

محاف رة بعنوان أساسيات التحليل الإحصائي للبيانات واختبار الفرضيات

يلقيها الدكتور : **أحمد محمد**

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໐ خبير التحليل الاحصائي للبيانات والاستبيانات وتصميم التجارب

اليــوم FRI الجمعة



Analysis

التاسعة مساءا 9:00 توقيت مكة المكرمة السادسة مساءا 6:00 بتوقيت غرينتش

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Lecture One Outline

- What is Statistics and Why do we need it?
- Introduction to statistics (population, sample)
- Branches of Statistics
- Variables types.
- Define variables.
- What is SPSS.
- The SPSS Environment.
- Define a hypothesis.
- Five-step hypothesis-testing procedure.
- Null and Alternative Hypotheses.
- Type I and Type II errors.
- Power of test.
- One-tailed and a two-tailed test of hypothesis.
- P-value.
- One-Sample Tests

- After studying this lesson you will be able to:
- • Construct a frequency distribution
- • Calculate and interpret four measures of central location: mode, median, arithmetic mean, and geometric mean
- • Apply the most appropriate measure of central location for a frequency distribution
- Apply and interpret four measures of spread: range, interquartile range, standard deviation, and confidence interval (for mean)
- Outline of lecture
- Introduction to statistics
- Some Basic Concepts,
- Population,
- Sample,
- Types of variables,

- Statistical terms
- Statistics , data , Biostatistics,
- Descriptive and inferential statistics
- Characteristics of Sigma (summation,∑)_{Variable}, <u>Population</u>, <u>Sample</u>
- Sampling and Statistical Inference)
- Discrete and Continuous data
- Central value and dispersion

Why Study Statistics?

Why is statistics required in so many majors?

- The first reason is that numerical information is everywhere.
- A second reason for taking a statistics course is that statistical techniques are used to make decisions that affect our daily lives. That is, they affect our personal welfare.
- A third reason for taking a statistics course is that the knowledge of statistical methods will



- طبقا للعديد من الاحصائيات من المنتدى الاقتصادى العالمى
 و Indeed وقناة CNN وغيرها سوف تكون الوظائف الاكثر
 طلبا ودخلا
- مطور تطبيقات Applications Developer

حجم البيانات في الدقيقة

کوینتلیون

25000000000000

🖊 ىيانات

ای ما یعادل اذا تم حفظها

CD على

پایت پیانات

مهمتي معك : سوف اجعلك تفكر كمحلل بيانات

- مخترق اخلاقی Ethical Hacker
- محلل بيانات Data Analyst (البيانات هي نفط المستم
 - امن وحماية المعلومات Cyber Security
 - مطور برمجیات Programs Developer
 - Market Research Analyst
 - اختصاصي بيانات Data Specialist
 - مصمم ویب Web Designer
 - مبرمج موقع Site Programmer
 - اخصائی نانوتکنولوجی
 - مهندس برمجيات Software Engineer
 - صانع ومحلل أكوادCoder
- مدير قاعدة بيانات atabase Administrator
- مصمم واقع افتراضي rtual reality Designer
 - الطاقة البديلة
 - الطباعة ثلاثية الابعاد
 - المخطط المالى

Data don't sleep

- 1. In the " data age ".. " data don't sleep "..
- 2. In the latest "data never **Sleeps**" report, there are amazing statistics of what happens in the data world every minute:
- Every minute: 4,497,420 Google search is done.
- Every minute: 4,500,000 videos are watched on Youtube.
- Every minute: **511,200 tweet** is posted on **Twitter**.
- Every minute: 188,000,000 emails are sent.
- Every minute: 231,840 calls are made via Skype.
- Every minute: 55,140 photos are posted on Instagram.
- Every minute: 277,777 "story" is posted on Instagram.
- Every minute: The American people alone consume 4,416,720 gb online.
- Every minute: 1,389 reservations are made via Airbnb website.
- Every minute: 9,772 flights are booked through Uber.
- Every minute: \$ 162,037 transfers are made via venmo money transfer platform.
- Every minute: **18,100,000** text messages are sent.
- Every minute: **390,030** apps are uploaded.
- Every minute: 694,444 hours of videos are watched on Netflix.

Biostatistics provides a framework for the analysis of .data

Through the application of statistic principles to the biologic sciences, biostatisticians are able to methodically distinguish between true differences among observations and random variations caused by .chance alone

<u>Meaning of Statistics</u>

- IS the art of learning from data. OR
- A collection of numerical information is called statistics (plural).
- **Statistics** is a way to get information from data.

Data



Information

- Statistics is the science of Learning from Data.
- The term statistics, derived from the word state, was used to refer to a collection of facts of interest to the state.
- Statistics is defined as a branch of mathematics or science that deals with Collecting, Organizing, Presenting, Analyzing and Interpretation of data to assist in making more effective decisions.
- It deals with all aspects of this, including the planning of data collection in terms of the design of surveys and experiments.

Why Study Statistics? Or Why is statistics required in so many majors?

- The first reason is that numerical information is everywhere.
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- In the early 20th century, two of the most important areas of applied statistics were population biology and agriculture.
- Nowadays the ideas of statistics are everywhere. Public health and medical research,

Marketing and quality control, Education, Accounting, Economics, Meteorological forecasting, Polling and surveys, Sports, Insurance, Social, and All research that makes any claim to being scientific. (Tasting Tea)

Branches of Statistics

Biostatistics or Biometry. *Biostatistics* can be defined as the application of the mathematical tools used in statistics to the fields of biological sciences *and* medicide. **DS or TYPES OF STATISTICS**

Mathematical Statistics Eagences ical Statistics and Secial statistics

- consists of methods for organizing, displaying, and describing data by using tables, graphs, and summary measures.
- **OR** Methods of organizing, summarizing, and presenting data in an informative way.

2- Inferential Statistics

- consists of methods that use sample results to help make decisions or predictions about a population.
- OR The drawing of inferences (decision) about a body of data when only a part of the data is

What is the Difference between Descriptive and Inferential Statistics?











The Development of Statistics

- Historically, descriptive statistics appeared before inferential statistics.
- Censuses were taken as long ago as Roman times.
- Over the centuries, records of such things as births, deaths, marriages, and taxes led naturally to the development of descriptive statistics.
- Inferential statistics is a newer arrival.
- Major developments began to occur with the research of Karl Pearson (1857–1936) and Ronald Fisher (1890–1962), who published their findings in the early years of the twentieth century.
- Since the work of Pearson and Fisher, inferential statistics has evolved rapidly and is now applied in a myriad of fields.

- Descriptive and Inferential Statistics
- When analysing data, such as the marks achieved by 100 students for a piece of coursework, it is possible to use both descriptive and inferential statistics in your analysis of their marks.
- Typically, in most research conducted on groups of people, you will use both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse your results and draw conclusions.
- Typically, there are two general types of statistic that are used to describe data:
- **1- Measures of central tendency:** We can describe this central position using a number of statistics, including the mode, median, and mean.

2- Measures of spread: To describe this spread, a number of statistics are available to us, including the range, quartiles, absolute deviation, variance and <u>standard deviation</u>.

- When we use descriptive statistics it is useful to summarize our group of data using a combination of tabulated description (i.e., tables), graphical description (i.e., graphs and charts) and statistical commentary (i.e., a discussion of the results).
- What are the limitations of descriptive statistics?
- Descriptive statistics are limited in so much that they only allow you to make summations about the people or objects that you have actually measured.
- You cannot use the data you have collected to generalize to other people

• Inferential Statistics

- It is not feasible to measure all exam marks of all students in the whole of the UK so you have to measure a smaller sample of students (e.g., 100 students), which are used to represent the larger population of all UK students. Properties of samples, such as the mean or standard deviation, are not called parameters, but statistics.
- Inferential statistics are techniques that allow us to use these samples to make generalizations about the populations from which the samples were drawn. It is, therefore, important that the sample accurately represents the population.
- The process of achieving this is called **sampling**. Inferential statistics arise out of the fact that sampling naturally incurs sampling error and thus a sample is not expected to perfectly represent the population.
- The methods of inferential statistics are
- (1) the estimation of parameter(s) and
- (2) testing of statistical hypotheses.
- What are the limitations of inferential statistics?
- First, and most important limitation, which is present in all inferential statistics, is that you are providing data about a population that you have not fully measured, and therefore, cannot ever be completely sure that the values/statistics you calculate are correct. Remember, inferential statistics are based on the concept of using the values measured in a sample to estimate/infer the values that would be measured in a population; there will always be a degree of uncertainty in doing this.
- The second limitation is connected with the first limitation. Some, but not all, inferential tests require the user (i.e., you) to make educated guesses (based on theory) to run the inferential tests. Again, there will be some uncertainty in this process, which will have repercussions on the certainty of the results of some

Key Statistical Concepts...

- A **population (universe)** is the collection of all <u>items or things</u> under consideration
- OR the total amount of "THINGS"
- The word population or statistical population is used for all the individuals or objects on which we have to make some study.
- Example: All the children in the primary schools will make a population.
- The population may contain living or non-living things. The entire lot of anything under study is called population. All the fruit trees in a garden, all the patients in a hospital and all the cattle in a cattle form are examples of population in different studies.
- Two kinds of populations: *Finite* and *Infinite population*.
- <u>1- Finite Population</u>: also called a Countable Population
- A population is called finite if it is possible to count its individuals.
- **Example:** The number of vehicles crossing a bridge every day, the number of births per years and the number of words in a book are finite populations.

The number of units in a finite population is denoted by **N**. Thus N is the size of the population.

<u>2- Infinite Population</u>: or Uncountable

- Sometimes it is not possible to count the units contained in the population.
- Such a population is called infinite or uncountable. Let us suppose that we want to examine whether a coin is true or not.
- The number of germs in the body of a patient of malaria is perhaps something

- A parameter is a summary measure that describes a characteristic of the entire population. It is fixed inside the same population.
- **Problem:** can't study/survey whole population, especially infinite population Solution: Use a <u>Sample</u> which is subset, selected from population
- A sample is a portion of the population selected for analysis
 - A statistic is a summary measure computed from a sample to describe a characteristic of the population Key Statistical Concepts...



for the population.

Why Sampling?

- 2- Less costs
- 3- Less field time
- 4- More accuracy i.e. Can Do A Better Job of Data Collection

5- When it's impossible to study the whole population *Statistical inference* is the procedure by which we reach a conclusion about a population on the basis of the information contained in a sample that has

Sample should be <u>representative</u> of the target population so you can *generalize* to population



Random sampling

All members of population have equal chance of being selected Roll dice, flip coin, draw from hat

Types of Sampling Methods

Non-Probability Sampling -- Items included are chosen without regard to their probability of occurrence.

- i. Judgment
- ii. Quota
- iii. Chunk
- iv. Convenience

Probability Sampling – Items are chosen based on a known probability. Let N=size of the population and n=desired sample size

- v. With replacement -- Prob. of each item and any round =(1/N)
- vi. Without replacement -- Prob. of each item =(1/N), 1/(N-1), ...1/[N-(n-1)]



What is the Difference between Statistic and Parameters?

What is the difference between ? a Statistic and a Parameter



Comparison Chart between Statistics and

| BASIS FOR COMPARISON | POPULATION | SAMPLE | | | |
|-------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|
| Meaning | Population refers to the collection of all elements possessing common characteristics, that comprises universe. | Sample means a subgroup of the members of population chosen for participation in the study. | | | |
| Includes | Each and every unit of the group. | Only a handful of units of population. | | | |
| Characteristic | Parameter | Statistic | | | |
| Data collection | Complete enumeration or census | Sample survey or sampling | | | |
| Focus on | Identifying the characteristics. | . Making inferences about population. | | | |
| BASIS FOR COMPARISON | PARAMETER | STATISTICS | | | |
| Meaning | Parameter refers to a measure which describes population. | Statistic is a measure which describes a fraction of population. | | | |
| Numerical value | Fixed and Unknown | Variable and Known | | | |
| Statistical Notation | μ = Population Mean | $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{Sample Mean}$ | | | |

| n ropatation mean | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| σ = Population Standard Deviation | s = Sample Standard Deviation |
| P = Population Proportion | $p^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{^{$ |
| X = Data Elements | x = Data Elements |
| N = Size of Population | n = Size of sample |
| ρ = Correlation coefficient | r = Correlation coefficient |

1

researcher obtains the average weight of 54 kg, from a random sample of 40 females.

Solution: In the given situation, the statistics is the average weight of 54 kg, calculated from a simple random sample of 40 females, in India while the parameter is the mean weight of all females aged 22 years or older.

Example : A researcher wants to estimate the average amount of water consumed by male teenagers in a day. From a simple random sample of 55 male teens the researcher obtains an average of 1.5 litres of water.

Solution: In this question, the parameter is the average amount of water consumed by all male teenagers, in a day whereas the statistic is the average 1.5 litres of water consumed in a day by male teens, obtained from a simple random sample of 55 male teens.

Research Study

A research study is a scientific study of a phenomenon of interest.
 Planning and designing of experiment or survey
 Data collection

- 3. Data analysis using statistical tools Interpretation
- 5. Presentation of valid conclusions



What is DATA

- **Data (singular)**: The value of the variable associated with one element of a population or sample. This value may be a number, a word, or a symbol.
- **Data (plural)**: The set of values collected for the variable from each of the elements belonging to the sample.
- **Experiment**: A planned activity whose results yield a set of data.
- **Parameter:** A numerical value summarizing all the data of an entire population.
- **Statistic**: A numerical value summarizing the sample data.
- Variable: A characteristic about each individual element of a population or sample.
- Whether you are conducting routine surveillance, investigating an outbreak, or conducting a study, you must first compile information in an organized manner. One common method is to create a <u>line list</u> or <u>line listing</u>. Table 2.1 is a typical line listing from an epidemiologic investigation of an apparent cluster of hepatitis A
- The line listing is one type of epidemiologic database, and is organized like a spreadsheet with rows and columns.
- Typically, <u>each</u> <u>row</u> is called a <u>record</u> <u>or</u> <u>observation</u> and represents one person or case of disease.
- <u>Each</u> <u>column</u> is called a <u>variable</u> and contains information about one characteristic of the individual, such as race or date of birth. The first column or variable of an epidemiologic database usually contains the person's name,

| Table 2.1 Line Listing of Hepatitis A Cases, County Health Department, January — February 2004 | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----------------------|------|----------------|-----|------|----------|----------|-------------|------------|-----------------|
| | ID | Date of Diagnosis | Town | Age (Years) | Sex | Hosp | Jaundice | Outbreak | IV Drugs | IgM Pos | Highest ALT* |
| | 01 | 01/05 | В | 74 | М | Y | Ν | Ν | Ν | Y | 232 |
| | 02 | 01/06 | J | 29 | М | Ν | Y | Ν | Y | Y | 285 |
| | 03 | 01/08 | K | 37 | М | Y | Y | Ν | Ν | Υ | 3250 |
| | 04 | 01/19 | J | 3 | F | Ν | Ν | Ν | Ν | Y | 1100 |
| | 05 | 01/30 | С | 39 | М | Ν | Y | Ν | Ν | Y | 4146 |
| | 06 | 02/02 | D | 23 | Μ | Y | Y | Ν | Y | Y | 1271 |
| | 07 | 02/03 | F | 19 | М | Y | Y | Ν | Ν | Y | 300 |
| | 08 | 02/05 | Ι | 44 | М | Ν | Y | Ν | Ν | Y | 766 |
| | 09 | 02/19 | G | 28 | М | Y | Ν | Ν | Y | Y | 23 |
| | 10 | 02/22 | Е | 29 | F | Ν | Y | Y | Ν | Y | 543 |
| | 11 | 02/23 | Α | 21 | F | Y | Y | Y | Ν | Υ | 1897 |
| | 12 | 02/24 | Н | 43 | М | Ν | Y | Y | Ν | Υ | 1220 |
| | 13 | 02/26 | В | 49 | F | Ν | Ν | Ν | Ν | Υ | 644 |
| | 14 | 02/26 | Н | 42 | F | Ν | Ν | Y | Ν | Y | 2581 |
| | 15 | 02/27 | Е | 59 | F | Y | Y | Y | Ν | Y | 2892 |
| | 16 | 02/27 | Е | 18 | Μ | Y | Ν | Y | Ν | Y | 814 |
| | 17 | 02/27 | А | 19 | Μ | Ν | Y | Y | Ν | Y | 2812 |
| | 18 | 02/28 | Е | 63 | F | Y | Y | Y | Ν | Y | 4218 |
| | 19 | 02/28 | Е | 61 | F | Y | Y | Y | Ν | Y | 3410 |
| | 20 | 02/29 | А | 40 | Μ | Ν | Y | Y | Ν | Υ | 4297 |

Types of Variables

Look again at the variables (columns) and values (individual entries in each column) in Table 2.1. If you were asked to summarize these

Sources of data

- Before collection of data , a decision maker needs to:
 - Prepare a clear and concise statement of purpose.
 - Develop a set of meaningful measurable specific objective.
 - Determine the type of analyses needed.
 - Determine what data is required.
- Primary Data Collection
 - Experimental Design
 - Conduct Survey
 - Observation (focus group)
- Secondary Data Compilation/Collection
 - Mostly governmental or industrial, but also individual sources
 - Internet

Data are usually available from one or more of the following sources:

- **Routinely Kept Records**
- Surveys
- Experiments
- Reports





QUANTITATIVE DATA

DATA THAT IS MEASURED IN NUMBERS. IT DEALS WITH NUMBERS THAT MAKE SENSE TO PERFORM ARITHMETIC CALCULATIONS WITH REFERS TO THE VALUES THAT PLACE "THINGS" INTO DIFFERENT GROUPS OR CATEGORIES

QUANTITATIVE VARIABLES

HEIGHT WEIGHT MIDTERM SCORE

CATEGORICAL VARIABLES

CATEGORICAL DATA

HAIR COLOUR TYPE OF CAT LETTER GRADE

Types of Data

There are Two types of data (or numbers): constants and variables.

1. Constants

- A *constant*, as its name suggests, is something that does not vary or change (or that may not be susceptible to variation or change).
- OR Any quantity which can assume only one value is called constant.
- A constant is usually denoted by first letter of alphabet e.g. a, b, c etc.
 Example:
- Example of constants are π = 3.14159 and **e** = 2.71828.
- we could keep the temperature of a room constant at 35° C during an experiment. In this case, temperature stops being a variable.
- <u>2-Variable or random variable:</u>
- A measure quantity which can vary from time to time, place to place, person to person is called variable.
- Variable are usually denoted by capital letters such as X, Y, Z etc.
- Random Variable Values obtained are not controlled by the researcher (theoretically values differ from item to item)
- Example e.g. height, weight, ages, prices etc.
- Diastolic blood pressure, heart rate, the heights of adult males, the weights of preschool children, and the ages of patients seen in a dental clinic

Variable

A variable is defined as a characteristic of the participants or

situation for a given study that has different values in that study.

A variable must be able to vary or have different values or levels.

- For example, gender is a variable because it has two levels, female or male.
- Age is a variable that has a large number of values.
- Type of treatment/intervention (or type of curriculum) is a variable if there is more than one treatment or a treatment and a control group.
- Number of days to learn something or to recover from an ailment are common measures of the effect of a treatment and, thus, are also variables.
- · Similarly amount of mathematics knowledge is a

- Types of Variable
- All experiments examine some kind of variable(s).
- A variable is not only something that we measure, but also something that we can manipulate and something we can control for.
- To understand the characteristics of variables and how we use them in research, this guide is divided into three main sections. First, we illustrate the role of dependent and independent variables. Second, we discuss the difference between experimental and non-experimental research. Finally, we explain how variables can be characterised as either categorical or continuous.
- Dependent and Independent Variables
- An <u>independent</u> variable, sometimes called an <u>experimental</u> or <u>predictor</u> variable, is a variable that is being manipulated in an experiment in order to observe the effect on a <u>dependent</u> variable, sometimes called an <u>outcome</u> variable.
- **Example : Dependent** Variable: Test Mark (measured from 0 to 100)
- Independent Variables: Revision time (measured in hours) Intelligence (measured using IQ score)
- The dependent variable is simply that, a variable that is dependent on an independent variable(s). For Therefore, the aim of the tutor's investigation is to examine whether these independent variables revision time and IQ result in a change in the dependent variable, the students' test scores. However, it is also worth noting that whilst this is the main aim of the experiment, the tutor may also be interested to know if the independent variables revision time and IQ are also connected in some way.
- In the section on experimental and non-experimental research that follows, we find out a little more about the nature of independent and dependent variables.







Table 2.2 Types of Variables

| Scale | | Example | Values |
|----------|--------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Nominal | \ "categorical" or | disease status ovarian | yes / no |
| Ordinal | / "qualitative" | cancer | Stage I, II, III, or IV |
| Interval | \ "continuous" or | date of birth tuberculin | any date from recorded time to current |
| Ratio | / "quantitative" | skin test | 0 – ??? of induration |



Types of Variable or Random variable

There are **Two** types of a variable.

- Quantitative Variable
- Qualitative Variable
 - I. Quantitative Variable or Numerical variable
 - A variable which can be expressed numerically is called quantitative variable.
 - **OR** a variable which can possess some units of measurements is called quantitative variable.
 - Quantitative data are always <u>numeric</u>.
- A *quantitative variable* Variables that have are measured on a numeric or quantitative scale. Ordinal, interval and ratio scales are quantitative. A country's population, a person's shoe size, or a car's speed are all quantitative variables.
- II- *qualitative variable* Categorical. Categorical variables take on values that are names or labels. The color of a ball (e.g., red, green, blue) or the breed of a dog (e.g., collie, shepherd, terrier) would be examples of categorical variables.
- Measurements made on quantitative variables convey information regarding amount.
- **Example:** We can obtain measurements on;
- The height can be expressed in inches centimeter, meters etc,
- The weights of pre-school children which can be expressed in kgs, grams etc
- The ages of patients seen in a clinic
- The number of children in a family


Levels of Measurement

- Data can be classified according to levels of measurement.
- The level of measurement of the data dictates the calculations that can be done to summarize and present the data.
- It will also determine the statistical tests that should be performed.
- For example, there are six colors of candies in a bag of M&M's.
- Suppose we assign brown a value of 1, yellow 2, blue 3, orange 4, green 5, and red 6. From a bag of candies, we add the assigned color values and divide by the number of candies and report that the mean color is 21/6=3.5. Does this mean that the average color is blue or orange? Of course not!
- As a second example, in a high school track meet there are eight competitors in the 400-meter run.
- We report the order of finish and that the mean finish is 4.5.
- What does the mean finish tell us? Nothing! In both of these instances, we have not properly used the level of measurement.
- There are actually four levels of measurement: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio.
- The lowest, or the most primitive, measurement is the nominal level. The highest, or the level that gives us the most information about the observation, is the ratio level of measurement.

Measurement Scales

Measurement may be defined as the assignment of numbers to objects or events according to a set of rules.

There are Four <u>Measurement Scales</u> result from the fact that measurement may be carried out under different sets of rule







أنواع المقاييس (أو مستوياتها) Levels of Measurement Scales

* يمكن تقسيم أنواع (أو مستويات)، القياس إلى أربعة أنواع هي: الاسمى، والرتبى، والفئوي (الفتري) ، والنسبى. * وفيما يلى نتتاول كل منها بالتفصيل: * أولاً: القياس الاسمى Nominal Scale * وأهم خصائص هذا المقياس ما يلي: 1- انه ينتمي إلى مجموعات للتغيرات الوصفية. 2- يتم تصنيف الصفات أو الحالات في مجموعات متشابهة (تحمل الخصائص نفسها). 3– وهذه الصفات أو الحالات تُعطى أرقاماً للمساعدة على التمييز بينها فقط وسهولة إدخالها (والتعامل مع) الحاسب الآلي مثل: – النوع: (1) ذكر (2) أنثى ₍ Dichotomous – الجنسية : (1) سعودي (2) غير سعودي ا - الحالة الاجتماعية: (1) أعزب (2) متزوج (3) أرمل (4) مطلق 4- وهذه ا لأرقام ليست لها قيم حقيقية فهى فقط للتصنيف وللتعامل مع الحاسب الآلي. 5- وهذه الأرقام - بالتالي - لا تخضع للجمع، ولا للطرح ، ولا للضرب، ولا للقسمة . أي لا يمكن أن تجري عليها أي عمليات حسابية. 6- كما لا يمكن ترتيبها تصاعدياً أو تنازلياً بمعنى أي ترتيب بينها

ممكن.

- 7- ولذلك لا يمكن استخدام الأساليب الإحصائية المعروفة مثل: الوسط الحسابي، والانحراف المعياري والتباين ...وإلخ. وكل ما يمكن حسابه مع هذا المقياس: التكرارات، والنسب المئوية، والمنوال (والذي يعرف بأنه القيمة أو الصفة أو الحالة التي تتكرر أكثر من غيرها. أي القيمة أو الصفة الشائعة). 8- ولكل ما سبق : فإن المقياس الاسمي هو أدنى درجات او مستويات القياس.
- امثلة من العلوم الاجتماعية او استمارة الاستبيان النوع (ذكر, انثى) والحالة الاجتماعية (محرى, سعودى.....)
- فى العلوم الطبيعية فى Nominal ومن امثلة المتغيرات الاسمية التجارب المعملية او الحقلية
- انواع مختلفة من التسميد (نيتروجين وفوسفات وبوتاسيوم...) •
- Drugs (......) انواع مختلفة من الدواء
- Effect of different hormone treatments [Hormone 1, Hormone 2 and Control (placebol) Analysis of variance may be used in an industrial setting. For example, managers of a soda-bottling company suspected that four filling machines were not filling the soda cans in a uniform way. An experiment on four machines doing five runs each gave the data in the following table.

Four brands of cereal are compared to see if they produce significant weight gain in rats. Four groups of seven rats each were given a diet of the respective cereal brand. At the end of the experimental period, the rats were weighed and the weight was compared to the weight just prior to the start of the cereal diet. Determine whether each brand has a statistically significant effect on the amount of weight gain. The data are provided in the table below.

| Rat Weight by Brand of Cereal | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Brand A (weight gain in oz) | Brand B (weight gain in oz) | Brand C (weight gain in oz) | Brand D (weight gain in oz) | | | | | | |
| 9 | 5 | 2 | 3 | | | | | | |
| 7 | 4 | 1 | 8 5 | | | | | | |
| 8 | 6 | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 8 | 4 | 2 | 9 | | | | | | |
| 7 5 2 2 | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | 7 | 3 | 7 | | | | | | |
| 8 | 3 | 2 | 8 | | | | | | |
| Source: Modification of Exercise 10.13, page 173, Kuzma and Bohnenblust (2001). | | | | | | | | | |

- <u>ثانياً: المقياس الرتبي (أو الترتيبي)</u> Ordinal Scale * ومن أهم خصائص هذا المقياس ما يلي: 1- أنه ينتمى إلى مجموعة المتغيرات الوصفية. 2- يتم تصنيف الحالات أو الصفات في مجموعات متشابهة (تحمل الخصائص نفسها). 3- وهذه الحالات أو الصفات تعطى أرقاما للتمييز بينها وللمساعد في إدخالها الحاسب الآلي. ومع ملاحظة مهمة جداً: * وهي أن الرقم الأكبر يعني مستوى أو ترتيباً أعلى"، والرقم الأصغر يعني مستوى أو ترتيبا أدنى". أمثلة: – تقديرات الموظفين: (5) ممتاز (4) جید جداً (3) جید (2) مقبول (1) ضعیف – المؤهل: (1) ثانوية عامة (2) بكالوريوس (3) ماجستير (4) دكتوراه .. وهكذا... 4– وهذه الأرقام لا تخضع للجمع ولا للطرح، ولا للضرب ، ولا القسمة، أي لا تجرى عليها أي عمليات حسابية. 5- وهذه الأرقام تخضع للترتيب التصاعدي والترتيب التنازلي. 6- لا يمكن استخدام الكثير من ألأساليب الإحصائية المعروفة. وكل ما يمكن استخدامه: التكرارات، والنسب المئوية ، والمنوال، والمقاييس التي تعتمد على الرتب أو الترتيب (مثل: الوسيط والذي يعرّف بأنه القيمة أو الصفة أو الحالة التي تقع في المنتصف بعد ترتيب القيم أو الصفات أو الحالات) (وبعض الاختبارات اللامعلمية). -Non Parametric
- 7– وبالتالي فإن المقياس الرتبي أعلى من حيث الدرجة أو المستوى من المقياس الاسمى.



- Effect of stress on reaction time three groups of subjects: a great deal of stress, a moderate amount of stress and no stress
- Researchers want to test a new anti-anxiety medication. They split participants into three conditions (0 mg, 50 mg and 100 mg)



- * ثالثاً : المقياس الفئوي ((أو الفتري) Interval Scale (ومن أهم خصائص هذا المقياس ما يلي:
 * ومن أهم خصائص هذا المقياس ما يلي:
 1- انه ينتمي إلى المتغيرات الكمية.
 2- والأرقام التي يأخذها تعبر عن قيم حقيقية.
 8- كما يمكن حساب الفرق بالتحديد بين القيم أو الفئات (أي بشكل دقيق): فإذا قلنا أن (6) أكبر من (4) فإن الفرق بينهما هو (2) ، وأن مجموعهما يساوي (10).
- افتراضية (أي ليست حقيقية)، ولا تعني غياب أو عدم وجود الصفة المقاسة.
 - * ومن أشهر الأمثلة على ذلك:
- <u>درجات الحرارة هذه الليلة</u>: فإذا كانت درة الحرارة هي "<u>الصفر</u>" فإن هذا <u>لا يعنى</u> عدم وجود حرارة.
 والأرقام (أو القيم) في هذا المقياس يمكن جمعها وطرحها . لكن لايمكن ضربها أو قسمتها (بسبب أن الصفر افتراضي وغير حقيقي).
 وان هذه الأرقام (أو القيم) تخضع للترتيب التصاعدي والنتازلي.
 ويمكن استخدام معظم المقاييس والاختبارات الإحصائية المعروفة في تحليل بيانات هذا المقياس.

المستوى من المقياس الرتبي (وطبعاً المقياس الاسمى).

- رابعاً المقياس النسبي Patio Scale
 ومن خصائص هذا المقياس ما يلي:
 أنه ينتمي إلى مجموعة المتغيرات الكمية.
 أنه ينتمي إلى مجموعة المتغيرات الكمية.
 الأرقام في هذا المقياس تعبر عن قيم حقيقية.
 والصفر في هذا المقياس تعبر عن قيم حقيقية.
 والصفر في هذا المقياس حقيقي وليس افتراضياً وهو يعني غياب أو عدم وجود الصفة المقاسة.
 مثلاً : إذا كان عدد الدورات التدريبية التي حضرها الموظف هو <u>صفر</u> فإن هذا يعني عدم حقورة تدريبية.
 وإذا كان عدد الأطفال الجانحين بالأسرة هو <u>صفر</u> فإن هذا يعني على المرة.
 وإذا كان عدد الأطفال الجانحين بالأسرة مو منفر فإن هذا يعني عدم عدم الموظف الموت.
- 4- ومع هذا المقياس يمكن استخدام كل العمليات الحسابية الاربعة والجمع والطرح والضرب والقسمة، وكذلك الترتيب التصاعدي والتتازلي.
- 5- ومع هذا المقياس يمكن استخدام كل الأساليب والاختبارات الإحصائية المعروفة دون استثناء.
- 6- ولذلك فإن المقياس النسبي هو أعلى درجات أو مستويات القياس (فهو أعلى في المستوى من كل المقاييس السابقة).

امثلة: طول ـ ووزن ــ وسرعة ـ ودرجات الطلاب

طول النبات - ضغلاط النفرق بين اسم الصفة والمستوى الصفة تحتوى على اكثر من مستوى وليس العكس صفة النوع هو الصفة يوجد بها اثنين من المستويات مستوى اول ذكور مستوى ثانى اناث

| | Scale | Order | Distance | True Zero | Examples | |
|------------|----------|-------|----------|-----------|--------------------------------------|---|
| More power | Nominal | no | no | no | Color, Gender, Ethnicity, Country | - |
| | Ordinal | yes | no | no | Rating scales, Rank orders | |
| | Interval | yes | yes | no | Time of day, Year, IQ, Likert scales | |
| | Ratio | yes | yes | yes | Age, Height, Weight, Rates | 1 |





| Varia | ble | Variat | ole Ordina | ı ۱ | Variable I | Nominal | | Variable Ratio | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-------|----------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|-------------------------|-------|----------------|---------|-------|-------------|--------------|---------|-------------|----------------|--------|---------|
| | | | | | ́Г | Coded Da | | | | | | | | Unco | oded Da | ta | |
| | | | | | | | ita | | | | | | | 1 | | | |
| | ids | bday | Rank | Gender | Athlete | Height | Weig | ht Smoking | | ids | bday | Rank | Gender | Athlete | Height | Weight | Smoking |
| | | | | | | | | | 4 | 00402 | 02 1 4004 | | Mala | Netellate | CC 00 | 400.04 | |
| 1 | 20183 | 03-Jan-1991 | 1. | 0 | 0 | 66.92 | 192.6 | 51 0 | 1 | 20183 | 03-Jan-1991 | | Male | Non-athlete | 66.92 | 192.61 | nonsmo |
| 2 | 20230 | 02-Jan-1996 | 6 1 | 0 | 1 | 80.11 | | 0 | 2 | 20230 | 02-Jan-1996 | Freshman | Iviale | Athiete | 60.11 | | nonsmo |
| 3 | 20243 | 02-Jan-1993 | 3 3 | 1 | 0 | 65.99 | 128.4 | 1 | 3 | 20243 | 02-Jan-1993 | Junior | Female | Non-athlete | 65.99 | 120.40 | Past-s |
| 4 | 20248 | 01-Jan-1994 | 4 1 | • | 0 | 61.32 | 153.8 | 87 2 | 4 | 20240 | 01-Jan-1994 | Freshman | Esmala | Non-athlete | 01.3Z | 153.07 | Current |
| 5 | 20255 | 01-Jan-1996 | 6 2 | 1 | 0 | 65.75 | | 0 | 5 | 20255 | 01-Jan-1996 | Sopnomore | Female | Non-athlete | 05.75 | | nonsmo |
| 6 | 20278 | 01-Jan-1995 | 5. | 0 | 0 | 70.66 | 179.2 | 20 0 | 0 | 20270 | 01-Jan-1995 | • | Mala | Non-athlete | 70.00 | 1/9.20 | nonsmo |
| 7 | 20389 | 31-Dec-1994 | 4. | 0 | 0 | 70.68 | 198.5 | 52 0 | 0 | 20309 | 31-Dec-1994 | Canhamara | Male | Non-athlete | 70.00 62.46 | 190.52 | nonsmo |
| 8 | 20402 | 31-Dec-1993 | 3 2 | 0 | 0 | 62.46 | 202.7 | 7 0 | 0 | 20402 | 31-Dec-1993 | Soprioritore | Male | Athlata | 02.40 | 202.11 | nonsmo |
| 9 | 20531 | 29-Dec-1994 | 4 1 | 0 | 1 | | 261.5 | 59 0 | 9 10 | 20001 | 29-Dec-1994 | Freshman | Fomelo | Athlete | 100.00 | 201.09 | nonsmo |
| 10 | 20615 | 28-Dec-1994 | 4 1 | 1 | 0 | 100.00 | 167.5 | 57 0 | 10 | 20015 | 20-Dec-1994 | Presninan | Female | Non-athlete | 67.40 | 107.57 | Current |
| 11 | 20626 | 28-Dec-199 | 3 2 | 1 | 0 | 57.42 | 179.3 | 34 2 | 10 | 20020 | 20-Dec-1995 | Soprioritore | Female | Athlata | 01.4Z | 1/9.34 | current |
| 12 | 20680 | 27-Dec-1992 | 2 1 | 1 | 1 | 67.73 | 169.9 | 0 0 | 12 | 20000 | 26 Dec 1002 | lunior | Mole | Athlete | 64.10 | 103.30 | nonsmo |
| 13 | 20758 | 26-Dec-199 | 3 3 | 0 | 1 | 64.12 | 173.0 | 01 0 | 13 | 20750 | 20-Dec-1995 | Sanhamara | Mala | Non athlata | 66.01 | 227.00 | nonsmo |
| 14 | 20826 | 25-Dec-199 | 5 2 | 0 | 0 | 66.21 | 227.9 | 0 0 | 14 | 20020 | 25-Dec-1995 | Sophomoro | Mala | Athlata | 65.00 | 1/1 53 | nonsmo |
| 15 | 20903 | 25-Dec-199 | 3 2 | 0 | 1 | 65.99 | 141.5 | 0 | 10 | 20303 | 20-Dec-1995 | Erechmon | Fomalo | Non athlata | 72.05 | 224.64 | nonsmo |
| 16 | 21083 | 22-Dec-199 | 5 1 | 1 | 0 | 72.05 | 234.6 | 0 | 10 | 21003 | 22-Dec-1999 | Sonior | Mala | Athlata | 72.05 | 234.04 | nonemo |
| 1/ | 21254 | 21-Dec-198 | 9 4 | 0 | 1 | /2.15 | | 0 | 12 | 21254 | 21-Dec-1303 | Junior | Fomalo | Non athlete | 63.02 | 201.87 | nonemo |
| 18 | 21256 | 21-Dec-199 | | 1 | 0 | 63.02 | 201.8 | 37 0 | 10 | 21230 | 21-Dec-1330 | Junior | 1 emaie | Non-atmete | 72.81 | 201.07 | nonemo |
| 19 | 21345 | 19-De Tal | DIE 1. MEAS | urement i | evel icons | | 1. | | | | | | | | 65.39 | 151 53 | nonemo |
| 20 | 21389 | 19-De | | | Numeric | | Sti | ring | | Date | | Time | | | 63.38 | 101.00 | nonsmo |
| 21 | 21421 | 19-De Sca | ale (Continu | ious) | | | n/ | a | | | | | | | 63.88 | 161.63 | nonsmo |
| 22 | 21492 | 17-De | | | \checkmark | | | | 1 | | | <u></u> |) | | 68.40 | 159.92 | nonsmo |
| 23 | 21606 | 17-De 17-De | dinal | | | | | | | | | | | | 72.05 | 177.00 | nonsmo |
| 24 | 21010 | 12 Da | | | | | | a | 1 | | | |) | | 66.09 | | nonsmo |
| 20 | 21939 | 12-De | | | | | | | - | | | | | | 65.17 | | nonsmo |
| 20 | 22029 | 12 Dc | minal | | - | | | | | | | | | | 71.67 | | nonsmo |
| 20 | 22054 | 12-De | | | | | | a | | | | | / | a | 72.57 | 224.92 | nonsmo |
| 20 | 22069 | IU-De | _ | | _ | - · · · - | | | | 4 | | | | 1 | 12.01 | LLT.VL | - |



called a confounding variable

أنواع المتغيرات في البحث العلمي تعريف والفرق بينهم المتغير المستقل المتغير التابع المتغير الوسيط المتغير الضابط

تعريف المتغير هو كل ما يقبل القياس الكمي او الكيفي، كل ما يتغير فهو متغير ذلك التعريف العام الاحصائي للمتغير، ربما يكون المتغير في البحث العلمي مسمى لكل ما يمكن للباحث ان يدرسه في البحث الخاص به.

انواع المتغيرات(البيانات) الأحصائية: 1.البيانات الوصفية 2. البيانات الكمية وتنقسم إلى: (متقطعة/ متصلة) وتنقسم إلى: (ترتيبية/إسمية) وهي ذالك النوع من البيانات التي لا يمكن هي البيانات التي تختلف بياناتها عن بعضها قياسها رقميا وإنما يتم تصنيف المتغير فيها إلى البعض في صورة رقمية. مستويات. مثل العمر الدخل الشهري . مثل ذكر وانثى الحالة الوظيفية .

2. المتغير التابع Dependent variable

هو المتغير الذي يتبع المتغير المستقل، التأثير من المتغير المستقل يقع على المتغير التابع، المتغيرات التابعة في مشكلة البحث او البحث العلمي ككل هي ما تُظهر المتغير المستقل في الدراسة العلمية.

انواع المتغيرات في البحث العلمي:

1. المتغير المستقل Independent variable هو المتغير الذي يؤثر على المتغيرات الاخرى ولا يتأثر بها، وهو ما اختاره الباحث من صفات قابلة للقياس الكمي او الكيفي لتقوم بالتأثير على كل او بعض المتغيرات الاخرى الموجودة في الدراسة العلمية ومرتبطة بعلاقة ما مع موضوع البحث.

4.المتغير الضابط Control variable هو المتغير المرتبط بالإطار التجريبي ، حيث أنه يشكل جزءا من أهم أجزاء الهيكل التجريبي للدراسة وليس متغير مستقل، المتغيرات الضابطة لا تدخل ضمن المعالجة التجريبية ، والهدف الأساسي من هذه المتغيرات هو تقليل الخطأ الذي ينتج عن تأثير هذه المتغيرات.

| 3.المتغيرات الداخلية ، او المتغيرات الوسيطة |
|---|
| Mediator variables |
| هو احد انواع المتغيرات ذات الدور الثانوي في |
| البحث، يقوم بدور الوساطة ما بين المتغير |
| المستقل والمتغير التابع، يختاره الباحث من اجل |
| المساعدة في تمرير التأثيرات على المتغيرات |
| التابعة، او المشاركة في رصد التأثيرات والعلاقات |
| بين المتغيرات التابعة والمتغيرات المستقلة. |

الفرق واهم مايميزكل متغير - المتغيرات المستقلة : هي صاحبة التأثير. - المتغيرات التابعة : هي من يقع عليها جميع تأثيرات المتغيرات المستقلة. - المتغيرات الوسيطة : لا تتأثر من المتغيرات المستقلة ، لأن مهمتها الأساسية هي نقل التأثير للمتغير التابع.



• Ambiguities in classifying a type of variable

- In some cases, the measurement scale for data is ordinal, but the variable is treated as continuous. For example, a Likert scale that contains five values strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, and strongly disagree is ordinal. However, where a Likert scale contains seven or more value strongly agree, moderately agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, moderately disagree, agree the underlying scale is sometimes treated as continuous (although where you should do this is a cause of great dispute).
- It is worth noting that how we categorise variables is somewhat of a choice. Whilst we categorised gender as a dichotomous variable (you are either male or female), social scientists may disagree with this, arguing that gender is a more complex variable involving more than two distinctions, but also including measurement levels like genderqueer, intersex and transgender.



rchers would argue t reated as a continuous

The Scientific Method



Statistical Notation Cheat Sheet

Don't bother memorizing any of this, but refer to this as needed.

- $\sum_{\sigma} S^{2}$ σ^{2}
 - Summation
 - The standard deviation of sample data
 - The standard deviation of population data
 - The variance of sample data
 - The variance of population data
 - The range of data
 - The average range of data
 - Multi-purpose notation, i.e. # of subgroups, # of classes
- |Y|
- The absolute value of some term
- Greater than, less than
- $\geq_{I} \leq$ Greater than or equal to, less than or equal to
- х An individual value, an observation X1 A particular (1st) individual value For each, all, individual values Х The mean, average of sample data The grand mean, grand average The mean of population data μ A proportion of sample data Ρ A proportion of population data 11 Sample size Population size

Summation Notation

<u>Capital-sigma notation</u>

- In this section we need to do a brief review of summation notation or sigma notation.
- Mathematical notation uses a symbol that compactly represents summation of many similar terms: the *summation symbol*, ∑, an enlarged form of the upright capital Greek letter <u>Sigma</u>. This is defined as:
- We'll start out with two integers, n and m, with m > n and a list of numbers denoted as follows
- $x_{m}, x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, \dots, x_{n-2}, x_{n-1}, x_n$
- We want to add them up, in other words we want,
 - $x_m + x_{m+1} + x_{m+2} + \dots + x_{n-2} + x_{n-1} + x_n$
- For large lists this can be a fairly cumbersome notation so we introduce summation notation to denote these kinds of sums. The case above is denoted as follows.

$$\sum_{i=m}^{n} x_i = x_m + x_{m+1} + x_{m+2} + \dots + x_{n-2} + x_{n-1} + x_n$$

- Where,
- i represents the index of summation;
- x_i is an indexed variable representing each successive term in the series;
- *m* is the lower bound of summation, and
- *n* is the upper bound of summation.
- The "i = m" under the summation symbol means that the index i starts out equal to m.
- The index, *i*, is incremented by 1 for each successive term, stopping when *i* = n.

I- Single Summation or simple Summation

The symbol Σ (summation or sigma) is generally used to denote a sum of multiple terms. This symbol is generally accompanied by an index that varies to encompass all terms that must be considered in the sum.



For instance,

Here is an example showing the summation of exponential terms (all terms to the power of 2):

$$\sum_{i=3}^{6} i^{2} = 3^{2} + 4^{2} + 5^{2} + 6^{2} = 86$$

$$\sum_{i=3}^{4} \frac{i}{i+1} = \frac{0}{0+1} + \frac{1}{1+1} + \frac{2}{2+1} + \frac{3}{3+1} + \frac{4}{4+1} = \frac{163}{60} = 2.7166\overline{6}$$

$$\sum_{i=4}^{6} 2^{i} x^{2i+1} = 2^{4} x^{9} + 2^{5} x^{11} + 2^{6} x^{13} = 16x^{9} + 32x^{11} + 64x^{13}$$

$$\sum_{i=4}^{4} f(x_{i}^{*}) = f(x_{1}^{*}) + f(x_{2}^{*}) + f(x_{3}^{*}) + f(x_{4}^{*})$$

Properties of Summation

Here are a couple of formulas for summation notation.

$$\longrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + \dots + x_{n-2} + x_{n-1} + x_n = \sum x_i$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} x_i = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5$$

 $2-\sum_{i=1}^{n} cx_{i} = c\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}$ $Ex \sum_{i=3}^{6} 5x_{i} = 5\sum_{i=3}^{6} x_{i}$ $*\sum_{t=3}^{6} 5x_{i} = 5x_{3} + 5x_{4} + 5x_{5} + 5x_{6}$ $5 \sum_{t=3}^{6} x_{i} = 5(x_{3} + x_{4} + x_{5} + x_{6})$

3- $\sum_{l=1}^{n} (x_l + y_l) = (x_1 + y_1) + (x_2 + y_2) + \dots + (x_n + y_n)$ **4-** $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - y_i) = (x_1 - y_1) + (x_2 - y_2) + \dots + (x_n - y_n)$

- $\sum_{l=1}^{n} (x_l + y_l) = \sum_{l=1}^{n} x_l + \sum_{l=1}^{n} y_l$
- $\sum_{t=1}^{n} C = (n)(c)$ Where C is constant (any number) And i must be start with one.
- $\sum_{i=1}^{4} 6 = 4 * 6 = 24$ or = 6 + 6 + 6 + 6 = 24
- $\sum_{i=1}^{4} 6 * i^{0} = 6 * i^{0} + 6 * i^{0} + 6 * i^{0} + 6 * i^{0} = 6 * 1^{0} + 6 * 2^{0} + 6 * 3^{0} + 6 * 4^{0}$ = 6 * 1 + 6 * 1 + 6 * 1 + 6 * 1 = 24
- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i * y_i = x_1 * y_1 + x_2 * y_2 + \dots + x_n * y_n$

 $\sum_{i=m}^{n} C = (n - m + 1) (C); \quad \text{when } m \text{ any number more than one}$ $\sum_{i=0}^{3} (5 + \sqrt{4^{i}}) = (5 + \sqrt{4^{0}}) + (5 + \sqrt{4^{1}}) + (5 + \sqrt{4^{2}}) + (5 + \sqrt{4^{3}})$

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ This expression means sum the values of x, starting at x₁ and ending with x_n.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)}{4}$$

i=1

• Different between $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$, $\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right)^2$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x)^2$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + \dots + x_n^2$



This expression means sum the values of x, starting at x_1 and ending with x_n and then square the sum.

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{1}\right)^{2} = (x_{1} + x_{2} + x_{3} + \dots + x_{n})^{2}$$

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i$

This expression means form the product of x multiplied by y, starting at x_1 and y_1 and ending with x_n and y_n and then sum the products.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + x_3 y_3 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} = n_{i}$ In this expression c is a constant, i.e. an element which does not involve the variable of summation and the sum involves n elements.

Examples Find

Xi

1

2

3

4

:1i

2

3

4



Examples

:2 $x_1 = -1, x_2 = 3, x_3 = -1$ and and c which is a constant = 11 Find $\sum_{i=1}^{3} x_i^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + = (-1)^2 + 3^2 + 7^2 = 1 + 9 + 49 = 59$ $\left(\sum_{i=1}^{3} x_i\right)^2 = (x_1 + x_2 + x_3)^2 = (-1 + 3 + 7)^2 = (9^2) = 81$ $\sum_{i=1}^{3} c = 11 + 11 + 11 = 33$

Examples $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i+3) = (2 \cdot 1 + 3) + (2 \cdot 2 + 3) + (2 \cdot 3 + 3) + (2 \cdot 4 + 3)$ = 5 + 7 + 9 + 11 = 32

| Exa | mp | les | | $\sum_{i=1}^{5} x_i = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 = 10 + 8 + 6 + 4 + 2 = 30$ |
|-----|----|-----|------------|--|
| : 3 | i | Xi | y i | i=1 |
| | 1 | 10 | 0 | $\sum_{i=1}^{3} y_{i} = y_{1} + y_{2} + y_{3} + y_{4} + y_{5} = 0 + 3 + 6 + 9 + 12 = 30$ |
| | 2 | 8 | 3 | |
| | 3 | 6 | 6 | S |
| | 4 | 4 | 9 | $\sum_{i} y_i = y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4 + y_5 = 0 + 3 + 6 + 9 + 12 =$ |
| | 5 | 2 | 12 | i=1 |
| | | | | $\sum_{i=1}^{5} x_{i} y_{i} = x_{1} y_{1} + x_{2} y_{2} + x_{3} y_{3} + x_{4} y_{4} + x_{5} y_{1} = 0 + 24 + 36 + 36 + 24 = 0$ |
| | | | | |

Note that 1- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i \neq \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i * \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$ 120 \neq 30 * 30 120 \neq 900 2- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{y_i} \neq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i}$

 $10/0 + 8/3 + 6/6 + 4/9 + 2/12 \neq 30/30$

Properties of Summation

 $\sum_{n=1}^{n} c = nc$ i=1 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} cX_{i} = c\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}$ i=1i=1 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i + Y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$ i=1 i=1i=1 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i + Y_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i^2 + 2X_iY_i + Y_i^2)$ *i*=1 $=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}^{2} + 2\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}Y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}^{2}$ *i*=1 i=1 i=1 $\sum_{i=i}^{n} (a_i b_i) \neq \left(\sum_{i=i}^{n} a_i\right) \left(\sum_{i=i}^{n} b_i\right)$

i.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) = (a_1 + b_1) + (a_2 + b_2) + \dots + (a_n + b_n)$$
$$= (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n) + (b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i.$$

i.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_1) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i.$$

ii.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} ca_i = c \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i.$$

iii.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i^2.$$
$$\sum_{i=i_n}^{n} \frac{a_i}{b_i} \neq \frac{\sum_{i=i_n}^{n} a_i}{\sum_{i=i_n}^{n} a_i}$$

Double Summation

- Double summation is nothing more than sum of a sum
- To represent the data of a table or a matrix, we often use a double index notation, like x_{ij} where the first index (i) corresponds to the number of the row where the data is located and the second (j) to the column.
- For example, the term x₂₄ represents the data that is situated at the intersection of the 2nd row and the 4th column of the table or the table or matrix.
- For calculating double summation here are the steps
- 1- the outer sum index is hold and increment the inner index
- 2- After all inner sum index has been used then increment the outer sum index

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3-Repeat the two steps above for the entire outer sum index.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|--------|
| 1 | | | | | Gender |
| 2 | | | | | Male |
| 3 | | | | | Famel |
| | | | | | |
| | | | | | |

$$x_{11} = 4$$
 $x_{12} = 4$ $x_{13} = 1$ $x_{14} = 5$ $x_{21} = 0$ $x_{22} = 3$ $x_{23} = 1$ $x_{24} = 2$ $x_{31} = 1$ $x_{32} = 4$ $x_{33} = 2$ $x_{34} = 3$

To carry out the sum of the terms of a row, we must fix the index of that row and vary, for all possible values, the index of the column. For example:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{4} x_{1j} = x_{11} + x_{12} + x_{13} + x_{14} = 2 + 4 + 1 + 5 = 12 \text{ (sum of the first row)}$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{4} x_{2j} = x_{21} + x_{22} + x_{23} + x_{24} = 0 + 3 + 1 + 2 = 6 \text{ (sum of the 2nd row)}$$

To carry out the sum of the terms of a column, you must fix the index of this column and vary, for all possible values, the index of the row.

