

Excel for Statistics

Thomas J. Quirk

Excel 2016 for Engineering Statistics

A Guide to Solving Practical Problems



Springer

Excel for Statistics

Excel for Statistics is a series of textbooks that explain how to use Excel to solve statistics problems in various fields of study. Professors, students, and practitioners will find these books teach how to make Excel work best in their respective field. Applications include any discipline that uses data and can benefit from the power and simplicity of Excel. Books cover all the steps for running statistical analyses in Excel 2016, Excel 2013, Excel 2010 and Excel 2007. The approach also teaches critical statistics skills, making the books particularly applicable for statistics courses taught outside of mathematics or statistics departments.

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Thomas J. Quirk
Webster University
St. Louis, MO, USA

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This book is dedicated to the more than 3,000 students I have taught at Webster University's campuses in St. Louis, London, and Vienna; the students at Principia College in Elsah, Illinois; and the students at the Cooperative State University of Baden-Wuerttemburg in Heidenheim, Germany. These students taught me a great deal about the art of teaching. I salute them all, and I thank them for helping me to become a better teacher.

Thomas J. Quirk

Preface

Excel 2016 for Engineering Statistics: A Guide to Solving Practical Problems is intended for anyone looking to learn the basics of applying Excel's powerful statistical tools to their engineering courses or work activities. If understanding statistics isn't your strongest suit, you are not especially mathematically inclined, or if you are wary of computers, then this is the right book for you.

Here you'll learn how to use key statistical tests using Excel without being overpowered by the underlying statistical theory. This book clearly and methodically shows and explains how to create and use these statistical tests to solve practical problems in the engineering sciences.

Excel is an easily available computer program for students, instructors, and managers. It is also an effective teaching and learning tool for quantitative analyses in engineering courses. The powerful numerical computational ability and the graphical functions available in Excel make learning statistics much easier than in years past. However, this is the first book to show Excel's capabilities to more effectively teach engineering statistics; it also focuses exclusively on this topic in an effort to render the subject matter not only applicable and practical but also easy to comprehend and apply.

Unique features of this book:

- You will be told each step of the way, not only *how* to use Excel but also *why* you are doing each step so that you can understand what you are doing and not merely learn how to use statistical tests by rote.
- Includes specific objectives embedded in the text for each concept, so you can know the purpose of the Excel steps.
- Includes 162 color screenshots so that you can be sure you are performing the Excel steps correctly.
- This book is a tool that can be used either by itself or along with *any* good statistics book.
- Practical examples and problems are taken from the engineering sciences.

- Statistical theory and formulas are explained in clear language without bogging you down in mathematical fine points.
- You will learn both how to write statistical formulas using Excel and how to use Excel's drop-down menus that will create the formulas for you.
- This book does not come with a CD of Excel files which you can upload to your computer. Instead, you'll be shown how to create each Excel file yourself. In a work situation, your colleagues will not give you an Excel file; you will be expected to create your own. This book will give you ample practice in developing this important skill.
- Each chapter presents the steps needed to solve a practical engineering problem using Excel. In addition, there are three practice problems at the end of each chapter so you can test your new knowledge of statistics. The answers to these problems appear in Appendix A.
- A "Practice Test" is given in Appendix B to test your knowledge at the end of the book. The answers to these practical engineering science problems appear in Appendix C.

This book is appropriate for use in any course in engineering statistics (at both undergraduate and graduate levels) as well as for managers who want to improve the usefulness of their Excel skills.

St. Louis, MO

Thomas J. Quirk

Acknowledgments

Excel 2016 for Engineering Statistics: A Guide to Solving Practical Problems is the result of inspiration from three important people: my two daughters and my wife. Jennifer Quirk McLaughlin invited me to visit her M.B.A. classes several times at the University of Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, South Africa. These visits to a first-rate M.B.A. program convinced me there was a need for a book to teach students how to solve practical problems using Excel. Meghan Quirk-Horton's dogged dedication to learning the many statistical techniques needed to complete her Ph.D. dissertation illustrated the need for a statistics book that would make this daunting task more user-friendly. And Lynne Buckley-Quirk was the number one cheerleader for this project from the beginning, always encouraging me and helping me remain dedicated to completing it.

Marc Strauss, our editor at Springer, caught the spirit of this idea in our first phone conversation and guided this book through the idea stages until it reached its final form. His encouragement and support, along with Christine Crigler's shepherding of this book through production, were vital to this book seeing the light of day. We thank them both for being such outstanding product champions throughout this process.

Thomas J. Quirk

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Chapter 1

Sample Size, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of the Mean

This chapter deals with how you can use Excel to find the average (i.e., “mean”) of a set of scores, the standard deviation of these scores (STDEV), and the standard error of the mean (s.e.) of these scores. All three of these statistics are used frequently and form the basis for additional statistical tests.

1.1 Mean

The *mean* is the “arithmetic average” of a set of scores. When my daughter was in the fifth grade, she came home from school with a sad face and said that she didn’t get “averages.” The book she was using described how to find the mean of a set of scores, and so I said to her:

“Jennifer, you add up all the scores and divide by the number of numbers that you have.”

She gave me “that look,” and said: “Dad, this is serious!” She thought I was teasing her. So I said:

“See these numbers in your book; add them up. What is the answer?” (She did that.)

“Now, how many numbers do you have?” (She answered that question.)

“Then, take the number you got when you added up the numbers, and divide that number by the number of numbers that you have.”

She did that, and found the correct answer. You will use that same reasoning now, but it will be much easier for you because Excel will do all of the steps for you.

We will call this average of the scores the “mean” which we will symbolize as \bar{X} , and we will pronounce it as: “Xbar.”

The formula for finding the mean with your calculator looks like this:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{n} \quad (1.1)$$

The symbol Σ is the Greek letter sigma, which stands for “sum.” It tells you to add up all the scores that are indicated by the letter X, and then to divide your answer by n (the number of numbers that you have).

