If you have missing data in your dataset, leave that cell blank. In the example shown above, the fourth subject did not complete Question 2 (q2). Note that the total score (which is calculated from both questions) is also blank because of the missing data for Question 2. SPSS represents missing data in the **data window** with a period (although you should not enter a period—just leave it blank). It is NOT a good practice to create a filler value (e.g., “999” or “0”) to represent blank scores, because SPSS will see it as a value with meaning, whereas it will treat truly blank values as missing.

Section 2.2 Selection and Transformation of Data

We often have more data in a data file than we want to include in a specific analysis. For instance, our sample data file contains data from four participants, two of whom received special training

and two of whom did not. If we wanted to conduct an analysis using only the two participants who did not receive the training, we would need to specify the appropriate subset.

Selecting a Subset



We can use the *Select Cases* command to specify a subset of our data. The *Select Cases* command is located under the *Data* menu. When you select this command, the **dialog box** below will appear. (Note the icons next to the variable names that indicate that all variables were defined as being measured on a **nominal scale** except grade, which was defined as scale.)



You can specify which cases (participants) you want to select by using the selection criteria, which appear on the right side of the *Select Cases* **dialog box**. By default, *All cases* will be selected. The most common way to select a subset is to click *If condition is satisfied*, then click on the button labeled *If*. This will bring up a new **dialog box** that allows you to indicate which cases you would like to use.

An additional variable will also be created in your data file. The new variable is called FILTER_\$ and indicates whether a case was selected or not.

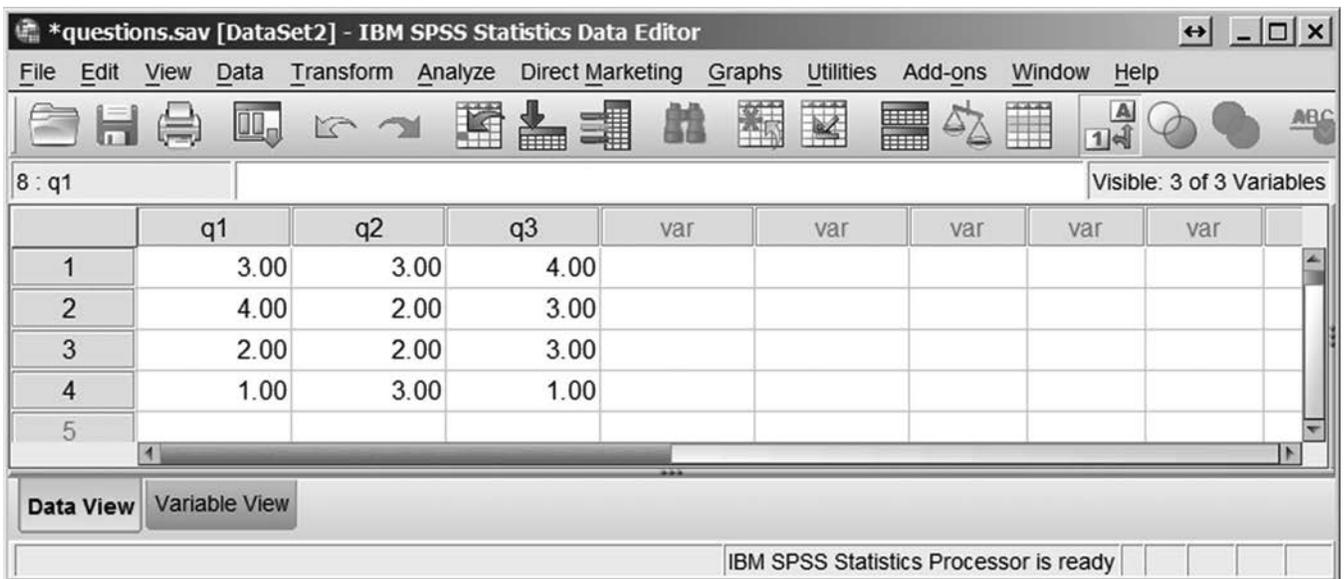
If we calculate a **mean** GRADE using the subset we just selected, we will receive the output here. Notice that we now have a **mean** of 78.00 with a sample size (N) of 2 instead of 4.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
grade	2	73.00	83.00	78.0000	7.07107
Valid N (listwise)	2				

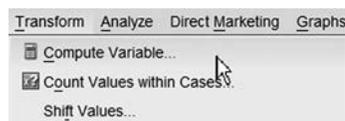
Be careful when you select subsets. *The subset remains in effect until you run the command again and select all cases.* You can tell if you have a subset selected because the bottom of the **data window** will indicate that a filter is on. In addition, when you examine your output, N will be less than the total number of records in your dataset if a subset is selected. The diagonal lines through some cases will also be evident when a subset is selected. Be careful not to save your data file with a subset selected, as this can cause considerable confusion later.

Computing a New Variable

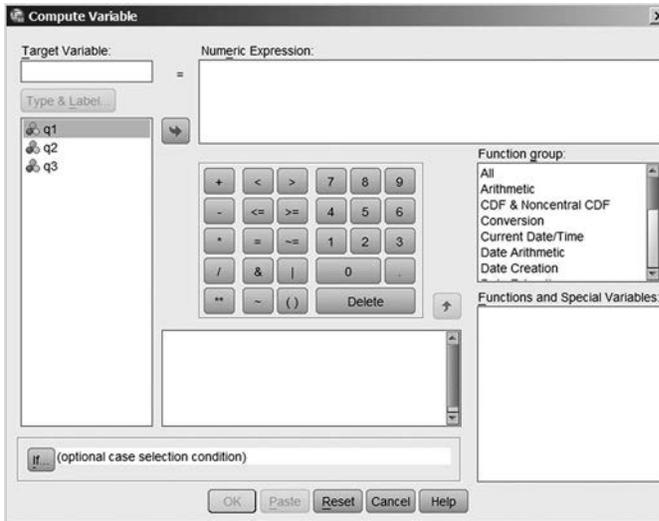
SPSS can also be used to compute a new variable or manipulate your existing variables. To illustrate this, we will create a new data file. This file will contain data for four participants and three variables



(Q1, Q2, and Q3). The variables represent the number of points each participant received on three different questions. Now enter the data shown on the screen above. When done, save this data file as "QUESTIONS.sav." We will be using it again in later chapters.

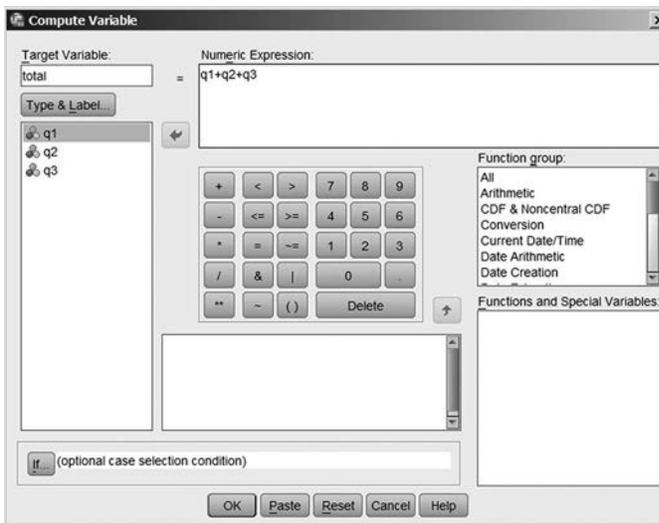


Now you will calculate the total score for each subject. We could do this manually, but if the data file were large, or if there were a lot of questions, this would take a long time. It is more efficient (and more accurate) to have SPSS compute the totals for you. To do this, click *Transform*, and then click *Compute Variable*.



After clicking the *Compute Variable* command, we get the **dialog box** shown above.

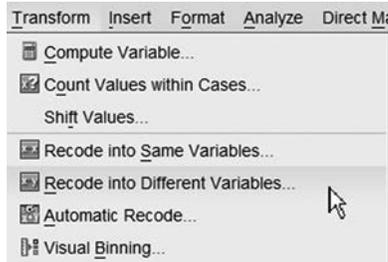
The blank field marked *Target Variable* is where we enter the name of the new variable we want to create. In this example, we are creating a variable called *TOTAL*, so type the word *total*.



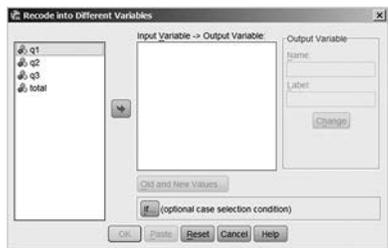
Notice that there is an equal sign between the *Target Variable* blank and the *Numeric Expression* blank. These two blank areas are the two sides of an equation that SPSS will calculate. For instance, $total = Q1 + Q2 + Q3$ is the equation that is entered in the sample presented here (screenshot shown above). Note that it is possible to create any equation here simply by using the number and operational keypad at the bottom of the **dialog box**. When we click *OK*, SPSS will create a new variable called *TOTAL* and make it equal to the sum of the three questions.

Save your data file again so that the new variable will be available for future sessions.

Recoding a Variable—Different Variable

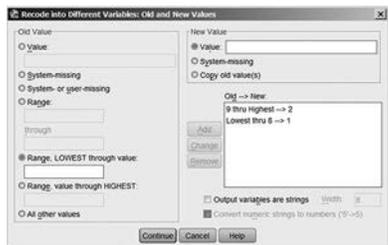
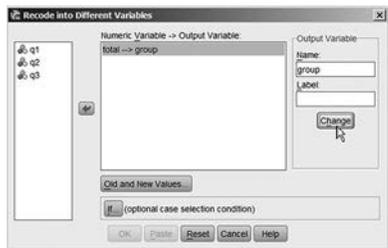


SPSS can create a new variable based upon data from another variable. Say we want to split our participants on the basis of their total score. We want to create a variable called GROUP, which is coded 1 if the total score is low (less than or equal to 8) or 2 if the total score is high (9 or larger). To do this, we click *Transform*, then *Recode into Different Variables*.



This will bring up the Recode into Different Variables **dialog box** shown above. Transfer the variable TOTAL to the middle blank. Type *group* in the *Name* field under *Output Variable*. Click *Change*, and the middle blank will show that TOTAL is becoming GROUP, as shown below.

Click *Old and New Values*. This will bring up the Recode **dialog box** below.



In the example shown here, we have entered a 9 in the *Range, value through HIGHEST* field, and a 2 in the *Value* field under *New Value*. When we click *Add*, the blank on the right displays the recoding formula. We next entered an 8 on the left in the *Range, LOWEST through value* blank, and a 1 in the *Value* field under *New Value*. Click *Add*, then *Continue*.

Click *OK*. You will be redirected to the **data window** shown below. A new variable (GROUP) will have been added and coded as 1 or 2, based on TOTAL.

*questions.sav [DataSet2] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor

File Edit View Data Transform Analyze Direct Marketing Graphs Utilities Add-ons Window Help

8 : q1 Visible: 5 of 5 Variables

	q1	q2	q3	total	group	var	var	var
1	3.00	3.00	4.00	10.00	2.00			
2	4.00	2.00	3.00	9.00	2.00			
3	2.00	2.00	3.00	7.00	1.00			
4	1.00	3.00	1.00	5.00	1.00			
5								

Data View Variable View

IBM SPSS Statistics Processor is ready

Descriptive Statistics

In Chapter 2, we discussed many of the options available in SPSS for dealing with data. Now we will discuss ways to summarize our data. The procedures used to describe and summarize data are called **descriptive statistics**.

Section 3.1 Frequency Distributions and Percentile Ranks for a Single Variable

Description

The *Frequencies* command produces frequency distributions for the specified variables. The output includes the number of occurrences, percentages, valid percentages, and cumulative percentages. The valid percentages and the cumulative percentages comprise only the data that are not designated as missing.

The *Frequencies* command is useful for describing samples where the **mean** is not useful (e.g., **nominal** or **ordinal** scales). It is also useful as a method of getting the feel for your data. It provides more information than just a **mean** and **standard deviation** and can be useful in determining **skew** and identifying **outliers**. A special feature of the command is its ability to determine **percentile ranks**.

Assumptions

Cumulative percentages and **percentiles** are valid only for data that are measured on at least an **ordinal scale**. Because the output contains one line for each value of a variable, this command works best on variables with a relatively small number of values.

Drawing Conclusions

The *Frequencies* command produces output that indicates both the number of cases in the sample of a particular value and the percentage of cases with that value. Thus, conclusions drawn should relate only to describing the numbers or percentages of cases in the sample. If the data are at least ordinal in nature, conclusions regarding the cumulative percentage and/or **percentiles** can be drawn.

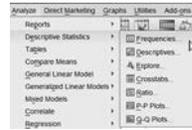
SPSS Data Format

The SPSS data file for obtaining frequency distributions requires only one variable, and that variable can be of any type.

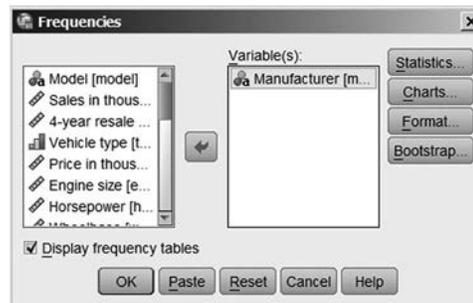
Creating a Frequency Distribution

This example uses the CAR_SALES.sav data file that comes with SPSS. If you are using SPSS Version 24, it will be located at

C:\Program Files\IBM\SPSS\Statistics\24\Samples\English\car_sales.sav



To run the *Frequencies* command, click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Frequencies*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** below. Transfer the variable for which you would like a frequency distribution into the *Variable(s)* blank shown to the right (MANUFACTURER in this case). Be sure that the *Display frequency tables* option is checked. Click *OK* to receive your output.



Note that the **dialog boxes** in SPSS show both the type of variable (the icon immediately to the left of the variable name) and the variable labels if they are entered. Thus, the variable MANUFACTURER shows up in the **dialog box** as *Manufacturer*.

Click *OK* to run the test.

Output for a Frequency Distribution

The output consists of two sections. The first section indicates the number of records with **valid data** for each variable selected. Records with a blank score are listed as missing. In this example, the data file contained 157 records.

The second section of the output contains a cumulative frequency distribution for each variable selected. At the top of the section, the variable label is given. The output itself consists of five columns. The first column lists the values of the variable sorted in alphabetical order. There is a row for each value of your variable, and additional rows are added at the bottom for the Total and Missing data. The second column gives the frequency of each value, including missing values. The third column gives the percentage of all records (including records with missing data) for each value. The fourth column, labeled *Valid Percent*, gives the percentage of records (without including records with missing data) for each value. If there were any missing values, these values would be larger than the values in column three because the total number of records would have been reduced by the number of records with missing values. The final column gives cumulative percentages. Cumulative percentages indicate the percentage of records with a score equal to or smaller than the current value. Thus, the last value is always 100%. These values are equivalent to **percentile ranks** for the values listed. Note: SPSS will provide cumulative percentages even for nominal variables and other variables where it does not make sense. For example, the variable MANUFACTURER is nominal.

		Manufacturer			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Acura	4	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Audi	3	1.9	1.9	4.5
	BMW	3	1.9	1.9	6.4
	Buick	4	2.5	2.5	8.9
	Cadillac	5	3.2	3.2	12.1
	Chevrolet	9	5.7	5.7	17.8
	Chrysler	7	4.5	4.5	22.3
	Dodge	11	7.0	7.0	29.3
	Ford	11	7.0	7.0	36.3
	Honda	5	3.2	3.2	39.5
	Hyundai	3	1.9	1.9	41.4
	Infiniti	1	.6	.6	42.0
	Jaguar	1	.6	.6	42.7
	Jeep	3	1.9	1.9	44.6
	Lexus	6	3.8	3.8	48.4
	Lincoln	3	1.9	1.9	50.3
	Mercedes-Benz	9	5.7	5.7	56.1
	Mercury	6	3.8	3.8	59.9
	Mitsubishi	7	4.5	4.5	64.3
	Nissan	7	4.5	4.5	68.8
	Oldsmobile	6	3.8	3.8	72.6
	Plymouth	4	2.5	2.5	75.2
	Pontiac	6	3.8	3.8	79.0
	Porsche	3	1.9	1.9	80.9
	Saab	2	1.3	1.3	82.2
	Saturn	5	3.2	3.2	85.4
	Subaru	2	1.3	1.3	86.6
	Toyota	9	5.7	5.7	92.4
	Volkswagen	6	3.8	3.8	96.2
	Volvo	6	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	157	100.0	100.0	

Statistics

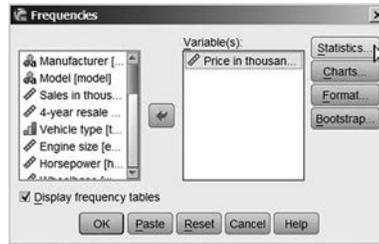
Manufacturer

N	Valid	157
	Missing	0

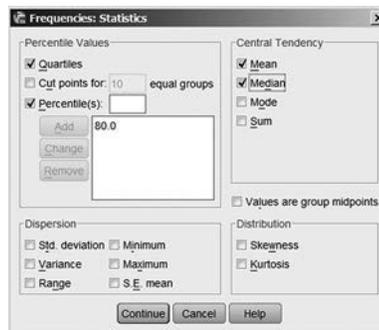
Determining Percentile Ranks

The *Frequencies* command can be used to provide a number of **descriptive statistics**, as well as a variety of percentile values (including **quartiles**, cut points, and scores corresponding to a specific **percentile rank**). Let us look at statistics for the variable PRICE.

To obtain either the descriptive or percentile functions of the *Frequencies* command, click the *Statistics* button at the top right of the main **dialog box**. This brings up the Frequencies:



Statistics **dialog box** below. Note that the *Central Tendency* and *Dispersion* sections of this box are useful for calculating values, such as the **median** or **mode**, that cannot be calculated with the *Descriptives* command (see Section 3.3). Check any additional desired statistic by clicking on the blank next to it. (In our example here, let us determine the **quartiles**, 80th **percentile**, **mean**, and **median**.)



For **percentiles**, enter the desired **percentile rank** in the blank to the right of the *Percentile(s)* label. Then, click *Add* to add it to the list of **percentiles** requested. Once you have selected all your required statistics, click *Continue* to return to the main **dialog box**. Click *OK*.

Output for Percentile Ranks

Statistics		
Price in thousands		
N	Valid	155
	Missing	2
Mean		27.39075
Median		22.79900
Percentiles	25	17.89000
	50	22.79900
	75	31.96500
	80	36.21020

The Statistics **dialog box** adds on to the first section of output from the *Frequencies* command. The output contains a row for each piece of information you requested. In the previous example, we checked *Quartiles* and asked for the 80th **percentile**. Thus, the output contains rows for the 25th, 50th, 75th, and 80th **percentiles**.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, create a frequency distribution table for the mathematics skills scores. Determine the mathematics skills score at which the 60th percentile lies.

Section 3.2 Frequency Distributions and Percentile Ranks for Multiple Variables

Description

The *Crosstabs* command produces frequency distributions for multiple variables. The output includes the number of occurrences of each combination of **levels** of each variable. It is possible to have the command give percentages for any or all variables.

The *Crosstabs* command is useful for describing samples where the **mean** is not useful (e.g., **nominal** or **ordinal scales**). It is also useful as a method for getting a feel for your data.

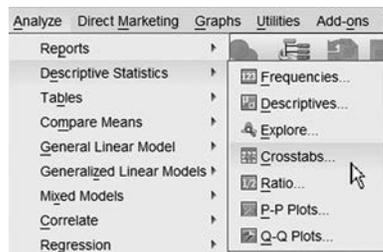
Assumptions

Because the output contains a row or column for each value of a variable, this command works best on variables with a relatively small number of values.

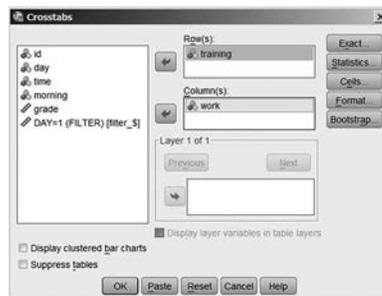
SPSS Data Format

The SPSS data file for the *Crosstabs* command requires two or more variables. Those variables can be of any type.

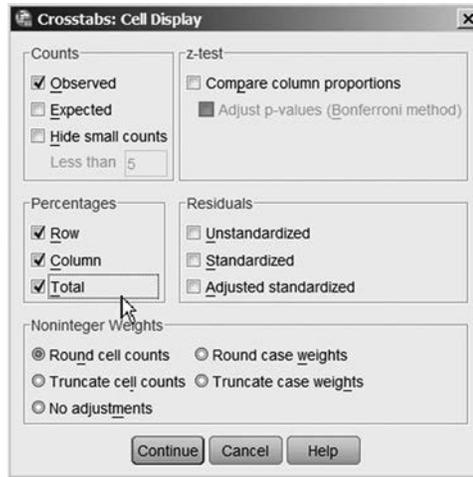
Running the Command



This example uses the SAMPLE.sav data file, which you created in Chapter 1. To run the procedure, click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Crosstabs*. This will bring up the main Crosstabs **dialog box**, which is shown below.



The **dialog box** initially lists all variables on the left and contains two blank boxes labeled *Row(s)* and *Column(s)*. Enter one variable (TRAINING) in the *Row(s)* box. Enter the second (WORK) in the *Column(s)* box. To analyze more than two variables, you would enter the third, fourth, and so on, in the unlabeled area (just under the *Layer* indicator).



The *Cells* button allows you to specify percentages and other information to be generated for each combination of values. Click *Cells*, and you will get the box shown above, with *Observed* and *Round cell counts* selected by default.

For the example presented here, check *Row*, *Column*, and *Total* percentages. Then click *Continue*. This will return you to the Crosstabs **dialog box**. Click *OK* to run the analysis.

Interpreting Crosstabs Output

The output consists of a contingency table. Each level of WORK is given a column. Each level of TRAINING is given a row. In addition, a row is added for total, and a column is added for total.

training * work Crosstabulation

			work		Total
			No	Part-Time	
training	No	Count	1	1	2
		% within training	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within work	50.0%	50.0%	50.0%
		% of Total	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%
	Yes	Count	1	1	2
		% within training	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within work	50.0%	50.0%	50.0%
		% of Total	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%
Total		Count	2	2	4
		% within training	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within work	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Each cell contains the number of participants (for example, one participant received no training and does not work; two participants received no training, regardless of employment status).

The percentages for each cell are also shown. Row percentages add up to 100% horizontally. Column percentages add up to 100% vertically. For instance, of all the individuals who had

no training, 50% did not work and 50% worked part-time (using the “% within TRAINING” row). Of the individuals who did not work, 50% had no training and 50% had training (using the “% within WORK” row).

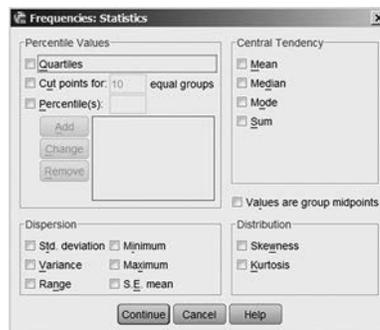
Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, create a contingency table using the *Crosstabs* command. Determine the number of participants in each combination of the variables SEX and MARITAL. What percentage of participants are married? What percentage of participants are male and married?

Section 3.3 Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion for a Single Group

Description

Measures of central tendency are values that represent a typical member of the sample or population. The three primary types of measures are the **mean**, **median**, and **mode**. Measures of dispersion tell you the variability of your scores. The primary types are the **range** and the **standard deviation**. Together, a measure of central tendency and a measure of dispersion provide a great deal of information about the entire dataset.



We will discuss these measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion in the context of the *Descriptives* command. Note that many of these statistics can also be calculated with several other commands (e.g., the *Frequencies* or *Compare Means* commands are required to compute the **mode** or **median**—the *Statistics* option for the *Frequencies* command is shown above).

Assumptions

Each measure of central tendency and measure of dispersion has different assumptions associated with it. The **mean** is the most powerful measure of central tendency, and it has the most assumptions. For instance, to calculate a **mean**, the data must be measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. In addition, the distribution should be normally distributed or, at least, not highly skewed. The **median** requires at least **ordinal** data. Because the **median** indicates only the middle score (when scores are arranged in order), there are no assumptions about the shape of the distribution. The **mode** is the weakest measure of central tendency. There are no assumptions for the **mode**.

The **standard deviation** is the most powerful measure of dispersion, but it, too, has several requirements. It is a mathematical transformation of the **variance** (the **standard deviation** is the square root of the **variance**). Thus, if one is appropriate, the other is also appropriate. The **standard deviation** requires data measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. In addition, the distribution should be normal. The **range** is the weakest measure of dispersion. To calculate a **range**, the variable must be at least **ordinal**. For **nominal scale** data, the entire frequency distribution should be presented as a measure of dispersion.

Drawing Conclusions

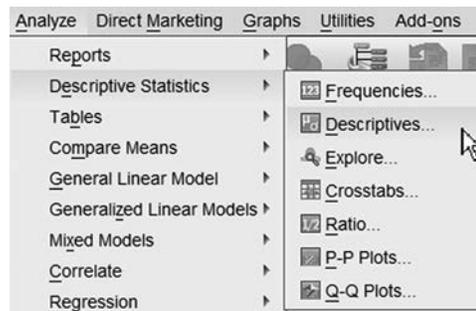
A measure of central tendency should be accompanied by a measure of dispersion. Thus, when reporting a **mean**, you should also report a **standard deviation**. When presenting a **median**, you should also state the **range** or interquartile **range**. The interquartile **range** can be determined using the *Frequencies* command.

SPSS Data Format

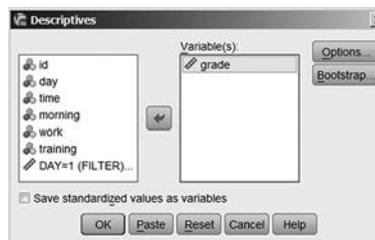
Only one variable is required.

Running the Command

The *Descriptives* command is the command you will most likely use for obtaining measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion. This example uses the *SAMPLE.sav* data file we used in the previous chapters.

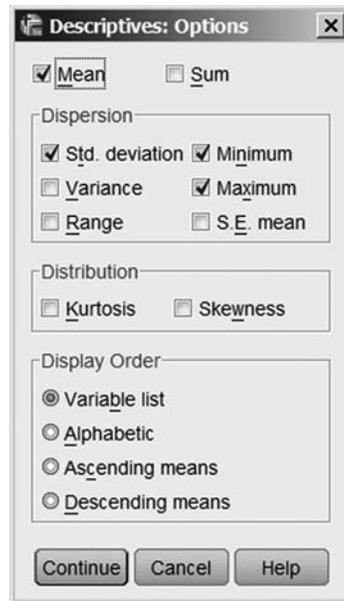


To run the command, click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Descriptives*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** for the *Descriptives* command. Any variables you would like information about can be placed in the right blank by double-clicking them or by selecting them and then clicking on the arrow. Move the variable *GRADE* to the right for this example.



By default, you will receive the *N* (number of cases/participants), the minimum value, the maximum value, the **mean**, and the **standard deviation**. Note that some of these may not be appropriate for the types of data you have selected.

If you would like to change the default statistics that are given, click *Options* in the main **dialog box**. You will be given the **Options dialog box** shown below. Click *Continue* or *Cancel* to close the *Options* box. Then click *OK*.



Reading the Output

The output for the *Descriptives* command is quite straightforward. Each type of output requested is presented in a column, and each variable is given in a row. The output presented below is for the sample data file. It shows that we have one variable (GRADE) and that we obtained the *N*, minimum, maximum, **mean**, and **standard deviation** for this variable.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
grade	4	73.00	85.00	80.2500	5.25198
Valid N (listwise)	4				

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, obtain the **descriptive statistics** for the age of the participants. What is the **mean**? The **median**? The **mode**? What is the **standard deviation**? Minimum? Maximum? The **range**? (Refer to Section 3.1 for assistance with **median** and **mode**.)

Section 3.4 Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion for Multiple Groups

Description

The measures of central tendency discussed earlier are often needed not only for the entire dataset, but also for several subsets. One way to obtain these values for subsets is to use the data-selection techniques discussed in Chapter 2 and apply the *Descriptives* command to each subset. An easier way to perform this task is to use the *Means* command. The *Means* command is designed to provide **descriptive statistics** for subsets of your data.

Assumptions

The assumptions discussed in the section titled “Measures of Central Tendency and Measures of Dispersion for a Single Group” (Section 3.3) also apply to multiple groups.

Drawing Conclusions

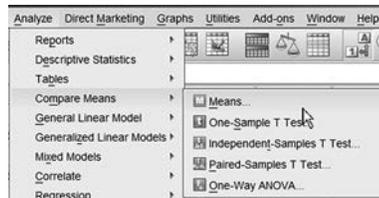
A measure of central tendency should be accompanied by a measure of dispersion. Thus, when giving a **mean**, you should also report a **standard deviation**. When presenting a **median**, you should also state the **range** or interquartile **range**.

SPSS Data Format

Two variables in the SPSS data file are required. One represents the **dependent variable** and will be the variable for which you receive the **descriptive statistics**. The other is the **independent variable** and will be used in creating the subsets. Note that while SPSS calls this variable an **independent variable**, it may not meet the strict criteria that define a true **independent variable** (e.g., treatment manipulation). Thus, some SPSS procedures refer to it as the **grouping variable**.

Running the Command

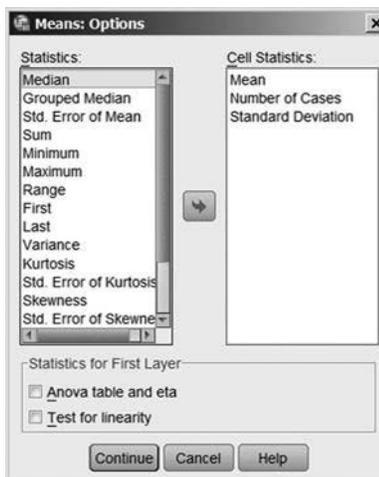
This example uses the SAMPLE.sav data file you created in Chapter 1. The *Means* command is run by clicking *Analyze*, then *Compare Means*, then *Means*.



This will bring up the main **dialog box** for the *Means* command. Place the selected variable in the blank field labeled *Dependent List*. Place the **grouping variable** in the box labeled *Independent List*. In this example, through use of the SAMPLE.sav data file, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion for the variable GRADE will be given for each level of the variable MORNING.



By default, the **mean**, number of cases, and **standard deviation** are given. If you would like additional measures, click *Options* and you will be presented with the **dialog box** shown here. You can opt to include any number of measures.



Reading the Output

The output for the *Means* command is split into two sections. The first section, called a **case processing summary**, gives information about the data used. In our sample data file, there are four students (cases), all of whom were included in the analysis.

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
grade * morning	4	100.0%	0	.0%	4	100.0%

The second section of the output is the report from the *Means* command.

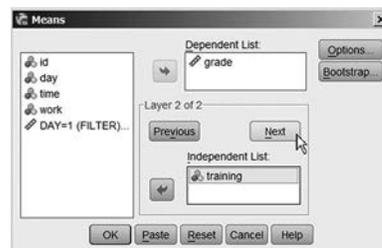
GRADE			
MORNING	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No	82.5000	2	3.53553
Yes	78.0000	2	7.07107
Total	80.2500	4	5.25198

This report lists the name of the **dependent variable** (GRADE) at the top. Every **level** of the **independent variable** (MORNING) is shown in a row in the table. In this example, the **levels** are 0 and 1, labeled No and Yes. Note that if a variable is labeled, the labels will be used instead of the raw values.

The summary statistics given in the report correspond to the data, where the **level** of the **independent variable** is equal to the row heading (e.g., No, Yes). Thus, two participants were included in each row. Morning people had a **mean** GRADE of 78.0 and non-morning people had a **mean** GRADE of 82.5.

An additional row has been added, named Total. That row contains the combined data, and the values are the same as they would be if we had run the *Descriptives* command for the variable GRADE.

Extension to More Than One Independent Variable



If you have more than one **independent variable**, SPSS can break down the output even further. Rather than adding more variables to the *Independent List* section of the **dialog box**, you need to add them in a different layer. If you click *Next*, you will be presented with *Layer 2 of 2*, and you can select a second **independent variable** (e.g., TRAINING). Note that SPSS indicates with which layer you are working. Now, when you run the command (by clicking *OK*), you will be given summary statistics for the variable GRADE by each level of MORNING and TRAINING.

Your output will look like the output shown below. You now have two main sections (No and Yes), along with the Total. Now, however, each main section is broken down into subsections (No, Yes, and Total).

Report

GRADE		Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No	Yes	85.0000	1	.
	No	80.0000	1	.
	Total	82.5000	2	3.53553
Yes	Yes	83.0000	1	.
	No	73.0000	1	.
	Total	78.0000	2	7.07107
Total	Yes	84.0000	2	1.41421
	No	76.5000	2	4.94975
	Total	80.2500	4	5.25198

The variable you used in Level 1 (MORNING) is the first one listed, and it defines the main sections. The variable you had in Level 2 (TRAINING) is listed second. Thus, the first row represents those participants who were not morning people and who received training. The second row represents participants who were not morning people and did not receive training. The third row represents the total for all participants who were not morning people.

Notice that **standard deviations** are not given for all of the rows. This is because there is only one participant per cell in this example. One problem with using many subsets is that it increases the number of participants that are required to obtain meaningful results. See a research design text or your instructor for more details.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, compute the **mean** and **standard deviation** of ages for each value of marital status. What is the average age of the married participants? The single participants? The divorced participants?

Section 3.5 Standard Scores

Description

Standard scores allow the comparison of different scales by transforming the scores into a common scale. The most common standard score is the z -score. A z -score is based on a **standard normal distribution** (i.e., a **mean** of 0 and a **standard deviation** of 1). A z -score, therefore, represents the number of **standard deviations** above or below the **mean** (e.g., a z -score of -1.5 represents a score $1\frac{1}{2}$ **standard deviations** below the **mean** a given score is).

Assumptions

The **standard normal distribution** is the basis for z -scores as normally used. Therefore, the distributions that are converted to z -scores should be normally distributed, and the scales should be either **interval** or **ratio**.

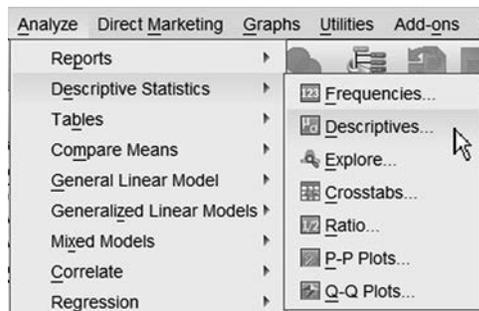
Drawing Conclusions

Conclusions based on z -scores consist of the number of **standard deviations** above or below the **mean** a score is. For instance, a student scores 85 on a mathematics exam in a class that has a **mean** of 70 and **standard deviation** of 5. The student's test score is 15 points above the class **mean** ($85 - 70 = 15$). The student's z -score is 3 because she scored 3 **standard deviations** above the **mean** ($15 \div 5 = 3$). If the same student scores 90 on a reading exam, with a class **mean** of 80 and a **standard deviation** of 10, the z -score will be 1.0 because she is one **standard deviation** above the **mean**. Thus, even though her raw score was higher on the reading test, she actually did better in relation to other students on the mathematics test because her z -score was higher on that test.

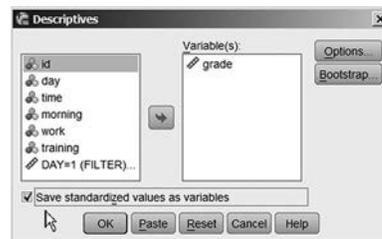
SPSS Data Format

Calculating z -scores requires only a single variable in SPSS. That variable must be numerical.

Running the Command



This example uses the sample data file (SAMPLE.sav) created in Chapters 1 and 2. Computing z -scores is a component of the *Descriptives* command. To access it, click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Descriptives*.



This will bring up the standard **dialog box** for the *Descriptives* command. Notice the checkbox in the bottom-left corner labeled *Save standardized values as variables*. Check this box and move the variable GRADE into the right-hand blank. Then, click *OK* to complete the analysis. You will be presented with the standard output from the *Descriptives* command. Notice that the z -scores are not listed. They were inserted into the **data window** as a new variable.

Switch to the *Data View* window and examine your data file. Notice that a new variable, called ZGRADE, has been added. When you asked SPSS to save standardized values, it created a new variable with the same name as your old variable preceded by a Z. The z -score is computed for each case and placed in the new variable.

The screenshot shows the IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor window. The menu bar includes File, Edit, View, Data, Transform, Analyze, Direct Marketing, Graphs, Utilities, Add-ons, Window, and Help. The toolbar contains various icons for file operations and analysis. The data grid shows 9 variables: id, day, time, morning, grade, work, training, filter_\$, Zgrade, and var. The 'Zgrade' column contains z-scores for each employee.

	id	day	time	morning	grade	work	training	filter_\$	Zgrade	var
1	4593	Tues/Thurs	Afternoon	No	85.00	No	Yes	Not Selected	.90442	
2	1901	Mon/Wed/...	Morning	Yes	83.00	Part-Time	Yes	Selected	.52361	
3	8734	Tues/Thurs	Morning	No	80.00	No	No	Not Selected	-.04760	
4	1909	Mon/Wed/...	Morning	Yes	73.00	Part-Time	No	Selected	-1.38043	
5										
6										
7										

The status bar at the bottom indicates "IBM SPSS Statistics Processor is ready".

Reading the Output

After you conducted your analysis, the new variable was created. You can perform any number of subsequent analyses on the new variable.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B, determine the z -score that corresponds to each employee's salary. Determine the **mean** z -scores for salaries of male employees and female employees. Determine the **mean** z -score for salaries of the total sample.