For example:

 $\sum_{i=1}^{3} x_{i4} = x_{14} + x_{24} + x_{34} = 5 + 2 + 3 = 10$ (sum of the 4th column)

To carry out the sum of all terms of the table, you must vary both indices and use a double sum:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} x_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} (x_{i1} + x_{i2} + x_{i3} + x_{i4})$$

= $x_{11} + x_{12} + x_{13} + x_{14} + x_{21} + x_{22} + x_{23} + x_{24} + x_{31} + x_{32} + x_{33}$
+ $x_{34} = 2 + 4 + 1 + 6 + 0 + 3 + \dots + 3 = 28$

- $X_{1} = X_{11} + X_{12} + X_{13} + X_{14} = 4 + 4 + 1 + 5 = 14$
- $X_{2} = X_{21} + X_{22} + X_{23} + X_{24} = 0 + 3 + 1 + 2 = 6$
- $X_{3} = X_{31} + X_{32} + X_{33} + X_{34} = 1 + 4 + 2 + 3 = 10$
- $\sum_{i=1}^{3} X_{i} = X_{1} + X_{2} + X_{3} = 14 + 6 + 10 = 30$
- $X_{.1} = X_{11} + X_{21} + X_{31} = 4 + 0 + 1 = 5$
- $X_{.2} = X_{12} + X_{22} + X_{32} = 4 + 0 + 1 = 11$
- $X_{.3} = X_{13} + X_{23} + X_{33} = 1 + 1 + 2 = 4$
- $X_{.4} = X_{14} + X_{24} + X_{34} = 5 + 2 + 3 = 10$
- $\sum_{i=1}^{4} X_{,i} = X_{,1} + X_{,2} + X_{,3} + X_{,4} = 5 + 11 + 4 + 10 = 30$
- $\sum_{i=1}^r \sum_{j=1}^c X_{ij} =$

 $= X_{11} + X_{12} + X_{13} + X_{14} + X_{21} + X_{22} + X_{23} + X_{24} + X_{31} + X_{32} + X_{33} + X_{34}$ = 4 + 4 + 1 + 5 + 0 + 3 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 3 = 30

- $X_{..} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{c} X_{ij} = \sum_{i=0}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} X_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} X_{i.} = \sum_{i=1}^{4} X_{.j} = 30$
- $\sum_{i=0}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} X_{ij}^{2} = X_{11}^{2} + X_{12}^{2} + \dots + X_{34}^{2} = 4^{2} + 4^{2} + \dots + 3^{2} =$
- $(\sum_{i=0}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{4} X_{ij})^2 = (X_{11} + X_{12} + \dots + X_{34})^2 = (4 + 4 + \dots + 3)^2 =$



Ethics and Statistics

- The article "Statistics and Ethics: Some Advice for Young Statisticians,
 - in *The American Statistician* 57, no.
 1 (2003), offers guidance.
- The authors advise us to practice statistics with integrity and honesty, and urge us to "do the right thing" when collecting, organizing, summarizing, analyzing, and interpreting numerical information.
 - The authors of *The American Statistician* article further indicate that when we practice statistics, we need to maintain **"an independent and principled point-of-view."**

Getting Start with SPSS

- What is SPSS.
- The SPSS Environment.
- The data view, Variable view and out put view.
- Data creation in SPSS.
- Importing data in SPSS.
- Variables types.
- Define variables.
- Save data from SPSS output in World and Excel.
مستويات القياس

قد يكون هناك العديد من المتغيرات التى يجب قياسها فى تجربة ما. فمن الواضح ان كل المقاييس ليست متشابهة، او ان هناك مستويات مختلفة للقياس. فقياس الأطوال لأشخاص ليس كقياس الآراء حول موضوع ما. وتقسيم الأشخاص كطويل ومتوسط الطول او قصير يختلف عن قياس الأطوال بالسنتيمتر. مستوى القياس له تضمين هام عند استخدام الاحصاء. فمعيار القياس لمتغير تابع هو واحد من اكثر العوامل أهمية فى تحديد الطرق الاحصائية المرجحة عند تحليل البيانات.

يتم تقسيم الظواهر الى اربعة مستويات مختلفة للقياس وهى المقياس الاسمى -1 Nominal Scale المقياس الترتيبى -2 Ordinal Scale المقياس الفترة -3 Interval Scale مقياس الفترة فقطقي Sps الفي بهتا المقايس عمية الاضافة الى المقايس Scale حيث يعتبر مقياس الفترة والنسبة مقاييس كمية والجدول التالى يلخص الرموز المستخدمة من قبل المتروح والترتيبي المتاويين.

| | Numeric | String | Date | Time |
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| Scale (Continuous) | | n/a | | <u></u> |
| Ordinal | | a | | |
| Nominal | | a | | |

Nominal المقياس الاسمى -1

المقياس الإسمى هو مقياس نوعى 👩 🗧 ف بدون ترتيب.

مثل تقسيم الأدميين كإناث وذكور. هذا التقسيم لايعنى أفضلية جنس على آخر. فيأخذ الذكر الرقم "1" وتأخذ الأنثى الرقم "2" أو تأخذ الأنثى الرقم "1" ويأخذ الذكر الرقم "2" لايهم، فالرقم لا يعكس اى أفضلية.

من أمثلة القياس الاسمى ايضا الحالة الاجتماعية والجنسيه وأسماء المدن.

Ordinal Scale المقياس الترتيبي -2

المقياس الترتيبي هو مقياس نوعى 👔 يصنف بترتيب.

مثل تقسيم تقديرات الطلاب ممتاز A، جيد جداً B، جيد C، مقبول D، راسب F. وهو تقسيم اوقياس يعتمد على حروف وفى نفس الوقت يعطى مؤشر عن الترتيب، فمثلا A افضل من B و B أفضل من C وهكذا. وعند ادخال البيانات فى مثل هذه الحالة يكن ادخال الرقم 1 ليعبر عن التقدير ممتاز A وادخال الرقم 2 ليعبر عن التقدير جيد جدا³ B، وهكذا ويعتبر ذلك ترتيباً تنازلياً. أو يكن ادخال الرقم 1 ليعبر عن التقدير راسب F وادخال الرقم 2 ليعبر عن التقديرمقبول C، وهكذا ويعتبر ذلك ترتيباً تصاعدياً. وللباحث الحرية الكاملة فى إختيار الترتيب التصاعدى او الترتيب التنازلي. ملاحظة : المقياس الترتيبي (ordinal) والرتبة (rank)

يجب التمييز بين مستوى القياس الترتيبي (ordinal) والرتبة (rank). فمستوى القياس الترتيبي هو في الأساس لمتغير وصفى بمكن ترتيبه مثل المؤهل التعليمي كأن يرمز لصاحب درجة الدكتوراة بالرقم 1 ثم الماجستير الرقم 2، وهكذا ولايجوز حساب المتوسط الحسابي (مثلا). Rank أما الرتبة

تحويل متغير كمى الى رتب مثل اعطاء الفريق صاحب اكبر عدد من النقاط الرتبة 1 ثم الذى يليه الرتبة 2 وهكذا. وفى الحالة الثانية بمكن التعامل الرقمى مع الرتب كحساب المتوسط كما هو الحال مع مقياس ليكرت.

Interval Scale مقياس الفترة -3

مقياس الفترة هو مقياس كمى من يصنف بترتيب مع اعطاء وحدة قياس بدون نقطة صفر حقيقية. مثل قياس درجات الحرارة، فالثرموستات هو خير مثال على مقياس الوحدات المتساوية، فعلى سبيل المثال نجد ان الفرق في درجات الحرارة بين 25 درجة و 30 درجة هو نفسه الفرق بين درجات الحرارة 30 درجة و35 درجة. ويلاحظ وجود "ترتيب" ايضاً، فمثلا درجة الحرارة 30 درجة اعلى من درحة الحرارة 20 درجة ولكن لايقال ان درجة الحرارة 40 درجة هى ضعف درجة الحرارة 20 درجة. وليس للصفر فى هذا المقياس معنى حقيقى (حيث لايعنى وجوده انتفاء الصفة) فهناك درجة حرارة صفر.

مقياس النسبة -4

Ratio Scale





الاول تاكد من نوع الجهاز الخا<u>ص بك هل هو 32</u>







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| perties | Υ+١٩/+١/١+ ١١:٤Λ | File folder | | Group by | | |
| hon | Υ+١٩/+١/١+ ١١:٤Λ | File folder | | Refresh | | |
| ython3 | ۲+۱٩/+۱/۱+ ۱۱:٤٩ | File folder | | Customine this follow | | |
| amples | Υ+١٩/+١/١+ ١١:٤Λ | File folder | | Customize this folder | | |
| ripts | Υ+ነ٩/+ነ/ነ+ ነነ:ΣV | File folder | | Paste | | |
| yntax_xml | Υ+ነ9/+ነ/ነ+ ነነ:ΣV | File folder | | Paste shortcut | | |
| template | Υ+ነ9/+ነ/ነ+ ነነ:ΣV | File folder | | Share with | | |
| utility | Τ+19/+1/1+11:ΣV | File folder | | Shared Folder Synchronization | | |
| | T+19/+1/1+11:ΣV | Filefolder | 125.115 | | | |
| _SpssClientForPython3.pyd | T+1V/+V/1A 1+:01 | PYD File | 426 KB | New | | |
| acadapter.dll | τ+1V/+V/1Λ +Λ:٣٤ | Application extens | 2/1 KB | Properties | | |
| acsimsps.dll | T+1V/+V/1A +A:TO | Application extens | 754 KB | • | | |



• SPSS version 25 ملاحظات على عملية تنزيل البرنامج

- 64 بت اذاقم بتنزيل 32 bit بت واذا كان جهازك 64نقوم بتنزيل برنامج (bit) اذا كان جهازك 32 بت لم يقبل جهازك التصطيب لسبب او اخر قوم بالعكس بمعنى اذا كان جهازك 32بت قم بتنزيل 64بت ام اذا كان جهازك 46 بت فحاول تنزيل برنامج 32بت
- يفضل عند التصطيب فصل جهازك عن شبكة الانترنت
- جديدة على جهازك Windows اذا تكرر عدم قبول التصطيب من فضلك قم بتصطيب نسخة ويندوز
 SPSS ثم قم بتصطيب برنامج
- لانها لا تصاب بالفيرس SPSS احفظ على جهازك نسخة مضغوطة من برنامج •

SPSS تشغيل برنامج

منذ صدور أول اصدارات البرنامج في العام 1968 تحت مسمى SPSS وهي اختصار لـ"الجزمة الاحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية" (Statistical Pakage for Social Scienses) وهناك تطورات مذهلة واضافات متعددة دفعت الشركة المؤسسة الى محاولة الجروج من عاءة "العله م الاحتماعة" حيث انه يستخدم الآن مع العلوم الطبية والهندسية وكافة التخصصات الأخرى، بجانب العلوم الاجتماعية. وهي تحتوي الآن على طرق وغاذ ج تنبؤية واضافات متعددة دفعت الشركة بداية من الإصدار 18 إلى محاولة تعديل الإسم ليصبح PASW وهي اختصار ل"حزمة التحليل التنبؤية" (IBM SPSS Statistics). ثم أعادة الشركة تسمية الجريدة بإسم (IBM SPSS Statistics). ثم أعادة الشركة تسمية الجريدة بإسم (IBM SPSS Statistics).

IBM° SPSS° Statistics

before using the Program. By using the Program you agree to these terms

Version 21

Point and Click

وعند تشغيل البرنامج لأول مرة تظهر النافذة التالية:

RM

lava

Version 21

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الإصدار 18

PASW Statistics 18

عند تشغيل البرنامج لاول مرة سوف تظهر النافذة التالية



بالإضافة الى الخيارات الملخصة في الجدول التالي:

| الاستخدام | مايعبر عنه | |
|---|--|---|
| تشغيل البرنامج التعليمي | Run the tutorial | 2 |
| ادخال البيانات | ◯ <u>T</u> ype in data | : |
| تشغيل بيانات موجودة داخل قاعدة بيانات (مثل dBase أو Excel file أو (MS Access Database) | C Run an existing query | |
| تخليق بيانات جديدة باستخدام قاعدة بيانات، (مثل dBase أو Excel file أو MS Access Database) | Create new guery using Database Wizard | |

| | أنواع: | خزنة فهي أربعة | أما الملفات الم |
|---|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| الغرض | Туре | الإصدار 17 | الإصدار ١٨. |
| ملف البيانات (active) في حالة فتعني إن هذا هو اللف الفعال (active) في حالة فتعني إن هذا هو اللف الفعال (active) في حالة فت | Data | (ta) | |
| من ملف، مثل ملف البيانات في أو ملف المخرجات أ. ملف المخرجات (النتائج) في المفروات أو ملف المخرجات أو ملف المخرجات في المخرجات أو ملف الم | Output | | F S |
| ملف لتخزين أوامر تشغيل يمكن استخدامة عدة مرات على نفس البيانات او بعد عمل تعديل لها | Syntax | (🔁) | |
| ملف يمكن من خلالة اضافة طرق جديدة للتحليل الإحصائي غير موجودة في الحزمة الأصلية | Script | | 5855 |

THE SPSS ENVIRONMENT

- SPSS utilizes multiple types of windows, or screens, in its basic operations.
- Each window is associated with specific tasks and types of SPSS files.
- The windows include the Data Editor, Output Viewer, Syntax Editor, Pivot Table Editor, Chart Editor, and Text Output Editor.
- The following sections describe the basic purposes and functions of the three most common windows—the Data Editor, Output Viewer, and Syntax Editor—since these three windows are integral for most every action performed in the program.
- SPSS has three "Windows" that we will use
 - Data Editor
 - In this view you can enter data and change the characteristics of variables
 - You can now have multiple datasets open at once
 - Syntax Editor
 - In this view you can write and run commands that will perform various statistical procedures
 - Output Viewer
 - And in this view you will see the results of the statistical procedures that you have performed

the Data Editor, Output Viewer, and



Example of active Data Editor window.

👍 Sample Dataset 2014.sav [DataSet1]

Example of active Output Viewer window.

te Output4.spv [Document4]

أما اضافة علامة (+) على الملف فتعنى ان هذا هو الملف الفعال (active) في حالة فتح أكثر من ملف، مثل ملف البيانات أو ملف المخرجات .



SPSS Data Editor

SPSS Data Editor window is SPSS' main window. This is the only window that's always open whenever we run SPSS. It's recognized by a red icon **the in its left top corner**.

| t) | employees.sav [DataSet1] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor | - 🗆 × |
|--------------|--|---|
| <u>F</u> ile | Edit View Data Transform Analyze Direct Marketin Graphs Utilities Ad | dd- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp |
| | 🖶 🕒 🚾 🖙 🍽 🎬 💒 📰 🛤 🛤 🖼 📰 📫 | • 🎛 👍 🚱 🌑 |

The Data Editor has two tabs in the left bottom corner: we can click Data View for inspecting our data values. Alternatively, Variable View shows information regarding the meaning of our data, collectively known as the dictionary.

SPSS Data Editor

We'll now take a close look at how the Data Editor Window is organized. We recommend following along by downloading employees.sav. If you have SPSS installed, you can open this file by simply double-clicking it. After doing so, you'll see something like the screenshot below (make sure Data View is selected). We'll walk you through its components.

SPSS Data

View

| | t) | | | *employee | s.sav [DataSet3] - | IBM SPSS Statistic | s Data Editor | | - 🗆 × |
|---|---------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| | <u>F</u> ile <u>E</u> dit | <u>V</u> iew | <u>D</u> ata <u>T</u> ran | nsform <u>A</u> nalyze I | Direct <u>M</u> arketing G | araphs <u>U</u> tilities A | dd- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp | |
| 1 |) 🖴 🖬 🗄 | 3 🗔 | E 3 E | i 📥 💷 🗷 🔣 | 🗶 🖂 🚍 💠 | 🔣 📌 🚱 🌑 | 🤏 🖨 1 2 | 3 4 5 6 7 | 89 |
| | 7 : date_of | birth | 04.02.196 | 4 | | | | Visible: 11 | of 11 Variables |
| | | n n | esp_id | gender | first_name | last_name | date_of_birth | education_type | |
| | 1 | | 372466 | o ⁰ | | TAYLOR | 24.09.1950 | 1 | - |
| | 2 | | 409437 | <u>ه</u> | DOROTHY | ANDERSON | - | 4 | |
| | 3 | | 659919 | - | JAMES | HARRIS | 17.11.1954 | 5 | |
| G | 3) 4 | | 966895 | - | MARY | | 24.04.1957 | 3 | |
| | 5 | | 671607 | 1 | RICHARD | CLARK | 31.08.1959 | 5 | |
| | 6 | | 389645 | 0 | BARBARA | BROWN | 20.09.1961 | 4 | (5 |
| | 7 | | 401450 | 1 | MICHAEL | GARCIA | 4 04.02.1964 | 1 | |
| | 8 | | 796244 | 1 | ROBERT | THOMPSON | 05.07.1966 | 1 | |
| | 9 | | 955285 | 0 | LINDA | JONES | 03.10.1968 | 2 | |
| | 10 | | 547614 | 0 | | JACKSON | 26.01.1970 | 4 | - |
| | | 4 | - | | | | | | 1 |
| 6 | Data View | Variable | e View | | | 5 | | | |
| 0 | | | | | | IBM SPSS S | tatistics Processor is re | ady Unicode:O | N |

(1) SPSS toolbars contain some handy tools. Some of their limitations can be circumvented by building your own toolbars and toolbar tools. Doings so is utterly simple and speeds up a lot of work.

(2) Columns of cells are called variables. Variable names ("gender") are shown in the column headers.

③ Rows of cells are called **cases**. Note that in SPSS, "cases" refers to nothing more than rows of cells which may -or may not- correspond to people or objects.

④ Data cell contents are called values.

(5) You can drag the three dots ||| in the right margin leftwards in order to split the window horizontally. In a similar vein, split the window vertically by dragging = in the lower margin upwards. Split windows allow for viewing distant cases or variables simultaneously.

6 You can **toggle** between **Data View** and **Variable View** by clicking the tabs in the left lower corner. A faster option is the Ctrl + t shortkey.

⑦ The status bar may provide useful information on the data such as whether a WEIGHT, FILTER, SPLIT FILE or Unicode mode is in effect.

These are the main elements under Data View. We now switch to Variable View. After doing so, the data editor window should look somewhat like the screenshot below.

SPSS Variable

V

| | 1 | | | | | | *employ | ees.sav [Dat | aSet1] - IBM SPS |
|---|------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|
| | <u>File</u> Edit | View Data Transfor | m <u>A</u> nalyze Di | rect <u>Marketing</u> | Graphs | Utilities Add-ons V | indow <u>H</u> el | p | |
| | 😑 🖬 🖨 | 📑 🖻 🖬 📳 | 💷 🎛 🔣 🕹 | Z | 4 🏦 🚮 | 🗞 🍋 🤲 🕫 | 123 | 4 5 6 | 789 |
| | | Name | Туре | Width | Decimals | Label | Values | Missing | Columns |
| | 1 | resp_id | Numeric | 11 | 0 | Unique respond | None | None | 10 |
| | 2 | gender | Numeric | 11 | 0 | 0 | {0, Fem | None | 10 |
| | 3 | first_name | String | 9 | 0 | <i>C</i> | None | None | 10 |
| | 4 | last_name | String | 8 | 0 | | None | None | 10 |
| | 5 | date_of_birth | Date | 10 | 0 | | None | None | 10 |
| | 6 | education_type | Numeric | 11 | 0 | | {1, Law} | None | 10 |
| C | 1)7 | education_years | Numeric | 11 | 0 | Years of full time | {1, 0-2 y | None | 10 |
| | 8 | job_type | Numeric | 11 | 0 | Type of job curre | {1, Admi | None | 10 |
| | 9 | experience_years | Jumeric | 11 | 0 | Years of full time | None | None | 10 |
| | 10 | monthly_income | Numeric | 11 | 0 | Gross monthly in | None | None | 10 |
| | 11 | job_satisfaction | Numeric | 11 | 0 | Job satisfaction | {1, Very | None | 10 |
| | 12 | | | | | | | | |

(1) After selecting Variable View, variables are shown as rows instead of columns. We're now seeing information about our variables and values instead of the data values themselves.

2 Columns now represent variable properties such as label, name and type.

③ Cells contain property values. For example, the width of the fourth variable last_name is 8.



ما هي أكثر البرامج الإحصائية استخداما في الأبحاث الطبية والحيوية؟ للإجابة على هذا السؤال قام أحد الباحثين بفحص أكثر من 40 ألف بحث PubMed Central منشورة بين 2016 و2021 في موقع 40.5% يأتيبنسبة SPSS وتوصل إلى أن أكثر البرامج استخداما هو برنامج 17.4% يمده برنامج العدم برنامج العائمة الثالثة المرتبة الأولى كالآتى عائمة البرامج العشرة الأولى كالآتى

Statistical Software Popularity in 40,582 Research Papers



Variable View -

Note that some of the information in Variable View is hidden. For instance, under Values we find the value labels: descriptions of what our data values represent. Clicking it for education_type displays all value labels for this variable.

| ta 🛛 | Value Labels | X | | | | |
|---|---|----------|--|--|--|--|
| -Value Labels- Val <u>u</u> e: Label: | | Spelling | | | | |
| <u>A</u> dd Change Remove | 1 = "Law" 2 = "Economy" 3 = "Social sciences" 4 = "Medical" 5 = "Other" | | | | | |
| OK Cancel Help | | | | | | |
| Value Labels for "education_type" | | | | | | |

These value labels tell us that a person with a value of 1 on education_type indicates somebody who studied "Law". In a similar vein, "Economy" is represented by a value of 2, and so on. We'll now switch back to data view for taking a closer look at this.

Value Labels in Data View

Note that the first case in our data was born in 1950 and has a value of 1 on education_type. On inspecting this case, you'll probably see something similar to the next screenshot.

| ſ | t) | | | | | | | | | *employ | vees.sav (D | ataSet7] - | IBM S | |
|---|------|------|------|--------------|--------|-----|------------|------------------|--------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------|--|
| | File | Edit | View | <u>D</u> ata | Transf | orm | Analyze | Direct Marketing | Graphs | Utilities | Add-ons | Window | Help | |
| | H | ⊜ ₁4 | 5, 1 | 2 3 | 4 5 | 6 | 7 | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | las | st_na | me | | | date_of_bi | rth | | educa | tion_ty | pe | |
| | | 1 | TAY | LOR | | | 24-Sep-195 | | | -1950 | 50 1 | | | |

Now click the value labels icon A (or v for older SPSS versions) in the toolbar area. You'll now see value labels instead of values as shown below.

| 6 | | | | | | | | | *employ | vees.sav (D | ataSet7] - | IBM S |
|------|----------|------|--------------|---------|----|-----------------|--------------------------|----------------|-----------|------------------|------------|-------|
| File | Edit | View | <u>D</u> ata | Transfo | rm | <u>A</u> nalyze | Direct <u>M</u> arketing | <u>G</u> raphs | Utilities | Add- <u>o</u> ns | Window | Help |
| | ⊕ | 5 1 | 2 3 | 4 5 | 6 | 7 | | | | | | |
| | | las | st_na | me | | | date_of_bi | rth | | educa | tion_ty | pe |
| | 1 | TAY | LOR | | | | 2 | 4-Sep | -1950 | | L | .aw |



- The Data Editor window is the default window and opens when SPSS starts.
- This window displays the content of any open data files and provides drop-down menus that allow you to modify and analyze data.
- The data are displayed in a spreadsheet format where columns represent variables and rows represent cases.
- The spreadsheet format includes two tabs at the bottom labeled Data View and Variable View.
- The Data View tab displays the open data set: variables appear in columns, and cases appear in rows.

The Variable View tab displays information about variables in the open data (but not the data themselves), such as variable names, types, and labels, etc. The tab that is currently displayed will be yellow in color.



READING THE DATA VIEW WINDOW

When you view data in SPSS, each row in the Data View represents a case, and each column represents a variable.

- Cases represent independent observations, experimental units, or subjects.
- For example, if the data are based on a survey of college students, then each row in the data would

| 🏣 *Sample Dataset 2014 - Labeled.sav [DataSet1] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor 📃 💼 📧 | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|-------------|---|--|--|
| <u>F</u> ile <u>E</u> dit | t <u>v</u> | iew <u>D</u> ata <u>T</u> | ransform <u>A</u> nal | yze <u>G</u> raphs | <u>C</u> ustom <u>U</u> tilit | ies Add- <u>o</u> ns | Window Help | 0 | | |
| Rows are cases | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rows are cases | | | | | | | | | | |
| | ids Rank Gender Athlete Height Weight | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | | — 20183 | - | Male | Non-athlete | 66.92 | 192.61 | | | |
| 2 | | —— 20230 | Freshman | Male | Athlete | 80.11 | - | | | |
| 3 | 3 → 20243 Junior Female Non-athlete 65.99 128.40 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | | 20248 | Freshman | - | Non-athlete | 61.32 | 153.87 | 1 | | |
| 5 | | 20255 | Sophomore | Female | Non-athlete | 65.75 | - | | | |
| 6 | | 20278 | - | Male | Non-athlete | 70.66 | 179.20 | | | |
| 7 | | 20389 | - | Male | Non-athlete | 70.68 | 198.52 | Ŧ | | |
| | | 4 | | | | | 4 | | | |
| Data View Variable View | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | IBM SPSS Stati | stics Processo | r is ready Cas | ses: 100 Unico | de:ON | | | |

represent a specific college SPSS TOOL BAR SHORTCHED student who participated in the study. By default, the Data View window has the following shortcuts for common

| j | n the | stu | dy. | By d | efault, | , the Data | View wi | ndow ha | as the fo | llowing | shortcut | ts for co | mmon | |
|--------------|---|--------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|------------------|-----------|---------------------|-------|------------|
| | Hed1 | [DataSe | t0] - IBN | A SPSS Statisti | cs Data Edi | itor | | - | - | | | | - | |
| <u>F</u> ile | <u>E</u> dit | <u>V</u> iew | <u>D</u> ata | Transform | <u>A</u> nalyze | Direct <u>M</u> arketing | g <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilities Ad | dd- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> ind | low <u>H</u> elp | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | * | | ≥ | A 14 | | 1 5 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 | | ar | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | Va |
| | 2 | | | | | | | | (Tool | Bar) | لأدوات | شريطا | | |
| | | ات | للأدو | شريط ا | س على | nable view | بة المتخير | أو واجه | Bata Viewe | البيانات | ادخال | ی واجهة اختصاراً | تحتو | |
| | | | | | | صول اليها | ، بدن للو آلو الله | ه میاشر ه در ۵۵ ا | ر محدد، | هيد اوام | -1 - | احطارا | and I | |
| | | 1 | | | | 21 _44 | | data 12 | | | - 1 - U-4 | 0.0 | | |
| | وهي بديلة عن بعض الاختيارات الموجودة داخل القائمة الرئيسة (Main Menu): | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | File Edit View Data Transform Analyze Direct Marketing Graphs Utables Add-ons Window Help | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | صر: | ل مخت | مناها بشكا | وات وم | ريط الأد | مة في شر | المستخد | بالرموز | ا يلي بيان | وفيما | |

| Lawrence | الاســـــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ | الرمز في اصدارات | الرمز في اصدار ۲.۱ | |
|----------|---|---------------------|-----------------------|--|
| | فتح ملف تم حفظه مسبقاً | <pre>V</pre> | | |
| | | | | |
| | طباعة ملف | E. | | |
| | عرض آخر عمليات تم حسابها | | | |
| - | التراجع عن آخر عملية عت | 47 | <u> </u> | |
| | إعادة آخر عملية ثم التراجع عنها | ~ | -21 | |
| | الذهاب الى حالة (esac) معينة (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار الذهاب الى حالة محددة) | | NSC. | |
| | المتغيرات (معرفة تفاصيل المتغيرات). | | | |
| | عرض معلومات المتغيرات | 3 | 二川 | |
| | البحث عن رقم محدد (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار البحث عن رقم محدد في صف او عمود مختار) | <u>d</u> | 89 | |
| | حالة (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار اضافة حالة (صف) جديد) | | 泽山 | |
| | متغير (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار اضافة متغير (عمود) جديد) | | und l | |
| | تقسيم الملف (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار الحصول على النتائج مقسمة حسب متغير فثوي (لابد ان يكون متغير اسمي او ترتيبي)) | | | |
| | وزن الحالات | 4 4 | 44 | |
| | اختيار حالات (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار اختيار بعض الحالات بشكل عشوائي) | K | 1.1.1 | |
| | عرض تعريفات المتغيرات (يتم عن طريق هذا الاختيار عرض الأرقام او عرض تعريف المتغير) | ·# | | |
| | تحديد فئات محددة للإستعمال (يستخدم في حالة وجود متغيرات كثيرة جدا بغرض رؤية بعضها فقط) | 0 | 0 | |
| | تحديد كل الفنات للإستعمال | 0 | 0 | |
| | استعمال القاموس لتصحيح الأخطاء اللغوية 🖈 | abc | ABC | |

* غير موجود قبل اصدار 17

| lcon | Tooltip | Description | | | | | | | fe | 11 | * |
|-------------|---------------------------------------|--|---|------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| | Open data document | Open a datafile. Equivalent to File > Open > Data. | | | | | | | | | |
| | Save this document | Save the active dataset. Equivalent to File > Save or Ctrl + S. | | | | | | | | | |
| | Print | Print the contents of the active data view window. Not recommended. E | quivalent to | File > Pr | rint. | | | | | | |
| II , | Recall recently used dialogs | Shows the list of most recently used dialog windows. Use when you nee | d to re-run a | an analy: | sis. | | | | | | |
| | Undo a user action | Equivalent to Edit > Undo (in the drop-down menus) or Ctrl + Z. | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Redo a user action | Equivalent to Edit > Redo (in the drop-down menus) or Ctrl + Y. | | | | | | | | | |
| | Go to case | Jump to a specific case (row) in the active dataset. Equivalent to Edit > | Go to Case |) . | | | | | | | |
| Ļ | Go to variable | Jump to a specific variable (column) in the active dataset. Equivalent to | Edit > Go t | o Variab | le. | | | | | | |
| | Variables | View the variable name, labels, type, measurement level, missing value > Variables. | codes, and | value lat | bels for all | variables | in the a | ctive win | dow. Equi | valent to I | Utilities |
| ų | Run descriptive statistics | Run descriptive statistics (using the Frequencies procedure) on the selective setting. Nominal and ordinal variables are summarized with a freque deviation, range, minimum, and maximum. Only activates when a cell or Statistics > Frequencies . | cted variabl Jency table; r column in f | e. The st scale va the Data | atistics sh riables are View wind | own are o summar low is sele | determin ized usir ected. Ec | ed by the ng mean, quivalent | e variable r median, s to Analyz | measuren standard ze > Desc | nent riptive |
| <u> A</u> | Find | Search for a value or observation in the dataset, or search and replace window is selected. Equivalent to Edit > Find and Edit > Replace, or c | a value or ol trl + F an | bservatio d <mark>Ctrl +</mark> | n in the da ⊦ Ħ, respe | ataset. Or ectively. | nly activa | ites whe | n a cell in f | the Data V | View |
| *, | Insert cases | Insert a case between two existing cases. Equivalent to Edit > Insert C | ases. | | | | | | | | |

| Untitled | 1 [DataSet0] |] - IBM SPSS Statisti | cs Data Editor | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------|---------|-----|------------|
| e <u>E</u> di | t <u>V</u> iew <u></u> [| <u>D</u> ata <u>T</u> ransform | <u>A</u> nalyze D |)irect <u>M</u> arketing | g <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilities Ad | ld- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> in | dow <u>H</u> elp | | | | |
| | | | | | | | *5 | | 2 | 14 1 | | 116 |
| | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | var | |
| 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Insert variable Variable Variable. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Split file Stratify your analyses based on a categorical variable. For example, if the variable <i>Gender</i> is selected in Split File, running descriptive statistics on any other variables will produce descriptives for males and females separately. Equivalent to Data > Split File . | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Weight cases Set a weighting variable. Equivalent to Data > Weight Cases. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Select cases | Extract a set of cas | es to a new da | tafile based on : | some criteria, c | r apply a filter v | variable. Equiva | alent to Data > \$ | Select Cases. | | | |
| 1.⇔ | Value labels | Toggle whether the | raw data or th | e value label is | displayed in the | e Data View wir | ndow. Equivale | nt to View > Va | lue Labels. | | | |
| Ø | Use variable sets of variables to show in the active window. Multiple sets can be selected at a time. Equivalent to Utilities > Use Variable Sets. Note that you must first define a variable set (Utilities > Define Variable Sets) in order for this to be useful. | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Show all variables in the active dataset. Only activates if <i>Use Variable Sets</i> has been used. Equivalent to Utilities > Show All Variables . | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Spell check Searches the contents of the dataset for misspellings. Only activates when data is entered into the Data View window or a data file is opened. Equivalent to Utilities > Spelling. | | | | | | | | | | | | |

- In SPSS Statistics, you need to define your variables, which occurs in the Variables View.
- To access the Variable View you need to click the Variables View tab as shown below:

| | Colum | ns represent attr | ributes (| of variables | |] | ta Untitled2 [DataSet2] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor | - • • |
|-----------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------|--|------------|--|--|
| | Paul Martin State | | | | | | <u>File Edit View Data Transform Analyze Graphs Utilities Ad</u> | d- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp |
| | File Edit View Data | Transform Analyz | cor e Graph | s Utilities Win | idow Help | | 🖹 🖩 🌒 🛄 🗠 a 📑 🛓 | |
| | | | | | | | | /isible: 0 of 0 Variables |
| , | Name | Туре | Width | Decimals | Label 🔶 | | var var var var | var |
| | 2 | | | | | | Click the Variable V | iow tab |
| | 3 | | | | | | | |
| Rows | 4 | | | | | | 3 | |
| represent | 5 | | | | | | 4 | |
| variables | 7 | | | | | | | |
| | 8 | | | | | | 7 | • |
| | 9 | | | | | | | |
| l | 10 Val | riable View | | | | | Data View Variable View | |
| | | | S | | IBM SPSS Statistics Processor is ready | Jnicode:ON | | |
| | Fig. 2 Var | iable View Wi | ndow | | | | | |



In this Variable View, you can adjust the properties of each of your variables under 11 categories: Name, Type, Width, Decimals, Label, Values, Missing, Columns, Align, Measure and Role.

Name

1 – حقل Name لتعريف اسم المتغير(يجب أن يبدأ بحرف ولا يحتوي على اى مسافات)

To change the name of a column (variable) in the Data View sheet, click in the appropriate cell and type in the new name. The names in this column must not start with a number. They also cannot contain special characters such as / * \$, space etc. You will be given an error message if your name is in illegal format.

• The name of the variable, which is used to refer to that variable in syntax. Variable names can not contain spaces. Note that when you change the name of a variable, it does not change the data; all values associated with the variable stay the same. Renaming a variable simply changes the name of that variable while leaving everything else the same. For example, we may want to rename a variable called *Sex* to *Gender*.

To change a <u>variable's name</u>, double-click on the name of the variable that you wish to re-name. الفر منذر الأسم المنتغير منذر المستطر Type your new variable name. أول و الاسم Gender في السطر الثاني وهكذا لبقية المتغيرات علما انه يتوجب اتباع الفواعد التاليسي.

كتابة أسماء المتغيرات في برنامج SPSS :-1- لا يزيد طول الاسم عن ثمانية رموز characters.

- 2 يجب أن يبدا أسم المتغير بحرف أما بقية الرموز فقد تكون أحرفا أو أرقاما أو فترة period و يرمز
 لها (.) أو بقية الرموز @ ، # ، ، \$.
 - -3 لا يمكن أن ينتهى أسم المتغير بفترة (.)
 - 4- لا يتضمن أسم المتغير فراغات و بعض الرموز الخاصة مثل ! ، ? ، ` ، * .
- 5- لا يميز برنامج SPSS بين الحروف الكبيرة و الحروف الصغيرة فالأسماء NEWVAR و newvar
 تعتبر متماثلة حبث أن البر نامج لا يتقبل سوى الحروف الصغيرة لأسماء المتغير ات .

Туре

In order for your data analysis to be accurate, it is imperative that you correctly identify *type* and *formatting* of each variable.

SPSS has special restrictions in place so that statistical analyses can't be performed on inappropriate types of data: for example, you won't be able to use a continuous variable as a "grouping" variable when performing a *t*-test.

Information for the type of each variable is displayed in the Variable View tab. Under the "Type" column, simply click the cell associated with the variable of interest. A blue "..." button will appear.



قواعد كتابة أسماء المتغيرات

- اسم المتغير يجب أن يبدأ بحرف.
- اسم المتغير لا ينتهي بواحدة من تلك العلامات: %، (، +، -، =،/، *، ^
 ۱٫)، >، <، .، ;، , علامة underscore تقبل مع إعطاء تحذير.
 - جميع العلامات التي لا توضع في النهاية لا توضع في أي مكان في اسم المتغير ماعدا underscore، و النفطة.
 - .4 اسم المتغير لا يتضمن مسافة في البداية أو النهاية أو الوسط.
 - 5. اسم المتغير لا يتكرر في نفس البيانات، مع ملاحظة أن برنامج SPSS ليس Case Sensitive
- طول اسم المتغير لا يزيد عن 64 حرف، مع ملاحظة أن الحرف في اللغة العربية له وضع خاص.
- .7 هناك كلمات (13 كلمة) التي لا يقبل البرنامج أن تعطى كأسماء للمتغيرات gt, lt, le, ge, eq, ne, to, with, all, by, and, or, not

| 🖬 Variable Type | | | × |
|---|------------------------|---|----|
| | | | |
| © <u>C</u> omma | Width: | 5 | ٦ |
| © <u>D</u> ot | Decimal Places: | 0 | f. |
| Scientific notation | Decimar <u>n</u> aces. | 0 | |
| © D <u>a</u> te | | | |
| © Do <u>l</u> lar | | | |
| ◎ C <u>u</u> stom currency | | | |
| © String | | | |
| © Restricted Numeric (integer with leading zeros) | | | |
| | | | |

The Numeric type honors the digit grouping setting, while the Restricted Numeric never uses digit grouping.

Cancel

Help

OK

click the cell associated with the variable of interest. A

blue "..." button will appear.

| Name | Туре | |
|------|---------|--|
| ID | Numeric | |

The two **common** types of variables that you are likely to see are *numeric* and *string*.

*To change a variable's type, click inside the cell corresponding to the "Type" column for that variable. A square "..." button will appear; click on it to open the Variable Type window. Click the option that best matches the type of variable. Click OK.

| التعريف المحدد من قبل البرنامج (العرف)(default) هو المتغير العددي (Numeric) | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------|-------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| وهو معرف بعدد يحتوي 8 أرقام منهما رقمين بعد العلامة العشرية. يمكن تغيير هذا العرف | | | | | | | | |
| | | عند الضرورة. | | | | | | |
| . م كما في الجدول الموجز التالي: | ىتھم يستخد | حیث ان کل اختیار . | | | | | | |
| الاستخدام | نوع المتغير | الرمز | | | | | | |
| للمتغير الذي قيمته عبارة عن أرقام | عددى | ◯ <u>N</u> umeric | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددى الذى قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب باستخدام | 62.16 | O Comma | | | | | | |
| فواصل (مثل 7,500 للتعبير عن سبعة الاف رخمسمانة) | Gua | C Tourna | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددى الذى قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب باستخدام | 63.16 | O Dat | | | | | | |
| نقطة (مثل 7.500 للتعيير عن سبعة ونصف) | عددى | ⊖ <u>P</u> or | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددى الذى قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب باستخدام | | | | | | | | |
| الرمز E واشارة الرقم 10 في الأس (متل 3+1.23E والتي نعني | عددى | ○ <u>S</u> cientific notation | | | | | | |
| 1.23 مضروبة في 10 ³ أي تساوى 1230) | | | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددي الذي قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب بدلالة الزمن | عددى | O Date | | | | | | |
| (التواريخ أوالساعات أو الدقائق أو الثواني الخ) | | 0.000 | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددي الذي قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب بدلالة علامة | عددى | O Dollar | | | | | | |
| الدولار (\$) (من 7.99 \$) | | C Doilor | | | | | | |
| للمتغير العددي الذي قيمته عبارة عن أرقام تكتب بدلالة عملة | عددى | C Custom currency | | | | | | |
| محلية (متل LE 7.25 أو SR 7.99) | | C. Custom carrenter | | | | | | |
| للمتغير الذي قيمة ليست عددية وبالتالي لاتدخل في الحسابات | أحرف |) String | | | | | | |
| (مثل اسماء الأشخاص أو الماركات الخ) | | | | | | | | |

SPSS Variable Types and

FO Understanding SPSS variable types and formats allows you to get things done fast and reliably. Getting a grip on types and formats is not hard if you ignore the *very confusing* information under variable view. This tutorial takes away the confusion and puts you back in control.

We encourage you to follow along with this tutorial by downloading and opening

computer_parts.

| *computer_parts.sav [formats] - IBM SPSS Statistics Data Editor | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|---|--------------|----------------|-----|
| <u>F</u> ile | <u>E</u> dit | <u>V</u> iew <u>D</u> ata | <u>T</u> ransform <u>A</u> | nalyze Direct <u>M</u> arketin | ng <u>G</u> raphs <u>L</u> | <u>I</u> tilities Add- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp | | |
| | 8 👌 | n 🖬 🖬 | 🗉 🔓 📥 🗐 I | II M 🖪 🖬 🗄 | 🗄 📫 🎛 📊 | ∕o 🐁 🤲 🖨 1 2 | 3 4 5 6 7 | 789 | |
| 7: | | | | | | | | | |
| | | name | weight | date | time | datetime | commission | price | var |
| | 1 | mouse | .16 | 26-Jan-2015 | 9:48:57 | 26-Jan-2015 09:48:57 | 22.00% | \$18.83 | |
| | 2 | keyboard | .35 | 26-Jan-2015 | 9:48:57 | 26-Jan-2015 09:48:57 | 17.00% | \$24.94 | |
| | 3 | monitor | 4.20 | 26-Jan-2015 | 9:48:57 | 26-Jan-2015 09:48:57 | 17.50% | \$20.37 | |
| | 4 | | | | | | | | |

25

SPSS Variable

Types

- SPSS has two variable types: string and numeric.
- Numeric variables may contain only numbers.
- String variables may contain letters, numbers and other characters.
- The distinction between numeric and string variables is important because the variable type dictates what you can or cannot do with a variable.
- You can do calculations with numeric variables but not with string variables.
- You can use string functions such as taking <u>substrings</u> or <u>concatenating</u> with string variables but not with numeric variables.

- There are **no other variable types in SPSS than string and numeric**. However, numeric variables have several different formats that are often confused with variable types. We'll see in a minute how
- Desponing is というである Point a SPSS Variable Type versus Format
 Before doing anything whatsoever with a
 - variable, we always want to know whether it's a string or numeric variable. Don't rely on a visual inspection of your <u>data view</u> for determining variable types; it may be hard, sometimes impossible to see the difference between the two variable types. Instead, inspect your variable **<u>view</u>** and use the following rule:
 - if "Type" is "String", you're dealing with a string variable;



if "Type" is anything else than "String", you're



- SPSS suggests that "Date" and "Dollar" are variable types as well.
- However, these are *formats*, **not types**. ٠
- The way they are shown here among the actual variable types (string and numeric) is one of SPSS' most confusing features.
SPSS Variable Formats -Let's now have a look at the data under <u>data view</u> as shown the screenshot below. We'll briefly describe the **late of atabies** we see.

| 1 The first variable holds words; |
|---|
| ② The second variable holds numbers with two decimal places; |
| ③ The third variable holds dates; |
| ④ The fourth variable holds times; |
| (5) The fifth variable holds dates and times; |
| 6 The sixth variable holds percentages; |
| ⑦ The seventh variable holds numbers of dollars with two decimal places. |

- First there's the actual values as SPSS stores them internally. These consist of nothing but numbers.
- Second, the actual values can be displayed and treated in a myriad of different ways. Like so, numeric variables may *seem* to contain letters of months or dollar signs.
- These different ways of displaying and treating the actual values are referred to as variable formats.

Determining SPSS

- Variable row earlier, "Type" under <u>variable</u> <u>view</u> shows a confusing mixture of variable types and formats.
- Unfortunately, it doesn't allow us to determine the actual formats. However, the following line of <u>syntax</u> does the trick here:

display dictionary.

 After running it, we see one or more tables with <u>dictionary</u> information in the <u>Output Viewer window</u> as shown by the screenshot below.

| Variable | Position | Label | Measurement Level | Role | Column Width | Alignment | Print Format | Write Format |
|------------|----------|---------------|----------------------|-------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| name | 1 | <none></none> | Nominal | Input | 7 | Left | A10 | A10 |
| weight | 2 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 8 | Right | F5.2 | F5.2 |
| date | 3 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 11 | Right | DATE11 | DATE11 |
| time | 4 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 8 | Right | TIME8 | TIME8 |
| datetime | 5 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 16 | Right | DATETIME22 | DATETIME22 |
| commission | 6 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 9 | Right | PCT4.2 | PCT4.2 |
| price | 7 | <none></none> | Scale | Input | 7 | Right | DOLLAR4.2 | DOLLAR4.2 |

Variable Information

Variables in the working file

• SPSS distinguishes print and write formats but we don't about this distinction.

SPSS variable formats consist of two parts. One or more lett the format family.

- Most of them speak to themselves, except for the first tw
- <u>A</u> ("Alphanumeric") is the usual format for string variab
- <u>F</u>, ("Fortran") indicates a standard numeric variable. Formats end with numbers, indicating the number of charae shown.
- * If a period is present, the number after the period indicate number of decimal places to be displayed.

The table below disambiguates variable types, format families and formats for the data we've been studying so far.

| | VARIABLE TYPE | FORMAT FAMILY | FORMAT (EXAMPLE) | SHOWN AS |
|---|---------------|---------------|------------------|---------------------|
| t | String | A | A10 | Word. |
| 7 | Numeric | F | F5.2 | 19.99 |
|) | Numeric | DATE | DATE11 | 08-jan-2013 |
| | Numeric | TIME | TIME8 | 16:56:10 |
| | Numeric | DATETIME | DATETIME20 | 8-Jan-2013 18:34:05 |
| | Numeric | PCT | PCT6.2 | 21.99% |
| e | Numeric | DOLLAR | DOLLAR6.2 | \$18.83 |
| | | | | |

Numeric

- Numeric variables have values that are numbers (in standard format or scientific notation).
- Missing numeric variables appear as a period (i.e., ".").
- **Example:** Continuous variables that can take on any number in a range (e.g., height, weight, blood pressure, ...) would be considered numeric variables. The researcher can choose as many or as few decimal places as they feel are necessary. In this situation, the *Measurement* setting should be defined as *Scale*.
- This particular type of numeric variable can be used calculations—e.g., we can compute the average and standard deviation of heights.
- <u>Example</u>: Counts (e.g., number of free throws made per game) are a numeric variable with zero decimal places. In this situation, the <u>Measurement</u> setting should be defined as <u>Scale</u>
- Certain mathematical calculations are valid when applied to count variables (e.g., mean and standard deviation), but some statistical procedures are **not** (e.g., **linear regression**).
- <u>Example</u>: Nominal categorical variables that have been coded numerically (e.g., recording a subject's gender as 1 if male or 2 if female) would be classified as numeric variables with zero decimal places. In this situation, the <u>Measurement</u> setting must be defined as <u>Nominal</u>.

This type of numeric variable should *never* be used in mathematical calculations.

• <u>Example</u>: Ordinal categorical variables that have been coded numerically (e.g., a Likert item with responses 1=Good, 2=Better, 3=Best) would be classified as numeric variables with zero decimal places. In this situation, the <u>Measurement</u> setting must be defined as <u>Ordinal</u>.

In general, this type of numeric variable should **not** be used in mathematical calculations.

• Note that some SPSS procedures require that grouping variables be coded as numeric (e. g., the independent samples t-test; legacy dialogues for nonparametric methods; etc.)

String

String variables which are also called alphanumeric variables or character

- *Example:* Any written text is considered a string variable, including free-response answers to survey questions.
- The next few variable types are all technically numeric, but indicate special formatting. If your data has been recorded in one of these formats, you must set the variable type appropriately so that SPSS can interpret the variables correctly. (For example, SPSS cannot use dates in calculations unless the variables are specifically defined as date variables.)