Let’s give a simple example:

Suppose that you had these six engineering test scores on an 7-item true-false quiz:

6
4
5
3
2
5

To find the mean of these scores, you add them up, and then divide by the number of scores. So, the mean is: $25/6 = 4.17$

1.2 Standard Deviation

The *standard deviation* tells you “how close the scores are to the mean.” If the standard deviation is a small number, this tells you that the scores are “bunched together” close to the mean. If the standard deviation is a large number, this tells you that the scores are “spread out” a greater distance from the mean. The formula for the standard deviation (which we will call STDEV) and use the letter, S, to symbolize is:

$$\text{STDEV} = S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(X - \bar{X})^2}{n - 1}} \quad (1.2)$$

The formula look complicated, but what it asks you to do is this:

1. Subtract the mean from each score ($X - \bar{X}$).
2. Then, square the resulting number to make it a positive number.
3. Then, add up these squared numbers to get a total score.
4. Then, take this total score and divide it by $n - 1$ (where n stands for the number of numbers that you have).
5. The final step is to take the square root of the number you found in step 4.

You will not be asked to compute the standard deviation using your calculator in this book, but you could see examples of how it is computed in any basic statistics book (e.g. Schuenemeyer and Drew 2011). Instead, we will use Excel to find the standard deviation of a set of scores. When we use Excel on the six numbers we gave in the description of the mean above, you will find that the *STDEV* of these numbers, S, is 1.47.

1.3 Standard Error of the Mean

The formula for the *standard error of the mean* (*s.e.*, which we will use $S_{\bar{X}}$ to symbolize) is:

$$\text{s.e.} = S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (1.3)$$

To find *s.e.*, all you need to do is to take the standard deviation, STDEV, and divide it by the square root of n, where n stands for the “number of numbers” that you have in your data set. In the example under the standard deviation description above, the *s.e.* = 0.60. (You can check this on your calculator).

If you want to learn more about the standard deviation and the standard error of the mean, see McKillup and Dyer (2010) and Schuenemeyer and Drew (2011).

Now, let's learn how to use Excel to find the sample size, the mean, the standard deviation, and the standard error or the mean using the level of sulphur dioxide in rainfall measured in milligrams (mg) of sulphur per liter (L) of rainfall. (Note that one milligram (mg) equals one thousandth of one gram and is a metric measure of weight, while one liter is a metric unit of the volume of one kilogram of pure water under standard conditions.) Suppose that eight samples of rainfall were taken. The hypothetical data appear in Fig. 1.1.

Fig. 1.1 Worksheet Data for Sulphur Dioxide Levels (Practical Example)

	A	B	C
1			
2			
3		Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)
4		1	0.4
5		2	1.2
6		3	0.8
7		4	0.4
8		5	1.3
9		6	0.6
10		7	0.7
11		8	1.1
12			
13			

1.4 Sample Size, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Standard Error of the Mean

Objective: To find the sample size (n), mean, standard deviation (STDEV), and standard error of the mean (s.e.) for these data

Start your computer, and click on the Excel 2016 icon to open a blank Excel spreadsheet.

Click on: Blank workbook

Enter the data in this way:

B3: Sample

C3: milligrams per liter (mg/L)

B4: 1

1.4.1 Using the Fill/Series/Columns Commands

Objective: To add the sample numbers 2–8 in a column underneath Sample #1

Put pointer in B4

Home (top left of screen)

Important note: The “Paste” command should be on the top of your screen on the far left of the screen.

Important note: Notice the Excel commands at the top of your computer screen:

File → Home → Insert → Page Layout → Formulas → etc.

If these commands ever “disappear” when you are using Excel, you need to click on “Home” at the top left of your screen to make them reappear!

Fill (top right of screen: click on the down arrow; see Fig. 1.2)

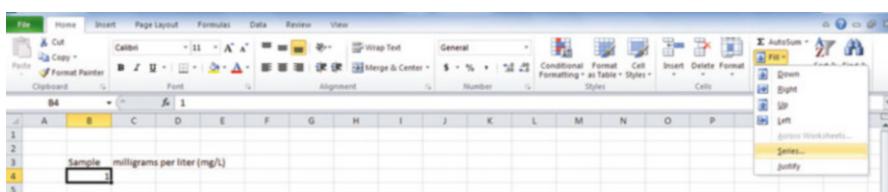


Fig. 1.2 Home/Fill/Series commands

Series

Columns

Step value: 1

Stop value: 8 (see Fig. 1.3)

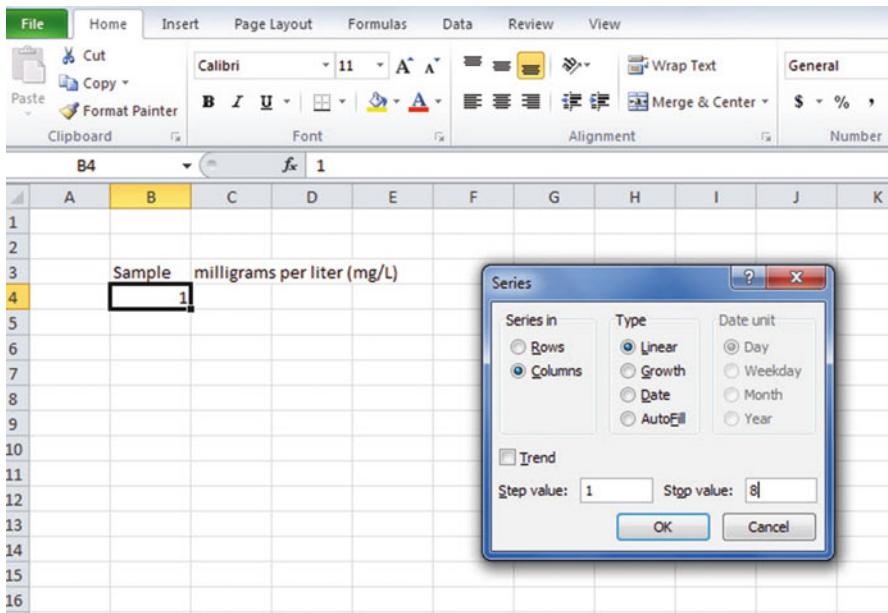


Fig. 1.3 Example of Dialogue Box for Fill/Series/Columns/Step Value/Stop Value commands

OK

The sample numbers should be identified as 1–8, with 8 in cell B11.