Graphing Data

Section 4.1 Graphing Basics

In addition to the frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, and measures of dispersion discussed in Chapter 3, graphing is a useful way to summarize, organize, and reduce your data. It has been said that a picture is worth a thousand words. In the case of complicated datasets, this is certainly true.

With SPSS, it is possible to make publication-quality graphs. One important advantage of using SPSS to create your graphs instead of using other software (e.g., Excel or SigmaPlot) is that the data have already been entered. Thus, duplication is eliminated, and the chance of making a transcription error is reduced.

Section 4.2 Bar Charts, Pie Charts, and Histograms

Description

Bar charts, pie charts, and histograms represent—through the varying heights of bars or sizes of pie pieces—the number of times each score occurs. They are graphical representations of the frequency distributions discussed in Chapter 3.

Drawing Conclusions

The *Frequencies* command produces output that indicates both the number of cases in the sample with a particular value and the percentage of cases with that value. Thus, conclusions drawn should relate only to describing the numbers or percentages for the sample. If the data are at least **ordinal** in nature, conclusions regarding the cumulative percentages and/or **percentiles** can also be drawn.

SPSS Data Format

You need only one variable to use this command.

Dataset

For the graphing examples, we will use a new set of data. Enter the data that follow by defining the three subject variables in the *Variable View* window: HEIGHT (in inches), WEIGHT (in pounds), and SEX (1 = male, 2 = female). When you create the variables, designate HEIGHT and WEIGHT as *Scale* measures and SEX as a *Nominal* measure (in the far-right column of the *Variable View*). Switch to the *Data View* to enter the data values for the 16 participants. Now use the *Save As* command to save the file, naming it HEIGHT.sav.

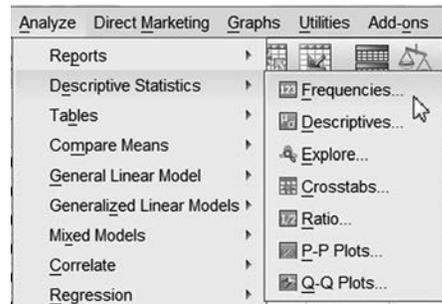
HEIGHT	WEIGHT	SEX
66	150	1
69	155	1
73	160	1
72	160	1
68	150	1
63	140	1
74	165	1
70	150	1
66	110	2
64	100	2
60	95	2
67	110	2
64	105	2
63	100	2
67	110	2
65	105	2

Make sure you have entered the data correctly by calculating a **mean** for each of the three variables (click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Descriptives*). Compare your results with those in the table below.

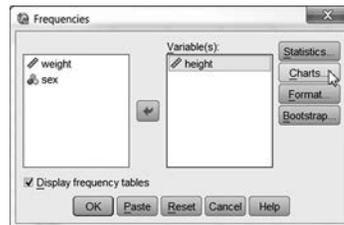
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
HEIGHT	16	60.00	74.00	66.9375	3.9067
WEIGHT	16	95.00	165.00	129.0625	26.3451
SEX	16	1.00	2.00	1.5000	.5164
Valid N (listwise)	16				

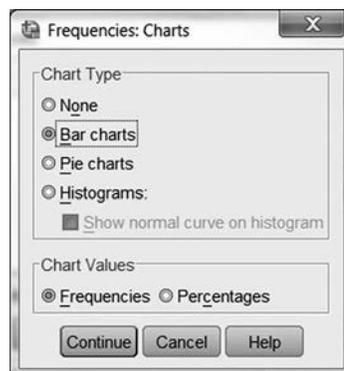
Running the Command



The *Frequencies* command will produce graphical frequency distributions. Click *Analyze*, then *Descriptive Statistics*, then *Frequencies*. You will be presented with the main **dialog box** for the *Frequencies* command, where you can enter the variables for which you would like to create graphs or charts (HEIGHT in this example). See Chapter 3 for other options with this command.



Click the *Charts* button on the right side of the frequencies command to bring up the **Charts dialog box**.

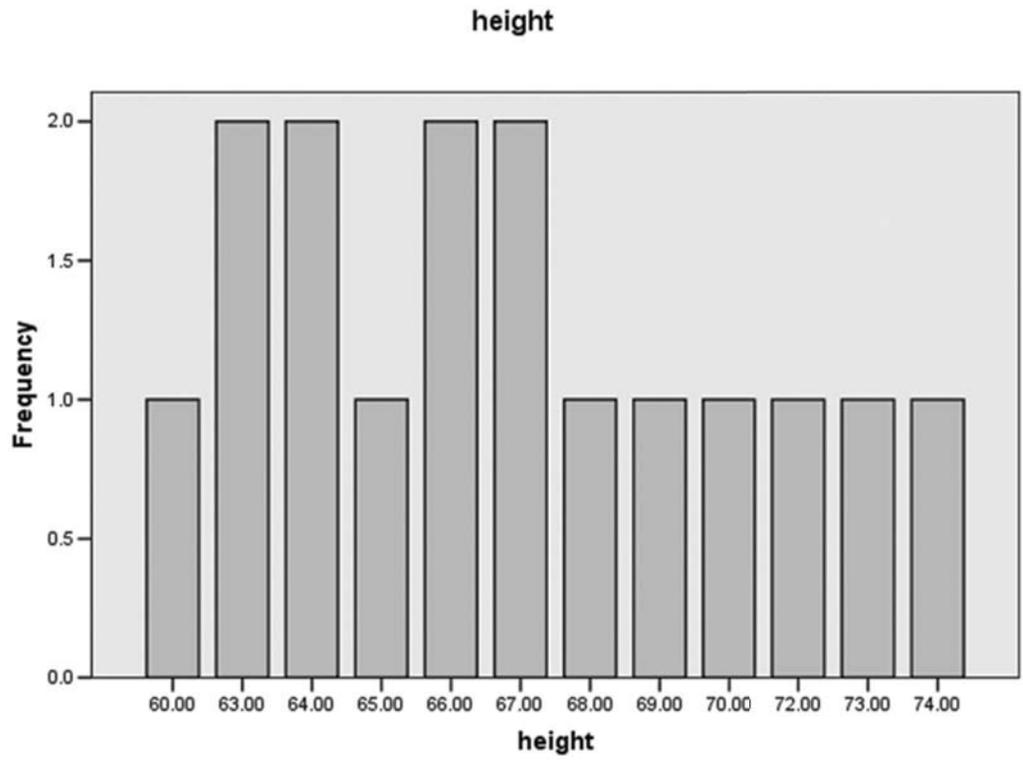


There are three types of charts available with this command: *Bar charts*, *Pie charts*, and *Histograms*. For each type, the Y-axis can be either a frequency count or a percentage (selected with the *Chart Values* option). Select *Bar charts* and click *Continue*. Next, click *OK*.

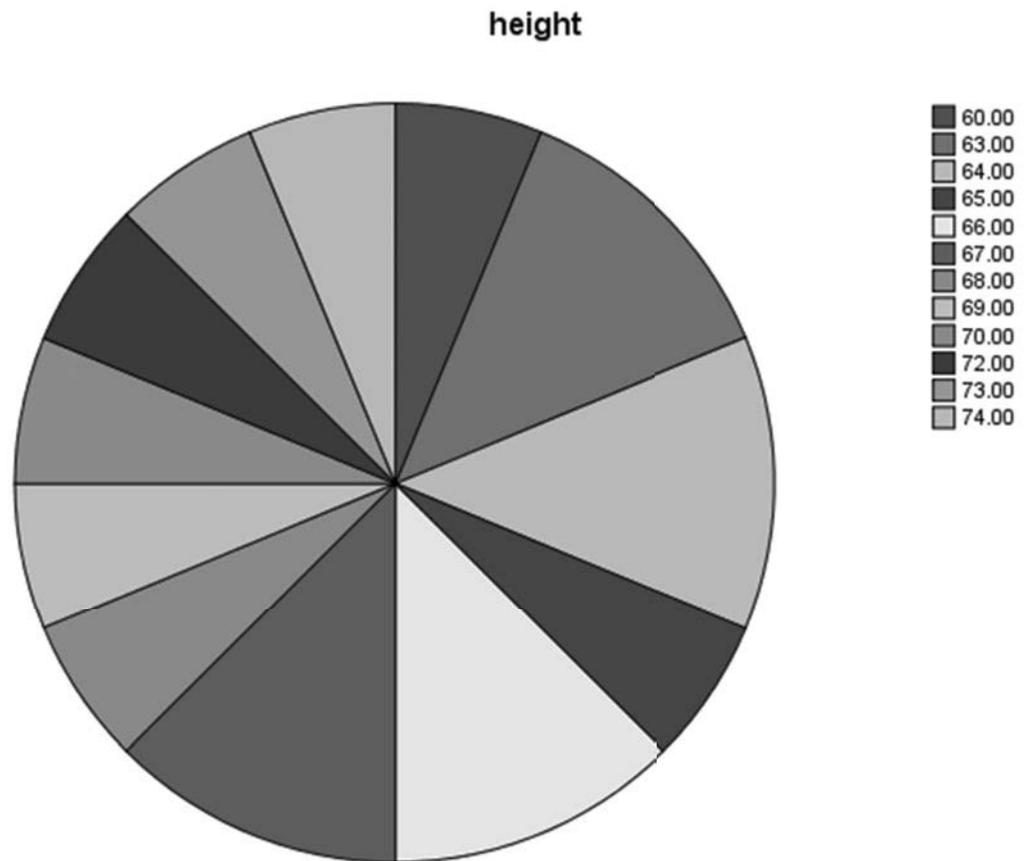
You will receive the charts for any variables selected in the main *Frequencies* command **dialog box**.

Output

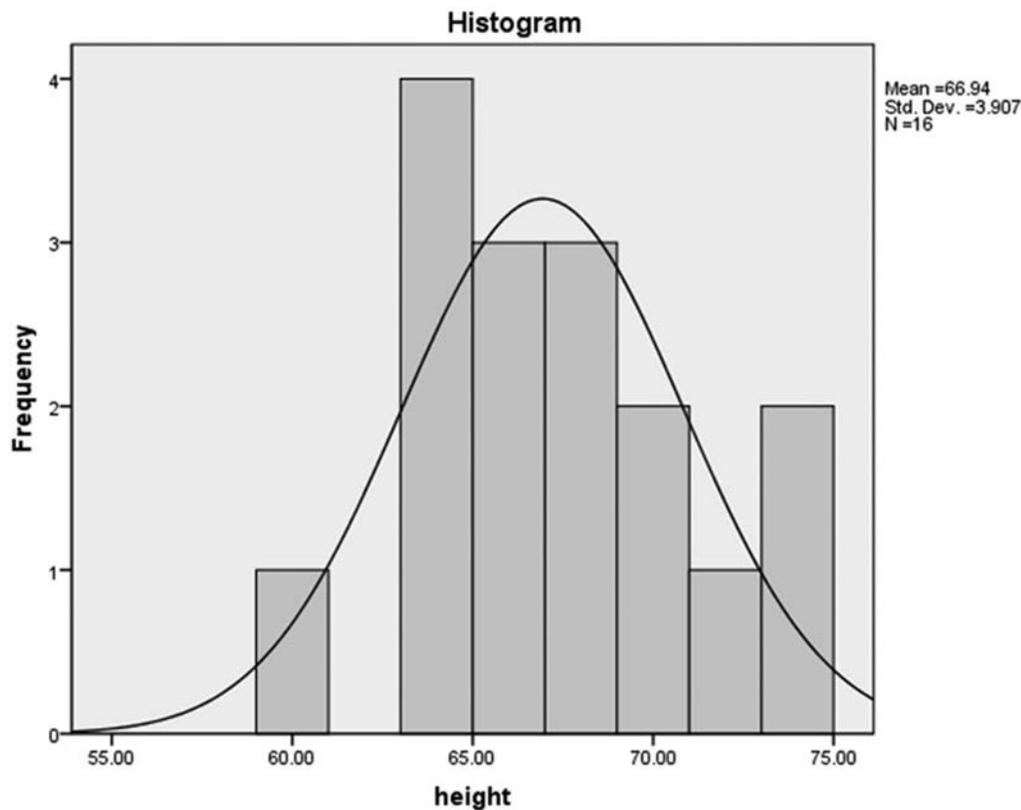
The bar chart consists of a Y-axis, representing the frequency, and an X-axis, representing each score. Note that the only values represented on the X-axis are those values with nonzero frequencies (61, 62, and 71 are not represented).



If selected for output, the pie chart shows the percentage of the whole that is represented by each value.



The *Histogram* command creates a grouped frequency distribution. The **range** of scores is split into evenly spaced groups. The midpoint of each group is plotted on the X-axis, and the Y-axis represents the number of scores for each group.



If you select *Show normal curve on histogram*, a normal curve will be superimposed over the distribution. This is very useful in determining if the distribution you have is approximately normal.

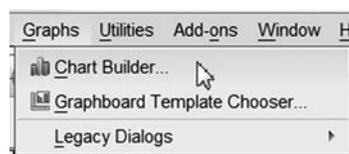
Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B. After you have entered the data, first construct a histogram that represents the mathematics skills scores and displays a normal curve, and then construct a bar chart that represents the frequencies for the variable AGE.

Section 4.3 The SPSS Chart Builder

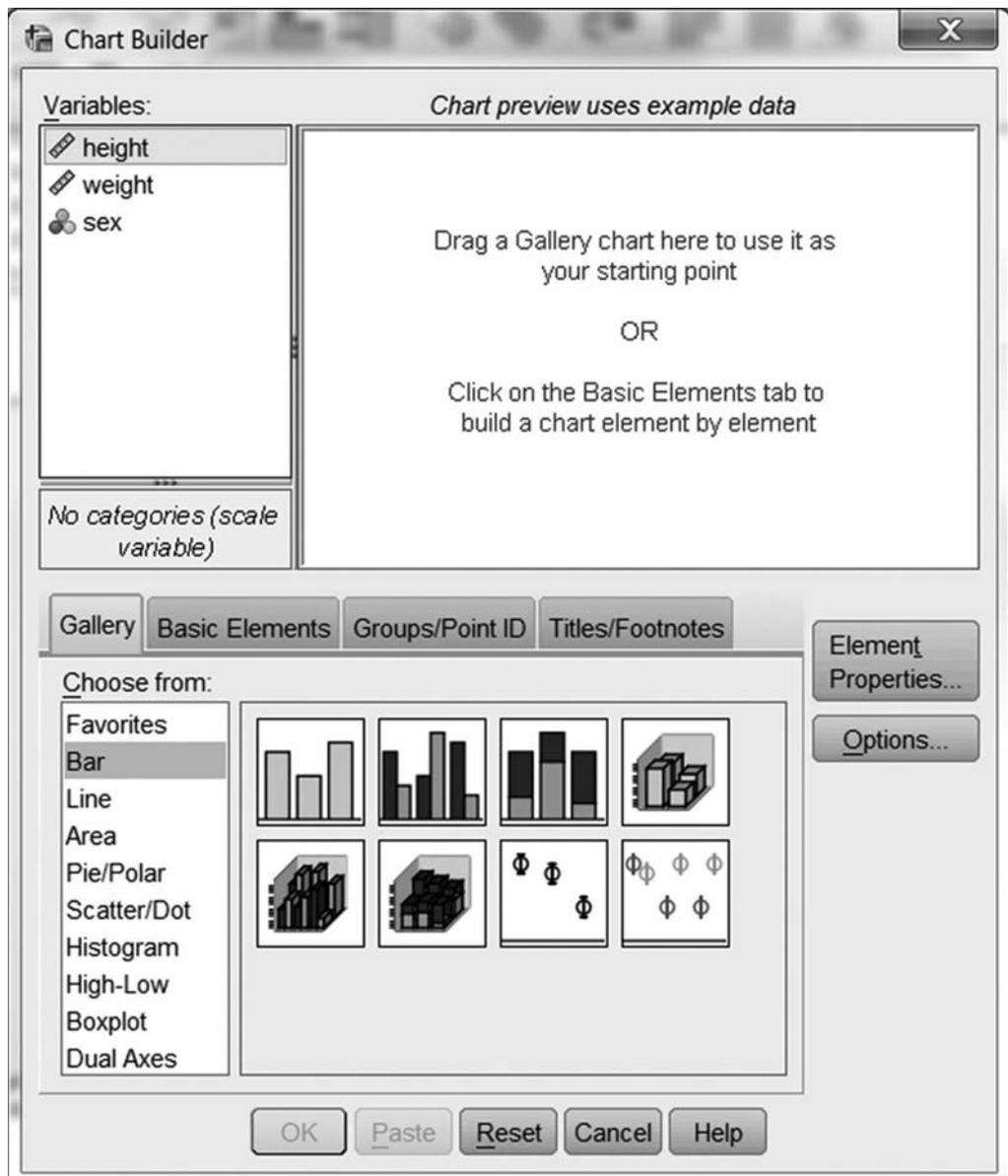
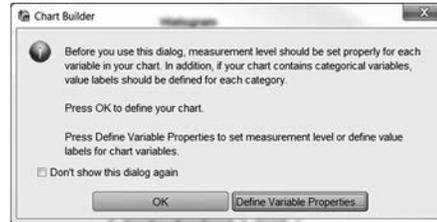
Chart Builder Basics

Make sure that the HEIGHT.sav data file you created in Section 4.2 is open. In order to use the chart builder, you must have a data file open.



The *Chart Builder* command is accessed using *Graphs*, then *Chart Builder* in the submenu. This is a very versatile command that can make a variety of graphs of excellent quality.

When you first run the *Chart Builder* command, you will probably be presented with the following **dialog box**:



This **dialog box** is asking you to ensure that your variables are properly defined. Refer to Sections 1.3 and 2.1 if you had difficulty defining the variables used in creating the dataset for this example, or to refresh your knowledge of this topic. Click *OK*.

The Chart Builder allows you to make any kind of graph that is normally used in publication or presentation, and much of it is beyond the scope of this text. However, this text will go over the basics of the Chart Builder so that you can understand its mechanics.

Near the middle of the **dialog box**, there are four main tabs that let you control the graphs you are making. The first one is the *Gallery* tab. The *Gallery* tab allows you to choose the basic format of your graph.

For instance, the screenshot above shows the different kinds of bar charts that the Chart Builder can create.

After you have selected the basic form of graph that you want using the *Gallery* tab, you simply drag the image from the bottom right of the window up to the main window at the top (where it reads, “Drag a Gallery chart here to use it as your starting point”).

Alternatively, you can use the *Basic Elements* tab to drag a coordinate system (labeled *Choose Axes*) to the top window, then drag variables and elements into the window.

The other tabs (*Groups/Point ID* and *Titles/Footnotes*) can be used for adding other standard elements to your graphs.

The examples in this text will cover some of the basic types of graphs you can make with the Chart Builder. After a little experimentation on your own, and once you have mastered the examples in this chapter, you will soon gain a full understanding of the Chart Builder.

Section 4.4 Scatterplots

Description

Scatterplots (also called scattergrams or scatter diagrams) display two values for each case with a mark on the graph. The *X*-axis represents the value for one variable. The *Y*-axis represents the value for the second variable.

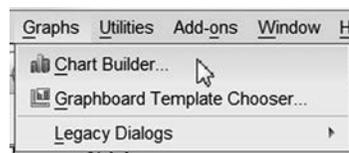
Assumptions

Both variables should be **interval** or **ratio scales**. If **nominal** or **ordinal** data are used, be cautious about your interpretation of the scattergram.

SPSS Data Format

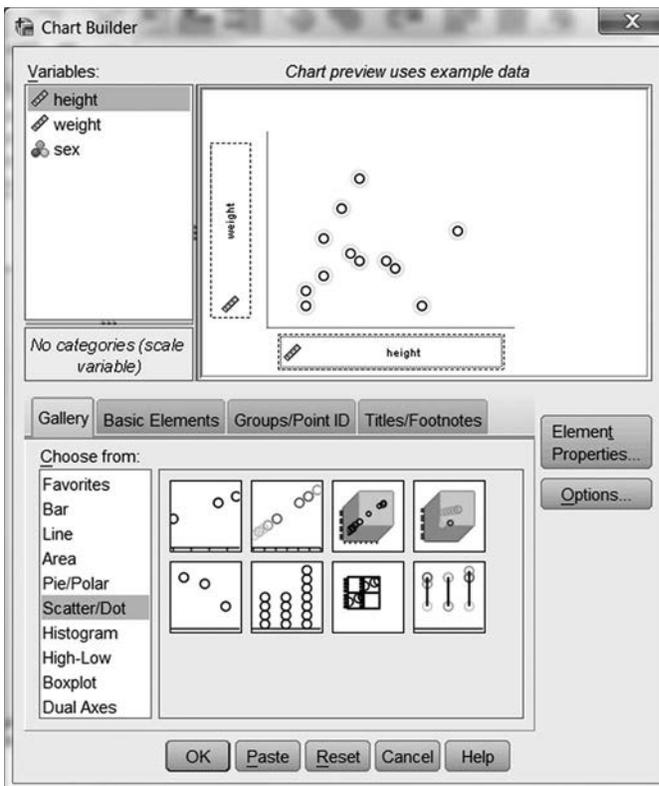
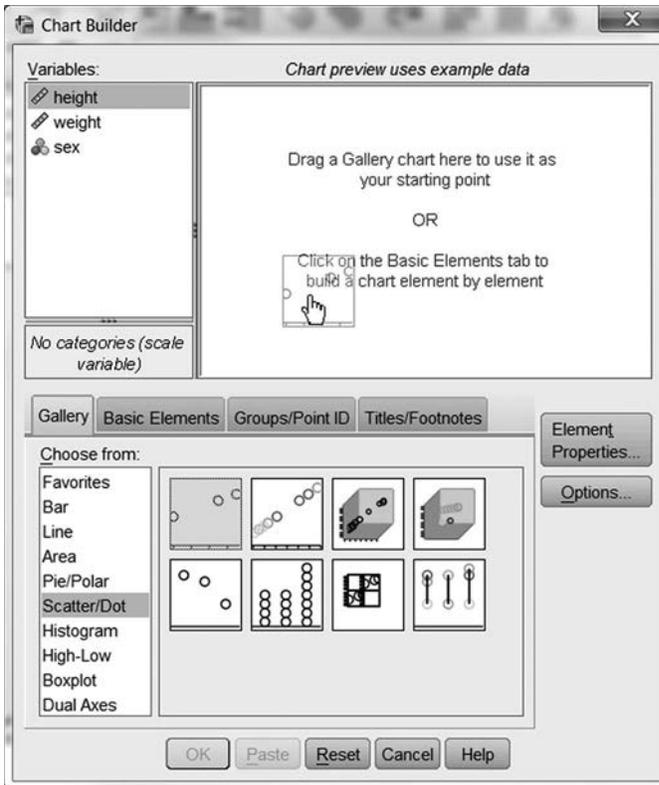
You need two variables to perform this command.

Running the Command



You can produce scatterplots by clicking *Graphs*, then *Chart Builder*.

In *Gallery Choose from* select *Scatter/Dot*. Then drag the *Simple Scatter* icon (top-left) up to the main chart area as shown in the screenshot below. Disregard the *Element Properties* window that pops up by choosing *Close* at the bottom of that window.

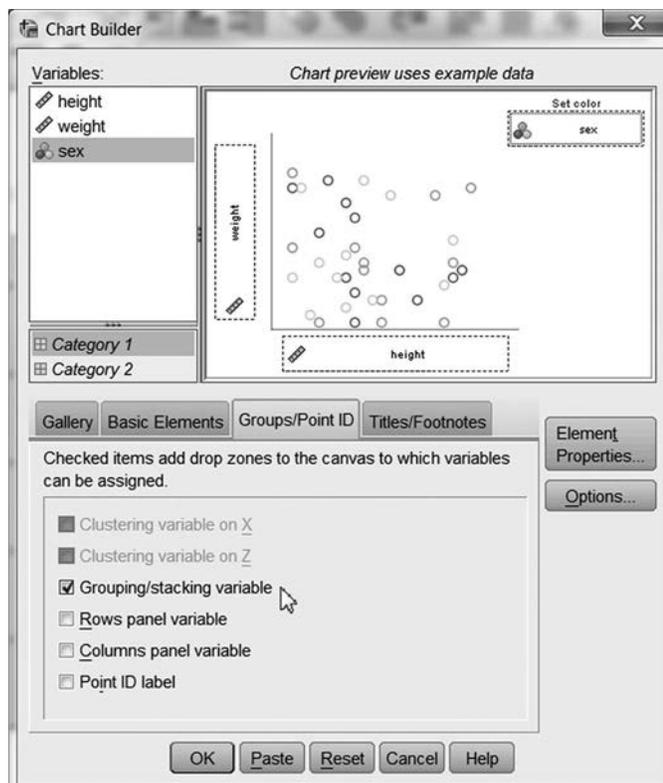
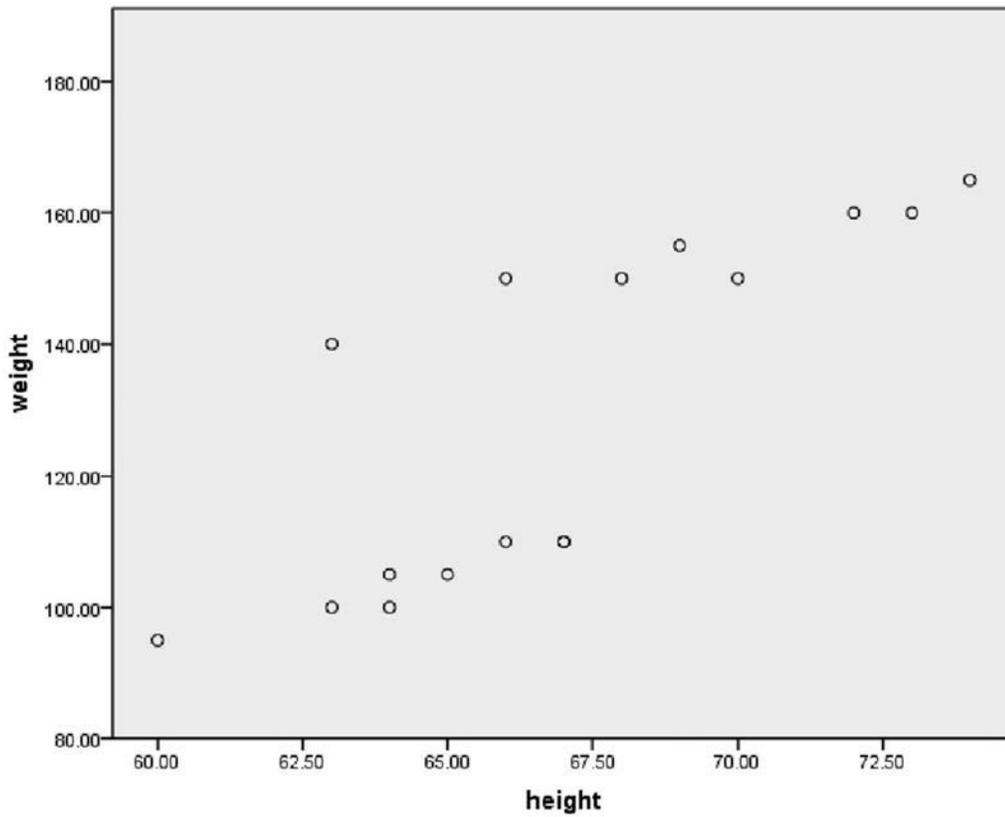


Next, drag the HEIGHT variable to the X-Axis area, and drag the WEIGHT variable to the Y-Axis area. (Remember that standard graphing conventions indicate that **dependent variables** should be Y and **independent variables** should be X. This would mean that we are trying to predict weights from heights.) At this point, your screen should resemble the example shown above. Note that your actual data are *not* shown—just a set of dummy values, which may look different from the pattern shown here.

Click **OK**. You should get your new graph as Output.

Output

The output will consist of a mark for each participant at the appropriate X and Y levels.

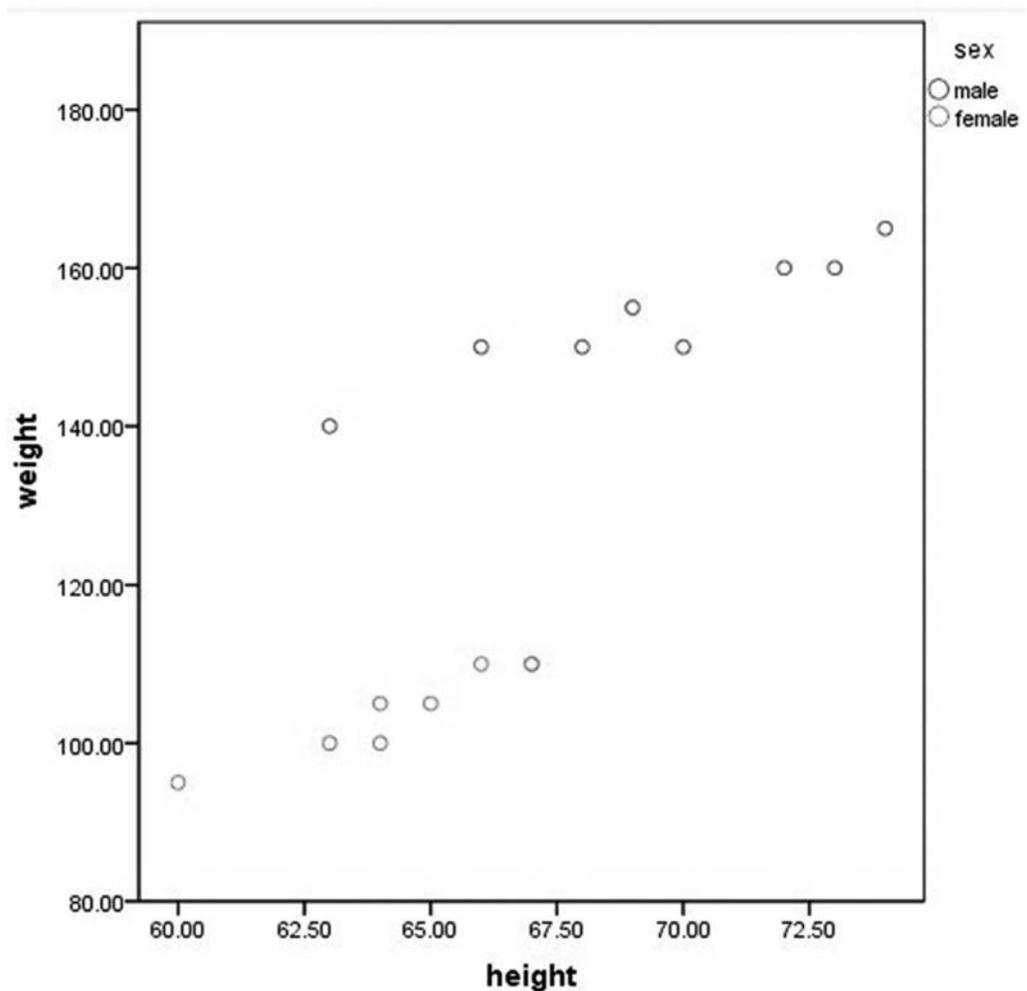


Adding a Third Variable

Even though the scatterplot is a two-dimensional graph, it can plot a third variable. To make it do so, select the *Groups/Point ID* tab in the Chart Builder. Click the *Grouping/stacking variable* option. Again, disregard the *Element Properties* window that pops up. Next, drag the variable SEX into the upper-right corner where it indicates *Set color*. When this is done, your screen should look like the image shown above. If you are not able to drag the variable SEX, it may be because it is not identified as **nominal** or **ordinal** in the *Variable View* window.

Click *OK* to have SPSS produce the graph.

Now our output will have two different sets of marks. One set represents the male participants, and the second set represents the female participants. These two sets will appear in two different colors on your screen. You can use the SPSS *Chart Editor* (see Section 4.6) to make them different shapes.



Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. Construct a scatterplot to examine the relationship between SALARY and EDUCATION.

Section 4.5 Advanced Bar Charts

Description

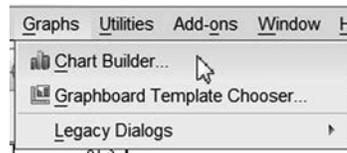
Bar charts can be produced with the *Frequencies* command (see Section 4.2). Sometimes, however, we are interested in a bar chart where the Y-axis is not a frequency. To produce such a chart, we need to use the *Bar charts* command.

SPSS Data Format

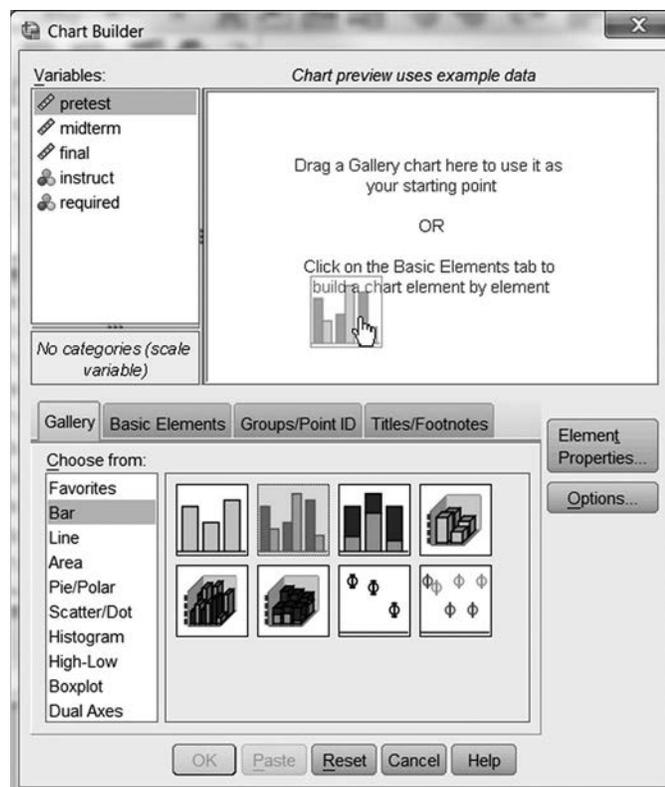
You need at least two variables to perform this command. There are two basic kinds of bar charts—those for between-subjects designs and those for repeated-measures designs. Use the between-subjects method if one variable is the **independent variable** and the other is the **dependent variable** (representing one score for different groups of individuals). Use the repeated-measures method if you have a **dependent variable** for each value of the **independent variable** (e.g., you would have three variables for a design with three values of the **independent variable**). This normally occurs when you make multiple observations over time.

This example uses the GRADES.sav data file, which will be created in Chapter 6. Please see Section 6.4 for the data if you would like to follow along.

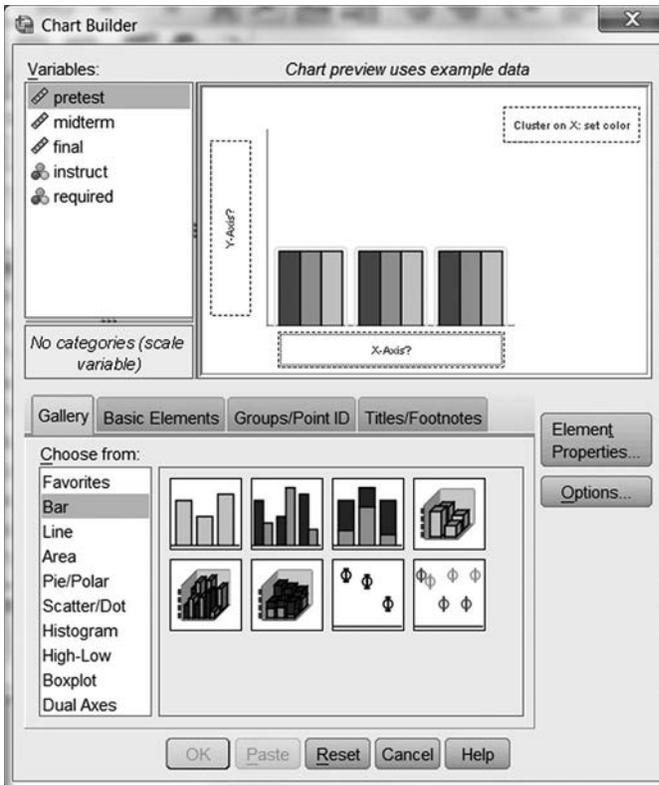
Running the Command



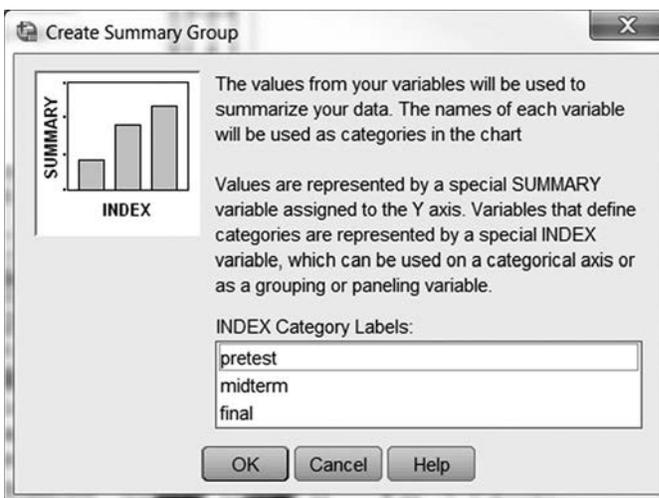
Open the Chart Builder by clicking *Graphs*, then *Chart Builder*. In the *Gallery* tab, select *Bar*. If you had only one **independent variable**, you would select the Simple Bar Chart example (top-left corner). If you have more than one **independent variable** (as in this example), select the Clustered Bar Chart example from the top row.