<u>Comma</u>

Numeric variables that include commas that delimit every three places (to the left of the decimals) and use a period to delimit decimals. SPSS will recognize these values as numeric—with or without commas, and also in scientific notation.

Example: Thirty-thousand and one half: 30,000.50

Example: One million, two hundred thirty-four thousand, five hundred sixty-seven and eighty-nine hundredths: 1,234,567.89

<u>Dot</u>

Numeric variables that include periods that delimit every three places and use a comma to delimit decimals. SPSS will recognize these values as numeric—with or without periods, and also in scientific notation.

Example: Thirty-thousand and one half: 30.000,50

Example: One million, two hundred thirty-four thousand, five hundred sixty-seven and eighty-nine hundredths:1.234.567,89

Note about comma versus dot notation: comma notation is standard in the United States.

<u>Scientific_notation</u>

Numeric variables whose values are displayed with an E and power-of-ten exponent. Exponents can be preceded by either an E or a D, with or without a sign, or only with a sign (no E or D). SPSS will recognize these values as numeric, with or without an exponent.



Date

Numeric variables that are displayed in any standard calendar date or clock-time formats. Standard formats may include commas, blank spaces, hyphens, periods, or slashes as space delimiters.

Example: Dates: 01/31/2013, 31.01.2013

Example: Time: 01:02:33.7

Dollar

Numeric variables that contain a dollar sign (i.e., \$) before numbers. Commas may be used to delimit every three places, and a period can be used to delimit decimals.

Example: Thirty-three thousand dollars and thirty-three cents: \$33,000.33

Example: One million dollars and twelve point three cents: \$1,000,000.123

Custom currency

Numeric variables that are displayed in a custom currency format. You must define the custom currency in the Variable Type window. Custom currency characters are displayed in the Data Editor but cannot be used during data entry.

Restricted number

Numeric variables whose values are restricted to non-negative integers (in standard format or scientific notation). The values are displayed with leading zeroes padded to the maximum width of the variable. *Example:* 00000123456 (width 11)



The number of digits displayed for numerical values or the length of a string variable. To set a variable's width, click inside the cell corresponding to the "Width" column for that variable. Then click the "up" or "down" arrow icons to increase or decrease the number width.

| Name | Туре | Width |
|------|---------|-------|
| gg | Numeric | 8 🗧 |



4 - حقل Decimals يضع البرنامج العدد 2 كعرف للدلالة على أن العدد مكون من رقمين عشريين (يمكن تزويدها أو إلغائها في حالة الأرقام الصحيحة).

حقل

Label

The number of digits to display after a decimal point for values of that variable. Does not apply to string variables. Note that this changes how the numbers are displayed, but does not change the values in the dataset. To specify the number of decimal places for a numeric variable, click inside the **cell** corresponding to the "**Decimals**" column for that variable. Decimals

Then click the "up" or "down" arrow icons to increase or decrease the number of decimal places.

Example: If you specify that values should have two decimal points, they will display as 1.00, 2.00, 3.00, and so on. Label يستخدم لوصف المتغيربكتابة مايعبر عنه المتغير.

A brief but descriptive definition or display name for the variable. When defined, a variable's label will appear in the output in place of its name.

Example: The variable *expgradate* might be described by the label "Expected date of college graduation".

| Va | lues | | | | 6 - جقل Values يستخدم لتعريف عناصر المتغير الترتيبي (Ordinal) أو الإسمي (Nominal) أو الإسمي (Nominal). |
|--|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------|----------|--|
| First, click then on t diagram l | k on the "N he 💮 but pelow: | lone" cell tton, as sh | box anc Iow in th | l 1e | Ai Valco Labela |
| | | <i>₽</i> 2 <u> </u> | | | Same Contraction of the second se |
| Label | Values | Missing | Columns | Aligr | |
| | None 📖 | None | 8 | /≡ Right | |
| | {1.00, Scho | None | 8 | ≣ Right | مى الحلية المناظرة لـ Value: يتم وضع القيمة |
| | None | None | 8 | ≣ Right | في الخلية المناظرة لـ Label يتم وضع ما تعبر عنه القيمة |
| | | | | | ويلاحظ أن تصحيح الأخطاء اللغوية (باللغة الإنجليزية) (Spelling لم يكن موجوداً قبل |
| | | | | | الاصدار 17 من البرنامج. |

Values

For coded categorical variables (i.e., nominal or ordinal) variables, the value label(s) that should be associated with each category abbreviation. Value labels are useful primarily for categorical (i. e., nominal or ordinal) variables, especially if they have been recorded as codes (e.g., 1, 2, 3). It is strongly suggested that you give each value a label so that you (and anyone looking at your data or results) understands what each value represents.

- When value labels are **defined**, the **labels** will display in the **output** instead of the original codes. Note that defining value labels only affects the labels associated with each value, and does not change the recorded values themselves.
- Example: In the sample dataset, the variable Gender . The values 1.2 represent the categories Male

🔢 Value Labels and Female, respectively. Let's define



Wr variable in the sample

Repeat the above, entering "2" in the Value: box and "Female" in the Label Add and click on the Add

- If you wish to change or remove a value and label that you have added to the center dialog box, do the following:
- To change a specific value or label, highlight the value/label in the center text box in the Value Labels window.
- Now the selected value/label will be highlighted yellow. Make changes to the selected value or label as needed. Click Change.
- The changes will be applied to the value/label you • highlighted.
- To remove a specific value/label_highlight the value/

| | Value Labels | |
|-------------|---|----------|
| Click ок | Value Labels Value: Labet: Add Change Remove OK Cancel Help | Spelling |

Missing

The user-defined values that indicate data are missing for a variable (e.g., -99 or 999). Note that this does not affect or eliminate SPSS's default missing value code ("."). ta Missing Values This column merely allows the user to specify alternative codes for missing values. To set user-defined missing value codes, click inside the cell corresponding to the "Missing" column for that variable. A square button will appear; click on it.

Click the option that best matches how you wish to define missing data and enter any associated values then click OK at the bottom of the window

| anter any associated values, then thick OK at the bottom of the window. | Low: <u>H</u> igh: |
|---|---|
| 7 - حقل Missing يستخدم لتعريف القيم المفقودة (غير المبينة). فبالضغط على | Di <u>s</u> crete value: |
| الجزء الأيمن من الخلية 🔹 🚽 يظهر الشكل التالي: | OK Cancel Help |
| Ri Missing Values | |
| No missing values Discrete missing values | |
| C Bange plus one optional discrete missing value | |
| Criticitade viscois | |
| CHC Cancel Help | |
| 这些问题,中国中的问题的《新闻》中国中国中国中国中国中国中国中国中国中国 | |
| يكن قبول وجود قيم مفقودة في التحليل او الإبقاء على اختيار البرنامج والمعبر عن عدم | |
| وجود قيم مفقودة. | |
| | - |
| رالعرف هو 8 خانات يمكن زيادتها | 8 - حقل Columns يستخدم لتحديد عرض العمود، و |
| | أو تقليلها. |

Missing

×

None

No missing values

Discrete missing values

Range plus one optional discrete missing value

Columns

The width of each column in the Data View spreadsheet. Note that this is not the same as the number of digits displayed for each value. This simply refers to the width of the actual column in the spreadsheet.

To set a variable's column width, click inside the cell corresponding to the "Columns" column for that variable. Then click the "up" or "down" arrow icons to increase or decrease the column width.

Align

- The alignment of content in the cells of the SPSS Data View spreadsheet.
- Options include left-justified, right-justified, or center-justified.
- To set the alignment for a variable, click inside the cell corresponding to the
- "Align" column for that variable. Then use the dropdown menu to select your
- preferred alignment: Left, Right, or Center.



in SPSS **By default, variables with numeric** responses are automatically detected as "Scale" variables.



يمكن اختيار اتجاه اليمين (Right) او اتجاه الوسط (Center).

15



| 2. | يستخدم لتحديد نوع المتغير، والعرف هو المتغير الكم لأيمن من الخلية للمستحمي يظهر الشكل التالي: | Me ی الجزء ال | asure – حقل – 10 (Scale). فبالضغط عل |
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| | كما في الجدول الموجز التالي: | يستخدم | حيث ان كل اختيار منهم |
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| | للمتغيرات العددية ذات مقياس الفترة أو النسبة | کمی | 🖉 Scale |
| | للمتغيرات العددية ذات المقياس الترتيبي | ترتيبي | 📶 Ordinal |
| | للمتغيرات العددية ذات المقياس الإسمى أو للمتغيرات التي تحتوى على أسماء أو أحرف | اسمى | 뤚 Nominal |

11 - حقل Role هو حقل جديد أضيف في الإصدار 18 وهو يستخدم لتحديد حالة المتغير، وتكمن أهميته عند الإختيار الآلي للإختبار الإحصائي حيث يتم التعرف على المتغيرات التابعة والمستقلة آلياً. والعرف هو انه متغيرمستقل يستخدم له الرمز الملي المتغيرات (مدخل). فبالضغط على الجزء الأيمن من الخلية على المتالي: الشكل التالي:

Input: The variable will be used as a predictor (**independent** variable). This is the default assignment for variables.

Target: The variable will be used as an outcome (dependent variable).

Both: The variable will be used as both a predictor and an outcome (independent and dependent variable).

None: The variable has no role assignment.

Partition: The variable will partition the data into separate samples.

Split: Used with the IBM[®] SPSS[®] Modeler (not IBM[®] SPSS[®] Statistics).

وكما ذكرنا، تزداد أهمية هذا الحقل في حالة التعامل الآلى مع الاختبارات الاحصائية (الاحصاءات اللامعلمية) في اصدارات 18 و 19 و 20. أو في حالة التعامل مع نموذج لانحدار الآلى كما في اصداري 19 و 20.

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| و کما | | فئوى) | سيم النتائج تبعاً له (متغير | متغير يتم تق | r | تقسيم | Split | |
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| General Viewer Data | Currency Output | Charts | | - | Redo | | Ctrl+Y |
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| © Measuremen <u>t</u> level | Language: English | | choose | | Paste Va | ariables. | |
| Relac | | | | . / | Clear | | Delete |
| To save time, some dialogs allow the use of predefined | Notification: | | Unicode | | Insert Va | ariable | |
| in dialogs. | Scroll to new output | | Then | | Insert C | - | |
| Use predefined roles Use custom assignments | Character Encoding for Data and Syntax | | | | insen o | 3363 | |
| | Locale's writing system | | | | Find | | Ctrl+F |
| Windows | Unicode (universal character set) | | | - 44 | Find Ne | đ | F3 |
| Look and feel: SPSS Standard | Character encoding cannot be chang | ged when any | | | Replace | | Ctrl+H |
| Open syntax window at startup | User Interface | | N | | Go to Ca | a <u>s</u> e | |
| Open only one <u>d</u> ataset at a time | Language: English | | | 1 📥 | <u>G</u> o to Va | riable | |
| | | | | 1 🚅 | Go to Im | putation | |
| OK | Apply Help | | | 1 | Options. | | |
| | | | 1 E | | · - | | |

Output Viewer



This window opens automatically the first time you run a procedure that generates output. See Figure for details.



Output Viewer

When you perform any command in SPSS, the Output Viewer window opens automatically and displays a log of the actions taken and the associated output. Primarily, the Output Viewer is where the results of statistical analysis are shown, but any command invoked through the drop-down menus or syntax will be printed to the Output Viewer. This includes opening, closing, or saving a data file. If an Output Viewer window is not open when a command is run, a new Output Viewer window will automatically be created.

SPSS Output Viewer

SPSS Output Viewer

SPSS' Output Viewer window is the window that contains all output we generate. The most typical output items are tables and charts that describe patterns in our data. An Output Viewer window opens automatically when we generate output. It's recognized by a purple icon the (or the for older SPSS versions).

| ţ | | | | | | | *0ı | ıtpu | t2 [| Docu | mer | nt2] - I | BM SPSS | Statistic | s Vie | wer | | - | | X | |
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| | + | E Ou | tput | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

SPSS Output Viewer Window - Example

We recommend you follow along by downloading employees.sav. Next, open this data file, preferably as shown in Syntax Editor window. At this point, you'll probably have two SPSS windows open: the Data Editor and Syntax Editor.* Now, add the line

frequencies job_satisfaction.

to the end of the Syntax Editor window. You can run this command by selecting it and pressing the CTRL + n shortkey. On doing so, an SPSS Viewer window will open, containing the output of the FREQUENCIES command we just ran.

| ta 🕯 | *Output5 | [Document5] - IBI | VI SPSS Stati | stics View | er | - 0 | × |
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| | Valid Valid Missing Total | Job sat Very dissatisfied Rather dissatisfied Neutral Rather satisfied Very satisfied Total System | Frequency 3 2 1 4 4 14 6 20 | Percent 15.0 10.0 5.0 20.0 20.0 70.0 30.0 100.0 | Valid Percent 21.4 14.3 7.1 28.6 28.6 100.0 | Cumulative Percent 21.4 35.7 42.9 71.4 100.0 | |
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First, note that the Output Viewer window has two sections: the left pane shows the **output outline** and the right pane shows the **actual output**. The outline shows that the output items such as headings and tables are organized according to a tree structure.

Ouput items can be selected in both panes. For **selecting multiple items**, press **shift** or **ctrl** while clicking on the items. In the outline pane, all items under a branch can be selected at once by clicking the book icon **G** of this branch.

All items under a branch can be **hidden** by clicking the minus icon shown in the outline. For **deleting** items, select them and press the delete button on your keyboard.

SPSS Output Files -

SPSS Ouput files are **rarely used for reporting** results. A major reason is that they can't be opened by recipients who don't have SPSS installed on their computers.*

Also, reports tend to contain quite some explanatory text. Technically, you *can* insert text, headings and even images (such as a client logo) into an output file. For doing so, navigate to Insert New text as shown in the screenshot.

| *Output2 [Document2] - IBM SPSS Statistics Viewer | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------------|--------------------------------------|---------|-------------------------|-----------|---------|--------|------|
| Eile Edit View Data Transform | n <u>I</u> nsert | Format | Analyze | Direct Marketing Graphs | Utilities | Add-ons | Window | Help |
| 🗟 🖶 👬 🖬 1 2 3 4 | 5 <u> P</u> a | ge Break | | | | | | |
| ut Frequencies | Le Cle | ear Page | Break | ; | | | | |
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| La Active Dataset | 🚱 Ne | | | . (data (empro) | | | | |
| Job satisfaction indicated by res | 🗟 Ne | w Te <u>x</u> t | | | | | | |

However, we find this rather cumbersome and there's no way to create a decent **layout** for the content.

Reporting on SPSS

As we just suggested, you probably don't want to report on SPSS Ouput by saving and sharing your Output file(s). So what are the alternatives? Many people write their reports in a word processor such as Microsoft Word. In this case you'll probably want to simply **copy and paste** output items from SPSS' Output Viewer window into your report. In most cases, using the ctrl + c and ctrl + v shortkey should do the job. If the result is not as desired, you may try right clicking the output item you want to copy, select Copy Special and try Rich Text for tables or Image for charts. This is shown in the screenshot below.

SPSS - Copy & Paste Output

| Job satisfaction indicated by respondent | | | | | | | Copy Special | | |
|--|-------------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|---|------------------------|--|--|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent | | For TABLES | | |
| Valid | Very dissatisfied | 3 | 15.0 | 21.4 | 21.4 | | Rich Text (RTF) | | |
| | Rather dissatisfied | 2 | 10.0 | 14.3 | 35.7 | | Image (JPG, PNG) | | |
| | Neutral | 1 | 5.0 | 7.1 | 42.9 | | Metafile (WMF, EMF) | | |
| | Rather satisfied | 0 | Sut | | 71.4 | | Excel Worksheet (BIFF) | | |
| | Very satisfied Total | 1 | Сору | | 100.0 | | FOR CHARTS | | |
| Missing | System | , c | Copy Special. | | | v | Save as default | | |
| Total | - | 2 F | aste After | | | | OK Cancel | | |
| | | | reate/Edit Au | toscript | | | Un Califier | | |

A second option, found under <u>File</u> <u>Export</u> is **Export Output**. An advantage of this is that it works by means of syntax which you can paste and save. If you need to correct and rerun your syntax at some point, the corrected output will be exported automatically as well.



مثال تطبيقي : (سيتم استخدام بيانات هذا المثال في جميع تطبيقات الكتاب)

اهتمت إدارة ما بالبحث عن الأسباب التي تدعو المستفيدين لحضور برنامج ، ومن أجل ذلك تم حصر بعض المتغيرات التي تدعو المستفيد حضور البرنامج ، وذلك من خلال ثلاثة محاور: المحور الأول : (تقدير البرنامج) ويتضمن (موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع ، البرنامج يتميز بسمعة طيبة ، البرنامج يتميز بالجودة). المحور الثاني : (انتشار البرنامج) ويتضمن (سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيراً ، البرنامج سهل التكرار ، البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية). المحور الثالث : (تعميم البرنامج) ويتضمن (مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال ، إمكانية اشتراكك سهلة في البرنامج). ولدراسة هذا البحث تم تصميم استبيان مكون من عوامل ديموجرافية مثل النوع (ذكر، أنثى) ومستوى التعليم (ثانوي ، جامعي ، دراسات عليا) ثم المتغيرات الكمية من خمسة أوزان هي : (موافق جداً ، أموافق ، محايد ، أغير موافق ، غير موافق إطلاقا) ، وكان الاستبيان مصمم كما یلی: فنكونج استعدان العمر بالسنوات : 🗖 أنثى □ذکر النوع: دراسات عليا 🗖 جامعي مستوى التعليم: 🗖 ثانوى يرجى وضع إشارة (√) في المكان الذي يعكس مستوى اختيارك الصحيح: غير موافق غير موافق موافق موافق العيارة المحور محايد م جدأ اطلاقا موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع ١ تقدير البرنامج ۲

وبعد توزيع الاستبيان على العينة المستهدفة للإجابة عليها تم جمعها وكان عددها (٢٠) استبياناً، وفيما يلي سنستخدم برنامج SPSS لتحليل نتائج الاستبيان وإدراج التوصيات .

يتميز البرنامج بسمعة طيبة يتميز البرنامج بالجودة

سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيرأ

مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال

إمكانية اشتراكك في البرنامج سهلة

البرنامج سهل التكرار

البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية

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انتشار البرنامج

تعميم البرنامج



What is a Hypothesis?

- in the USA legal system (a person is innocent until proven guilty)
- A patient goes to a physician and reports various symptoms. On the basis of the symptoms, the physician will order certain diagnostic tests, then, according to the symptoms and the test results, determine the treatment to be followed.
- In statistical analysis we make a claim, that is, state a hypothesis, collet data, then use the data to test the assertion.
- We define a statistical hypothesis as follows.

in statistics, is a claim or statement about a property of a population

Or

Or

• A hypothesis may be defined simply as a statement about one or more populations.

A statement that something is true

OR

• A statement about a population parameter subject to verification.

 يعرف الفرض الاحصائى بأنه: - ادعاء أو تخمين ذكى أو توقع أو إجابة مؤقتة لسؤال سوف يحاول الباحث من خلال خطوات علمية أن يتحقق منه - أو هو بيان أو ادعاء يتعلق بالتوزيع الاحتمالي للمتغير العشوائي تحت الدراسة ويرمز للفرض الإحصائي بالرمز : H

What is Hypothesis Testing or testing a hypothesis?

Is also called significance testing

• A procedure based on sample evidence and probability theory to determine whether the hypothesis is a reasonable statement.

is a standard procedure for testing a claim about a property of a population.

Or is to test the claim or statement

Or A hypothesis is a <u>claim</u> (assumption) about one or more <u>population</u> parameters.

Goal: Make statement(s) regarding unknown population parameter values based on sample data.

Hypothesis Testing: A hypothesis is a <u>claim</u> (assumption) about one or more <u>population</u> parameters.

- Example: A hypothesis might be that the mean monthly commission of sales associates in retail electronics stores, such as Circuit City, is \$2,000.
- We cannot contact all these sales associates to ascertain that the mean is in fact \$2,000. The cost of locating and interviewing every electronics sales associate in the United States would be exorbitant.
- To test the validity of the assumption (µ = \$2,000), we must select a sample from the population of all electronics sales associates, calculate sample statistics, and based on certain decision rules accept or reject the hypothesis.
- A sample mean of \$1,000 for the electronics sales associates would certainly cause rejection of the hypothesis.
- However, suppose the sample mean is \$1,995. Is that close enough to \$2,000 for us to accept the assumption that the population mean is \$2,000? Can we attribute the difference of \$5 between the two means to sampling error, or is that difference statistically significant?

- The population mean monthly cell phone bill of Cairo city is: **µ** = \$42
- Not logic to met every person in Cairo and ask about monthly cell phone bill
- To test the validity of assumption µ = \$42 we must select a sample from population, then calculate sample statistics, and based on certain decision rules accept or reject the hypothesis.
- A sample mean of \$15 for monthly cell phone bill in Cairo would certainly cause rejection of the hypothesis.
- However suppose the sample mean is monthly cell phone bill \$38
- Is that close enough to μ =\$42 for us to accept the assumption that population mean μ = \$42 ?
- Can attribute the difference of \$4 between the two means to sampling error, OR is the difference statistically significant?
- <u>Hypothesis Testing:</u> A procedure based on sample evidence and probability theory to determine whether the hypothesis is a reasonable statement.
- The average number of TV sets in U.S. Homes is equal to three; µ = 3
 - It is always about a population parameter, not about a sample statistic
 - Sample evidence is used to assess the probability that the claim about the population
 parameter is true

الاستدلال باختبارات الفروض المتهم بريء حتى فرض العدم والفرض البديل Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis هناك نوعين من الفروض يسمى الأول بفرض العدم والثاني بالفرض البديل. ولإيضاح الفكرة لنعتبر هذا المثال «غير الإحصائي» لشخص عقدت له محاكمة لجريمة ما، وبناءً على الأدلة المتاحة؛ فإن هيئة القضاء سوف تأخذ بأحد القرارين: الشخص غير مذنب. 2- الشخص مذنب. قبل بدء المحاكمة أو الجلسة؛ فإنه يفترض أن الشخص غير مذنب؛ ويبذل وكيل النيابة جهوده لإثبات أن الشخص قد ار تكب الجر يمة و أنه مذنب. في الإحصاء: « الشخص غير مذنب » يسمى فرض العدم (null hypothesis). و « الشخص مذنب » يسمى الفرض البديل (alternative hypothesis) . ويرمز لفرض العدم بالرمز H₀ وللفرض البديل بالرمز H_a . وفي بداية الجلسة يفترض أن الشخص غير مذنب. فرض العدم هو فرض يُفترض صحته في البداية (وهو يوضع بهدف رفضه) وبالنسبة لمثالنا يكتب الفرصان حاداني: الشخص غير مذنب : H₀ الشخص مذنب : H. بالنظر إلى مثال المحاكمة؛ فقد بدأت المحاكمة بافتراض أن فرض العدم صحيح (أي أن الشخص غير مذنب). ووكيل النيابة يبرز جميع الأدلة لهيئة القضاء لإثبات أن فرض العدم غير صحيح وأن الفرض البديل هو الصحيح (أي أن الشخص مذنب). في مثالنا الإحصائي فإن المعلومات التي جُمعت عن «العينة» سوف تستخدم كأدلة لتقرير ما إذا كان ادعاء الشركة صحيحًا أم غير صحيح. في مثال المحاكمة سوف يؤخذ القرار بواسطة هيئة القضاء بالاعتماد على كمية الأدلة التي قدمت بواسطة وكيل النيابة في نهاية المحاكمة فإن هيئة القضاء وكمية الأدلة التي تعتبر كافية لإدانة الشخص قد تعتمد على التعقل (حرية التصرف) (discretion) لهيئة القضاء !

مناطق الرفض وعدم الرفض Rejection and non rejections:



بالنظر إلى الشكل السابق والذي يمثل حالة المحاكمة فإن النقطة « O » تمثل عدم وجود أي شواهد لإدانة الشخص الذي يُحاكم، وكلما اتجهنا يمينًا على الخط الأفقي كلما كان ذلك يعني وجود شواهد لإدانته ولكنها غير كافية، حتى الوصول إلى النقطة O

تسمى النقطة « C » في الإحصاء القيمة الحرجة (Critical Value) أو النقطة الحرجة (Critical paint).

في الإحصاء يكون القرار « لا ترفض H_o » (don not reject H_o)، وذلك مكافئ للقول « لا توجد شواهد كافية لاعتبار فرض العدم غير مقبول ».

والمنطقة على يسار النقطة « C » تسمى منطقة الرفض (rejection region) أي أن المنطقة التي يرفض عندها فرض العدم.

| منطقة عدم الرفض | | منطقة الرفض |
|----------------------------|---------------|------------------------|
| « لا يفرض H _o » | | « H _o پرفض» |
| 1 | 1 | |
| | القيمة الحرجة | |





ח. صياغة الفرضيات
 فرضية العدم و فرضية البديل H0 و H1 و تحديد
 الافتراضات المتعلقة بتوزيع المجتمع .

α. تحديد مستوى المعنوية للاختبار α.

 3. تحديد إحصاء الاختبار المستخدم و تحديد توزيع المعاينة لهذا الإحصاء في ضوء الافتراضات العدم والبديلة .

- الخطوات الأساسية في اختبارات الفروض

- 4. صياغة قاعدة القرار بتحديد منطقة الرفض بناء ًعلى مستوى المعنوية و اتجاه الفرض البديل .
- حساب قيمة إحصاء الاختبار باستخدام بيانات العينة .

 6. اتخاذ قرار برفض أو قبول فرضية العدم HO بناء ً على قيمة إحصاء الاختبار و منطقة الرفض و تفسير نتيجة الاختبار في ضوء الهدف من البحث أمثلة - أن متوسط الذكاء عند الذكور أعلى من الإناث . H0 : μ1 = μ2 vs. H1: μ1 < μ2 اختبار من طرف واحد One - sided .test - يوجد فرق بين معلمي ومعلمات مدارس التعليم العام في الدولة فى متوسط مقياس الضغوط النفسية .

H0 : μ 1 = μ 2 vs. H1: μ 1 \neq μ 2

Two - sided test

اختبار من طرفين

Hypothesis Testing Steps

- There is a five-step procedure that systematizes hypothesis testing; when we get to step 5, we are ready to reject or not reject the hypothesis.
- However, hypothesis testing as used by statisticians does not provide proof that something is true, in the manner in which a mathematician "proves" a statement.
- It does provide a kind of "proof beyond a reasonable doubt," in the manner of the court system.
- Hence, there are specific rules of evidence, or procedures, that are followed.
- The steps are shown in the following diagram. We will discuss in detail each of the

steps.

Hypothesis Testing Steps



Hypothesis Testing Steps

Step 1: State the Null Hypothesis (H0) and the Alternate Hypothesis (H1)

- The first step is to state the hypothesis being tested.
- It is called the null hypothesis, designated H0, and read "H sub zero." The capital letter H stands for hypothesis, and the subscript zero implies "no difference." There is usually a "not" or a "no" term in the null hypothesis, meaning that there is "no change."
- For example, the null hypothesis is that the mean number of miles driven on the steel-belted tire is not different from 60,000. The null hypothesis would be written H0: $\mu = 60,000$.
- Generally speaking, the null hypothesis is developed for the purpose of testing.
- We either reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis.
- The null hypothesis is a statement that is not rejected unless our sample data provide convincing evidence that it is false.
- We should emphasize that, if the null hypothesis is not rejected on the basis of the sample data, we cannot say that the null hypothesis is true.

- To put it another way, failing to reject the null hypothesis does not prove that H0 is true, it means we have failed to disprove H0.
- To prove without any doubt the null hypothesis is true, the population parameter would have to be known.
- To actually determine it, we would have to test, survey, or count every item in the population. This is usually not feasible.
- The alternative is to take a sample from the population.
- It should also be noted that we often begin the null hypothesis by stating,
 "There is no significant difference between ...," or
- "The mean impact strength of the glass is not significantly different from...." When we select a sample from a population, the sample statistic is usually numerically different from the hypothesized population parameter.
- As an illustration, suppose the hypothesized impact strength of a glass plate is
- Example U= 70 psi, and the mean impact strength of a sample of
- Sample Size n = 12 glass plates is mean = 69.5 psi.
- We must make a decision about the difference of (parameter- statistic (70 69 = 0.5 psi.
- Is it a true difference, that is, a significant difference (70 69 = 0.5),
- Different is true or due to chance (sampling)
- To answer this question, we conduct a test of significance, commonly referred to as
 - Test of hypothesis.
- NULL HYPOTHESISA : statement about the value of a population parameter developed for the purpose of testing numerical evidence.
- The alternate hypothesis describes what you will conclude if you reject the null hypothesis.
- It is written H1 and is read "H sub one." It is also referred to as the research hypothesis.
- The alternate hypothesis is accepted if the sample data provide us with enough statistical evidence that the null hypothesis is false.
- ALTERNATE HYPOTHESISA statement that is accepted if the sample data provide sufficient evidence that the null hypothesis is false.
- The following example will help clarify what is meant by the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.
- A recent article indicated the mean age of U.S. commercial aircraft is 15 years.

- The following example will help clarify what is meant by the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.
- A recent article indicated the mean age of U.S. commercial aircraft is U = 15 years.

```
    H0: μ =15.
    H1: μ ≠15.
```

- The equal sign (=) will never appear in the alternate hypothesis. Why? Because the null hypothesis is the statement being tested, and we need a specific value to include in our calculations.
- We turn to the alternate hypothesis only if the data suggests the null hypothesis is untrue.

When trying to formulate a statistical hypothesis, I want you to ask yourself the following question:

"Am I testing an assumption, or the status quo, that already exists? (water bottle). Or am I testing a claim or assertion beyond what I already know or can know?" (hybrid engine).

If we wanted to test the gas mileage listed on a current car sticker, we would be testing an assumption not a claim.





- Formulating hypotheses can be very frustrating; a real P.I.T.A. to be honest.
 - The reason is that the null and alternative are two opposing roads that lead to the same place.
- By definition, the null and alternative hypotheses are opposites; mutually exclusive.
 - The null is either rejected or it is not. Only if the null is rejected can we proceed to the alternative
- Researchers can start with either the null or the alternative, and then form the other as a complement to the first.
- Which to start with largely depends on the point of view of the researcher, the context of the problem, and what can or cannot be assumed to be known upfront.

| H ₀ | | H _a | | |
|---|---|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| Assumption, status quo, nothing r | new Rejectio | on of an assumption | | |
| Assumed to be "true"; a given. | Rejectio | on of an assumption or the given. | | |
| Negation of the research question | Researc | ch question to be "proven" | | |
| Always contains an equality $(=, \leq$ | ains an equality $(=, \le, \ge)$ Does not contain equality $(\neq, <, >)$ | | | |
| Using the last property, we can lo | gically derive the | possible null/alternative pairs: | | |
| $H_0 =$ | $H_0 \leq$ | $H_0 \ge$ | | |
| $H_a \neq$ | $H_a >$ | $H_a <$ | | |
| ALWAYS in opposition | to each other; ca | nnot both be true. | | |
| | | | | |
| All statistical conclusions are made in reference to the null hypothesis. As researchers we either reject the null hypothesis or fail to | | | | |
| reject the null hypothesis; | , we do not ac | cept the null. | | |
| This is due to the fact that the null hypothesis is assumed to be true from the start; rejecting or failing to reject an assumption. | | | | |
| If we reject the null hypothesis, then we conclude the data supports the alternative hypothesis | | | | |
| However if we fail to reject the null hypothesis, it does not mean we have proven the null hypothesis is "true" | | | | |
| Why? Because remember from the outset we ASSUMED it was true | | | | |
| Failure to reject the null does not equate to "proof" about its truth | | | | |

A bottled water manufacturer's most popular product is a 12 fluid ounce bottle. For this problem, and due to its inherent superiority ©, we will use the metric system instead; so 355ml. Since this info is on the label, we assume it to be true.



12 fluid ounces \cong 355ml

But is it?

Is there anything we can assume to be true?

Yes. The 355 ml on the bottle is assumed to be true.

Which hypothesis pair seems to be appropriate?

 $\begin{array}{l} H_0 = \\ H_a \neq \end{array}$

 $H_0 = 355ml$ $H_a \neq 355ml$

If the data indicates the bottles are not being filled properly, then we reject the null; reject our assumption.

Our assumption has not held up under analysis. We have statistical support for the validity of the alternative hypothesis.

Different between Assumption in above example and Claim in

next Example

An auto manufacturer has developed a new hybrid engine technology it claims reduces fuel consumption while driving in the city. The claim is that the new technology improves fuel efficiency making it better than the old engine that produces 30 mpg. The company will run controlled tests to look for statistical evidence to support the claim that the new engine offers better efficiency than the old model.



Company Claim:H0: Fuel Efficiency ≤PFuel Efficiency > 30 mpg

The manufacturer is making a claim it wishes to test; it is NOT testing an assumption (status quo) that already exists.

Notice: Assumption vs. Claim



According to the United States Department of Agriculture, in 2006 the average farm size in the state of Texas was 2.3km^2 . Since the decades-long trend as been for farm sizes to increase due to large agribusiness, a business analyst wishes to test if current (2013) farm size is larger than it was in 2006. Establish a null and alternative hypothesis.

What is our assumption?

We assume that there has been no change in farm size since 2006. This is our null hypothesis.

What is our assumption?

We assume that there has been no change in farm size since 2006. This is our null hypothesis.

Are we testing a preliminary claim?

Yes. We wish to see of the farm size has INCREASED since 2006.

Which hypothesis format should we choose?

$$H_0 = H_a \neq$$



 $H_0 \geq$ $H_a <$



During the 2010-2011 English Premier League season, Manchester United home matches had an average attendance of 74,961. A club marketing analyst would like to see if attendance decreased during the most recent season. Establish a null and alternative hypothesis for this analysis.

What is our assumption?

We can only assume that the attendance remained the same.

What is our assumption?

We can only assume that the attendance remained the same at 74,961.

Are we testing a preliminary claim?

The marketing analyst wishes to see if attendance has **DECREASED** since 2010-2011.

Which hypothesis format should we choose?

 $\begin{array}{ll} H_0 = & H_0 \leq \\ H_a \neq & H_a > \end{array}$

 $H_0 \ge H_a <$

 $H_0 \geq$ $H_a <$

 $H_0 \ge 74,961$ $H_a < 74,961$

A. It starts with Null Hypothesis, H₀

Represented by H₀

- We begin with the assumption that H₀ is true and any difference between the sample statistic and true population parameter is due to chance and not a real (systematic) difference.
- 2. Similar to the notion of "innocent until proven guilty"
- 3. That is, "innocence" is a null hypothesis.
- 4. Refers to the status quo, nothing new or different.
- 5. Always contains "=", "≤" or "≥" sign
- 6. May or may not be rejected
- 7. Reject H_0 or fail to reject H_0

B. Next we state the Alternative Hypothesis, H₁

Represented by H_a or H_A or H_1

- 1. Is the opposite of the null hypothesis
 - 1. e.g., The average number of TV sets in U.S. homes is not equal to 3 (H_1 : $\mu \neq 3$)
- 2. Challenges the status quo
 - Never contains the "=", "≤" or "≥" sign but contains "≠", "<" or ">
- 4. May or may not be proven
- 5. Is generally the hypothesis that the researcher is trying to prove. Evidence is always examined with respect to H_1 , never with respect to H_0 .
- 5- Must be true if H0 is false
- 6- 'opposite' of Null



| : i <u>o</u> île : | |
|--|--|
| لا توجد علاقة ذات دلالة إحصائية بين درجات الطلاب في مقرري الإحصاء وطرق البحث . | |
| لاتوجد علاقة ذات دلالة إحصائية بين القلق والتحصيل . | |
| لا توجد فروق ذات دلاله إحصائية في الشعور بالوحدة النفسية بين الطلاب والطالبات . | |
| لا توجد فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في التحصيل في المرحلة الابتدائية بين البنين والبنات . | |
| والفرض الصفري مبني على معلومات أولية يعتمد ألها حقائق يمكن أن تكون صحيحة أو | |
| غير صحيحة ، ولاختبار صحة الفرض الصفري نقارن ما هو مفترض بالواقع الملموس أو بمعنى | |
| آخر نقارن ما هو مفترض بالحقائق التي نحصل عليها من تجربة أو بحث حقيقي ، فإذا اتفقت | |
| نتائج التجربة مع الفرض الصفري يعتبر صحيحاً ويُقبل ، أما إذا لم يتفقا يرفض الفرض | |
| الصفري ويعتبر غير صحيح . | |

يلجأ الباحث إلى استخدام الفرض الصفري في الحالات التالية: ١- عدم دراسة هذا الموضوع سابقاً.
٢- الدراسات السابقة تشير - أغلبها - إلى عدم وجود فروق.
٣- يوجد تناقض بين نتائج الدراسات السابقة حيث أن بعضها يشير إلى وجود فروق مثلاً أو علاقة في حين أن البعض الآخر من الدراسات السابقة يشير إلى عدم وجود فروق أو علاقة. نفترض أن باحثاً ادعى أن متوسط أعمار طلاب الجامعة لا يختلف عن متوسط أعمار الطالبات.

للإجابة على النشاط السابق، لنفترض أن متوسط عمر الطالب في العينة كان ٢٤ عاماً، ومتوسط عمر الطالبة في العينة ٢٢ عاماً.
فهل معنى هذا أن متوسط عمر الطالب في الجامعة أكبر من متوسط عمر الطالبة؟
أم أن هذا الفرق راجع إلى مجرد الصدفة؟

إن ادعاء الباحث بأن متوسط أعمار طلاب الجامعات لا يختلف عن متوسط أعمار الطالبات يسمى <mark>فرضاً إحصائياً</mark>

والطريقة التي بواسطتها نستطيع الحكم بالقبول أو الرفض على صحة الفرض الإحصائي تسمى <mark>اختبار</mark> <mark>إحصائي</mark>

ومقدار ثقتنا في القرار المتخذ بالرفض أو القبول يسمى درجة الثقة

كما أن مقدار عدم الثقة في القرار المتخذ يسمى <mark>مستوى الدلالة</mark> (المعنوية)

Statistical hypothesis

Statistical Tests

Degree of confidence

Level of Significance

| ة يمكنا تحديد المفا | من الخطوات السابقة |
|---|--|
| H | صياغة الفرض الإحصائي |
| α | مستوى الدلالة (المعنوية) |
| $1-\alpha$ | معامل الثقة (درجة الثقة) |
| $\rho = 1 - \beta$ | قوة الاختبار |
| $\begin{array}{c} 93 H_{\bullet}:\theta - \theta_{\bullet} \\ 94 H_{i}: \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \theta > \theta_{\bullet} \\ \theta < \theta_{\bullet} \\ \theta = \theta \end{array} \right\} $ | 2 اختبار الفرض الإحصائي |
| | ن يمكنا تحديد المفا H α $l - \alpha$ $\rho = 1 - \beta$ $H_{i}:\theta = \theta_{i}$ $H_{i}:\theta = \theta_{i}$ |

(تذكر أننا في اختبارات الفروض نستخدم «معالم المجتمع» سواء في فرض العدم أوالفرض البديل ولا نستخدم «إحصاءات العينة»).

Step 2: Select a Level of Significance

- LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE The probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true.
- The level of significance is designated α, the Greek letter alpha. It is also sometimes called the level of risk.
 يعرف بأنه: "الحد الأقصى لاحتمال وقوع الباحث في خطأ من النوع الأول"
- This may be a more appropriate term because it is the risk you take of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is really true.
- There is no one level of significance that is applied to all tests.
- A decision is made to use the 0.05 level (often stated as the 5 percent level), the 0.01 level, the 0.10 level, or any other level between 0 and 1.
- Traditionally, the 0.05 level is selected for most research projects, 0.01 for quality assurance, and 0.10 for political polling.
- You, the researcher, must decide on the level of significance before formulating a decision rule and collecting sample data.
- Example: To illustrate how it is possible to reject a true hypothesis, suppose a firm manufacturing personal computers uses a large number of printed circuit boards.
- Suppliers bid on the boards, and the one with the lowest bid is awarded a sizable contract.
- Suppose the contract specifies that the computer manufacturer's quality-assurance department will sample all incoming shipments of circuit boards.
- If more than 6 percent of the boards sampled are substandard, the shipment will be rejected.
- The null hypothesis is that the incoming shipment of boards contains 6 percent or less substandard boards.
- The alternate hypothesis is that more than 6 percent of the boards are defective.
- A sample of 50 circuit boards received July 21 from Allied Electronics revealed that 4 boards, or (4/50)*100=8 percent, were substandard.
- The shipment was rejected because it exceeded the maximum of 6 percent substandard printed circuit boards.
- If the shipment was actually substandard, then the decision to return the boards to the supplier was correct.

- However, suppose the 4 substandard printed circuit boards selected in the sample of 50 were the only substandard boards in the shipment of 4,000 boards.
- Then only1/10 of 1 percent were defective (4/4,000 = .001).
- In that case, less than 6 percent of the entire shipment was substandard and rejecting the shipment was an error.
- In terms of hypothesis testing, we rejected the null hypothesis that the shipment was not substandard when we should have accepted the null hypothesis.
- By rejecting a true null hypothesis, we committed a Type I error. The probability of committing a
- Type I error is α alpha.
- **TYPE I ERROR** Rejecting the null hypothesis, H0, when it is true.
- The probability of committing another type of error, called a Type II error, is designated by the Greek letter beta (β).
- **TYPE II ERROR** Accepting the null hypothesis when it is false.
- The firm manufacturing personal computers would commit a Type II error if, unknown to the manufacturer, an incoming shipment of printed circuit boards from Allied Electronics contained 15 percent substandard boards, yet the shipment was accepted. How could this happen? Suppose 2 of the 50 boards in the sample ((2/50)*100 = 4 percent) tested were substandard, and 48 of the 50 were good boards.
- According to the stated procedure, because the sample contained less than 6 percent substandard boards, the shipment was accepted. It could be that by chance the 48 good boards selected in the sample were the only acceptab of thousands of boards!

| | Researcher | | |
|-------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|--|
| Null Hypothesis | Does Not Reject <i>H</i> ₀ | Rejects <i>H</i> ₀ | |
| H ₀ is true | Correct decision | Type I error | |
| H_0 is false | Type II error | Correct decision | |



- عند اختبار الفرض الصفري ضد الفرض البديل يجد الباحث نفسه أمام أربعة قرارات لابد أن يختار واحداً منها:

| E | الاسم | الرمز | حكم القرار | الحالة | م |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|------------|----------------------------------|---|
| Degree of Confidence | معامل الثقة | $l - \alpha$ | قرار صحيح | قبول الفرض عندما كان يجب أن يقبل | ١ |
| Type <mark>ll</mark> error | خطا من النوع الثاني | β | قرار خاطيء | قبول الفرض عندما كان يجب أن يرفض | ۲ |
| Power of the test | قوة الاختبار | $1 - \beta$ | قرار صحيح | رفض الفرض عندما كان يجب أن يرفض | ٣ |
| Type I error | مستوى الدلالة خطأ من النوع الأول | α | قرار خاطيء | رفض الفرض عندما كان يجب أن يقبل | ٤ |

والجدول التالي يوضح أنواع القرارت والأخطاء المختلفة

قوة الاختبار : Power of the test

| \mathbf{H}_{o} | \mathbf{H}_{o} | ں العدم | فرض | |
|---------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------|--|
| خطأ | صحيح | | القرار | |
| خطأ من النوع الثاني | قرار صحيح | п | قدما | |
| β | $1-\alpha$ | п ₀ | قبون | |
| قرار صحيح | خطأ من النوع الأول | п | | |
| $1-\beta$ | α | m ₀ | رىص | |

هو احتمال رفض الفرض الصفري عندما يكون خاطئاً
- أو بمعنى آخر: هو احتمال رفض الفرض الصفري عندما يجب أن يرفض
$$ho = 1 - eta$$

- ويرمز لقوة الاختبار بالرمز P



eta - يتضح مما سبق أن هناك علاقة عكسية بين lpha و

- فكلما زادت قيمة lpha (رفض الفرض وهو صحيح) كلما نقصت قيمة eta (قبول الفرض وهو خاطاً)

- ويتضح ذلك في الشكل التالي :



العلاقة بين حجم العينة n وخطأ من النوع الأول α وخطأ من النوع الثاني β : طبق ذلك على مثال الكمبيوتر الخلاصة:

السابق

- eta علما زاد حجم العينة n علما انخفضت قيمة lpha وازدادت قيمة علما زاد حجم العينة n
- أي أنه بزيادة حجم العينة تنخفض فرصة الوقوع في خطأ من النوع الأول وتزداد فرصة الوقوع
 في خطأ من النوع الثاني.
 - وبالتالي من الصعب بل من المستحيل أن نقلل قيمة lpha وقيمة eta في آن واحد. \cdot
- لذلك لجا الإحصائيون إلى تثبيت مستوى الدلالة (المعنوية) α عند قيمة محددة (يتوقف ذلك على طبيعة البحث) ثم اختيار الاختبار الإحصائي الذي يجعل β أصغر ما يمكن.

 $\alpha = 0.05$ ، $\alpha = 0.01$ من قيم α الشائعة الإستعمال α

فإذا استخدمنا مستوى معنوية 0.05 = α مثلًا فهذا يعني أن احتمال الوقوع في خطأ من النوع الأول أي احتمال رفض H_o وهو صحيح هو 0.05 وهذا يعني أنه في المتوسط من بين كل 100 حالة يكون في 95 منها قرارنا سليم وفي الخمس الباقية قرارنا خطأ.

مستوى الدلالة وقوة الاختبار الإحصائي. على الباحث أن يراعي عند اختياره لمستوى دلالة معين، طبيعة الدراسة، وفيم تستخدم نتائجها. فإذا كانت الدراسة من النوع الذي يؤدي فيه رفض الفرض الصفري إلى مخاطر، أو إنفاق أموال، أو هدر للوقت والجهد، فإنه يتبغي الحذر من هذا النوع من الخطأ بأن يُضحي الباحث إلى حد ما بقوة الاختبار من أجل تقليل هذا الخطأ، كأن يجعل α. 100 = α أو ربما 0.001. أما إذا كانت الدراسة استطلاعية أو كشفية يحاول فيها الباحث التحقق مما إذا كانت هناك حاجة إلى مزيد من الدراسات حول الظاهرة أو المشكلة، فإن قوة الاختبار في هذه الحالة تُعد أمرًا مهمًا، بينما يكون الخطأ من النوع الأول أقل أهمية، وهنا ربما يحاول الباحث زيادة قوة الاختبار، على الرغم من أن ذلك يؤدي إلى زيادة من النوع من الدراسات حول الظاهرة أو المشكلة، فإن قوة الاختبار، على الرغم من أن ذلك يؤدي إلى زيادة الخطأ من النوع الأول أقل أهمية، وهنا ربما يحاول الباحث زيادة قوة الاختبار، على الرغم من أن ذلك يؤدي إلى زيادة الخطأ من النوع

المرجع

صلاح الدين علام (2005). الأساليب الإحصائية الاستدلالية البارامترية واللابارامترية. ص117.

Example of Bottle



Is there anything we can assume to be true?

Yes. The 355 ml on the bottle is assumed to be true.

| $H_0: \mu = 355ml$ | | $H_a: \mu \neq 355ml$ | | |
|--------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|--|
| | | Actual Condition | | |
| | | $\mu = 355ml$ | $\mu \neq 355ml$ | |
| | Do not reject H ₀ | Correct | Type II Error | |
| Conclusion | Reject H ₀ | Type I Error | Correct | |
| | | | | |



- We may, by random chance alone, select a sample that is not representative of the population.
 - We may selected a sample of under-filled or overfilled water bottles
 - We may select a sample of very small or very large farms
 - The sample is in the far out tails of the sampling distribution
- Our sampling techniques may be flawed
- The assumptions in our null hypothesis may be flawed
 - Maybe the USDA data is incorrect?
- But the most common cause is chance and chance alone.

Flattening the COVID-19 Case Curve



The actual mean VS the hypothesized mean.

$$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

 μ is the **actual** mean of the population under analysis

 μ_0 is the **hypothesized** mean of the population under analysis

"Does the actual mean align with the hypothesized mean?" We will test that question using sample means and confidence intervals.





The Two-tailed Test Rejection Region



Statistics 101. Visualizing Type Land Type II Free

<u>What we are really</u>

Did our **samples** ome from the same population we assume is underlying the null hypothesis?

If so, then we expect our sample mean to be inside the critical region 90%/95%/99% of the time depending on what we choose for α .

As α decreases so does the chance of Type I error. The critical value to reject the null hypothesis moves outward thus "capturing" more sample means. Kind of like moving the goal posts on a football pitch; the wider they are, more kicks go in.





Step 3: Select the Test Statistic

- There are many test statistics. In this chapter, we use both z and t as the test statistic. In later, we will use such test statistics as F and chisquare.
- **TEST STATISTIC** A value, determined from sample information, used to determine whether to reject the null hypothesis.

TESTING A MEAN, σ KNOWN

$$z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$$

The *z* value is based on the sampling distribution of *X*, which follows the normal distribution with a mean ($\mu_{\overline{x}}$) equal to μ , and a standard deviation $\sigma_{\overline{x}}$, which is equal to σ/\sqrt{n} . We can thus determine whether the difference between \overline{X} and μ is statistically significant by finding the number of standard deviations \overline{X} is from μ , using formula (10–1).


لإجراء الاختبار الإحصائي فإننا نتبع الخطوات الآتية:

١- نفرض أن لدينا مجتمعاً (أو مجتمعين) يتبع (أو يتبع كل منهما) توزيعاً احتمالياً معيناً وأن هذا التوزيع الاحتمالي يعتمد على بعض المعالم.

٢- نفرض أن المطلوب اختبار فرض العدم H_o حول أحد هذه المعالم أو دالة في هذه المعلمة وليكن فرض

 $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$

 $H_1: \{\theta < \theta_0\}$

 $\left(\theta > \theta_{0}\right)$

 $\theta \neq \theta_0$

العدم :

والفرض البديل هو أحد الحالات التالية :

حيث heta: هي معلمة المجتمع و $heta_0$: هي قيمة عددية محددة heta

٣- نبحث عن إحصاء (وليكن W) وهو يحتوي على مقدِّر للمعلمة heta التي يدور حولها فرض العدم (كما نعلم فإن الإحصاء عبارة عن متغير عشوائي له توزيع احتمالي يعتمد على التوزيع الاحتمالي لمقدر المعلمة heta).