Now, enter the milligrams per liter in cells C4: C11. (*Note: Be sure to double-check your figures to make sure that they are correct or you will not get the correct answer!*)

Since your computer screen shows the information in a format that does not look professional, you need to learn how to “widen the column width” and how to “center the information” in a group of cells. Here is how you can do those two steps:

1.4.2 *Changing the Width of a Column*

Objective: To make a column width wider so that all of the information fits inside that column

If you look at your computer screen, you can see that Column C is not wide enough so that all of the information fits inside this column. To make Column C wider:

Click on the letter, C, at the top of your computer screen

Place your mouse pointer on your computer at the far right corner of C until you create a “cross sign” on that corner

Left-click on your mouse, hold it down, and move this corner to the right until it is “wide enough to fit all of the data”

Take your finger off your mouse to set the new column width (see Fig. 1.4)

Fig. 1.4 Example of How to Widen the Column Width

C1	A	B	C	D	E
	Sample		milligrams per liter (mg/L)		
1		1	0.4		
2		2	1.2		
3		3	0.8		
4		4	0.4		
5		5	1.3		
6		6	0.6		
7		7	0.7		
8		8	1.1		
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					

Then, click on any empty cell (i.e., any blank cell) to “deselect” column C so that it is no longer a darker color on your screen.

When you widen a column, you will make all of the cells in all of the rows of this column that same width.

Now, let’s go through the steps to center the information in both Column B and Column C.

1.4.3 Centering Information in a Range of Cells

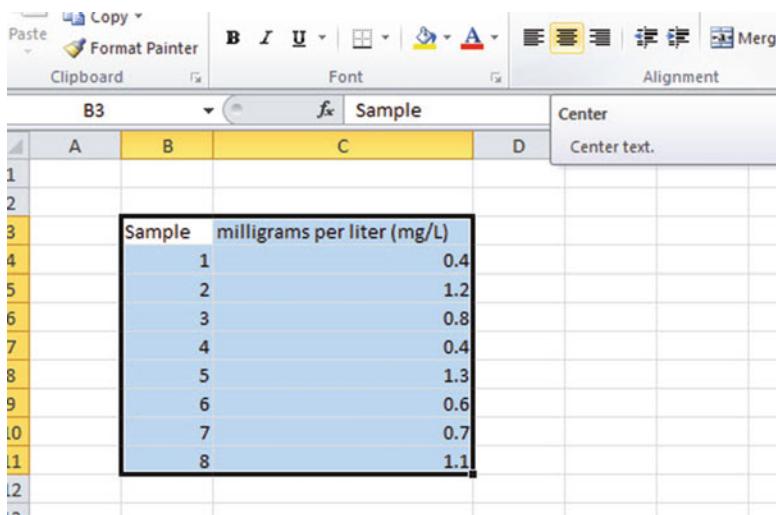
Objective: To center the information in a group of cells

In order to make the information in the cells look “more professional,” you can center the information using the following steps:

Left-click your mouse pointer on B3 and drag it to the right and down to highlight cells B3:C11 so that these cells appear in a darker color

Home

At the top of your computer screen, you will see a set of “lines” in which all of the lines are “centered” to the same width under “Alignment” (it is the second icon at the bottom left of the Alignment box; see Fig. 1.5)

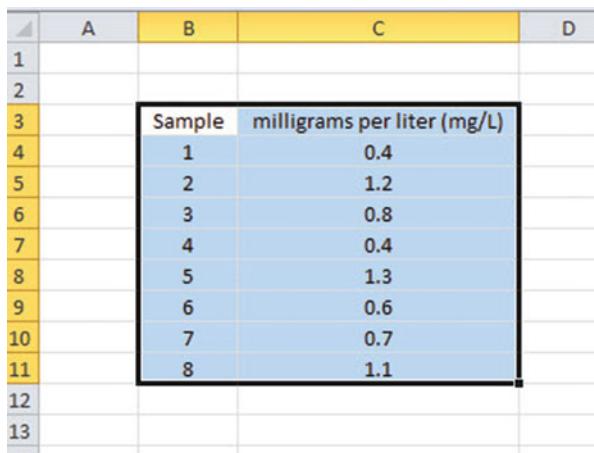


A	B	C	D
1			
2			
3	Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)	
4	1	0.4	
5	2	1.2	
6	3	0.8	
7	4	0.4	
8	5	1.3	
9	6	0.6	
10	7	0.7	
11	8	1.1	
12			
13			

Fig. 1.5 Example of How to Center Information Within Cells

Click on this icon to center the information in the selected cells (see Fig. 1.6)

Fig. 1.6 Final Result of Centering Information in the Cells



A	B	C	D
1			
2			
3	Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)	
4	1	0.4	
5	2	1.2	
6	3	0.8	
7	4	0.4	
8	5	1.3	
9	6	0.6	
10	7	0.7	
11	8	1.1	
12			
13			

Since you will need to refer to the milligrams per liter in your formulas, it will be much easier to do this if you “name the range of data” with a name instead of having to remember the exact cells (C4: C11) in which these figures are located. Let’s call that group of cells: Weight, but we could give them any name that you want to use.

1.4.4 Naming a Range of Cells

Objective: To name the range of data for the milligrams per liter with the name: Weight

Highlight cells C4: C11 by left-clicking your mouse pointer on C4 and dragging it down to C11

Formulas (top left of your screen)

Define Name (top center of your screen)

Weight (type this name in the top box; see Fig. 1.7)