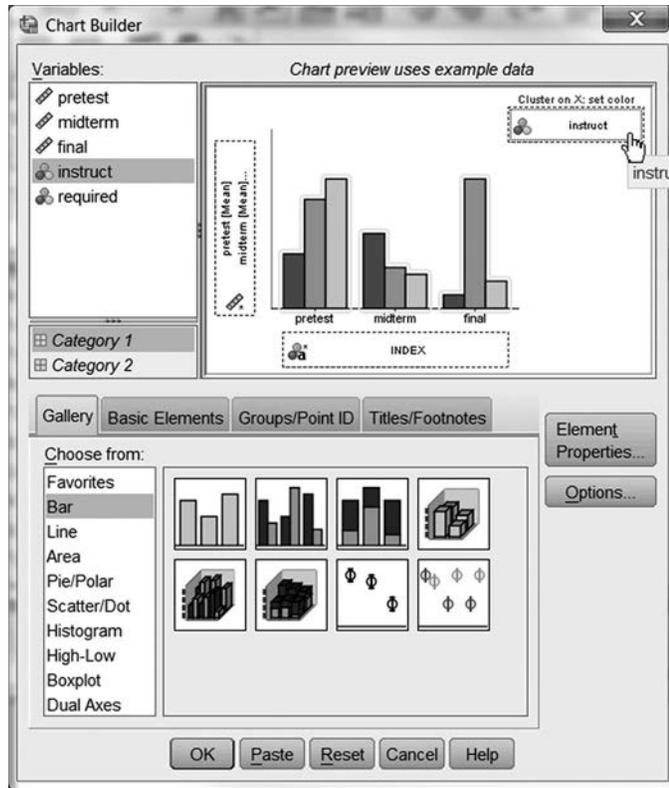
Drag the example to the top working area. Once you do, the working area should look like the screenshot below. (Note that you will need to open the data file you would like to graph in order to run this command.)



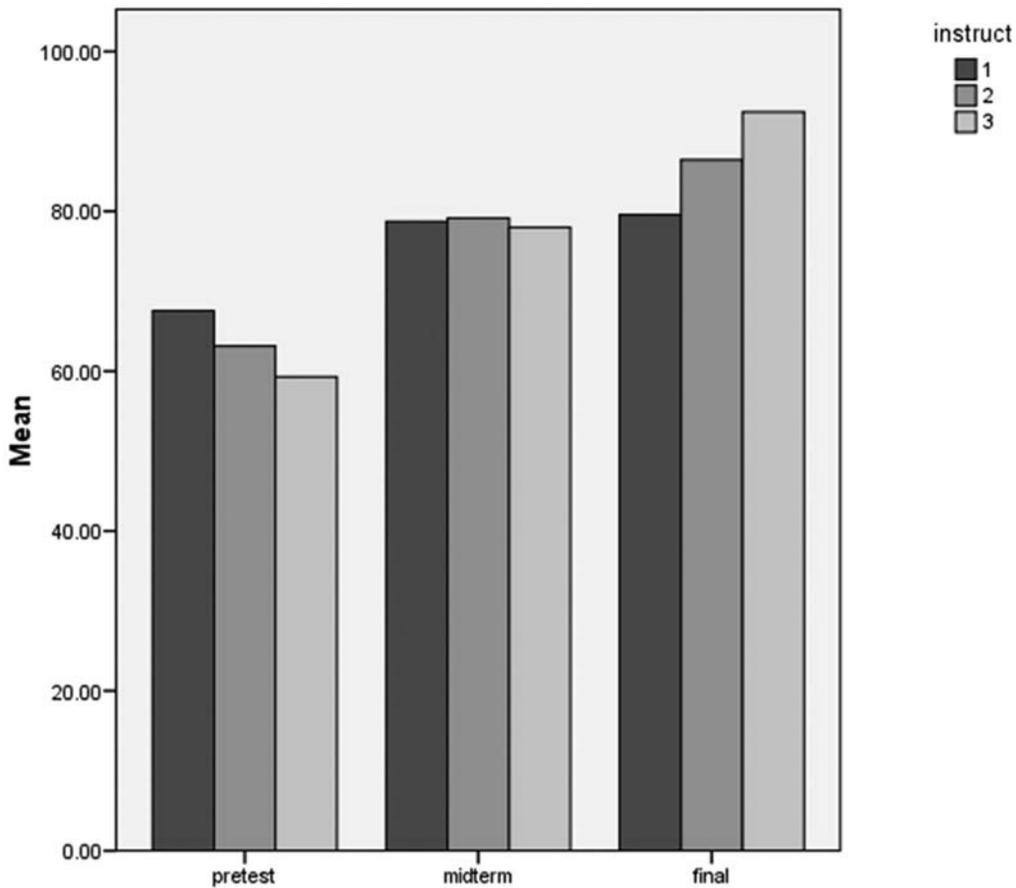
If you are using a repeated-measures design like our example here using GRADES.sav from Chapter 6 (three different variables representing the Y values that we want), you need to select all three variables (you can <Ctrl>-click them to select multiple variables) and then drag all three variable names to the *Y-Axis* area. When you do, you will be given the confirmation message shown. Click OK.



Next, you will need to drag the INSTRUCT variable to the top-right in the *Cluster on X: set color* area. Note: The Chart Builder pays attention to the types of variables that you ask it to graph. If you are getting error messages or unusual results, be sure that your variables being used as category labels are properly designated as *Nominal* in the *Variable View* tab (see Chapter 2, Section 2.1). You can easily change the type of variable by right-clicking on the variable name.



Output



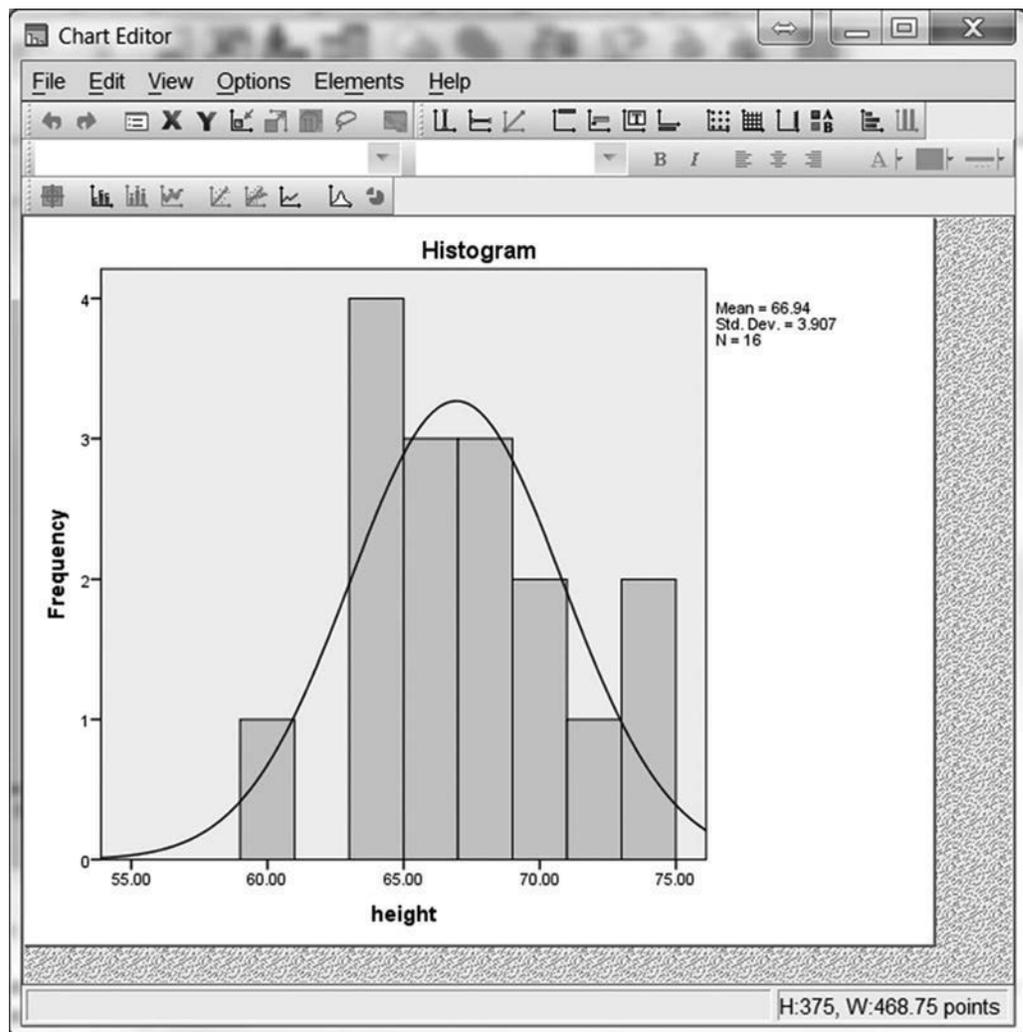
Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B. Construct a clustered bar graph examining the relationship between MATHEMATICS SKILLS scores (as the **dependent variable**) and MARITAL STATUS and SEX (as **independent variables**). Make sure you classify both SEX and MARITAL STATUS as nominal variables.

Section 4.6 Editing SPSS Graphs

Whatever command you use to create your graph, you will probably want to do some editing to make it appear exactly as you want it to look. In SPSS, you do this in much the same way that you edit graphs in other software programs (e.g., Excel). After your graph is made, in the **output window**, select your graph (this will create handles around the outside of the entire object) and right-click. Then, click *Edit Content*, and click *In a separate window*. Alternatively, you can double-click on the graph to open it for editing.

When you open the graph, the *Chart Editor* window will appear.

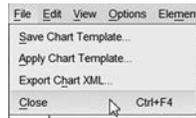


Once *Chart Editor* is open, you can easily edit each element of the graph. To select an element, click on the relevant spot on the graph. For instance, if you have added a title to your graph (“Histogram” in the example shown above, which was created earlier in this chapter and

saved as HEIGHT.sav), you may select the element representing the title of the graph by clicking anywhere on the title.

Once you have selected an element, you can tell whether the correct element is selected because it will have handles around it.

If the item you have selected is a text element (e.g., the title of the graph), a cursor will be present and you can edit the text as you would in a word processing program. If you would like to change another attribute of the element (e.g., the color or font size), use the Properties box.



With a little practice, you can make excellent graphs using SPSS. Once your graph is formatted the way you want it, simply select *File*, then *Close*.

Prediction and Association

Section 5.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Description

The Pearson correlation coefficient (sometimes called the *Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient* or simply the *Pearson r*) determines the strength of the linear relationship between two variables.

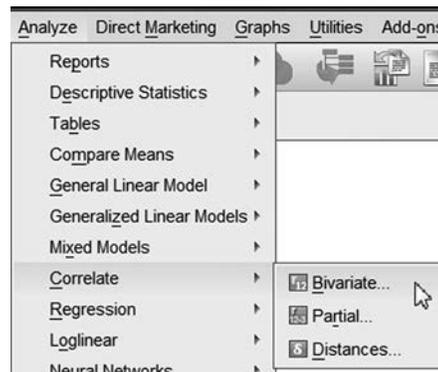
Assumptions

Both variables should be measured on **interval** or **ratio scales** (or as a **dichotomous** nominal variable). If a relationship exists between them, that relationship should be linear. Because the Pearson correlation coefficient is computed with z -scores, both variables should also be normally distributed. If your data do not meet these assumptions, consider using the Spearman *rho* correlation coefficient instead.

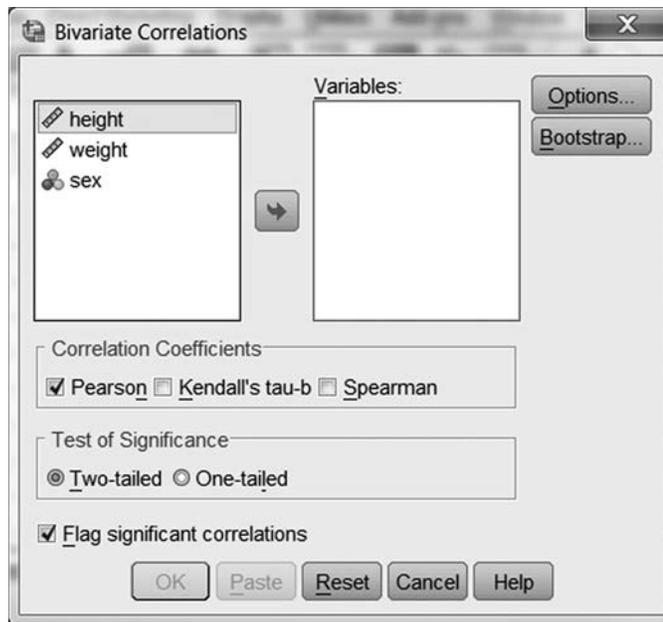
SPSS Data Format

Two variables are required in your SPSS data file. Each subject must have data for both variables.

Running the Command

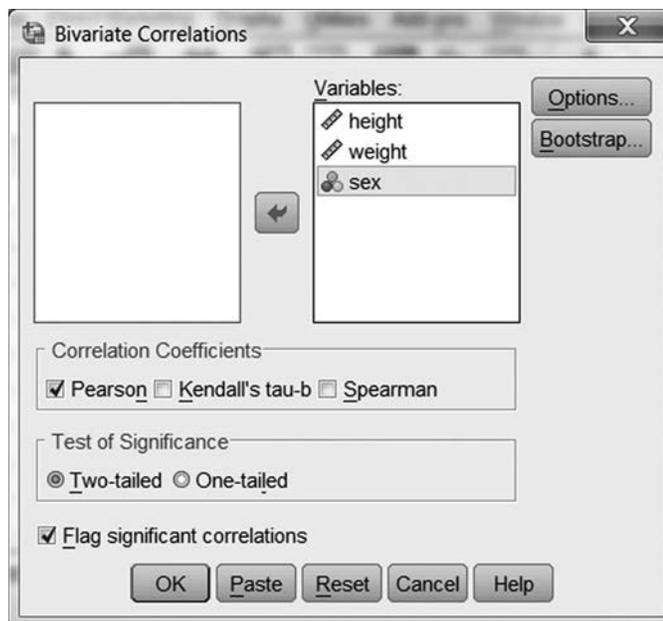


To select the Pearson correlation coefficient, click *Analyze*, then *Correlate*, then *Bivariate* (bivariate refers to two variables). This will bring up the Bivariate Correlations **dialog box**. This example uses the HEIGHT.sav data file entered at the start of Chapter 4.



Move at least two variables from the box at the left into the box at the right by using the transfer arrow (or by double-clicking each variable). Make sure that a check is in the *Pearson* box under *Correlation Coefficients*. It is acceptable to move more than two variables.

For our example, we will move all three variables over and click *OK*.



Reading the Output

The output consists of a **correlation matrix**. Every variable you entered in the command is represented as both a row and a column. We entered three variables in our command. Therefore, we

Correlations

		HEIGHT	WEIGHT	SEX
HEIGHT	Pearson Correlation	1	.806**	-.644**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.007
	N	16	16	16
WEIGHT	Pearson Correlation	.806**	1	-.968**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	16	16	16
SEX	Pearson Correlation	-.644**	-.968**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000	
	N	16	16	16

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

have a 3×3 table. There are also three rows in each cell—the correlation, the **significance** level, and the *N*. If a correlation is significant at less than the .05 level, a single * will appear next to the correlation. If it is significant at the .01 level or lower, ** will appear next to the correlation. For instance, all of the correlations in the output above have a **significance** level of $< .01$, so they are flagged with ** to indicate that they are less than .01.

To read the correlations, select a row and a column. For instance, the correlation between height and weight is determined through selection of the WEIGHT row and the HEIGHT column (.806). We get the same answer by selecting the HEIGHT row and the WEIGHT column. The correlation between a variable and itself is always 1, so there is a diagonal set of 1s.

Drawing Conclusions

The correlation coefficient will be between -1.0 and $+1.0$. Coefficients close to 0.0 represent a weak relationship. Coefficients close to 1.0 or -1.0 represent a strong relationship. Generally, correlations with an absolute value greater than 0.7 are considered strong. Correlations with an absolute value less than 0.3 are considered weak. Correlations with an absolute value between 0.3 and 0.7 are considered moderate. Positive correlations indicate that as one variable gets larger, the other variable also gets larger. Negative correlations indicate that as one variable gets larger, the other variable gets smaller.

Significant correlations are flagged with asterisks. A significant correlation indicates a reliable relationship, but not necessarily a strong correlation. With enough participants, a very small correlation can be significant. See Appendix A for a discussion of **effect sizes** for correlations. Note the **significance** level of .000 for some relationships. This is, in fact, a **significance** level of $< .001$. The actual alpha level rounds down to .000, but it is not zero.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In the preceding example, we obtained a correlation of .806 between HEIGHT and WEIGHT. A correlation of .806 is a strong positive correlation, and it is significant at the .001 level. Thus, we could state the following in a results section:

A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between participants' height and weight. A strong positive correlation was found ($r(14) = .806$, $p < .001$), indicating a significant linear relationship between the two variables. Taller participants tend to weigh more.

The conclusion states the direction (positive), strength (strong), value (.806), degrees of freedom (14), and **significance** level ($< .001$) of the correlation. In addition, a statement of direction is included (taller is heavier).

Note that the degrees of freedom given in parentheses is 14. The output indicates an N of 16. While most SPSS procedures give degrees of freedom, the *Correlation* command gives only the N (the number of pairs). For a correlation, the degrees of freedom is $N - 2$.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

Using our SAMPLE.sav dataset from the previous chapters, we can calculate a correlation between ID and GRADE. If we do so, we get the output shown here. The correlation has a **significance** level of .783. Thus, we could write the following in a results section (note that the degrees of freedom is $N - 2$):

		ID	GRADE
ID	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.217
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.783
	N	4	4
GRADE	Pearson Correlation	.217	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.783	.
	N	4	4

A Pearson correlation was calculated examining the relationship between participants' ID numbers and grades. A weak correlation that was not significant was found ($r(2) = .217, p > .05$). ID number is not related to grade in the course.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. Determine the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient for the relationship between SALARY and YEARS OF EDUCATION, and phrase your results.

Section 5.2 Spearman Correlation Coefficient

Description

The Spearman correlation coefficient determines the strength of the relationship between two variables. It is a nonparametric procedure. Therefore, it is weaker than the Pearson correlation coefficient, but it can be used in more situations.

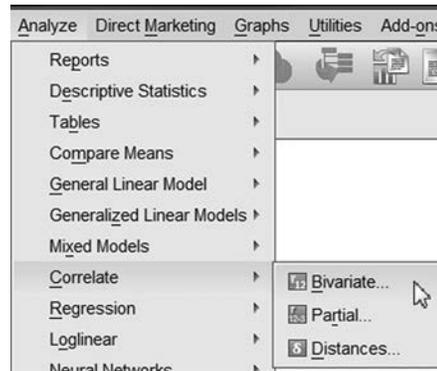
Assumptions

Because the Spearman correlation coefficient functions on the basis of the ranks of data, it requires **ordinal** (or **interval** or **ratio**) data for both variables. They do not need to be normally distributed.

SPSS Data Format

Two variables are required in your SPSS data file. Each subject must provide data for both variables.

Running the Command



Using the HEIGHT.sav file created in Chapter 4, click *Analyze*, then *Correlate*, then *Bivariate*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** for Bivariate Correlations (just like the Pearson correlation). About halfway down the **dialog box**, there is a section for indicating the type of correlation you will compute. You can select as many correlations as you want. For our example, remove the check in the *Pearson* box (by clicking on it) and click on the *Spearman* box.



Use the variables HEIGHT and WEIGHT. This is also one of the few commands that allows you to choose a one-tailed test, if desired.

Reading the Output

The output is essentially the same as for the Pearson correlation. Each pair of variables has its correlation coefficient indicated twice. The Spearman *rho* can range from -1.0 to $+1.0$, just like the Pearson *r*.

Nonparametric Correlations

Correlations			HEIGHT	WEIGHT
Spearman's rho	HEIGHT	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.883**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N		16	16
	WEIGHT	Correlation Coefficient	.883**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N		16	16

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

The output listed above indicates a correlation of .883 between HEIGHT and WEIGHT. Note the **significance** level of .000, shown in the "Sig. (2-tailed)" row. This is, in fact, a **significance** level of $< .001$. The actual alpha level rounds down to .000, but it is not zero.

Drawing Conclusions

The correlation will be between -1.0 and $+1.0$. Scores close to 0.0 represent a weak relationship. Scores close to 1.0 or -1.0 represent a strong relationship. Significant correlations are flagged with asterisks. A significant correlation indicates a reliable relationship, but not necessarily a strong correlation. With enough participants, a very small correlation can be significant. Generally, correlations greater than 0.7 are considered strong. Correlations less than 0.3 are considered weak. Correlations between 0.3 and 0.7 are considered moderate.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In the prior example, we obtained a correlation of $.883$ between HEIGHT and WEIGHT. A correlation of $.883$ is a strong positive correlation, and it is significant at the $.001$ level. Thus, we could state the following in a results section:

A Spearman ρ correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between participants' height and weight. A strong positive correlation was found ($\rho(14) = .883, p < .001$), indicating a significant relationship between the two variables. Taller participants tend to weigh more.

The conclusion states the direction (positive), strength (strong), value ($.883$), degrees of freedom (14), and **significance** level ($< .001$) of the correlation. In addition, a statement of direction is included (taller is heavier). Note that the degrees of freedom given in parentheses is 14 . The output indicates an N of 16 . For a correlation, the degrees of freedom is $N - 2$.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

		ID	GRADE
Spearman's rho	ID	1.000	.000
	Correlation Coefficient		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	1.000
	N	4	4
GRADE	GRADE	.000	1.000
	Correlation Coefficient		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	.
	N	4	4

Using our SAMPLE.sav dataset from the previous chapters, we could calculate a Spearman ρ correlation between ID and GRADE. If we did so, we would get the output shown here. The correlation coefficient equals $.000$ and has a **significance** level of 1.000 . Note that though this value is rounded up and is not, in fact, exactly 1.000 , we could state the following in a results section:

A Spearman ρ correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between a subject's ID number and grade. An extremely weak correlation that was not significant was found ($r(2) = .000, p > .05$). ID number is not related to grade in the course.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. Determine the strength of the relationship between salary and job classification by calculating the Spearman ρ correlation.

Section 5.3 Simple Linear Regression

Description

Simple linear regression allows for the prediction of one variable from another.

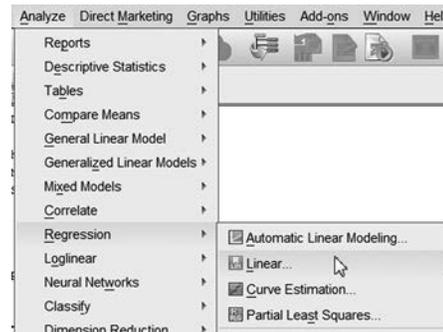
Assumptions

Simple linear regression assumes that both variables are **interval-** or **ratio-scaled**. In addition, the **dependent variable** should be normally distributed around the prediction line. This, of course, assumes that the variables are related to each other linearly. Typically, both variables should be normally distributed. **Dichotomous variables** (variables with only two **levels**) are also acceptable as **independent variables**.

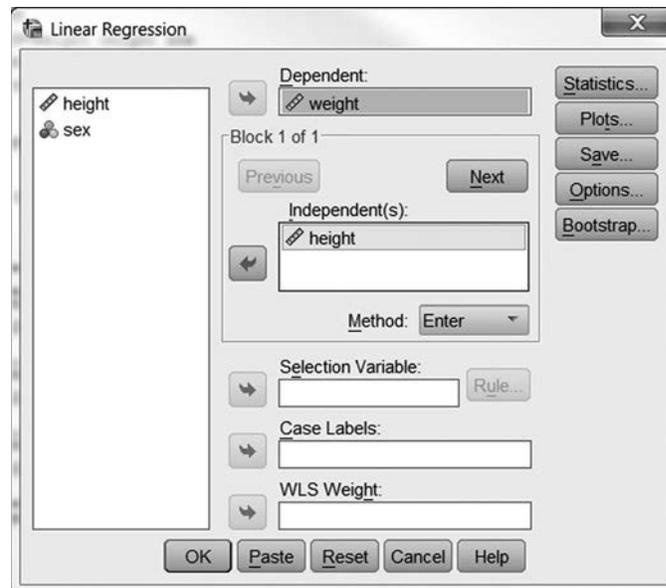
SPSS Data Format

Two variables are required in the SPSS data file. Each subject must contribute to both values.

Running the Command



Returning to the HEIGHT.sav data file, click *Analyze*, then *Regression*, then *Linear*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** for Linear Regression, shown below. On the left side of the **dialog box** is a list of the variables in your data file. On the right are blocks for the **dependent variable** (the variable we are trying to predict) and the **independent variable** (the variable from which we are predicting).



We are interested in predicting someone's weight on the basis of his or her height. Thus, we should place the variable WEIGHT in the **dependent variable** block and the variable HEIGHT in the **independent variable** block. Then, we can click *OK* to run the analysis.

Reading the Output

For simple linear regressions, we are interested in three components of the output. The first is called the Model Summary, and it occurs after the Variables Entered/Removed section. For our example, you should see this output. *R* Square (called the **coefficient of determination**) gives you the proportion of the **variance** of your **dependent variable** (WEIGHT) that can be explained by variation in your **independent variable** (HEIGHT). Thus, 64.9% of the variation in weight can be explained by differences in height (taller individuals weigh more).

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.806 ^a	.649	.624	16.14801

a. Predictors: (Constant), height

The **standard error of estimate** gives you a measure of dispersion for your prediction equation. When the prediction equation is used, 68% of the data will fall within one **standard error of estimate** (predicted) value. Just over 95% will fall within two standard errors. Thus, in the previous example, 95% of the time, our estimated weight will be within 32.296 pounds of being correct (i.e., $2 \times 16.148 = 32.296$).

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6760.323	1	6760.323	25.926	.000 ^b
	Residual	3650.614	14	260.758		
	Total	10410.937	15			

a. Dependent Variable: WEIGHT

b. Predictors: (Constant) HEIGHT

The second part of the output that we are interested in is the ANOVA summary table, as shown above. The important number here is the **significance** level in the rightmost column. If that value is less than .05, then we have a significant linear regression. If it is larger than .05, we do not. For more information on reading ANOVA tables, refer to the sections on ANOVA in Chapter 7.

The final section of the output is the table of coefficients. This is where the actual prediction equation can be found.

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-234.681	71.552		-3.280	.005
	HEIGHT	5.434	1.067	.806	5.092	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WEIGHT

In most texts, you learn that $Y' = a + bX$ is the regression equation. Y' (pronounced “Y prime”) is your **dependent variable** (primes are normally predicted values or dependent variables), and X is your **independent variable**. In SPSS output, the values of both a and b are found in the B column. The first value, -234.681 , is the value of a (labeled Constant). The second value, 5.434 , is the value of b (labeled with the name of the **independent variable**). Thus, our prediction equation for the example above is $WEIGHT' = -234.681 + 5.434(HEIGHT)$. In other words, the average subject who is an inch taller than another subject weighs 5.434 pounds more. A person who is 60 inches tall should weigh $-234.681 + 5.434(60) = 91.359$ pounds. Given our earlier discussion of **standard error of estimate**, 95% of individuals who are 60 inches tall will weigh between 59.063 ($91.359 - 32.296 = 59.063$) and 123.655 ($91.359 + 32.296 = 123.655$) pounds.

Drawing Conclusions

Conclusions from regression analyses indicate (a) whether or not a significant prediction equation was obtained, (b) the direction of the relationship, and (c) the equation itself. The direction of the relationship is obtained from the sign of the Beta coefficient. Positive coefficients indicate positive relationships. Negative coefficients indicate negative relationships.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In the example on page XX, we obtained an R Square of .649 and a regression equation of $WEIGHT' = -234.681 + 5.434(HEIGHT)$. The ANOVA resulted in $F = 25.926$ with 1 and 14 degrees of freedom. The F is significant at the less than .001 level. Thus, we could state the following in a results section:

A simple linear regression was calculated to predict participants' weight based on their height. A significant regression equation was found ($F(1,14) = 25.926$, $p < .001$), with an R^2 of .649. Participants' predicted weight is equal to $-234.68 + 5.43(HEIGHT)$ pounds when height is measured in inches. Participants' average weight increased 5.43 pounds for each inch of height.

The conclusion states the direction (increase), strength (.649), value (25.926), degrees of freedom (1,14), and **significance** level ($< .001$) of the regression. In addition, a statement of the equation itself is included.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If the ANOVA is not significant (e.g., see the output below), the section of the output labeled *Sig.* for the ANOVA will be greater than .05, and the regression equation will not be significant. A results section might include the following statement:

A simple linear regression was calculated to predict participants' *ACT* scores based on their height. The regression equation was not significant ($F(1,14) = 4.12$, $p > .05$) with an R^2 of .227. Height is not a significant predictor of *ACT* scores.

Note that for results that are not significant, the ANOVA results and R^2 results are given, but the regression equation is not.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. If we want to predict salary from years of education, what salary would you predict for someone with 12 years of education? What salary would you predict for someone with a college education (16 years)?

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.477 ^a	.227	.172	3.06696

a. Predictors: (Constant), height

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38.750	1	38.750	4.120	.062 ^a
	Residual	131.688	14	9.406		
	Total	170.438	15			

a. Predictors: (Constant), height

b. Dependent Variable: act

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	49.351	13.590		3.632	.003
	height	-.411	.203	-.477	-2.030	.062

a. Dependent Variable: act

Section 5.4 Multiple Linear Regression

Description

The multiple linear regression analysis allows the prediction of one variable from several other variables.

Assumptions

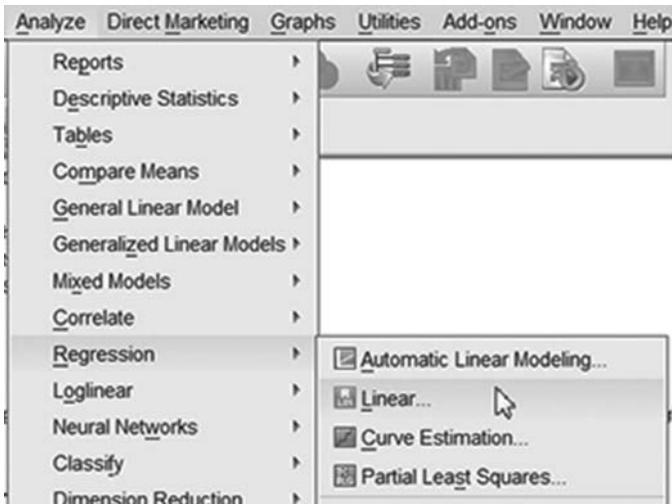
Multiple linear regression assumes that all variables are **interval-** or **ratio-scaled**. In addition, the **dependent variable** should be normally distributed around the prediction line. This, of course, assumes that the variables are related to each other linearly. All variables should be normally distributed. **Dichotomous variables** (e.g., SEX in the example below) are also acceptable as **independent variables**.

SPSS Data Format

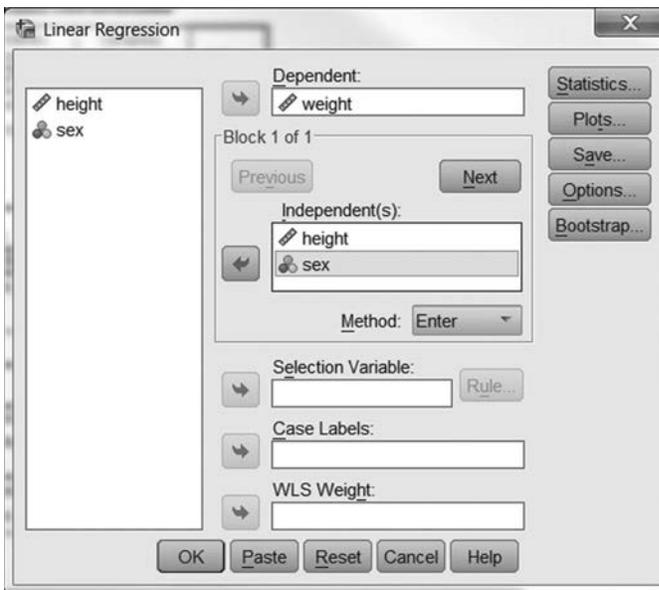
At least three variables are required in the SPSS data file. Each subject must provide data for all variables.

Running the Command

Click *Analyze*, then *Regression*, then *Linear*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** for Linear Regression. On the left side of the **dialog box** is a list of the variables in your data file. (We are using the HEIGHT.sav data file from the start of this chapter.) On the right side of the **dialog box**



are blanks for the **dependent variable** (the variable you are trying to predict) and the **independent variables** (the variables from which you are predicting).



We are interested in predicting someone's weight based on his or her height and sex. We believe that both sex and height are related to weight. Thus, we should place the **dependent variable** WEIGHT in the *Dependent* block and the **independent variables** HEIGHT and SEX in the *Independent(s)* block.



This will perform an analysis to determine if WEIGHT can be predicted from SEX and/or HEIGHT. There are several methods SPSS can use to conduct this analysis. These can be selected with the *Method* box. The most widely used is *Enter* (the default), which puts all the variables in the equation, whether or not they are significant. Other methods can be selected by clicking on the down arrow next to the word *Enter*. The other methods use various means to enter only those variables that are significant predictors. In this case, we will use the default. Click *OK* to run the analysis.

Reading the Output

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.997 ^a	.993	.992	2.29571

a. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

For multiple linear regression, there are three components of the output in which we are interested. The first is called the Model Summary, which is found after the Variables Entered/Removed section. For our example, you should get the output above.

R Square (called the **coefficient of determination**) tells you the proportion of the **variance** in the **dependent variable** (WEIGHT) that can be explained by variation in the **independent variables** (HEIGHT and SEX, in this case). Thus, 99.3% of the variation in weight can be explained by differences in height and sex (taller individuals weigh more, and men weigh more). Note that when a second variable is added, our R Square goes up from .649 to .993. The .649 was obtained using the Simple Linear Regression example in Section 5.3.

The **standard error of the estimate** gives you a margin of error for the prediction equation. Using the prediction equation, 68% of the data will fall within one **standard error of estimate** (predicted) value. Just over 95% will fall within two **standard errors of estimate**. Thus, in the example above, 95% of the time our estimated weight will be within 4.591 (2.29571×2) pounds of being correct. In our Simple Linear Regression example in Section 5.3, this number was 32.296. Note the higher degree of accuracy.

The second part of the output that we are interested in is the ANOVA summary table. For more information on reading ANOVA tables, refer to the sections on ANOVA in Chapter 7. For now, the important number is the **significance** in the rightmost column. If that value is less than .05, we have a significant linear regression. If it is larger than .05, we do not.

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10342.424	2	5171.212	981.202	.000 ^a
	Residual	68.514	13	5.270		
	Total	10410.938	15			

a. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

b. Dependent Variable: weight

The final section of output we are interested in is the table of coefficients. This is where the actual prediction equation can be found.

In most texts, you learn that $Y' = a + bX$ is the regression equation. For multiple regression, our equation changes to $Y' = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_zX_z$ (where z is the number of independent variables). Y' is your **dependent variable**, and the X s are your **independent variables**. The B s are listed in a column. Thus, our prediction equation for the example above is $WEIGHT' = 47.138 - 39.133(SEX) + 2.101(HEIGHT)$ (where SEX is coded as 1 = Male, 2 = Female, and

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	47.138	14.843		3.176	.007
	HEIGHT	2.101	.198	.312	10.588	.000
	SEX	-39.133	1.501	-.767	-26.071	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WEIGHT

HEIGHT is in inches). In other words, the average difference in weight for participants who differ by one inch in height is 2.101 pounds. Males tend to weigh 39.133 pounds more than females. (Males have a value of SEX that is one less than females. Therefore, their predicted weight will be $(-1)(-39.133) = 39.133$ different.) A female who is 60 inches tall should weigh $47.138 - 39.133(2) + 2.101(60) = 94.932$ pounds. Given our earlier discussion of the **standard error of estimate**, 95% of females who are 60 inches tall will weigh between 90.341 ($94.932 - 4.591 = 90.341$) and 99.523 ($94.932 + 4.591 = 99.523$) pounds.

Drawing Conclusions

Conclusions from regression analyses indicate (a) whether or not a significant prediction equation was obtained, (b) the direction of the relationship, and (c) the equation itself. Multiple regression is generally much more powerful than simple linear regression. Compare our two examples.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.997 ^a	.993	.992	2.29571

a. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10342.424	2	5171.212	981.202	.000 ^a
	Residual	68.514	13	5.270		
	Total	10410.938	15			

a. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

b. Dependent Variable: weight

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	47.138	14.843		3.176	.007
	height	2.101	.198	.312	10.588	.000
	sex	-39.133	1.501	-.767	-26.071	.000

a. Dependent Variable: weight

With multiple regression, you must also consider the **significance** level of each **independent variable**. In the example above, the **significance** level of both **independent variables** is less than .001.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In our example, we obtained an *R* Square of .993 and a regression equation of $WEIGHT' = 47.138 - 39.133(SEX) + 2.101(HEIGHT)$. The ANOVA resulted in $F = 981.202$ with 2 and 13 degrees of freedom. *F* is significant at the less than .001 level. Thus, we could state the following in a results section:

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict participants' weight based on their height and sex. A significant regression equation was found ($F(2,13) = 981.202, p < .001$), with an R^2 of .993. Participants' predicted weight is equal to $47.138 - 39.133(SEX) + 2.101(HEIGHT)$, where SEX is coded as 1 = Male, 2 = Female, and HEIGHT is measured in inches. Participants increased 2.101 pounds for each inch of height, and males weighed 39.133 pounds more than females. Both SEX and HEIGHT were significant predictors.