٤- باعتبار أن فرض العدم صحيح نبحث عن التوزيع الاحتمالي للإحصاء W.

٥- بناء على مستوى المعنوية α وعلى الفرض البديل H, يمكن تقسيم محور (قيم) الإحصاء إلى rejection منطقتين إحداهما تسمى منطقة القبول acceptance region والأخرى تسمى منطقة الرفض negiction ديث إن المساحة أسفل منحنى توزيع الإحصاء وأعلى منطقة الرفض هي مستوى المعنوية α.

٦- نختار عينة عشوائية من المجتمع (أو من كل من المجتمعين) ومنها نحسب القيمة المشاهدة للإحصاء (باعتبار أن فرض العدم صحيح) ولتكن W.

- ونحاول رصد هذه القيمة على المحور الأفقي الذي يمثل قيم الإحصاء - وسنجد أن هذه القيمة تقع إما في منطقة الرفض أو في منطقة القبول.

Figure 7.18 Flowchart for appropriate methods of statistical inference







| سب بيانات بحثك | مائي الذى يناء | ر الأسلوب الإحص | دليل اختيا |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|
| الاختبار الإحصائي | نوع البيانات | الفرض | عدد العينات |
| ذي الحدين – كا` –سمير نوف | اسمية | التحقق من جودة | عينة واحدة (مجموعة واحدة ذات |
| سمير نوف - الإشارة | رتيبة | المطابقة | الاختبار الواحد) |
| اختیار Z – اختیار ت | فترية | | |
| کا' – فشر – سمیر نوف | اسمية | الفروق بين | عينتان مستقلتان (مجموعتان |
| الوسيط – مان وينتى - النتابع | رتيبة | المجموعات | تجريبية – ضابطة) |
| اختيار ت | فترية | | |
| ماکنمار | اسمية | الفروق بين | عينتان متر ابطتان (مجموعة |
| ولكوكسن - الإشارة | رتيية | القياسات | واحدة ذات اختبارين قبلي وبعدي) |
| اختبار ت | فترية | | |
| کا' | اسمية | الفروق بين | عدة عينات مستقلة (المجمو عات |
| الوسيط كروسكال ولاس | رتيبة | المجموعات | المتعددة) |
| تحليل التباين – تحليل التغاير | فترية | | |
| كوجران | اسمية | الفروق بين | عدة عيذات متر ابطة (مجموعة |
| فريدمان | رتيية | القياسات | واحدة ذات الاختبارات المتعددة) |
| تحليل التياين ذي القباسات المتكر رة | فتر بة | | |
| معامل ارتباط فاي- معامل التوافق - | اسمية | الارتباط بين | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| معامل الافتران الرباعي | | القياسات أو | عينات (مجموعة واحدة ذات |
| معامل ارتباط سيپر مان- معامل | رتيية | العلاقة بين | اختبار قبلي أو بعدي أو عدة |
| ارتباط كندال | | المتخيرات | اختبار ات) |
| معامل ارتباط بير سون – الارتباط | فترية | "دراسات | |
| القانوني – الارتباط المتعدد | | ارتباطية" | |
| تحليل الانحدار بأنواعه المختلفة- | فترية | "در اسات تتبؤية | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| السلاسل الزمنية |] | " للمتخبر ات أو | عينات (مجموعة واحدة أو عدة |
| التحليل التمييزي بأتواعه المختلفة | | عضوية الجماعة | مجموعات مع عدة اختبار ات) |
| التحليل العاملي الإستكشافي – | فترية | " در اسات | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| التحليل العاملي التوكيدي | | عاملية" | عينات(مجموعة واحدة أو عدة |
| | | البناء العاملى | مجموعة مع عدة اختبارات) |

• **Step 4:** Formulate the Decision Rule

- A decision rule is a statement of the specific conditions under which the null hypothesis is rejected and the conditions under which it is not rejected. The region or area of rejection defines the location of all those values that are so large or so small that the probability of their occurrence under a true null hypothesis is rather remote.
- Chart shows portrays the rejection region for a test of significance that will be conducted later .
- Note in the chart that:
- The area where the null hypothesis is not rejected is to the left of 1.65. We will explain how to get the 1.65 value shortly.
- The area of rejection is to the right of 1.65.
- A one-tailed test is being applied. (will explained later.)
- The 0.05 level of significance was chosen.
- The sampling distribution of the statistic z follows the normal probability distribution.
- The value 1.65 separates the regions where the null hypothesis is rejected and where it is not rejected.
- The value 1.65 is the critical value.

Sampling Distribution of the Statistic z, a Right-Tailed Test, .05 Level of Significance



CRITICAL VALUE The dividing point between the region where the null hypothesis is rejected and the region where it is not rejected.

| (One - tailed test | اختبار احادي الطرف | اختبار ثنائى الطرف | Ezzy |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| يساري(Left - tailed test) | يميني(Right - tailed test) | Two - tailed test)(| |
| ≤ او = | <u>ڪ</u> او = | = | اشارة فرض العدم H ₀ |
| > (اصغر من) | < (اکبر من) | ¥ | اشارة الفرض البديل H _a |
| في الذيل الايسر | في الذيل الايمن | في الجانبين | |
| | | | منطقة الرفض |
| H _a : μ<μ ₀ | H _a : μ>μ ₀ | H _a : μ≠μ₀ | مثال على الفرض |



 $\mathbf{H}_{1}: \boldsymbol{\theta} < \boldsymbol{\theta}_{0}$ - الحالة الثانية : إذا كانت

 $P(W < w_0) = \alpha$: نحدد القيمة الحرجة critical value وهي W_0 بحيث يكون

- وتكون قيم الإحصاء W المحسوبة من العينة والتي لا تؤيد فرض العدم أقل من Wo



lpha العلاقة بين الفرض البديل H_{0} ومستوى الدلالة الإحصائية

 $\mathbf{H}_{I}: \boldsymbol{\theta} \neq \boldsymbol{\theta}_{0}$ - الحالة الثالثة : إذا كانت

 $P(W < w_1) = P(W > w_2) = \frac{\alpha}{2}$ تتحدد القيمة الحرجة critical value وهي w_1, w_2 من العلاقتين التاليتين : $2\frac{\alpha}{2}$ - وتكون منطقة الرفض موزعة بالتساوي على جانبي المنحنى ومساحة كل جزء منها تساوي $\frac{\alpha}{2}$

وقيم W التي لا تؤيد فرض العدم أصغر من W وأكبر من 2w



Step 5: Make a Decision

- The fifth and final step in hypothesis testing is computing the test statistic, comparing it to the critical value, and making a decision to reject or not to reject the null hypothesis.
- Above Chart, if, based on sample information, z is computed to be 2.34, the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.05 level of significance
- The decision to reject H0 was made because 2.34 lies in the region of rejection, that is, beyond 1.65.
- We would reject the null hypothesis, reasoning that it is highly improbable that a computed z value this large is due to sampling error (chance).



- Had the computed value been 1.65 or less, say 0.71, the null hypothesis would not be rejected.
- It would be reasoned that such a small computed value could be attributed to chance, that is, sampling error.
- As noted, only one of two decisions is possible in hypothesis testing—either accept or reject the null hypothesis. Instead of "accepting" the null hypothesis, H0, some researchers prefer to phrase the decision as: "Do not reject H0," "We fail to reject H0," or "The sample results do not allow us to reject H0."
- It should be reemphasized that there is always a possibility that the null hypothesis is rejected when it should not be rejected (a Type I error). Also, there is a definable

chance that the null hypothesis is accepted when it should be rejected (a Type II error).





| z | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0.09 |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 0.0 | 0.0000 | 0.0040 | 0.0080 | 0.0120 | 0.0160 | 0.0199 | 0.0239 | 0.0279 | 0.0319 | 0.0359 |
| 0.1 | 0.0398 | 0.0438 | 0.0478 | 0.0517 | 0.0557 | 0.0596 | 0.0636 | 0.0675 | 0.0714 | 0.0753 |
| 0.2 | 0.0793 | 0.0832 | 0.0871 | 0.0910 | 0.0948 | 0.0987 | 0.1026 | 0.1064 | 0.1103 | 0.1141 |
| 0.3 | 0.1179 | 0.1217 | 0.1255 | 0.1293 | 0.1331 | 0.1368 | 0.1406 | 0.1443 | 0.1480 | 0.1517 |
| 0.4 | 0.1554 | 0.1591 | 0.1628 | 0.1664 | 0.1700 | 0.1736 | 0.1772 | 0.1808 | 0.1844 | 0.1879 |
| 0.5 | 0.1915 | 0.1950 | 0.1985 | 0.2019 | 0.2054 | 0.2088 | 0.2123 | 0.2157 | 0.2190 | 0.2224 |
| 0.6 | 0.2257 | 0.2291 | 0.2324 | 0.2357 | 0.2389 | 0.2422 | 0.2454 | 0.2486 | 0.2517 | 0.2549 |
| 0.7 | 0.2580 | 0.2611 | 0.2642 | 0.2673 | 0.2704 | 0.2734 | 0.2764 | 0.2794 | 0.2823 | 0.2852 |
| 0.8 | 0.2881 | 0.2910 | 0.2939 | 0.2967 | 0.2995 | 0.3023 | 0.3051 | 0.3078 | 0.3106 | 0.3133 |
| 0.9 | 0.3159 | 0.3186 | 0.3212 | 0.3238 | 0.3264 | 0.3289 | 0.3315 | 0.3340 | 0.3365 | 0.3389 |
| 1.0 | 0.3413 | 0.3438 | 0.3461 | 0.3485 | 0.3508 | 0.3531 | 0.3554 | 0.3577 | 0.3599 | 0.3621 |
| 1.1 | 0.3643 | 0.3665 | 0.3686 | 0.3708 | 0.3729 | 0.3749 | 0.3770 | 0.3790 | 0.3810 | 0.3830 |
| 1.2 | 0.3849 | 0.3869 | 0.3888 | 0.3907 | 0.3925 | 0.3944 | 0.3962 | 0.3980 | 0.3997 | 0.4015 |
| 1.3 | 0.4032 | 0.4049 | 0.4066 | 0.4082 | 0.4099 | 0.4115 | 0.4131 | 0.4147 | 0.4162 | 0.4177 |
| 1.4 | 0.4192 | 0.4207 | 0.4222 | 0.4236 | 0.4251 | 0.4265 | 0.4279 | 0.4292 | 0.4306 | 0.4319 |
| 1.5 | 0.4332 | 0.4345 | 0.4357 | 0.4370 | 0.4382 | 0.4394 | 0.4406 | 0.4418 | 0.4429 | 0.4441 |
| 1.6 | 0.4452 | 0.4463 | 0.4474 | 0.4484 | 0.4495 | 0.4505 | 0.4515 | 0.4525 | 0.4535 | 0.4545 |
| 1.7 | 0.4554 | 0.4564 | 0.4573 | 0.4582 | 0.4591 | 0.4599 | 0.4608 | 0.4616 | 0.4625 | 0.4633 |
| 1.8 | 0.4641 | 0.4649 | 0.4656 | 0.4664 | 0.4671 | 0.4678 | 0.4686 | 0.4693 | 0.4699 | 0.4706 |
| 1.9 | 0.4713 | 0.4719 | 0.4726 | 0.4732 | 0.4738 | 0.4744 | 0.4750 | 0.4756 | 0.4761 | 0.4767 |
| 2.0 | 0.4772 | 0.4778 | 0.4783 | 0.4788 | 0.4793 | 0.4798 | 0.4803 | 0.4808 | 0.4812 | 0.4817 |
| 2.1 | 0.4821 | 0.4826 | 0.4830 | 0.4834 | 0.4838 | 0.4842 | 0.4846 | 0.4850 | 0.4854 | 0.4857 |
| 2.2 | 0.4861 | 0.4864 | 0.4868 | 0.4871 | 0.4875 | 0.4878 | 0.4881 | 0.4884 | 0.4887 | 0.4890 |
| 2.3 | 0.4893 | 0.4896 | 0.4898 | 0.4901 | 0.4904 | 0.4906 | 0.4909 | 0.4911 | 0.4913 | 0.4916 |
| 2.4 | 0.4918 | 0.4920 | 0.4922 | 0.4925 | 0.4927 | 0.4929 | 0.4931 | 0.4932 | 0.4934 | 0.4936 |
| 2.5 | 0.4938 | 0.4940 | 0.4941 | 0.4943 | 0.4945 | 0.4946 | 0.4948 | 0.4949 | 0.4951 | 0.4952 |
| 2.6 | 0.4953 | 0.4955 | 0.4956 | 0.4957 | 0.4959 | 0.4960 | 0.4961 | 0.4962 | 0.4963 | 0.4964 |
| 2.7 | 0.4965 | 0.4966 | 0.4967 | 0.4968 | 0.4969 | 0.4970 | 0.4971 | 0.4972 | 0.4973 | 0.4974 |
| 2.8 | 0.4974 | 0.4975 | 0.4976 | 0.4977 | 0.4977 | 0.4978 | 0.4979 | 0.4979 | 0.4980 | 0.4981 |
| 2.9 | 0.4981 | 0.4982 | 0.4982 | 0.4983 | 0.4984 | 0.4984 | 0.4985 | 0.4985 | 0.4986 | 0.4986 |
| 3.0 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4988 | 0.4988 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4990 | 0.4990 |



١- فإننا نرفض فرض العدم H₀ عند مستوى الدلالة (معنوية) α ونقبل الفرض البديل.
 ٢- أما إذا وقعت القيمة المشاهدة للإحصاء في منطقة القبول فإننا نقبل فرض العدم H₀ ونرفض الفرض البديل.
 ١ الفرض البديل. H.







Figure 8-4 Procedure for Finding P-Values

Directional Tests

- When a research study predicts a specific direction for the treatment effect (increase or decrease), it is possible to incorporate the directional prediction into the hypothesis test.
- The result is called a directional test or a one-tailed test. A directional test includes the directional prediction in the statement of the hypotheses and in the location of the critical region.
- For example, if the original population has a mean of μ = 80 and the treatment is predicted to increase the scores, then the null hypothesis would state that after treatment:

H0: $\mu \leq 80$ (there is no increase)

 In this case, the entire critical region would be located in the right-hand tail of the distribution because large values for M would demonstrate that there is an increase and would tend to reject the null hypothesis.

Critical Region :

is the set of all values of the test statistic that would cause a rejection of the null hypothesis







Critical Value:

is the value (s) that separates the critical region from the values that would **not** lead to a rejection of H_0



Two-tailed, Left-tailed, Right-tailed Tests





When do we use a two-tail test? when do we use a one-tail test?

- The answer depends on the question you are trying to answer.
- A two-tail is used when the researcher has no idea which direction the study will go, interested in both direction. (example: testing a new technique, a new product, a new theory and we don't know the direction)
- A new machine is producing 12 fluid once can of soft drink.
- The quality control manager is concern with cans containing too much or too little. Then, the test is a two-tailed test.
- That is the two rejection regions in tails is most likely (higher probability) to provide evidence of H_{1.}



- **One-tail test** is used when the researcher is interested in the direction.
- Example: The soft-drink company puts a label on cans claiming they contain 12 oz. A consumer advocate desires to test this statement. She would assume that each can contains at least 12 oz and tries to find evidence to the contrary. That is, she examines the evidence for less than 12 0z.
- What tail of the distribution is the most logical (higher probability) to find that evidence? The only way to reject the claim is to get evidence of less than 12 oz, left tail.



Testing for a Population Mean: Known Population Standard Deviation : A Two-Tailed Test

Example: Jamestown Steel Company manufactures and assembles desks and other office equipment at several plants in western New York state. The weekly production of the Model A325 desk at the Fredonia Plant follows a normal probability distribution with a mean of 200 and a standard deviation of 16. Recently, because of market expansion, new production methods have been introduced and new employees hired. The vice president of manufacturing would like to investigate whether there has been a change in the weekly production of the Model A325 desk. Is the mean number of desks produced at the Fredonia Plant different from 200 at the 0.01 significance level?

- In this example, we know two important pieces of information:
- (1) the population of weekly production follows the normal distribution, and

(2) the standard deviation of this normal distribution is 16 desks per week. So it is appropriate to use the z statistic for this problem. We use the statistical hypothesis testing procedure to $H_0: \mu = 200$ investigate whether the production rate has changed from 200 per week. $H_1: \mu \neq 200$

Step 1: State the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.

This is a two-tailed test because the alternate hypothesis does not state

a direction. In other words, it does not state whether the mean production is greater than 200 or less than 200. The vice president wants only to find out whether the production rate is different from 200.

Step 2: Select the level of significance. As we indicated in the Problem, the significance level is <u>0.01. This is α , the probability of committing a Type I error, and it is the probability of rejecting a</u> true null hypothesis.

Step 3: Select the test statistic. The test statistic is z when the population standard deviation is known. Transforming the production data to standard units (z values) permits their use not only

in this problem but also in other Sample mean below with the various letters ident



Step 4: Formulate the decision rule. The decision rule is formulated by finding the critical values of z from Appendix B.1. Since this is a two-tailed test, half of 0.01, or (0.01/2) 0.005, is placed in each tail. The area where H0 is not rejected, located between the two tails, is therefore 0.99. Appendix B.1 is based on half of the area under the curve, or 0.5000.

Then, 0.5000 – 0.005 is 0.4950, so 0.4950 is the area between 0 and the critical value.

Locate 0.4950 in the body of the table.

The value nearest to 0.4950 is 0.4951.

Then read the critical value in the row and column corresponding to 0.4951.

It is 2.58. For your convenience, Appendix B.1,

Areas under the Normal Curve.

The decision rule is, therefore:

Reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis (which states

that the population mean is not 200)

if the computed value of z is not between

-2.58 and +2.58. Do not

reject the null hypothesis if z falls between -2.58 and +2.58.

Step 5: Make a decision and interpret the result. Take a sample from the population (weekly production), compute z, apply the decision rule, and arrive at a decision to reject H0 or not to reject H0

. The mean number of desks produced last year (50 weeks, because the plant was shut down

2 weeks for vacation) is 203.5. The standard deviation

of the population is 16 desks per week. Computing the z value from formula (10–1): Because 1.55 does not fall in the rejection region, H0 is not rejected. We conclude that the population mean is not different from 200. So we would report to the vice president of manufacturing that the sample evidence does not show that the production rate at the Fredonia Plant has changed from

200 per week. The difference of 3.5 units between the historical weekly production rate and that last year can reasonably be attributed to sampling error. This information is summarized in the following chart.

$$\frac{\alpha}{2} = \frac{.01}{2} = .005$$

$$\frac{\alpha}{2} = \frac{.01}{2} = .005$$

$$-2.58$$

$$\frac{.4950}{.4950}$$

$$-2.58$$

$$-2$$

$$z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{203.5 - 200}{16/\sqrt{50}} = 1.55$$

$$\overline{X} - \mu$$
 203.5



| z | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0.09 |
|-----|----------|--------|----------|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 0.0 | 0.0000 | 0.0040 | 0.0080 | 0.0120 | 0.0160 | 0.0199 | 0.0239 | 0.0279 | 0.0319 | 0.0359 |
| 0.1 | 0.0398 | 0.0438 | 0.0478 | 0.0517 | 0.0557 | 0.0596 | 0.0636 | 0.0675 | 0.0714 | 0.0753 |
| 0.2 | 0.0793 | 0.0832 | 0.0871 | 0.0910 | 0.0948 | 0.0987 | 0.1026 | 0.1064 | 0.1103 | 0.1141 |
| 0.3 | 0.1179 | 0.1217 | 0.1255 | 0.1293 | 0.1331 | 0.1368 | 0.1406 | 0.1443 | 0.1480 | 0.1517 |
| 0.4 | 0.1554 | 0.1591 | 0.1628 | 0.1664 | 0.1700 | 0.1736 | 0.1772 | 0.1808 | 0.1844 | 0.1879 |
| 0.5 | 0.1915 | 0.1950 | 0.1985 | 0.2019 | 0.2054 | 0.2088 | 0.2123 | 0.2157 | 0.2190 | 0.2224 |
| 0.6 | 0.2257 | 0.2291 | 0.2324 | 0.2357 | 0.2389 | 0.2422 | 0.2454 | 0.2486 | 0.2517 | 0.2549 |
| 0.7 | 0.2580 | 0.2611 | 0.2642 | 0.2673 | 0.2704 | 0.2734 | 0.2764 | 0.2794 | 0.2823 | 0.2852 |
| 0.8 | 0.2881 | 0.2910 | 0.2939 | 0.2967 | 0.2995 | 0.3023 | 0.3051 | 0.3078 | 0.3106 | 0.3133 |
| 0.9 | 0.3159 | 0.3186 | 0.3212 | 0.3238 | 0.3264 | 0.3289 | 0.3315 | 0.3340 | 0.3365 | 0.3389 |
| 1.0 | 0.3413 | 0.3438 | 0.3461 | 0.3485 | 0.3508 | 0.3531 | 0.3554 | 0.3577 | 0.3599 | 0.3621 |
| 1.1 | 0.3643 | 0.3665 | 0.3686 | 0.3708 | 0.3729 | 0.3749 | 0.3770 | 0.3790 | 0.3810 | 0.3830 |
| 1.2 | 0.3849 | 0.3869 | 0.3888 | 0.3907 | 0.3925 | 0.3944 | 0.3962 | 0.3980 | 0.3997 | 0.4015 |
| 1.3 | 0.4032 | 0.4049 | 0.4066 | 0.4082 | 0.4099 | 0.4115 | 0.4131 | 0.4147 | 0.4162 | 0.4177 |
| 1.4 | 0.4192 | 0.4207 | 0.4222 | 0.4236 | 0.4251 | 0.4265 | 0.4279 | 0.4292 | 0.4306 | 0.4319 |
| 1.5 | 0.4332 | 0.4345 | 0.4357 | 0.4370 | 0.4382 | 0.4394 | 0.4406 | 0.4418 | 0.4429 | 0.4441 |
| 1.6 | 0.4452 | 0.4463 | 0.4474 | 0.4484 | 0.4495 | 0.4505 | 0.4515 | 0.4525 | 0.4535 | 0.4545 |
| 1.7 | 0.4554 | 0.4564 | 0.4573 | 0.4582 | 0.4591 | 0.4599 | 0.4608 | 0.4616 | 0.4625 | 0.4633 |
| 1.8 | 0.4641 | 0.4649 | 0.4656 | 0.4664 | 0.4671 | 0.4678 | 0.4686 | 0.4693 | 0.4699 | 0.4706 |
| 1.9 | 0.4713 | 0.4719 | 0.4726 | 0.4732 | 0.4738 | 0.4744 | 0.4750 | 0.4756 | 0.4761 | 0.4767 |
| 2.0 | 0.4772 | 0.4778 | 0.4783 | 0.4788 | 0.4793 | 0.4798 | 0.4803 | 0.4808 | 0.4812 | 0.4817 |
| 2.1 | 0.4821 | 0.4826 | 0.4830 | 0.4834 | 0.4838 | 0.4842 | 0.4846 | 0.4850 | 0.4854 | 0.4857 |
| 2.2 | 0.4861 | 0.4864 | 0.4868 | 0.4871 | 0.4875 | 0.4878 | 0.4881 | 0.4884 | 0.4887 | 0.4890 |
| 2.3 | 0.4893 | 0.4896 | 0.4898 | 0.4901 | 0.4904 | 0.4906 | 0.4909 | 0.4911 | 0.4913 | 0.4916 |
| 2.4 | 0.4918 | 0.4920 | 0.4922 | 0.4925 | 0.4927 | 0.4929 | 0.4931 | 0.4932 | 0.4934 | 0.4936 |
| 25 | 11 49 38 | 0.4940 | 11 494 1 | 11 494 3 | 0.4945 | 0.4946 | 0.4948 | 0.4949 | 0.4951 | 0.4952 |
| 2.6 | 0.4953 | 0.4955 | 0.4956 | 0.4957 | 0.4959 | 0.4960 | 0.4961 | 0.4962 | 0.4963 | 0.4964 |
| 2.0 | 0.4965 | 0.4966 | 0.4967 | 0.4968 | 0.4969 | 0.4970 | 0.4971 | 0.4972 | 0.4973 | 0.4974 |
| 2.8 | 0.4974 | 0.4975 | 0.4976 | 0.4977 | 0.4977 | 0.4978 | 0.4979 | 0.4979 | 0.4980 | 0.4981 |
| 2.9 | 0.4981 | 0.4982 | 0.4982 | 0.4983 | 0.4984 | 0.4984 | 0.4985 | 0.4985 | 0.4986 | 0.4986 |
| 3.0 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4988 | 0.4988 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4990 | 0.4990 |

• Did we prove that the assembly rate is still 200 per week? Not really. What we did, technically, was fail to disprove the null hypothesis. Failing to disprove the hypothesis that the population mean is 200 is not the same thing as proving it to be true. As we suggested in the chapter introduction, the conclusion is analogous to the American judicial system.

• To explain, suppose a person is accused of a crime but is acquitted by a jury. If a person is acquitted of a crime, the conclusion is that there was not enough evidence to



prove the person guilty. The trial did not prove that the individual was innocent, only that there was not enough evidence to prove the defendant guilty. That is what we do in statistical hypothesis testing when we do not reject the null hypothesis. The correct interpretation is that we have failed to disprove the null hypothesis.

- We selected the significance level, 0.01 in this case, before setting up the decision rule and sampling the population. This is the appropriate strategy. The significance level should be set by the investigator, but it should be determined before gathering the sample evidence and not changed based on the sample evidence.
- How does the hypothesis testing procedure just described compare with that of confidence intervals discussed in the previous chapter? When we conducted the test of hypothesis regarding the production of desks, we changed the units from desks per week to a z value. Then we compared the computed value of the test statistic (1.55) to that of the critical values (-2.58 and 2.58). Because the computed value was in the region where the null hypothesis was not rejected, we concluded that the population mean could be 200. To use the confidence interval approach, on the other hand, we would develop a confidence interval, based. The interval would be from 197.66 to 209.34, found by

203.5 \pm 2.58(16/ $\sqrt{50}$). Note that the proposed population value, 200, is within this interval. Hence, we would conclude that the population mean could reasonably be 200.

- In general, H0 is rejected if the confidence interval does not include the hypothesized value.
- If the confidence interval includes the hypothesized value, then H0 is not rejected. So the "do not reject region" for a test of hypothesis is equivalent to the proposed population value occurring in the confidence interval. The primary difference between a confidence interval and the "do not reject" region for a hypothesis test is whether the interval is centered around the sample statistic, such as , as in the confidence interval, or around 0, as in the test of hypothesis.

• **اتخاذ قرار المعنوية من حدود الثقة بطريقتين**
$$\overline{X} \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

How does the hypothesis testing procedure just described compare with that of confidence intervals discussed in the previous chapter? When we conducted the test of hypothesis regarding the production of desks, we changed the units from desks per week to a z value. Then we compared the computed value of the test statistic (1.55) to that of the critical values (-2.58 and 2.58). Because the computed value was in the region where the null hypothesis was not rejected, we concluded that the population mean could be 200. To use the confidence interval approach, on the other hand, we would develop a confidence interval, based. The interval would be from 197.66 to 209.34, found by

Note that the proposed population value, 200, is within this interval. Hence, we would conclude that the population mean could reasonably be 200.

In general, Ho is rejected if the confidence interval does not include the hypothesized value.
 SPSS - Z* CL

| DIII $\pm Z^{*}$ SE |
|--------------------------------------|
| Diff $\pm 2.58(16/\sqrt{50})$ |
| $(203.5 - 200) \pm 2.58*2.26$ |

 $H_0: \mu = 200$ $H_1: \mu \neq 200$

| OR | μ | -200 | = | zero |
|----|---|------|---|------|
| | μ | -200 | ¥ | zero |

وبناءا على هذا يمكن اخذ القرار من حدود الثقة المذكورة فى الجدول السابق والتى تمثل حدود الثقة للفرق بين متوسط المجتمع الحقيقى ومتوسط العينة المقدرة 9.33 ≤2.32- ≤ x - μ فاذا كان الصفر يقع داخل هذة الحدود فاننا نقبل النظرية الفرضية واذا لم يقع فاننا نرفض النظرية الفرضية وحيث ان الصفر يقع لذا تم قبول النظرية الفرضية اى قبول الفرض العدمى وهى نفس النتيجة التى تحصلنا عليها من حدود الثقة العادية

| Α | One-Tailed | | A two-t | ailed test: | | A one-ta | iled test: |
|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Т | st | | <i>H</i> ₀ : μ | = 200 | | <i>H</i> ₀:μ: | ≤ 200 |
| | | | <i>H</i> ₁ : μ | <i>≠</i> 200 | | <i>Η</i> ₁ : μ Ͻ | > 200 |
| | Two-tailed test $H_0: \mu = 200$ $H_1: \mu \neq 200$ | One - H ₀ H ₁ | tailed test $\mu \le 200$ $\mu > 200$ | | For t the c 2.33, (1) | the one-tail critical valu , found by: subtracting | ed test, le is g 0.01 |
| | .005 Region of H ₀ is not .005 Region of rejected rejection .99 | | H ₀ is not rejected 99 | .01 Region of rejection | (2) | from 0.5000 (2) finding f value correspond 0.4900. |) and the z ling to |
| | -2.5802.58Scale of zCritical valueCritical valueValue | | 0 | 2.33 Critical value | | | |
| | مع فرض ان المتوسط <mark>206</mark> مع بقاء نفس البيانات كما هى | z 0.0 0.1 0.2 0.3 | 0.00 0.0000 0.0398 0.0793 0.1179 | 0.01 0.0040 0.0438 0.0832 0.1217 | 0.02 0.0080 0.0478 0.0871 0.1255 | 0.03 0.0120 0.017 0.0910 0.293 | 0.04 0.0160 0.0557 0.0948 0.1331 |
| | ^{سوف ت} كون قيمة Z= (206 – 200)/(16/sqr(50)) = 2.65 | 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 | 0.1954 0.2257 0.2580 0.2881 0.3159 | 0.1991 0.2291 0.2611 0.2910 0.3186 | 0.1985 0.2324 0.2642 0.2939 0.3212 | 0. 664 0.2019 0.2357 0.2673 0.2967 0.2238 | 0.1700 0.2054 0.2389 0.2704 0.2995 0.3264 |
| | وعلى هذا اذا كان الاختبار Two tail سوف تقبل H0 لان 2.65 اقل من 2.58 م إما إذا كان الاختيار Ino tail سوف ترفض | 1.0 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4 | 0.3413 0.3643 0.3849 0.4032 0.4192 | 0.3438 0.3665 0.3869 0.4049 0.4207 | 0.3461 0.3686 0.3888 0.4066 0.4222 | 0.3485 0.3708 0.3907 0.4082 0.4236 | 0.3508 0.3729 0.3925 0.4099 0.4251 |
| | H0 لان 2.65 أكبر 2.33 | 1.5 1.6 1.7 1.8 1.9 | 0.4332 0.4452 0.4554 0.4641 0.4713 | 0.4345 0.4463 0.4564 0.4649 0.4719 | 0.4357 0.4474 0.4573 0.4656 0.4726 | 0. 1370 0. 1484 0. 1582 0. 1664 0. 1732 | 0.4382 0.4495 0.4591 0.4671 0.4738 |
| | | 2.0 2.1 2.2 2.3 | 0.4772 0.4821 0.4861 0.4893 | 0.4778 0.4826 0.4864 0.4896 | 0.4783 0.4830 0.4868 0.4898 | 0.4788 0.4834 0.4871 0.4901 | 0.4793 0.4838 0.4875 0.4904 |

مع فرض ان المتوسط 206 مع بقاء نفس البيانات كما هى سوف تكون قيمة Z هى 2.65

Z= (206 – 200)/(16/sqr(50)) =

- 2.65
 وعلى هذا اذا كان الاختبار Two tail سوف تقبل H0 لان 2.65 اقل من 2.58
 - اما اذا كان الاختبار One tail سوف ترفض H0 لان 2.65 اكبر 2.33

| | z | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.04 |
|---|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | 0.0 | 0.0000 | 0.0040 | 0.0080 | 0.0120 | 0.0160 |
| | 0.1 | 0.0398 | 0.0438 | 0.0478 | 0.4517 | 0.0557 |
| | 0.2 | 0.0793 | 0.0832 | 0.0871 | 0.0910 | 0.0948 |
| | 0.3 | 0.1179 | 0.1217 | 0.1255 | 0.1293 | 0.1331 |
| | 0.4 | 0.1554 | 0.1591 | 0.1628 | 0.1664 | 0.1700 |
| | 0.5 | 0.1915 | 0.1950 | 0.1985 | 0.2019 | 0.2054 |
| | 0.6 | 0.2257 | 0.2291 | 0.2324 | 0.2357 | 0.2389 |
| | 0.7 | 0.2580 | 0.2611 | 0.2642 | 0.2673 | 0.2704 |
| | 0.8 | 0.2881 | 0.2910 | 0.2939 | 0.2967 | 0.2995 |
| | 0.9 | 0.3159 | 0.3186 | 0.3212 | 0.3238 | 0.3264 |
| | 1.0 | 0.3413 | 0.3438 | 0.3461 | 0.3485 | 0.3508 |
| | 1.1 | 0.3643 | 0.3665 | 0.3686 | 0.3708 | 0.3729 |
| | 1.2 | 0.3849 | 0.3869 | 0.3888 | 0.3907 | 0.3925 |
| | 1.3 | 0.4032 | 0.4049 | 0.4066 | 0.4082 | 0.4099 |
| | 1.4 | 0.4192 | 0.4207 | 0.4222 | 0.1236 | 0.4251 |
| | 1.5 | 0.4332 | 0.4345 | 0.4357 | 0.4370 | 0.4382 |
| | 1.6 | 0.4452 | 0.4463 | 0.4474 | 0.4484 | 0.4495 |
| | 1.7 | 0.4554 | 0.4564 | 0.4573 | 0.4582 | 0.4591 |
| | 1.8 | 0.4641 | 0.4649 | 0.4656 | 0.4664 | 0.4671 |
| | 1.9 | 0.4713 | 0.4719 | 0.4726 | 0.4732 | 0.4738 |
| | 2.0 | 0.4772 | 0.4778 | 0.4783 | 0.4788 | 0.4793 |
| | 2.1 | 0.4821 | 0.4826 | 0.4830 | 0.4834 | 0.4838 |
| 1 | 2.2 | 0.4861 | 0.4864 | 0.4868 | 0.4871 | 0.4875 |
| l | 2.3 | 0.4893 | 0.4896 | 0.4898 | 0.4901 | 0.4904 |
| - | | | | | | |

• **اتخاذ قرار المعنوية من حدود الثقة بطريقتين**
$$\overline{X} \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

How does the hypothesis testing procedure just described compare with that of confidence intervals discussed in the previous chapter? When we conducted the test of hypothesis regarding the production of desks, we changed the units from desks per week to a z value. Then we compared the computed value of the test statistic (1.55) to that of the critical values (-2.58 and 2.58). Because the computed value was in the region where the null hypothesis was not rejected, we concluded that the population mean could be 200. To use the confidence interval approach, on the other hand, we would develop a confidence interval, based. The interval would be from 197.66 to 209.34, found by

Note that the proposed population value, 200, is within this interval. Hence, we would conclude that the population mean could reasonably be 200.

 In general, Ho is rejected if the confidence interval does not include the hypothesized value.

| DIII $\pm Z^*$ SE |
|--------------------------------------|
| Diff $\pm 2.58(16/\sqrt{50})$ |
| $(203.5 - 200) \pm 2.58*2.26$ |

 $H_0: \mu = 200$ $H_1: \mu \neq 200$ OR μ -200 = zero μ -200 ≠ zero

وبناءا على هذا يمكن اخذ القرار من حدود الثقة المذكورة فى الجدول السابق والتى تمثل حدود الثقة للفرق بين متوسط المجتمع الحقيقى ومتوسط العينة المقدرة 9.33 ≤2.33- ≤ x - μ فاذا كان الصفر يقع داخل هذة الحدود فاننا نقبل النظرية الفرضية واذا لم يقع فاننا نرفض النظرية الفرضية وحيث ان الصفر لا يقع لذا تم قبول النظرية الفرضية اى قبول الفرض العدمى وهى نفس النتيجة التى تحصلنا عليها من حدود الثقة العادية IBM-SPSS المعنوية الاحصائية عند استخدام برنامج Statistical significance Using IBM-SPSS

فی برنامج SPSS لا یوجد فی المخرجات کلمة P-value ولکن کلمة P-value تکتب بدلا منها کلمة Sig.التی توضع فی جدوال المخرجات لبرنامج SPSS

فى اى اختبار احصائى P-value = Sig. لاخذ القرار الاحصائى

(Sig.) or P-value ≤ 0.05 (Significant) or (دال احصائيا) or (Reject H0)

and 1% %5 (معنوى عند 5%) او نجمتين (**)) معنوى عند 5% او نجمتين (**)) معنوى عند) 5% %and 1% (**)) معنوى عند) 5% P < 0.05 * (Sig.) or P-value [>] 0.05 (Not Significant) or (غير دال احصائيا) (Accept **P10**) P < 0.001 ** P < 0.001

- هذة القاعدة السابقة تنطبق على جميع الاختبارات الاحصائية ما عدا اختبار الاعتدالية Normality
 - واختبار التجانس Homogeneity حيث نعكس القاعدة السابقة

(Sig.) or P-value ≥ 0.05 (Normality)(Sig.) or P-value ≥ 0.05 (Homogeneity)
المعنوية الاحصائية عند استخدام برنامج IBM-SPSS

Statistical significance Using IBM-SPSS

لتقريب الصورة حول كيفية اتخاذ القرار أو كيفية معرفة وجود "دلالة إحصائية" (statistical significance) نتصور المثال الفرضي التالي:

نفرض أن كلية الطب قد أعلنت عن قبول الطالب الحاصل على 95% كحد أدنى للنسبة المئوية للنجاح، فإن ذلك يناظر أن كلية الطب قد أعلنت عن قبول الطالب الذى أخطأ بحد أقصى 5% (أو 0.05) . أى أن 0.05 هى الحد الأعلى للنسبة المئوية للخطأ المسموح به.

فإذا كانت النسبة المئوية لدرجة أحد الطلاب مَثْلاً هي 94% (والمناظرة لنسبة خطأ 0.06) فهذا يعنى أنه لن يستطيع الالتحاق بكلية الطب لأن نسبته المئوية أقل من الحد الأدنى للنسبة والمقدرة بـ 95% (أو لأن مقدار الخطأ الحاصل عليه أعلى من الحد المقبول للخطأ والمقدر ب 0.05).

إحصائياً اذا كان احتمال المعنوية مساوياً قيمة أكبر من القيمة المحددة 0.05، فإننا نقول أن الاختبار "غير دال" (Not significance) عند مستوي معنوية 0.05.

أما إذا كانت النسبة المئوية لدرجة أحد الطلاب، مثلاً هي 96% (والمناظرة لنسبة خطأ 0.04) فهذا يعنى أنه يستطيع الإلتحاق بكلية الطب لأن نسبته المئوية أعلى من الحد الأدنى للنسبة والمقدرة ب 95% (أو لأن مقدار الخطأ الحاصل عليه أدنى من الحد المقبول للخطأ والمقدر ب 0.05).

إحصائياً اذا كان احتمال المعنوية مساوياً قيمة اقل من القيمة المحددة 0.05 فإننا نقول أن الاختبار " دال" (significance) عند مستوي معنوية 0.05.

معنوبة الاختبار الاحصائي (p-value) هى أصغر قيمة لاحتمال الخطأ فى رفض صحة نتيجة الاختبار "من مفهوم تمثيل العينة للمجتمع"

فى كثير من العلوم تؤخذ القيمة 0.05 كحد للمعنوية

تعد النتيجة "معنوية" (significant) اذا كانت قيمة p-value أقل من أو تساوى 0.05

وتعتبر النتيجة "معنوبة جدا"(highly significant) اذا كانت قيمة p-value أقل من أو تساوى 0.001

أي انه اذا كانت قيمة احتمال المعنوية <u>اقل</u> من القيمة المحددة من قبل الباحث (0.05 مثلا) فإنه فى هذه الحالة يقال ان الاختبار الإحصائي معنوى أو يقال انه توجد دلالة إحصائية.

المعنوية الإحصائية لنتيجة ما هى قيمة مقدره لدرجة الخطأ" عند تمثيل العينة للمجتمع".

P-Value in Hypothesis Testing

- In testing a hypothesis, we compare the test statistic to a critical value. A decision is made to either reject the null hypothesis or not to reject it. So, for example, if the critical value is 1.96 and the computed value of the test statistic is 2.19, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis.
- In recent years, spurred by the availability of computer software, additional information is often reported on the strength of the rejection or acceptance. That is, how confident are we in rejecting the null hypothesis? This approach reports the probability (assuming that the null hypothesis is true) of getting a value of the test statistic at least as extreme as the value actually obtained.
- This process compares the probability, called the p-value, with the significance level. If the p-value is smaller than the significance level, H0 is rejected. If it is larger than the significance level, H0 is not rejected.
- **P-Value** The probability of observing a sample value as extreme as, or more extreme than, the value observed, given that the null hypothesis is true.
- Determining the p-value not only results in a decision regarding H0, but it gives us additional insight into the strength of the decision. A very small p-value, such as 0.0001, indicates that there is little likelihood the H0 is true.
- On the other hand, a p-value of **0.2033** means that **H0** is **not rejected**, and there is little likelihood that it is false.

البي فاليو اللي مغلبانا توضيح بتبسيط شبه مخل علشان أختبر أي فرضية علمية بعمل تجربة من التجربة بجمع داتا بحلل الداتا باستخدام اختبار احصائى مناسب نتيجة الاختبار بتعطينا في الغالب بي فاليو وقيمة البى فاليو بنلاقيها منشورة فى الاوراق العلمية ايه معنى هذا الرقم؟ نقدر نقول إن البي فاليو هي "احتمالية الصدفة" ، احتمالية ان العلاقة صدفة ، او احتمالية ان الاختلاف صدفة ، حسب البحث بتاعي بمعنى لو بقارن بين مجموعتين ولقيت ان البي فاليو 0.01 ، معناها ان احتمالية ان الفرق بين المجموعتين مجرد صدفة هو 1% ، وبالتالي هنستبعد ان الفرق ده صدفة ، وهنقول ان غالبا الفرق ده حقيقى او لو عايز اشوف هل فيه علاقة بين حاجة معينة وحدوث مرض معين ، ولقينا البي فاليو بردو صغيرة ، مثلا 0.02 ، معنى ده ان احتمالية كون العلاقة مجرد صدفة هي 2% ، وبالتالي نقدر نسنتنتج ان فيه علاقة حقيقية ، مش مجرد صدفة وهكذا البي فاليو رقم ، بيتراوح بين الصفر والواحد وباختصار لو لقينا الرقم ده اقل من 0.05 معناها ان احتمالية الصدفة قليلة ، وبالتالي العلاقة غالبا حقيقية ،او الفرق غالبا حقيقي وبنقول بالانجليزي There is statistically significant difference/association كل لما الرقم بيقل ، كل ما كانت احتمالية الصدفة اقل ، وبالتالى كل لما كنا اكثر يقينا من وجود علاقة أو فرق (حسب البحث) بينما لو الرقم أعلى من 0.05 هنقول ان احتمالية الصدفة مش قليلة ، وبالتالى ممكن الفرق او العلاقة دى تكون مجرد صدفة ، وبنقول بالانجليزي There is NO statistically significant difference/association مثال توضيحي اخير: لو فرضنا انى عملت تجربة علمية علشان أشوف تأثير واحد من التطعيمات (اللقاحات) ، عندى مجموعتين ، مجموعة أخذت اللقاح (الطعم) والأخرى لم تأخذه ، وقمنا بمقارنة نسبة حدوث المرض في المجموعتين وكانت النتيجة بي فاليو = 0.04 وده معناه ان احتمالية كون الفرق بين المجموعتين مجرد صدفة هي 4% ، وبالتالي اقدر أقول إن غالبا الفارق ده حقيقي ، وإن الطعم أو اللقاح فعلا ليه تأثير بينما لو كانت النتيجة بي فاليو = 0.4 فِده معناه ان احتمالية كون الفرق بين المجموعتين مجرد صدفة هي 40% ، وبالتالي اقدر أقول إن غالبا الفارق ده غير حقيقي ، وإن الطعم او اللقاح ليس له تاثير كان هذا تبسيط شديد لمعنى البي فاليو اللي هي باختصار "احتمالية الصدفة" ملاحظة : الشرح الدقيق لمعنى البي فاليو يتطلب التطرق لموضوع null and alternative hypothesis



P < 0.01 ** P < 0.001

https://www.scielo.br/pdf/bpsr/ v7n1/02.pdf Different relationships, the same *p* value



Population, sample and statistical inference



https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~radford/mm-errata/erratapvalues.html

Regarding the discussion after Example 7.20 in *Introduction to the Practice of Statistics*, 3rd edition, by D. S. Moore and G. P. McCabe:Commenting on the P-value of 0.059 obtained in the example, Moore & McCabe say, "Sample size strongly influences the P-value of a test. An effect that fails to be significant at a specified level alpha in a small sample can be significant in a larger sample. In the light of the rather small samples in Example 7.20, the evidence for some effect of calcium on blood pressure is rather good. "

This reasoning is circular. Increasing the sample size will tend to result in a smaller P-value **only** if the null hypothesis is false, which is the point at issue.

However, it is possible to justify using a larger alpha when the sample size is small by considering the probabilities of both type I and type II errors. With a small sample, the probability of a type II error with the standard alpha of 0.05 may be too high, and we might wish to act in a way appropriate to when the null hypothesis is false even though the P-value is greater than 0.05, because we are afraid of making such a type II error. However, we would do this **despite** the fact that when the P-value is greater than 0.05, we have less evidence that the null hypothesis is false than we would have if we had obtained a smaller P-value with a larger sample, **not** because a P-value greater than 0.05 with a small sample is somehow just as strong evidence against the null hypothesis as a smaller P-value with a big sample.

The whole point of a P-value is to express the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis in a uniform way that accounts for the sample size, the amount of noise in measurements, and other aspects of the situation. There are other approaches to expressing the strength of evidence, and one of these, the "Bayesian" approach, will in some circumstances give results that vary with sample size in a way different from P-

- How do we compute the p-value?
- To illustrate, we will use the example in which we tested the null hypothesis that the mean number of desks produced per week at Fredonia was 200. We did not reject the null hypothesis, because the z value of 1.55 fell in the region between -2.58 and 2.58.
- We agreed not to reject the null hypothesis if the computed value of z fell in this region.
- The probability of finding a z value of 1.55 or more is 0.0606, found by (0.5000 - 0.4394) = 0.0606.
- To put it another way, the probability of obtaining an greater than 203.5 if μ =200 is 0.0606.
- To compute the p-value, we need to be concerned with the region less than -1.55 as well as the values greater than 1.55 (because the rejection region is in both tails).
- The two-tailed p-value is 0.1212, found by 2(0.0606).
- The p-value of 0.1212 is greater than the significance level of 0.01 decided upon initially, so H0 is not rejected.
- The details are shown in the following graph. In general, the area is doubled in a two-sided test.
- Then the p-value can easily be compared with the significance level. The same decision rule is used as in the one-sided test.



| z | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0.09 |
|-----|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 0.0 | 0.0000 | 0.0040 | 0.0080 | 0.0120 | 0.0160 | 0.0199 | 0.0239 | 0.0279 | 0.0319 | 0.0359 |
| 0.1 | 0.0398 | 0.0438 | 0.0478 | 0.0517 | 0.0557 | 0.0596 | 0.0636 | 0.0675 | 0.0714 | 0.0753 |
| 0.2 | 0.0793 | 0.0832 | 0.0871 | 0.0910 | 0.0948 | 0.0987 | 0.1026 | 0.1064 | 0.1103 | 0.1141 |
| 0.3 | 0.1179 | 0.1217 | 0.1255 | 0.1293 | 0.1331 | 0.1368 | 0.1406 | 0.1443 | 0.1480 | 0.1517 |
| 0.4 | 0.1554 | 0.1591 | 0.1628 | 0.1664 | 0.1700 | 0.1736 | 0.1772 | 0.1808 | 0.1844 | 0.1879 |
| 0.5 | 0.1915 | 0.1950 | 0.1985 | 0.2019 | 0.2054 | 0.2088 | 0.2123 | 0.2157 | 0.2190 | 0.2224 |
| 0.6 | 0.2257 | 0.2291 | 0.2324 | 0.2357 | 0.2389 | 0.2422 | 0.2454 | 0.2486 | 0.2517 | 0.2549 |
| 0.7 | 0.2580 | 0.2611 | 0.2642 | 0.2673 | 0.2704 | 0.2734 | 0.2764 | 0.2794 | 0.2823 | 0.2852 |
| 0.8 | 0.2881 | 0.2910 | 0.2939 | 0.2967 | 0.2995 | 0.3023 | 0.3051 | 0.3078 | 0.3106 | 0.3133 |
| 0.9 | 0.3159 | 0.3186 | 0.3212 | 0.3238 | 0.3264 | 0.3289 | 0.3315 | 0.3340 | 0.3365 | 0.3389 |
| 1.0 | 0.3413 | 0.3438 | 0.3461 | 0.3485 | 0.3508 | 0.3531 | 0.3554 | 0.3577 | 0.3599 | 0.3621 |
| 1.1 | 0.3643 | 0.3665 | 0.3686 | 0.3708 | 0.3729 | 0.3749 | 0.3770 | 0.3790 | 0.3810 | 0.3830 |
| 1.2 | 0.3849 | 0.3869 | 0.3888 | 0.3907 | 0.3925 | 0.3944 | 0.3962 | 0.3980 | 0.3997 | 0.4015 |
| 1.3 | 0.4032 | 0.4049 | 0.4066 | 0.4082 | 0.4099 | 0.4115 | 0.4131 | 0.4147 | 0.4162 | 0.4177 |
| 1.4 | 0.4192 | 0.4207 | 0.4222 | 0.4236 | 0.4251 | 0.4265 | 0.4279 | 0.4292 | 0.4306 | 0.4319 |
| 1.5 | 0.4332 | 0.4345 | 0.4357 | 0.4370 | 0.4382 | 0.4394 | 0.4406 | 0.4418 | 0.4429 | 0.4441 |
| 1.6 | 0.4452 | 0.4463 | 0.4474 | 0.4484 | 0.4495 | 0.4505 | 0.4515 | 0.4525 | 0.4535 | 0.4545 |
| 1.7 | 0.4554 | 0.4564 | 0.4573 | 0.4582 | 0.4591 | 0.4599 | 0.4608 | 0.4616 | 0.4625 | 0.4633 |
| 1.8 | 0.4641 | 0.4649 | 0.4656 | 0.4664 | 0.4671 | 0.4678 | 0.4686 | 0.4693 | 0.4699 | 0.4706 |
| 1.9 | 0.4713 | 0.4719 | 0.4726 | 0.4732 | 0.4738 | 0.4744 | 0.4750 | 0.4756 | 0.4761 | 0.4767 |
| 2.0 | 0.4772 | 0.4778 | 0.4783 | 0.4788 | 0.4793 | 0.4798 | 0.4803 | 0.4808 | 0.4812 | 0.4817 |
| 2.1 | 0.4821 | 0.4826 | 0.4830 | 0.4834 | 0.4838 | 0.4842 | 0.4846 | 0.4850 | 0.4854 | 0.4857 |
| 2.2 | 0.4861 | 0.4864 | 0.4868 | 0.4871 | 0.4875 | 0.4878 | 0.4881 | 0.4884 | 0.4887 | 0.4890 |
| 2.3 | 0.4893 | 0.4896 | 0.4898 | 0.4901 | 0.4904 | 0.4906 | 0.4909 | 0.4911 | 0.4913 | 0.4916 |
| 2.4 | 0.4918 | 0.4920 | 0.4922 | 0.4925 | 0.4927 | 0.4929 | 0.4931 | 0.4932 | 0.4934 | 0.4936 |
| 2.5 | 0.4938 | 0.4940 | 0.4941 | 0.4943 | 0.4945 | 0.4946 | 0.4948 | 0.4949 | 0.4951 | 0.4952 |
| 2.6 | 0.4953 | 0.4955 | 0.4956 | 0.4957 | 0.4959 | 0.4960 | 0.4961 | 0.4962 | 0.4963 | 0.4964 |
| 2.7 | 0.4965 | 0.4966 | 0.4967 | 0.4968 | 0.4969 | 0.4970 | 0.4971 | 0.4972 | 0.4973 | 0.4974 |
| 2.8 | 0.4974 | 0.4975 | 0.4976 | 0.4977 | 0.4977 | 0.4978 | 0.4979 | 0.4979 | 0.4980 | 0.4981 |
| 2.9 | 0.4981 | 0.4982 | 0.4982 | 0.4983 | 0.4984 | 0.4984 | 0.4985 | 0.4985 | 0.4986 | 0.4986 |
| 3.0 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4987 | 0.4988 | 0.4988 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4989 | 0.4990 | 0.4990 |

A p-value is a way to express the likelihood that H0 is false. But how do we interpret a p-value? We have already said that if the p-value is less than the significance level, then we reject H0 ; if it is greater than the significance level, then we do not reject H0. Also, if the p-value is very large, then it is likely that H0 is true. If the p-value is small, then it is likely that H0 is not true. The following box will help to interpret p-values.