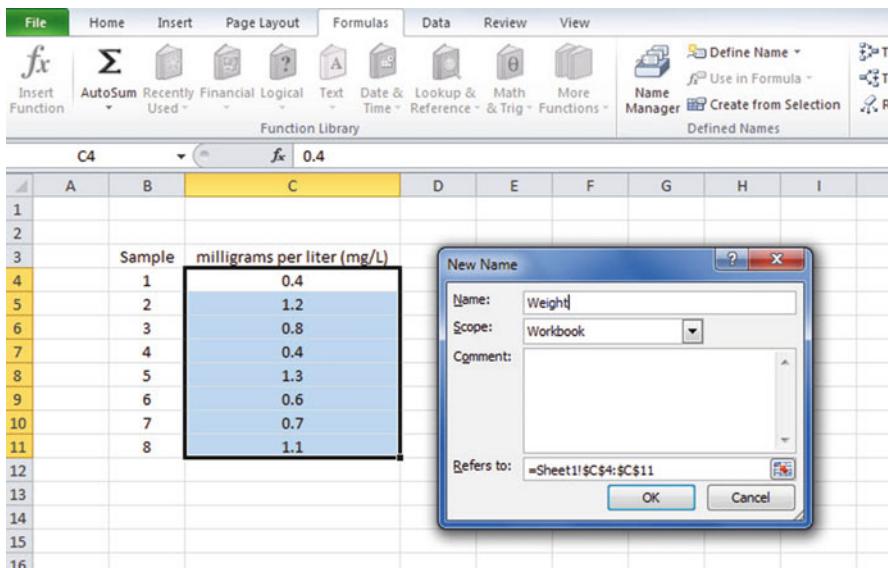


Fig. 1.7 Dialogue box for “naming a range of cells” with the name: Weight

OK

Then, click on any cell of your spreadsheet that does not have any information in it (i.e., it is an “empty cell”) to deselect cells C4:C11

Now, add the following terms to your spreadsheet:

E6: n

E9: Mean

E12: STDEV

E15: s.e. (see Fig. 1.8)

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1						
2						
3		Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)			
4		1	0.4			
5		2	1.2			
6		3	0.8		n	
7		4	0.4			
8		5	1.3			
9		6	0.6		Mean	
10		7	0.7			
11		8	1.1			
12					STDEV	
13						
14						
15						s.e.
16						
17						

Fig. 1.8 Example of Entering the Sample Size, Mean, STDEV, and s.e. Labels

Note: Whenever you use a formula, you must add an equal sign (=) at the beginning of the name of the function so that Excel knows that you intend to use a formula.

1.4.5 Finding the Sample Size Using the =COUNT Function

Objective: To find the sample size (n) for these data using the =COUNT function

F6: =COUNT(Weight)

This command should insert the number 8 into cell F6 since there are eight samples of rainfall in your sample.

1.4.6 Finding the Mean Score Using the =AVERAGE Function

Objective: To find the mean weight figure using the =AVERAGE function

F9: =AVERAGE(Weight)

This command should insert the number 0.8125 into cell F9.

1.4.7 Finding the Standard Deviation Using the =STDEV Function

Objective: To find the standard deviation (STDEV) using the =STDEV function

F12: =STDEV(Weight)

This command should insert the number 0.352288 into cell F12.

1.4.8 Finding the Standard Error of the Mean

Objective: To find the standard error of the mean using a formula for these eight data points

F15: =F12/SQRT(8)

This command should insert the number 0.124553 into cell F15 (see Fig. 1.9).

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1							
2							
3		Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)				
4		1	0.4				
5		2	1.2				
6		3	0.8	n		8	
7		4	0.4				
8		5	1.3				
9		6	0.6		Mean		0.8125
10		7	0.7				
11		8	1.1				
12					STDEV		0.352288
13							
14							
15					s.e.		0.124553
16							
17							

Fig. 1.9 Example of Using Excel Formulas for Sample Size, Mean, STDEV, and s.e.

Important note: Throughout this book, be sure to double-check all of the figures in your spreadsheet to make sure that they are in the correct cells, or the formulas will not work correctly!

1.4.8.1 Formatting Numbers in Number Format (Two decimal places)

Objective: To convert the mean, STDEV, and s.e. to two decimal places

Highlight cells F9: F15

Home (top left of screen)

Look under “Number” at the top center of your screen. In the bottom right corner, gently place your mouse pointer on you screen at the bottom of the .00.0 until it says: “Decrease Decimal” (see Fig. 1.10)

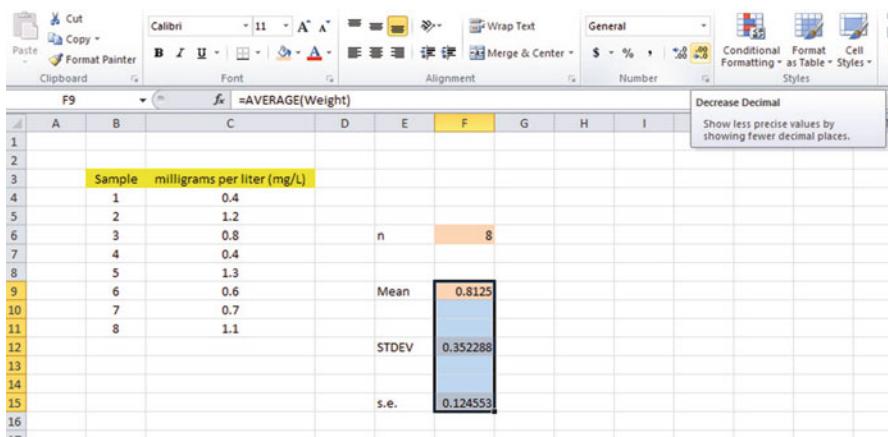


Fig. 1.10 Using the “Decrease Decimal Icon” to convert Numbers to Fewer Decimal Places

Click on this icon *twice* and notice that the cells F9:F15 are now all in just two decimal places (see Fig. 1.11)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1							
2							
3		Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)				
4	1		0.4				
5	2		1.2				
6	3		0.8		n		8
7	4		0.4				
8	5		1.3				
9	6		0.6		Mean		0.81
10	7		0.7				
11	8		1.1		STDEV		0.35
12					s.e.		0.12
13							
14							
15							
16							
17							

Fig. 1.11 Example of Converting Numbers to Two Decimal Places

Now, click on any “empty cell” on your spreadsheet twice to deselect cells F9:F15.