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	sex, height ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: act

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.169 ^a	.029	-.086	4.83165

a. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.719	2	5.860	.251	.781 ^b
	Residual	396.862	17	23.345		
	Total	408.582	19			

a. Dependent Variable: act

b. Predictors: (Constant), sex, height

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	33.688	29.462		1.143	.269
	height	-.180	.433	-.111	-.416	.683
	sex	-.788	2.418	-.087	-.326	.748

a. Dependent Variable: act

The conclusion states the direction (increase), strength (.993), value (981.20), degrees of freedom (2,13), and **significance** level ($< .001$) of the regression. In addition, a statement of the equation itself is included. Because there are multiple **independent variables**, we have noted whether or not each is significant.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If the ANOVA does not find a significant relationship, the *Sig.* section of the output will be greater than .05, and the regression equation will not be significant. A results section for the output shown above might include the following statement:

A multiple linear regression was calculated predicting participants' *ACT* scores based on their height and sex. The regression equation was not significant ($F(2,17) = .251, p > .05$) with an R^2 of .029. Neither HEIGHT nor WEIGHT is a significant predictor of *ACT* scores.

Note that for results that are not significant, the ANOVA results and R^2 results are given, but the regression equation is not.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. Determine the regression equation for predicting salary based on education, years of service, and sex. Which variables are significant predictors? If you believe that men were paid more than women, what would you conclude after conducting this analysis?

Basic Parametric Inferential Statistics and *t* tests

Parametric **inferential statistical** procedures allow you to draw inferences about populations based on samples of those populations. To make these inferences, you must be able to make certain assumptions about the shape of the distributions of the population samples.

Section 6.1 Review of Basic Hypothesis Testing

The Null Hypothesis

In hypothesis testing, we create two hypotheses that are **mutually exclusive** (i.e., both cannot be true at the same time) and **all inclusive** (i.e., one of them must be true). We refer to those two hypotheses as the **null hypothesis** and the **alternative hypothesis**. The **null hypothesis** generally states that any difference we observe is caused by random error. The **alternative hypothesis** generally states that any difference we observe is caused by a systematic difference between groups.

Type I and Type II Errors

All hypothesis testing attempts to draw conclusions about the real world based on the results of a test (a statistical test, in this case). There are four possible combinations of results.

Two of the possible results are correct test results. The other two results are errors. A **Type I error** occurs when we reject a **null hypothesis** that is, in fact, true, while a **Type II error** occurs when we fail to reject a **null hypothesis** that is, in fact, false.

Significance tests determine the probability of making a **Type I error** (often called *alpha* $<\alpha>$, *Sig.*, or *p*). In other words, after performing a series of calculations, we obtain a probability of obtaining a value as far from expected as we got assuming the **null hypothesis** is true. If there is a low probability, such as 5 or less in 100 (.05), by convention, we reject the **null hypothesis**. In other words, we typically use the .05 level (or less) as the maximum **Type I error** rate we are willing to accept.

When there is a low probability of a **Type I error**, such as .05, we can state that the **significance** test has led us to “reject the **null hypothesis**.” This is synonymous with saying that a difference is “statistically significant.” For instance, on a reading test, suppose you found that a random sample of girls from a school district scored higher than a random sample of boys. This result may have been obtained merely because the chance errors associated with random sampling created the observed difference (this is what the **null hypothesis** asserts). If there is a sufficiently low probability that random errors were the cause (as determined by a **significance** test), we can state that the difference between boys and girls is statistically significant.

		REAL WORLD	
		Null Hypothesis True	Null Hypothesis False
TEST RESULTS	Reject Null Hypothesis	Type I Error	No Error
	Fail to Reject Null Hypothesis	No Error	Type II Error

Significance Levels Versus Critical Values

Most statistics textbooks present hypothesis testing by using the concept of a critical value. With such an approach, we obtain a value for a test statistic and compare it to a critical value we look up in a table. If the obtained value is larger than the critical value, we reject the **null hypothesis** and conclude that we have found a significant difference (or relationship). If the obtained value is less than the critical value, we fail to reject the **null hypothesis** and conclude that there is not a significant difference.

The critical-value approach is well suited to hand calculations. Tables that give critical values for alpha levels of .001, .01, .05, and so on, can be created. It is not practical to create a table for every possible alpha level.

On the other hand, SPSS can determine the exact alpha level associated with any value of a test statistic. Thus, looking up a critical value in a table is not necessary. This, however, does change the basic procedure for determining whether or not to reject the **null hypothesis**.

The section of SPSS output labeled *Sig.* (sometimes p or $alpha <\alpha>$) indicates the likelihood of making a **Type I error** if we reject the **null hypothesis**. A value of .05 or less indicates that we should reject the **null hypothesis** (assuming an alpha level of .05). A value greater than .05 indicates that we should fail to reject the **null hypothesis**.

In other words, when using SPSS, we normally reject the **null hypothesis** if the output value under *Sig.* is equal to or smaller than .05, and we fail to reject the **null hypothesis** if the output value is larger than .05.

One-Tailed Versus Two-Tailed Tests

SPSS output generally includes a two-tailed alpha level (normally labeled *Sig.* in the output). A two-tailed hypothesis attempts to determine whether any difference (either positive or negative)

exists. Thus, you have an opportunity to make a **Type I error** on either of the two tails of the **normal distribution**.

A one-tailed test examines a difference in a specific direction. Thus, we can make a **Type I error** on only one side (tail) of the distribution. If we have a one-tailed hypothesis, but our SPSS output gives a two-tailed **significance** result, we can take the **significance** level in the output and divide it by two. Thus, if our difference is in the right direction, and if our output indicates a **significance** level of .084 (two-tailed), but we have a one-tailed hypothesis, we can report a **significance** level of .042 (one-tailed).

Phrasing Results

Results of hypothesis testing can be stated in different ways, depending on the conventions specified by your institution. The following examples illustrate some of these differences.

Degrees of Freedom

Sometimes the degrees of freedom are given in parentheses immediately after the symbol representing the test, as in this example:

$$t(3) = 7.00, p < .01$$

Other times, the degrees of freedom are given within the statement of results, as in this example:

$$t = 7.00, df = 3, p < .01$$

Significance Level

When you obtain results that are significant, they can be described in different ways. For instance, if you obtained a **significance** level of .006 on a *t* test, you could describe it in any of the following three ways:

$$\begin{aligned} t(3) &= 7.00, p < .05 \\ t(3) &= 7.00, p < .01 \\ t(3) &= 7.00, p = .006 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that because the exact probability is .006, both .05 and .01 are also correct. There are also various ways of describing results that are not significant. For instance, if you obtained a **significance** level of .505, any of the following three statements could be used:

$$\begin{aligned} t(2) &= 0.805, ns \\ t(2) &= 0.805, p > .05 \\ t(2) &= 0.805, p = .505 \end{aligned}$$

Statement of Results

Sometimes the results will be stated in terms of the **null hypothesis**, as in the following example:

The null hypothesis was rejected ($t = 7.00, df = 3, p = .006$).

Other times, the results are stated in terms of their level of **significance**, as in the following example:

A statistically significant difference was found: $t(3) = 7.00, p < .01$.

Statistical Symbols

Generally, statistical symbols are presented in *italics*. Prior to the widespread use of computers and desktop publishing, statistical symbols were underlined.

Underlining is a signal to a printer that the underlined text should be set in italics. Institutions vary on their requirements for student work, so you are advised to consult your instructor about this.

Section 6.2 Single-Sample t Test

Description

The single-sample t test compares the **mean** of a single sample to a known population mean. It is useful for determining if the current set of data has changed from a long-term value (e.g., comparing the current year's temperatures to a historical average to determine if global warming is occurring).

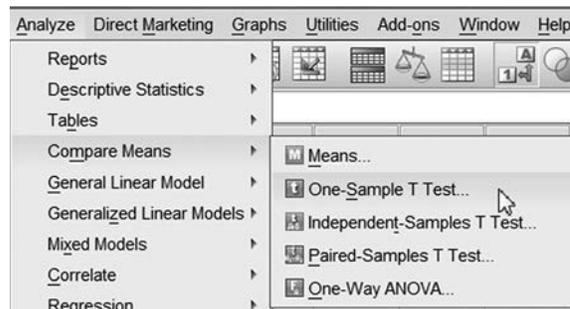
Assumptions

The distributions from which the scores are taken should be normally distributed. However, the t test is **robust** and can handle violations of the assumption of a **normal distribution**. The **dependent variable** must be measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**.

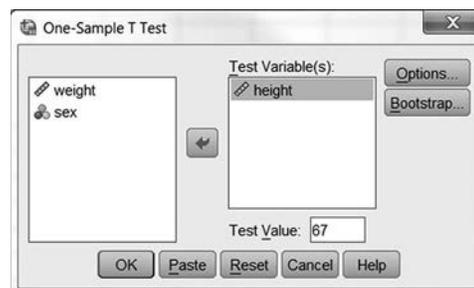
SPSS Data Format

The SPSS data file for the single-sample t test requires a single variable in SPSS. That variable represents the set of scores in the sample that we will compare to the population mean.

Running the Command



This example uses the HEIGHT.sav data file created in Chapter 4. The one sample (also called “single-sample”) t test is located in the *Compare Means* submenu, under the *Analyze* menu.



The **dialog box** for the single-sample t test requires that we transfer the variable representing the current set of scores to the *Test Variable(s)* section. We must also enter the population average in the *Test Value* blank. The example presented here is testing the variable HEIGHT against

a population **mean** of 67. In other words, we are testing whether the sample came from a population with a **mean** of 67. Click *OK* to run the analysis.

Reading the Output

The output for the single-sample *t* test consists of two sections. The first section lists the sample variable and some basic **descriptive statistics** (*N*, **mean**, **standard deviation**, and standard error).

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
height	16	66.9375	3.90672	.97668

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 67					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
height	-.064	15	.950	-.06250	-2.1442	2.0192

The second section of output contains the results of the *t* test. The example presented above indicates a *t* value of $-.064$, with 15 degrees of freedom and a **significance** level of .95. The **mean** difference of $-.0625$ is the difference between the sample average (66.9375) and the population average we entered in the **dialog box** to conduct the test (67).

Drawing Conclusions

The assumption when conducting a *t* test is that the means are equal. Therefore, a significant result indicates that the sample **mean** is not equivalent to the population **mean** (hence the term “significantly different”). A result that is not significant means that there is not a significant difference between the means. It does not mean that they are equal. Refer to your statistics text for the section on failure to reject the **null hypothesis**.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

The above example did not find a significant difference between the population **mean** and the sample **mean**. If, however, we had used a population **mean** of 64 instead of 67, we would have obtained the following output:

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
height	16	66.9375	3.90672	.97668

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 64					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
height	3.008	15	.009	2.93750	.8558	5.0192

In this case, we could state the following:

A single-sample *t* test that compared the mean height of the sample to a population value of 64 was conducted. A significant difference was found ($t(15) = 3.008, p = .009$). The sample mean of 66.9375 ($sd = 3.907$) was significantly greater than the population mean.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

In our first example, the **significance** level was greater than .05. Thus, we would state the following:

A single-sample *t* test that compared the mean height of the sample to a population value of 67 was conducted. No significant difference was found ($t(15) = -.064, p = .95$). The sample mean of 66.9375 ($sd = 3.907$) was not significantly greater than the population mean.

Practice Exercise

The **mean** salary in the United States is a hypothetical average of \$25,000. Determine if the **mean** salary of the participants in Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B is significantly greater than this value. Note that this is a one-tailed hypothesis.

Section 6.3 Independent-Samples *t* Test

Description

The independent-samples *t* test compares the means of two independent samples. Samples are independent if there is no relationship between them (generally meaning each participant provides data for only one sample).

Assumptions

The two groups being compared should be independent of each other. Observations are independent when information about one is unrelated to the other. Normally, this means that one group of participants provides data for one sample and a different group of participants provides data for the other sample (and individuals in one group are not matched with individuals in the other group). One way to accomplish this is through using **random assignment** to form two groups.

The scores should be normally distributed, but the *t* test is **robust** and can handle violations of the assumption of a **normal distribution**. The two samples should, however, have the same variance.

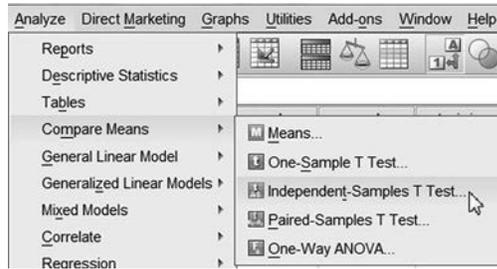
The **dependent variable** must be measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. The **independent variable** should have only two **discrete** levels.

SPSS Data Format

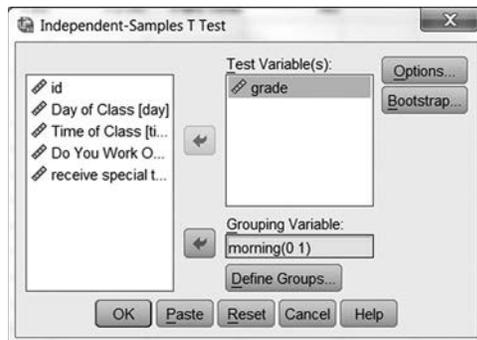
The SPSS data file for the independent *t* test requires two variables. One variable, the **grouping variable**, represents the value of the **independent variable**. The **grouping variable** should have two distinct values (e.g., 0 for a control group and 1 for an experimental group). The second variable represents the **dependent variable**, such as scores on a test.

Conducting an Independent-Samples *t* Test

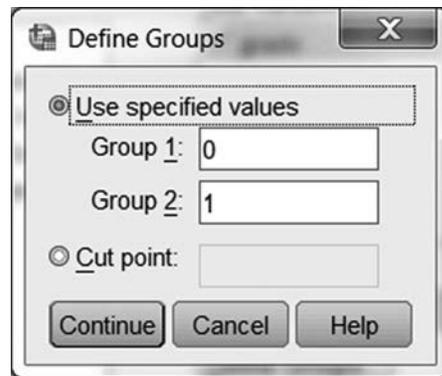
For our example, we will use the SAMPLE.sav data file. Click *Analyze*, then *Compare Means*, then *Independent-Samples T Test*. This will bring up the main **dialog box**. Transfer



the **dependent variable(s)** into the *Test Variable(s)* blank. For our example, we will use the variable GRADE.



Transfer the **independent variable** into the *Grouping Variable* section. For our example, we will use the variable MORNING.



Next, click *Define Groups* and enter the values of the two **levels** of the **independent variable** (0 for nonmorning and 1 for morning). Independent *t* tests are capable of comparing only two **levels** at a time. Click *Continue*, then click *OK* to run the analysis.

Output From the Independent-Samples *t* Test

The output will have a section labeled “Group Statistics.” This section provides the basic **descriptive statistics** for the **dependent variable(s)** for each value of the **independent variable**. It should look like the output below.

Group Statistics					
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
grade	morning No	2	82.5000	3.53553	2.50000
	Yes	2	78.0000	7.07107	5.00000

Next, there will be a section with the results of the *t* test. It should look like the output below.

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
grade	Equal variances assumed			.805	2	.505	4.50000	5.59017	-19.55256	28.55256
	Equal variances not assumed			.805	1.471	.530	4.50000	5.59017	-30.09261	39.09261

The columns labeled *t*, *df*, and *Sig. (2-tailed)* provide the standard answer for the *t* test. They provide the value of *t*, the degrees of freedom (number of participants minus 2, in this case), and the **significance** level (often called *p*). Normally, we use the “Equal variances assumed” row. This will provide you with an answer equivalent to what you would calculate by hand.

Drawing Conclusions

Recall from the previous section that the *t* test assumes an equality of **means**. Therefore, a significant result indicates that the **means** are not equivalent. When drawing conclusions about a *t* test, you must state the direction of the difference (i.e., which **mean** was larger than the other). You should also include information about the value of *t*, the degrees of freedom, the **significance** level, the **means**, and **standard deviations** for the two groups.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

For a significant *t* test (e.g., the output below), you might state the following:

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	Control	4	41.0000	4.24264	2.12132
	Experimental	3	33.3333	2.08167	1.20185

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	5.058	.074	2.835	5	.036	7.66667	2.70391	.71605	14.61728
	Equal variances not assumed			3.144	4.534	.029	7.66667	2.43812	1.20060	14.13273

An independent-samples *t* test comparing the mean scores of the experimental and control groups found a significant difference between the means of the two groups ($t(5) = 2.835, p < .05$). The mean of the experimental group was significantly lower ($M = 33.333, sd = 2.08$) than the mean of the control group ($M = 41.000, sd = 4.24$).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

In our example at the start of this section, we compared the scores of the morning people to the scores of the nonmorning people. We did not find a significant difference, so we could state the following:

An independent-samples *t* test was calculated comparing the mean score of participants who identified themselves as morning people to the mean score of

participants who did not identify themselves as morning people. No significant difference was found ($t(2) = 0.805, p > .05$). The mean of the morning people ($M = 78.00, sd = 7.07$) was not significantly different from the mean of nonmorning people ($M = 82.50, sd = 3.54$).

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B to solve this problem. We believe that young individuals have lower mathematics skills than older individuals. We would test this hypothesis by comparing participants 25 or younger (the “young” group) with participants 26 or older (the “old” group). Hint: You may need to create a new variable that represents each age group. See Chapter 2 for help.

Section 6.4 Paired-Samples *t* Test

Description

The paired-samples *t* test (also called a dependent *t* test) compares the **means** of two scores from related samples. For instance, comparing a pretest and a posttest score for a group of participants would require a paired-samples *t* test.

Assumptions

The paired-samples *t* test assumes that both variables are at the **interval** or **ratio** levels and are normally distributed. The two variables should also be measured with the same scale.

SPSS Data Format

Two variables in the SPSS data file are required. These variables should represent two measurements from each participant.

Running the Command

We will create a new data file containing five variables: PRETEST, MIDTERM, FINAL, INSTRUCT, and REQUIRED. INSTRUCT represents three different instructors for a course. REQUIRED represents whether the course was required or was an elective (0 = elective, 1 = required). The other three variables represent exam scores (100 being the highest score possible).

PRETEST	MIDTERM	FINAL	INSTRUCT	REQUIRED
56	64	69	1	0
79	91	89	1	0
68	77	81	1	0
59	69	71	1	1
64	77	75	1	1
74	88	86	1	1
73	85	86	1	1
47	64	69	2	0
78	98	100	2	0
61	77	85	2	0
68	86	93	2	1

(Continued)

(Continued)

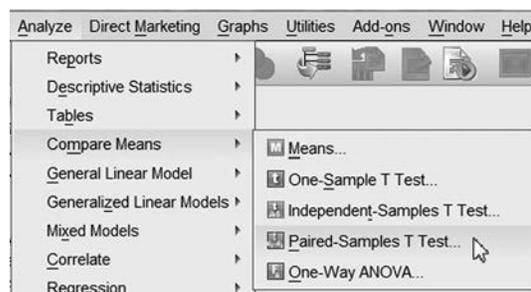
PRETEST	MIDTERM	FINAL	INSTRUCT	REQUIRED
64	77	87	2	1
53	67	76	2	1
71	85	95	2	1
61	79	97	3	0
57	77	89	3	0
49	65	83	3	0
71	93	100	3	1
61	83	94	3	1
58	75	92	3	1
58	74	92	3	1

Enter the data and save them as GRADES.sav. You can check your data entry by computing a **mean** for each instructor using the *Means* command. (See Chapter 3 for more information.) Use INSTRUCT as the **independent variable**, and enter PRETEST, MIDTERM, and FINAL as your **dependent variables**.

Report

INSTRUCT		PRETEST	MIDTERM	FINAL
1.00	Mean	67.5714	78.7143	79.5714
	N	7	7	7
	Std. Deviation	8.3837	9.9451	7.9552
2.00	Mean	63.1429	79.1429	86.4286
	N	7	7	7
	Std. Deviation	10.6055	11.7108	10.9218
3.00	Mean	59.2857	78.0000	92.4286
	N	7	7	7
	Std. Deviation	6.5502	8.6217	5.5032
Total	Mean	63.3333	78.6190	86.1429
	N	21	21	21
	Std. Deviation	8.9294	9.6617	9.6348

Once you have entered the data, conduct a paired-samples *t* test comparing pretest scores and final scores.



Click *Analyze*, then *Compare Means*, then *Paired-Samples T Test*. This will bring up the main **dialog box**.



You must select pairs of variables to compare. Click on PRETEST, then click the  button. Click on FINAL, then click the  button. (Alternatively, you can double-click or control-click them.) The variables will be moved into the *Paired Variables* area. Click *OK* to conduct the test.

Reading the Output

The output for the paired-samples *t* test consists of three components. The first part gives you basic **descriptive statistics** for the pair of variables. The PRETEST average was 63.3, with a **standard deviation** of 8.93. The FINAL average was 86.14, with a **standard deviation** of 9.63.

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRETEST	63.3333	21	8.9294	1.9485
	FINAL	86.1429	21	9.6348	2.1025

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	PRETEST & FINAL	21	.535	.013

The second part of the output is a Pearson correlation coefficient for the pair of variables.

Within the third part of the output (labeled *Paired Samples Test*), the section called *Paired Differences* contains information about the differences between the two variables. You may have learned in your statistics class that the paired-samples *t* test is essentially a single-sample *t* test calculated on the differences between the scores. The final three columns contain the value of *t*, the degrees of freedom, and the **significance** level. In the example presented here, we obtained a *t* of -11.646 , with 20 degrees of freedom, and a **significance** level of less than .001. Note that

this is a two-tailed **significance** level. See the start of this chapter for more details on computing a one-tailed test.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PRETEST - FINAL	-22.8095	8.9756	1.9586	-26.8952	-18.7239	-11.646	20	.000

Drawing Conclusions

Paired-samples *t* tests determine whether or not two means are significantly different from each other. Significant values indicate that the two means are different (technically, that the samples come from populations with different means). Values that are not significant indicate that the scores are not significantly different.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

When stating the results of a paired-samples *t* test, you should give the value of *t*, the degrees of freedom, and the **significance** level. You should also give the **mean** and **standard deviation** for each variable, as well as a statement of results that indicates whether you conducted a one- or two-tailed test. Our example above was significant, so we could state the following:

A paired-samples *t* test was calculated to compare the mean pretest score to the mean final exam score. The mean on the pretest was 63.33 (*sd* = 8.93), and the mean on the final was 86.14 (*sd* = 9.63). A significant increase from pretest to final was found ($t(20) = -11.646, p < .001$).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If the **significance** level had been greater than .05 (or greater than .10, if you were conducting a one-tailed test), the result would not have been significant. For instance, the hypothetical output here represents a nonsignificant difference. For this output, we could state the following:

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair	midterm	78.7143	7	9.94509	3.75889
1	final	79.5714	7	7.95523	3.00680

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	midterm & final	7	.969	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	midterm - final	-.85714	2.96808	1.12183	-3.60216	1.88788	-.764	6	.474

A paired-samples t test was calculated to compare the mean midterm score to the mean final exam score. The mean on the midterm was 78.71 ($sd = 9.95$), and the mean on the final was 79.57 ($sd = 7.96$). No significant difference from midterm to final was found ($t(6) = -.764, p > .05$).

Practice Exercise

Use the same GRADES.sav data file, and compute a paired-samples t test to determine if scores increased from midterm to final.

ANOVA Models

Section 7.1 ANOVA Models

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a procedure that determines the proportion of variability attributed to each of several components. It is one of the most useful and adaptable statistical techniques available.

In general ANOVA procedures in SPSS produce what is called a **Source Table** in which each row represents a source of variability and the columns represent what we know about the variability attributable to each source. In the simplest case total variability is split into that attributable to differences between the groups and the variability attributable to differences within the groups.

Normally there is a column called SS (Sum of Squares), one for df (Degrees of Freedom), one for MS (Mean Squares), and then F – which is the actual answer.

Section 7.2 One-Way ANOVA

Description

The one-way ANOVA compares the means of two or more groups of participants that vary on a single **independent variable** (thus, the one-way designation). When we have three groups, we could use a *t* test to determine differences between the groups, but we would have to conduct three *t* tests (Group 1 compared to Group 2, Group 1 compared to Group 3, and Group 2 compared to Group 3). When we conduct multiple *t* tests, we inflate the **Type I error** rate and increase our chance of drawing an inappropriate conclusion. ANOVA compensates for these multiple comparisons and gives us a single answer that tells us if any of the groups is different from any of the other groups.

Assumptions

The one-way ANOVA requires a single **dependent variable** and a single **independent variable**. Which group participants belong to is determined by the value of the **independent variable**. Groups should be independent of each other. If our participants belong to more than one group each, we will have to conduct a repeated-measures ANOVA. If we have more than one **independent variable**, we should conduct a factorial ANOVA.

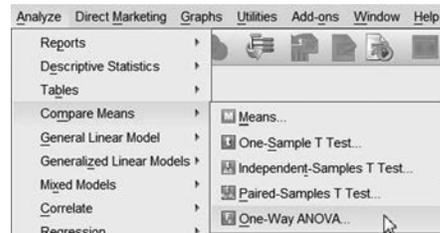
ANOVA also assumes that the **dependent variable** is at the **interval** or **ratio** level and is normally distributed, and that the variances of the **dependent variable** for each level of the **independent variable** are equal.

SPSS Data Format

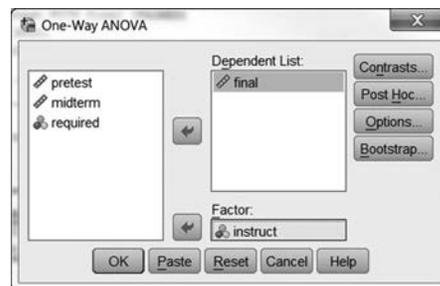
Two variables are required in the SPSS data file. One variable serves as the **dependent variable** and the other as the **independent variable**. Each participant should provide only one score for the **dependent variable**.

Running the Command

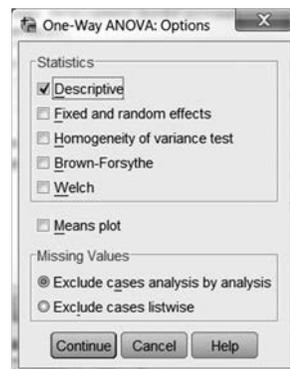
For this example, we will use the GRADES.sav data file we created in the previous section.



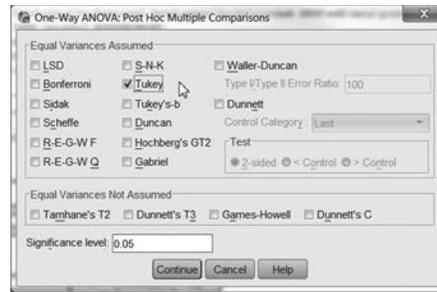
For you to conduct a one-way ANOVA, click *Analyze*, then *Compare Means*, then *One-Way ANOVA*. This will bring up the main **dialog box** for the *One-Way ANOVA* command.



You should place the **independent variable** in the *Factor* box. For our example, INSTRUCT represents three different instructors, and it will be used as our **independent variable**. Our **dependent variable** will be FINAL. This test will allow us to determine if the instructor has any effect on final grades in the course.



Click on *Options* to get the Options **dialog box** shown above. Click *Descriptive*. This will give you means for the **dependent variable** at each **level** of the **independent variable**. Checking this box prevents us from having to run a separate *Means* command. Click *Continue* to return to the main **dialog box**.



Next, click *Post Hoc* to bring up the Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons **dialog box** shown above. Click *Tukey*, then *Continue*.

Post-hoc tests are necessary in the event of a significant ANOVA. The ANOVA only indicates if any group is different from any other group. If it is significant, we need to determine which groups are different from which other groups. We could do *t* tests to determine that, but we would have the same problem as mentioned before with inflating the **Type I error** rate.

There are several post-hoc comparisons that correct for multiple comparisons. The most widely used is **Tukey's HSD**. SPSS will calculate a variety of post-hoc tests for you. Consult an advanced statistics text for a discussion of the differences between these various tests.

Reading the Output

Descriptive statistics will be given for each instructor (i.e., level of the **independent variable**) and the total. For instance, in his or her class, Instructor 1 had an average final exam score of 79.57.

Descriptives

final

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	7	79.5714	7.95523	3.00680	72.2141	86.9288	69.00	89.00
2.00	7	86.4286	10.92180	4.12805	76.3276	96.5296	69.00	100.00
3.00	7	92.4286	5.50325	2.08003	87.3389	97.5182	83.00	100.00
Total	21	86.1429	9.63476	2.10248	81.7572	90.5285	69.00	100.00

The next section of the output is the ANOVA **source table**. This is where the various components of the **variance** have been listed, along with their relative sizes. For a one-way ANOVA, there are two components to the variance: Between Groups (which represents the differences due to our **independent variable**) and Within Groups (which represents differences within each level of our **independent variable**). For our example, the Between Groups variance represents differences due to different instructors. The Within Groups variance represents individual differences among students.

ANOVA

final

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	579.429	2	289.714	4.083	.034
Within Groups	1277.143	18	70.952		
Total	1856.571	20			

The primary answer is F . F is a ratio of explained **variance** to unexplained **variance**. Consult a statistics text for more information on how it is determined. The F has two different degrees of freedom, one for Between Groups (in this case, 2 is the number of **levels** of our **independent variable** <3–1>), and another for Within Groups (18 is the number of participants minus the number of **levels** of our **independent variable** <21–3>).

The next part of the output consists of the results of our **Tukey's HSD** post-hoc comparison.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: FINAL

Tukey HSD

(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	2.00	-6.8571	4.502	.304	-18.3482	4.6339
	3.00	-12.8571*	4.502	.027	-24.3482	-1.3661
2.00	1.00	6.8571	4.502	.304	-4.6339	18.3482
	3.00	-6.0000	4.502	.396	-17.4911	5.4911
3.00	1.00	12.8571*	4.502	.027	1.3661	24.3482
	2.00	6.0000	4.502	.396	-5.4911	17.4911

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

This table presents us with every possible combination of **levels** of our **independent variable**. The first row represents Instructor 1 compared to Instructor 2. Next is Instructor 1 compared to Instructor 3. Next is Instructor 2 compared to Instructor 1. (Note that this is redundant with the first row.) Next is Instructor 2 compared to Instructor 3, and so on.

The column labeled *Sig.* represents the **Type I error** (p) rate for the simple (2-level) comparison in that row. In our example above, Instructor 1 is significantly different from Instructor 3, but Instructor 1 is not significantly different from Instructor 2, and Instructor 2 is not significantly different from Instructor 3.

Drawing Conclusions

Drawing conclusions for ANOVA requires that we indicate the value of F , the degrees of freedom, and the **significance** level. A significant ANOVA should be followed by the results of a post-hoc analysis and a verbal statement of the results.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In the preceding example, we could state the following:

We computed a one-way ANOVA comparing the final exam scores of participants who took a course from one of three different instructors. A significant difference was found among the instructors ($F(2,18) = 4.08, p < .05$). **Tukey's HSD** was used to determine the nature of the differences between the instructors. This analysis revealed that students who had Instructor 1 scored lower ($M = 79.57, sd = 7.96$) than students who had Instructor 3 ($M = 92.43, sd = 5.50$). Students who had Instructor 2 ($M = 86.43, sd = 10.92$) were not significantly different from either of the other two groups.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If we had conducted the analysis using PRETEST as our **dependent variable** instead of FINAL, we would have received the following output:

Descriptives

pretest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	7	67.5714	8.38366	3.16872	59.8178	75.3250	56.00	79.00
2.00	7	63.1429	10.60548	4.00849	53.3344	72.9513	47.00	78.00
3.00	7	59.2857	6.55017	2.47573	53.2278	65.3436	49.00	71.00
Total	21	63.3333	8.92935	1.94854	59.2687	67.3979	47.00	79.00

ANOVA

pretest

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	240.667	2	120.333	1.600	.229
Within Groups	1354.000	18	75.222		
Total	1594.667	20			

The ANOVA was not significant, so there is no need to refer to the Multiple Comparisons table. Given this result, we may state the following:

The pretest means of students who took a course from three different instructors were compared using a one-way ANOVA. No significant difference was found ($F(2,18) = 1.60, p > .05$). The students from the three different classes did not differ significantly at the start of the term. Students who had Instructor 1 had a mean score of 67.57 ($sd = 8.38$). Students who had Instructor 2 had a mean score of 63.14 ($sd = 10.61$). Students who had Instructor 3 had a mean score of 59.29 ($sd = 6.55$).

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, determine if the average math scores of single, married, and divorced participants are significantly different. Write a statement of results.

Section 7.3 Factorial ANOVA

Description

The factorial ANOVA is one in which there is more than one **independent variable**. A 2×2 ANOVA, for instance, has two **independent variables**, each with two **levels**. A $3 \times 2 \times 2$ ANOVA has three **independent variables**. One has three **levels**, and the other two have two **levels**. Factorial ANOVA is very powerful because it allows us to assess the effects of each **independent variable**, plus the effects of the **interaction**.

Interactions occur when the effect of one variable impacts the effect of another variable on the **dependent variable**. For instance, there is an **interaction** between soap and water, influencing their effects on their cleaning ability. In this instance, the effect of soap and water together is greater than their individual effects added together.

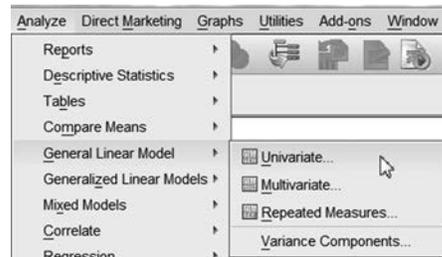
Assumptions

Factorial ANOVA requires all of the assumptions of one-way ANOVA (i.e., the **dependent variable** must be at the **interval** or **ratio** level and normally distributed). In addition, the **independent variables** should be independent of each other.

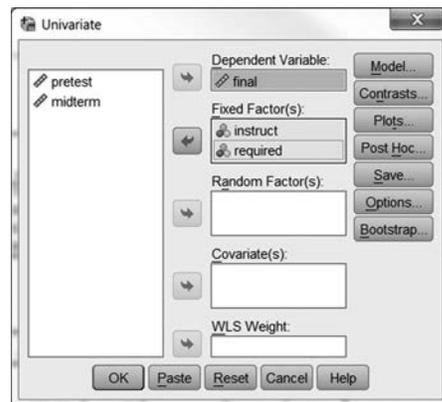
SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires one variable for the **dependent variable** and one variable for each **independent variable**. If we have *any independent variable* that is represented as multiple variables (e.g., PRETEST and POSTTEST), we must use the repeated-measures ANOVA.

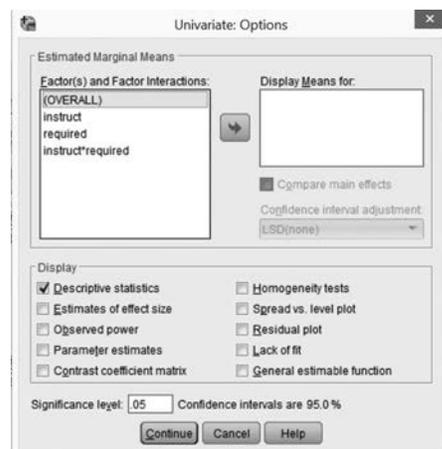
Running the Command



This example uses the GRADES.sav data file from earlier in this chapter. Click *Analyze*, then *General Linear Model*, then *Univariate*.



This will bring up the main **dialog box** for Univariate ANOVA. Select the **dependent variable** and place it in the *Dependent Variable* blank (use FINAL for this example). Select one of your **independent variables** (INSTRUCT in this case), and place it in the *Fixed Factor(s)* box. Place the second **independent variable** (REQUIRED) in the *Fixed Factor(s)* box. Having defined the analysis, now click *Options*.



When the Options **dialog box** comes up, click *Descriptive statistics*. This will provide you with **means** for each main effect and **interaction** term. Click *Continue*.

If you were to select *Post Hoc*, SPSS would run post-hoc analyses for the main effects but not for the **interaction** term. Click *OK* to run the analysis.

Reading the Output

At the bottom of the output, you will find the means. We have six **means** representing the **interaction** of the two variables (this was a 3×2 design).

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: final

instruct	required	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1.00	No	79.6667	10.06645	3
	Yes	79.5000	7.68115	4
	Total	79.5714	7.95523	7
2.00	No	84.6667	15.50269	3
	Yes	87.7500	8.53913	4
	Total	86.4286	10.92180	7
3.00	No	89.6667	7.02377	3
	Yes	94.5000	3.78594	4
	Total	92.4286	5.50325	7
Total	No	84.6667	10.79352	9
	Yes	87.2500	8.99621	12
	Total	86.1429	9.63476	21

Participants who had Instructor 1 (for whom the class was not required) had a **mean** final exam score of 79.67. Students who had Instructor 1 (for whom it was required) had a **mean** final exam score of 79.50, and so on.

The example we just ran is called a two-way ANOVA. This is because we had two **independent variables**. With a two-way ANOVA, we get three answers: a main effect for INSTRUCT, a main effect for REQUIRED, and an **interaction** result for INSTRUCT*REQUIRED.

The source table below gives us these three answers (in the INSTRUCT, REQUIRED, and INSTRUCT * REQUIRED rows).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: FINAL

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	635.821 ^a	5	127.164	1.563	.230
Intercept	151998.893	1	151998.893	1867.691	.000
INSTRUCT	536.357	2	268.179	3.295	.065
REQUIRED	34.321	1	34.321	.422	.526
INSTRUCT * REQUIRED	22.071	2	11.036	.136	.874
Error	1220.750	15	81.383		
Total	157689.000	21			
Corrected Total	1856.571	20			

a. R Squared = .342 (Adjusted R Squared = .123)

In the above example, none of the main effects or **interactions** were significant. In the statements of results, you must indicate *F*, two degrees of freedom (effect and residual/error), the **significance** level, and a verbal statement for each of the answers (three in this case). Note that

most statistics books give a much simpler version of an ANOVA source table where the Corrected Model, Intercept, and Corrected Total rows are not included.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

If we had obtained significant results in this example, we could make the statement that follows. (These are fictitious results. For the results that correspond to the example above, please see the section on phrasing results that are not significant.)