INTERPRETING THE WEIGHT OF EVIDENCE AGAINST HO

If the p-value is less than

- (a) 0.10, we have some evidence that H0 is not true.
- (b) 0.05, we have strong evidence that H0 is not true.
- (c) 0.01, we have very strong evidence that H0 is not true.
- (d) 0.001, we have extremely strong evidence that H0 is not true.

مثال توضيحى أخير : على p-value لو فرضنا انى عملت تجربة علمية علشان أشوف تأثير واحد من التطعيمات (اللقاحات) ، عندى مجموعتين ، مجموعة أخذت اللقاح (الطعم) والأخرى لم تأخذه ، وقمنا بمقارنة نسبة حدوث المرض في المجموعتين وكانت النتيجة مسالحيهما

p-value= 0.04

وده معناه ان احتمالية كون الفرق بين <mark>المجموعتين مجرد صدفة هي 4 %</mark>، وبالتالي اقدر أقول إن غالبا الفارق ده حقيقي ، وإن الطعم أو اللقاح فعلا ليه تأثير

There is statistically significant difference/association (Reject H0)

%p-value= 4

بينما لو كانت النتيجة

فده معناه ان احتمالية كون الفرق بين ال<mark>مجموعتين مجرد صدفة ه</mark>ي **40 %**، وبالتالي اقدر أقول إن غالبا الفارق ده غير حقيقي ، وإن الطعم أو اللقاح ليس له تأثير

There is NO statistically significant difference/association (Fail to Reject H0 or Accept H0)







| | | | لاحظ عدم |
|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| | | | تساوی حجم |
| sample size Sam | nnla siza – 10 | Sample size - 400 | العينه عينه |
| Jan San | | Sample Size = 400 | اولی حجمها |
| | | | =10 وعينه |
| | | 600 | ثانيه حجمها |
| | | | 400= |
| | 9 | | فی کل تجربه |
| (Ch) | | | ولكن الفرق كان |
| | heads = 4 | heads = 160 | واحد فی |
| 110 | taile = 6 | taile = 240 | التجربه الاولى |
| 2 | tails - 0 | tans - 240 | 0.2 وفى |
| | | | الثانيه 0.2 رغم |
| | proportion = 0.4 | proportion = 0.4 | عدم تساوی |
| | proportion - 0.4 | proportion - 0.4 | حجم العينه الا |
| | | Diff = 240-160 | ان الفرق واحد |
| Diff = $6 - 4 = 2 = 2/$ | 10 =0.2 | =80=80/400=0.2 | لذا فی حاله |
| | | | زياده حجم |
| | p-value = 0.7539 | p-value = <.0001 | العينه كما فى |
| | | P | الحاله الثانيه |
| | | | فان قیمه -p |
| | | | value صغرت |

·· • 1 t



أما منطقة الرفض فلابد من وضعها للتأكد من الحيود عن 120 = µ في كلا الاتجاهات، وعليه فإن فرض العدم H_o سوف يرفض لقيم Z الصغيرة جدًا (السالبة) أو قيم Z الكبيرة جدًا (الموجبة).



 α ولتعيين قيمة Z الحرجة يجب اختيار قيمة α أو لأ (أي احتمال فرض فرص العدم رغم صحته)، ثم نقسم بالتساوي بين الطرف الأيسر والطرف الأيمن لتوزيع Z (كما يتضح من الشكل التالي) : توضع في كلا الطرفين, وكلا من هاتان المساحتان تناظر :0.005 = $\alpha/2$ وبالتالي 0.01 = α في هذا المثال

 $Z_{\alpha/2} = 2.576$, $-Z_{\alpha/2} = -2.576$

وبالتالي فإن منطقة الرفض تكون : يرفض H_o إذا كانت :

الافتراضات:

طالما أن حجم العينة كبير بدرجة كافية (n > 30) فإن نظرية النهاية المركزية (Central Limit Theorem) يمكن تطبيقها ولسنا في حاجة لإضافة أي افتر اضات عن المجتمع محل القياس. أي أن توزيع المعاينة الناتج من 100 عبوة سوف يكون « طبيعي ». n = 100 , $\overline{X} = 118.5$, S = 5 , $\overline{X} = 118.5$, S = 5 $H_0: \mu = 120$, $\overline{X} = 120$, $H_a: \mu \neq 120$

طالما أن خطوات إجراء الاختبارات قد تم تحديدها بالكامل في مثلا (1) فإن ما سوف نقوم به فقط هو التعويض من إحصاءات العينة (X,S) في إحصاءة الاختبار z :

 $Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \cong \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{S / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{118.5 - 120}{5 / \sqrt{100}} = -3$

e The set of the set of



ومن الشكل السابق نجد أن قيمة Z المحسوبة (وهي 3-) أقل من 2.57- . أي أن الإحصاءة Z المحسوبة تقع في منطقة الرفض. أي أن هذه العينة تكفل أدلة كافية لرفض H_o وتؤكد عند مستوى معنوية α = 0.01 أن متوسط التعبئة للماكينة يختلف عن 120 جرام. في الواقع يتضبح أن الماكينة تعبئ «أقل » من المطلوب في المتوسط.

 $\frac{6}{2}$ وتعقيبًا على مثال (2)، هناك ملاحظتان وتطبق على كل الاختبارات الإحصائية: 1-طالما أن Z أقل من 2.576 ؛ من المغري لأن نحدد مستوى معنوية α أقل من 0.01 . ولكننا نقاوم هذا الإغراء « لأن مستوى المعنوية α قد تم تحديده قبل بدء التجربه وبالتالي لانستطيع استخدام نفس البيانات المستخدمة من قبل. يجب في هذه الحالة سحب عينة جديدة، وإجراء اختبار جديد مرة أخرى. 2-عندما نحدد مستوى المعنوية بـ 0.01 فإننا نحدد أو نشير إلى معدل فشل التجربة وليس فشل هذا الاختبار، ونعلم أن تجربة الاختبار سوف تؤدي إلى رفض فرض العدم %1 مرة عندما تكون 201 = μ . وعلى ذلك، التجربة بنسبة m ؟ أي احتمال رفض فرض العدم %1 مرة عندما تكون 201 = μ . وعلى ذلك، ويلاحظ أنه إذا لم تكن قيمة الانحراف المعياري للمعم وهو صحيح. « ويلاحظ أنه إذا لم تكن قيمة الانحراف المعياري للمجتمع « σ » معلومة وأن العينة كبيرة, فإن الانحراف المعياري للعينة « α ؟ معنوب النا معياري للمجتمع « σ » معلومة وأن العينة كبيرة ولين الانحراف ويلاحظ أنه إذا لم تكن قيمة الانحراف المعياري للمجتمع « σ » معلومة وأن العينة كبيرة ولين الانحراف المعياري للعنيار عنه الانحراف المعياري للمجتمع « σ » معلومة وأن العينة كبيرة . ويلاحظ أنه إذا لم تكن قيمة الانحراف المعياري للمجتمع « σ » معلومة وأن العينة كبيرة . المعياري للمعنيا « σ » كما تم الإشارة إليه سابقًا.

مثال (3): من المسجل أن فترة علاج مرض ما بطريقة مداواة قياسية له متوسط 15 يومًا. وادعت إحدى الجهات الطبية يمكن بإجر ائها طريقة حديثة عن « تقليل » زمن العلاج، ولاختبار هذا الإدعاء تم تطبيق الطريقة الحديثة على 70 مريضًا وتم تسجيل أزمنة شفائهم. الرفض مستوى منطقة الفر وض Ó معنوية عند وحدد صغ $\alpha = 0.025$ (ب) إذا كانت $\overline{X} = 14.6$ وكانت S = 3 فما الذي يشير إليه الاختبار؟

الحل: بفرض أن μ تعبر عن متوسط زمن الشفاء للمجتمع للطريقة الحديثة، ولأن الهدف هو التحقيق والتأكد من أن $\mu < 15$ ، فإن الفروض هي كالتالي : $H_0: \mu \geq 15$

 $H_{a:} \mu < 15$ أما عن منطقية الرفض : (حيث 1.96 = 2_{0.025}) يرفض فرض العدم إذا كانت Z المحسوبة أقل من - $Z_{a} = -Z_{a} = -1.96$ $Z_{0.025} = -1.96$ أما إحصاءة الاختبار Z (حيث 14.6 $\overline{X} = 14.6$) فهي :

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_o}{S / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{14.6 - 15}{3 / \sqrt{70}} = -0.12$$



وطالما أن 1.12- ليست في منطقة الرفض فإننا لا نرفض فرض العدم 15 $\mu \ge H_{
m o}$ عند مستوى معنوية 0.05

<u>Summary:</u>

- In the process of hypothesis testing, the null hypothesis initially is assumed to be true
- Data are gathered and examined to determine whether the evidence is strong enough with respect to the alternative hypothesis to reject the assumption.
- In another words, the burden is placed on the researcher to show, using sample information, that the null hypothesis is false.
- If the sample information is sufficient enough in favor of the alternative hypothesis, then the null hypothesis is rejected. This is the same as saying if the persecutor has enough evidence of guilt, the "innocence is rejected.
- Of course, erroneous conclusions are possible, type I and type II errors.

Type I and Type II errors cannot happen at the same time

- 1. Type I error can only occur if H₀ is true
- 2. Type II error can only occur if H_0 is false
- 3. There is a tradeoff between type I and II errors. If the probability of type I error (α) increased, then the probability of type II error (β) declines.
- 4. When the difference between the hypothesized parameter and the actual true value is small, the probability of type two error (the non-rejection region) is larger.
- 5. Increasing the sample size, n, for a given level of **α**, reduces β

Important Notes:

It would be wonderful if we could force both α and β to equal zero. Unfortunately, these quantities have an inverse relationship. As α increases, β decreases and vice versa

The only way to decrease both α and β is to increase the sample size. To make both quantities equal zero, the sample size would have to be infinite—you would have to sample the entire population.

H0 must always contain equality; however some claims are not stated using equality. Therefore sometimes the claim and H0 will not be the same.

Ideally all claims should be stated that they are Null Hypothesis so that the most serious error would be a Type I error.

Controlling Type I and Type II Errors

- *a*, *f*, and *n* are related
- when two of the three are chosen, the third is determined
- a and n are usually chosen
- try to use the largest a you can tolerate
- if Type I error is serious, select a smaller a value
 and a larger n value

P-Value Approach

P-value=Max. Probability of (Type I Error), calculated from the sample. The *p-value* approach

{its presented by (Sig) in SPSS}

(which is generally used with a computer and statistical software): Increase the "Rejection Region" until it "captures" the sample mean.

The *P*-value answer the question:

What is the probability of the observed test statistic or one more extreme when H_0 is true? This corresponds to the area under curve in the tail of the Standard Normal distribution beyond the z_{stat} .

Convert *z* statistics to *P*-value :

For $H_a: \mu > \mu_0 \Rightarrow P = \Pr(Z > z_{stat}) = right-tail beyond <math>z_{stat}$

For H_a : $\mu < \mu_0 \Rightarrow P = \Pr(Z < z_{stat}) = \text{left tail beyond } z_{stat}$

For H_a : $\mu^1 \mu_0 \Rightarrow P = 2 \times \text{one-tailed } P$ -value

Use Table of Z or software to find these probabilities (next two slides).

One-sided *P*-value for *z*_{stat} of 0.6





Two-Sided P-Value

- One-sided $H_a \Rightarrow$ area under curve in tail beyond \mathbf{z}_{stat}
- Two-sided H_a ⇒ consider potential deviations in both directions in ⇒ double the ope-sided P



Examples: If one-sided P= 0.0010, then two-sided $P = 2 \times 0.0010 = 0.0020$. If one-sided P = 0.2743, then two-sided $P = 2 \times 0.2743 = 0.5486$.

Interpretation

- *P*-value answer the question:
- What is the probability of the observed test statistic ... when H₀ is true?
- Thus, smaller and smaller *P*-values provide stronger and stronger evidence against H₀
- Small *P*-value \Rightarrow strong evidence against H_0

Interpretation

Conventions*

- $P > 0.10 \Rightarrow$ non-significant evidence against H_0
- $0.05 < P \le 0.10 \Rightarrow$ marginally significant evidence
- $0.01 < P \le 0.05 \Rightarrow$ significant evidence against H_0
- $P \le 0.01 \Rightarrow$ highly significant evidence against H_0

Examples

* It is *unwise* to draw firm borders for "significance"

 $D = 0.1 \rightarrow \text{bighly significant evidence against}$
Interpreting the p-value...

- The smaller the p-value, the more statistical evidence exists to support the alternative hypothesis.
- If the p-value is less than 1%, there is *overwhelming evidence* that supports the alternative hypothesis.
- If the p-value is **between 1% and 5%**, there is a **strong evidence** that supports the alternative hypothesis.
- If the p-value is between 5% and 10% there is a
- weak evidence that supports the alternative
- hypothesis. μ
- If the p-value exceeds 10%, there is *no evidence* that supports the alternative hypothesis.



α-Level (Used in some situations)

- Let $\alpha \equiv$ probability of erroneously rejecting H_0
- Set a threshold (e.g., let $\alpha = .10, .05, or whatever$)
- Reject H_0 when $P \leq \alpha$
- Retain H_0 when $P > \alpha$
- Example: Set α = .10. Find *P* = 0.27 \Rightarrow retain H_0
- Example: Set α = .01. Find *P* = .001 \Rightarrow reject H_0

Concepts of Hypothesis Testing... Consider mean demand for computers during assembly lead time. Rather than estimate the mean demand, our operations manager wants to know whether the mean is different from 350 units. In other words, someone is claiming that the mean time is 350 units and we want to check this claim out to see if it appears reasonable. We can rephrase this requires the the hypothesis:

 H_0 : = 350

Thus, ou_{μ}^{-} research hypothesis becomes:

H₁: ≠ 350

Recall that the standard deviation $[\sigma]$ was $\{\overline{x}\}$ sumed to be 75, the sample size [n] was 25, and the sample mean [] was calculated to be 370.16

Concepts of Hypothesis Testing...

For example, if we're trying to decide whether the mean is not equal to 350, a large value of (say, 600) would provide enough evidence.

\bar{x} If is close to 350 (say, 355) we could not say that this provides a great deal of evidence to infer that the population mean is different than 350.

Testing

The testing procedure begins with the *assumption that the null hypothesis is true*.

Thus, until we have further statistical evidence, we will <u>assume</u>:

 $\mu_{H_0}: = 350 \text{ (assumed to be TRUE)}$ The next s $\frac{1}{x}$ will be to determine the sampling distribution
of $\frac{1}{x}$ be sample mean assuming the true mean is 350. $\mu_{\overline{x}} = \mu = 350$

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \sigma / \sqrt{n} = 75 / \text{SQRT}(25) = 15$$

Is the Sample Mean in the Guts of the Sampling Distribution??



Four ways to determine this: First way

- 1. Unstandardized test statistic \overline{x} Is in the guts of the sampling distribution? Depends on what you define as the "guts" of the sampling distribution.
 - If we define the guts as the center 95% of the distribution [this means α = 0.05], then the critical values that define the guts will be 1.96 standard deviations of X-Bar on either side of the mean of the sampling distribution [350], or
 - UCV = 350 + 1.96*15 = 350 + 29.4 = 379.4
 - LCV = 350 1.96*15 = 350 29.4 = 320.6
 - **OR** by using Confidence interval
 - UCV = 370.16 + 1.96*15 = 370.16 + 29.4 = 399.56
 - LCV = 370.16 1.96*15 = 370.16 29.4 = 340.76 ^{11.260}
 - 250 is botwoon 240.76 and 200.56 So Eail to roject null hypothesis



Three ways to determine this: <u>Second</u> <u>way</u>

2. Standardized test statistic: Since we defined the "guts" of the sampling distribution to be the center 95% [$\alpha = 0.05$], \overline{x}

If the Z-Score $\frac{1}{X}$ r the sample mean is greater than 1.96, we know that will be in the reject region on the right side or

If the Z- \overline{x} ore for the sample mean is less than -1.97, we know that will be in the reject region on the $\ln \frac{c}{\overline{x}} s_{\mu}^{i} r_{\overline{x}}^{j}$.

$$Z = (-)/ = (370.16 - 350)/15 = 1.344$$

Is this Z-Score in the guts of the sampling

2. Standardized Test Statistic Approach

Three ways to determine this: **Fourth way**

by using Confidence interval of the different b μ we \overline{x} ((μ) H₀: = 350 μ We can rewrite - 350 = 0

UCI = (370.16 - 350) + 1.96*15 = 20.16 + 29.4 = 49.56UCI = (370.16 - 350) - 1.96*15 = 20.16 - 29.4 = -9.24

Zero is between (49.56 and -9.24) So Fail to reject or Accept null hypothesis

Three ways to determine this: **Third**

<u>way</u>

3. The *p-value* approach (which is generally used with a computer and statistical software): Increase the "Rejection Region" until it "captures" the sample mean.

For this example, sir \overline{x} is to the right of the mean, calculate P($\overline{x} \ge 370.16$) = P(Z ≥ 1.344) = 0.0901 = (0.5 – 0.4099) Since this is a two tailed test, you must double this area for the p-value.

p-value = 2*(0.0901) = 0.1802

Since we defined the guts as the ce $\overline{\chi}$ or 95% [$\alpha = 0.05$], the reject region is the other 5%. Since our sample mean, , is in the 18.02% region, it cannot be in our 5% rejection region [$\alpha = 0.05$].

Statistical Conclusions:

- Unstandardized Test Statistic:
 - Since LCV (320.6) \overline{x} (370.16) < UCV (379.4), we fail to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.
- LCV (Lower Critical Value)
- Standardized Test Statistic:
- Since $-Z_{\alpha/2}(-1.96) < Z(1.344) < Z_{\alpha/2}$ (1.96), we fail to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance.
- P-value:
- Since p-value (0.1802) > 0.05 $[\alpha]$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis at a 5% level of

One sample test
 (له ثلاثة صور)

- One sample t-test (Parametric Scale)
- Wilcoxon-signed rank test (Non-Parametric)

(Non-Parametric,

- (ordinal or scale but not normal)
- Chi-square

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Dependent Variables (DV) and Independent Variables (IV).

Variable is a property that can take on many values in a situation with multiple variables Different between Dependent Variables (DV) and Independent Variables (IV).

Dependent Variables (DV): Also called Outcome, Response Variable that may depend on other factors, Example exam scores OR is any variable that is being measured

Independent Variables (IV): IV also called Experimental, Predictor, Casual, Manipulated, Explanatory

Variable that does not depend on other factors,

OR is any variable that is being manipulated

Example gender

Exam scores, as variable may change depending on the students gender

But gender does not change depending on exam scores

So, Gender (Independent Variables (IV) while Score (Dependent

| Univariate | Effect of |
|---|--|
| If our data is Norman P-value | Effect of Facton Independent Var.) On Dependent Var. |
| > 0.05 | (measure) |
| Will Her Barametric tests dent Fa | actor) |
| Effect of On | |
| • IF we | e have <u>One Factor</u> before <u>On</u> |
| • Number of Groups (levels) on | one sample t-test or z-test |
| • Number of Groups (levels) two | student t-test |
| () | Independent t-test (unpaired or unrelated) or |
| (ANOVA) | |
| Matchad | Dependent t-test (paired or related or |
| Matched) | ANOVA test |
| • Number of Groups (levels) > It | Iore main two ANOVA lest |
| • Two factors | Daired or related or Matched |
| • Effects of and On | i un cu or refuteu or mutcheu |
| • IF we h | ave Two Factors before On |
| • Any Number of Groups (lev | vels) in each factor and All levels in two factors |
| are Unrelated Or inde | |
| | ANOVA) |
| • Any Number of Groups (lev | els) in each factor and All vels in one factor |
| is Unrelated (independent) | and all levels in another factor are Dependent |
| Mixed ANOVA or Two-Way | nized ANOVA |
| More than Two factors | |
| • Effect of, and | |
| On | |

Flow chart of commonly used statistical tests





Choose Statistical Test

| test | nominal variables | measurement variables | ranked variables | purpose | notes | example |
|--|----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--|---|---|
| <u>Arithmetic</u> <u>mean</u> | - | 1 | - | description of central tendency of data | - | - |
| <u>Median</u> | _ | 1 | - | description of central tendency of data | more useful than mean for very skewed data | median height of trees in forest, if most trees are short seedlings and the mean would be skewed by a few very tall trees |
| <u>Range</u> | - | 1 | - | description of dispersion of data | used more in everyday life than in scientific statistics | - |
| <u>Variance</u> | _ | 1 | - | description of dispersion of data | forms the basis of many statistical tests; in squared units, so not very understandable | - |
| <u>Standard</u> deviation | - | 1 | - | description of dispersion of data | in same units as original data, so more understandable than variance | - |
| <u>Standard</u> error of the <u>mean</u> | - | 1 | - | description of accuracy of an estimate of a mean | - | - |
| <u>Confidence</u> <u>interval</u> | - | 1 | - | description of accuracy of an estimate of a mean | | - |

| | nominal | measurement | ranked | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-------------|-----------|---|---|---|
| test | variables | variables | variables | purpose | notes | example |
| <u>One-sample</u> <u>t-test</u> | — | 1 | _ | test the hypothesis that the mean value of the measurement variable equals a theoretical expectation | - | blindfold people, ask them to hold arm at 45° angle, see if mean angle is equal to 45° |
| <u>Two-sample</u> <u>t–test</u> | 1 | 1 | _ | test the hypothesis that the mean values of the measurement variable are the same in two groups | just another name for one- way anova when there are only two groups | compare mean heavy metal content in mussels from Nova Scotia and New Jersey |
| <u>One-way</u> <u>anova</u> | 1 | 1 | _ | test the hypothesis that the mean values of the measurement variable are the same in different groups | - | compare mean heavy metal content in mussels from Nova Scotia, Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and New Jersey |
| <u>Paired t-test</u> | 2 | 1 | _ | test the hypothesis that the means of the continuous variable are the same in paired data | just another name for two- way anova when one nominal variable represents pairs of observations | compare the cholesterol level in blood of people before vs. after switching to a vegetarian diet |

Effect of On.....

٠

Choose Statistical Test 1 from 3

| Number of Dependent Variables Or | Nature of Independent Or Variables Factor | <u>Nature of Dependent</u> <u>Variable(s)</u> | Test(s) |
|---|--|--|---------------------------------|
| measureme | | interval & normal | one-sample t-test |
| nt variable | 0.1\/s | ordinal or interval | one-sample median |
| | (1 population) | categorical (2 categories) | binomial test |
| On | | categorical | Chi-square goodness-of- fit |
| e | 1 IV with 2 levels | interval & normal | 2 independent sample t- test |
| • | | ordinal or interval | Wilcoxon-Mann |
| | (independent groups) | | Whitney test |
| | | categorical | Chi- square test |
| | | | Fisher's exact test |
| | 1. We with 2 or more levels | interval & normal | one-way ANOVA |
| | (independent groups) | ordinal or interval | Kruskal Wallis |
| | | categorical | Chi- square test |
| | | interval & normal | paired t-test |
| 6 | 1 IV with 2 levels (dependent/matched groups) | ordinal or interval | Wilcoxon signed ranks test |
| | | categorical | McNemar |

| Number of Dependent Variables | Nature of Or Independent Variables Factor | <u>Nature of Dependent</u> <u>Variable(s)</u> | Test(s) | 2 from 3 |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|--|-------------|
| | | interval & normal | one-way repeated measures ANOVA | Ī |
| | 1 IV with 2 or more levels (dependent/matched groups) | ordinal or interval | Friedman test | |
| | | categorical | repeated measures logistic regression | |
| | | interval & normal | factorial ANOVA | |
| One | 2 or more IVs (independent groups) | ordinal or interval | ordered logistic regression | |
| 1 interva | | categorical | factorial logistic regression | |
| | | interval & normal | correlation | |
| | 1 interval IV | | simple linear regression | |
| | | ordinal or interval | non-parametric correlation | |
| | | categorical | simple logistic regression | |
| | | | multiple regression | |
| | 1 or more interval I∨s | interval & normal | analysis of | |
| | and/or | | covariance | |
| | 1 or more categorical I∨s | categorical | multiple logistic regression | |
| | | | discriminant analysis | |

3 from

| Number of Dependent Variables | Nature of Independent Variables | Nature V | of Dependent ariable(s) | 3 Test(s) |
|-------------------------------------|--|-------------|----------------------------|---|
| 2+ | 1 IV with 2 or more levels (independent groups) 2+ | | interval & normal | one-way MANOVA |
| | | | interval & normal | multivariate multiple linear regression |
| | 0 | | interval & normal | factor analysis |
| 2 sets of 2+ | 0 | | interval & normal | canonical correlation |

Choose appropriate statistical test

| Comparison | Parametric test | Non-parametric test |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| The distribution | Normal | Normal or not normal |
| Measure of central tendency | Mean | Median |
| Data type | Interval- Ratio | Nominal - Ordinal |
| One sample | One sample t-test | Sign test |
| Two Independent groups | Two sample t-test | Willcoxon-rank sum = Mann-Whitney |
| One group before and after | Paired sample t-test | Wilcoxon matched pairs test |
| Greater than two categories in one independent group | one way ANOVA | Kruskal-wallis test |
| Greater than two categories in two independent groups | Two way Anova | Friedman test |
| Correlation | Pearson | Spearman |

Figure 7.18 Flowchart for appropriate methods of statistical inference







| سب بيانات بحثك | مائي الذى يناء | ر الأسلوب الإحص | دليل اختيا |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------------|
| الاختبار الإحصائي | نوع البيانات | الفرض | عدد العينات |
| ذي الحدين – كا` –سمير نوف | اسمية | التحقق من جودة | عينة واحدة (مجموعة واحدة ذات |
| سمير نوف - الإشارة | رتيبة | المطابقة | الاختبار الواحد) |
| اختیار Z – اختیار ت | فترية | | |
| کا' – فشر – سمیر نوف | اسمية | الفروق بين | عينتان مستقلتان (مجموعتان |
| الوسيط – مان وينتى - النتابع | رتيبة | المجموعات | تجريبية – ضابطة) |
| اختيار ت | فترية | | |
| ماکنمار | اسمية | الفروق بين | عينتان متر ابطتان (مجموعة |
| ولكوكسن - الإشارة | رتيية | القياسات | واحدة ذات اختبارين قبلي وبعدي) |
| اختبار ت | فترية | | |
| کا' | اسمية | الفروق بين | عدة عينات مستقلة (المجمو عات |
| الوسيط كروسكال ولاس | رتيبة | المجموعات | المتعددة) |
| تحليل التباين – تحليل التغاير | فترية | | |
| كوجران | اسمية | الفروق بين | عدة عيذات متر ابطة (مجموعة |
| فريدمان | رتيية | القياسات | واحدة ذات الاختبارات المتعددة) |
| تحليل التياين ذي القباسات المتكر رة | فتر بة | | |
| معامل ارتباط فاي- معامل التوافق - | اسمية | الارتباط بين | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| معامل الافتران الرباعي | | القياسات أو | عينات (مجموعة واحدة ذات |
| معامل ارتباط سيپر مان- معامل | رتيية | العلاقة بين | اختبار قبلي أو بعدي أو عدة |
| ارتباط كندال | | المتخيرات | اختبار ات) |
| معامل ارتباط بير سون – الارتباط | فترية | "دراسات | |
| القانوني – الارتباط المتعدد | | ارتباطية" | |
| تحليل الانحدار بأنواعه المختلفة- | فترية | "در اسات تتبؤية | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| السلاسل الزمنية |] | " للمتخبر ات أو | عينات (مجموعة واحدة أو عدة |
| التحليل التمييزي بأتواعه المختلفة | | عضوية الجماعة | مجموعات مع عدة اختبار ات) |
| التحليل العاملي الإستكشافي – | فترية | " در اسات | عينة واحدة أو عينتان أو عدة |
| التحليل العاملي التوكيدي | | عاملية" | عينات(مجموعة واحدة أو عدة |
| | | البناء العاملى | مجموعة مع عدة اختبارات) |

شروط الإختبار المعلمى:

قبل إستخدام أى إختبار من الإختبارات المعلمية، لابد من التأكد من تروافر مجموع لة من ن الشروط، أهمها :

| Normality | الإعتدالية. | (1 |
|---------------|-------------|----|
| Homogeneity | التجانس. | (2 |
| Randomization | العشوائية. | (3 |
| Independence | الاستقلال . | (4 |

5) بيانات مترية Metric Data أى بيانات لمتغيرات كمية. dependent variable should be measured at the interval or ratio level (i.e., continuous) (scale in SI

- شرط العشوائية وشرط إستقلال العينات، وشرط البيانات المترية: هى شروط نظرية
 لا يتم إختبارها إحصائياً... لماذا؟، لأنه من المفترض أن تكون العينات التى قام
 الباحث بسحبها هى عينات عشوائية ومستقلة. أما شرطا الإعتدالية والتجانس فيتم
 التأكد من توافرهما إحصائياً كما سنرى.
- 2) شرط الإعتدالية وشرط العشوائية وشرط البيانات المترية: شروط يلزم توافره ما فى جميع الإختبارات المعلمية.
- (3) شرط الإستقلال يلزم توافره فى حالتين فقط هما: فى حالة إختبار (ت) لعيد خين مستقلتين، وفى حالة تحليل التباين فى إتجاه واحد ANOVA.
 - 4) شرط التجانس فليزم توافره فى حالة تحليل التباين فى إتجاه واحد ANOVA فقط.
- 5) فى حالة العينات الكبيرة (عدد المشاهدات تكون أكبر من أو تساوى 30 مشاهدة) يمكن التخلى عن شرط إعتدالية التوزيع الإحتمالى وفقا لما تقره نظرية الترعة المركزية Central Limit Theorem .

والشكل التالي يلخص أنواع الإختبارات المعلمية والشروط الخاصة بكل إختبار

| البيانات المترية | الإستقلال | العشوائية | التجانس | الإعتدالية | الإختبار |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|---------|------------|--|
| ~ | | ~ | | ~ | إختبار (ت) في حالة عينة واحدة One - Sample T Test |
| ~ | ~ | ~ | | ~ | إختبار (ت) في حالة عينتين مستقلتين Independent - Samples T Test |
| ~ | | ~ | | ~ | إختبار (ت) فی حالة عینتین غیر مستقلتین Paired - Samples T Test |
| ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | ~ | تحليل التباين فى إتجاه واحد One - Way ANOVA |

الشرط الأول: شرط الإعتدالية :

يقصد بشرط الإعتدالية " أن تكون عينة الدراسة مسحوبة من مجتمع تتب ع بيانات ٤ التوزي ع الطبيعي".

وبصفة عامة يوفر برنامج SPSS نوعين من الإختبارات التي تستخدم في دراسة إعتدالية التوزيع الاحتمالي، هما :

- 1) إختبار كلومجروف سيمنروف Kolmogorov Smirnov.
 - Shapiro Wilk إختبار شابيرو ويليك

 \checkmark شكل الفروص الإحصائية في حالة إختبار إعتدالية التوزيع الإحتمالي: (بالتطبيق على المثال الحالى) الفرض العدمي (HO) : بيانات العينة مسحوبة من مجتمع تتبع بياناته التوزيع الطبيعي. الفرض البديل (H1) : بيانات العينة مسحوبة من مجتمع لا تتبع بياناته التوزيع الطبيعي.

شكل الفروض الاحصائية في حالة اختبار التجانس Homogeneity

الفرض العدمي (HO): تباينات المجتمعات المسحوب منها العينات تكون مت ساوية (يوج لد تجانس).

الفرض البديل (H1) : هناك إثنين على الأقل من تباينات المجتمعات المسحوب منها العينات تكون غير متساوية (لا يوجد تجانس).
I- Normality tests

- <u>Remember that</u>
- your data do not have to be perfectly normally distributed.
- The main thing is that
 - they are approximately normally distributed, and

- you check each category of the independent variable. (In our example, both male and female data).

1- Numerical methods.

The Skewness & kurtosis z-values (In SPSS)

Step 1: click on Analyze, select Descriptive Statistics and Explore.
 Step 2: Set exam scores as the dependent variable, and gender as the independent variable.

Step 3: Click on Plots, select "Histogram" (you do not need "Stem-and-leaf") and select "Normality plots with tests" and click on Continue, then OK.

- **Step 4.** Start with skewness and kurtosis. The skewness and kurtosis measures should be as close to zero as possible, in SPSS.
- In reality, however, data are often skewed and kurtotic. A small departure from zero is therefore no problem, as long as the measures are not too large compare to their standard errors.
- As a consequence, you must divide the measure by its standard error, and you need to do this by hand, using a calculator.
- This will give you the z-value, which, as I said, should be somewhere within -1.96 to +1.96. Let us start with the males in our example.
- To calculate the skewness z-value, divide the skewness measure by its standard error.
- If all z-values are within ±1.96. We can conclude that the exam score data are a little skewed and kurtotic, for both males and females, but they do not differ significantly from normality.

Step 5. Check the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov- Smirnov tests statistic.

- The null hypothesis for this test of normality is that the data are normally distributed.
- The null hypothesis is rejected if the p-value is below 0.05.
- In SPSS output, the p-value is labeled "Sig".
- In our example, the p-values for males and females are above 0.05, so we keep the null hypothesis.
- The Shapiro-Wilk test thus indicates that our example data are approximately normally distributed.
 - Test of Normality By Shapiro Test
 - (Sig.) or P-value ≥ 0.05 (Normality)

Graphical Methods

- <u>Step 6.</u> Next, let us look at the graphical figures, for both male and female data.
- Inspect the histograms visually. They should have the approximate shape of a normal curve.
- Then, look at the normal Q-Q plot. The dots should be approximately distributed along the line.
- This indicates that the data are approximately normally distributed. Skip the Detrended Q-Q plots. You do not need them.
- Finally, look at the box plots and histogram. They should be approximately symmetrical.

Homogeneity test About Writing out the results:

- I would put it under the sub-heading
 - "Sample characteristics"

- <u>Results</u>
- A Shapiro-Wilk 's test (P=0.083 and 0.803 > 0.05) for both males and females respectively (Shapiro-Wilks 1965; Razali and Wahi 2011) and a visual inspection of their histogram, normal Q-Q plots, P-P plots and boxplots showed that the exam scores were approximately normally distributed for both males and females with a skewness of 0.175 (SE=0.687) and a kurtosis of -1.144 (standard error SE=1.334) for Female and a skewness of -1.037 (SE=0.687) and a kurtosis of 0.03 (SE=1.334) for males (Cramer, 1998; Howih, 2004 and Doane, 2011).
- A Levene 's test verified the equality of variances in the samples (homogeneity of variance) (P > 0.05) (Martin and Bridgmou,2012)
 4- Assumption of scale of Measurement

The dependent variable must be on a continuous scale (interval or ratio)

Descriptives

[DataSet0]

| ſ | | | | | | [|)escriptive (| Statistics | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------------|------------|----------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | | Ν | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Sum | Me | an | Std. Deviation | Variance | Skew | ness | Kurt | osis |
| M | | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| | Scores | 20 | 29.00 | 65.00 | 94.00 | 1624.00 | 81.2000 | 1.57213 | 7.03076 | 49.432 | 391- | .512 | .567 | .992 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 20 | | | | | | | | | | | | |





Tests of Normality

| | | Kolm | ogorov-Smii | rnov ^a | Shapiro-Wilk | | | | |
|--------|--------|-----------|-------------|-------------------|--------------|----|------|--|--|
| | Gender | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. | | |
| Scores | Female | .103 | 10 | .200 | .961 | 10 | .802 | | |
| | Male | .293 | 10 | .015 | .863 | 10 | .083 | | |

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

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

• (Sig.) or P-value ≥ 0.05 (Normality)

Descriptives

| | Gender | | | Statistic | Std. Error | |
|--------|--------|-------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|------|
| Scores | Female | Mean | | 84.9000 | 1.83455 | |
| | | 95% Confidence Interval | Lower Bound | 80.7500 | | |
| | / | for Mean | Upper Bound | 89.0500 | | |
| | | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 84.8333 | | |
| | | Median | | 84.5000 | | |
| | | Variance | | 33.656 | | |
| | | Std. Deviation | | 5.80134 | | |
| | | Minimum | | 77.00 | | |
| | | Maximum | | 94.00 | | |
| | | Range | | 17.00 | | |
| | | Interquartile Range | | 10.25 | | es l |
| | | ▲Skewness | | .175 | .687 | Scol |
| | | Kurtosis | | -1.144- | 1.334 | |
| | Male | Mean | | 77.5000 | 2.00693 | |
| | 1 | 95% Confidence Interval | Lower Bound | 72.9600 | | |
| | | for Mean | Upper Bound | 82.0400 | | |
| | | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 77.8333 | | |
| | | Median | | 79.0000 | | |
| | | Variance | | 40.278 | | |
| | | Std. Deviation | | 6.34648 | | |
| | | Minimum | | 65.00 | | |
| | | Maximum | | 84.00 | | |
| | | Range | | 19.00 | | |
| | | Interquartile Range | | 10.75 | | |
| | | Skewness | | -1.037- | .687 | |
| | | Kurtosis | | 030- | 1.334 | |



Homogeneity test About Writing out the results:

• I would put it under the sub-heading

• "Sample characteristics"

- <u>Results</u>
- A Shapiro-Wilk 's test (P=0.083 and 0.803 > 0.05) for both males and females respectively (Shapiro-Wilks 1965; Razali and Wahi 2011) and a visual inspection of their histogram, normal Q-Q plots, P-P plots and box-plots showed that the exam scores were approximately normally distributed for both males and females with a skewness of 0.175 (SE=0.687) and a kurtosis of -1.144 (standard error SE=1.334) for Female and a skewness of -1.037 (SE=0.687) and a kurtosis of - 0.03 (SE=1.334) for males (Cramer, 1998; Howih,2004 and Doane, 2011).
- A Levene 's test verified the equality of variances in the samples (homogeneity of variance) (P > 0.05) (Martin and Bridgmou,2012)
 - Shapiro, S.S. and Wilk, M.B. (1965). An Analysis of Variance Test for Normality (Complete Samples). *Biometrika*, Vol. 52, No. 3/4, pp. 591-611.
- Razali, Nornadiah; Wah, Yap Bee (2011). <u>"Power comparisons of Shapiro–Wilk,</u> <u>Kolmogorov–Smirnov, Lilliefors and Anderson–Darling tests"</u>. Journal of Statistical Modeling and Analytics. 2 (1): 21–33

All Types of Tests

| الاختبار المستخدم . | المتعيرات المصاحبة | عدد المتغيرات المستقلة | عدد المتغيرات التابعة عمي |
|------------------------------|--|---|---|
| One sample t test | \times | \times | 1 |
| Independent sample t test | × | 1 (ثنائی) | 1 |
| Paird sample t test | × | \times | 2 |
| ANOVA | × | 1 (متعدد) | 1 |
| Two way ANOVA ANCOVA | × | 2(متعدد) 1(متعدد) | 1 |
| Repeated Measurements | \times | \mathbf{x} | أكثر من 2 |
| MANOVA | \times | 1 (متعدد) | أكثر من 1 |
| Two way MANOVA | × | 2(متعدد) 1(متعدد) | أكثر من 1 أكثر من 1 |
| | One sample t test One sample t test Independent sample t test Paird sample t test ANOVA Two way ANOVA ANCOVA Repeated Measurements MANOVA Two way MANOVA | ImalianIterationOne sample t testImale ImaleIndependent sample t testImale ImalePaird sample t testImale ImaleANOVA Two way ANOVA ANOVA ANOVA MANOVAImale ImaleRepeated MeasurementsImale ImaleMANOVA Two way MANOVAImale ImaleMANOVA Two way MANOVAImale ImaleMANOVA Two way MANOVAImale Imale< | العنائيةالاعتبار السندم.One sample t test××Independent sample t test×(الانتاني) 1Paird sample t test××ANOVA×(الانتاني) 1Two way ANOVA×(الانتاني) 1Two way ANOVA×(الانتاني) 1Repeated Measurements××MANOVA×(الانتاني) 1Two way ANCOVA×(الانتاني) 1Repeated Measurements×(الانتاني) 1Two way MANOVA×((الانتاني) 1)Two way MANOVA×((()) 1)Two way MANOVA×(()) 1Two way MANOVA×(()) 1 |

6-

دماذج مقارنة المتوسطات Comparing Means Models

المتهاديك القروش متومنطلت distal Nama **Testing Hypotheses** Parametric متغور تنبع أحلاي Univertate Dependent . مكتريز ممنقان مكقن ممشقل أيلس متكرد شوى ولعد له أيمة فرضية فلوى ولحد لله an المر من الدين value عمي فلط مثال: هل تختلف متال: هل تختلف مثال: هل تختلف متال: هل تختلف متزسط نزجه متوسط درجة الامتحان متوسط درجه متوسط درجة الامتحان التحريرى التحريري الأول عن الامتجان التحريرى الامتحان التعريرى بين المجمع عات الثاني ؟ (غَبِل يختلف بن مجموعتى \$ 5 3= الثلاثة المفتقة؟ عن بعد ؟) المنتين والمشات؟ اختيار تحليل اختيار (ت) اختبار (ت) اختيار (ت) التباين لنعينات المرتيطة للعيشات المستقلبة نعيتة واحدة ANOVA Analyze-Analyze-Analyze-Compare means-Compare means-Analyze-Compare Paired-sample T Independent-Compare means- One-Test means- Onesample T Test ... sample T Test ... Hay ANOLA ... د. عز حسن عبد المذاج

to shake the set of the

Single Population Mean

- When σ is known, not likely in most cases, conduct the z-test
- When σ is not known, conduct the t-test
- What if N is large (large sample)? The z-test and t-test produce almost the same result. Therefore, t-test is more useful and practical.
- Most software packages support the t-test with p-values reported.

Requirements for Testing Claims About a Population Mean (with σ Known)

1) The sample is a simple random sample.

2) The value of the population standard deviation σ is known.

3) Either or both of these conditions is satisfied: The population is normally distributed or n > 30.

Single Population mean T-test

This section presents methods for testing a claim about a population mean when we do not know the value of σ . The methods of this section use the Student *t* distribution introduced earlier.

Type of the T-test

One-sample t-test compares one sample mean with a hypothesized value

Paired sample t-test (dependent sample) compares the means of two dependent variables

Independent sample t-test compares the means of two independent variables

Equal variance Unequal variance

Requirements for Testing Claims About a Population Mean (with σ Not Known)

-) The sample is a simple random sample.
- 2) The value of the population standard deviation σ is not known.

3) Either or both of these conditions is satisfied: The population is normally distributed or n > 30.



one-sample t-test

- The one-sample t-test is used to determine whether a sample comes from a population with a specific mean.
- This population mean is not always known, but is sometimes hypothesized.
- For example, you want to show that a new teaching method for pupils struggling to learn English grammar can improve their grammar skills to the national average.
- Your sample would be pupils who received the new teaching method and your population mean would be the national average score.
- Alternately, you believe that doctors that work in Accident and Emergency (A & E) departments work 100 hour per week despite the dangers (e.g., tiredness) of working such long hours. You sample 1000 doctors in A & E departments and see if their hours differ from 100 hours.

- There is a five-step procedure that systematizes hypothesis testing;
- when we get to step 5, we are ready to reject or not reject the hypothesis.

Hypothesis Testing Procedures



- 1. Start with a well-developed, clear research problem or question
- 2. Establish hypotheses, both null and alternative
- 3. Determine appropriate statistical test and sampling distribution
- 4. Choose the Type I error rate
- 5. State the decision rule
- 6. Gather sample data
- 7. Calculate test statistics
- 8. State statistical conclusion
- 9. Make decision or inference based on conclusion

σ known or unknown?

- As with confidence intervals, there are two types of single-sample hypothesis tests:
 - **1**. When the population standard deviation σ is known or given
 - 2. When the population standard deviation σ is NOT known and therefore we have to use an estimate, s
- When σ is known, we use the normal standard, or z-distribution, to establish the nonrejection region and critical values.
- When σ is NOT known, we use the t-distribution instead
 - Every sample size has it's own t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom.
- Some instructors/books will indicate that using the z-distribution is acceptable any time $n \ge 30$
 - I prefer to use the t-distribution anytime σ is unknown and n < 100. If $n \ge 100$, then I always use the z-distribution
- It is always good to check the sample data for normality; better safe than sorry

THE HYPOTHESIZED VS TRUE MEAN

 $H_0: \ \mu = \mu_0 \qquad \qquad H_a: \ \mu \neq \mu_0$

 μ is the **true** mean of the population under analysis

 μ_0 is the **hypothesized** mean of the population under analysis

"Is the true mean the same as the hypothesized mean?" We will test that question using sample means and confidence intervals.





The Two-tailed t-Test Rejection Region, n = 20





Determining When to Use the z Distribution or the t Distribution

Testing for a Population Mean: Known Population Standard Deviation : A Two-Tailed Test

Example: Jamestown Steel Company manufactures and assembles desks and other office equipment at several plants in western New York state. The weekly production of the Model A325 desk at the Fredonia Plant follows a normal probability distribution with a mean of 200 and a standard deviation of 16. Recently, because of market expansion, new production methods have been introduced and new employees hired. The vice president of manufacturing would like to investigate whether there has been a change in the weekly production of the Model A325 desk. Is the mean number of desks produced at the Fredonia Plant different from 200 at the

0.01 significance level?

- In this example, we know two important pieces of information:
- (1) the population of weekly production follows the normal distribution, and

(2) the standard deviation of this normal distribution is 16 desks per we H_0 : $\mu = 200$ appropriate to use the z statistic for this problem. We use the statistical hypothesis procedure to investigate whether the production rate has changed from 200 per H_1 : $\mu \neq 200$ Step 1: State the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.

This is a two-tailed test because the alternate hypothesis does not state

a direction. In other words, it does not state whether the mean production is greater than 200 or less than 200. The vice president wants only to find out whether the production rate is different from 200.

Step 2: Select the level of significance. As we indicated in the Problem, the significance level is 0.01. This is α , the probability of committing a Type I error, and it is the probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis.

Step 3: Select the test statistic. The test statistic is z when the population standard deviation is known. Transforming the processing the procesing the processing the processing the processing the

not only in this problem but also is repeated below with the variou



Step 4: Formulate the decision rule. The decision rule is formulated by finding the critical values of z from Appendix B.1. Since this is a two-tailed test, half of 0.01, or (0.01/2) 0.005, is placed in each tail. The area where H0 is not rejected, located between the two tails, is therefore 0.99. Appendix B.1 is based on half of the area under the curve, or 0.5000. Then, 0.5000 – 0.005 is 0.4950, so 0.4950 is the area between 0 and the critical value.

Locate 0.4950 in the body of the table. The value nearest to 0.4950 is 0.4951. Then read the critical value in the row and column corresponding to 0.4951. It is 2.58. For your convenience, Appendix B.1, Areas under the Normal Curve. The decision rule is, therefore: Reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis (which states that the population mean is not 200) if the computed value of z is not between -2.58 and +2.58. Do not

Decision Rule for the .01 Significance reject the null hypothesis if z falls between -2.58 and +2.58evel

Step 5: Make a decision and interpret the result. Take a sample from the population (weekly production), compute z, apply the decision rule, and arrive at a decision to reject H0 or not to reject H0

. The mean number of desks produced last year (50 weeks, because the plant was shut down 2 weeks for vacation) is 203.5. The standard deviation

of the population is 16 desks per week. Computing the z value from formula (10–1): Because 1.55 does not fall in the rejection region, H0 is not rejected. We conclude that the population mean is not different from 200. So we would report to the vice president of manufacturing that the sample evidence does not show that the production rate at the Fredonia Plant has changed from 200 per week.