1.5 Saving a Spreadsheet

Objective: To save this spreadsheet with the name: sulphur3

In order to save your spreadsheet so that you can retrieve it sometime in the future, your first decision is to decide “where” you want to save it. That is your decision and you have several choices. If it is your own computer, you can save it onto your hard drive (you need to ask someone how to do that on your computer). Or, you can save it onto a “CD” or onto a “flash drive.” You then need to complete these steps:

File

Save as

(select the place where you want to save the file by scrolling either down or up the bar on the left, and click on the place where you want to save the file; for example: This PC: My Documents location)

File name: sulphur3 (enter this name to the right of File name; see Fig. 1.12)

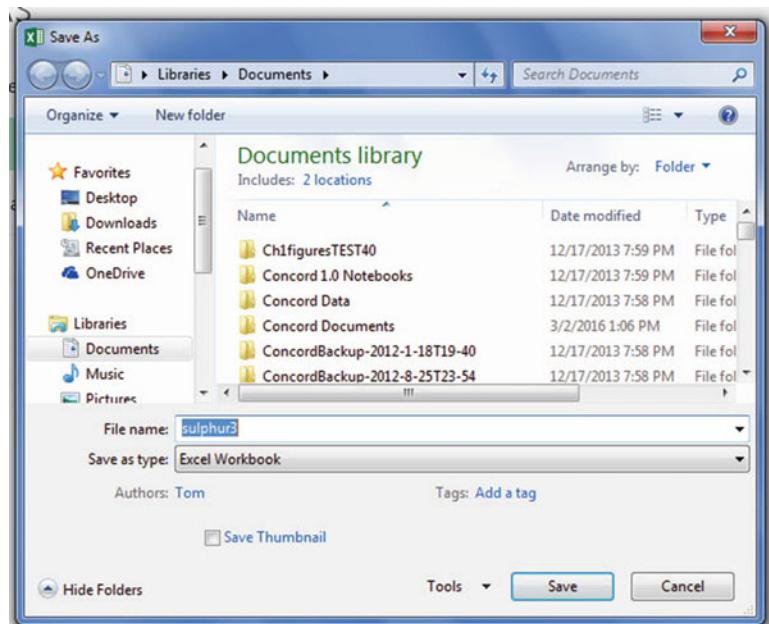


Fig. 1.12 Dialogue Box of Saving an Excel Workbook File as “sulphur3” in My Documents location

Save

Important note: Be very careful to save your Excel file spreadsheet every few minutes so that you do not lose your information!

1.6 Printing a Spreadsheet

Objective: To print the spreadsheet

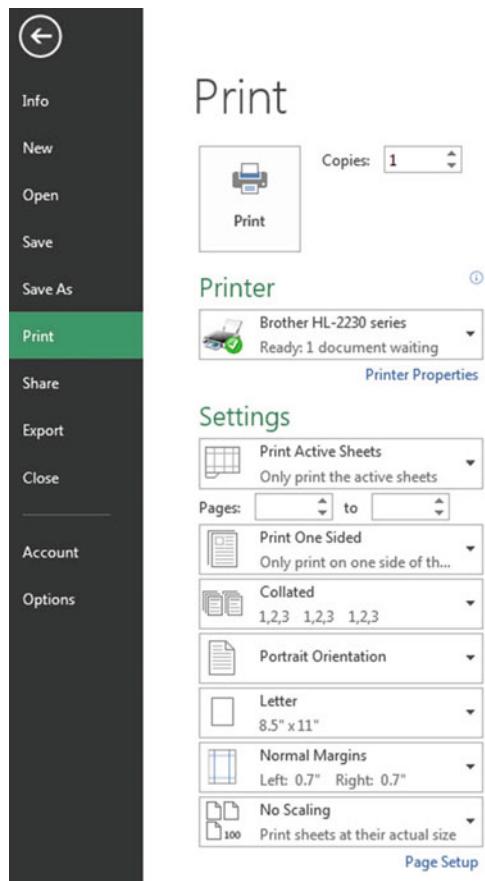
Use the following procedure when printing any spreadsheet.

File

Print

Print Active Sheets (see Fig. 1.13)

Fig. 1.13 Example of How to Print an Excel Worksheet Using the File/Print/Print Active Sheets Commands



Print (top of your screen)

The final spreadsheet is given in Fig 1.14

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1							
2							
3		Sample	milligrams per liter (mg/L)				
4		1	0.4				
5		2	1.2				
6		3	0.8		n		8
7		4	0.4				
8		5	1.3				
9		6	0.6		Mean		0.81
10		7	0.7				
11		8	1.1				
12					STDEV		0.35
13							
14							
15					s.e.		0.12
16							
17							

Fig. 1.14 Final Result of Printing an Excel Spreadsheet

Before you leave this chapter, let's practice changing the format of the figures on a spreadsheet with two examples: (1) using two decimal places for figures that are dollar amounts, and (2) using three decimal places for figures.

Close your spreadsheet by: File/Save, and then close your spreadsheet by: File/Close, and open a blank Excel spreadsheet by using: File/New/Blank Workbook (on the far left of your screen).

1.7 Formatting Numbers in Currency Format (Two decimal places)

Objective: To change the format of figures to dollar format with two decimal places

- A3: Price
- A4: 1.25
- A5: 3.45
- A6: 12.95

Highlight cells A4:A6 by left-clicking your mouse on A4 and dragging it down so that these three cells are highlighted in a darker color

Home

Number (top center of screen: click on the down arrow on the right; see Fig. 1.15)