A 3 (instructor) \times 2 (required course) between-subjects factorial ANOVA was calculated comparing the final exam scores for participants who had one of three instructors and who took the course either as a required course or as an elective. A significant main effect for instructor was found ($F(2,15) = 10.112, p < .05$). Students who had Instructor 1 had lower final exam scores ($M = 79.57, sd = 7.96$) than students who had Instructor 3 ($M = 92.43, sd = 5.50$). Students who had Instructor 2 ($M = 86.43, sd = 10.92$) were not significantly different from either of the other two groups. A significant main effect for whether or not the course was required was found ($F(1,15) = 38.44, p < .01$). Students who took the course because it was required did better ($M = 91.69, sd = 7.68$) than students who took the course as an elective ($M = 77.13, sd = 5.72$). The interaction was not significant ($F(2,15) = 1.15, p > .05$). The effect of the instructor was not influenced by whether or not the students took the course because it was required.

Note that, in the above example, we would have had to conduct **Tukey's HSD** to determine the differences for INSTRUCT (using the *Post Hoc* command). This is not necessary for REQUIRED because it has only two **levels** (and one must be different from the other).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

Our actual results were not significant, so we can state the following:

A 3 (instructor) \times 2 (required course) between-subjects factorial ANOVA was calculated comparing the final exam scores for participants who had one of three instructors and who took the course as a required course or as an elective. The main effect for instructor was not significant ($F(2,15) = 3.30, p > .05$). The main effect for whether or not it was a required course was also not significant ($F(1,15) = .42, p > .05$). Finally, the interaction was not significant ($F(2,15) = .136, p > .05$). Thus, it appears that neither the instructor nor whether or not the course is required has any significant effect on final exam scores.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B, determine if salaries are influenced by sex, job classification, or an **interaction** between sex and job classification. Write a statement of results.

Section 7.4 Repeated-Measures ANOVA

Description

Repeated-measures ANOVA extends the basic ANOVA procedure to a within-subjects **independent variable** (when participants provide data for more than one **level** of an **independent variable**). It functions like a paired-samples *t* test when more than two **levels** are being compared.

Assumptions

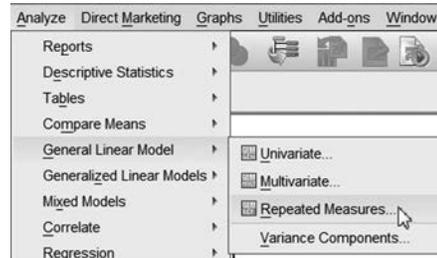
The **dependent variable** should be normally distributed and measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. Multiple measurements of the **dependent variable** should be from the same (or related) participants.

SPSS Data Format

At least three variables are required. Each variable in the SPSS data file should represent a single **dependent variable** at a single **level** of the **independent variable**. Thus, an analysis of a design with four **levels** of an **independent variable** would require four variables in the SPSS data file.

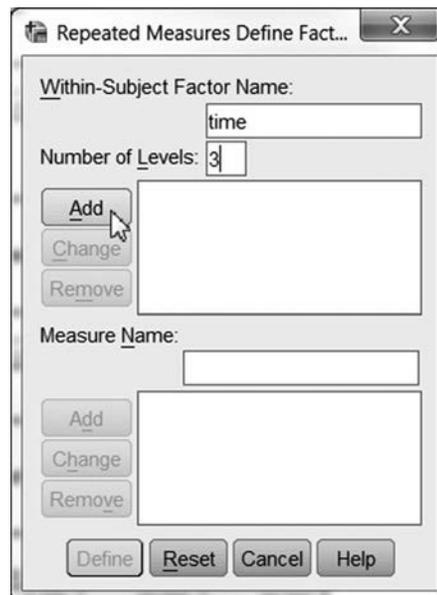
If any variable represents a between-subjects effect, use the *Repeated Measures ANOVA* command instead.

Running the Command



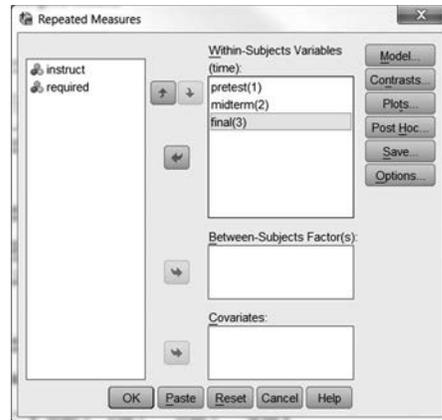
This example uses the GRADES.sav sample dataset. Recall that GRADES.sav includes three sets of grades—PRETEST, MIDTERM, and FINAL—that represent three different times during the semester. This allows us to analyze the effects of time on the test performance of our sample population (hence the within-groups comparison). Click *Analyze*, then *General Linear Model*, then *Repeated Measures*.

Note that this procedure requires an optional module. If you do not have this command, you do not have the necessary module installed. This procedure is NOT included in the SPSS Statistics GradPack Base.

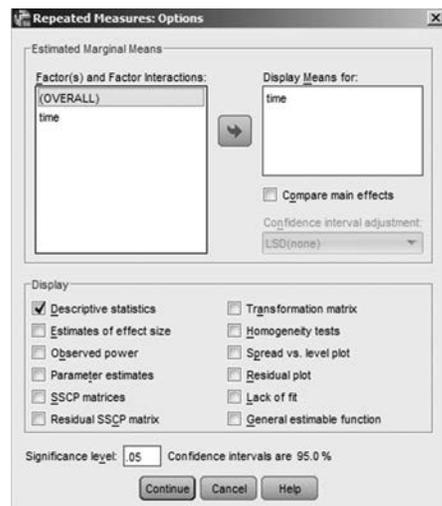


After selecting the command, you will be presented with the Repeated Measures Define Factor(s) **dialog box**. This is where you identify the Within-Subject Factor (we will call it TIME). Enter 3 for the Number of Levels (three exams) and click *Add*.

If we had more than one **independent variable** that had repeated measures, we could enter its name and click *Add*. Now click *Define*.



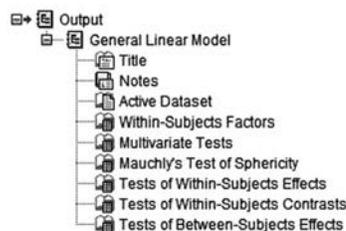
You will be presented with the Repeated Measures **dialog box**. Transfer PRETEST, MIDTERM, and FINAL to the *Within-Subjects Variables* section. The variable names should be ordered according to when they occurred in time (i.e., the values of the **independent variable** that they represent).



Click *Options*, and the dialog box here will appear.

By moving TIME to the right and selecting *Descriptive statistics*, SPSS will calculate the means for the TIME effect. Click *CONTINUE* to close the **dialog box** and *OK* to run the command.

Reading the Output



This procedure uses the *GLM* command. GLM stands for *General Linear Model*. It is a very powerful command, and many sections of output are beyond the scope of this text (see Output outline shown above). However, for the basic repeated-measures ANOVA, we are interested only in the *Tests of Within-Subjects Effects*. Note that the SPSS output will include many other sections of output, which you can ignore at this point.

The *Tests of Within-Subjects Effects* output should look very similar to the output from the other ANOVA commands. In the example below, the effect of TIME has an F value of 121.90 with 2 and 40 degrees of freedom (we use the line for *Sphericity Assumed*). It is significant at less than the .001 level. When describing these results, we should indicate the type of test, F value, degrees of freedom, and **significance** level.

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
time	Sphericity Assumed	5673.746	2	2836.873	121.895	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	5673.746	1.211	4685.594	121.895	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	5673.746	1.247	4550.168	121.895	.000
	Lower-bound	5673.746	1.000	5673.746	121.895	.000
Error(time)	Sphericity Assumed	930.921	40	23.273		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	930.921	24.218	38.439		
	Huynh-Feldt	930.921	24.939	37.328		
	Lower-bound	930.921	20.000	46.546		

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	pretest	63.3333	21	8.92935	1.94854
	midterm	78.6190	21	9.66166	2.10835
Pair 2	midterm	78.6190	21	9.66166	2.10835
	final	86.1429	21	9.63476	2.10248
Pair 3	pretest	63.3333	21	8.92935	1.94854
	final	86.1429	21	9.63476	2.10248

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

Because the ANOVA results were significant, we need to conduct some sort of post-hoc analysis. One of the main limitations of SPSS is the difficulty in performing post-hoc analyses for within-subjects factors. With SPSS, the easiest solution to this problem is to conduct **protected dependent t tests** with repeated-measures ANOVA. There are more powerful (and more appropriate) post-hoc analyses, but SPSS will not compute them for us. For more information, consult your instructor or a more advanced statistics text.

To conduct the protected t tests, we will compare PRETEST to MIDTERM, MIDTERM to FINAL, and PRETEST to FINAL, using paired-samples t tests. Because we are conducting three tests and, therefore, inflating our **Type I error** rate, we will use a **significance** level of .017 (.05/3) instead of .05. Note that to conduct this analysis, we will need to use the paired-samples t test command and enter all three pairs.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	pretest - midterm	-15.286	3.964	.865	-17.090	-13.481	-17.670	20	.000
Pair 2	midterm - final	-7.524	6.585	1.437	-10.521	-4.526	-5.236	20	.000
Pair 3	pretest - final	-22.810	8.976	1.959	-26.895	-18.724	-11.646	20	.000

The three comparisons each had a **significance** level of less than .017, so we can conclude that the scores improved from pretest to midterm and again from midterm to final. To generate the **descriptive statistics**, we have to run the *Descriptives* command for each variable.

Because the results of our example were significant, we could state the following:

A one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was calculated comparing the exam scores of participants at three different times: pretest, midterm, and final. A significant effect was found ($F(2,40) = 121.90, p < .001$). Follow-up protected t tests revealed that scores increased significantly from pretest ($M = 63.33, sd = 8.93$) to midterm ($M = 78.62, sd = 9.66$), and again from midterm to final ($M = 86.14, sd = 9.63$).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

With results that are not significant, we could state the following (the F values here have been made up for purposes of illustration):

A one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was calculated comparing the exam scores of participants at three different times: pretest, midterm, and final. No significant effect was found ($F(2,40) = 1.90, p > .05$). No significant difference exists among pretest ($M = 63.33, sd = 8.93$), midterm ($M = 78.62, sd = 9.66$), and final ($M = 86.14, sd = 9.63$) means.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 3 in Appendix B. Determine if the anxiety level of participants changed over time (regardless of which treatment they received) using a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA and protected dependent t tests. Write a statement of results.

Section 7.5 Mixed-Design ANOVA

Description

The mixed-design ANOVA (sometimes called a split-plot design) tests the effects of more than one **independent variable**. At least one of the **independent variables** must be within-subjects (repeated measures). At least one of the **independent variables** must be between-subjects.

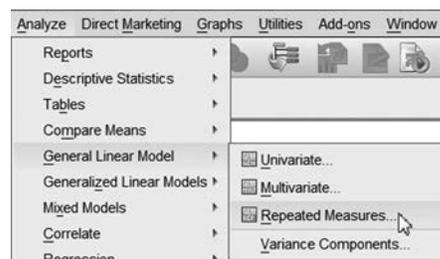
Assumptions

The **dependent variable** should be normally distributed and measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**.

SPSS Data Format

The **dependent variable** should be represented as one variable (one column) for each level of the within-subjects **independent variables**. Another variable (column) should be present in the data file for each between-subjects variable. Thus, a 2×2 mixed-design ANOVA would require three columns: two representing the **dependent variable** (one at each level) and one representing the between-subjects **independent variable**.

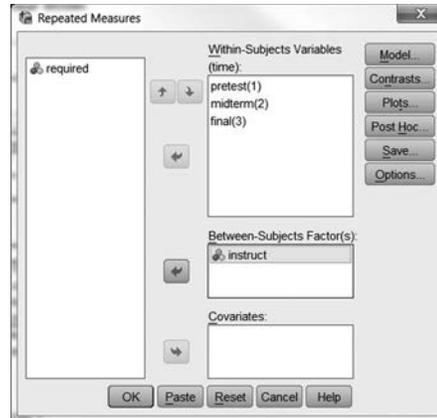
Running the Command



The *General Linear Model* command runs the *Repeated Measures ANOVA* command. Click *Analyze*, then *General Linear Model*, then *Repeated Measures*.

Note that this procedure requires an optional module. If you do not have this command, you do not have the necessary module installed. This procedure is NOT included in the SPSS Statistics GradPack Base.

The *Repeated Measures* command should be used if any of the **independent variables** are repeated measures (within-subjects).



This example also uses the GRADES.sav data file. Enter PRE-TEST, MIDTERM, and FINAL in the *Within-Subjects Variables* block. (See the *Repeated Measures ANOVA* command in Section 7.4 for an explanation.) This example is a 3×3 mixed-design. There are two **independent variables** (TIME and INSTRUCT), each with three **levels**. We previously entered the information for TIME in the Repeated Measures Define Factors **dialog box**.

We need to transfer INSTRUCT into the *Between-Subjects Factor(s)* block.

Click *Options* and select means for all of the main effects and the **interaction**. Click *OK* to run the command.

Reading the Output

As with the standard *Repeated Measures* command, the *GLM* procedure provides a significant amount of output we will not use. For a mixed-design ANOVA, we are interested in two sections. The first is *Tests of Within-Subjects Effects*.

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
time	Sphericity Assumed	5673.746	2	2836.873	817.954	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	5673.746	1.181	4802.586	817.954	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	5673.746	1.356	4183.583	817.954	.000
	Lower-bound	5673.746	1.000	5673.746	817.954	.000
time * instruct	Sphericity Assumed	806.063	4	201.516	58.103	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	806.063	2.363	341.149	58.103	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	806.063	2.712	297.179	58.103	.000
	Lower-bound	806.063	2.000	403.032	58.103	.000
Error(time)	Sphericity Assumed	124.857	36	3.468		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	124.857	21.265	5.871		
	Huynh-Feldt	124.857	24.411	5.115		
	Lower-bound	124.857	18.000	6.937		

This section gives two of the three answers we need (the main effect for TIME and the **interaction** result for TIME \times INSTRUCTOR). The second section of output is *Tests of Between-Subjects Effects* (sample output is below). Here, we get the answers that do not contain any within-subjects effects. For our example, we get the main effect for INSTRUCT. Both of these sections must be combined to produce the full answer for our analysis.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	364192.063	1	364192.063	1500.595	.000
instruct	18.698	2	9.349	.039	.962
Error	4368.571	18	242.698		

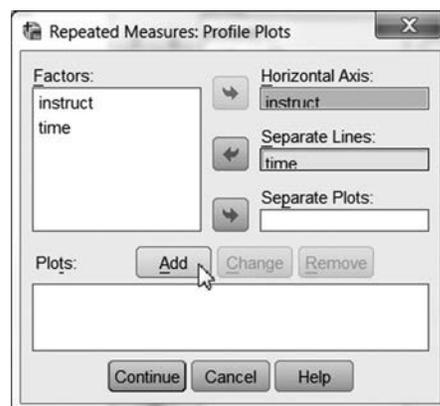
If we obtain significant effects, we must perform some sort of post-hoc analysis. Again, this is one of the limitations of SPSS. No easy way to perform the appropriate post-hoc test for repeated-measures (within-subjects) factors is available. Ask your instructor for assistance with this.

When describing the results, you should include F , the degrees of freedom, and the **significance** level for each main effect and **interaction**. In addition, some **descriptive statistics** must be included (either give means or include a figure).

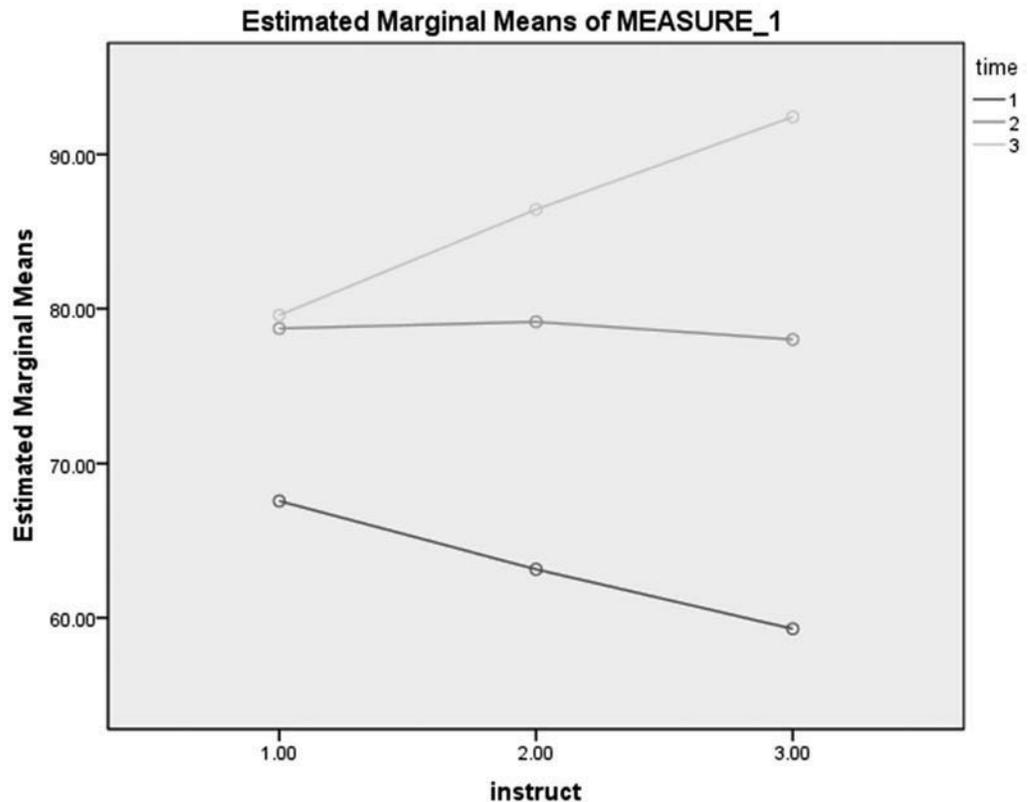
Phrasing Results That Are Significant

There are (at least) three answers for all mixed-design ANOVAs. See Section 7.3 on factorial ANOVA for more details about how to interpret and phrase the results. For the above example, we could state the following in the results section (note that this assumes that appropriate post-hoc tests have been conducted):

A 3×3 mixed-design ANOVA was calculated to examine the effects of the instructor (Instructors 1, 2, and 3) and time (pretest, midterm, and final) on scores. A significant time \times instructor interaction was present ($F(4,36) = 58.10$, $p < .001$). In addition, the main effect for time was significant ($F(2,36) = 817.95$, $p < .001$). The main effect for instructor was not significant ($F(2,18) = .039$, $p > .05$).



With significant **interactions**, it is often helpful to provide a graph with the **descriptive statistics**. By selecting the *Plots* option in the main **dialog box**, you can make graphs of the **interaction** like the one below. **Interactions** add considerable complexity to the interpretation of statistical results. Consult a research methods text or ask your instructor for more help with **interactions**.



Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If our results had not been significant, we could have stated the following (note that the F values are fictitious):

A 3×3 mixed-design ANOVA was calculated to examine the effects of the instructor (Instructors 1, 2, and 3) and time (pretest, midterm, and final) on scores. No significant main effects or interactions were found. The time \times instructor interaction ($F(4,36) = 1.10, p > .05$), the main effect for time ($F(2,36) = 1.95, p > .05$), and the main effect for instructor ($F(2,18) = .039, p > .05$) were not significant. Exam scores were not influenced by either time or instructor.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 3 in Appendix B. Determine if anxiety **levels** changed over time for each of the treatment (CONDITION) types. How did time change anxiety **levels** for each treatment? Write a statement of results.

Section 7.6 Analysis of Covariance

Description

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) allows you to remove the effect of a known **covariate**. In this way, it becomes a statistical method of control. With methodological controls (e.g., **random assignment**), internal **validity** is gained. When such methodological controls are not possible, statistical controls can be used.

ANCOVA can be performed by using the *GLM* command if you have repeated-measures factors. Because the *GLM* command is not included in the Base Statistics module, it is not included here.

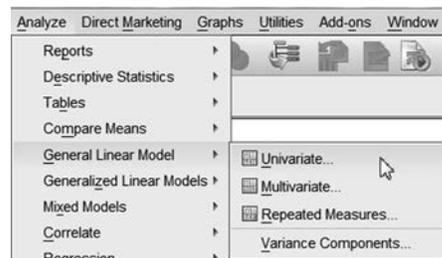
Assumptions

ANCOVA requires that the **covariate** be significantly correlated with the **dependent variable**. The **dependent variable** and the **covariate** should be at the **interval** or **ratio levels**. In addition, both should be normally distributed.

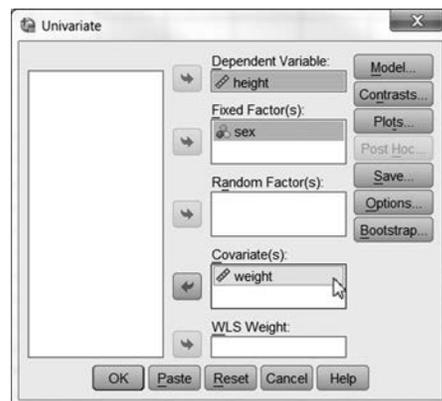
SPSS Data Format

The SPSS data file must contain one variable for each **independent variable**, one variable representing the **dependent variable**, and at least one **covariate**.

Running the Command



The *Factorial ANOVA* command is used to run ANCOVA. To run it, click *Analyze*, then *General Linear Model*, then *Univariate*. Follow the directions discussed for factorial ANOVA, using the HEIGHT.sav sample data file. Place the variable HEIGHT as your *Dependent Variable*. Enter SEX as your *Fixed Factor*, then WEIGHT as the *Covariate*. This last step determines the difference between regular factorial ANOVA and ANCOVA. Click *OK* to run the ANCOVA.



Reading the Output

The output consists of one main source table (shown below). This table gives you the main effects and **interactions** you would have received with a normal factorial ANOVA. In addition, there is a row for each **covariate**. In our example, we have one main effect (SEX) and one **covariate** (WEIGHT). Normally, we examine the **covariate** line only to confirm that the **covariate** is significantly related to the **dependent variable**.

Drawing Conclusions

This sample analysis was performed to determine if males and females differ in height after weight is accounted for. We know that weight is related to height. Rather than match participants or use methodological controls, we can statistically remove the effect of weight.

When giving the results of ANCOVA, we must give F , degrees of freedom, and **significance** levels for all main effects, **interactions**, and **covariates**. If main effects or **interactions** are significant, post-hoc tests must be conducted. **Descriptive statistics** (**mean** and **standard deviation**) for each **level** of the **independent variable** should also be given. To obtain descriptive statistics check *Descriptive statistics* under *Options*.

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: HEIGHT

SEX	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	69.3750	3.70087	8
Female	64.5000	2.32993	8
Total	66.9375	3.90672	16

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: height

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	215.027 ^a	2	107.513	100.476	.000
Intercept	5.580	1	5.580	5.215	.040
weight	119.964	1	119.964	112.112	.000
sex	66.367	1	66.367	62.023	.000
Error	13.911	13	1.070		
Total	71919.000	16			
Corrected Total	228.938	15			

a. R Squared = .939 (Adjusted R Squared = .930)

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

The previous example obtained a significant result, so we could state the following:

A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was calculated to examine the effect of sex on height, covarying out the effect of weight. Weight was significantly related to height ($F(1,13) = 112.11, p < .001$). The main effect for sex was significant ($F(1,13) = 62.02, p < .001$), with males significantly taller ($M = 69.38, sd = 3.70$) than females ($M = 64.50, sd = 2.33$).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If the **covariate** is not significant, we need to repeat the analysis without including the **covariate** (i.e., run a normal ANOVA).

For ANCOVA results that are not significant, you could state the following (note that the F values are made up for this example):

A one-way between-subjects ANCOVA was calculated to examine the effect of sex on height, covarying out the effect of weight. Weight was significantly related to height ($F(1,13) = 112.11, p < .001$). The main effect for sex was not significant

($F(1,13) = 62.02, p > .05$), with males not being significantly taller ($M = 69.38, sd = 3.70$) than females ($M = 64.50, sd = 2.33$), even after covarying out the effect of weight.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B, determine if salaries are different for males and females. Repeat the analysis, statistically controlling for years of service. Write a statement of results for each. Compare and contrast your two answers.

Section 7.7 Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

Description

Multivariate tests are those that involve more than one **dependent variable**. While it is possible to conduct several univariate tests (one for each **dependent variable**), this causes **Type I error** inflation. Multivariate tests look at all **dependent variables** at once, in much the same way that ANOVA looks at all **levels** of an **independent variable** at once.

Assumptions

MANOVA assumes that you have multiple **dependent variables** that are related to each other. Each **dependent variable** should be normally distributed and measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**.

SPSS Data Format

The SPSS data file should have a variable for each **dependent variable**. One additional variable is required for each between-subjects **independent variable**. It is also possible to do a MANCOVA, a repeated-measures MANOVA, and a repeated-measures MANCOVA. These extensions require additional variables in the data file.

Running the Command

Note that this procedure requires an optional module. If you do not have this command, you do not have the necessary module installed. This procedure is NOT included in the SPSS Statistics Grad-Pack Base.

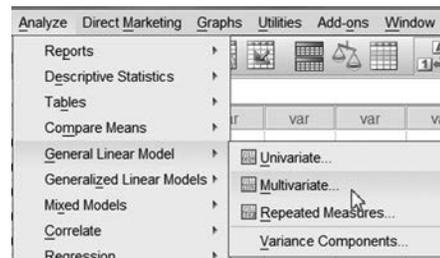
The data below represent SAT and GRE scores for 18 participants. Six participants received no special training, six received short-term training before taking the tests, and six received long-term training. GROUP is coded 0 = no training, 1 = short-term, 2 = long-term. Enter the data and save them as SAT.sav.

SAT	GRE	GROUP
580	600	0
520	520	0
500	510	0
410	400	0
650	630	0
480	480	0
500	490	1
640	650	1
500	480	1
500	510	1

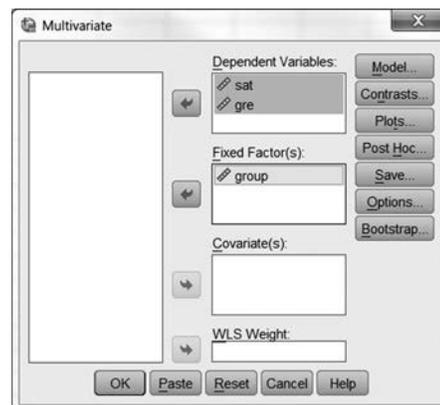
(Continued)

(Continued)

SAT	GRE	GROUP
580	570	1
490	500	1
520	520	2
620	630	2
550	560	2
500	510	2
540	560	2
600	600	2



Locate the *Multivariate* command by clicking *Analyze*, then *General Linear Model*, then *Multivariate*.



This will bring up the main **dialog box**. Enter the **dependent variables** (SAT and GRE, in this case) in the *Dependent Variables* box. Enter the **independent variable** (GROUP, in this case) in the *Fixed Factor(s)* box. Click *OK* to run the command.

Reading the Output

We are interested in two primary sections of output. The first one gives the results of the multivariate tests. The section labeled GROUP is the one we want. This tells us whether GROUP had an effect on any of our **dependent variables**. Four different types of multivariate test results are given. The most widely used is *Wilks' Lambda*. Thus, the answer for the MANOVA is a *Lambda* of .828, with 4 and 28 degrees of freedom. That value is not significant.

Multivariate Tests^c

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.988	569.187 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.012	569.187 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	81.312	569.187 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	81.312	569.187 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
group	Pillai's Trace	.174	.713	4.000	30.000	.590
	Wilks' Lambda	.828	.693 ^a	4.000	28.000	.603
	Hotelling's Trace	.206	.669	4.000	26.000	.619
	Roy's Largest Root	.196	1.469 ^b	2.000	15.000	.261

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+group

The second section of output we want gives the results of the univariate tests (ANOVAs) for each **dependent variable**.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	sat	3077.778 ^a	2	1538.889	.360	.703
	gre	5200.000 ^b	2	2600.000	.587	.568
Intercept	sat	5205688.889	1	5205688.889	1219.448	.000
	gre	5248800.000	1	5248800.000	1185.723	.000
group	sat	3077.778	2	1538.889	.360	.703
	gre	5200.000	2	2600.000	.587	.568
Error	sat	64033.333	15	4268.889		
	gre	66400.000	15	4426.667		
Total	sat	5272800.000	18			
	gre	5320400.000	18			
Corrected Total	sat	67111.111	17			
	gre	71600.000	17			

a. R Squared = .046 (Adjusted R Squared = -.081)

b. R Squared = .073 (Adjusted R Squared = -.051)

Drawing Conclusions

We interpret the results of the univariate tests only if the group *Wilks' Lambda* is significant. Our results are not significant, but we will first consider how to interpret results that are significant.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

If we had received the output below, we would have had a significant MANOVA, and we could have stated the following:

A one-way MANOVA was calculated examining the effect of training (none, short-term, or long-term) on *SAT* and *GRE* scores. A significant effect was found ($\text{Lambda}(4,28) = .423, p = .014$). Follow-up univariate ANOVAs indicated that *SAT* scores were significantly improved by training ($F(2,15) = 7.250, p = .006$). *GRE* scores were also significantly improved by training ($F(2,15) = 9.465, p = .002$).

Multivariate Tests^c

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.989	643.592 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.011	643.592 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	91.942	643.592 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	91.942	643.592 ^a	2.000	14.000	.000
group	Pillai's Trace	.579	3.059	4.000	30.000	.032
	Wilks' Lambda	.423	3.757 ^a	4.000	28.000	.014
	Hotelling's Trace	1.355	4.404	4.000	26.000	.008
	Roy's Largest Root	1.350	10.125 ^b	2.000	15.000	.002

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c. Design: Intercept+group

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	sat	62077.778 ^a	2	31038.889	7.250	.006
	gre	86344.444 ^b	2	43172.222	9.465	.002
Intercept	sat	5859605.556	1	5859605.556	1368.711	.000
	gre	5997338.889	1	5997338.889	1314.886	.000
group	sat	62077.778	2	31038.889	7.250	.006
	gre	86344.444	2	43172.222	9.465	.002
Error	sat	84216.667	15	4281.111		
	gre	68416.667	15	4561.111		
Total	sat	5985900.000	18			
	gre	6152100.000	18			
Corrected Total	sat	126294.444	17			
	gre	154761.111	17			

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

The actual example presented (based upon the SAT.sav data file) was not significant. Therefore, we could state the following in the results section:

A one-way MANOVA was calculated examining the effect of training (none, short-term, or long-term) on *SAT* and *GRE* scores. No significant effect was found ($\Lambda(4,28) = .828, p > .05$). Neither *SAT* nor *GRE* scores were significantly influenced by training.

Nonparametric Inferential Statistics

Nonparametric tests are used when the corresponding parametric procedure is inappropriate. Normally, this is because the **dependent variable** is not **interval-** or **ratio-scaled**. It can also be because the **dependent variable** is not normally distributed. If the data of interest are frequency counts, nonparametric statistics may also be appropriate.

SPSS has a powerful *Nonparametric Tests* command that includes enhanced reports, which help users choose the appropriate test and interpret the result correctly.

Section 8.1 Chi-Square Goodness of Fit

Description

The chi-square goodness of fit test determines whether or not sample proportions match the theoretical values. For instance, it could be used to determine if a die is loaded or fair. It could also be used to compare the proportion of children born with birth defects to the population value (e.g., to determine if a certain neighborhood has a statistically higher-than-normal rate of birth defects).

Assumptions

We need to make very few assumptions. There are no assumptions about the shape of the distribution. The expected frequencies for each category should be at least 1, and no more than 20% of the categories should have expected frequencies of less than 5.

SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires only a single variable. It can be measured on any scale, although SPSS requires it to be defined as nominal.

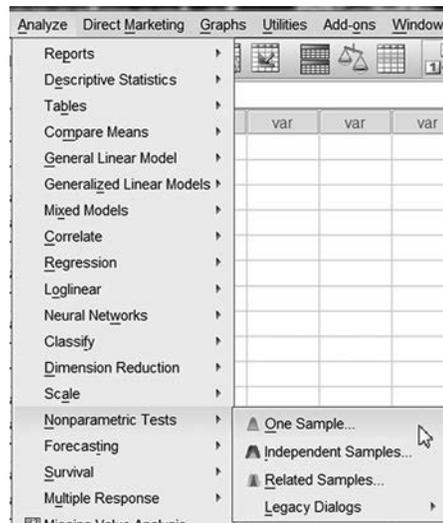
Running the Command

We will create the following dataset and call it COINS.sav. The following data represent the flipping of each of two coins 20 times (H is coded as heads, T as tails).

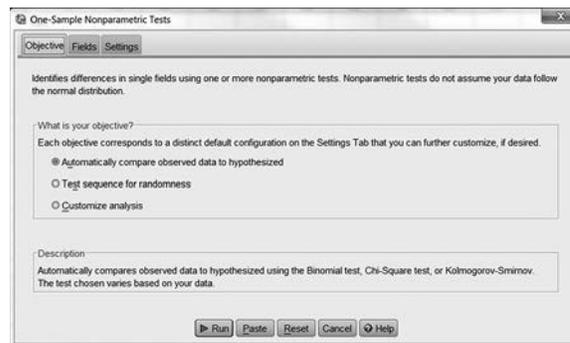
Coin 1: H T H H T H H T H H H T T T H T H T T H

Coin 2: T T H H T H T H T T H H T H H T H T H H

Name the two variables COIN1 and COIN2, and code H as 1 and T as 2. The data file that you create will have 20 rows of data and two columns, called COIN1 and COIN2. Define the variables as type: Nominal.



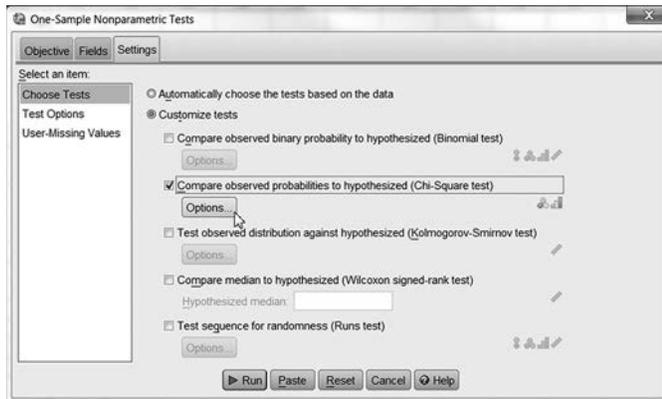
To run the *Chi-Square* command, click *Analyze*, then *Nonparametric Tests*, then *One Sample*. This will bring up the **dialog box** for the *One-Sample Nonparametric Tests* command. You will notice that this new procedure has a **dialog box** that is quite different from the interfaces for other SPSS commands. It was completely rewritten using SPSS's new modeling procedures starting with Version 18.



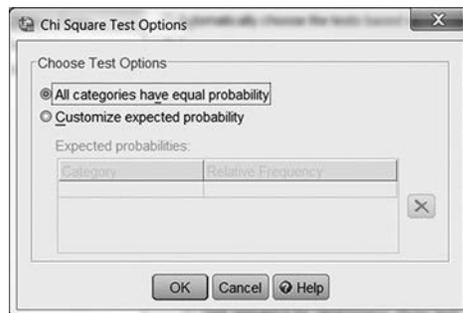
Our objective for a chi-square goodness of fit test is to determine if the distribution of the data is equal to the hypothesized distribution. Therefore, just leave the *Objective* tab the same and click on the *Fields* tab at the top of the window.



You will need to click *Use custom field assignments* and then move the variable COIN1 to the *Test Fields* area on the right.



This new procedure is actually quite smart and will examine your data and choose the most appropriate test for you. In order to demonstrate the chi-square test of independence, however, we will force it to run only that test by selecting the *Settings* tab across the top, then clicking *Customize tests* under *Choose Tests*, and then checking the *Compare observed probabilities to hypothesized (Chi-Square test)* option.



A fair coin has an equal chance of coming up heads or tails. Therefore, there is nothing further we need to do. If, however, different values had different expected probabilities, we would click *Options*, where we would have an opportunity to *Customize expected probability*. Close the Chi-Square Test Options window by clicking *Cancel*, and then click *Run*.