The difference of 3.5 units between the historical weekly production rate and that last year can reasonably be attributed to sampling error. This information is summarized in the following chart.



$$z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{203.5 - 200}{16/\sqrt{50}} = 1.55$$

• Did we prove that the assembly rate is still 200 per week? Not really. What we did, technically, was fail to disprove the null hypothesis. Failing to disprove the hypothesis that the population mean is 200 is not the same thing as proving it to be true. As we suggested in the chapter introduction, the conclusion is analogous to the American judicial system.

• To explain, suppose a person is accused of a crime but is acquitted by a jury. If a person is acquitted of a crime, the conclusion is that there was not enough evidence to



prove the person guilty. The trial did not prove that the individual was innocent, only that there was not enough evidence to prove the defendant guilty. That is what we do in statistical hypothesis testing when we do not reject the null hypothesis. The correct interpretation is that we have failed to disprove the null hypothesis.

- We selected the significance level, 0.01 in this case, before setting up the decision rule and sampling the population. This is the appropriate strategy. The significance level should be set by the investigator, but it should be determined before gathering the sample evidence and not changed based on the sample evidence.
- How does the hypothesis testing procedure just described compare with that of confidence intervals discussed in the previous chapter? When we conducted the test of hypothesis regarding the production of desks, we changed the units from desks per week to a z value. Then we compared the computed value of the test statistic (1.55) to that of the critical values (-2.58 and 2.58). Because the
- computed value was in the region where the null hypothesis was not rejected, we concluded that the population mean could be 200. To use the confidence interval approach, on the other hand, we $203.5 \pm 2.58(16/\sqrt{50})$ fidence interval, based. The interval would be from 197.66 to 209.34, found by Note that the proposed population value, 200, is within this interval. Hence, we would conclude that the population mean could reasonably be 200.
- In general, H0 is rejected if the confidence interval does not include the hypothesized value.
- If the confidence interval includes the hypothesized value, then H0 is not rejected. So the "do not reject region" for a test of hypothesis is equivalent to the proposed population value occurring in the confidence interval. The primary difference between a confidence interval and the "do not reject" region for a hypothesis test is whether the interval is centered around the sample statistic such as as in the confidence interval or around 0 as in the test of hypothesis

• **اتخاذ قرار المعنوية من حدود الثقة بطريقتين**
$$\overline{x} \pm z \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

How does the hypothesis testing procedure just described compare with that of confidence intervals discussed in the previous chapter? When we conducted the test of hypothesis regarding the production of desks, we changed the units from desks per week to a z value. Then we compared the computed value of the test statistic (1.55) to that of the critical values (-2.58 and 2.58). Because the computed value was in the region where the null hypothesis was not rejected, we concluded that the population mean could be 200. To use the confidence interval approach, on the other hand, we would develop a confidence interval, based. The interval would be from 197.66 to 209.34, found by

Note that the proposed population value, 200, is within this interval. Hence, we would conclude that the population mean could reasonably be 200.

| DIII ± Z* SE |
|--------------------------------------|
| Diff $\pm 2.58(16/\sqrt{50})$ |
| $(203.5 - 200) \pm 2.58 \pm 2.26$ |

 $H_0: \mu = 200$ $H_1: \mu \neq 200$

| OR | μ | -200 | = | zero |
|----|---|------|---|------|
| | μ | -200 | ¥ | zero |

وبناءا على هذا يمكن اخذ القرار من حدود الثقة المذكورة في الجدول السابق والتي تمثل حدود الثقة للفرق بين متوسط المجتمع الحقيقي ومتوسط العينة المقدرة 9.33 ≤2.33 ≤ 4 -x فاذا كان الصفر يقع داخل هذة الحدود فاننا نقبل النظرية الفرضية واذا لم يقع فاننا نرفض النظرية الفرضية وحيث ان الصفر لا يقع لذا تم رفض النظرية الفرضية اي نرفض الفرض العدمي وهي نفس النتيجة التي تحصلنا عليها من حدود الثقة العادية

| A One-Tailed | | | A two-tai | led test: | | A one-tail | ed test: |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|-----------------------------|
| Test | | | <i>H</i> ₀ : μ = | = 200 | | <i>H</i> ₀: μ ≤ | 200 |
| | | | <i>H</i> ₁: μ ≠ | ± 200 | | H_1 : $\mu >$ | 200 |
| Two-tailed test $H_0: \mu = 200$ $H_1: \mu \neq 200$ | | One-t <i>H</i> ₀ : <i>H</i> ₁ : | tailed test $\mu \le 200$ $\mu > 200$ | | For the test, th value i by: | e one-tail 1e critica is 2.33, fo | ed l und |
| H_0 is not rejected H_0 is not rejected H_0 is not rejected P_0 | , <u> </u> | H | 6 is not ejected | .01 Region of rejection | (1) su fro (2) (2) va co to | btracting om 0.5000 finding t lue rrespond 0.4900. | 0.01 and the z ing |
| Critical Critical | - | | Crit | ical | | | |
| Value | 7 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 0.03 | 0.04 | |
| | 0.0 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8 0.9 1.0 1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4 1.5 | 0.0000 0.0398 0.0793 0.1179 0.1554 0.1915 0.2257 0.2580 0.2881 0.3159 0.3413 0.3643 0.3849 0.4032 0.4192 0.4332 | 0.0040 0.0438 0.0832 0.1217 0.1591 0.2910 0.2910 0.3186 0.3438 0.3665 0.3869 0.4049 0.4207 0.4345 | 0.0080 0.0478 0.0871 0.1255 0.1628 0.1985 0.2324 0.2642 0.2939 0.3212 0.3461 0.3686 0.3888 0.4066 0.4222 0.4357 | 0.0 20 0.0 317 0.0)10 0.1 293 0.1 664 0.2 119 0.2 357 0.2 573 0.2 573 0.2 67 0.3 238 0.3 85 0.3 08 0.3 07 0.4 82 0.4 236 0.4 370 | 0.0160 0.0557 0.0948 0.1331 0.1700 0.2054 0.2389 0.2704 0.2995 0.3264 0.3508 0.3729 0.3925 0.4099 0.4251 0.4382 | |
| | 1.6 1.7 1.8 1.9 2.0 2.1 2.2 2.3 ◀ | 0.4452 0.4554 0.4641 0.4713 0.4772 0.4821 0.4861 0.4861 | 0.4463 0.4564 0.4649 0.4719 0.4778 0.4826 0.4864 0.4864 | 0.4474 0.4573 0.4656 0.4726 0.4783 0.4830 0.4868 0.4868 | 0.4 84 0.4 82 0.4 64 0.4 32 0.4 88 0.4 88 0.4 34 9.4571 0.4901 | 0.4495 0.4591 0.4671 0.4738 0.4793 0.4838 0.4875 0.4904 | |

P-Value in Hypothesis Testing

- In testing a hypothesis, we compare the test statistic to a critical value. A decision is made to either reject the null hypothesis or not to reject it. So, for example, if the critical value is 1.96 and the computed value of the test statistic is 2.19, the decision is to reject the null hypothesis.
- In recent years, spurred by the availability of computer software, additional information is often reported on the strength of the rejection or acceptance. That is, how confident are we in rejecting the null hypothesis? This approach reports the probability (assuming that the null hypothesis is true) of getting a value of the test statistic at least as extreme as the value actually obtained.
- This process compares the probability, called the p-value, with the significance level. If the pvalue is smaller than the significance level, H0 is rejected. If it is larger than the significance level, H0 is not rejected.
- **p-VALUE** The probability of observing a sample value as extreme as, or more extreme than, the value observed, given that the null hypothesis is true.
- Determining the p-value not only results in a decision regarding H0, but it gives us additional insight into the strength of the decision. A very small p-value, such as 0.0001, indicates that there is little likelihood the H0 is true.
- On the other hand, a p-value of 0.2033 means that H0 is not rejected, and there is little likelihood that it

is false.

- How do we compute the p-value? To illustrate, we will use the example in which we tested the null hypothesis that the mean number of desks produced per week at Fredonia was 200. We did not reject the null hypothesis, because the z value of 1.55 fell in the region between -2.58 and 2.58.
- We agreed not to reject the null hypothesis if the computed value of z fell in this region. The probability of finding a z value of 1.55 or more is 0.0606, found by 0.5000 0.4394.
- To put it another way, the probability of obtaining an greater than 203.5 if μ =200 is 0.0606.
- To compute the p-value, we need to be concerned with the region less than -1.55 as well as the values greater than 1.55 (because the rejection region is in both tails).
- The two-tailed p-value is 0.1212, found by 2(0.0606).
- The p-value of 0.1212 is greater than the significance level of 0.01 decided upon initially, so H0 is not rejected.
- The details are shown in the following graph. In general, the area is doubled in a two sided test

A p-value is a way to express the likelihood that H0 is false. But how do we interpret a p-value? We have already said that if the p-value is less than the significance level, then we reject H0; if it is greater than the significance level, then we do not reject H0. Also, if the p-value is very large, then it is likely that H0 is true. If the p-value is small, then it is likely that H0 is not true. The following box will help to interpret p-values.



INTERPRETING THE WEIGHT OF EVIDENCE AGAINST H0

If the p-value is less than

- (a) **0.10**, we have some evidence that H0 is not true.
- (b) 0.05, we have strong evidence that H0 is not true.
- (c) 0.01, we have very strong evidence that H0 is not true.
- (d) 0.001, we have extremely strong evidence that H0 is not true.

10.8 Testing for a Population Mean: Population Standard Deviation Unknown

In the preceding example, we knew σ , the population standard deviation, and that the population followed the normal distribution. In most cases, however, the population standard deviation is unknown. Thus, σ must be based on prior studies or estimated by the sample standard deviation, s. The population standard deviation in the following example is not known, so the sample standard deviation is used to estimate σ .

To find the value of the test statistic, we use the t distribution and revise formula [10–1] as follows:

TESTING A MEAN,
$$\sigma$$
 UNKNOWN $t = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ [10–2]

with n - 1 degrees of freedom, where:

- \overline{X} is the sample mean.
- μ is the hypothesized population mean.
- s is the sample standard deviation.
- *n* is the number of observations in the sample.

We encountered this same situation when constructing confidence intervals in the previous chapter. See pages 306-312 in Chapter 9. We summarized this problem in Chart 9–3 on page 309. Under these conditions, the correct statistical procedure is to replace the standard normal distribution with the *t* distribution. To review, the major characteristics of the *t* distribution are:

- It is a continuous distribution.
- It is bell-shaped and symmetrical.
- There is a family of *t* distributions. Each time the degrees of freedom change, a new distribution is created.
- As the number of degrees of freedom increases, the shape of the *t* distribution approaches that of the standard normal distribution.
- The *t* distribution is flatter, or more spread out, than the standard normal distribution.

The following example shows the details.

Four Assumptions <u>One Sample T-test</u>

- <u>Assumption #1:</u> Your dependent variable (Measure) should be measured at the interval or ratio level (i.e., continuous) (scale in SPSS). Examples of variables that meet this criterion include revision time (measured in hours), intelligence (measured using IQ score), exam performance (measured from 0 to 100), weight (measured in kg), and so forth.
- <u>Assumption</u> <u>#2</u>: The data are independent (i.e., not correlated/related), which means that there is no relationship between the observations. This is more of a study design issue than something you can test for, but it is an important assumption of the one-sample t-test.
- <u>Assumption #3</u>: There should be no significant outliers. Outliers are data points within your data that do not follow the usual pattern (e.g., in a study of 100 students' IQ scores, where the mean score was 108 with only a small variation between students, one student had a score of 156, which is very unusual, and may even put her in the top 1% of IQ scores globally). The problem with outliers is that they can have a negative effect on the one-sample t-test, reducing the accuracy of your results. Fortunately, when using SPSS to run a one-sample t-test on your data, you can easily detect possible outliers.
- <u>Assumption #4</u>: Your dependent variable should be approximately normally distributed. We talk about the one-sample t-test only requiring approximately normal data because it is quite "robust" to violations of normality, meaning that the assumption can be a little violated and still provide valid results. You can test for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality,

T- test two tails

The mean length of a small counterbalance bar is 43 millimeters. The production supervisor is concerned that the adjustments of the machine producing the bars have changed. He asks the Engineering Department to investigate. Engineering selects a random sample of 12 bars and measures each. The results are reported below in millimeters.



Is it reasonable to conclude that there has been a change in the mean length of the bars? Use the .02 significance level.

We begin by stating the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis.

The alternate hypothesis does not state a direction, so this is a two-tailed test. There are 11 degrees of freedom, found by n - 1 = 12 - 1 = 11. The *t* value is 2.718, found by referring to Appendix B.2 for a two-tailed test, using the .02 significance level, with 11 degrees of freedom. The decision rule is: Reject the null hypothesis if the computed *t* is to the left of -2.718 or to the right of 2.718. This information is summarized in Chart 10–7.



CHART 10–7 Regions of Rejection, Two-Tailed Test, Student's t Distribution, $\alpha = .02$

We calculate the standard deviation of the sample using formula (3–11). The mean, \overline{X} , is 41.5 millimeters, and the standard deviation, *s*, is 1.784 millimeters. The details are shown in Table 10–2.



Now we are ready to compute the value of t, using formula (10–2).

$$t = \frac{X - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{41.5 - 43.0}{1.784/\sqrt{12}} = -2.913$$

The null hypothesis that the population mean is 43 millimeters is rejected because the computed t of -2.913 lies in the area to the left of -2.718. We accept the alternate hypothesis and conclude that the population mean is not 43 millimeters. The machine is out of control and needs adjustment.

TABLE 10–3 A Portion of Student's t Distribution

| | Confidence Intervals | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------------|-------|--|-------|-----|----------------|-----|--------|--|--------|--|--|
| | 80% | 90% | | 95% | | 98% | | 99% | | 99.9% | | |
| | Level of S | | | | ice | for One-Tailed | t t | est, α | | | | |
| df | 0.10 | 0.05 | | .0025 | | 0.01 | | 0.005 | | 0.0005 | | |
| | Level of S | | | | ice | for Two-Tailed | t t | est, α | | | | |
| | 0.20 | 0.10 | | 0.05 | | 0.02 | | 0.01 | | 0.001 | | |
| : | ÷ | ÷ | | ÷ | | ÷ | | ÷ | | ÷ | | |
| 9 | 1.383 | 1.833 | | 2.262 | | 2.821 | | 3.250 | | 4.781 | | |
| 10 | 1.372 | 1.812 | | 2.228 | | 2.764 | | 3.169 | | 4.587 | | |
| 11 | 1.363 | 1.796 | | 2.201 | | 2.718 | | 3.106 | | 4.437 | | |
| 12 | 1.356 | 1.782 | | 2.179 | | 2.681 | | 3.055 | | 4.318 | | |
| 13 | 1.350 | 1.771 | | 2.160 | | 2.650 | | 3.012 | | 4.221 | | |
| 14 | 1.345 | 1.761 | | 2.145 | | 2.624 | | 2.977 | | 4.140 | | |
| 15 | 1.341 | 1.753 | | 2.131 | | 2.602 | | 2.947 | | 4.073 | | |

Example of test of one sample by t-test T- test One tail

The McFarland Insurance Company Claims Department reports the mean cost to process a claim is \$60. An industry comparison showed this amount to be larger than most other insurance companies, so the company instituted cost-cutting measures. To evaluate the effect of the cost-cutting measures, the Supervisor of the Claims Department selected a random sample of 26 claims processed last month. The sample information is reported in the following.

| \$45 | \$49 | \$62 | \$40 | \$43 | \$61 |
|------|------------------------------|---|--|---|--|
| 48 | 53 | 67 | 63 | 78 | 64 |
| 48 | 54 | 51 | 56 | 63 | 69 |
| 58 | 51 | 58 | 59 | 56 | 57 |
| 38 | 76 | | | | |
| | \$45 48 48 58 38 | \$45 \$49 48 53 48 54 58 51 38 76 | \$45 \$49 \$62 48 53 67 48 54 51 58 51 58 38 76 58 | \$45 \$49 \$62 \$40 48 53 67 63 48 54 51 56 58 51 58 59 38 76 58 59 | \$45 \$49 \$62 \$40 \$43 48 53 67 63 78 48 54 51 56 63 58 51 58 59 56 38 76 58 59 56 |

At the .01 significance level, is it reasonable to conclude that the mean cost to process a claim is now less than \$60?

We will use the five-step hypothesis testing procedure.

$$t=\frac{\overline{X}-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

Step 1: State the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis. The null hypothesis is that the population mean is at least \$60. The alternate hypothesis is that the population mean is less than \$60. We can express the null and alternate hypotheses as follows:

$$H_0: \mu \ge $60$$

 $H_1: \mu < 60

The test is *one*-tailed because we want to determine whether there has been a *reduction* in the cost. The inequality in the alternate hypothesis points to the region of rejection in the left tail of the distribution.

- Step 2: Select the level of significance. We decided on the .01 significance level.
- Step 3: Select the test statistic. The test statistic in this situation is the *t* distribution. Why? First it is reasonable to conclude that the distribution of the cost per claim follows the normal distribution. We can confirm this from the histogram in the center of the following Minitab output. Observe the normal distribution superimposed on the frequency distribution.

Step 4: Formulate the decision rule.

df = n-1 = 26 -1 = 25 and alpha =

| ABLE | BLE 10–1 A Portion of the <i>t</i> Distribution Table | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|--|-------|----------|--|-------|--------|-------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | Confidence Intervals | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 80% | 98% | 99% | 99.9% | | | | | | | | |
| | Level of Significance for One-Tailed Test, α | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | df | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.025 | 0.005 | 0.0005 | | | | | | | |
| | | | Level of | f Significance for Two-Tailed Test, ${f lpha}$ | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 0.20 | 0.10 | 0.05 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.001 | | | | | | |
| | : | : | : | : | : | : | : | | | | | | |
| | 21 | 1.323 | 1.721 | 2.080 | 2.518 | 2.831 | 3.819 | | | | | | |
| | 22 | 1.321 | 1.717 | 2.074 | 2.508 | 2.819 | 3.792 | | | | | | |
| | 23 | 1.319 | 1.714 | 2.069 | 2.500 | 2.807 | 3.768 | | | | | | |
| | 24 | 1.318 | 1.711 | 2.064 | 2.492 | 2.797 | 3.745 | | | | | | |
| | 25 | 1.316 | 1.708 | 2.060 | 2.485 | 2.787 | 3.725 | | | | | | |
| | 26 | 1.315 | 1.706 | 2.056 | 2.479 | 2.779 | 3.707 | | | | | | |



$$t = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\$56.42 - \$60}{\$10.04/\sqrt{26}} = -1.818$$

Fail to reject or Accept H0 $H_0: \mu \ge 60 $H_1: \mu < 60
$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum x}{n} = \frac{45 + 49 + 62 + \dots + 38 + 76}{26} = 56.2 = 5$$

Calculate standard deviation of sample (S) $\frac{58}{38}$ $\frac{51}{76}$ $\frac{58}{76}$ $\frac{59}{76}$ First calculate variance (S²) = Mean Sum of Square (MS) (S²) SS = Sum of Square = $\sum (X - \overline{X})^2 = \sum X^2 - \frac{(\sum X)^2}{n}$

$$S^{2} = \frac{SS}{n-1} = \frac{\sum(X-\overline{X})^{2}}{n-1} = \frac{\sum X^{2} - \frac{(\sum X)^{2}}{n}}{n-1} = \frac{(45^{2}+49^{2}+....+76^{2}) - \frac{(45+49+...+76)^{2}}{26}}{25} = 100.814$$

 $S = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{100.814} = 10.04$

$$S^{2} = \frac{SS}{n-1} = \frac{\sum(X-\overline{X})^{2}}{n-1} = \frac{(45-56.5)^{2}+(49-56.5)^{2}+\dots+(76-56.5)^{2}}{25} = 100.814$$

 $S = \sqrt{S^2} = \sqrt{100.814} = 10.04$

 $\overline{X} = 56.2, S = 10.04, U = 60 and n = 26$

$$t = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\$56.42 - \$60}{\$10.04/\sqrt{26}} = -1.818$$

Assumptions one-sample t-test

- When you choose to analyses your data using a one-sample t-test, part of the process involves checking to make sure that the data you want to analyses can actually be analyzed using a one-sample t-test.
- You need to do this because it is only appropriate to use a one-sample t-test if your data "passes" four assumptions that are required for a one-sample t-test to give you a valid result.
- In practice, checking for these four assumptions just adds a little bit more time to your analysis, requiring you to click a few more buttons in SPSS when performing your analysis, as well as think a little bit more about your data, but it is not a difficult task.
- Before we introduce you to these four assumptions,
- do not be surprised if, when analysing your own data using SPSS, one or more of these assumptions is violated (i. e., is not met).
- This is not uncommon when working with real-world data rather than textbook examples, which often only show you how to carry out a one-sample t-test when everything goes well!
- However, don't worry. Even when your data fails certain

SPSS calculations

- NOTE: SPSS only gives us the *p*-value for a 2-tailed *t*-test.
- In order to convert this value into a one-tailed test, per our example, we need to divide this 'sig (2 tailed)' value in half (e.g., 0.025/2=0.01, rounded).
- Why?
- In short, one-tailed *t*-tests are twice as powerful, because we simply assume that the results cannot be different in the direction opposite to our expectations.

Big *t* Little *p* ?

- Remember from a previous session that every *t*-value that we might calculate is associated with a unique *p*-value.
- In general, *t*-values which are large in absolute magnitude are desirable, because they help us to demonstrate differences between our computed mean value and the standard.
- Values of *t* that are large in absolute magnitude are always associated with small *p*-values.

One sample t-test from Questioners اولا اجراء اختبار ت لمتوسط عينة واحدة من بيانات استمارة استبيان بدون مقياس ليكرت

5.1 بيانات لمقارنة المتوسطات

البيانات التالية والمسجلة على ملف (معمالمتوسطت أنه) تحتوى على تسعة متغيرات قيست على عدد 27 من طلاب أحد المراحل الجامعية، بعد تقسيمهم الى ثلاثة مجموعات ,A, B وهو متغير إسمي ف ثلاثى التقسيم. وقيست عليهم ثلاثة عوامل ديموغرافية ونتائج 5 اختبارات.

- العوامل الديموغرافية:
- 1 العمر بالشهور (Age) وهو متغير كمى
 2 النوع (Gender) وهو متغير إسمي
 3 ثنائى التقسيم.
 5 مستوى الذكاء (IQ) وهو متغير ترتيبي
 1 ثلاثى التقسيم.
 المتغيرات التابعة:
 - عامل استيعاب المادة الدراسية: وتحتوى على 3 متغيرات:
 درجة أسئلة الإمتحان التحريري الأول (Written1) للمحكي
 درجة أسئلة درجة أسئلة الإمتحان الشفوي (Oral) للمحكي
 درجة أسئلة امتحان المعمل (Practical) للحكي
 درجة أسئلة امتحان المعمل (Practical) للحكي
 درجة أسئلة الإمتحان المعمل (Practical) للحكي
 - 2 درجة أسئلة الإمتحان التحريري الثالث (Written3) 🕸
 - شكل المتغيرات من خلال Variable View

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| | 3 | | A | 224.00 | | viale | Low | 3. | 00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.00 | 7.00 |
| | 4 | | A | 240.00 | | viale | Low | 1.0 | 00 | 2.00 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 6.00 |
| | 5 | | A | 222.00 | F | emale | IVIIdel | 5. | 00 | 4.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 | 7.00 |
| | 6 | _ | A | 242.00 | F | emale | Midel | 6. | 00 | 7.00 | 9.00 | 7.00 | 9.00 |
| | / | | A | 239.00 | | Viale | Midel | 5. | 00 | 4.00 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 7.00 |
| | 8 | | A | 230.00 | | Viale | High | 10. | 00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 6.00 |
| | 9 | _ | A | 218.00 | F | emale | High | 8. | 00 | 8.00 | 7.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 |
| | 10 | _ | В | 222.00 | | Male | Low | 5. | 00 | 1.00 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 7.00 |
| | 11 | | В | 227.00 | | Male | Low | 7. | 00 | 5.00 | 8.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 |
| 1 | 12 | | В | 238.00 | | Male | Low | 4. | 00 | 7.00 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 6.00 |
| - | 13 | | В | 235.00 | F | emale | Midel | 8. | 00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 7.00 | 8.00 |
| - | 14 | | В | 240.00 | F | emale | Midel | 9. | 00 | 10.00 | 8.00 | 9.00 | 10.00 |
| | 15 | | В | 243.00 | F | emale | Midel | 9. | 00 | 7.00 | 7.00 | 7.00 | 7.00 |
| 1 | 16 | | В | 226.00 | | Male | High | 10. | 00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 8.00 |
| - | 17 | | В | 228.00 | | Male | High | 7. | 00 | 10.00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 9.00 |
| 1 | 18 | | В | 234.00 | | Male | High | 10. | 00 | 8.00 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 5.00 |
| - | 19 | | С | 231.00 | | Male | Low | 1.0 | 00 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 |
| 2 | 20 | | С | 229.00 | | Male | Low | 3. | 00 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.00 |
| 2 | 21 | | С | 230.00 | | Male | Low | 4. | 00 | 8.00 | 8.00 | 7.00 | 6.00 |
| 2 | 22 | | С | 233.00 | | Male | Low | 2. | 00 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 5.00 | 6.00 |
| 2 | 23 | | С | 235.00 | F | emale | Midel | 5. | 00 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 6.00 |
| 2 | 24 | | С | 228.00 | F | emale | Midel | 3. | 00 | 6.00 | 6.00 | 8.00 | 9.00 |
| 2 | 25 | | С | 240.00 | F | emale | Midel | 2. | 00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 8.00 | 8.00 |
| 2 | 26 | | С | 226.00 | | Male | High | 6. | 00 | 7.00 | 2.00 | 6.00 | 8.00 |
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4

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|--|--------------|------|--------------|-----------|----------------|--------|-----------------|-------|----------------|-------------------|-------|---------------|----------------|-------------|---------|------------|----------|
| <u>F</u> ile | <u>E</u> dit | View | <u>D</u> ata | Transform | <u>A</u> nalyz | e Dire | ct <u>M</u> ark | eting | <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilities | s Add | - <u>o</u> ns | <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> el | р | | |
| 6 | | |) 🔟 | | | | | | ų | h | *, | | | | | 1 | A 📀 🥊 |
| 18 : | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | G | iroup | Age | 0 | Gender | | IQ | Writ | tten1 | Or | al | Pract | cal | Writter | 1 2 | Written3 |
| | 1 | 1 | 1.00 | 216.00 | | 2.00 | | 1.00 | 4. | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 7.0 | 0 | 8.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 2 | 1 | 1.00 | 218.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 8. | 00 | 5.0 | 0 | 4.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 8.00 |
| | 3 | 1 | 1.00 | 224.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 3. | 00 | 5.0 | 0 | 5.0 | 0 | 4.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 4 | 1 | 1.00 | 240.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 1. | 00 | 2.0 | 0 | 2.0 |) | 4.00 | | 6.00 |
| | 5 | 1 | 1.00 | 222.00 | | 2.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 5. | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 7.0 |) | 8.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 6 | 1 | 1.00 | 242.00 | | 2.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 6. | 00 | 7.0 | 0 | 9.0 |) | 7.00 | | 9.00 |
| | 7 | 1 | 1.00 | 239.00 | | 1.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 5. | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 3.0 |) | 6.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 8 | 1 | 1.00 | 230.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 10 | .00 | 3.0 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 | 4.00 | | 6.00 |
| | 9 | 1 | 1.00 | 218.00 | | 2.00 | | 3.00 | 8. | 00 | 8.0 | 0 | 7.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 8.00 |
| | 10 | 2 | 2.00 | 222.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 5. | 00 | 1.0 | 0 | 6.0 | 0 | 6.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 11 | 2 | 2.00 | 227.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 7. | 00 | 5.0 | 0 | 8.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 8.00 |
| | 12 | 2 | 2.00 | 238.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 4. | 00 | 7.0 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 | 5.00 | | 6.00 |
| | 13 | 2 | 2.00 | 235.00 | | 2.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 8. | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 4.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 8.00 |
| | 14 | 2 | 2.00 | 240.00 | | 2.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 9. | 00 | 10.0 | 00 | 8.0 | 0 | 9.00 | | 10.00 |
| | 15 | 2 | 2.00 | 243.00 | | 2.00 | 1 | 2.00 | 9. | 00 | 7.0 | 0 | 7.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 7.00 |
| | 16 | 2 | 2.00 | 226.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 10 | .00 | 5.0 | 0 | 5.0 | 0 | 5.00 | | 8.00 |
| | 17 | 2 | 2.00 | 228.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 7. | 00 | 10.0 | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 4.00 | | 9.00 |
| | 18 | 2 | 2.00 | 234.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 10 | .00 | 8.0 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 | 6.00 | | 5.00 |
| | 19 | 3 | 3.00 | 231.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 1. | 00 | 3.0 | 0 | 3.0 | 0 | 5.00 | | 5.00 |
| 1 | 20 | 3 | 3.00 | 229.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 3. | 00 | 4.0 | 0 | 4.0 | 0 | 6.00 | | 5.00 |
| 1 | 21 | 3 | 3.00 | 230.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 4. | 00 | 8.0 | 0 | 8.0 | 0 | 7.00 | | 6.00 |
| 1 | 22 | 3 | 3.00 | 233.00 | | 1.00 | | 1.00 | 2. | 00 | 6.0 | 0 | 6.0 | 0 | 5.00 | | 6.00 |
| 1 | 23 | 3 | 3.00 | 235.00 | | 2.00 | | 2.00 | 5. | 00 | 6.0 | 0 | 6.0 | 0 | 6.00 | | 6.00 |
| 1 | 24 | 3 | 3.00 | 228.00 | | 2.00 | | 2.00 | 3. | 00 | 6.0 | 0 | 6.0 | 0 | 8.00 | | 9.00 |
| 1 | 25 | 3 | 3.00 | 240.00 | | 2.00 | | 2.00 | 2. | 00 | 5.0 | 0 | 5.0 | 0 | 8.00 | | 8.00 |
| 1 | 26 | 3 | 3.00 | 226.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 6. | 00 | 7.0 | 0 | 2.0 | 0 | 6.00 | | 8.00 |
| 1 | 27 | 3 | 3.00 | 234.00 | | 1.00 | | 3.00 | 8. | 00 | 8.0 | 0 | 6.0 | 0 | 9.00 | | 8.00 |
| 1 | 28 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 29 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Data View Variable View

5.2 وصف المتغيرات الكمية باستخدام أمر Means

يتم وصف المتغيرات الكمية 🖉 بالاستعانة ببعض المقاييس الإحصائية السابق عرضها، والتي لاتتواجد مع استخدام أمر Descriptives المستخدم في الفصل الثالث مثل الوسيط او الوسط الهندسي أو الوسط التوافقي أو ودراسة وقوع البيانات حول خط مستقيم Test for linearity ويتم الوصول الى امر ...Means من خلال الخطوات التالية:

| | truth actual of the low | A | nalyze —— | - | Com | pare | e Mean | ns — | → Means | |
|--------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|--|---------------------|--|--|---|-------------------|
| | sav (Datasett) - | TRIM 2522 201 | tistics Data Editor | | | | | | | |
| | <u>V</u> iew <u>D</u> ata | Transform | <u>Analyze</u> Direct <u>Marketing</u> | <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilities | Add- <u>o</u> ns | <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> el | lp | | |
| | | | Reports D <u>e</u> scriptive Statistics Tables |) | | *, | | \$ <u>2</u> | | |
| | Group | Aue | Compare Means | | | | | h | | |
| - | 1 00 | 216.00 | Compare Means | | Means | | | - | | |
| - | 1.00 | 218.00 | Generalized Linear Model | | Cone-S | ample T Te | est | - | | |
| - | 1.00 | 224.00 | Generalized Linear mode | 15 1 | 🚠 Indepe | nden <u>t</u> -San | nples T Test | | | |
| | 1.00 | 240.00 | Mixed Models | | 🚠 <u>P</u> aired | -Samples | T Test | | | |
| | 1.00 | 222.00 | | | 🚡 <u>O</u> ne-V | ay ANOVA | | - | | |
| | 1.00 | 242.00 | Regression | | 6.00 | 7.00 | 9.00 | | | |
| | 1.00 | 239.00 | Logimear Neurol Networke | | 5.00 | 4.00 | | | | ~ |
| | 1.00 | 230.00 | Clossify | | 0.00 | 3.00 | Means | | | |
| | 1.00 | 218.00 | Classily | | 3.00 | 8.00 | | | Dependent List: | Ontions |
| | 2.00 | 222.00 | Dimension Reduction | | 5.00 | 1.00 | پرر [Age] 🏈 | العمر بالت | درجة اسئلة الامتحان التحريري 🎻 | Options |
| | 2 00 | 227 00 | Scale | * | 00 | 5 00 | 🛛 💑 [Gender] | النوع | | <u>B</u> ootstrap |
| | | | يركمي 🕼 | فمتغ | ل 5.1 وص | متا | ل الذکاء [IQ] 📑 ان التفوی 🔗 | مستوي درجة استلة الامتحا | Layer 1 of 1 | |
| لتحريري لمجموعة | سئلة الإمتحان ال [∎] وبإدخال "ا. | نغير "درجة ال ائمة pendent List: | متوسطن السابقة لوصف من خط مستقيم، يتم ادخاله في ق Indepen كما في النافذة التالية:: | ات vest حول - dent List; | دة الى بيانا اسة وقوعه مة مستقلة | بالع ودر کقائ | مان العملي م الامتحان م الامتحان مم م | درجة استّلة امتد درجة استّلة درجة استّلة | Previous <u>N</u> ext Independent List: المجمر عة [Group] (| |
| | | | | | | | | ОК | Paste Reset Cancel Help | |

11

11

| بعض الاحصاءات | التى يتم فيها اختيار ب | بالضغط على (معامين انتحول الى النافذة التالية و |
|--|--|---|
| Geometric m) ات كما في النافذة | سط الهندسی (nean لمتأکد من خطیة البیانا | مثل الوسط التوافقى (Harmonic mean) او الو وغيرها مع التأشير على اختبار الخطية (Test for Inearity) ل |
| Means: Options | | Means: Options |
| Statistics: Median Std. Error of Mean Sum Minimum Maximum Range First Last Variance Kurtosis Std. Error of Kurtosis Skewness Std. Error of Skewness | Cell Statistics: Mean Number of Cases Standard Deviation Geometric Mean Harmonic Mean Grouped Median Percent of Total Sum Percent of Total N | عد ذلك يتم الضغط على (Continue) ثم (٢٢) فنحصل في ملف الناتج معلى فنحصل معلى فنحصل على فنحصل على الجدول التالي: |

reput

درجة أسنئة الإمتحان التحريري الأول

| المجموعة | Mean | Std. Deviation | Median | Grouped Median | Harmonic Mean | Geometric Mean | % of Total Sum | % of Total N |
|----------|------|----------------|--------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| A | 5.56 | 2.789 | 5.00 | 5.33 | 3.60 | 4.72 | 32.7% | 33.3% |
| в | 7.67 | 2.121 | 8.00 | 8.00 | 7.02 | 7.36 | 45.1% | 33.3% |
| С | 3.78 | 2.224 | 3.00 | 3.33 | 2.64 | 3.19 | 22.2% | 33.3% |
| Total | 5.67 | 2.815 | 5.00 | 5.50 | 3.75 | 4.80 | 100.0% | 100.0% |

يوضح الجدول السابق نتائج الاحصاءات المختارة لكل مجموعة على حدة .

| | | ANOAN 19 | ble | | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------|-------------------|----|-------------|-------|------|
| | 12 | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig |
| درجة أسئلة الإمتحان التحريري الأول | Between Groups | (Combined) | 68.222 | 2 | 34.111 | 5.942 | .008 |
| | | Linearity | 14.222 | 1 | 14.222 | 2.477 | .129 |
| | | Deviation from Linearity | 54.000 | 1 | 54.000 | 9.406 | .005 |
| | Within Groups | | 137.778 | 24 | 5.741 | | |
| | Total | | 206.000 | 26 | | | |

يوضح الجدول السابق نتائج اختبار خطية البيانات والتي تؤكد قيمة احتمال المعنوية والبالغة 0.129 عدم وجود دلالة احصائية مما يؤدي الي عدم رفض فرض العدم الزاعم بخطية البيانات. أي يمكن اعنبار النتائج موزعة حول خط مستقيم وليس منحني. One Sample t-test إختبار "ت" لمتوسط مجتمع واحد 5.3

- الهدف

يستخدم إختبار «ت» لمجتمع واحد للتحقق من ما إذا كان هناك فرق معنوي بين متوسط مجتمع ومتوسط فرضي (رقم ثابت).

يعتبر إختبار «ت» إختباراً معلمياً هاما، **يستخدم لدراسة إختلاف متوسط المجتمع عن قيمة محددة**. ويشترط لتطبيقه في حالة العينات الصغيرة (أقل من 30 مشاهدة) ان تكون البيانات مسحوبة من توزيع طبيعي.

فى حالة العينات الكبيرة (ذات الحجم 30 فأكثر) يمكن الإستغناء عن قيد إنتماء البيانات للتوزيع الطبيعي، وعلي الرغم من أن البرنامج يعتبر الإختبار أيضا اختبار "ت" t-test الا أنه في الواقع يعرف إحصائيا باسم اختبار "ص" او Z test). ويتم الوصول الى اختبار ...one-Sample T Test أ من خلال الخطوات التالية:

Analyze ---- Compare Means ---- One Sample T-Test...

كيفية تنفيذ الإختبار

ا المتغير المراد إختياره الي $au_{(s)}$ $au_{(s)}$ وهو متغير كمى Scale \sim

2 - تحديد القيمة المراد اختبارها :Test Value ، البرنامج عادة يضع قيمة مساوية الصفر ولكن بالإمكان تغيير هذه القيمة بما يتلاءم مع القيمة المراد اختبارها.

المعنوية تعني أن متوسط المجتمع لا يساوي القيمة المراد اختبارها

Analyze ---- Compare Means ---- One Sample T-Test...

| nalyze | Direct <u>Marketing</u> | <u>G</u> raph | s <u>U</u> tilities | Add- <u>o</u> ns | <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp |
|---------------|-------------------------|---------------|---------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Rep | orts | • | | * | | |
| D <u>e</u> s | criptive Statistics | | - 88 | | | |
| Tab | les | | | | | |
| Con | npare Means | • | Means. | | | |
| Gen | eral Linear Model | | One-Sa | ample T Te | est | - |
| Gen | eralized Linear Mod | els 🕨 | | ndent-San | nples T Tes | t |
| Mi <u>x</u> e | d Models | • | Paired- | Samples | TTest | - |
| Corr | relate | | | | | - |
| Reg | ression | • | <u>One-wa</u> | ay ANOVA | | |

نقوم بإدخال متغير « درجة أسئلة الامتحان التحريري» الى :(<u>Test Variable(s</u> وادخال القيمة

5 المراد اختبارها في :Test Value كما في النافذة إلتالية:

| 🚰 One-Sample T Test | | | × | |
|---|-------|---|----------------------|------------|
| المجموعة [Group] العمر بالتهور [Age] العمر بالتهور [Age] الترع [Gender] الترع [IQ] الترع [IQ] (| • | <u>T</u> est Variable(s): (Written 1) التحريرى الأول (Written 1) المحكمة الأمتحان التحرير التحرير الأول (Test <u>V</u> alue: 5 | Options Bootstrap | |
| ОК | aste | Reset Cancel Help | | |
| | الية: | حصل على الجداول الته | Сок | بالضغط على |

One-Sample Statistics

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-------------------------------------|----|------|----------------|--------------------|
| درجة أسئلة الإمتحان التحريري الأولى | 27 | 5.67 | 2.815 | .542 |

الجدول الأول One-Sample Statistics: يوضح وصف إحصائي لمتغير درجة أسئلة الامتحان التحريري الأول ، حيث يتضمن عدد الطلاب في العينة N، متوسط العينة Mean ، الإنحراف المعياري للعينة Std. Deviation إضافة إلى الخطأ المعياري للعينة . Error Mean.

| | | (| One-Sample Test | | | S. March | |
|------------------------------------|-------|----|-----------------|--------------------|--|----------|--|
| Γ | | | T | est Vaiue = 5 | | | |
| | | | | / | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | |
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Ditterence | Lower | Upper | |
| درجة أسئلة الإمتحان التحريري الأول | 1.231 | 26 | .229 | .667 | 45- | 1.78 | |

الجدول الثاني :One-Sample Test يعرض القيمة الإفتراضية للإختبار وهي 5 ، ويلاحظ من الجدول أنه عند إجراء الإختبار لطرفين 2-tailed ، أن معنوية الإختبار p-value sig)) تساوي 0.229 . وهذه القيمة أكبر من 0.05، ومنها نستطيع أن نستنتج بأن الاختبار غير معنوي (بمعني عدم رفض فرض العدم). أي أنه لايوجد من الأدلة ما يؤكد ان متوسط الدرجات يختلف عن 5 درجات عند مستوى معنوي 0.05. إضافة لما سبق، فإن الجدول يوضح لنا 95% فترة ثقة لمتوسط الفرق بين متوسط الدرجات والمتوسط الإفتراضي، ووجد انه يتراواح مابين (0.45-، 1.79) بدرجة ثقة %95.

اختبار t في حالة عينة واحدة

🗹 المثال الزقمي :

بفرض أنه توافرت لدينا بيانات عن درجات مادة الإحصاء لعينة من (15) طالب من ط للاب الفرقة الثالثة بكلية التجارة جامعة القاهرة، كما يلي:

| 14 | 12 | 11 | 14 | 5 | 3 | 16 | 10 | 8 | 9 | 15 |
|----|----|----|----|---|---|----|----|----|---|----|
| | | | | | | | 10 | 16 | 8 | 17 |

Or μ -16 = 0 Or μ -16 ≠ 0



Results Assumption of one Sample

Descriptives 🚽

| | | | Statistic | Std. Error |
|------------|-------------------------|-------------|-----------|------------|
| Score_Stat | Mean | | 11.2000 | 1.07880 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval | Lower Bound | 8.8862 | |
| | r for Mean | Upper Bound | 13.5138 | |
| - / | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 11.3333 | |
| | Median | | 11.0000 | |
| | Variance | | 17.457 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 4.17817 | |
| | Minimum | | 3.00 | |
| | Maximum | | 17.00 | |
| | Range | | 14.00 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 7.00 | |
| | Skewness | | 400- | .580 |
| | Kurtosis | | 610- | 1.121 |





15.00

0

5.00

10.00

Score_Stat

(Sig.) or P-value ≥ 0.05 (Normality)

| | | | | | | | 🗹 طريفة إدخال البيانات: |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------|--|-----------------------------|--|--|
| | | | | | | واحد، كما يلى: | بتم إدخال البيانات السابقة في عمود و |
| <u>File Edit View</u> | v <u>D</u> ata <u>T</u> ran | nsform <u>A</u> nal | | | | | حطوات سفيد الإحسار. |
| | | | | | نة مار | + Compare Means J | افتح قائمة Analyze ، ومن القائمة الفرعية |
| Sc | core_Stat | var | | | | | |
| 1 | 9.00 | | | | | وبع الجواري التالي: | One-Sample T Test ، سيظهر لنا الم |
| 3 | 8.00 | | | | | | Jv = - - - - - - - - - - |
| 4 | 10.00 | | | | <u>A</u> | <mark>nalyze</mark> Direct <u>M</u> arketing <u>G</u> raph | is <u>U</u> tilities Add- <u>o</u> ns <u>W</u> indow <u>H</u> elp |
| 5 | 16.00 | | | | | Reports • | a 📠 🚟 📅 🥅 📩 |
| 6 | 3.00 | | | | | Descriptive Statistics | |
| 7 | 5.00 | | | | | Tobles | |
| 8 | 14.00 | | | | | ra <u>b</u> ies P | |
| 9 | 11.00 | | | | | Co <u>m</u> pare Means | Means |
| 11 | 12.00 | | | | | General Linear Model 🔋 🕨 🕨 | One-Sample T Test |
| 12 | 17.00 | | | | | Generalized Linear Models | |
| 13 | 8.00 | | | | | | Independen <u>t</u> -Samples T Test |
| 14 | 16.00 | | | | | MIXed Models | 🔜 Paired-Samples T Test |
| 15 | 10.00 | | | | _ | Correlate | |
| 16 | | | | | | Regression • | |
| Sample T Test | Test Var | خانیة iable(s): re_Stat | Options | t Variab لم القيمة 16 هذا الإختبار قة | e)e وهی ات ه د الث | ٥< الى المربع الدى بعنوان (٥ ١كتب القيمة المراد إختبارها ٢ لك النافذة الخاصة بمخرج ٢ لمعنوية الفا لوضع حدو | انفل المتغير Test Value ثم إضغط Ok ، سوف تظهر اضغط على <u>Options</u> واكتب مستو |
| | | | | Dne-Sa | | I Test | 52 |
| | | | | | mple | I I ESL | 25 |



| فدا يع بني أن | لاحظ هذا أن : متوسط المجتمع يختلف عن القيمة المراد إختبارها (16) ، وه | 19 |
|---------------|--|-----|
| | بمة الحقيقية لهذا المتوسط إما أن تكون أكبر من هذه القيمة أو أصغر منها. | الق |

ولتحديد الإتجاد : نقارن بين متوسط العينة (التى تعتبر تقديراً لمتوسط المجتمع) والقيمة الم راد إختبارها. وفى المثال الذى نحن بصدده، نجد أن متوسط العينة ي ساوى (11.2) ، فى ح ين أن القيمة المراد إختبارها تساوى (16) ، وبالتالى فإن المتوسط الحقيقى لدرجات مادة الإح صاء التطبيقى فى كلية التجارة جامعة القاهرة يكون أقل من (16).وذلك بإحتمال (2 + P.value)، أى بإحتمال يساوى (0.001 ÷ 2 = 0.000).

ملحوظة هامة: جميع إختبارات الفروض الإحصائية – فى برنامج SPSS – دائماً تكون من طرفين، بحي ث فى حالة رفض الفرض العدمى وقبول الفرض البديل، فإننا نحدد إتجاه العلاقة بناء على المقارنة بين القيمة المقدرة لمعلمة المجتمع والقيمة المراد إختبارها.

وفى هذة الحالة يكون قيمة Pفى حالة اننا نريد اختبار النظرية الفرضية من طرف واحد هى حاصل قسمة قيمة P الخارجة من جدول التحليل فى برنامج SPSS على 2

اذا كان ناتج التحليل الخارج من برنامج SPSS من طرف واحد ونريد معرفة المعنوية من طرفين نقوم بضرب قيمة P الخارجة من الجدول في 2 ليعطى طرفين

| C | الطريقة الثانية : من خلال فترة الثقة onfidence Interval |
|--|---|
| حالة الثالثة : في حالة أن يكون الاختبار من طرف واحد شمال [أي أن الفرض | طبقا لهذه الطريقة : يجب أن نفرق بين ثلاث حالات : |
| البديل يكون على الشكل (أقل من)] ، في هذه الحالة يتم قبول أ | الحالة الأولى: عندها يكون الاختبار من طرفين : [بمعنى أن الفرض البديل يكون |
| دفض الفرض العدمي بناء على القاعدة الأتية : | على الشكل (≠)]. في هذه الحالة يتم قبول أو رفض الفرض العدمي |
| | بناء على القاعدة الأتية : |
| إذا كانت القيمة المراد اختبارها لمتوسط المجتمع | إذا كانت القيمة المراد اختبارها لمتوسط المجتمع تقع داخل فترة الثقة |
| أمغنا المرالحد الأمار المترتبة الثقار | (أى اكبر من الحد الأدنى وأقل من الحد الأعلى) |
| الطلق على المحد الأعلى للكوة اللك | فإننا |
| فإننا | نقبل الفرض العدمى، والعكس صحيح . |
| نقبل الفرض العدمي، والعكس صحيح . | الحالة الثانية : عندها يكون الاختبار من طرف واحد يمين: [بمعنى أن الفرض البديل |
| $H_0: \mu \leq 13$ | يكون على الشكل (أكبر من)]. في هذه الحالة يتم قبول أو رفض |
| $H_1: \mu > 13$ | الفرض العدمي بناء على القاعدة الأتية : |
| ترض العدمى (H ₀) : متوسط المجتمع (متوسط درجات مـادة الإحـصاء التطبيقـى | إذا كانت القيمة المراد اختبارها لمتوسط المجتمع |
| في كلية التجارة) أقل من أو يساوى 13 درجة. | أكبر من الحد الأدنى لفترة الثقة |
| فرض البديل (H ₁) : متوسط المجتمع (متوسط درجات مادة الإحصاء التطبيقي في | فإننا |
| كلية التجارة) أكبر من 13 درجة. | نقبل الفرض العدمي، والعكس صحيح . |
| | - |

| μ≥ 2. 4 | l9- | معنوية | ن معرفة الم | . الثقة يمكن | خدام حدود | طرفين باست | ، ان الاختبار من ح | فی هذا المثال وحیث |
|--------------------------------------|--|--------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | One-Sam | ole Test | | | H_0 | $\mu = 16 \ge -7.11$ |
| Test Value = 16 | | | | | H_1 : | $\mu \neq 16$ | | |
| | | | | Mean | 95% Confidenc Diffe | e Interval of the rence | H0: | بمكن كتابة النظرية الفرضية |
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Difference | Lower | Upper | µ-16 =0 | والبديلة على هذا |
| Score_Stat | -4.449- | 14 | .001 | -4.80000- | -7.1138- | -2.4862- | Diff + t* SE | لنسبق |
| $\overline{x} \pm i$ | $\overline{x} \pm \varepsilon$ $\frac{S}{-4.8 + 2.145*1079 = -2.48}$ $-4.8 + 2.145*1079 = -2.48$ $-4.8 + 2.145*1079 = -2.48$ $-\frac{S}{-1} - \frac{S}{-\sqrt{2V}}$ yide using a limit of the limit | | | | | | | |
| μ ≥ 1 6 | - 7.11 ≥ | 2.49 - | 16 | ، القيمة المراد | ين ، كما أن | فتبار من طرف | نحن بصدده هو اخ | الاختبار في المثال الذي |
| | | | ≤≤ µ | 13.51 | ترة الثقة | ارج نطاق فا | ع (16) تقع خا | ختبارها لمتوسط المجتم |
| | Descriptives | ; | | د, حات مادة | بان متوسط | العدمي القائل | فاننا نافض الفرض ا | وبالتال ف |
| Mean 95% Confidence I for Mean | nterval Lov Upj | ver Bound per Bound 1 | 8.8862 13.5138 | . /.95 2 | لك بدرجة ثق | وى 16 ، وذ | بجامعة القاهرة تساو | الإحصاء في كلية التجارة |
| | | | *** +* * * * | 1 ti t ti 1 | | | the section to be | |

فى برنامج SPSS يمكن عمل المقارنة فى حالة ان الفرض البديل اقل من او اكبر من ولكن يمكن عمله فى برنامج SPSS عن طريق Syntax الطريقة الثالثة: لااتخاذ القرار هى طريقة الحسابات اليدوية عن طريق مقارنة قيمة t المحسوبة مع قيمة t الجدوالية

اذا كانت قيمة t المحسوبة اكبر من قيمة t الجدوالية ترفض النظرية الفرضية والفرق معنوى Sig. والعكس صحيح

One-Sample Statistics

| | Ν | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|------------|----|---------|----------------|--------------------|
| Score_Stat | 15 | 11.2000 | 4.17817 | 1.07880 |

One-Sample Test

| | Test Value = 16 | | | | | | | |
|------------|-----------------|----|-----------------|------------|--|----------|--|--|
| | | | | Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Difference | Lower | Upper | | |
| Score_Stat | -4.449- | 14 | .001 | -4.80000- | -7.1138- | -2.4862- | | |

Effect size
Cohen's
$$d = \frac{\text{mean difference}}{\text{Std. Deviation}}$$

Cohen's guidelines for d:

Small = .20, medium = .50, large = .80.