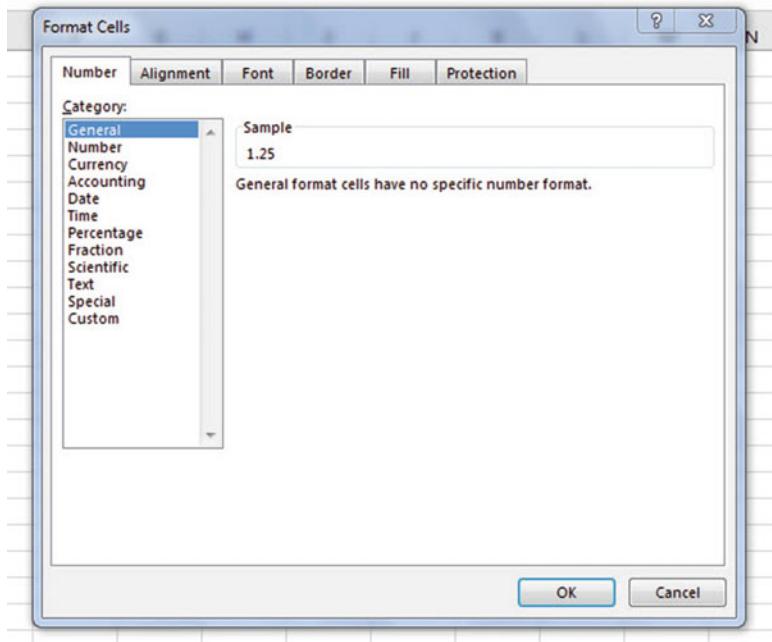


Fig. 1.15 Dialogue Box for Number Format Choices

Category: Currency

Decimal places: 2 (then see Fig. 1.16)

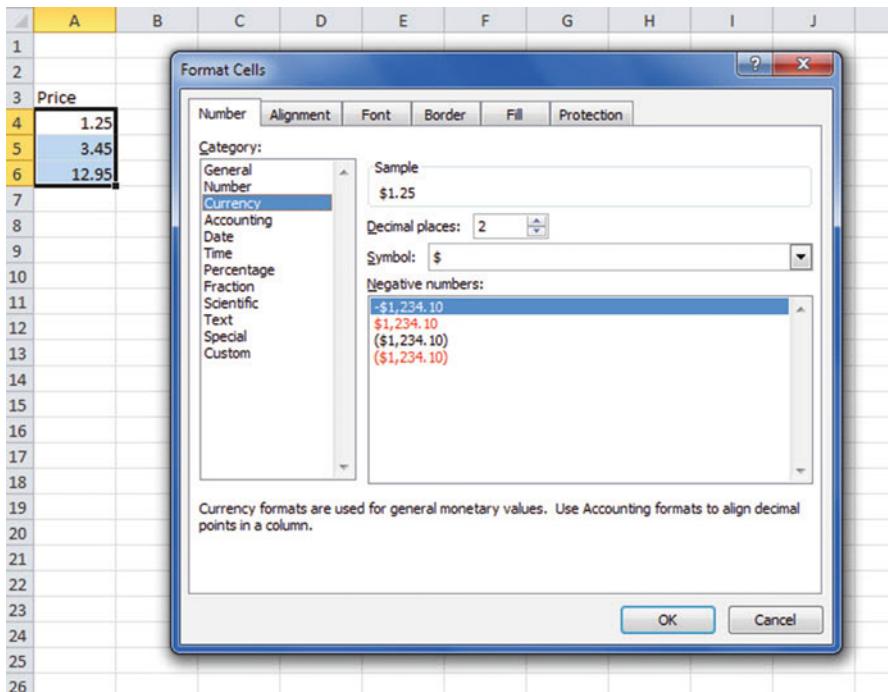


Fig. 1.16 Dialogue Box for Currency (two decimal places) Format for Numbers

OK

The three cells should have a dollar sign in them and be in two decimal places. Next, let's practice formatting figures in number format, three decimal places.

1.8 Formatting Numbers in Number Format (Three decimal places)

Objective: To format figures in number format, three decimal places

Home

Highlight cells A4:A6 on your computer screen

Number (click on the down arrow on the right)

Category: number

At the right of the box, change two decimal places to three decimal places by clicking on the "up arrow" once

OK

The three figures should now be in number format, each with three decimals.

Now, click on any blank cell to deselect cells A4:A6. Then, close this file by File/Close/Don't Save (since there is no need to save this practice problem).

You can use these same commands to format a range of cells in percentage format (and many other formats) to whatever number of decimal places you want to specify.

1.9 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Limonite is a type of mineral that includes many other minerals. It forms the color of many soils and on the weathered surfaces of rocks. It also exists in iron ore. Suppose that you wanted to find the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for the percent of iron in limonite (iron ore) samples. The hypothetical data appear in Fig. 1.17.

Fig. 1.17 Worksheet Data
for Chap. 1: Practice
Problem #1

IRON ORE (LIMONITE) SAMPLES	
	Percent (%) iron
	18.24
	18.29
	18.26
	18.28
	18.30
	18.24
	18.26
	18.25
	18.28
	18.29
	18.30
	18.24
	18.26

- (a) Use Excel to the right of the table to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and round off the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to two decimal places; use number format for these three figures.
- (b) Print the result on a separate page.
- (c) Save the file as: iron3

2. Suppose that you have been hired as a research assistant and that you have been asked to determine the average micrograms of lead concentration per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for air samples taken near Route 101 near San Francisco in weekday afternoons between 4 p.m. and 7 p.m. The hypothetical data are given in Fig. 1.18.

LEAD CONCENTRATION IN AIR SAMPLES TAKEN NEAR SAN FRANCISCO	
	Micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
	3.1
	10.1
	6.7
	8.9
	5.6
	6.4
	4.8
	10.2
	9.8
	8.4
	7.5
	9.4
	8.5
	4.8

Fig. 1.18 Worksheet Data for Chap. 1: Practice Problem #2

- (a) Use Excel to create a table of these data, and at the right of the table use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and round off the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to two decimal places using number format.
- (b) Print the result on a separate page.
- (c) Save the file as: air3
3. Suppose that you have been asked to measure the percent of silver found in various silver ore samples from a mine. The mine has provided 16 ore samples from different locations within the mine. You have processed the ore samples to determine the amount of silver in each sample. The hypothetical data are given in Fig. 1.19:

Fig. 1.19 Worksheet Data
for Chap. 1: Practice
Problem #3

SILVER ORE SAMPLES
PERCENT (%) SILVER
12
15
13
8
10
12
13
12
9
4
11
15
13
15
12
14

- (a) Use Excel to create a table for these data, and at the right of the table, use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and round off the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to three decimal places using number format.
- (b) Print the result on a separate page.
- (c) Save the file as: SILVER3

References

- McKillup S., Dyer M. Geostatistics Explained: an introductory guide for earth scientists. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2010.
Schuenemeyer J, Drew L. Statistics for Earth and Environmental Scientists. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons; 2011.