Reading the Output

Hypothesis Test Summary

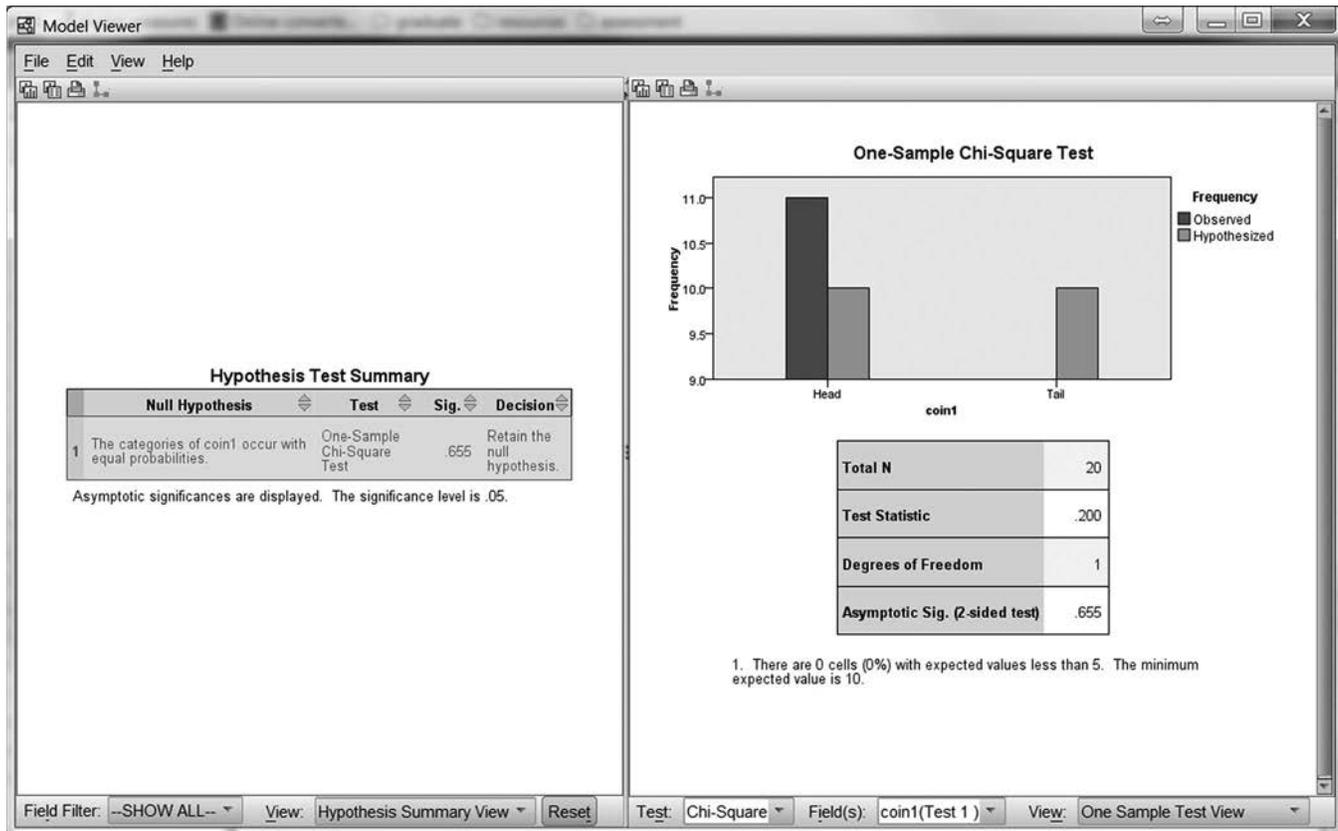
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The categories of coin1 occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.655	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

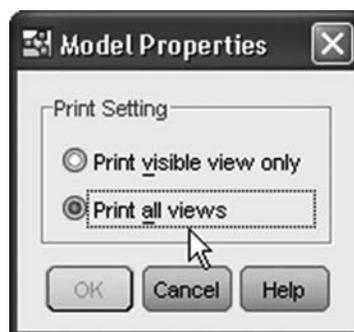
This new procedure completely changes the way output is presented when compared with other procedures in SPSS. The new output states the **null hypothesis** in standard English, tells you what test was run, gives a **significance** level, and tells you whether or not to reject the **null hypothesis**.

In the example shown above, we are clearly told that the one-sample chi-square test (chi-square goodness of fit test) tested whether the values of COIN1 had equal probabilities (50% chance of heads and 50% chance of tails). We were told to “Retain the **null hypothesis**” (which most standard statistics texts would call “fail to reject the **null hypothesis**”).

One of the very powerful new features is the SPSS ModelViewer. Double-click on the output and the ModelViewer will open.



The Model Viewer expands the standard answer by automatically presenting graphs and other information necessary to interpret or report your results. It is here that you find the more standard values of the chi-square itself, degrees of freedom, and so on. Note that the value of the observed frequency for tails is equal to 9, and it is therefore not shown on the graph because the Y-axis starts at 9.



Note: In order to print the full output, you need to select *File*, then *Properties* in the Model Viewer, and then select *Print all views*.

Drawing Conclusions

A significant chi-square test indicates that the data vary from the expected values. A test that is not significant indicates that the data are consistent with the expected values.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In describing the results, you should state the value of chi-square (whose symbol is χ^2), the degrees of freedom, the **significance** level, and a description of the results. For instance, with a significant chi-square (for a sample different from our example, such as if we had used a loaded die), we could state the following (note that this example uses hypothetical values):

A chi-square goodness of fit test was calculated comparing the frequency of occurrence of each value of a die. It was hypothesized that each value would occur an equal number of times. Significant deviation from the hypothesized values was found ($\chi^2(5) = 25.48, p < .05$). The die appears to be loaded.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

If the analysis produces no significant difference, as in the previous example, we could state the following (note that you will need to double-click the output and open the ModelViewer to obtain these numbers):

A chi-square goodness of fit test was calculated comparing the frequency of occurrence of heads and tails on a coin. It was hypothesized that each value would occur an equal number of times. No significant deviation from the hypothesized values was found ($\chi^2(1) = .20, p > .05$). The coin appears to be fair.

Practice Exercise

Use Practice Dataset 2 in Appendix B. In the population from which the sample was drawn, 20% of employees are clerical, 50% are technical, and 30% are professional. Determine whether or not the sample drawn conforms to these values. Hint: You will need to *customize expected probabilities* and enter the category values (1, 2, 3) and relative percentages (20, 50, 30). Also, be sure you have entered the variable CLASSIFY as nominal.

Section 8.2 Chi-Square Test of Independence

Description

The chi-square test of independence tests whether or not two variables are independent of each other. For instance, flips of a coin should be **independent events**, so knowing the outcome of one coin toss should not tell us anything about the second coin toss. The chi-square test of independence is essentially a nonparametric version of the **interaction** term in ANOVA.

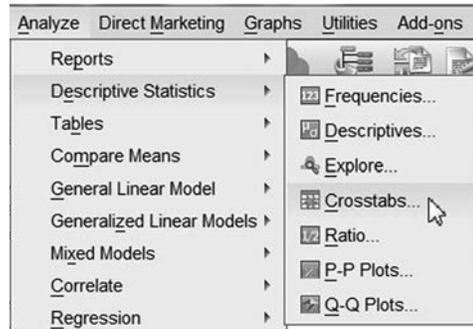
Assumptions

Very few assumptions are needed. For instance, we make no assumptions about the shape of the distribution. The expected frequencies for each category should be at least 1, and no more than 20% of the categories should have expected frequencies of less than 5. (Note: To save space, these examples violate that assumption.)

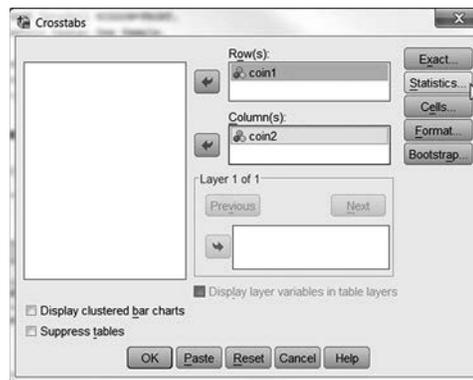
SPSS Data Format

At least two variables are required.

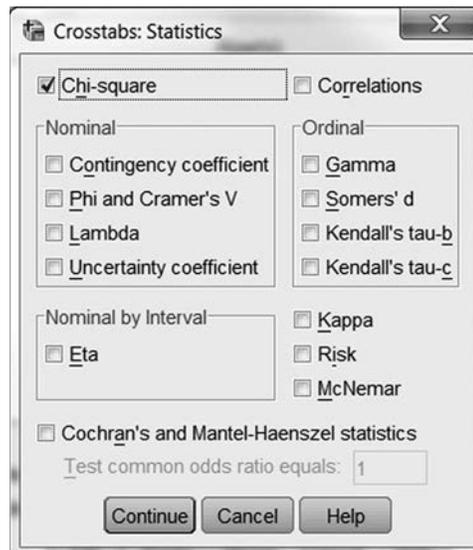
Running the Command



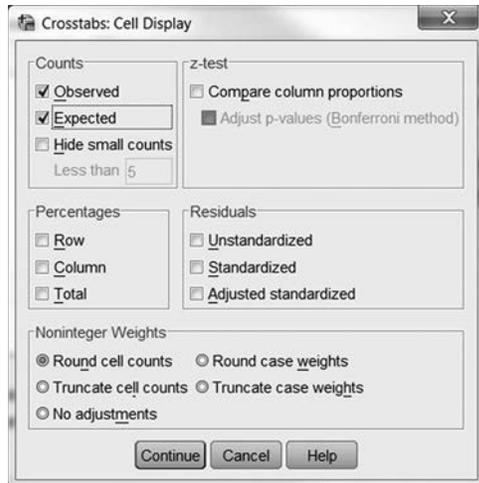
The chi-square test of independence is a component of the *Crosstabs* command rather than the *Nonparametric Statistics* command. For more details, see Section 3.2 in Chapter 3 on frequency distributions for multiple variables.



This example uses the COINS.sav file. COIN1 is placed in the *Row(s)* blank, and COIN2 is placed in the *Column(s)* blank.



Click *Statistics*, then check the *Chi-square* box. Click *Continue*. You may also want to click *Cells* to select expected frequencies in addition to observed frequencies.



Note that you can also use the *Cells* option to display the percentages of each variable for each value. This is especially useful when your groups are different sizes, but it is unnecessary in this example.

Click *OK* to run the analysis.

Reading the Output

The output consists of two parts. The first part gives you the counts. In this example, the actual and expected frequencies are shown because they were selected with the *Cells* option.

The second part of the output gives the results of the chi-square test. The most commonly used value is the Pearson chi-square, shown in the first row (value of .737).

COIN1 * COIN2 Crosstabulation

			COIN2		Total
			Head	Tail	
COIN1	Head	Count	7	4	11
		Expected Count	6.1	5.0	11.0
	Tail	Count	4	5	9
		Expected Count	5.0	4.1	9.0
Total		Count	11	9	20
		Expected Count	11.0	9.0	20.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.737 ^b	1	.391		
Continuity Correction ^a	.165	1	.684		
Likelihood Ratio	.740	1	.390		
Fisher's Exact Test				.653	.342
Linear-by-Linear Association	.700	1	.403		
N of Valid Cases	20				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 3 cells (75.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.

Drawing Conclusions

A significant chi-square test result indicates that the two variables are not independent. A value that is not significant indicates that the variables do not vary significantly from independence.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

In describing the results, you should give the value of chi-square, the degrees of freedom, the **significance** level, and a description of the results. For instance, with a significant chi-square (for a dataset different from the one discussed above), we could state the following:

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the frequency of heart disease in men and women. A significant interaction was found ($\chi^2(1) = 23.80, p < .05$). Men were more likely to get heart disease (68%) than women (40%).

Note that this summary statement assumes that a test was run coding participants' sex and whether or not they had heart disease.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

A chi-square test that is not significant indicates that there is no significant dependence of one variable on the other. The coin example was not significant. Therefore, we could state the following:

A chi-square test of independence was calculated comparing the results of flipping two coins. No significant relationship was found ($\chi^2(1) = .737, p > .05$). Flips of a coin appear to be independent events.

Practice Exercise

A researcher wants to know if individuals are more likely to help in an emergency when they are indoors or when they are outdoors. Of 28 participants who were outdoors, 19 helped and 9 did not. Of 23 participants who were indoors, 8 helped and 15 did not. Enter these data, and find out if helping behavior is affected by the environment. The key to this problem is in the data entry. Hint: How many participants were there, and how many pieces of information do we know about each? Having SPSS give you cell percentages will help you with the interpretation of this problem.

Section 8.3 Mann-Whitney *U* Test

Description

The Mann-Whitney *U* test is the nonparametric equivalent of the independent *t* test. It tests whether or not two independent samples are from the same distribution. The Mann-Whitney *U* test is weaker than the independent *t* test, and the *t* test should be used if you can meet its assumptions.

Assumptions

The Mann-Whitney *U* test uses the rankings of the data. Therefore, the data for the two samples must at least be **ordinal**. There are no assumptions about the shape of the distribution.

SPSS Data Format

This command requires a single variable representing the **dependent variable** and a second variable indicating group membership. SPSS requires the **dependent variable** to be a scale-type variable even though the variable itself only needs to be **ordinal**.

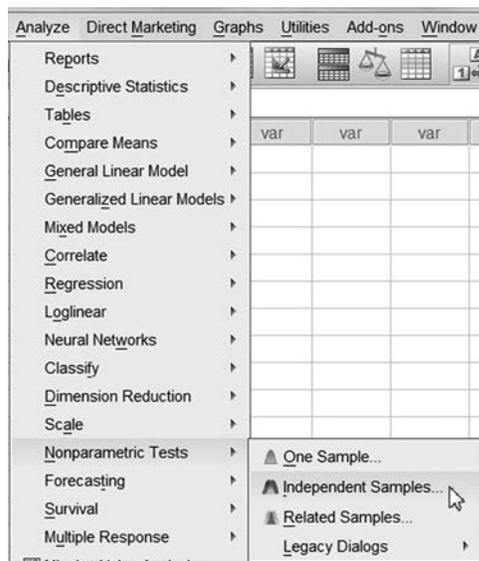
Running the Command

This example will use a new data file. It represents eight participants in a series of races. There were long races, medium races, and short races. Participants were either experienced (2) or had medium experience (1).

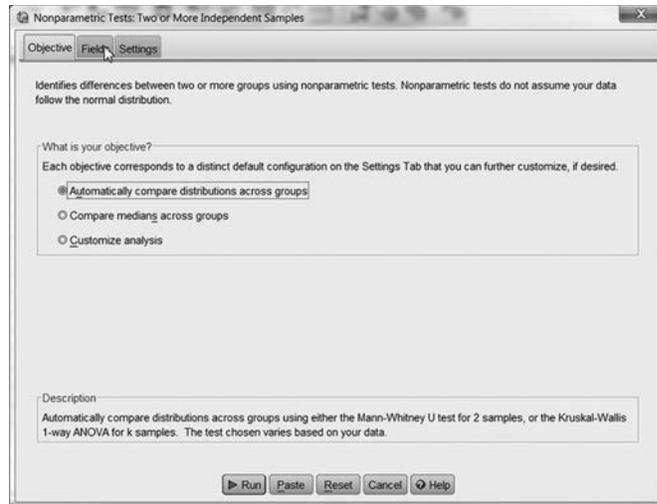
	long	medium	short	experience
1	1	4	6	2.00
2	2	3	4	2.00
3	3	2	7	2.00
4	4	5	3	2.00
5	5	1	10	1.00
6	6	8	5	1.00
7	7	7	12	1.00
8	8	6	1	1.00

Enter the data from the figure shown above in a new file, and save the data file as RACE.sav. The values for LONG, MEDIUM, and SHORT represent the results of the race, with 1 being first place and 8 being last.

Make sure that LONG, MEDIUM, and SHORT are scale-type variables and that EXPERIENCE is a nominal type variable.



To run the command, click *Analyze*, then *Nonparametric Tests*, then *Independent Samples*. This will bring up the main **dialog box**.



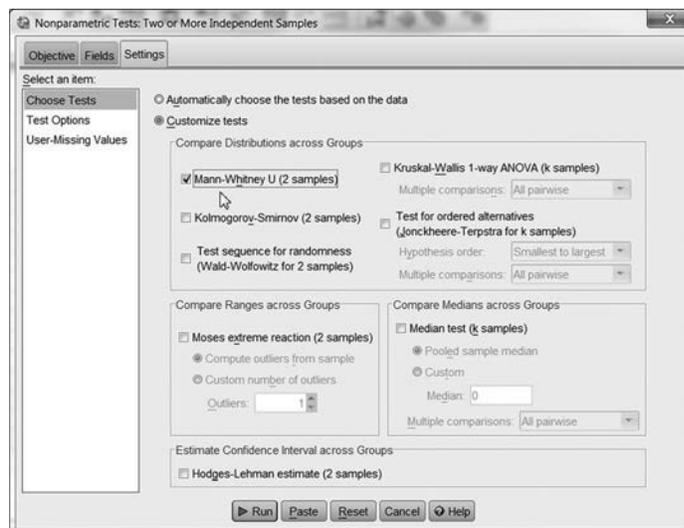
Leave the *Objective* to *Automatically compare distributions across groups*. Then click on the *Fields* tab.

Enter LONG in the *Test Fields* area. Note the  in the lower-right corner of this box, indicating that scale variables are required.

Next, enter EXPERIENCE in the *Groups* area.



Click on the *Settings* tab to select the Mann-Whitney *U* test specifically.



Click on *Run* to perform the analysis.

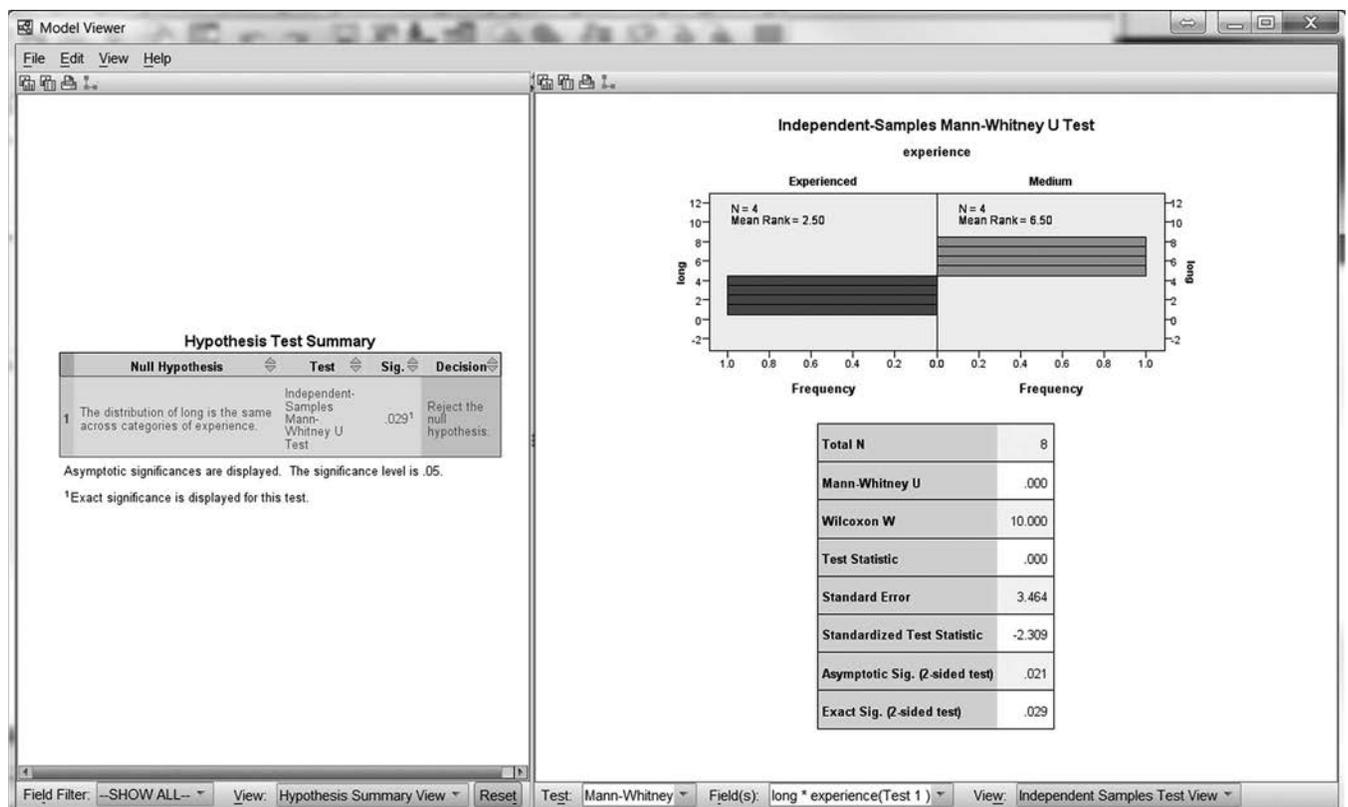
Reading the Output

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of long is the same across categories of experience.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.029 ¹	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

¹Exact significance is displayed for this test.

As part of the new *Nonparametric Tests* command, the output will consist of the new Model Viewer. Here you will get a plain-English result. In this case, we reject the **null hypothesis** that the distribution was the same for both levels of experience. In order to get more information, we double-click on the answer. When we do, the Model Viewer will open and display relevant graphs, plus full information about our result.



The output consists of two sections. The first section gives **descriptive statistics** for the two samples. Because the data are required only to be at least **ordinal**, summaries relating to their ranks are used. Those participants who had medium experience averaged 6.5 as their place in the race. The experienced participants averaged 2.5 as their place in the race.

The second section of the output is the result of the Mann-Whitney *U* test itself. The value obtained was 0.0, with a **significance** level of .029.

Drawing Conclusions

A significant Mann-Whitney U result indicates that the two samples are different in terms of their average ranks.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

Our preceding example is significant, so we could state the following:

A Mann-Whitney U test was calculated examining the place that runners with varying levels of experience took in a long-distance race. Runners with medium experience did significantly worse (M place = 6.50) than experienced runners (M place = 2.50; $U = 0.00, p < .05$).

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

This example uses hypothetical results:

A Mann-Whitney U test was used to examine the difference in the race performance of runners with medium experience and runners with experience in a short-distance race. No significant difference in the results of the race was found ($U = 7.50, p > .05$). Runners with medium experience averaged a place of 4.63. Experienced runners averaged 4.38.

Practice Exercise

Using Practice Dataset 1 in Appendix B, determine if younger participants (< 26) have significantly lower mathematics scores than older participants. (Note: You will need to create a new ordinal variable representing each age group. See Section 2.2 if you need a refresher on how to do that.)

Section 8.4 Wilcoxon Test

Description

The Wilcoxon test is the nonparametric equivalent of the paired-samples (dependent) t test. It tests whether or not two related samples are from the same distribution. The Wilcoxon test is weaker than the independent t test, so the t test should be used if you can meet its assumptions.

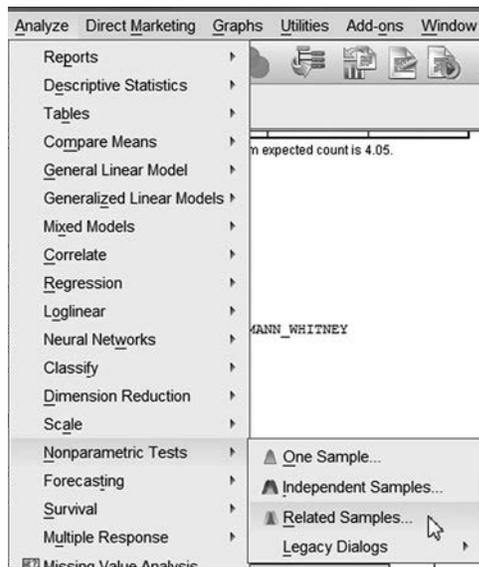
Assumptions

The Wilcoxon test is based on the difference in rankings. The data for the two samples must at least be **ordinal**. There are no assumptions about the shape of the distribution.

SPSS Data Format

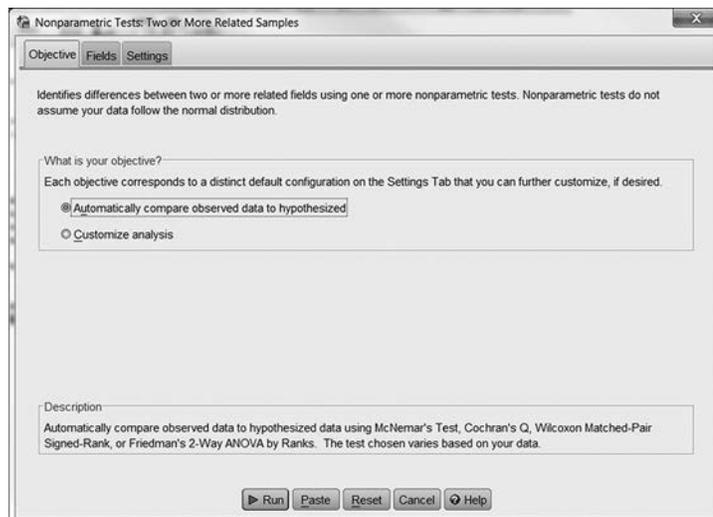
The test requires two variables. One variable represents the **dependent variable** at the first level of the **independent variable**. The other variable represents the **dependent variable** at the second level of the **independent variable**.

Running the Command

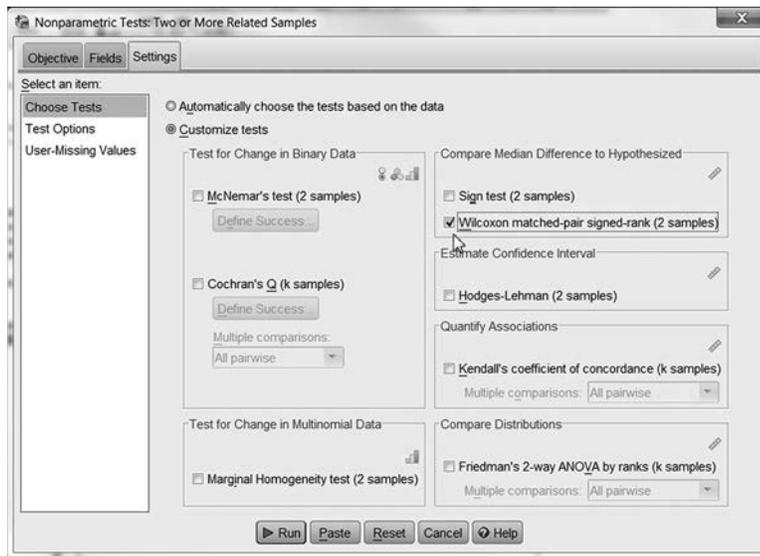
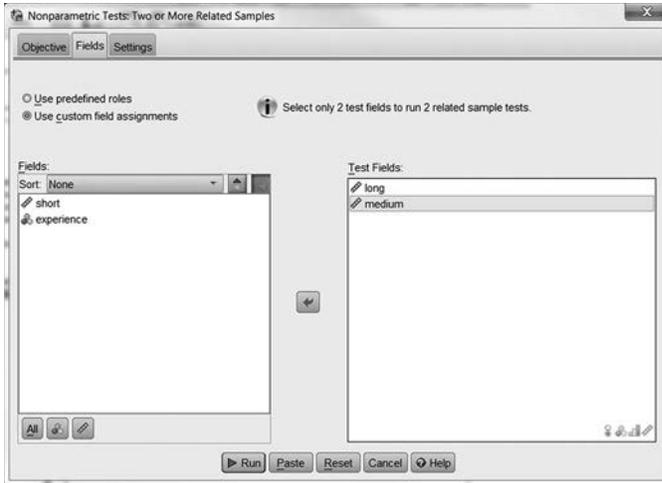


Locate the command by clicking *Analyze*, then *Nonparametric Tests*, then *Related Samples*. This example uses the RACE.sav dataset.

First, you will be presented with the Nonparametric Tests **dialog box**.



Select the *Fields* tab. Move the variables LONG and MEDIUM over to the *Test Fields* area as shown below.



Finally, select the *Settings* tab and *Customize tests* to select *Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank*. Click *Run*.

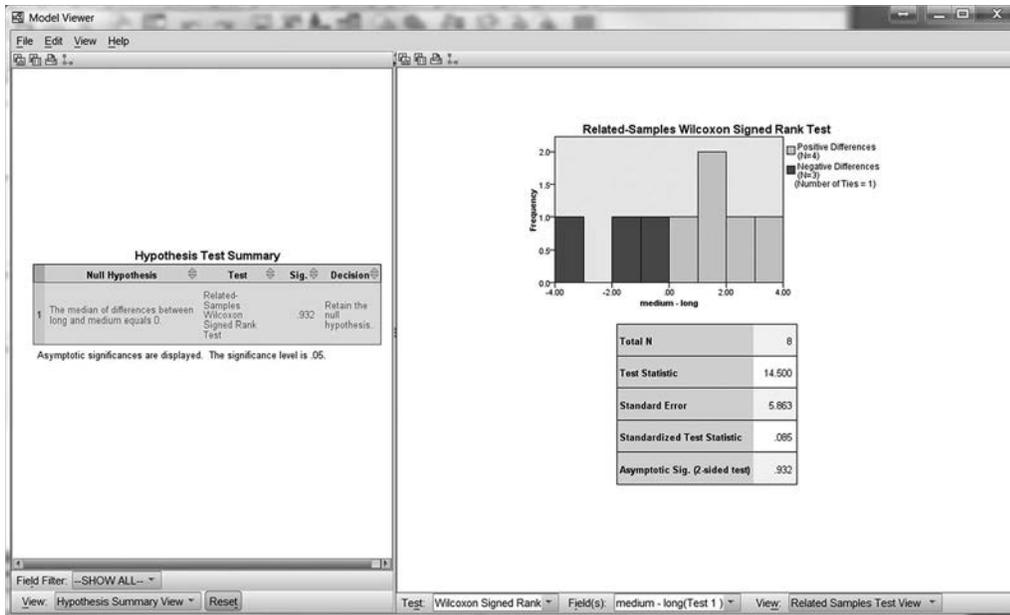
Reading the Output

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The median of differences between long and medium equals 0.	Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.932	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

As part of the new nonparametric procedure, the output will be presented in plain English as the Model Viewer (see screenshot shown above). By double-clicking on the output, the full Model Viewer (shown below) will open.



The example above shows that no significant difference was found between the results of the long-distance and medium-distance races.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

A significant result means that a change has occurred between the two measurements. If that happened, we could state the following (note that these results are fictitious):

A Wilcoxon test examined the results of the medium-distance and long-distance races. A significant difference was found in the results ($Z = 3.40, p < .05$). Medium-distance results were better than long-distance results.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

In fact, the results in the previous example were not significant, so we could state the following:

A Wilcoxon test examined the results of the medium-distance and long-distance races. No significant difference was found in the results ($Z = .085, p > .05$). Medium-distance results were not significantly different from long-distance results.

Practice Exercise

Use the RACE.sav data file to determine whether or not the outcome of short-distance races is different from that of medium-distance races. Phrase your results.

Section 8.5 Kruskal-Wallis H Test

Description

The Kruskal-Wallis H test is the nonparametric equivalent of the one-way ANOVA. It tests whether or not several independent samples come from the same population.

Assumptions

Because the test is nonparametric, there are very few assumptions. However, the test does assume an **ordinal** level of measurement for the **dependent variable**. The **independent variable** should be **nominal** or **ordinal**.

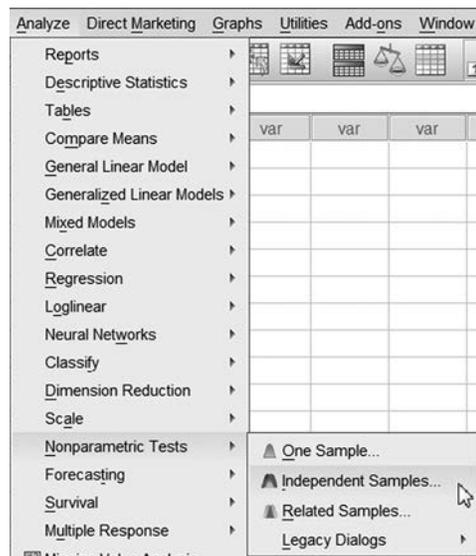
SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires one variable to represent the **dependent variable** and another to represent the **levels** of the **independent variable**. The **dependent variable** must be entered as a scale-type variable even if it is actually **ordinal**.

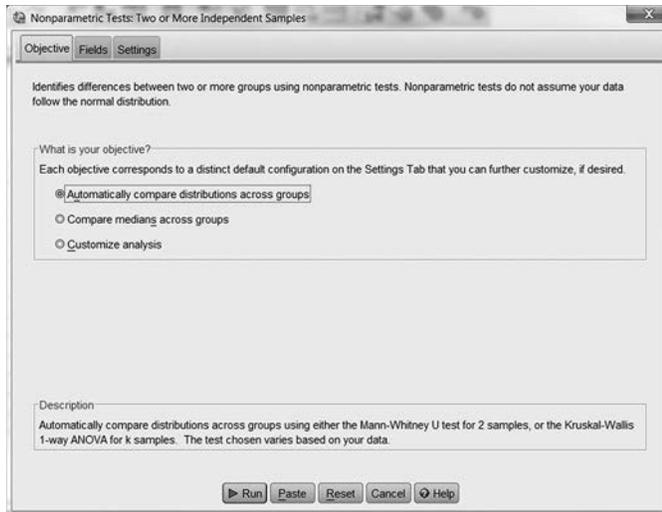
Running the Command

	long	medium	short	experience
1	1	4.00	6	2.00
2	2	3.00	4	2.00
3	3	2.00	7	2.00
4	4	5.00	3	2.00
5	5	1.00	10	1.00
6	6	8.00	5	1.00
7	7	7.00	12	1.00
8	8	6.00	1	1.00
9	9	10.00	3	.00
10	10	9.00	9	.00
11	11	11.00	11	.00
12	12	12.00	2	.00

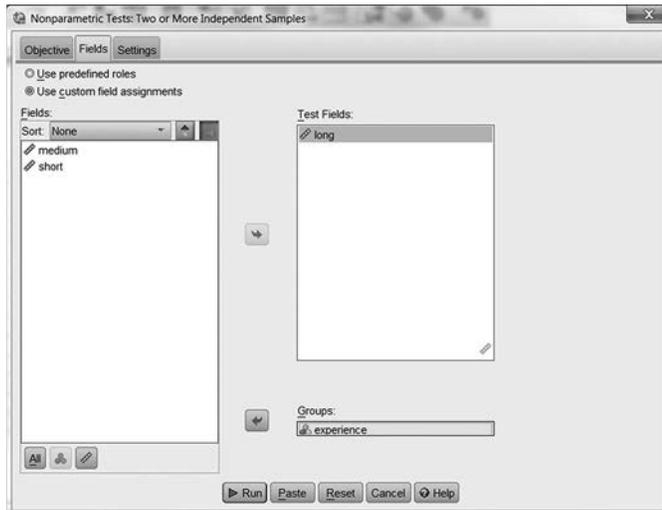
This example modifies the RACE.sav data file to include a third group of four additional participants with no experience (EXPERIENCE = 0). Make sure your data look like the screenshot shown above.



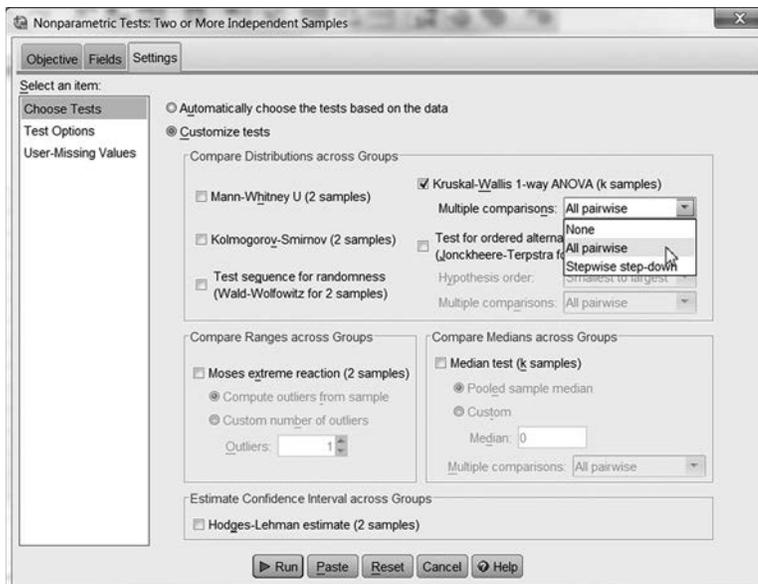
To run the command, click *Analyze*, then *Nonparametric Tests*, then *Independent Samples*. This will bring up the main **dialog box**, below.



Leave the *Objective* the same and click the *Fields* tab.



Move LONG to the *Test Fields* area and EXPERIENCE to the *Groups* area.



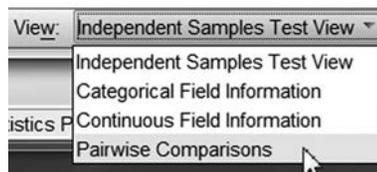
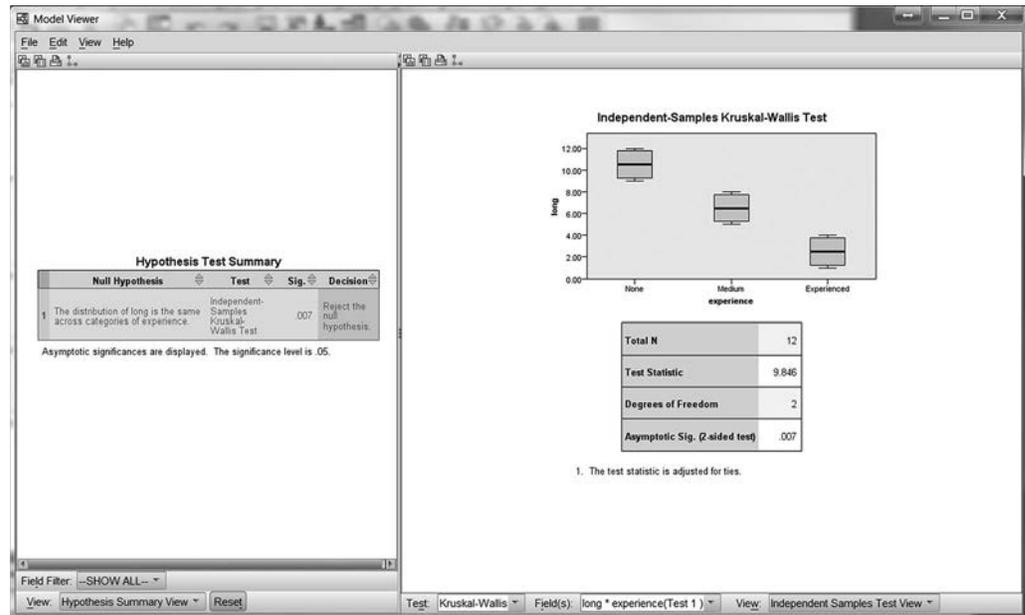
Select the *Settings* tab and *Customize tests* to select *Kruskal-Wallis 1-way ANOVA*. Also, select *Multiple comparisons* and choose *All pairwise*. Just as post-hoc tests are necessary with parametric one-way ANOVA, they are also necessary with nonparametric versions. This step will have SPSS compute them for us. Click *Run* to perform the analysis.