Example using spss

- A researcher is planning a psychological intervention study, but before he proceeds he wants to characterise his participants' depression levels.
- He tests each participant on a particular depression index, where anyone who achieves a score of 4.0 is deemed to have 'normal' levels of depression. Lower scores indicate less depression and higher scores indicate greater depression.
- He has recruited 17 participants to take part in the study. Depression scores are recorded in the variable dep_score. He wants to know whether his sample is representative of the normal population (i.e., do they score statistically significantly

- Example :
- Most of the examples in this page will use a data file called **one sample test**, high school and beyond. This data file contains 200 observations from a sample of high school students . Score of writing (**write**) course,.
- A one sample t-test allows us to test whether a sample mean (of a normally distributed interval variable) significantly differs from a hypothesized value. For example, using the following <u>data file</u>, say we wish to test whether the average writing score (**write**) differs significantly from **50**. We can do this as shown below.



| H0: μ=50 | or | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| μ-50 =0 H1: μ ≠50 | or _{One-} : | Sample Stat | tistics | |
| α·0.05 | N ^b | Mean ^C | Std. Deviation ^d | Std. Error ^e Mean |
| write writing score ^a | 200 | 52.7750 | 9.47859 | .67024 |

- a. This is the list of variables. Each variable that was listed on the variables = statement in the above code will have its own line in this part of the output.
- b. N This is the number of valid (i.e., non-missing) observations used in calculating the t-test.
- c. Mean This is the mean of the variable. $(\sum x/n)$
- d. Std. Deviation This is the standard deviation of the variable
- e. Std. Error Mean This is the estimated standard deviation of the sample mean. If we drew repeated samples of size 200, we would expect the standard deviation of the sample means to be close to the standard error. The standard deviation of the distribution of sample mean is estimated as the standard deviation of the sample divided by the square root of sample size: = SD/(sqrt(n)) = 9.47859/ (sqrt(200)) = .67024.



- f. This identifies the variables. Each variable that was listed on the variables= statement will have its own line in this part of the output. If a variables= statement is not specified, t-test will conduct a t-test on all numerical variables in the dataset.
- g. t This is the Student t-statistic. It is the ratio of the difference between the sample mean and the given number to the standard error of the mean: (52.775 50) / 0.6702372 = 4.1403. Since the standard error of the mean measures the variability of the sample mean, the smaller the standard error of the mean, the more likely that our



In all three cases, the difference between the population means is the same. But with large variability of sample means, second graph, two populations overlap a great deal. Therefore, the difference may well come by chance. On the other hand, with small variability, the difference is more clear as in the third graph. The smaller the standard error of the mean, the larger the magnitude of the t-value and therefore, the smaller the p value.



- h. df The degrees of freedom for the single sample t-test is simply the number of valid observations minus 1. We loose one degree of freedom because we have estimated the mean from the sample. We have used some of the information from the data to estimate the mean, therefore it is not available to use for the test and the degrees of freedom accounts for this.
- i. Sig (2-tailed)- This is the two-tailed p-value evaluating the null against an alternative that the mean is not equal to 50. It is equal to the probability of observing a greater absolute value of t under the null hypothesis. If the p-value is less than the pre-specified alpha level (usually .05 or .01) we will conclude that mean is statistically significantly different from zero. For example, the p-value is smaller than 0.05. So we conclude that the mean for write is different from 50.
- j. Mean Difference This is the difference between the sample mean and the test value.

Note that 50 is not between upper and lower bound of CI so, we reject the null hypothesis 50 بمقارنة قيمة متوسط العينة التى سحبت وهو 52.78 (والتى تعتبر تقدير لمتوسط المجتمع) بمقارنة متوسط المجتمع الحقيقى وهو

$$= 52.78 - (1.97)^{*}(0.67) \leq \mu \leq 52.78 + (1.97)^{*}(0.67)$$
$$= 51.45 \leq \mu \leq 54.09$$

نظرا لان 50 لاتقع بين حدى الثقة لذا نرفض النظرية الفرضية او الفرض العدمي

Final

Depression score was statistically significantly lower than the population normal depression score, t(16) = -2.33, p = .033

| t | Indicates that we are comparing to a <i>t</i> -distribution (<i>t</i> -test). |
|----------|--|
| (16) | Indicates the degrees of freedom, which is <i>N</i> - 1 |
| -2.33 | Indicates the obtained value of the <i>t</i> -statistic (obtained <i>t</i> -value) |
| p = .033 | Indicates the probability of obtaining the observed <i>t</i> -value if the null hypothesis is correct |

Final Conclusion

- Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of normally distribution of difference scores was examined. Histogram, normal Q-Q plots, P- P plots and box-plots showed that difference scores were approximately normally distributed with a skewness of 0.00 (SE=0.752) and a kurtosis of 0.0812 (standard error SE=1.481) (Cramer, 1998; Howih, 2004 and Doane, 2011).
- A one-sample t-test was run to determine whether depression score in recruited subjects was different to normal, defined as a depression score of 4.0. Depression scores were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (p > .05) and there were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Mean depression score (3.66 ± 0.59) was lower than the normal depression score of 4.0, a statistically significant difference of 0.33 (95% CI, 0.04 to 0.51), t(16) = -2.33, p = .033.
- There was a statistically significant difference between means (p < .05) and, therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis

تحليل اختبار عينة واحدة لاكثر من

Direct Marketing H0: µenglish=80 or µ-80 =0 Utilities Analyze Graphs Add-ons Window Help Reports H1: µ ≠80 or µ-80 ≠ 0 * **Descriptive Statistics** Tables Compare Means Means... Transform Analyze Direct Marketing Graphs Utilities Add-ons Help Edit View Data Window General Linear Model Ĥ *5 Ш, Ē 🛓 4 45 🚺 One-Sample T Test... \mathbf{a} 1: English 83.30 Athlete Height Weight Smoking Sprint MileMinDur English Reading Math Writing State Cone-Sample T Test X 66.92 192.61 7.407 0:07:47 83.30 82.98 68.82 75.49 1 0 0 In state Test Variable(s): 0 5.203 0:07:34 81.60 75.60 65.36 76.07 Options... 2 1 80.11 In state . 🖉 ids 🖋 English 128.40 0:12:31 82.52 64.05 3 0 65.99 1 8.097 81.96 81.58 In state Bootstrap. 🔏 bday 🖋 Reading 0:10:13 97.32 4 0 61.32 153.87 2 6.449 88.31 85.07 88.38 Out of state 🔗 Math Rank 81.22 72.24 5 65.75 0 7.684 0:11:57 80.46 46.30 Out of state 0 4 💑 Gender 🖋 Writing 73.27 6 0 70.66 179.20 0 8.004 0:06:21 89.45 85.25 70.19 💑 Athlete 🖋 Height 198.52 84.24 0:07:00 96.73 86.88 71.20 7 0 70.68 0 In state 🖋 Weight 202.77 0 6.132 0:07:14 74.15 80.96 75.77 8 0 62.46 69.39 In state 💑 Smoking 4.503 93.69 87.70 9 1 261.59 0 76.35 79.08 In state Test Value: 80 . . 🖉 Snrint 10 0 66.40 167.57 0 0:09:49 85.44 85.49 69.92 84.34 In state . Paste Reset Help OK Cancel 57.42 179.34 2 6.619 73.12 81.34 69.47 78.81 11 0 In state 169.90 85.34 84.05 50.70 12 1 67.73 0 6.621 0:06:59 In state 83.40 13 1 64.12 173.01 0 5.005 0:06:42 79.11 64.08 84.12 In state 227.90 0:06:47 67.59 76.47 66.21 0 6.229 77.38 66.59 14 0 In state 🔚 One-Sample T Test: Options x 65.99 141.53 0:05:45 89.95 83.61 78.86 15 1 0 5.663 61.04 In state Confidence Interval Percentage: 95 % 234.64 68.53 71.42 0 72.05 0 6.746 0:07:06 78.85 86.92 In state 16 Missing Values 72.15 0:08:56 93.95 75.98 17 1 0 5.203 71.87 In state Exclude cases analysis by analysis 56.93 77.73 18 0 63.02 201.87 0 8.232 0:08:36 77.96 80.23 In state Exclude cases listwise 19 1 72.81 228.27 0 0:05:03 90.42 75.93 79.71 In state 65.39 151.53 ٥ 0:08:22 78.95 79.34 64 38 20 1 In state Cancel Help Continue

One-Sample Statistics

| | Z | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------|-----|---------|----------------|--------------------|
| English | 409 | 82.7876 | 6.83980 | .33821 |
| Reading | 425 | 82.0708 | 7.66178 | .37165 |
| Math | 422 | 65.4680 | 8.37593 | .40773 |
| Writing | 404 | 79.5217 | 5.51141 | .27420 |

CAUTION!

Remember that the minus sign when obtaining a t is equivalent to a plus sign. In other words, a t of, say, -5 is equivalent to a value of +5.

One-Sample Test

| | Test Value = 80 | | | | | | | |
|---------|-----------------|-----|-----------------|------------|--|-----------|--|--|
| | | | | Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Difference | Lower | Upper | | |
| English | 8.242 | 408 | .000 | 2.78756 | 2.1227 | 3.4524 | | |
| Reading | 5.572 | 424 | .000 | 2.07080 | 1.3403 | 2.8013 | | |
| Math | -35.641- | 421 | .000 | -14.53199- | -15.3334- | -13.7305- | | |
| Writing | -1.744- | 403 | .082 | 47832- | -1.0174- | .0607 | | |



| t Value = 80جرجات | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|---------|-------------------|------------|---------|--|--|
| 95% CI of Different | | P-value | df | t- | Mean ± SD | Traits | | |
| Upper | Lower | | | value | | | | |
| 3.45 | 2.12 | 0.000 | 40 8 | 8.24 [*] | 82.79±6.84 | English | | |
| 0.07 | -1.01 | 0.082 | 40 3 | 1.74 | 79.52±5.51 | Writing | | |
| | Note that: * indicate sig. at | | | | | | | |



Error Bars: 95% CI

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لاحظ الفرق






One sample t-test from Questioners اولا اجراء اختبار ت لمتوسط عينة واحدة من بيانات استمارة استبيان تحتوى على مقياس ليكرت

التحليل الاحصائي لاستمارة الاستبيان

Statistical analysis of questionnaires

مقياس ليكارت (Likert Scale) وبنود ليكارت (Likert Items) و • حول استخدام هذا المقياس ظهرت مدرستين ولكل مدرسه اثباتاتها العلمية لطبعية الاستخدام, تدعم

- المدرسة الاولى التعامل مع مقياس ليكارت كمقياس فتري (Interval Scale) وهنا يسمى مقياس ليكارت
 - وهنا يتم استخدام المقايسس البارمترية في القياس وتهتم بالدرجه النهائيه للمقياس
 بخصوص الصفه المقاسة ويشترط في بناء هذا المقياس ان تكون الفقرات مرتبطه ببعضها
 وموجهة لقياس الصفه المطلوبة .
- اما المدرسة الثانية فانها تدعم فكرة استخدام مقياس ليكارت كمقياس رتبي او ترتيبي
 Ordinal Scale) وهنا يسمى بنود ليكارت ويجب استخدام المقاييس االلابارمترية في القياس, وهذا الاخير يرى وجوب التعامل مع مقياس ليكارت كبنود, اي ان كل بند يعامل على حده, وبنود هذا المقياس لا يرتبط احدها بالاخر حيث كل بند يصف موقف معين.



- مقياس البنود مرتبطه ببعضها . في هذا النوع من المقاييس نهتم بالآرجه الخلية للمقياس .
- يجب التاكد من اعتدالية التوزيع قبل الشروع بالعمليات الاحصائية

مقياس ليكارت (Likert Scale)

| اوافق بقوۃ | اوافق | لا اوافق ولا ارفض | ارفض بقوۃ | ارفض | فقرات الاستبانه |
|---------------|-------|----------------------------|--------------|------|---|
| | | | | | مدير المدرسة يتحلى باخلاقيات العمل الجماعي |
| | | | | | مدير المدرسة يشاركنا توقعاته النوعية |
| | | | | | مدير المدرسة يظهر توجه عالي نحو الاهداف الجماعية |
| | | | | | مديرنا يظهر حماس وتفائل في ميدان العمل |
| | | | | | مديرنا يستخدم سلطته في تحقيق اهداف <u>شخصية</u> |

بنود

- البنود لا ترتبط ببعضها
 ليكارت
 في هذا النوع من المقاييس تعامل كن فقرة على حده حيث كل فقرة تمثل موقف بحد ذاته

المقياس التالي هو (بنود ليكارت)

| بنود لیکارت (Liker Items) | | | | | | | | |
|---|------|--------------|-------------------------|-------|---------------|--|--|--|
| فقرات الاستبانه | ارفض | ارفض بقوۃ | لا اوافق ولا ارفض | اوافق | اوافق بقوة | | | |
| طريقة المحاضرة مناسبة لكل المواقف التعليمية | | | | | | | | |
| الاختصاص الدقيق متطلب ضروري في التعليم | | | | | | | | |
| العمل الجماعي هو اساس النجاح | | | | | | | | |
| مشاركة القرار مع مدير المؤسسة العلمية امر ضروري لتطوير التعليم | | | | | | | | |
| الوضع الاقتصادي مؤثر في عملية التعلم | | | | | | | | |

Test of one sample t-test from questionnaires with Likert scale

When multiple Likert question responses are <u>summed together</u> (interval data):

- all questions must use the same Likert scale
- must be a defendable approximation to an interval scale (i.e. coding indicates magnitude of difference between items, but there is no absolute zero point)
- all items measure a single latent variable (i.e. a variable that is not directly observed, but rather inferred from other variables that are observed and directly measured)
- analyzed using parametric tests

اسـتخدام اختبـار " مربـع كـاي " : يعتبـر اختبـار " مربـع كـاي" مـن الاختبـارات المهمة في الإحصاء ، حيث أن لـه عـدة اسـتخدامات أو تطبيقات متنوعة وكـل منهـا لا تقــل أهميــة عــن الأخــرى (كمـا أنــه يعتبـر أحــد الأدوات المهمــة فــي الإحصاء الـلا معلمي أو الـلا برامتـري) . ولعـل مـن أشهر اسـتخدامات توزيع مربع كـاي هـو " اختبار الاسـتقلال " .. وهـذا الاختبار وكما يتضح مـن أسـمه يختبر ما إذا كان المتغيران مسـتقلين أم لا . فهـو لا يقيس الارتباط أو لا يختبـر الارتباط ، حيث توجـد مقاييس واختبارات أخـرى لاختبار معامل الارتباط بـين المتغيـرين . كمـا أن اسـتخدام اختبـار مربـع كـاي للاسـتقلال لـه شـروط محـددة يجب التأكد من توفرها قبل استخدامه .

* ومـن الاختبـارات المهمـة لتوزيـع مربـع كـاي " اختبـار التجـانس أو التماثـل " والـذي يستخدمه معظم (أو كل) الطلاب والباحثين عند استخدام مقياس ليكرت (أو غيره) لتوضيح ما إذا كـان هناك تجانس أو تماثـل أو تساوي في آراء أفـراد المجتمع حـول الفقرات المختلفة لكل محور من محاور الدراسة . ً الخماسى لدرجة الموافقة (موافـق إذا كان المقياس المستخدم هو مقياس ليكرت * فمثلا بشدة ، موافق ، محايد ، غير موافق ، غير موافق بشدة) فإن هذا الاختبار يختبر ما إذا كانـت إجابـات أفـراد مجتمـع الدراسـة تتـوزع بالتسـاوي (أو بالتماثـل) علـى هـذه الإجابـات الخمسـة اى أن الفـرض الصـفري لهـذا الاختبـار هـو أن هنـاك تجـانس (أو تماثـل أو تسـاوي) فـي آراء أفـراد المجتمع حـول درجـات الفـرض الصـفري لهـذا الاختبـار هـو أن هنـاك تـ Depending on how the Likert scale questions are treated, a number of different analysis methods can be applied:

- **1.** Analysis methods used for individual or item questions (ordinal data):
 - Bar charts and dot plots
 - Not histograms (data is not continuous)
 - Central tendency summarised by median and mode
 - Not mean
 - Variability summarised by range and inter-quartile range
 - Not standard deviation
- Analyzed using non-parametric tests (differences between the medians of comparable groups)
 - Mann-Whitney U test (see below)
 - Wilcoxon signed-rank test
 - Kruskal-Wallis test

2. When multiple Likert question responses are summed or Average together (Scale data):

• All questions must use the same Likert scale

• Must be a defendable approximation to an interval scale (i.e. coding indicates magnitude of difference between items, but there is no absolute zero point)

• All items measure a single latent variable (i.e. a variable that is not directly observed, but rather inferred from other variables that are

| واحده من متوسط المحاور حيث نتعامل معه على انه متغير Scale | ختبار t لعينة | م بعمل اخ | اولا نقو |
|---|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| وبالتالى لازم نعمل | | - , | |
| الافتراضات الافتراضات | | | |
| ل اننا نريد عمل الاختبار التالي H0:U=3 عدد الاستمارات الكلى | لنفترض | | |
| يتم استخدام بيانات هذا المثال في جميع تطبيقات الكتاب) 50 | يقي : (س | ئال تطب | îo |
| ث عن الأسباب التي تدعو المستفيدين لحضور برنامج ، ومن أجل ذلك ي تدعو المستفيد حضور البرنامج ، وذلك من خلال ثلاثة محاور: | رة ما بالبح لمتغيرات الت | هتمت إدار ر بعض ا | ہ، تم حصر |
| نامج) ويتضمن (موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع ، البرنامج يتميز (بالجودة). | (تقدير البر برنامج يتميز | الأو <u>ل :</u> طيبة ، ال | المحور بسمعة |
| رنامج) ويتضمن (سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيراً ، البرنامج سهل التكرار | (انتشار البر بالشعبية). | الثان <u>ى :</u> مج يتميز | المحور ، البرنا |
| برنامج) ويتضمن (مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال ، إمكانية). | (تعميم ال ي البرنامج | الثالث : ك سبهلة ف | <u>المحور</u> اشتراكك |
| تصميم استبيان مكون من عوامل ديموجرافية مثل النوع (ذكر، أنثى) جامعي ، دراسات عليا) ثم المتغيرات الكمية من خمسة أوزان هي : حايد ، غير موافق ، غير موافق إطلاقا) ، وكان الاستبيان مصمم كما | ذا البحث تم (ثانوي ، موافق ، م | دراسة ه ى التعليم , جداً ، | ولا ومستو; (موافق |
| | | | يلي: |
| ع العمر بالسنوات : | 🗖 أنثو | ◘ذکر | النوع : |
| جامعي [] در اسات عليا | 🗖 ثانوي | التعليم : | مستوى ا |
| الذي يعكس مستوى اختيارك الصحيح: | (⁄) في المكان | ضع إشارة | يرجى وا |

| غير موافق إطلاقاً | غير موافق | محايد | موافق | مو افق جد آ | المعيارة | المحور | م |
|-------------------------|--------------|-------|-------|----------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|---|
| | | | | | موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع | | ì |
| | | | | | يتميز البرنامج بسمعة طيبة | تقدير البرنامج | ۲ |
| | | | | | يتميز البرنامج بالجودة | | ۴ |
| | | | | | سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيرأ | | £ |
| | | | | | البرنامج سمهل التكرار | انتشار البرنامج | 0 |
| | | | | | البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية | | ٦ |
| | | | | | مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال | | ~ |
| | | | | | إمكانية اشتراكك في البرنامج سهلة | تعميم البردمج | ~ |

وبعد توزيع الاستبيان على العينة المستهدفة للإجابة عليها تم جمعها وكان عددها (٢٠) استبياناً، وفيما يلي سنستخدم برنامج SPSS لتحليل نتائج الاستبيان وإدراج التوصيات .

لعمل اختبار الاعتدالية Normality نظرا لان حجم العينة اكبر من 30 وطبقا لنظرية النهاية المركزية لذا فان البيانات تتبع منحنى التوزيع الطبيعى جليفي المنفع الطبيعى المعنان المواحد المعنان المواحد المركزية لذا فان

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a | | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------------|----|------|-----------|--------------|------|--|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. | |
| محور تقدير البرنامج | .224 | 50 | .000 | .888 | 50 | .000 | |
| محور انتشار البرنامج | .200 | 50 | .000 | .845 | 50 | .000 | |
| محور تعميم البرنامج | .183 | 50 | .000 | .885 | 50 | .000 | |

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

| ı | <u>A</u> nalyze | Direct <u>M</u> arketing | Graphs | s <u>U</u> tilities | Add- <u>o</u> ns | <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp |
|---|-----------------|------------------------------|--------|---------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------|
| 1 | Rep | orts | • | | * | | |
| | D <u>e</u> s | criptive Statistics | • | | | | |
| | Ta <u>b</u> | les | | | | | |
| | Con | npare Means | - F | Means | | | |
| | <u>G</u> en | eral Linear Model | • | Cone-S | ample T Te | st | |
| | Gen | erali <u>z</u> ed Linear Moo | lels ▶ | Indepe | ndent-Sam | ples T Test | t |
| | Mi <u>x</u> e | d Models | | Paired | - -Samples T | Test | |
| | <u>C</u> or | relate | | | | 1000 | |
| | Reg | ression | • | <u>o</u> ne-w | ay ANOVA | | י ל |



One-Sample Statistics

| | Ν | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|----------------------|----|--------|----------------|--------------------|
| محور تقدير البرنامج | 50 | 4.2000 | .71270 | .10079 |
| محور انتشار البرنامج | 50 | 4.2067 | .84352 | .11929 |
| محور تعميم البرنامج | 50 | 3.9000 | .92029 | .13015 |

One-Sample Test

| | Test Value = 3 | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|----|-----------------|------------|--|--------|--|--|--|
| | | | | Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Difference | Lower | Upper | | | |
| متور تقابر البرنامج | 11.906 | 49 | .000 | 1.20000 | .9975 | 1.4025 | | | |
| محور انتشار البرنامج | 10.115 | 49 | .000 | 1.20667 | .9669 | 1.4464 | | | |
| محور ئعميم البرنامج | 6.915 | 49 | .000 | .90000 | .6385 | 1.1615 | | | |

Non-parametric or Distribution Free Tests أهمية الأساليب اللامعلمية ومجالات تطبيقها:

- أولاً هناك حالات كثيرة لا يتوافر لها أسلوب معلمى، ويصبح معها الأسلوب اللامعلمى هو الوحيد المتاح استخدامه، وهذه الحالات يمكن تلخيصها فيما يلى: ١ – حالات الاستدلال المتعلقة بالمتغيرات الكيفية المقاسة على المستوى الاسمى والمستوى الترتيبي.
- ٢ حالات الاستدلال المتعلقة بالمتغيرات الكمية، سواء على المستوى الفترى أو النسبى. ولكن فى حالة عدم توافر الشروط والافتراضات الأخرى اللازمة للأساليب المعلمية، مثل شرط التوزيع الطبيعى.
 ٣ – الحالات التى يكون فيها حجم العينة صغيراً.
- ثانيًا الحالات التي يتوافر لها أساليب معلمية، ولكن يفضل مع ذلك استخدام الأساليب اللامعلمية:
- ١ الأساليب اللامعلمية تتضمن قدرًا قليلاً من الشروط أو الافتراضات، وغالبًا ما تكون موجودة عمليًا كأن يكون المتغير مستمرًا أو يكون التوزيع متماثلاً.

٢ - بساطة البناء النظرى للاختبارات اللامعلمية.

- ٣ الأساليب اللامعلمية أكثر سهولة وبساطة وسرعة وأقل تكلفة من الأساليب المعلمية في معظم الحالات.
- ٤ نظرًا لقلة الافتراضات فى الأساليب اللامعلمية فإن نتائجها تكون أكثر ثباتًا أو أقل حساسية من الأساليب المعلمية، إزاء التغيرات فى الظروف المحيطة أو الافتراضات التى تعتمد عليها.

بعض مزايا الاختبارات اللامعلمية (اللابارامترية) ما يلي:

- مهما كان شكل التوزيع المأخوذ منه العينة فإن الاختبار اللامعلمي الذي له مستوى معنوية (دلالة) معين يكون له هيذا المستوى فعلاً بشرط أن تكون العينة قد اختيرت عشوائياً، كما يشترط أيضاً في بعض الحالات استمرار التوزيع.
- الإحصاءات اللامعلمية هي الأسلوب الوحيد الممكن استخدامه في حالة العينات الصغيرة جداً إلا إذا كان توزيع المجتمع معروفاً تماماً.
 - یمکن استخدامها أحیانًا للعینات التي تحتوي على مشاهدات من عدة مجتمعات متفاوتة.
- ④ تصلح لتحليل البيانات التي تكون على صورة رتب دون الحاجة إلى معرفة التوزيع في المجتمع الأصلي للبيانات.
- تستخدم في حالة كون البيانات تتضمن إحدى صيغتي التفضيل مثلًا سليم أو معيب، حيث السليم تكون له إشارة موجبة والمعيب إشارة سالبة، وهنا لا تصلح الطرق التقليدية.
 - 🛞 يمكن تطبيقها عندما تكون البيانات مقاسة بمقياس ضعيف.
 - 🏵 تعتمد على افتراضات قليلة، ومن ثم فرصة تطبيقها خطأ ستكون صغيرة.
 - الحسابات الضرورية للأساليب اللامعلمية عادة ما تكون سهلة ويمكن إنجازها بسرعة.
- سهولة فهمها وطريقة حسابها تجعلها مناسبة جدًا للباحثين الذين ليست لهم خلفية علمية جيدة في الرياضيات والإحصاء.

بعض عيوب الاختبارات اللامعلمية (اللابارامترية):

- نتيجة لسهولة حسابها، في بعض الأحيان يتم تطبيقها في مسائل يكون من الأفضل تطبيق أساليب معلمية عليها، ما يتسبب في ضياع المعلومات.
 - . في حالة العينات الكبيرة يؤدي استخدامها إلى جهد أكبر من الأساليب التقليدية.
- ④ في حالة تحليل بيانات من توزيع طبيعي فإن استخدام الاختبارات اللامعلمية يعد فقدًا للبيانات، وتقاس درجة الفقد بكفاءة الاختبار اللامعلمية.

| المقارنة بين الأساليب المعلمية والأساليب اللامعلمية | | |
|--|---|--|
| الأساليب المعلمية | الأساليب اللامعلمية | |
| ١- تصلح للعينات الكبيرة. | ١- تصلح للعينات الصغيرة والكبيرة أحيانًا. | |
| ٢- تشترط طريقة اختيار العينة. | ٢- لا تشترط طرقًا في اختيار العينات. | |
| ٣- تشترط توافر معلومات عن توزيع المجتمع. | ٢- لا تشترط افتراضات أو معلومات حول توزيع المجتمع. | |
| ٤- تستخدم في التوزيعات المقيدة بالاعتدالية. | ٤- تستخدم في حالة التوزيعات الحرة (غير المقيدة). | |
| ٥ – تناسب البيانات الفئوية والنسبية فقط. | ٥- تناسب البيانات الاسمية والرتبية وتصلح | |
| ٦ – تستغرق وقتًا أطول وأقل سهولة. | أحيانًا للفتُوية والنسبية. | |
| | ٦ – أسهل استخداماً وأسرع تنفيذاً. | |

أساليب الاستدلال الإحصائى المستخدمة فى حالة ما إذا كان الهدف من البحث هو دراسة الضروق (الاختلافات)

| أساليب لا معلمية | أساليب معلمية | مجموعات |
|--|--|-------------------------|
| أساليب كيفية (اسمية – رتبية) | أساليب كمية (نسبية – فئوية) | الدراسة |
| اختبار الإشارة في حالة عينة واحدة (حالة البيانات الرتبية على الأقل). اختبار الإشارة والرتبة في حالة عينة واحدة (حالة البيانات الرتبية على الأقل أيضًا). اختبار مربع كاى (حالة البيانات الاسمية على الأقل). اختبار حسن المطابقة لكولموجروف – اختبار حسن المطابقة لكولموجروف مي مي الأقل أيضًا). | - تقدير فترة الثقة لمتوسط المجتمع (م). - اختبارات الفروض حول متوسط المجتمع (م). - تقدير فترة الثقة لنسبة حدوث ظاهرة معينة فى المجتمع (و). - اختبار الفروض حول نسبة حدوث ظاهرة ظاهرة معينة فى المجتمع (و). | مجموعة (عينة) واحدة. |

| أساليب لا معلمية | أساليب معلمية | مجموعات |
|---|--|--|
| أساليب كيفية (اسمية - رتبية) | أساليب كمية (نسبية - فنوية) | الدراسة |
| اختبار ولكوكسون & مان – ويتنى (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار كولموجروف – سميرنوف لجموعتين مستقلتين (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار فيشر للدلالة عن الفرق بين نسبتين مستقلتين (المتغير التابع اسمى على الأقل). | مقارنة التشتت فى مجتمعين (اختبار التجانس بين مجتمعين). اختبار الفرق بين متوسطى مجتمعين. | مجموعتان (عینتان) مستقلتان. |
| اختبار الإشارة لعينتين مرتبطتين (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار رتب إشارات المجموعات المتزاوجة لولكوكسن (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار المقارنة بين نسبتين مرتبطتين (الختبار مكنمار) (المتغير التابع اسمى على الأقل). | - اختبار الفرق بين متوسطى مجتمعين مرتبطين. | مجموعتان (عینتان) مرتبطتان. |
| اختبار تحليل تباين الرتب أحادى الاتجاه لكروسكال والاس (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار الوسيط للمقارنة بين عدة مجتمعات مستقلة (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). اختبار مربع كاى للمقارنة بين أكثر من نسبتين (المتغير التابع اسمى على الأقل). | – اختبار تحليل التباين فى اتجاه واحد فى حالة العينات المستقلة. | أكثر من مجموعتين (عينتين) مستقلتين. |
| – اختبار تحليل التباين لـ "فريدمان" (المتغير التابع رتبى على الأقل). – اختبار كوكران (ك) للعينات المرتبطة (المتغير التابع اسمى على الأقل). | – تحليل التباين أحادى الاتجاه للقياسات المتكررة. | أكثر من مجموعتين (عينتين) مرتبطتين. |

Flow chart of commonly used statistical tests



Introduction

- Many statistical tests require that your data follow a normal distribution.
- Sometimes this is not the case.
- In some instances it is possible to transform the data to make them follow a normal distribution; in others this is not possible or the sample size might be so small that it is difficult to ascertain whether or not the data a normally distributed.
- In such cases it is necessary to use a statistical test that does not require the data to follow a particular distribution.
- Such a test is called a non-parametric or distribution free test.
- The sign test is an example of one of these.
- <u>The sign test</u>
- is used to test the null hypothesis that the median of a distribution is equal to some value.
- It can be used
- a) in place of a one-sample t-test
- b) in place of a paired t-test or
- c) for ordered categorical data where a numerical scale is inappropriate but where it is possible to rank the observations.
- (Note that the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Sum Test is also appropriate in these situations and is a more powerful test than the sign test.)
- The "paired-samples sign test", typically referred to as just the "sign test", is used to determine whether there is a median difference between paired or matched observations.
- The test can be considered as an alternative to the <u>dependent t-test</u> (also called the paired-samples t-test) or <u>Wilcoxon signed-rank test</u> when the distribution of differences between paired observations is neither normal nor symmetrical, respectively.
- Most commonly, participants are tested at two time points or under two different conditions on the same continuous dependent variable. However, two different groups of participants are possible as part of a "matched-pairs" study design.

What are non-parametric tests?

- Parametric' tests involve estimating parameters such as the mean, and assume that distribution of sample means are 'normally' distributed
- Often data does not follow a Normal distribution e.g number of cigarettes smoked, cost to NHS etc.
- Positively skewed distributions

A positively skewed distribution

Median=140

• What are non-parametric (NP) tests?

'Non-parametric' tests were developed for these situations where fewer assumptions have to be made

Sometimes called **Distribution-free tests**

NP tests STILL have assumptions but are less stringent

NP tests can be applied to Normal data but parametric tests have greater power <u>IF</u> assumptions met.

<u>Ranks</u>

Practical differences between parametric and NP are that NP methods use the <u>ranks</u> of values rather than the actual values

E.g.

1,2,3,4,5,7,13,22,38,45 actual

1,2,3,4,5,6, 7, 8, 9,10 rank

<u>Median</u>

The median is the value above and below which 50% of the data lie. If the data is ranked in order, it is the middle value In symmetric distributions the mean and median are the same In skewed distributions, median more appropriate BPs:

```
135, 138, 140, 140, 141, 142, 143
No. of cigarettes smoked:
```

Parametric Test

- Also called Quantitative, Interval, **Ratio and Normal distributions** data
- **Involve population parameters**
 - **Example: Population mean**
- Require interval scale or ratio scale
 - Whole numbers or fractions
 - Example: Height in inches: 72, 60.5, 54.7
- Have stringent assumptions **Examples**:
 - Normal distribution
 - Homogeneity of Variance



- Nonparametric test Also called Qualitative, Nominal and Non-normal distributions data
- Statistic does not depend on population ٠ distribution
- Data may be *nominally* or *ordinally* • scaled
 - **Examples: Gender [female-male]**, **Birth Order**
- May involve population parameters such as median ٠
- Example: Wilcoxon rank sum test **Advantage**
- Used with all scales ٠
- **Easier to compute**
 - Developed before wide computer use
- Make fewer assumptions
- Need not involve population ٠ parameters
- Results may be as exact as parametric • procedures
 - Disadvantage
- May waste information
 - If data permit using parametric procedures
 - **Example: Converting data from** ratio to ordinal scale
- Difficult to compute by hand for large samples
- Tables not widely available •

Which Statistical Test?

Use the table to obtain informaton on how to carry out the test in SPSS and how to report and present the results.

Move the cursor over the boxes that classify the tests for further details. Click on the statistical tests for more details.

| Number of groups / | Outcome(Dependent) variable | | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Exposure (Independent) variable | Continuous and Normally distributed (Parametric) | Continuous and skewed / Ordinal (Non-parametric) | Binary (2 categories) | Survival Time to event | | | | |
| 1 group | One-sample t test | <u>Sign test /</u> Signed rank test | <u>Chi-square test /</u> <u>Exact test</u> | Life tables analysis | | | | |
| 2 independent groups | Two-sample t test | Mann-Whitney U test | <u>Chi-square test /</u> <u>Fisher's Exact</u> | Log-rank test | | | | |
| | Linear regression | | Logistic regression | Cox regression | | | | |
| Paired (related) sample | Paired t test | Wilcovon signed rank test | <u>McNemar's Test</u> | Notcovered | | | | |
| (2 time points) | Bland-Altman method | Wicoxon aighed fank teat | Kappa statistic | Not covered | | | | |
| >2 independent groups | One-way ANOVA test | Kruskal-Wallis test | <u>Chi-square test /</u> Fisher's Exact Test | Log-rank test | | | | |
| 2 machana 2 anta | Linear regression | | Logistic regression | Cox regression | | | | |
| >2 related samples (>2 time points) | Repeated measures ANOVA | <u>Friedman's Test</u> | Not covered | Not covered | | | | |
| Continuous | Pearson's correlation | Spearman's rank correlation | Logistic regression | Covregression | | | | |
| Continuous | Linear Regression | Linear regression | Logistic regression | CONTEGRESSION | | | | |
| | | | Sensitivity & specificity | | | | | |
| Epidemiological data | | | PPV & NPV | | | | | |
| | | | ROC | | | | | |

http://www.som.soton.ac.uk/learn/resmethods/statisticalnotes/which_test.htm

Parametric / Non-parametric

| Parametric Tests | Non-parametric Tests |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Single sample t-test | Wilcoxon-signed rank test |
| Paired sample t-test | Paired Wilcoxon-signed rank |
| 2 independent samples t-test | Mann-Whitney test(Note: sometimes called Wilcoxon Rank Sums test!) |
| One-way Analysis of Variance | Kruskal-Wallis |
| Pearson's correlation | Spearman Rank |
| Repeated Measures | Friedman |

يوجد لجميع الإختبارات المعلمية السابق عرضها نظائر كإختبارات لامعلمية، بل إن هناك إختبارات لامعلمية لايوجد نظير لها في الإختبارات المعلمية مثل اختبارات جودة التوفيق. بداية من الإصدار 18 من البرنامج تم استحداث جزء خاص بالاختبارات اللامعلمية يعتمد على «الذكاء الإصطناعي» (artificial inteligence) الذي يساعد على اختيار الإختبار اللامعلمي المناسب آليا، Legacy بالإضافة الى الإختيار المعتاد من قبل الباحث من خلال "Legacy ويتا يونين في الباحث من الزائرة المعتاد من قبل الباحث من خلال "Legacy

| | Che-Sample Nonparametric Tests |
|--|--|
| | Objective Fields Settings |
| alyze Direct Marketing Graphs Utilities Add-ons Window Help | Identifies differences in single fields using one or more nonparametric tests. Nonparametric tests do not assume your data follow the normal distribution. |
| Reports | What is your objective? |
| Tables | Each objective corresponds to a distinct default configuration on the Settings Tab that you can further customize, if desired. |
| General Linear Model | © Te <u>s</u> t sequence for randomness |
| Mixed Models | © <u>C</u> ustomize analysis |
| Correlate | |
| Loglinear | Description |
| Neural Networks | Automatically compares observed data to hypothesized using the Binomial test, Chi-Square test, or Kolmogorov-Smirnov. The test chosen varies based on your data. |
| Classify | |
| | Run Paste Reset Cancel O Help |
| Nonparametric Tests | |
| A Independent Samples Survival Belated Samples | كما يتميز أيضا الجزء المستحدث بكتابة القرار الاحصائي سواء برفض فرض العدم او عدم |
| Multiple Response | رفضه او عدم المقدرة على الحساب: |
| Multiple Imputation Complex Samples | القرار معنى القرار معنى القرار القرار معنى القرار |
| Simulation I-Sample Quality Control Image: Control i | Decksion Decksion indent Samples العدم المقدرة على indent Samples المعادة isamples الحساب |
| M Relate | d Samples |



Wilcoxon Signed-Rank

- The Wilcoxon sighed rank test is based on the assumption that the variable under consideration has asymmetric distribution—one that can be divided into two pieces that are mirror images of each other—
- But does not require that its distribution be normal or have any other specific shape.
- Thus, for instance, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test applies to a variable that has a normal, triangular, uniform, or symmetric bimodal distribution but not to one that has a right-skewed or left-skewed distribution.
- The next example explains the reasoning behind this test.

Weekly Food Costs The U.S. Department of Agriculture publishes information about food costs in Agricultural Research Service. According to that document, a typical U.S. family of three spends about \$157 per week on food. Ten randomly selected Kansas families of three have the weekly food costs shown in Table 9.13. Do the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that the mean weekly food cost for Kansas famili

| 143 | 169 | 149 | 135 | 161 |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 138 | 152 | 150 | 141 | 159 |

n – 10 and a –

| Kansas families of three is less than the nationa | al mean o | 01 \$157? | | 11 - 1 | lu allu | u – |
|--|-----------|---|---|------------|---------------|-------------------------|
| Solution Let μ denote the mean weekly food cost for all Kansas families of three. | | Cost (\$) x | Difference $D = x - 157$ | 0.05 D | Rank of D | Signed rank <i>R</i> |
| we want to perform the hypothesis test | | 143 | -14 | 14 | 7 | - 7 |
| $H_0: \mu = $ \$157 (mean weekly food cost is not less than \$157) | | 138 | -19 | 19 | 9 | - 9 |
| H_a : $\mu < $ \$157 (mean weekly food cost is less than \$157). | | 169 152 | 12 -5 | 12 5 | 6 3 | 6 - 3 |
| Total positivo raple – | | 149 | -8 | 8 | 5 | - 5 |
| Total positive falle – | | 150 | -7 | 7 | 4 | - 4 |
| = 1 + 2 + 6 = 9 | | 135 | -16 | 16 | 8 | - 8 |
| Total Negative rank = | | 161 159 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| = 7+9+3+5+4+10+8 = 46 | | , | Ť | t | Ť | Ť |
| القيمة الاقل هى قيمة الاختبار | Step 1 | Subtract µ ₀ from x. | , | | | |
| انها ه | Step 2 | Make each a positive by a absolute val | difference taking lues. | | | |
| انها هی و | Step 3 | Rank the ab in order from to largest (1 | osolute differences m smallest (1) 10). | | | |
| | Step 4 | Give each n sign in the 1 | ank the same sign Difference column | as the | | |

القاعدة اذا كان قيمة الاختبار (الاقل فى مجموع القيم ذات الاشارة الموجبة او السالبة) اقل من اوتساوى القيمة الحرجة Reje

CV = Critical value and TS = Test Statistical

> 9 ≤ 11 So, Reject H0

| One tail | 10% | 5% | 2.5% | 1% | 0.5% |
|----------|-----|-----|------|----|------|
| Two tail | 20% | 10% | 5% | 2% | 1% |
| n | | | | | |
| 3 | 0 | | | | |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | | | |
| 5 | 2 | 1 | 0 | | |
| 6 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 | |
| 7 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 8 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 0 |
| 9 | 11 | 8 | 6 | 3 | 2 |
| 10 | 14 | 11 | 8 | 5 | 3 |
| 11 | 18 | 14 | 11 | 7 | 5 |
| 12 | 22 | 17 | 14 | 10 | 7 |

| 🛷 Cost | VAR0000 3 |
|--------|--------------|
| 143.00 | 157.00 |
| 138.00 | 157.00 |
| 169.00 | 157.00 |
| 152.00 | 157.00 |
| 149.00 | 157.00 |
| 150.00 | 157.00 |
| 135.00 | 157.00 |
| 141.00 | 157.00 |
| 161.00 | 157.00 |
| 159.00 | 157.00 |
| | |

| <u>A</u> n | alyze | <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilities | Extensions | | |
|------------|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | Repo | rts | | • | | |
| 4 | D <u>e</u> sc | riptive Stati | stics | • | | |
| | <u>B</u> ayes | sian Statist | ics | • | | |
| | Ta <u>b</u> le | S | | • | | |
| - | Co <u>m</u> | pare Means | 5 | • | | |
| - | <u>G</u> ene | ral Linear I | Model | • | | |
| - | Gene | ralized Lin | ear Models | * | | |
| - | Mixed | Models | | * | | |
| - | <u>C</u> orre | late | | * | | |
| - | <u>R</u> egr | ession | | * | | |
| - | L <u>og</u> lii | near | | * | | |
| - | Neur | al Net <u>w</u> orks | 5 | * | | |
| - | Class | si <u>f</u> y | | * | | |
| - | <u>D</u> ime | nsion Red | uction | * | | |
| | Sc <u>a</u> le | | | * | | |
| | <u>N</u> onp | arametric | Fests | • | 🛕 <u>O</u> ne Sample | 🛕 <u>O</u> ne Sample |
| | | | | | Å Independent Samples | // Independent Samples |
| | | | | | <u> R</u> elated Samples | <u> R</u> elated Samples |
| | | | | | Legacy Dialogs | Legacy Dialogs |

<u>971</u> <u>B</u>inomial... <u>B</u>uns...

<u> 1</u>-Sample K-S...

Independent Samples...
K Independent Samples...

📉 2 Related Samples...



| 1.611 |
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| Cone-Sample Nonparan | netric Tests |
|------------------------|---|
| Objective Fields Setti | ngs |
| Select an item: | |
| Choose Tests | ◎ Automatically choose the tests based on the data |
| Test Options | Oustomize tests |
| User-Missing Values | Compare observed binary probability to hypothesized (Binomial test) |
| | Options 8 & 4 |
| | Compare observed probabilities to hypothesized (Chi-Square test) |
| | Options |
| | Test observed distribution against hypothesized (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) |
| | Options |
| | Compare median to hypothesized (Wilcoxon signed-rank test) |
| | Hypothesized median: 157 |
| | Test seguence for randomness (Runs test) |
| | Options 8 & d / |
| 1 | |
| تصعط | ▶ Run Paste Reset Cancel 	 Help |

Hypothesis Test Summary

| | Null Hypothesis | Test | Sig. | Decision | |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|------|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1 | The median of Cost equals 157.00. | One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test | .059 | Retain the null hypothesis. | |

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

8.5 اختيارات للأوسطة Medians tests واحد أو حول الأوسطة لمجتمع سوف نقدم فى هذا الجزء اختيارات حول الوسيط لمجتمع واحد أو حول الأوسطة لمجتمع أو أكثر سواء كانت المجتمعات مستقلة أو مرتبطة.
والاختيارات التى سوف نقدمها هى
1- اختيار ويلكوكسون لمقارنة وسيط مجتمع واحد بقيمة فرضية
2- اختيار مان – ويتني لمقارنة وسيطين مستقلين
3- اختيار كروسكال – واليس لمقارنة أوسطة مستقلة
4- اختيار الوسيط لمقارنة واليطة مستقلة
5- اختيار الوسيط لمقارنة وسيطين رقبل مستقلة
6- اختيار الوسيط لمقارنة واليطة مستقلة
7- اختيار الإشارة لمقارنة وسيطين مواحد بقيمة فرضية

8- اختبار ماكنيمار لمقارنة وسيطين مرتبطين (قبل-بعد)

9– اختبار فريدمان لمقارنة أوسطة مرتبطة

8.5.1 اختبار ويلكوكسون لوسيط مجتمع واحد

حين يستخدم إختبار ويلكوكسون لإشارة الرتب (والذى يستخدم عادة لمقارنة لعينتين مرتبطتين) وتكون العينة الثانية قيمة ثابتة، فإن ذلك يعنى مقارنة وسيط مجتمع واحد بقيمة فرضية ثابتة. وهو يناظر اختبار «ت» لعينة واحدة المستخدم فى الحالة المعلمية لمقارنة متوسط مجتمع واحد مع قيمة فرضية.

– الهدف

يستخدم اختبار Wilcoxon signed rank test لمقارنة وسيط مجتمع واحد بقيمة فرضية

الطريقة الأولى للوصول إلى الاختبار: (عن طريق الاختيار)

Analyze --> Nonparametric tests --> Legacy Dialogs 2 Related Samples...

كيفية تنفيذ الاختبار:
 إدراج المتغير المراد إَخَتباره الى Variable1
 إدراج المتغيرذو القيمة الثابتة الى ZVariable
 التأشير علي Wilcoxon
 الضعط على OK.

العلريقة الثانية للوصول إلى الاختبار: (الاختيار الألى)

Analyze --- Nonparametric tests --- Related Samples ...

Analyze → Nonparametric tests → Related Samples ... Related Samples ... Marie Service and the service of th

| - 1 | [Dataset4] | | 55 51415 | | | |
|-----|---------------------------|---------------|----------|-------------|------|------|
| | <u>V</u> iew <u>D</u> ata | a <u>T</u> ra | ansform | <u>A</u> na | lyze | Dire |
| 1 | | | 5 | 2 | | |
| | | | | | | |
| | العمر | | القيمة | | | var |
| | 4 | 3.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 3 | 2.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 3 | 3.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 2 | 8.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 5 | 4.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 4 | 1.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 5 | 0.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 6 | 2.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 2 | 2.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 4 | 5.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 4 | 7.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 5 | 4.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 4 | 3.00 | | 37.00 | | |
| | 3 | 3.00 | | 37.00 | | |

لاختبار ماإذا كان وسيط العمر يساوي 37. ويلاحظ انه تم ادخال أعمار العينة المراد اختبار. في عمود (متغير العمر) وقيمة ثابتة وهي 37 في عمود آخر (متغير القيمة).

الطريقة الأولى (العادية)

Analyze --> Nonparametric tests --> Legacy Dialogs 2- Related Samples ...