Chapter 2

Random Number Generator

Salt marshes are coastal wetlands found on protected shorelines along the eastern seaboard of the USA where fresh water mixes with seawater. When ocean tides flood salt marshes, the plants living there must cope with the salt water. The “salinity” (i.e., the salt content of the water) depends on how close the marsh is to the ocean. Suppose that a biogeographer is studying the effects of salinity on vegetation in a salt marsh in Maine and that she has mapped the salt marsh into 32 separate geographic areas. Suppose, further, that she has asked you to take a random sample of 5 of these 32 areas within the salt marsh so that she can measure the percent of salinity level in each of these areas. Using your Excel skills to take this random sample, you will need to define a “sampling frame.”

A sampling frame is a list of objects, events, or people from which you want to select a random sample. In this case, it is the group of 32 areas of the salt marsh. The frame starts with the identification code (ID) of the number 1 that is assigned to the first area in the group of 32 areas. The second area has a code number of 2, the third a code number of 3, and so forth until the last area has a code number of 32.

Since the salt marsh has 32 areas, your sampling frame would go from 1 to 32 with each area having a unique ID number.

We will first create the frame numbers as follows in a new Excel worksheet:

2.1 Creating Frame Numbers for Generating Random Numbers

Objective: To create the frame numbers for generating random numbers

A3: FRAME NO.

A4: 1

Now, create the frame numbers in column A with the Home/Fill commands that were explained in the first chapter of this book (see Sect. 1.4.1) so that the frame numbers go from 1 to 32, with the number 32 in cell A35. If you need to be reminded about how to do that, here are the steps:

Click on cell A4 to select this cell

Home

Fill (then click on the “down arrow” next to this command and select)

Series (see Fig. 2.1)

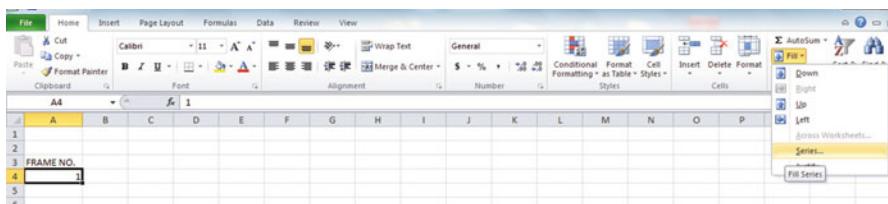


Fig. 2.1 Dialogue Box for Fill/Series Commands

Columns

Step value: 1

Stop value: 32 (see Fig. 2.2)

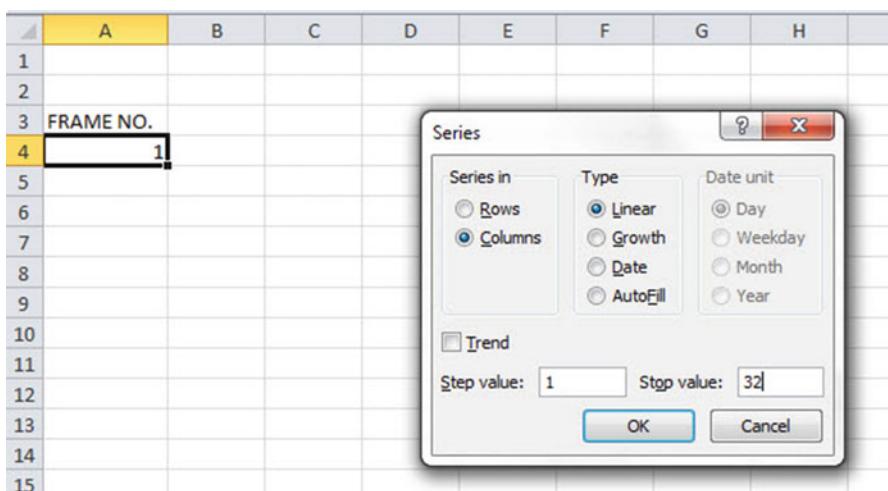


Fig. 2.2 Dialogue Box for Fill/Series/Columns/Step value/Stop value Commands

OK

Then, save this file as: Random29. You should obtain the result in Fig. 2.3.

Fig. 2.3 Frame Numbers
from 1 to 32

FRAME NO.
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32

Now, create a column next to these frame numbers in this manner:

B3: DUPLICATE FRAME NO.

B4: 1

Next, use the Home/Fill command again, so that the 32 frame numbers begin in cell B4 and end in cell B35. Be sure to widen the columns A and B so that all of the information in these columns fits inside the column width. Then, center the information inside both Column A and Column B on your spreadsheet. You should obtain the information given in Fig. 2.4.

Fig. 2.4 Duplicate Frame
Numbers from 1 to 32

FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	5
6	6
7	7
8	8
9	9
10	10
11	11
12	12
13	13
14	14
15	15
16	16
17	17
18	18
19	19
20	20
21	21
22	22
23	23
24	24
25	25
26	26
27	27
28	28
29	29
30	30
31	31
32	32

Save this file as: Random30

You are probably wondering why you created the same information in both Column A and Column B of your spreadsheet. This is to make sure that before you sort the frame numbers that you have exactly 32 of them when you finish sorting them into a random sequence of 32 numbers.

Now, let's add a random number to each of the duplicate frame numbers as follows:

2.2 Creating Random Numbers in an Excel Worksheet

C3: RANDOM NO.

(then widen columns A, B, C so that their labels fit inside the columns; then center the information in A3:C35)

C4: =RAND()

Next, hit the Enter key to add a random number to cell C4.

Note that you need *both* an open parenthesis *and* a closed parenthesis after =RAND(). The RAND command “looks to the left of the cell with the =RAND() COMMAND in it” and assigns a random number to that cell.

Now, put the pointer using your mouse in cell C4 and then move the pointer to the bottom right corner of that cell until you see a “plus sign” in that cell. Then, click and drag the pointer down to cell C35 to add a random number to all 32 ID frame numbers (see Fig. 2.5).