Reading the Output

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of long is the same across categories of experience.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.007	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

The output will consist of the condensed real-language Model Viewer. Here, it tells us that the distribution of the variable LONG is the same across all levels of EXPERIENCE. We can double-click the output to get the full Model Viewer.



In order to get the pairwise comparisons, we need to modify the view. At the bottom of the screen (in the panel shown above) is the *View* command. Click on that command and select *Pairwise Comparisons*.

After selecting *Pairwise Comparisons*, the right section of the ModelViewer will change. At the bottom will be the following table:

Each node shows the sample average rank of experience.

Sample1-Sample2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj.Sig.
Experienced-Medium	4.000	2.550	1.569	.117	.350
Experienced-None	8.000	2.550	3.138	.002	.005
Medium-None	4.000	2.550	1.569	.117	.350

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

This table shows that EXPERIENCE 2 (Experienced) is significantly different from EXPERIENCE 0 (None). However, the other two comparisons are not significantly different from each other.

Drawing Conclusions

Like the one-way ANOVA, the Kruskal-Wallis test assumes that the groups are equal. Thus, a significant result indicates that at least one of the groups is different from at least one other group. The *Pairwise Comparisons* command will allow us to determine which groups are different.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

The preceding example is significant, so we could state the following:

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted comparing the outcome of a long-distance race for runners with varying levels of experience. A significant result was found ($H(2) = 9.846, p < .01$), indicating that the groups differed from each other. Follow-up pairwise comparisons indicated that runners with the greatest experience performed significantly better than runners with no experience.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

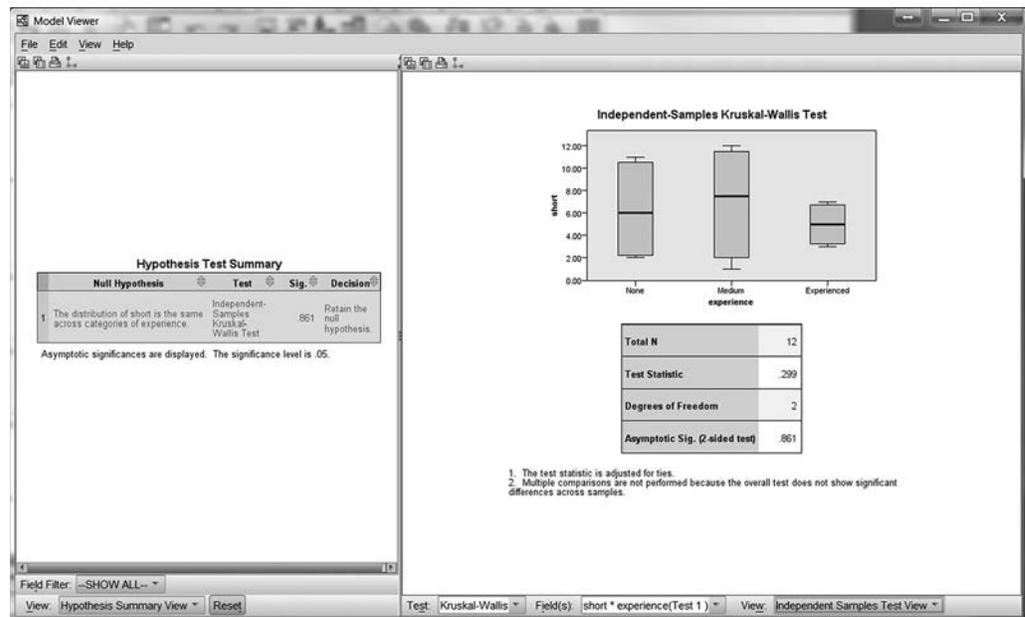
If we conducted the analysis using the results of the short-distance race, we would get the following output, which is not significant.

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of short is the same across categories of experience.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.861	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

The ModelViewer would show us the following:



This result is not significant, so we could state the following:

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted comparing the outcome of a short-distance race for runners with varying levels of experience. No significant difference was found ($H(2) = 0.299, p > .05$), indicating that the groups did not differ significantly from each other. Experience did not seem to influence the results of the short-distance race.

Section 8.6 Friedman Test

Description

The Friedman test is the nonparametric equivalent of a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA. It is used when you have more than two measurements from related participants.

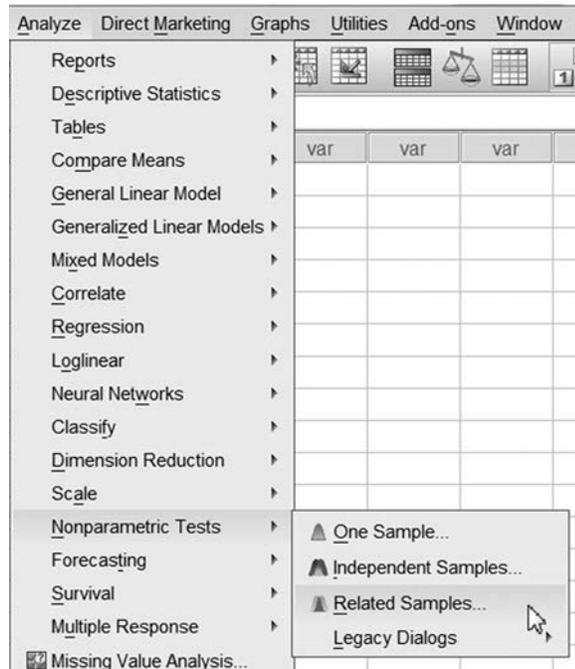
Assumptions

The test uses the rankings of the variables, so the data must at least be **ordinal**. No other assumptions are required.

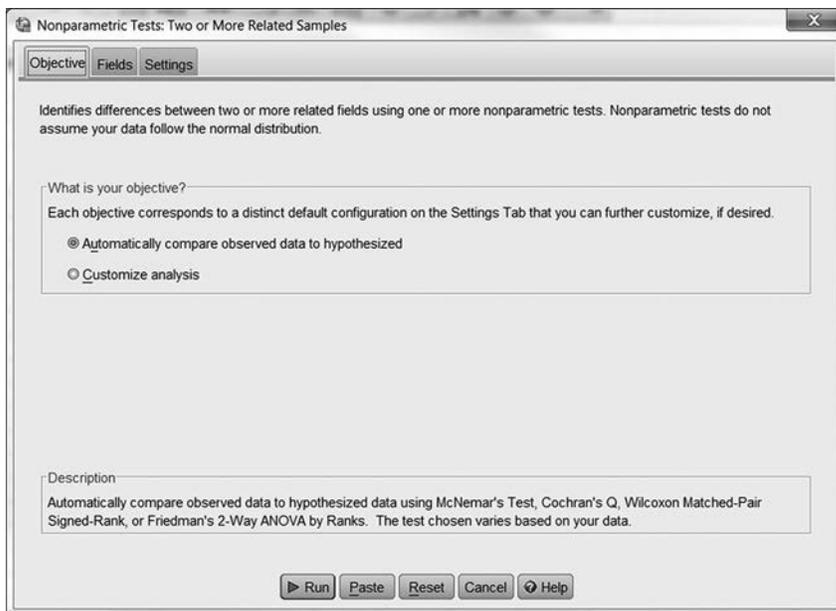
SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires at least three variables in the SPSS data file. Each variable represents the **dependent variable** at one of the **levels** of the **independent variable**.

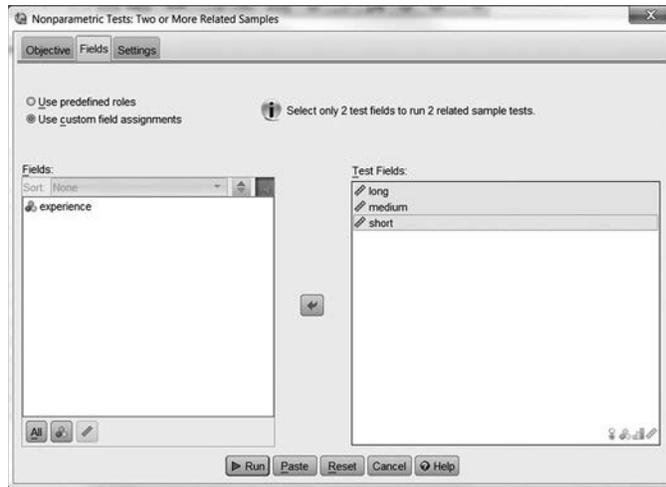
Running the Command



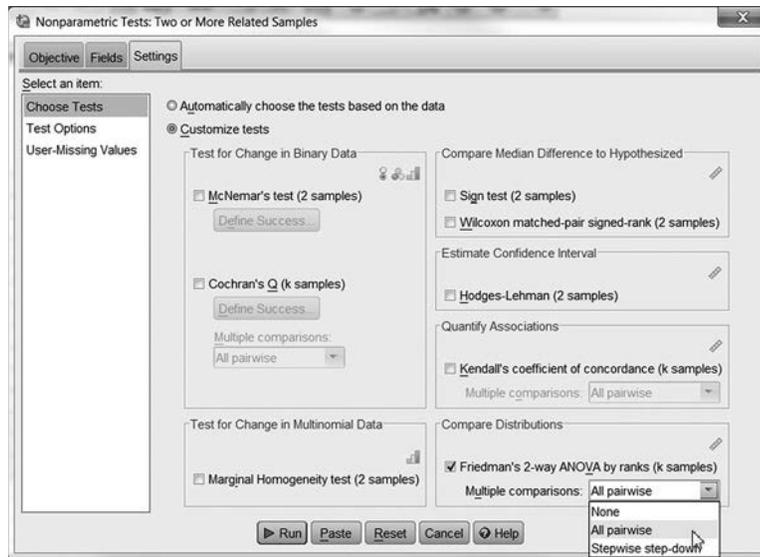
Locate the command by clicking *Analyze*, then *Nonparametric Tests*, then *Related Samples*. This will bring up the main **dialog box**. This example uses the RACE.sav data file.



Leave the *Objective* the same, and select the *Fields* tab. Move all three variables representing race places over to the *Test Fields* area (LONG, MEDIUM, SHORT).



Under the *Settings* tab, select *Customize tests* and then select the *Friedman's 2-way ANOVA by ranks*. Select *Multiple comparisons*, and select *All pairwise*. Run the test.



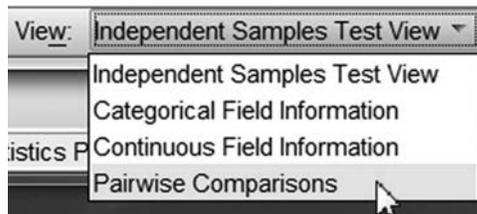
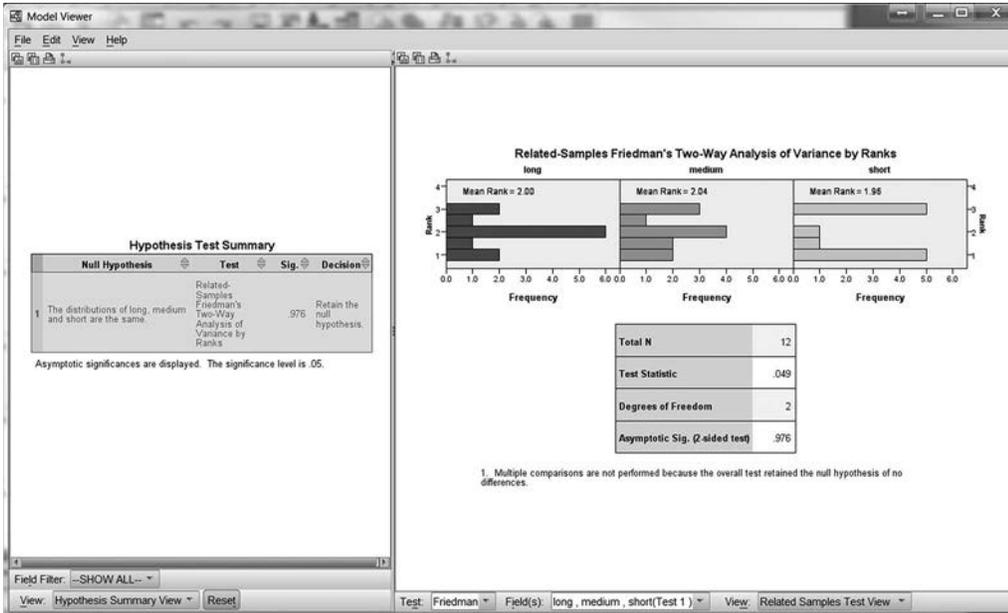
Reading the Output

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distributions of long, medium and short are the same.	Related-Samples Friedman's Two-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks	.976	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

The condensed real-language Model Viewer will tell us that there was not a significant difference in the distributions of the three variables.

Double-clicking the output will give us the full Model Viewer.



If the results were significant, we could use the *View* command at the bottom to see the results of the pairwise comparisons. See Section 8.5 for an example.

Drawing Conclusions

The Friedman test assumes that the three variables are from the same population. A significant value indicates that the variables are not equivalent.

Phrasing Results That Are Significant

If we obtained a significant result, we could state the following (these are hypothetical results):

A Friedman test was conducted comparing the average place in a race of runners for short-distance, medium-distance, and long-distance races. A significant difference was found ($\chi^2(2) = 0.057, p < .05$). The length of the race significantly affects the results of the race.

Phrasing Results That Are Not Significant

In fact, our example was not significant, so we could state the following:

A Friedman test was conducted comparing the average place in a race of runners for short-distance, medium-distance, and long-distance races. No significant difference was found ($\chi^2(2) = 0.049, p > .05$). The length of the race did not significantly affect the results of the race.

Practice Exercise

Use the data in Practice Dataset 3 in Appendix B. If anxiety is measured on an **ordinal scale**, determine if anxiety levels changed over time. Phrase your results.

Test Construction

Section 9.1 Item-Total Analysis

Description

Item-total analysis is a way to assess the **internal consistency** of a dataset. As such, it is one of many tests of **reliability**. Item-total analysis comprises a number of items that make up a scale or a test designed to measure a single construct (e.g., intelligence), and it determines the degree to which all of the items measure the same construct. It does not tell you if it is measuring the correct construct (that is a question of **validity**). Before a test can be valid, however, it must first be reliable.

Assumptions

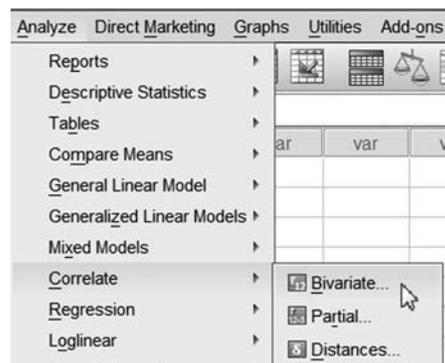
All the items in the scale should be measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. In addition, each item should be normally distributed. If your items are **ordinal** in nature, you can conduct the analysis using the Spearman *rho* correlation instead of the Pearson *r* correlation.

SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires one variable for each item (or question) in the scale. In addition, you must have a variable representing the total score for the scale.

Conducting the Test

Item-total analysis uses the *Pearson Correlation* command. To conduct it, open the QUESTIONS.sav data file you created in Chapter 2. Click *Analyze*, then *Correlate*, then *Bivariate*.





Place all questions and the total in the right-hand window, and click *OK*. (For more help on conducting correlations, see Chapter 5.) The total can be calculated with the techniques discussed in Chapter 2.

Reading the Output

The output consists of a **correlation matrix** containing all questions and the total. Use the column labeled **TOTAL**, and locate the correlation between the total score and each question. In the example shown to the right, **QUESTION 1** has a correlation of 0.873 with the total score. **QUESTION 2** has a correlation of -0.130 with the total score. **QUESTION 3** has a correlation of 0.926 with the total score.

Correlations

		Q1	Q2	Q3	TOTAL
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.447	.718	.873
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.553	.282	.127
	N	4	4	4	4
Q2	Pearson Correlation	-.447	1.000	-.229	-.130
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.553	.	.771	.870
	N	4	4	4	4
Q3	Pearson Correlation	.718	-.229	1.000	.926
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.282	.771	.	.074
	N	4	4	4	4
TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	.873	-.130	.926	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.127	.870	.074	.
	N	4	4	4	4

Interpreting the Output

Item-total correlations should always be positive. If you obtain a negative correlation, that question should be removed from the scale (or you may consider whether it should be reverse-keyed).

Generally, item-total correlations of greater than 0.7 are considered desirable. Those of less than 0.3 are considered weak. Any questions with correlations of less than 0.3 should be removed from the scale.

Normally, the worst question is removed, and then the total is recalculated. After the total is recalculated, the item-total analysis is repeated without the question that was removed. Then, if any questions have correlations of less than 0.3, the worst one is removed, and the process is repeated.

When all remaining correlations are greater than 0.3, the remaining items in the scale are considered to be those that are internally consistent.

Section 9.2 Cronbach's Alpha

Description

Cronbach's alpha is a measure of **internal consistency**. As such, it is one of many tests of **reliability**. Cronbach's alpha comprises a number of items that make up a scale designed to measure a single construct (e.g., intelligence), and it determines the degree to which all the items are measuring the same construct. It does not tell you if it is measuring the correct construct (that is a question of **validity**). As stated earlier, before a test can be valid, it must first be reliable.

Assumptions

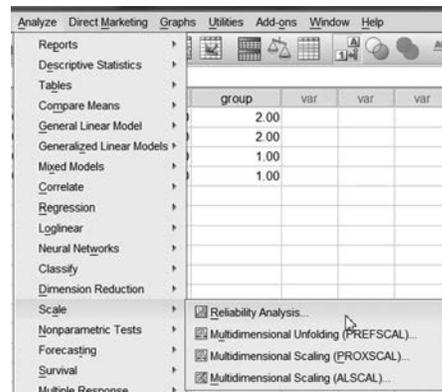
All the items in the scale should be measured on an **interval** or **ratio scale**. In addition, each item should be normally distributed.

SPSS Data Format

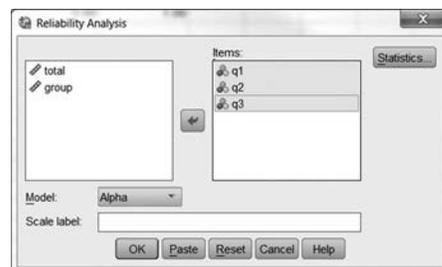
SPSS requires one variable for each item (or question) in the scale.

Running the Command

We will continue to use the QUESTIONS.sav data file we first created in Chapter 2. Click *Analyze*, then *Scale*, then *Reliability Analysis*.



This will bring up the main **dialog box** for Reliability Analysis. Transfer the questions from your scale to the *Items* blank, and click *OK*. Do not transfer any variables representing total scores.



Note that if you change the options under *Model*, additional measures of **internal consistency** (e.g., split-half) can be calculated.

Reading the Output

In this example, the **reliability** coefficient is 0.407. Numbers close to 1.00 are very good, but numbers close to 0.00 represent poor **internal consistency**.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.407	3

Section 9.3 Test-Retest Reliability

Description

Test-retest reliability is a measure of **temporal stability**. As such, it is a measure of **reliability**. Unlike measures of **internal consistency** that tell you the extent to which all of the questions that make up a scale measure the same construct, measures of **temporal stability** tell you whether or not the instrument is consistent over time or over multiple administrations.

Assumptions

The total score for the scale should be an **interval** or **ratio scale**. The scale scores should be normally distributed.

SPSS Data Format

SPSS requires a variable representing the total score for the scale at the time of first administration. A second variable representing the total score for the same participants at a different time (normally two weeks later) is also required.

Running the Command

The test-retest reliability coefficient is simply a Pearson correlation coefficient for the relationship between the total scores for the two administrations. To compute the coefficient, follow the directions for computing a Pearson correlation coefficient (Chapter 5, Section 5.1). Use the two variables representing the two administrations of the test.

Reading the Output

The correlation between the two scores is the test-retest reliability coefficient. It should be positive. Strong **reliability** is indicated by values close to 1.00. Weak **reliability** is indicated by values close to 0.00.

Section 9.4 Criterion-Related Validity

Description

Criterion-related validity determines the extent to which the scale you are testing correlates with a criterion. For instance, *ACT* scores should correlate highly with GPA. If they do, that is a measure of **validity** for *ACT* scores. If they do not, that indicates that *ACT* scores may not be valid for the intended purpose.

Assumptions

All of the same assumptions for the Pearson correlation coefficient apply to measures of criterion-related validity (**interval** or **ratio scales**, **normal distribution**, etc.).

SPSS Data Format

Two variables are required. One variable represents the total score for the scale you are testing. The other represents the criterion you are testing it against.

Running the Command

Calculating criterion-related validity involves determining the Pearson correlation value between the scale and the criterion. See Chapter 5, Section 5.1 for complete information.

Reading the Output

The correlation between the two scores is the criterion-related validity coefficient. It should be positive. Strong **validity** is indicated by values close to 1.00. Weak **validity** is indicated by values close to 0.00.

Section 9.5 Inter-Rater Reliability

Description

There are many ways to measure inter-rater reliability. It can be as simple as the correlation between two reviewer's scores if you have an interval or ratio scale (or even a Spearman rho if you have a nominal scale). A common measure with nominal scales, however, is Cohen's Kappa.

Assumptions

Cohen's Kappa works best with nominal scales with a limited number of categories.

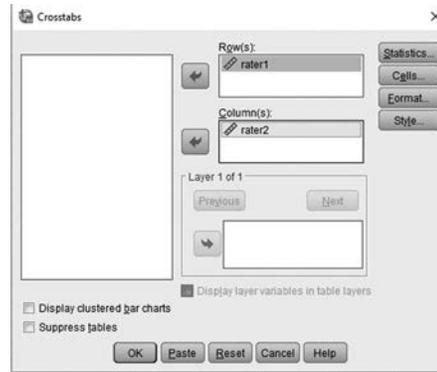
SPSS Data Format

Two variables are required. One variable represents the rating of one person and the second variable represents the rating of the other rater. For example, you could have a datafile using the data presented here.

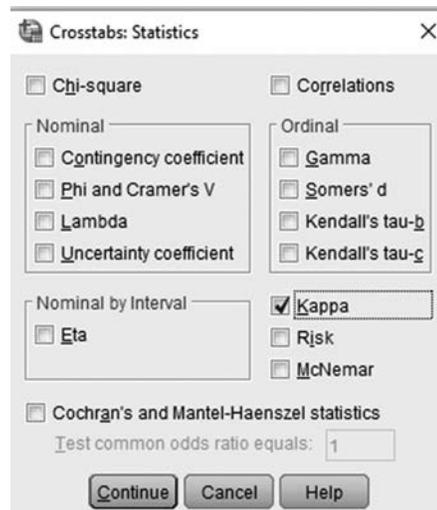
	 rater1	 rater2
1	7.00	7.00
2	8.00	8.00
3	4.00	3.00
4	5.00	5.00
5	6.00	6.00
6	4.00	5.00
7	5.00	5.00
8	8.00	8.00
9	3.00	2.00
10	1.00	1.00

Running the Command

Calculating inter-rater reliability involves the crosstabs command. See Chapter 3, Section 3.2 for more information. Enter one rater's scores as the columns and the other rater's scores as the rows.



When running crosstabs, you select the *Statistics* option and then select *Kappa*.



Reading the Output

The inter-rater reliability is represented at the bottom of the output as Kappa. In the example here, kappa is equal to .651. While there is some disagreement on interpreting Kappa, Landis and Koch (1977) have suggested values < .2 as slight, .2-.4 as fair, .4-.6 as moderate, .5-.8 as strong, and > .8 as almost perfect.¹

Symmetric Measures					
		Value	Asymptotic Standard Error ^a	Approximate T ^b	Approximate Significance
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.651	.157	5.449	.000
N of Valid Cases		10			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Note

1. Landis, J.R., & Koch, G.G. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 33, 159–174.

Effect Size

Many disciplines are placing increased emphasis on reporting **effect size**. While statistical hypothesis testing provides a way to tell the odds that differences are real, effect sizes provide a way to judge the relative importance of those differences. That is, they tell us the size of the difference or relationship. They are also critical if you would like to estimate necessary sample sizes, conduct a power analysis, or conduct a meta-analysis. Many professional organizations (e.g., the American Psychological Association) are now requiring or strongly suggesting that effect sizes be reported in addition to the results of hypothesis tests.

Because there are at least 41 different types of effect sizes,¹ each with somewhat different properties, the purpose of this appendix is not to be a comprehensive resource on **effect size**, but rather to show you how to calculate some of the most common measures of **effect size** using SPSS.

Cohen's *d*

One of the simplest and most popular measures of **effect size** is **Cohen's *d***. **Cohen's *d*** is a member of a class of measurements called *standardized mean differences*. In essence, *d* is the difference between the two means divided by the overall **standard deviation**.

It is not only a popular measure of **effect size**, but Cohen has also suggested a simple basis to interpret the value obtained. Cohen² suggests that effect sizes of .2 are small, .5 are medium, and .8 are large.

We will discuss **Cohen's *d*** as the preferred measure of **effect size** for *t* tests. Unfortunately, SPSS does not calculate **Cohen's *d***. However, this appendix will cover how to calculate it from the output that SPSS does produce.

Effect Size for Single-Sample *t* Tests

Although SPSS does not calculate **effect size** for the single-sample *t* test, calculating **Cohen's *d*** is a simple matter.

Cohen's *d* for a single-sample *t* test is equal to the **mean** difference over the **standard deviation**. If SPSS provides us with the following output, we calculate *d* as indicated below.

$$d = \frac{\bar{D}}{s_D}$$

$$d = \frac{.90}{1.1972}$$

$$d = .752$$

In this example, using Cohen's guidelines to judge **effect size**, we would have an **effect size** between medium and large.

T-Test

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LENGTH	10	35.9000	1.1972	.3786

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 35					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
LENGTH	2.377	9	.041	.9000	4.356E-02	1.7564

Effect Size for Independent-Samples *t* Tests

Calculating **effect size** from the independent *t* test output is a little more complex because SPSS does not provide us with the **pooled standard deviation**. The upper section of the output, however, does provide us with the information we need to calculate it. The output presented here is the same output we worked with in Chapter 6.

Group Statistics

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
grade	morning No	2	82.5000	3.53553	2.50000
	Yes	2	78.0000	7.07107	5.00000

$$s_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

$$s_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{(2 - 1)3.5355^2 + (2 - 1)7.0711^2}{2 + 2 - 2}}$$

$$s_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{62.500}{2}}$$

$$s_{pooled} = 5.59$$

Once we have calculated the **pooled standard deviation** (s_{pooled}), we can calculate **Cohen's *d***.

$$d = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s_{pooled}}$$

$$d = \frac{82.50 - 78.00}{5.59}$$

$$d = .81$$

So, in this example, using Cohen's guidelines for the interpretation of d , we would have obtained a large effect size.

Effect Size for Paired-Samples t Tests

As you have probably learned in your statistics class, a paired-samples t test is really just a special case of the single-sample t test. Therefore, the procedure for calculating **Cohen's d** is also the same. The SPSS output, however, looks a little different, so you will be taking your values from different areas.

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PRETEST - FINAL	-22.8095	8.9756	1.9586	-26.8952	-18.7239	-11.646	20	.000

$$d = \frac{\bar{D}}{s_D}$$

$$d = \frac{-22.8095}{8.9756}$$

$$d = 2.54$$

Notice that in this example, we represent the **effect size** (d) as a positive number even though it is negative. Effect sizes are always positive numbers. In this example, using Cohen's guidelines for the interpretation of d , we have found a very large **effect size**.

r^2 (Coefficient of Determination)

While **Cohen's d** is the appropriate measure of **effect size** for t tests, correlation and regression effect sizes should be determined by squaring the correlation coefficient. This squared correlation is called the **coefficient of determination**. Cohen³ suggested that correlations of .5, .3, and .1 corresponded to large, moderate, and small relationships. Those values squared yield **coefficients of determination** of .25, .09, and .01, respectively. It would appear, therefore, that Cohen is suggesting that accounting for 25% of the variability represents a large effect, 9% a moderate effect, and 1% a small effect.

Effect Size for Correlation

Nowhere is the effect of sample size on statistical power (and therefore **significance**) more apparent than with correlations. Given a large enough sample, *any* correlation can become significant. Thus, **effect size** becomes critically important in the interpretation of correlations.

The standard measure of **effect size** for correlations is the **coefficient of determination** (r^2) previously discussed. The coefficient should be interpreted as the proportion of **variance** in the **dependent variable** that can be accounted for by the relationship between the **independent** and **dependent variables**. While Cohen provided useful guidelines for interpretation, each problem should be interpreted in terms of its true practical **significance**. For instance, if a treatment is very expensive to implement, or has significant side effects, then a larger correlation should be required before the relationship becomes important. For treatments that are very inexpensive, a much smaller correlation can be considered important.

To calculate the **coefficient of determination**, simply take the r value that SPSS provides and square it.

Effect Size for Regression

The Model Summary section of the output reports R^2 for you. The example output here shows a **coefficient of determination** of .649, meaning that almost 65% (.649) of the variability in the **dependent variable** is accounted for by the relationship between the **dependent** and **independent variables**.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.806 ^a	.649	.624	16.1480

a. Predictors: (Constant), HEIGHT

Eta Squared (η^2)

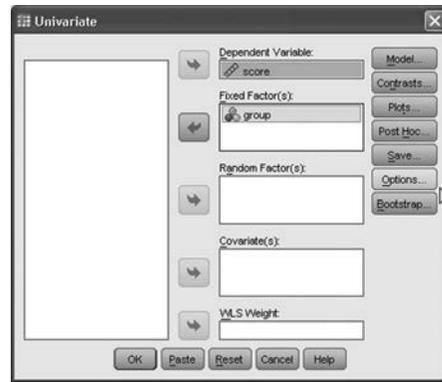
A third measure of **effect size** is **Eta Squared (η^2)**. **Eta Squared** is used for Analysis of Variance models. The *GLM* (General Linear Model) function in SPSS (the function that runs the procedures under *Analyze—General Linear Model*) will provide **Eta Squared (η^2)**.

$$\eta^2 = \frac{SS_{effect}}{SS_{effect} + SS_{error}}$$

Eta Squared has an interpretation similar to a squared correlation coefficient (r^2). It represents the proportion of the **variance** accounted for by the effect. Unlike r^2 , however, which represents only linear relationships, η^2 can represent any type of relationship.

Effect Size for Analysis of Variance

For most Analysis of Variance problems, you should elect to report **Eta Squared** as your **effect size** measure. SPSS provides this calculation for you as part of the *General Linear Model (GLM)* command.



To obtain **Eta Squared**, simply click on the *Options* box in the main **dialog box** for the GLM command you are running (this works for Univariate, Multivariate, and Repeated Measures versions of the command even though only the Univariate option is presented here).



Once you have selected *Options*, a new **dialog box** will appear. One of the options in that box will be *Estimates of effect size*. When you select that box, SPSS will provide **Eta Squared** values as part of your output.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	10.450 ^a	2	5.225	19.096	.000	.761
Intercept	91.622	1	91.622	334.862	.000	.965
group	10.450	2	5.225	19.096	.000	.761
Error	3.283	12	.274			
Total	105.000	15				
Corrected Total	13.733	14				

a. R Squared = .761 (Adjusted R Squared = .721)

In the above example, we obtained an **Eta Squared** of .761 for our main effect for group membership. Because we interpret **Eta Squared** using the same guidelines as r^2 , we would conclude that this represents a large **effect size** for group membership.

Notes

1. Kirk, R.E. (1996). Practical significance: A concept whose time has come. *Educational & Psychological Measurement*, 56, 746–759.
2. Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112, 155–159.
3. Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Practice Exercise Datasets

The practice exercises given throughout the text use a variety of data. Some practice exercises use the datasets shown in the examples. Others use longer datasets. The longer datasets are presented here.

Practice Dataset 1

You have conducted a study in which you collected data from 23 participants. You asked each subject to indicate his or her sex (SEX), age (AGE), and marital status (MARITAL). You gave each subject a test to measure mathematics skills (SKILL), where the higher scores indicated a higher skill level. The data are presented below. Note that you will have to code the variables SEX and MARITAL and also indicate that they are measured on a **nominal scale**.

This example assumes students code SEX as 1 = M, 2 = F and MARITAL as 1 = Single, 2 = Married, 3 = Divorced.

SEX	AGE	MARITAL	SKILL
M	23	Single	34
F	35	Married	40
F	40	Divorced	38
M	19	Single	20
M	28	Married	30
F	35	Divorced	40
F	20	Single	38
F	29	Single	47
M	29	Married	26
M	40	Married	24
F	24	Single	45
M	23	Single	37
F	18	Single	44
M	21	Single	38
M	50	Divorced	32
F	25	Single	29
F	20	Single	38

(Continued)

(Continued)

SEX	AGE	MARITAL	SKILL
M	24	Single	19
F	37	Married	29
M	42	Married	42
M	35	Married	59
M	23	Single	45
F	40	Divorced	20

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	sex	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Male}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
2	age	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	marital	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Singl...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
4	skill	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input

Practice Dataset 2

A survey of employees is conducted. Each employee provides the following information: Salary (SALARY), Years of Service (YOS), Sex (SEX), Job Classification (CLASSIFY), and Education Level (EDUC). Note that you will have to code SEX (Male = 1, Female = 2) and CLASSIFY (Clerical = 1, Technical = 2, Professional = 3), and indicate that they are measured on a **nominal scale**.

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	salary	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	yos	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	sex	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Male}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
4	classify	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Cleric...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
5	educ	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input

SALARY	YOS	SEX	CLASSIFY	EDUC
35,000	8	Male	Technical	14
18,000	4	Female	Clerical	10
20,000	1	Male	Professional	16
50,000	20	Female	Professional	16
38,000	6	Male	Professional	20
20,000	6	Female	Clerical	12
75,000	17	Male	Professional	20
40,000	4	Female	Technical	12
30,000	8	Male	Technical	14
22,000	15	Female	Clerical	12
23,000	16	Male	Clerical	12
45,000	2	Female	Professional	16

Practice Dataset 3

Participants who have phobias are given one of three treatments (CONDITION). Their anxiety level (1 to 10) is measured at three intervals—before treatment (ANXPRES), one hour after treatment (ANX1HR), and again four hours after treatment (ANX4HR). Note that you will have to code the variable CONDITION and indicate that they are measured on a **nominal scale**.

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	anxpre	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	anx1hr	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	anx4hr	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
4	condit	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Place...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

ANXPRES	ANX1HR	ANX4HR	CONDITION
8	7	7	Placebo
10	10	10	Placebo
9	7	8	Placebo
7	6	6	Placebo
7	7	7	Placebo
9	4	5	Valium®
10	6	8	Valium®
9	5	5	Valium®
8	3	5	Valium®
6	3	4	Valium®
8	5	3	Experimental Drug
6	5	2	Experimental Drug
9	8	4	Experimental Drug
10	9	4	Experimental Drug
7	6	3	Experimental Drug

C

Sample Data Files Used in Text

Several data files are used in examples throughout this text. This appendix contains a list of each, along with details on how the variables are defined and what is entered. Each section where a file is modified or used is identified.

Practice Datasets 1, 2, and 3 are in Appendix B.