بإختيار المتغير "العمر»كمتغير أول (Variablel) وإختيار متغير "القيمة" كمتغير ثان (Variable2) مع التأشير على Wilcoxon كما في النافذة التالية:


| | a | ւե | 0 |
|-----|---|----|---|
| - D | C | IN | 5 |
| _ | | | _ |

| | | Ν | Mean Rank | Sum of Rank |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------|
| الفيمة - العمر | Negative Ranks | 10 ^a | 9.30 | 93.0 |
| | Positive Ranks | 5 ^b | 5.40 | 27.0 |
| | Ties | 0° | | |
| | Total | 15 | | |

P-value (Sig) = 0.061 > 0.05 not sig. الطريقة الالية accept year = 37 as median الطريقة الالية

القيمة < العمر .a

القيمة > العمر .b

الغيمة = العمر . c

Test Statistics^a

| | الفيمة - العمر | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Z | -1.877- ^b | | | | | | | |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .061 | | | | | | | |
| a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks | | | | | | | | |

Test

b. Based on positive ranks.



| n | <u>A</u> nalyze | Direct <u>M</u> arketing | Graphs | s <u>U</u> tiliti | es Add- | <u>o</u> ns | <u>W</u> indow | He |
|------|-----------------|--------------------------|--------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|----------------|----------|
| | Rep | orts | • | A-A | * | | | |
| | D <u>e</u> s | criptive Statistics | • | | | | | _ |
| | Ta <u>b</u> | les | • | | | | | |
| il I | Con | npare Means | • | var | var | | var | |
| - | <u>G</u> en | eral Linear Model | • | | | | | |
| _ | Gen | eralized Linear Mod | dels 🕨 | | | | | |
| - | Mi <u>x</u> e | d Models | • | | | | | _ |
| _ | <u>C</u> ori | relate | • | | | | | - |
| _ | <u>R</u> eg | ression | • | | | | | - |
| - | L <u>o</u> g | linear | • | | | | | - |
| | Neu | ral Net <u>w</u> orks | • | | | | | + |
| | Clas | ssify | • | | | | | + |
| | <u>D</u> im | ension Reduction | • | | | | | \vdash |
| | Sc <u>a</u> | le | • | | | | | |
| | <u>N</u> on | parametric Tests | • | 💧 On | e Sample | | | |
| _ | Fore | ecasting | • | | ependent | Sam | ples | |
| _ | Surv | rival | • | A Re | lated Sam | inles | | - |
| - | Mult | iple Response | • | | atea ean | ipi00. | | |



الطريقة الالية رقم 2

| Analyz | Direct <u>M</u> arketing | <u>G</u> raphs | <u>U</u> tilitie: | s Add- <u>o</u> r | ns <u>W</u> indow | Ŀ |
|----------|--------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---|
| F | Reports | • | AA. | * | | 1 |
| | escriptive Statistics | • | | | | |
| 1 | a <u>b</u> les | • | | | | |
| · (| Co <u>m</u> pare Means | ▶ a | r | var | var | |
| <u>(</u> | eneral Linear Model | • | | | | |
| (| Generali <u>z</u> ed Linear Mo | odels 🕨 | | | | |
| I | li <u>x</u> ed Models | • | | | | |
| <u>(</u> | orrelate | • | | | | |
| Ē | Regression | • | | | | |
| L | <u>o</u> glinear | • | | | | |
| 1 | leural Net <u>w</u> orks | • | | | | |
| (| Classify | • | | | | |
| [| imension Reduction | • | | | | |
| 8 | Bc <u>a</u> le | • | | | | |
| 1 | lonparametric Tests | • | <u>∧</u> One | Sample | | |
| F | orecasting | • | | | | |

| Che-Sample Nonparametric Tests | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Objective Fields Settings | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Identifies differences in single fields using one or more nonparametric tests. Nonparametric tests do not assume your data follow the normal distribution. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| What is your objective? | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Each objective corresponds to a distinct default configuration on the Settings Tab that you can further customize, if desired. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| \bigcirc Automatically compare observed data to hypothesized | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| © Te <u>s</u> t sequence for randomness | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Oustomize analysis | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Description | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 'Customize analysis' allows you fine-grained control over the tests performed and their options. The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test is also available on the Settings tab. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Run Paste Reset Cancel @ Help | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| One-Sample Nonparametric Tests | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| © Use prevented foles | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| © Use custom field assignments | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sort None | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| Run Paste Cancel @ Help | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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| Objective Fields Se | ttings | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Select an item: | | | | | | |
| Choose Tests | \bigcirc Automatically choose the tests based on the data | | | | | |
| Test Options | Customize tests | | | | | |
| User-Missing Values | Compare observed binary probability to hypothesized (Binomial test) Options | | | | | |
| | Compare observed probabilities to hypothesized (Chi-Square test) | | | | | |
| Options | | | | | | |
| | Test observed distribution against hypothesized (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) Options | | | | | |
| | Compare median to hypothesized (Wilcoxon signed-rank test) <u>Hypothesized median:</u> 37 | | | | | |
| | Test seguence for randomness (Runs test) | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |

Hypothesis Test Summary

| | Null Hypothesis | Test | Sig. | Decision |
|---|----------------------------------|--|------|-----------------------------------|
| 1 | The median of Age equals 37.000. | One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test | .061 | Retain the null hypothesis. |

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



Reporting results

- Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumption of normally distribution of difference scores was examined. Histogram, normal Q-Q plots, P- P plots and boxplots showed that difference scores were not normally distributed with a skewness of (SE=....) and a kurtosis of (standard error SE=....) (Cramer, 1998; Howih,2004 and Doane, 2011).
- **The Wilcoxon One Sample Signed-Rank test** was run to determine whether age of subjects was different from 37 years. Median Age depression score 43 was higher than the normal Age score of 37, not statistically significant difference of z=27, p = .061.
- Test showed that There was a not statistically significant difference between median (p *

One sample t-test from Questioners اولا اجراء اختبار ت لمتوسط عينة واحدة من بيانات استمارة استبيان تحتوى على مقياس ليكرت

اولا نقوم بعمل اختبار t لعينة واحده من متوسط المحاور حيث نتعامل معه على انه متغير Scale وبالتالى لازم نعمل الافتراضات U=3 tho U=3 لنفترض اننا نريد عمل الاختبار التالى **50** مثال تطبيقي : (سيتم استخدام بيانات هذا المثال في جميع تطبيقات الكتاب) اهتمت إدارة ما بالبحث عن الأسباب التي تدعو المستفيدين لحضور برنامج ، ومن أجل ذلك تم حصر بعض المتغيرات التي تدعو المستفيد حضور البرنامج ، وذلك من خلال ثلاثة محاور: المحور الأول : (تقدير البرنامج) ويتضمن (موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع ، البرنامج يتميز بسمعة طيبة ، البرنامج يتميز بالجودة). المحور الثاني : (انتشار البرنامج) ويتضمن (سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيراً ، البرنامج سهل التكرار ، البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية) المحور الثالث : (تعميم البرنامج) ويتضمن (مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال ، إمكانية اشتراكك سهلة في البرنامج). ولدراسة هذا البحث تم تصميم استبيان مكون من عوامل ديموجرافية مثل النوع (ذكر، أنثى) ومستوى التعليم (ثانوي ، جامعي ، دراسات عليا) ثم المتغيرات الكمية من خمسة أوزان هي : (موافق جداً ، أموافق ، محايد ، غير موافق ، غير موافق إطلاقاً) ، وكان الاستبيان مصمم كما ينى: العمر بالسنوات : 🗖 أنثى 🗖 ذکر النوع : منافق استب مستوى التعليم: 🗖 در اسات عليا 🗖 جامعى 🗖 ثانو ي

موافق غير موافق موافق المحور موافق العبارة محايد م جدآ اطلاقا موضوع البرنامج يلامس الواقع يتميز البرنامج بسمعة طيبة تقدير البرنامج ۲ يتميز البرنامج بالجودة ٣ سبق تجربة البرنامج كثيرأ ٤ البرنامج سهل التكرار انتشار البرنامج ۰ ٦ البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية مادة البرنامج مرغوبة وعليها إقبال ~ تعميم البرنامج إمكانية اشتراكك فى البرنامج سهلة ~

وبعد توزيع الاستبيان على العينة المستهدفة للإجابة عليها تم جمعها وكان عددها (٢٠) استبياناً، وفيما يلى سنستخدم برنامج SPSS لتحليل نتائج الاستبيان وإدراج التوصيات .

يرجى وضع إشارة (⁄/) في المكان الذي يعكس مستوى اختيارك الصحيح:



| luction | Q_One | Q_Two | Q_Three | Q_Four | Q_Five | Q_Six | Q_Seven | Q_Eight | Group_One | Group_Two | Group_Three | VAR00001 |
|---------|-------|-------|---------|--------|--------|-------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-------------|----------|
| 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 3.67 | 3.33 | 3.00 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.67 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.67 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 4.33 | 4.67 | 3.00 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4.33 | 3.33 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 2.50 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 4.67 | 4.67 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3.67 | 3.67 | 4.00 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 3.33 | 4.67 | 5.00 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2.67 | 2.00 | 1.50 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4.67 | 4.33 | 4.00 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 4.00 | 4.33 | 3.50 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 3.67 | 3.67 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4.67 | 4.33 | 4.00 | 3.00 |
| 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 3.67 | 3.33 | 3.00 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.67 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4.67 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |
| 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 4.50 | 3.00 |

K

عمل اختبار عينة واحدة لكل سؤال من اسئلة الاستبيان نتعامل معه على انه اخبار لا معلمی مباشرة

| <u>A</u> nalyze | Direct <u>Marketing</u> | Graphs | s <u>U</u> tilit | ies Add- <u>o</u> ns | <u>N</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|--------|------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------|-------|
| Reg | orts | • | AH A | | | 5 | | |
| D <u>e</u> s | criptive Statistics | • | | | | ~ | <u> 1</u> 4 (| |
| Ta <u>b</u> | les | • | | | | | | |
| Cor | <u>n</u> pare Means | • | ive | Q_Six | Q_Sev | ven | Q_Eight | Group |
| <u>G</u> er | neral Linear Model | • | | 3 | 5 | | 1 | 3. |
| Ger | nerali <u>z</u> ed Linear Model | ls 🕨 | | 5 | 5 | | 4 | 4. |
| Mi <u>x</u> e | ed Models | • | | 5 | 5 | | 4 | 4. |
| <u>C</u> or | relate | • | | 5 | 5 | | 4 | 5. |
| <u>R</u> eg | ression | • | | 5 | 4 | | 2 | 4 |
| L <u>o</u> g | linear | • | | 5 | 5 | | 5 | 5 |
| Neu | ıral Net <u>w</u> orks | • | | 5 | 5 | | 0 | 5. |
| Cla | ssify | • | | 0 | 0 | | 4 | 0. |
| <u>D</u> im | ension Reduction | • | | 5 | 5 | | 4 | 5. |
| Sc <u>a</u> | le | • | | 3 | 3 | | 4 | 4. |
| <u>N</u> or | iparametric Tests | • | | ne Sample | | | 2 | 3. |
| Fore | ecasting | • | / In | dependent Sample | es | | 2 | 4. |
| Sun | vival | • | A Re | elated Samples | | | 3 | 4. |
| Mult | tiple Response | • | Le | enacy Dialons | • | | hi aguara | |
| 💋 Mis: | sing Value Analysis | l | =- | 5 | 5 | | ini-square | |
| Mult | tiple Imputation | • | | 2 | 2 | <u>071 B</u> | inomial | i i |
| Cor | np <u>l</u> ex Samples | • | | 5 | 5 | | uns | |
| 🖶 Sim | ulation | | | 4 | 4 | <u>1</u> | -Sample K-S | |
| Qua | ality Control | | | 5 | 5 | <u>2</u> | Independent Sampl | es |
| 🖉 R00 | C Cur <u>v</u> e | | | 0 A | 0 | <u> </u> | Independent Sampl | es |
| IBM | SPSS <u>A</u> mos | | | 4 | 4 | 2 | Related Samples | |
| | | | 1 | 4 | 4 | | | |



Ranks

| | | Ν | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|----|-----------|--------------|
| موضوع البرنامج - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 42 | 21.50 | 903.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 0 | .00 | .00 |
| | Ties | 8 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| بِنَمبِز البرنامج بالسمعة - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 36 | 18.50 | 666.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 0 | .00 | .00 |
| | Ties | 14 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| بِنَميز البرنامج بالجودة - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 39 | 24.62 | 960.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 6 | 12.50 | 75.00 |
| | Ties | 5 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| سبق نجرية البرنامج - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 39 | 22.73 | 886.50 |
| | Positive Ranks | 6 | 24.75 | 148.50 |
| | Ties | 5 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| البرنامج سهل - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 40 | 20.50 | 820.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 0 | .00 | .00 |
| | Ties | 10 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| البرنامج بِنميز بالسّعبية - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 40 | 22.98 | 919.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 3 | 9.00 | 27.00 |
| | Ties | 7 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| مادة البرنامج - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 43 | 24.44 | 1051.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 3 | 10.00 | 30.00 |
| | Ties | 4 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |
| امكانية اسْتَراكك - VAR00001 | Negative Ranks | 33 | 24.00 | 792.00 |
| | Positive Ranks | 15 | 25.60 | 384.00 |
| | Ties | 2 | | |
| | Total | 50 | | |

Test Statistics^a

| | - VAR00001 موضوع الإرنامج | - VAR00001 بِنَمبِنِ الْبِرِنَامِجِ بالسمعة | - VAR00001 بِنَمبِنِ البُرنامج بالجودِهَ | - VAR00001 - سبق نجرية الإرنامج | - VAR00001 البرنامج سهل | - VAR00001 البرنامج بِنميز بالسُعبية | - VAR00001 مادة البرنامج | - VAR00001 امكانېة اسْتَراكَكُ |
|------------------------|------------------------------|---|--|------------------------------------|----------------------------|--|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Z | -5.825- ^b | -5.500- ^b | -5.155- ^b | -4.307- ^b | -5.892- ^b | -5.579- ^b | -5.771- ^b | -2.177- ^b |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .030 |

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on positive ranks.

Analyzing categorical data

- Good examples of categorical variables are gender (with few exceptions people can be only biologically male or biologically female), pregnancy and voting in an election.
- Theory of analysing categorical data
- Trying to calculate the mean of a categorical variable is completely meaningless.
- Therefore, when we've measured only categorical variables, we analyse <u>frequencies</u>.
- That is, we analyse the number of things that fall into each combination





Statistics

2 - 1 = 1 d.f.

| Dihybrid Cross: | T = tall R = r t = short r = w | ound rinkled | |
|-----------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|---|
| | Tall, Round | 85 | 9 |
| TtRr x TtRr —→ | Tall, wrinkled | 33 | 3 |
| | short, Round | 37 | 3 |
| | short, wrinkled | 5 | 1 |

Sample size: 160 Null hypothesis: Independent Assortment (9:3:3:1) Predicted values: 90, 30, 30, 10 Degrees of freedom: 4-1 = 3 4.71 < 7.82 Therefore, Null hypothesis cannot be rejected

| | Obs | Ехр | (Obs-Exp) | (Obs-Exp) ² | <u>(Obs-Exp)</u> ² |
|---------------------------|-----|-----|-----------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| T , R | 85 | 90 | -5 | 25 | 0.28 |
| T , w | 33 | 30 | 7 | 49 | 0.3 |
| s, R | 37 | 30 | 3 | 9 | 1.6 |
| s, w | 5 | 10 | -5 | 25 | 2.5 |
| Sum (Chi Squared Value) = | | | | | 4.71 |

8.3 اختبارات جودة التوفيق Goodness of Fit tests تستخدم إختبارات جودة التوفيق للتأكد من أن نموذج ما، يناسب ويمثل البيانات بشك جيد، أو أن البيانات تتبع توزيع احتمالي معين.

في حالة وجود بيانات فئوية (اسمية أوترتيبية) يستخدم إختبار مربع كاي لجودة التوفيق. أ في حالة البيانات الكمية فهناك العديد من اختبارات جودة التوفيق، أبرزها:

- 1- إختبار كولمجورف- سمرنوف (لعينة واحدة أو عينتين).
 - 2 إختبار شابيرو ويلك
 - 3 إختباراً وولد- ولفويتز لعينتين
 - 8.3.1 اختبارمربع كاي لجودة التوفيق

يستخدم إختبار جودة التوفيق للتأكد من أن نموذج ما، يناسب ويمثل البيانات بشكل جيد ويعتبر إختبار مربع كاي إختباراً لجودة التوفيق إختباراً لامعلمياً هاماً، يستخدم لدراس التوزيع الاحتمالي للمتغير. ويعتمد على مقارنة القيم المشاهدة (observed) مع القيم المتوقعة(expected) من التوزيع الاحتمالي.





Goodness-of-Fit Test:

1- Equal Expected Frequencies

- The goodness-of-fit test is one of the most commonly used statistical tests. It is particularly useful because it requires only the nominal level of measurement.
- So we are able to conduct a test of hypothesis on data that has been classified into groups.
- Our first illustration of this test involves the case when the expected cell frequencies are

equal.

- As the full name implies, the purpose of the goodness-of-fit test is to compare an observed distribution to an expected distribution.
- An example will describe the hypothesis-testing situation.
- Bubba's Fish and Pasta is a chain of restaurants located along the Gulf Coast of Florida. Bubba, the owner, is considering adding steak to his menu. Before doing so, he decides to hire Magnolia Research, LLC, to conduct a survey of adults as to their favorite meal when eating out. Magnolia selected a sample 120 adults and asked each to indicate their favorite meal when dining out. The reference for the second second
- Is it reasonable to conclude there is no preference among the
- If there is no difference in the popularity of the four entrée expect the observed frequencies to be equal—or nearly equal.
- To put it another way, we would expect as many adults to in preferred chicken as fish. Thus, any discrepancy in the observence Total
 Total<
- What is the level of measurement in this problem?
- Notice that when a person is selected, we can only classify the selected adult as to the entrée preferred. We do not get a reading or a measurement of any kind.

The "measurement" or "classification" is 1998, Triola, Elementary

| Favorite Entrée | Frequency |
|-----------------|-----------|
| Chicken | 32 |
| Fish | 24 |
| Meat | 35 |
| Pasta | 29 |
| Total | 120 |

Favorite Entrée as Selected by a Sample of 120 Adults

Assumption of Chi-square

<u>Assumption</u> <u>#1</u>: One categorical variable (i.e., the variable can be dichotomous, <u>Nominal or Ordinal</u>).

- Examples of dichotomous variables include gender (2 groups: male or female), treatment type (2 groups: medication or no medication), educational level (2 groups: undergraduate or postgraduate) and religious (2 groups: yes or no).
- Examples of nominal variables include ethnicity (e.g., 3 groups: Caucasian, African American and Hispanic), and profession (e.g., 5 groups: surgeon, doctor, nurse, dentist, therapist).
- Examples of ordinal variables include Likert scales (e.g., a 7-point scale from "strongly agree" through to "strongly disagree"), amongst other ways of ranking categories (e.g., a 5-point scale for measuring job satisfaction, ranging from "most satisfied" to "least satisfied"; a 4-point scale determining how easy it was to navigate a new website, ranging from "very easy" to "very difficult; or a 3-point scale explaining how much a customer liked a product, ranging from "Not very much", to "It is OK", to "Yes, a lot"), and physical activity level (e.g., 4 groups: sedentary, low, moderate and high).

<u>Assumption #2:</u> You should have independence of observations, which means that there is no relationship between any of the cases (e.g., participants).

<u>Assumption #3:</u> The groups of the categorical variable must be mutually exclusive. For example, if the four groups of a categorical variable, Physical Activity Level, were "Sedentary", "Low", "Moderate" and "High", a case (e.g., a participant in an exercise study) could only be in one of these four groups (e.g., a participant could not be classified as having a "High" activity level and a "Low" activity level, but only one or

- If the entrées are equally popular, we would expect 30 adults to select each meal.
- Why is this so? If there are 120 adults in the sample and four categories, we expect that one-fourth of those surveyed would select each entrée.
- So 30, found by 120/4, is the expected frequency for each category or cell, assuming there is no preference for any of the entrées. This information is summarized in Table 17–2.
- An examination of the data indicates meat is the entrée selected most frequently (35 out of 120) and fish is selected least frequently (24 out of 120).
- Is the difference in the number of times each entrée is selected due to chance, or should we conclude that

To the estigate the issue, welly other investigates the procedure.

Step 1:State the null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis .

H0: There is no difference in the proportion of adults selecting each entrée.

H1: There is a difference in the proportion of adults selecting each entrée.

Step 2: Select the level of significance. We selected the .05 significance level. The probability is .05 that a true null hypothesis is rejected.

Step 3:Select the test statistic. The test statistic follows the chi-square distribution,

designation with k - 1 degrees of freedom, where:

k is the number of categories.

f_o is an observed frequency in a particular category.

 f_e is an expected frequency in a particular category.

Step 4: Formulate the decision rule.

TABLE 17–2 Observed and Expected Frequency for

| Favorite Meal | Frequency Observed, f _o | Frequency Expected, f_e |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Chicken | 32 | 30 |
| Fish | 24 | 30 |
| Meat | 35 | 30 |
| Pasta | 29 | 30 |
| Total | 120 | 120 |



CHI-SQUARE TEST STATISTIC

| Favorite Entrée | f _o | f _e | $(f_o - f_e)$ | $(f_o - f_e)^2$ | $(f_o - f_e)^2/f_e$ |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| Chicken | 32 | 30 | 2 | 4 | 0.133 |
| Fish | 24 | 30 | -6 | 36 | 1.200 |
| Meat | 35 | 30 | 5 | 25 | 0.833 |
| Pasta | 29 | 30 | -1 | 1 | 0.033 |
| Total | 120 | 120 | 0 | | 2.200 |

Because there are four categories, there is k - 1 = 4-1=3 degrees of freedom. As noted, a category is called a cell, and there are four cells. The computed X2 of 2.20 is not in the rejection region. It is less than the critical value of 7.815. The decision, therefore, is to not reject the null hypothesis. We conclude that the differences between the observed and the expected frequencies could be due to chance. That means

The chi-square distribution, which is used as the test statistic in this chapter, has the following characteristics. $40 \downarrow 2.2 < 7.81$

- 1. **Chi-square values are never negative.** This is because the difference between f_o and f_e is squared, that is, $(f_o f_e)^2$.
- 2. There is a family of chi-square distributions. There is a chi-square distribution for 1 degree of freedom, another for 2 degrees of freedom, another for 3 degrees of freedom, and so on. In this type of problem, the number of degrees of freedom is determined by k - 1, where k is the number of categories. Therefore, the shape of the chi-square distribution does *not* depend on the size of the sample, but on the number of categories used. For example, if 200 employees of an airline were classified into one of three categories—flight personnel, ground

support, and administrative personnel—there would be k - 1 = 3 - 1 = 2 degrees of freedom.

3. The chi-square distribution is positively skewed. However, as the number of degrees of freedom increases, the distribution begins to approximate the normal probability distribution. Chart 17–2 shows the distributions for selected degrees of freedom. Notice that for 10 degrees of freedom the curve is approaching a





| Degrees of Freedom | | Right-Tail Area | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------|-----------------|--------|--------|--|--|
| df | .10 | .05 | .02 | .01 | | |
| 1 | 2.706 | 3.841 | 5.412 | 6.635 | | |
| 2 | 4.605 | 5.991 | 7.824 | 9.210 | | |
| 3 | 6.251 | 7.815 | 9.837 | 11.345 | | |
| 4 | 7.779 | 9.488 | 11.668 | 13.277 | | |
| 5 | 9.236 | 11.070 | 13.388 | 15.086 | | |

Chi-Square by SPSS All Categories are Equal

• Example

- A website owner, Christopher, wants to offer a free gift to people that purchase a subscription to his website. New subscribers can choose one of three gifts of equal value: a gift voucher, a cuddly toy or free cinema tickets. After 1000 people have signed up, the number of gifts for a gift voucher (370), a cuddly toy (230) or free cinema tickets (400) Christopher wants to review the figures to see if the three gifts offered were equally popular.
- In this case, the three gifts a gift voucher, a cuddly toy or free cinema tickets reflect the three groups of the categorical variable gift_type. The 1000 people that have signed up reflect the "cases" (i.e., cases can be anything from "people", to "animals", "objects", "organisations", and so forth).
- H0: there is no difference between the set of observed frequencies and the set of observed frequencies and any difference between two sets of frequencies can be attributed to sampling (chance)
- H1: there is a difference between the set of observed frequencies and the set of observed frequencies
- There are two methods of entering data into SPSS in order to run a chi-square goodnessof-fit test in SPSS.
- Common to both methods is a column in the SPSS data file which in this example, we shall name gift_type. We have assigned to the certificate, which we labelled "Gift Certificate", "2" for the certificate, which we labelled "Cuddly Toy", and "3" for the free cinema tickets, which we labelled to the second tickets.



| е | Edit | <u>V</u> iew <u>D</u> ata | <u>T</u> ransform | <u>A</u> nalyze E |)irect <u>M</u> arke | ting <u>G</u> raphs | Utilities Add- | ons <u>W</u> indow | <u>H</u> elp | | | |
|---|------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------|---------|
| | | | , 🗠 | ~ | 1 | ч П | | | 4 | | 🕗 🌑 🤞 | HES I |
| | | Name | Type | Width | Decimals | Label | Values | Missing | Columns | Align | Measure | Role |
| 1 | 1 | Gift_type | Numeric | 8 | 2 | | {1.00, Gift c | None | 8 | E Center | 💑 Nominal | 🔪 Input |
| 1 | 2 | Freequancy | Numeric | 8 | 2 | | None | None | 8 | 薹 Center | scale 🔗 | 🔪 Input |
| | | | 4 | | | | | | | | | |
| | Da | ta View | Variable V | 'iew | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| ondicar | Datas | | 1 31 | 55 514131 | | |
|--------------|------------------|--------------|------|-----------|-------|-----|
| <u>E</u> dit | <u>V</u> iew | <u>D</u> ata | Tra | ansform | Analy | /ze |
| - H | ¢, | þ 🔟 | J | 5 | 7 | |
| | | | | | | |
| | Gif | t_type | | Freequar | ncy | v |
| 1 | Gift certificate | | e | 370.00 |) | |
| 2 | Cau | ddly toy | · | 230.00 |) | |
| 3 | Cim | na ticket | : | 400.00 |) | |
| 4 | | | | | | |
| | 1 | | | | | |
| | _ | | | | | |
| Data Vi | ew V | ariable V | 'iew | | | |
| | | | | | | |

 Note: If you have entered your data in this way, you cannot run the chi-square goodness-of-fit test without first "weighting" your cases. This is a procedure that tells SPSS that you have summated your categories. It is required because it changes the way that SPSS deals with your data in order to run the chi-square goodness-of-fit test.



🐴 Weight Cases.

Do not forget change to (Do not weight cases) after finish chi square by this way Alternatively, you may have the data in raw form (i.e., you have not summated the frequencies). In this case, you do not need a second column as SPSS can calculate the frequencies of occurrence of each category for you. This would mean that, in this example, there are 1000 rows of data, of which the beginning of said data is

Edit View Data Transform We need in this case 1000 cases

| _ | | | | |
|------|----------|-----------|---------|-----|
| : (| Gift_typ | е | | |
| | | Gift_t | ype | var |
| 1 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 2 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 3 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 4 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 5 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 6 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 7 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 8 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 9 | | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 10 |) | Gift cert | ificate | |
| 57 | 6 | Cauddly | y toy | |
| 57 | 7 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 57 | 8 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 57 | 9 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 0 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 1 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 2 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 3 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 4 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 5 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 6 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 7 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 8 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 58 | 9 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 59 | 0 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 59 | 1 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 59 | 2 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 59 | 3 | Cauddl | y toy | |
| 59 | 4 | Cauddl | ytoy | |
| 990 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 991 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 992 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 993 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 994 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 995 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 996 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 997 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 998 | | Cimma | ticket | |
| 999 | | Cimma | ticket | |
| 1000 | | Cinma | ticket | |
| 1001 | | | | |

We do not need to weighted cases in if we use this way

Click <u>Analyze > Nonparametric Tests > Legacy Dialogs > Chi-square...</u> on the top menu as shown below:



Chi-Square Test

Frequencies

| Gift_1 | type |
|--------|------|
|--------|------|

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|------------------|------------|------------|----------|
| Gift certificate | 370 | 333.3 | 36.7 |
| Cauddly toy | 230 | 333.3 | -103.3- |
| Cinma ticket | 400 | 333.3 | 66.7 |
| Total | 1000 | | |

Test Statistics

| | Gift_type |
|-------------|---------------------|
| Chi-Square | 49.400 ^a |
| df | 2 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .000 |

 a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 333.3. We can see from this table that our test statistic is statistically significant: $\chi^2(2) = 49.4$,

p < .000. Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there are statistically significant differences in the preference of the type of sign-up gift, with less people preferring the "Cuddly Toy" (N = 230) compared to either the "Gift Certificate"

(N = 370) or the "Cinema Tickets" (N = 400).

- اسـتخدام اختبـار " مربـع كـاي " : يعتبـر اختبـار " مربـع كـاي" مـن الاختبـارات المهمة في الإحصاء ، حيث أن لـه عـدة استخدامات أو تطبيقـات متنوعـة وكـل منهــا لا تقــل أهميــة عــن الأخــرى (كمــا أنــه يعتبــر أحــد الأدوات المهمــة فــي الإحصاء الـلا معلمي أو الـلا برامتـري) . ولعـل مـن أشهر اسـتخدامات توزيـع مربـع كـاي هـو " اختبـار الاسـتقلال " .. وهـذا الاختبـار وكما يتضح مـن أسـمه يختبر ما إذا كان المتغيران مسـتقلين أم لا . فهـو لا يقـيس الارتبـاط أو لا يختبـر الاسـتقلال " .. وهـذا الاختبـار وكما يتضح أخـرى لاختبـار معامـل الارتبـاط بـين المتغيـرين . كمـا أن اسـتخدام اختـار مربـع كـاي لا يختبـر الاسـتقلال " ..
- * ومـن الاختبـارات المهمـة لتوزيـع مربـع كـاي " اختبـار التجـانس أو التماثـل " والـذي يستخدمه معظم (أو كل) الطلاب والباحثين عند استخدام مقياس ليكرت (أو غيـره) لتوضيح ما إذا كان هناك تجانس أو تماثـل أو تساوي في آراء أفـراد المجتمع حول الفقرات المختلفة لكل محور من محاور الدراسة . ً الخماسى لدرجة الموافقة (موافـق إذا كان المقياس المستخدم هو مقياس ليكرت * فمثلا بشدة ، موافق ، محايد ، غير موافق ، غير موافق بشدة) فإن هذا الاختبار يختبـر ما إذا كانـت إجابـات أفـراد مجتمـع الدراسـة تتـوزع بالتسـاوي (أو بالتماثـل) علـى هــذه الإجابـات الخمسـة اى أن الفـرض الصـفري لهـذا الاختبـار هـو أن هنـاك تجـانس (أو تماثـل أو تسـاوي) فـي آراء أفـراد المجتمع حـول درجـات الخمسـة اى أن الفـرض الصـفري لهـذا الاختبـار هـو أن هنـاك تجـانس أو تسـاوي) فـي آراء أفـراد المجتمع حـول درجـات الموافقـة الخمسـة . فـإذا تـم رفض هـذا الفـرض الصـفري فـزا يحني اخـتلاف أو عـدم تماثـل) علـى هــذه الإجابـات الخمسـة اى أن الفـرض الصـفري لهـذا الاختبـار هـو أن هنـاك تجـانس (أو تماثـل أو تسـاوي) فـي آراء أفـراد المجتمـع حـول درجـات الموافقـة الخمسـة . فـإذا تـم رفض هـذا الفـرض الصـفري فـزا يك اخـتلاف أو عـدم تماثل (أو وجـود فـروق ذات دلالـة إحصائية) في آراء أفـراد المجتمع حـول درجـات الموافقـة ويـجـب أن يكـون ذلك بمستوى دلالة محدد .

Goodness-of-fit - Unequal expected frequencies.

• **Example:** Suppose that it was claimed that the car colors in your area were present in the following proportions: 40% silver, 30% red, 20% blue and 10% green. If you decided to test this claim and went out and took a random sample of 150 cars you might end up with the following results: 55 silver, 50 red, 32 blue and 13 green. Now you want to do an hyopthesis test.

Doing the hypothesis test.

- The null hypothesis will be that the frequencies in your area are consistent with those claimed.
- The alternative will be that one or more of the frequencies is different from that claimed.
- We will use alpha = 0.05.
- The data is nominal and the Chi-Square statistic is appropriate.
- The critical value of the Chi-Square statistic with alpha = 0.05 and 4 1 = 3 degrees of freedom is 9.488. If the calculated value of Chi-Square is greater than 7.815 we will reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative. Otherwise we will not reject the null hypothesis.
- To get the expected frequencies (E) we will multiply 100 (the number of care observed) by the percent of each car that we expected to find in

| Cars colors | Percent of Total | Observed Number Fre exp | Expected Number | 0 - E | $(O_i - E_i)^2$ | $\frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$ |
|-------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| Silver | 40 | 55 | (40*150)/100=60 | -5 | 25 | 0.4167 |
| Red | 30 | 50 | (30*150)/100=45 | 5 | 25 | 0.5556 |
| Blue | 20 | 32 | (20*150)/100=30 | 2 | 4 | 0.1333 |
| Greeb | 10 | 13 | (10*100)/100=15 | -2 | 4 | 0.2667 |
| Total | 100 | 150 | 150 | | | 1.3723 |







Reporting Results

The table below, **Test Statistics**, provides the actual result of the chi-square goodness-of-fit test.

• We can see from this table that our test statistic is statistically significant: $\chi^2(2) = 49.4$, p < .0005. Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there are statistically significant differences in the preference of the type of sign-up gift, with less people preferring the "Cuddly Toy" (N = 230) compared to either the "Gift Certificate" (N = 370) or the "Cinema Tickets" (N = 400).

Limitations of Chi-Square

If there is an unusually small expected frequency in a cell, chi-square (if applied) might result in an erroneous conclusion. This can happen because fe appears in the denominator, and dividing by a very small number makes the quotient quite large! Two generally accepted policies regarding small cell frequencies are:

| | | • | 1 11 | Inuiviuu | ai 1 ₀ | I _e |
|---|--|----------|--------------------|-------------|--------------------------|----------------|
| 1. If there are only two cells, the expected frequency in each cell | | | | | 64 | 1 64 |
| | should be at least 5. The computation of chi-square would be | | | | | 7 |
| | permissible in the following problem, involving a | minin | num <i>fe</i> | interato | | |
| | off | Level | of Management | | f _o | f _e |
| ე | For more then two cells, shi equane should not be | Forem | nan | | 30 | 3 |
| Ζ. | For more than two cens, chi-square should not be | | 110 | 11 | | |
| | than 20 percent of the <i>fe</i> cells have expected frequ | | ger | | 86 | 8 |
| | than 5. | | ant vice president | | 23 | 2 |
| ٨c | cording to this policy it would not be appropriate to | Vice p | resident | | 5 | |
| н | coruning to this poincy, it would not be appropriate to | Senio | r vice president | | 4 | |
| go | odness-of-fit test on the following data. Three of the | S Tot | al | | 263 | 26 |
| or | 43 percent, have expected frequencies (fe) of less th | nan 5 | | No. 10. 10. | | 21 020438 |
| То | show the reason for the 20 percent policy, we cond | served | expected | 0 - E | (0 - E) ² / E | % of chise |
| For | this test at the 0.05 significance level. Hois wels of | 30 | 32.000 | -2.000 | 0.125 | 0.8 |
| | ouncess of interest on the above data on the levels of | 110 | 113.000 | -3.000 | 0.080 | 0.5 |
| I MI | shage thene. Company the byteme of chi-square is | 86 | 87.000 | -1.000 | 0.011 | 0.0 |
| gre | ater than 12.592. The computed value is 14.01, so | 23 | 24.000 | -1.000 | 0.042 | 0.3 |
| we | reject the null hypothesis that the observed | 5 | 2.000 | 3.000 | 4.500 | 32.1 |
| fre | muencies represent a random sample from the | 5 | 4.000 | 1.000 | 0.250 | 1.7 |
| | Aution of the expected values. Exemine output | 4 | 1 000 | 3.000 | 9.000 | 64.2 |
| hob | outation of the expected values. Examine output. | 263 | 263.000 | 0.000 | 14.008 | 100.00 |
| Mo | re than 98 percent of the computed chi-square | | | | | |
| val | ue is accounted for by the three vice president | 14.01 cl | hi-square | | | |
| cat | egories ([4.500 +0.250 +9.000]/14.008 =0.9815). | 6 df | | | | |
| Log | cically, too much weight is being given to these 📃 | .0295 p- | value | | | |
| rati | Ponries | | | | | 43 |
| | | | | | | 0 |
The dilemma can be resolved by combining categories if it is logical to do so. In the above example, we combine the three vice presidential categories, which satisfies the 20 percent policy.

| ing | Management | | f _o | f _e |
|---------------|----------------------|--------|----------------|----------------|
| 0 | Foreman | | 30 | 32 |
| ove | Supervisor | | 110 | 113 |
| vice | Manager | | 86 | 87 |
| ~ 20 | Middle management | | 23 | 24 |
| 5 20 | Vice president | | 14 | 7 |
| | Total | | 263 | 263 |
| observed | expected | 0-E | (0 - E)² / E | % of chisq |
| 30 | 32.000 | -2.000 | 0.125 | 1.72 |
| 110 | 113.000 | -3.000 | 0.080 | 1.10 |
| 86 | 87.000 | -1.000 | 0.011 | 0.16 |
| 23 | 24.000 | -1.000 | 0.042 | 0.57 |
| 14 | 7.000 | 7.000 | 7.000 | 96.45 |
| 263 | 263.000 | 0.000 | 7.258 | 100.00 |
| 7.26 c 4 d | hi-square f | | | |
| 1229 n | -1/2/110 | | | |

The computed value of chi-square with the revised categories is 7.26. See the following output. This value is less than the critical value of 9.488 for the 0.05 significance level. The null hypothesis is, therefore, not rejected at the 0.05 significance level. This indicates there is not a significant difference between the observed

Statistics

distribution and the expected distribution.

اجراء اختبار مربع كاى من بيانات استمارة استبيان تحتوى على مقياس ليكرت 20% = موافق جدا = موافق = محايد = غير موافق = غير موافق مطلاقا H0:

| Gender | Age | Eduction | Q_One | Q_Two | Q_Three | Q_Four | Q_Five | Q_Six | Q_Seven | Q_Eight |
|----------|-----|----------|-------|-------|---------|--------|--------|-------|---------|---------|
| 1 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 |
| 1 | 40 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 1 | 35 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 2 | 28 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 1 | 40 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 |
| 2 | 34 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| 2 | 36 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 1 | 48 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 2 | 33 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| 2 | 25 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| 2 | 24 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 2 |
| 1 | 56 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| 1 | 48 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| 2 | 40 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| 1 | 26 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| 1 | 38 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| 2 | 25 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| 2 | 27 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 2 |
| 1 | 28 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| 1 | 58 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| 1 | 22 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 |
| 1 | 40 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 1 | 35 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 2 | 28 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 1 | 40 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 |
| <u> </u> | 24 | 4 | 5 | E | E | 5 | E | E | 5 | E |

اجراء اختبار مربع كاى من بيانات استمارة استبيان تحتوى على مقياس ليكرت

| | <u>Analyze</u> Direct <u>Marketing</u> <u>Gra</u> | aph | s <u>U</u> tilit | ies Add- <u>o</u> ns <u>V</u> | <u>N</u> indow <u>H</u> e | elp | |
|---|---|---------|------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|------------|---------|
| | Reports Descriptive Statistics |) } | | 1 👪 🖬 | | 🎝 🧮 🔺 | |
| | Ta <u>b</u> les | • | | | | | |
| Г | Co <u>m</u> pare Means | ۶ | our | Q_Five | Q_Six | Q_Seven | Q_Eight |
| 3 | <u>G</u> eneral Linear Model | ۲ | | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 |
| 5 | Generalized Linear Models | ۲ | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | Mixed Models | ۶. | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | <u>C</u> orrelate | ۴. | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 4 | Regression | • | | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 |
| 5 | L <u>o</u> glinear | ۱. ۱ | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| 5 | Neural Networks | Р., | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | Dimension Reduction | г Б | | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 5 | Scale | , • | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 4 |
| 3 | Nonparametric Tests | • | A Or | e Sample | | 3 | 2 |
| 5 | Forecasting | ۶ | | dependent Sample | es | 5 | 2 |
| 1 | Survival | ۲ | A Re | lated Samples | | 4 | 3 |
| 3 | M <u>u</u> ltiple Response | ۶ | Le | gacy Dialogs | | | |
| 3 | 🕵 Missing Value Anal <u>y</u> sis | | <u> </u> | 5 | 5 | M Dinomial | |



موضوع البرنامج

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----------|------------|------------|----------|
| محابد | 8 | 16.7 | -8.7- |
| موافق | 20 | 16.7 | 3.3 |
| موافق جدا | 22 | 16.7 | 5.3 |
| Total | 50 | | |

سبق تجربة البرنامج

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|------------------|------------|------------|----------|
| غبر موافق مطاذفا | 3 | 10.0 | -7.0- |
| غبر موافق | 3 | 10.0 | -7.0- |
| محابد | 5 | 10.0 | -5.0- |
| موافق | 23 | 10.0 | 13.0 |
| موافق جدا | 16 | 10.0 | 6.0 |
| Total | 50 | | |

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----------|------------|------------|----------|
| محابد | 14 | 16.7 | -2.7- |
| موافق | 10 | 16.7 | -6.7- |
| موافق جدا | 26 | 16.7 | 9.3 |
| Total | 50 | | |

بتميز البرنامج بالسمعة

البرنامج سهل

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----|------------|------------|----------|
| غبر | 6 | 12.5 | -6.5- |
| | 5 | 12.5 | -7.5- |
| | 10 | 105 | |

يتميز البرنامج بالجودة

| غبر موافق | 6 | 12.5 | -6.5- |
|-----------|----|------|-------|
| محابد | 5 | 12.5 | -7.5- |
| موافق | 18 | 12.5 | 5.5 |
| موافق جدا | 21 | 12.5 | 8.5 |
| Total | 50 | | |
| | | | |

البرنامج يتميز بالشعبية

| oserved N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----------|---------------------------------------|--|
| 3 | 12.5 | -9.5- |
| 7 | 12.5 | -5.5- |
| 14 | 12.5 | 1.5 |
| 26 | 12.5 | 13.5 |
| 50 | | |
| | bserved N 3 7 14 26 50 | bserved N Expected N 3 12.5 7 12.5 14 12.5 26 12.5 50 |

| مادة البرنامج |
|---------------|
|---------------|

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----------|------------|------------|----------|
| غبر موافق | 3 | 12.5 | -9.5- |
| محابد | 4 | 12.5 | -8.5- |
| موافق | 16 | 12.5 | 3.5 |
| موافق جدا | 27 | 12.5 | 14.5 |
| Total | 50 | | |

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|-----------|------------|------------|----------|
| محابد | 10 | 16.7 | -6.7- |
| موافق | 8 | 16.7 | -8.7- |
| موافق جدا | 32 | 16.7 | 15.3 |
| Total | 50 | | |

امكانية اشتراكك

| | Observed N | Expected N | Residual |
|------------------|------------|------------|----------|
| غبر موافق مطلاقا | 6 | 10.0 | -4.0- |
| غبر موافق | 9 | 10.0 | -1.0- |
| محابد | 2 | 10.0 | -8.0- |
| موافق | 22 | 10.0 | 12.0 |
| موافق جدا | 11 | 10.0 | 1.0 |
| Total | 50 | | |

Test Statistics

| | موضوع البرنامج | بِنَمبِز البَرنامج بالسمعة | بِنمبِز البر نامج بالجودة | سبق نجربة البرنامج | البرنامج سهل | البرنامج بِنَميز بالسّعبية | مادة البر نامج | امكانبة اسّتراكك |
|-------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|
| Chi-Square | 6.880 ^a | 8.320 ^a | 16.080 ^b | 32.800° | 21.280 ^a | 24.400 ^b | 30.800 ^b | 22.600° |
| df | 2 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .032 | .016 | .001 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 |

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 10.7.

b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 12.5.

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 10.0.

اختبار كاى من الاستمارة على النوع او على مستوى التعليم في حالة تساوى التكرارالمتوقع وعدم تساوى التكرارالمتوقع كيف؟



المستوى الاول: اساسيات التحليل الاحصائى للبيانات والاستبيانات

| | <u> </u> | | |
|----|------------------------|---|---|
| ىج | است <u>خدامع</u> برناد | <u>PSS وتصعيم</u> التجارب ب | المحتوى عربى |
| | المحاضره | 1- Introduction to statistics, what is | [مقدمه عن الاحصاء ؛ أتواع |
| | الاولى | statistics, Types of Statistics Some | الاحصاء؛العثيره ؛العِنَّه:اتواع |
| | | types of variables. Levels of | المتغيرات (اسميه ترتيبه رقميه) |
| | | Measurement (Scale, Nominal and | 2 تصطيب برنامج SPSS نسفه |
| | | Ordinal) | 25 مع کراڭ |
| | | 2- Install the IBM SPSS version 25 + | 3_ بينه العمل في SPSS وتوافذه |
| | | 3- Environment of SPSS | 4_مقدمه تكويد البياتات من |
| | | 4- Introduction Coding and Enter | الاستياتات وانخالها (مقياس |
| | | Questionnaire data into SPSS | ئيكرت) |
| | المحاضره | 1- Introduction of Experimental |] مقدمه تكويد البياتات من تجريه |
| | الثاتيه | Designs how can code data | مصممه احصائيا |
| | | 2- Data into SPSS from Excel 3 Describing Data: Simple and | 2۔ استدعاء البیانات من برنامج |
| | | Grouped Frequency Tables. | اكسيل |
| | | 4- Record into different variables | 3_وصف البياتات؛ الجدوال |
| | | 5- Automatic Record and Manual | التكراريه البسيطه وذات القلات |
| | | record | 4۔عمل متغیر فی صورہ فلات عمل |
| | | | يصوره الية وخمل يدوى |
| | المحاضره | 1-Graphic Presentation (Pie chart, | الرسومات البياتية(المدرج |
| | الحالحه | Histogram, Bar charts, Error bars, Dot | التكراري ؛الاعمده البياتيه؛الدائره؛ |
| | | plot, Stem and leaf Line charts, Pareto | رسمه الساق والورقه ، شكل باريتو. |
| | | Pyramid) | 2-رسمه الصندوق وتحديد القيم |
| | | 2- Boxplot and outliers | المتطرقه |
| | | 3-Change of Format of graph (color, | 3 تغيير فورمات الرسومات (الوان |
| | | 4-Save Output in Word. Pdf. Excel | ورحجم الرسم |
| | | Format | 4_حفظ المخرجات في صوره |
| | | | Word , Pdf, Excel |

| المحاضره | Describing Data: Numerical Measures, | 1-وصف البياتات بالأرفام (المتوسط |
|----------|---|--|
| الرايعه | (Mean, median and mode "Which best | والوسيط والمتوال وايهما اقصل) |
| - | one"), | 2-التوزيعات المتنظمه والملتويه |
| | 2- Data Distribution (symmetric and | 3_مقاييس التشتت (المدى التباين ق |
| | skewed distribution) | الاحراف المعياري والخطا المعياري |
| | 3- Measures of Dispersion (Variance, Standard doviation and standard error | و.ايهما اقتسل |
| | "What the different") | 4 معامل الاختلاف |
| | 4- The Coefficient of Variance | 5_المئتيات |
| | 5- The Percentiles | 6-المدي الرييعي |
| | 6- The Interquartile Range | 7_القيم االمتطر فه |
| | 7- Outliers | 8_التقريق |
| | 8- Kurtosis | |
| المحاضره | 1- Weighting cases | 1 القيم الموزونه |
| الخامسه | 2- Data Cleaning and Data | 2-تنظيف وصدق البيانات |
| | 3- Design and Analysis of | 3-تصميم وتحليل الاستبيان |
| | Questionnaires | 4 مقياس ليكرت وتحويله الى |
| | 4- Likert scale, | متغير رتيى |
| | 5- Test of Validity and Reliability. | 5-اختيار صدق وثيات الاستييان |
| | a- <u>Cronbach's</u> alpha | ا-ألقا كروتياخ |
| | guestions | ب معامل کودرریتشاسون لقیاس |
| | c-Split half method | صدق وثيات الاسنله الثنانيه |
| | | ج طريقه التجزنه النصقيه للثيات |
| المحاضره | 1- Advanced Coding and Enter | 1- تكويد الاسنله (متعدده |
| السادسة | Questionnaire data into SPSS (Multiple | الاستجاباتالمقتىحة |
| | Response, Ranked response, Open, Negative and Filter questions) | السلبيهالترتيبيه) |
| | 2- Create and Design Online | 2-تصميم استبيان الكترونى من |
| | questionnaires using Google form. | جوجل قورم |
| | 3-Compute new variables | 3 -استخدام كيقيه حساب المتغير |
| | 5-Automatic recoding | 4-تسچيل متغير جديد |
| | 6-File splitting | 5-تسجيل اتوماتيكي ويدوى |
| | 7-Selecting cases | 6 - تقسيم البياتات |
| | 8-Aggregate data | 7 اختبار حالات معتقدهم الساتات |
| | 9-Sorting Data | |
| | 10-Merging files | 8-الييانات المجمعة |
| 1 | | |

| المحاضره | 1- Introduction to probability | [مقدمه عن الاحتمالات |
|----------|--|---------------------------------------|
| السايعه | 2- Combination and permutation | 2-التوافيق والتياديل |
| | 3- Estimation | 3_التقدير |
| | a- Point estimate | ايتقدر يتقطه |
| | b- Confidence Intervals estimate | |
| | c- Large sample n > 30 (z-test) | |
| | u- sman sample it <su (t-test)<="" td=""><td>ج التقدير في حالة حجم عينة أكبر من 30</td></su> | ج التقدير في حالة حجم عينة أكبر من 30 |
| | | د_التقدير في حالة حجم عينة أقل من 30 |
| المحاضره | 1- Normal distribution, | 1 - التوزيع الطبيعي |
| التامنة | 2- Standard normal curve (Z) | 2-التوزيع الطبيعي العياري (Z) |
| | 3-Discrete distribution | 3-التوزيعات المتقطعه |
| | b-Poisson Probability | ا- توزيع ذات الحدين |
| | Distributions. | ب-توزيع يواسون |
| | 4-Formal and informal tests for | 4-الاختيارات الرسميه وغير الرسميه |
| | testing normality of data Shapiro test and histogram | لاختيار اعتداليه البياتات |
| المحاضره | 1-Sampling distribution and the | 1 توزيع المتوسطات ونظريه النهايه |
| القاسعه | Central Limit Theorem | المركزية |
| | 2-Steps of Hypothesis Testing | 2 خطوات احراء اختيار القروض |
| | 3-Cross tabulation first order and | المدال المقاطعة مع الدر |
| | second order and | و البيدون المصلحات من الدرية الروايي |
| | 4-Parametric and Non parametric tests | والتانية |
| | | 4-الاختيارات المعلميه واللامعلمية |
| المحاضره | 1-P-value, Sig., Not Sig., One tail, Two | 1 - ما هي ال p-value معنى |
| العاشره | tail test and Z-value | المعتوية (الدلالة الاحصانية)؛ اختيار |
| | 2-Power of tests | من طرف واحد او طرقين؛ |
| | 3-Type One Error and type Two Error. | 2 قوره الاختيار |
| | how can interpretation and decrease | 3 خطأ من النوع الأول والثاني وكيفيه |
| | each one of them? | التحكم قدمما وكبقية تقلبا إكلا متمما |
| | 4-How can choose the best statistical | |
| | test | 4 کیفیہ احدیان النجنین الاحصانی |
| 1 | | المتاسب لليياتات. |