COINS.sav

Created in Section 8.1

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	coin1	Numeric	8	0		{1, Head}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
2	coin2	Numeric	8	0		{1, Head}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

Used also in Section 8.2

	coin1	coin2
1	Head	Tail
2	Tail	Tail
3	Head	Head
4	Head	Head
5	Tail	Tail
6	Head	Head
7	Head	Tail
8	Tail	Head
9	Head	Tail
10	Head	Tail
11	Head	Head
12	Tail	Head
13	Tail	Tail
14	Tail	Head
15	Head	Head
16	Tail	Tail
17	Head	Head
18	Tail	Tail
19	Tail	Head
20	Head	Head

GRADES.sav

Created in Section 6.4

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	pretest	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	midterm	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	final	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
4	instruct	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
5	required	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

Used also in Sections 4.5, 7.2, 7.3, 7.4, 7.5

	pretest	midterm	final	instruct	required
1	56.00	64.00	69.00	1.00	.00
2	79.00	91.00	89.00	1.00	.00
3	68.00	77.00	81.00	1.00	.00
4	59.00	69.00	71.00	1.00	1.00
5	64.00	77.00	75.00	1.00	1.00
6	74.00	88.00	86.00	1.00	1.00
7	73.00	85.00	86.00	1.00	1.00
8	47.00	64.00	69.00	2.00	.00
9	78.00	98.00	100.00	2.00	.00
10	61.00	77.00	85.00	2.00	.00
11	68.00	86.00	93.00	2.00	1.00
12	64.00	77.00	87.00	2.00	1.00
13	53.00	67.00	76.00	2.00	1.00
14	71.00	85.00	95.00	2.00	1.00
15	61.00	79.00	97.00	3.00	.00
16	57.00	77.00	89.00	3.00	.00
17	49.00	65.00	83.00	3.00	.00
18	71.00	93.00	100.00	3.00	1.00
19	61.00	83.00	94.00	3.00	1.00
20	58.00	75.00	92.00	3.00	1.00
21	58.00	74.00	92.00	3.00	1.00

HEIGHT.sav

Created in Section 4.2

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	height	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	weight	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	sex	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

Used also in Section 4.3
 Used also throughout Chapter 5
 Used also in Sections 6.2 and 6.9

	height	weight	sex
1	66.00	150.00	1.00
2	69.00	155.00	1.00
3	73.00	160.00	1.00
4	72.00	160.00	1.00
5	68.00	150.00	1.00
6	63.00	140.00	1.00
7	74.00	165.00	1.00
8	70.00	150.00	1.00
9	66.00	110.00	2.00
10	64.00	100.00	2.00
11	60.00	95.00	2.00
12	67.00	110.00	2.00
13	64.00	105.00	2.00
14	63.00	100.00	2.00
15	67.00	110.00	2.00
16	65.00	105.00	2.00

QUESTIONS.sav

Created in Section 2.2

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	q1	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	q2	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	q3	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input

	q1	q2	q3
1	3.00	3.00	4.00
2	4.00	2.00	3.00
3	2.00	2.00	3.00
4	1.00	3.00	1.00

Modified in Section 2.2

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	q1	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	q2	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	q3	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
4	total	Numeric	8	2		None	None	10	Right	Scale	Input
5	group	Numeric	8	2		None	None	10	Right	Nominal	Input

	q1	q2	q3	total	group
1	3.00	3.00	4.00	10.00	2.00
2	4.00	2.00	3.00	9.00	2.00
3	2.00	2.00	3.00	7.00	1.00
4	1.00	3.00	1.00	5.00	1.00

Used also in Sections 9.1 and 9.2

RACE.sav

Created in Section 8.3

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	long	Numeric	8	0		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	medium	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	short	Numeric	8	0		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
4	experience	Numeric	8	2		{.00, None}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

Used also in Section 8.4

	long	medium	short	experience
1	1	4.00	6	2.00
2	2	3.00	4	2.00
3	3	2.00	7	2.00
4	4	5.00	3	2.00
5	5	1.00	10	1.00
6	6	8.00	5	1.00
7	7	7.00	12	1.00
8	8	6.00	1	1.00

Modified in Section 8.5 to be:

	long	medium	short	experience
1	1	4.00	6	2.00
2	2	3.00	4	2.00
3	3	2.00	7	2.00
4	4	5.00	3	2.00
5	5	1.00	10	1.00
6	6	8.00	5	1.00
7	7	7.00	12	1.00
8	8	6.00	1	1.00
9	9	10.00	3	.00
10	10	9.00	9	.00
11	11	11.00	11	.00
12	12	12.00	2	.00

Modified version also used in Section 8.6

SAMPLE.sav

Created in Section 1.4

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	id	Numeric	8	0		None	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
2	day	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Mon/...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
3	time	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Morni...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
4	morning	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
5	grade	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
6	work	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

	id	day	time	morning	grade	work
1	4593	Tues/Thurs	Afternoon	No	85.00	No
2	1901	Mon/Wed/Fri	Morning	Yes	83.00	Part-Time

Used throughout Chapter 1
 Modified in Section 1.7 (TRAINING added)

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	id	Numeric	8	0		None	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
2	day	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Mon/...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
3	time	Numeric	8	2		{1.00, Morni...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
4	morning	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
5	grade	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
6	work	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input
7	training	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No}...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

	id	day	time	morning	grade	work	training
1	4593	Tues/Thurs	Afternoon	No	85.00	No	Yes
2	1901	Mon/Wed/Fri	Morning	Yes	83.00	Part-Time	Yes
3	8734	Tues/Thurs	Morning	No	80.00	No	No
4	1909	Mon/Wed/Fri	Morning	Yes	73.00	Part-Time	No

Used also in Section 2.1 and 2.2
 Used also throughout Chapter 3
 Used also in Section 6.3

SAT.sav

Created in Section 7.7

	Name	Type	Width	Decimals	Label	Values	Missing	Columns	Align	Measure	Role
1	sat	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
2	gre	Numeric	8	2		None	None	8	Right	Scale	Input
3	group	Numeric	8	2		{.00, No Trai...	None	8	Right	Nominal	Input

	sat	gre	group
1	580.00	600.00	.00
2	520.00	520.00	.00
3	500.00	510.00	.00
4	410.00	400.00	.00
5	650.00	630.00	.00
6	480.00	480.00	.00
7	500.00	490.00	1.00
8	640.00	650.00	1.00
9	500.00	480.00	1.00
10	500.00	510.00	1.00
11	580.00	570.00	1.00
12	490.00	500.00	1.00
13	520.00	520.00	2.00
14	620.00	630.00	2.00
15	550.00	560.00	2.00
16	500.00	510.00	2.00
17	540.00	560.00	2.00
18	600.00	600.00	2.00

SPSS Syntax Basics

Introduction to Syntax

IBM SPSS Statistics has been easy to use with its point and click interface for several decades. Before that, however, SPSS required users to write programs to conduct their analyses. In fact, all the point and click interface does is create syntax for you that is run.

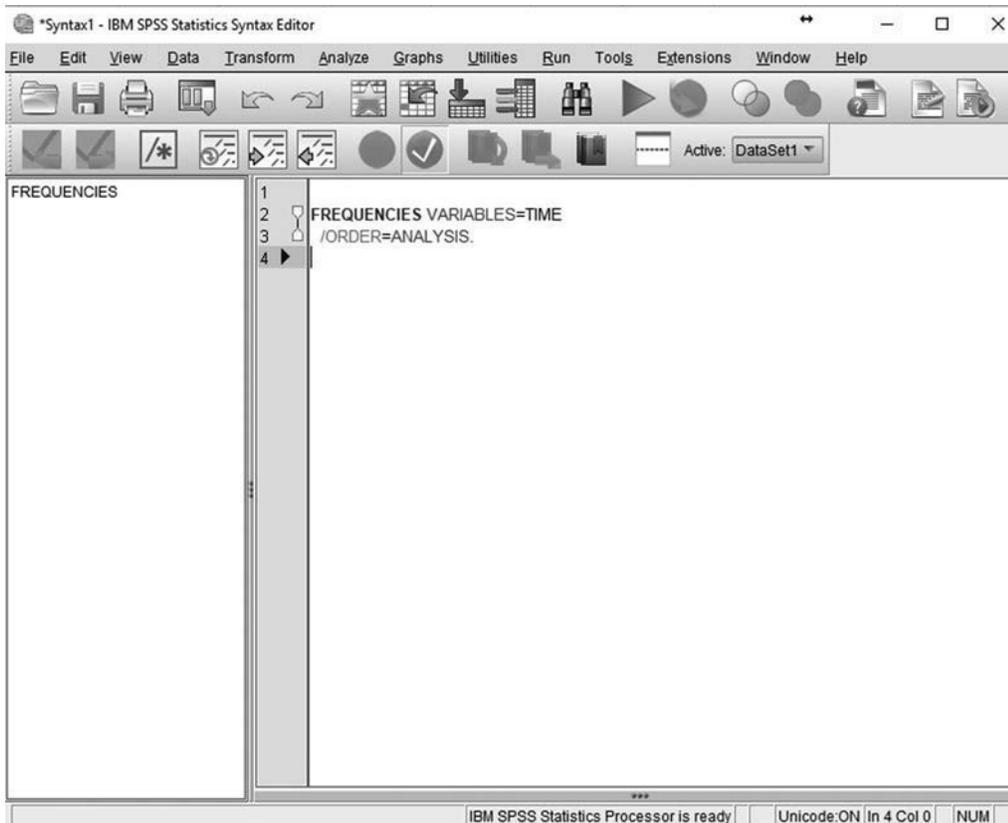
Using syntax can be very useful if you want to save an analysis and run it later. Understanding it is an important part of being able to understand your output as well.

This text will not cover how to create SPSS syntax from scratch. Rather, it will simply cover how to get SPSS to create it for you, and how to read the syntax it creates.

Having SPSS Create Syntax



Most SPSS Dialog Boxes will have a *Paste* option in them. Clicking *Paste* instead of *OK* will put the relevant SPSS Syntax in a Syntax Window.



The syntax window is highlighted to help you understand what the commands are asking SPSS to do. In the example above, the command that was run was the *Frequencies* command. It was run on the variable TIME.

Many SPSS commands have options that are added to them but are not necessarily important at the level of this text. For example, the `/ORDER=ANALYSIS` option above.

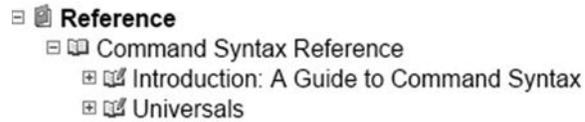
SPSS Syntax Format and SPSS Help

SPSS syntax is written like sentences. In fact, each one ends with a period (“.”). The number of lines it is on does not matter – so it is often best to use several lines to make it easier to read.

Rather than provide extensive coverage in this text, I suggest that if you are interested in SPSS Syntax that you use the excellent help system provided within SPSS itself.

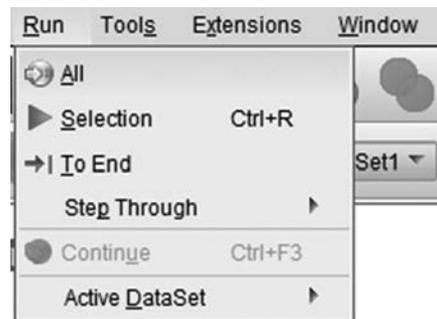


To access that help system, click *Help* then select *Topics*. This will bring up a long list of SPSS Help Topics. Find the section labelled *Reference* and then *Command Syntax Reference* for help with syntax.



Running SPSS Syntax

Whether SPSS creates syntax for you, whether you create it yourself, or whether you modify syntax that SPSS has created, at some point you are going to want to use that syntax.



From a Syntax Window simply select *Run* and then *All*. Alternatively, you can select just some of the text in the window with your mouse and the click *Selection* instead of *All*.

Saving and Loading SPSS Syntax

Syntax files have the extension “.sps” and can be saved and loaded just like other files. To load a file select *File – Open – Syntax*.

Glossary

- All Inclusive** A set of events that encompasses every possible outcome. Also referred to as *exhaustive*.
- Alternative Hypothesis** The opposite of the null hypothesis, normally showing that there is a true difference. Generally, this is the statement that the researcher would like to support.
- Case Processing Summary** A section of SPSS output that lists the number of subjects used in the analysis.
- Coefficient of Determination** The value of the correlation, squared. It provides the proportion of variance accounted for by the relationship.
- Cohen's *d*** A common and simple measure of effect size that standardizes the difference between groups.
- Correlation Matrix** A section of SPSS output in which correlation coefficients are reported for all pairs of variables.
- Covariate** A variable known to be related to the dependent variable but not treated as an independent variable. Used in ANCOVA as a statistical control technique.
- Data Window** The SPSS window that contains the data in a spreadsheet format. This is the window used for running most commands.
- Dependent Variable** An outcome or response variable. The dependent variable is normally dependent on the independent variable.
- Descriptive Statistics** Statistical procedures that organize and summarize data.
- Dialog Box** A window that allows you to enter information that SPSS will use in a command.
- Dichotomous Variables** Variables with only two levels (e.g., gender).
- Discrete Variable** A variable that can have only certain values (i.e., values between which there is no score, like A, B, C, D, F).
- Effect Size** A measure that allows one to judge the relative importance of a difference or relationship by reporting the size of a difference.
- Eta Squared (η^2)** A measure of effect size used in Analysis of Variance models.
- Grouping Variable** In SPSS, the variable used to represent group membership. SPSS often refers to independent variables as grouping variables; SPSS sometimes refers to grouping variables as independent variables.
- Independent Events** Two events are independent if information about one event gives no information about the second event (e.g., two flips of a coin).
- Independent Variable** The variable whose levels (values) determine the group to which a subject belongs. A true independent variable is manipulated by the researcher. See Grouping Variable.
- Inferential Statistics** Statistical procedures designed to allow the researcher to draw inferences about a population on the basis of a sample.
- Interaction** With more than one independent variable, an interaction occurs when a level of one independent variable affects the influence of another independent variable.
- Internal Consistency** A reliability measure that assesses the extent to which all of the items in an instrument measure the same construct.

- Interval Scale** A measurement scale where items are placed in mutually exclusive categories, with equal intervals between values. Appropriate transformations include counting, sorting, and addition/subtraction.
- Levels** The values that a variable can have. A variable with three levels has three possible values.
- Mean** A measure of central tendency where the sum of the deviation scores equals zero.
- Median** A measure of central tendency representing the middle of a distribution when the data are sorted from low to high. Fifty percent of the cases are below the median.
- Mode** A measure of central tendency representing the value (or values) with the most subjects (the score with the greatest frequency).
- Mutually Exclusive** Two events are mutually exclusive when they cannot occur simultaneously.
- Nominal Scale** A measurement scale where items are placed in mutually exclusive categories. Differentiation is by name only (e.g., race, sex). Appropriate categories include “same” or “different.” Appropriate transformations include counting.
- Normal Distribution** A symmetric, unimodal, bell-shaped curve.
- Null Hypothesis** The hypothesis to be tested, normally in which there is no true difference. It is mutually exclusive of the alternative hypothesis.
- Ordinal Scale** A measurement scale where items are placed in mutually exclusive categories, in order. Appropriate categories include “same,” “less,” and “more.” Appropriate transformations include counting and sorting.
- Outliers** Extreme scores in a distribution. Scores that are very distant from the mean and the rest of the scores in the distribution.
- Output Window** The SPSS window that contains the results of an analysis. The left side summarizes the results in an outline. The right side contains the actual results.
- Percentiles (Percentile Ranks)** A relative score that gives the percentage of subjects who scored at the same value or lower.
- Pooled Standard Deviation** A single value that represents the standard deviation of two groups of scores.
- Protected Dependent *t* Tests** *T* tests where the acceptable Type I error rate has been adjusted to prevent the inflation of a Type I error.
- Quartiles** The points that define a distribution into four equal parts: the scores at the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile ranks.
- Random Assignment** A procedure for assigning subjects to conditions in which each subject has an equal chance of being assigned to any condition.
- Range** A measure of dispersion representing the number of points from the highest score through the lowest score.
- Ratio Scale** A measurement scale where items are placed in mutually exclusive categories, with equal intervals between values and a true zero. Appropriate transformations include counting, sorting, addition/subtraction, and multiplication/division.
- Reliability** An indication of the consistency of a scale. A reliable scale is internally consistent and stable over time.
- Robust** A test is said to be robust if it continues to provide accurate results even after the violation of some assumptions.
- Significance** A difference is said to be significant if the probability of making a Type I error is less than the accepted limit (normally 5%). If a difference is significant, the null hypothesis is rejected.
- Skew** The extent to which a distribution is not symmetrical. A positive skew has outliers on the positive (right) side of the distribution. A negative skew has outliers on the negative (left) side of the distribution.
- Source Table** The results of ANOVA are normally presented in the form of a source table in which rows represent a source of variability and the columns represent different amounts of the variability that can be attributed to that source.
- Standard Deviation** A measure of dispersion representing a special type of average deviation from the mean.
- Standard Error of Estimate** The equivalent of the standard deviation for a regression line. The data points will be normally distributed around the regression line with a standard deviation equal to the standard error of the estimate.

Standard Normal Distribution A normal distribution with a mean of 0.0 and a standard deviation of 1.0.

Temporal Stability This is achieved when reliability measures have determined that scores remain stable over multiple administrations of the instrument.

Tukey's *HSD* A post-hoc comparison purported to reveal an "honestly significant difference" (*HSD*).

Type I Error A Type I error occurs when the researcher erroneously rejects the null hypothesis.

Type II Error A Type II error occurs when the researcher erroneously fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Valid Data Data that SPSS will use in its analyses.

Validity An indication of the accuracy of a scale.

Variance A measure of dispersion equal to the squared standard deviation.

F

Selecting the Appropriate Inferential Test

Being able to select the appropriate inferential test for SPSS to run is one of the most important skills you can learn. Unfortunately, the way most statistics classes and statistics texts are set up, each statistical procedure is presented in isolation, and there is rarely an opportunity to synthesize the information and understand when each test is appropriate.

This text contains a decision tree on the inside cover. However, novices sometimes have trouble using that tree because they do not understand the terms used. This appendix expands on the decision tree and provides a comprehensive way to determine which test to run.

To help you use this section of the text, there will be a reference to a “branch” of the decision tree.

Branch 1

The first step in determining what type of statistical test to run is deciding what your main question is.

Sometimes you want to know if a group is “significantly different” from another. This can involve means or shapes of distributions. The basic question, however, is the same. You want to know if the things you are comparing are the same as each other or different from each other. For example, you want to know if a group that received a new treatment had a significantly shorter hospital stay than a group that did not receive the new treatment. If this is what you are trying to do, go to Branch 2.

Other times you are more interested in knowing whether or not there is a relationship between two variables, and if so, how strong that relationship is. These are known as correlations. Here, rather than looking for differences, you are simply looking for stable relationships. For example, is height related to weight? Do students who miss class more often do worse academically? Often, the variables here are continuous and have many levels rather than just a few. If this is what you are interested in, go to Branch 3.

More powerful than association is prediction. If you would like to be able to predict or guess the value of a variable from some other information that you have, then you are interested in regression. For example, if an insurance company wants to predict how much you will cost them in claims based on your driving history, that is a problem for regression. If these are the types of questions you are interested in, go to Branch 6.

Branch 2

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups

The next step is to determine how many Dependent Variables you have. Dependent Variables are the variables that are different from each other. Most of the time you will have only a single Dependent Variable (although you could have one or more Independent Variables).

If you get Independent and Dependent Variables confused, a good way to help clarify is to rephrase the problem as “I am looking for the effect of the (Independent Variable) on the (Dependent Variable).”

- If you have one Dependent Variable, see Branch 9.
- If you have more than one Dependent Variable, see Branch 10.

Branch 3

Your Decisions So Far:

- Measuring Strength of Association

In general, correlations measure the strength of a relationship or association.

This text covers what are known as bivariate correlations—that is, correlations between only two variables at a time. In addition, this text covers only linear correlations—or correlations that assume the relationship being measured generally looks like a line.

In deciding which correlation is appropriate, first you must determine if you can do a parametric or nonparametric correlation. Parametric Tests generally require that the Dependent Variables are measured on an Interval or Ratio measurement scale and that the variables are approximately normally distributed. Nonparametric Tests do not make that assumption.

If either of the variables in your relationship is ordinal (e.g., ranks) you must do a nonparametric correlation. If one of your variables is nominal, you are just out of luck with correlations.

- If you can do a Parametric Correlation, see Branch 4.
- If you must do a Nonparametric Correlation, see Branch 5.

Branch 4

Your Decisions So Far:

- Measuring Strength of Association
- You can do a Parametric Correlation

The appropriate test to do is a Pearson r . This test is covered in detail in Section 5.1 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Correlate → Bivariate.

Answers range from -1 to $+1$. Values close to 0 mean there is a weak relationship. Values closer to $+1$ or -1 mean a stronger relationship. Positive values mean as one variable gets larger, the other variable also gets larger. Negative values mean as one variable gets larger, the other variable gets smaller.

Branch 5

Your Decisions So Far:

- Measuring Strength of Association
- You must do a Nonparametric Correlation

The appropriate test to do is a Spearman ρ . This test is covered in detail in Section 5.2 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Correlate → Bivariate and then selecting Spearman in the dialog box that comes up.

Answers range from -1 to $+1$. Values close to 0 mean there is a weak relationship. Values closer to $+1$ or -1 mean a stronger relationship. Positive values mean as one variable gets larger,

the other variable also gets larger. Negative values mean as one variable gets larger, the other variable gets smaller.

Branch 6

Your Decisions So Far:

- Making Predictions

Predictions are a powerful use of statistics. In this text, we only cover prediction models that assume the variables are related to each other in linear ways. If you have nonlinear relationships, they are beyond the scope of this text.

This text uses the term “Independent Variable” when, in fact, sometimes prediction is done when there is not a true Independent Variable. If you have a design where there is not a true Independent Variable, the variables you use to make a prediction should be considered Independent Variables for purposes of this decision process.

- If you have a single Independent Variable, see Branch 7.
- If you have multiple Independent Variables that you want to use to predict the value of a single Dependent Variable (e.g., predict a GPA from ACT scores, classes missed, and hours spent studying), see Branch 8.

Branch 7

Your Decisions So Far:

- Making Predictions
- Single Independent Variable

The appropriate test to do is a Simple Linear Regression. This test is covered in detail in Section 5.3 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Regression → Linear.

The output will have a B column that provides the answers. The B for Constant is your Y-Intercept, and the B next to the name of your Independent Variable is the slope of the line.

Branch 8

Your Decisions So Far:

- Making Predictions
- Multiple Independent Variables

The appropriate test to do is a Multiple Linear Regression. This test is covered in detail in Section 5.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Regression → Linear and entering more than one Independent Variable.

The output will have a B column that provides the answers. The B for Constant is your Y-Intercept, and the Bs next to the names of your Independent Variables are the weights for each of them.

Branch 9

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable

The next question to ask is whether you can do a Parametric Test or whether you have to do a Nonparametric Test. Parametric Tests generally require that the Dependent Variables are measured on an Interval or Ratio measurement scale, and the variables are approximately normally distributed. With Nonparametric Tests, you do not make that assumption.

- If you can do a Parametric Test, see Branch 11.
- If you must do a Nonparametric Test, see Branch 26.

Branch 10

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- More than One Dependent Variable

The appropriate test to do is a MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance). This test is covered in detail in Section 7.7 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Multivariate.

This text does not cover tests for Nonparametric equivalents of MANOVA. Also, please note that the Advanced Module of IBM SPSS Statistics is required to run this command.

Branch 11

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test

Sometimes when a researcher cannot implement appropriate procedural controls (e.g., random assignment of participants to groups), the overall analysis can be improved by “covarying out” variables that the researcher knows may have an effect on the Dependent Variable.

For example, a researcher may be comparing two different sections of a class, but was unable to assign students to the sections (the students self-selected). The researcher knows that overall GPA is likely to have an effect on the grade in the course. The researcher can, therefore, “covary out” the effect of cumulative GPA from the grades in the two sections to make a better comparison as to whether or not the two sections were different in some other way (e.g., because of a new teaching method).

- If you would like to analyze your data with a Covariate, see Branch 12.
- If you are not going to use a Covariate, see Branch 13.

Branch 12

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- Covariate

The appropriate test to do is ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance). This test is covered in detail in Section 7.6 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Univariate and by entering a variable in the Covariate space.

Branch 13

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate

Next, it is time to make a decision about your Independent Variables. The easiest analyses have a single Independent Variable (e.g., treatment), however, more complex analyses can have multiple Independent Variables that are examined at the same time (e.g., treatment and time).

- If you are simply comparing a single sample to a known population, see Branch 14.
- If you have a single Independent Variable, see Branch 15.
- If you have multiple Independent Variables, see Branch 22.

Branch 14

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Comparison of a Sample to a Population

The appropriate test to do is a single-sample t Test. This test is covered in detail in Section 6.2 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Compare Means → One-Sample T Test.

Branch 15

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable

The number of levels of your Independent Variable also impacts which test is appropriate. Students often get levels of a variable confused with the variable itself. Levels of a variable refer to the distinct and discrete values that it can take on. For example, the variable “sex” has two levels (male and female). If you were comparing three different instructors, the variable “instructor” would have three levels.

- If you have two levels of your Independent Variable, see Branch 16.
- If you have more than two levels of your Independent Variable, see Branch 17.

Branch 16

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable

- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable

Next, you need to determine what kind of design produced the two levels of your Independent Variable.

A Repeated-Measures Design is where the data in the various conditions are in some way related to each other. For example, a pre-test/post-test design or a design utilizing twins would fall into this category. These designs are sometimes called Correlated Groups Designs or Paired Samples Designs.

In an Independent Groups Design, the data in each group are independent of each other. This is the classic Experimental Group/Control Group Design where each participant is in one (and only one) group.

- If you have an Independent Groups Design, see Branch 20.
- If you have a Repeated-Measures Design, see Branch 21.

Branch 17

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable
- More Than Two Levels of the Independent Variable

Next, you need to determine what kind of design produced the levels of your Independent Variable.

A Repeated-Measures Design is where the data in the various conditions are in some way related to each other. For example, comparing grades of the same students when they were freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and then seniors would fall into this category. These designs are sometimes called Correlated Groups Designs, Within-Subjects Designs, or Paired Samples Designs.

In an Independent Groups Design, the data in each group are independent of each other. This is the classic Experimental Group/Control Group Design where each participant is in one (and only one) group. For example, if you were comparing four different PSY101 instructors, you would use an Independent Groups Design. Sometimes this is called a Between-Subjects Design.

- If your Independent Variable represents Independent Groups, see Branch 18.
- If your Independent Variable represents Repeated Measures, see Branch 19.

Branch 18

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable

- More Than Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Independent Groups

The appropriate test to do is a one-way ANOVA (technically a one-way between-subjects ANOVA). This test is covered in detail in Section 7.2 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Compare Means → One-Way ANOVA.

Branch 19

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable
- More Than Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Repeated Measures

The appropriate test to do is a Repeated-Measures ANOVA. This test is covered in detail in Section 7.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Repeated Measures.

Note: This procedure requires the Advanced Module in SPSS.

Branch 20

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Independent Groups

The appropriate test to do is an Independent-Samples t Test. This test is covered in detail in Section 6.3 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Compare Means → Independent-Samples t Test.

Branch 21

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Single Independent Variable
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Repeated Measures

The appropriate test to do is a Paired-Samples t test (sometimes called a Dependent t Test). This test is covered in detail in Section 6.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Compare Means → Paired-Samples t Test.

Branch 22

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Multiple Independent Variables

Next, you need to determine what kind of design produced the levels of your Independent Variables.

A Repeated-Measures Design (also called Within-Subjects) is where the data in the various conditions are in some way related to each other. For example, comparing grades of the same students when they were freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and then seniors would fall into this category. These designs are sometimes called Correlated Groups Designs or Paired Samples Designs.

In an Independent Groups Design (also called Between-Subjects), the data in each group are independent of each other. This is the classic Experimental Group/Control Group Design where each participant is in one (and only one) group. For example, if you were comparing four different PSY101 instructors, you would use an Independent Groups Design.

Because you have more than one Independent Variable, your Independent Variables can all be Repeated Measures, all Independent Groups, or a mix of the two.

- If all of your Independent Variables represent Independent Groups, see Branch 23.
- If all of your Independent Variables represent Repeated Measures, see Branch 24.
- If your Independent Variables are a mix of Independent Groups and Repeated Measures, see Branch 25.

Branch 23

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Multiple Independent Variables
- Independent Measures

The appropriate test to do is a Factorial ANOVA. This test is covered in detail in Section 7.3 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Univariate.

Branch 24

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Multiple Independent Variables
- Repeated Measures

The appropriate test to do is a Repeated-Measures ANOVA. This test is covered in detail in Section 7.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Repeated Measures.

Note: This test requires the Advanced Module to be installed.

Branch 25

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Parametric Test
- No Covariate
- Multiple Independent Variables
- Both Independent and Repeated Measures

The appropriate test to do is a Mixed-Design ANOVA. This test is covered in detail in Section 7.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → General Linear Model → Repeated Measures.

Note: This test requires the Advanced Module to be installed.

Branch 26

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test

While Parametric Tests look for differences in Means, the data on which Nonparametric Tests are calculated often do not lend themselves to the calculation of a Mean (e.g., they are nominal or ordinal).

Thus, the first question in a Nonparametric Test is whether you are interested in differences in proportions of values (used with nominal data) or differences in the ranks of values (ordinal data).

- If you are looking for differences in proportions, see Branch 27.
- If you are looking for differences in ranks, see Branch 30.

Branch 27

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Proportions

Like their Parametric Equivalents, the number of Independent Variables you are examining for Nonparametric Tests must also be determined.

- If you have a single Independent Variable, see Branch 28.
- If you have multiple Independent Variables, see Branch 29.

Branch 28

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Proportions
- One Independent Variable

The appropriate test to do is a Chi-Square Goodness of Fit. This test is covered in detail in Section 8.1 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Nonparametric Tests → One Sample.

Branch 29

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Proportions
- Multiple Independent Variables

The appropriate test to do is a Chi-Square Test of Independence. This test is covered in detail in Section 8.2 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Descriptive Statistics → Crosstabs and then checking Chi-Square in the Statistics option.

Branch 30

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
 - One Dependent Variable
 - Nonparametric Test
 - Difference in Ranks
- If you have more than one Independent Variable, this text does not cover the appropriate Nonparametric Test.
 - If you have a single Independent Variable, however, the number of levels of that variable determines the appropriate test.
 - If your Independent Variable has two levels, see Branch 31.
 - If your Independent Variable has more than two levels, see Branch 32.

Branch 31

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable

Next, you need to determine what kind of design produced the levels of your Independent Variables.

A Repeated-Measures Design (also called Within-Subjects) is where the data in the various conditions are in some way related to each other. For example, comparing class rank of the same students when they were in high school to college would fall into this category. These designs are sometimes called Correlated Groups Designs or Paired Samples Designs.

In an Independent Groups Design (also called Between-Subjects), the data in each group are independent of each other. This is the classic Experimental Group/Control Group Design where each participant is in one (and only one) group. For example, if you were comparing two different people and their performances in various marathons, this would be an Independent Groups Design.

- If you have Independent Groups, see Branch 33.
- If you have Repeated Measures, see Branch 34.

Branch 32

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- More Than Two Levels of the Independent Variable

Next, you need to determine what kind of design produced the levels of your Independent Variables.

A Repeated-Measures Design (also called Within-Subjects) is where the data in the various conditions are in some way related to each other. For example, comparing class rank of the same students when they were freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and then seniors would fall into this category. These designs are sometimes called Correlated Groups Designs or Paired Samples Designs.

In an Independent Groups Design (also called Between-Subjects), the data in each group are independent of each other. This is the classic Experimental Group/Control Group Design where each participant is in one (and only one) group. For example, if you were comparing three different people and their performances in various marathons, this would be an Independent Groups Design.

- If you have Independent Groups, see Branch 35.
- If you have Repeated-Measures Design, see Branch 36.

Branch 33

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Independent Groups

The appropriate test to do is a Mann-Whitney U . This test is covered in detail in Section 8.3 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Nonparametric Tests → Independent Samples.

Branch 34

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Correlated Groups

The appropriate test to do is a Wilcoxon. This test is covered in detail in Section 8.4 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Nonparametric Tests → Related Samples.

Branch 35

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Independent Groups

The appropriate test to do is a Kruskal-Wallis H Test. This test is covered in detail in Section 8.5 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Nonparametric Tests → Independent Samples.

Branch 36

Your Decisions So Far:

- Looking for Differences in Groups
- One Dependent Variable
- Nonparametric Test
- Difference in Ranks
- Two Levels of the Independent Variable
- Correlated Groups

The appropriate test to do is a Friedman. This test is covered in detail in Section 8.6 of this text. It is accessed in SPSS at Analyze → Nonparametric Tests → Related Samples.



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Index

- adding variables 4, 12, 18–19
- alpha levels 65–6; *see also* Cronbach's Alpha
- alternative hypothesis 65, 147
- American Psychological Association 129
- analyses, running of 8
- analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) 92–5
- analysis of variance (ANOVA) 57–8, 61, 64, 78–98; effect size for 132–3; factorial 82–5, 93; mixed-design 89–92; multivariate 95–8; one-way 78–82, 113, 116–18; repeated-measures 85–90, 118
- Analyze* menu 8
- asterisks (*) indicating correlation 52, 55

- Basic Elements* tab 41
- between-groups variability 78, 80
- between-subjects designs 45
- Bivariate Correlations* dialog box 51, 54

- case processing summary 31, 147
- Cells* option 26, 105
- central tendency, measures of 27–9
- Chart Builder 39–41, 44–7
- Chart Editor 44, 48
- charts 35–8, 44–8
- Charts* button and dialog box 37
- Chi-Square* command 100
- chi-square (χ^2) test 99–106
- coefficient of determination 57, 61, 147; effect size for 131–2
- Cohen's *d* 129, 147
- Cohen's *Kappa* 127–8
- columns of data 13
- Compute Variable* command 17–18
- conditions to be satisfied by data 15
- contingency tables 26
- correlation: effect size for 131–2; non-parametric 54; *positive* and *negative* 52, 58; *strong, weak* and *moderate* 52, 55
- correlation matrices 51, 124, 147
- covariance 147; *see also* analysis of covariance
- criterion-related validity 126–7
- critical values 66
- Cronbach's Alpha 125–6
- Crosstabs* command 25, 104
- Crosstabs* output 26

- d* values 129, 147
- data: entering of 1–3; loading and saving of 6–7; modification of 10–12; types of 13–14
- data window 1, 3, 5, 7–9, 14, 16–17, 20, 33, 147
- degrees of freedom 53, 55, 58, 64, 67, 72, 91, 94, 106
- Delete* key 10
- Dependent List* field 30
- dependent variable 30–1, 42, 45, 58, 60, 137
- descriptive statistics 21–34, 147
- Descriptives* command 27–9, 31, 33
- dichotomous variables 56, 59, 147
- dispersion, measures of 27–9, 57

- Edit*→*Options*→*General* command 9
- effect size 52, 129–33, 147; for
 - analysis of variance 132–3; for
 - correlation and regression 131–2;
 - for *t* Tests 130–1
- Element Properties* window 44
- equations 18
- Eta squared (η^2) 132, 147
- Excel 48
- expected values 103
- extensions for SPSS files 6, 10

- F* ratio 81, 84
- factorial ANOVA 82–5, 93
- filters 17
- Frequencies* command 21–4, 27–8, 35, 37, 44
- frequency distributions 21–7, 35; creation
 - of 22; output 22–3
- Friedman Test 118–22

- Gallery* tab 41
- General Linear Model (GLM)* command
 - 87, 89–90, 132–3
 - goodness-of-fit test 99–102
 - graphs 35–49; editing of 48–9
 - grouping variable 30, 70, 147
- Groups/Point/ID* tab 44

- H*Test 113–18
- histogram 35, 37, 39, 48–9; normal curve
 - on 39
- HSD test 80–1, 85, 149
- hypothesis testing 65–8, 129

- If* button 15
- independence of variables, chi-square test
 - for 103–6
- Independent List* field 30
- independent variable 30–1, 42, 45, 58, 60, 147; more than one 31
- inferential statistics 65, 147;
 - non-parametric 99–122
- interaction between variables 82, 84, 91–4, 147
- internal consistency of a dataset 123, 125, 147
- interquartile range 28–9
- inter-rater reliability 127–8
- interval scales 13, 148
- italics*, use of 67–8
- item-total analysis 123–5

- Kappa* values 127–8
- Koch, G.G. 128
- Kruskal-Wallis *H*Test 113–18

- Landis, J.R. 128
- linear regression: multiple 59–64; simple
 - 55–9, 62
- loaded dice 103
- logical statements for selection of cases
 - 16

- MacOS version of SPSS 1
- Mann-Whitney *U*Test 106–10
- margins of error 61
- mean of *sample* and of *population* 69
- mean values 9, 13–14, 17, 27–30, 148
- Means* command 29–30
- Measure* column 13
- measurement scales 13
- median values 24, 27–9, 148
- missing data 14
- mode of a distribution 24, 27, 148
- Model Summary 57, 61
- ModelViewer 102–3, 109, 112–13, 116–18, 121
- modification of data files 10–12
- multivariate analysis of variance 95–8
- multivariate linear regression 59–64

- nominal scales 13, 25, 148
- nonparametric tests: appropriate use
 - of 99; one-sample type 100, 102;
 - parametric equivalents of 106, 110, 113, 118
- Nonparametric Tests* command 109
- normal distribution 27, 50, 56, 59, 68, 70, 73, 78, 99, 148; *see also* standard normal distribution
- null hypothesis 65–6, 101–2, 148

- one-tailed tests 67
- ordinal scales 13–14, 25, 148
- outliers 21, 148
- output window 1, 9–10, 148; *outline view*
 - of 9

- Pearson correlation coefficient 50–3, 75, 126
- percentile ranks 21–4, 148
- pie charts 35–8
- Plots* option 91
- post-hoc* analysis 80–1, 84, 88, 91, 94

- practical significance of test values 132
- prime (') notation 58
- printing of output 10
- protected dependent *t* tests 88, 148
- quartiles 23–4, 148
- R* square (R^2) 57–8, 61, 131
- random assignment into groups 70, 92, 148
- random errors 65
- range* measure 27–9, 148
- ratio scales 13, 148
- Recode into Different Variables* dialog box 19
- regression, effect size for 131–2; *see also* linear regression
- reliability, tests of 123–7, 148
- repeated-measures designs 45–6, 85–90
- rho values 127
- robustness of statistical tests 69–70, 148
- rows of data 13
- sample mean 69
- sample size 129, 132
- “.sav” extension 6–7
- saving of work 7
- scatterplots 41–4
- scientific notation 4
- Select Cases* command 15
- significance levels (*p*) 52, 57–8, 61–4, 66–7, 70, 76, 81–2, 84, 88, 94, 101, 106; two-tailed 76
- significance testing, 65–7, 148
- skewness 21, 148
- source tables 78, 80, 148
- Spearman correlation coefficient 50, 53–5
- Spearman’s rho 127
- split-plot design 89
- spreadsheet, output sent to 10
- “.spv” extension 10
- standard deviation 27–33, 148; pooled 130, 148
- standard error of estimate 57, 61, 148
- standard normal distribution 32, 149
- standard scores 32–4
- standardized differences 129
- startup procedure 1
- subsets of data 14–17, 29, 32
- t* Tests: effect size for 130–1; for independent samples 70–3, 106, 110; for paired samples 73–7; *protected dependent type* 88, 148; *single-sample type* 68–70
- Target Variable* field 18
- temporal stability 126, 149
- test construction 123–8
- test-retest reliability 126
- Tukey’s HSD 80–1, 85, 149
- two-tailed tests 66–7
- Type I* error 65–7, 78–81, 88, 149
- Type II* error 65–7, 149
- U* Test 106–10
- Unix version of SPSS 1
- USB drives 7
- validity: criterion-related 126–7; of data 149; of a scale 149; of a statistical test 123, 125
- value labels for variables 4–5
- variability between and within groups 78, 80
- variables: creation and naming of 4, 18–19; definition of 3–6, 41; description of 4; types of 4, 45; used in a particular analysis 8–9
- variance 27, 149; proportion explained 57, 61, 81, 132
- Wilcoxon Test 110–13
- Wilks’ Lambda* 96–7
- Windows version of SPSS 1
- within-group variability 78, 80
- word processor, output sent to 10
- z*-scores 32–3, 50



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