Fig. 2.5 Example of Random Numbers Assigned to the Duplicate Frame Numbers

FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.	RANDOM NO.
1	1	0.178997426
2	2	0.269196787
3	3	0.48649709
4	4	0.882904516
5	5	0.015953504
6	6	0.099651545
7	7	0.42850057
8	8	0.381659988
9	9	0.431296832
10	10	0.476642453
11	11	0.268603728
12	12	0.871330234
13	13	0.775421903
14	14	0.908450998
15	15	0.138749452
16	16	0.159535582
17	17	0.672417279
18	18	0.956231064
19	19	0.486746795
20	20	0.83596565
21	21	0.688574546
22	22	0.467838617
23	23	0.695493167
24	24	0.226521237
25	25	0.335451708
26	26	0.209245145
27	27	0.631291464
28	28	0.210229448
29	29	0.553196562
30	30	0.494647331
31	31	0.986702143
32	32	0.178067956

Then, click on any empty cell to deselect C4:C35 to remove the dark color highlighting these cells.

Save this file as: Random31

Now, let's sort these duplicate frame numbers into a random sequence:

2.3 Sorting Frame Numbers into a Random Sequence

Objective: To sort the duplicate frame numbers into a random sequence

Highlight cells B3:C35 (include the labels at the top of columns B and C)

Data (top of screen)

Sort (click on this word at the top center of your screen; see Fig. 2.6)

	A	B	C	D
1				
2				
3	FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.	RANDOM NO.	
4	1	1	0.178997426	
5	2	2	0.269196787	
6	3	3	0.48649709	
7	4	4	0.882904516	
8	5	5	0.015953504	
9	6	6	0.099651545	
10	7	7	0.42850057	
11	8	8	0.381659988	
12	9	9	0.431296832	
13	10	10	0.476642453	
14	11	11	0.268603728	
15	12	12	0.871330234	
16	13	13	0.775421903	
17	14	14	0.908450998	
18	15	15	0.138749452	
19	16	16	0.159535582	

Fig. 2.6 Dialogue Box for Data/Sort Commands

Sort by: RANDOM NO. (click on the down arrow)

Smallest to Largest (see Fig. 2.7)

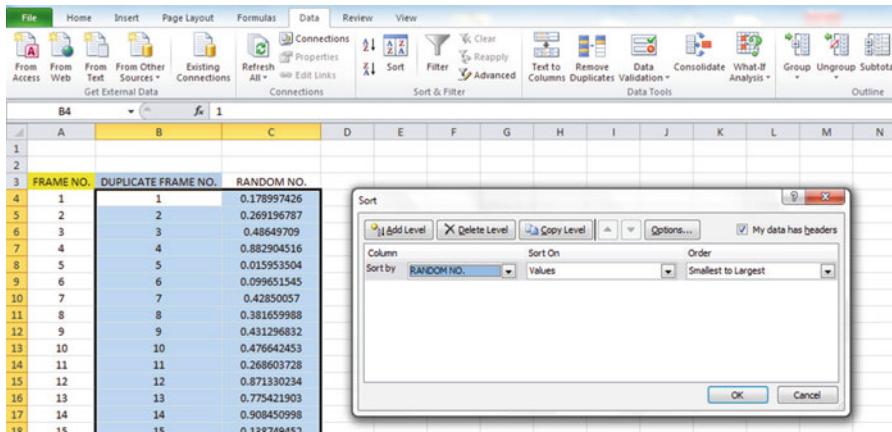


Fig. 2.7 Dialogue Box for Data/Sort/RANDOM NO./Smallest to Largest Commands

OK

Click on any empty cell to deselect B3:C35.

Save this file as: Random32

Print this file now.

These steps will produce Fig. 2.8 with the DUPLICATE FRAME NUMBERS sorted into a random order:

Important note: Because Excel randomly assigns these random numbers, your Excel commands will produce a different sequence of random numbers from everyone else who reads this book!

Fig. 2.8 Duplicate Frame Numbers Sorted by Random Number

FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.	RANDOM NO.
1	5	0.063981403
2	6	0.977468743
3	15	0.225170263
4	16	0.765734052
5	32	0.274680922
6	1	0.594468001
7	26	0.511966171
8	28	0.625577233
9	24	0.906310053
10	11	0.488640116
11	2	0.020129977
12	25	0.723003676
13	8	0.975227547
14	7	0.469582962
15	9	0.14889954
16	22	0.955629903
17	10	0.897398234
18	3	0.314860892
19	19	0.442019486
20	30	0.078566335
21	29	0.172474705
22	27	0.104689528
23	17	0.406630369
24	21	0.961398315
25	23	0.094222677
26	13	0.323429051
27	20	0.470615753
28	12	0.978014724
29	4	0.618082813
30	14	0.727776384
31	18	0.919475329
32	31	0.324497007

Because your objective at the beginning of this chapter was to select randomly 5 of the 32 areas of the salt marsh, you now can do that by selecting the *first five ID numbers* in DUPLICATE FRAME NO. column after the sort.

Although your first five random numbers will be different from those we have selected in the random sort that we did in this chapter, we would select these five IDs of areas using Fig. 2.9.

Fig. 2.9 First Five Areas Selected Randomly

FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.	RANDOM NO.
1	5	0.063981403
2	6	0.977468743
3	15	0.225170263
4	16	0.765734052
5	32	0.274680922
6	1	0.594468001
7	26	0.511966171
8	28	0.625577233
9	24	0.906310053
10	11	0.488640116
11	2	0.020129977
12	25	0.723003676
13	8	0.975227547
14	7	0.469582962
15	9	0.14889954
16	22	0.955629903
17	10	0.897398234
18	3	0.314860892
19	19	0.442019486
20	30	0.078566335
21	29	0.172474705
22	27	0.104689528
23	17	0.406630369
24	21	0.961398315
25	23	0.094222677
26	13	0.323429051
27	20	0.470615753
28	12	0.978014724
29	4	0.618082813
30	14	0.727776384
31	18	0.919475329
32	31	0.324497007

5, 6, 15, 16, 32

Save this file as: Random33

Remember, your five ID numbers selected after your random sort will be different from the five ID numbers in Fig. 2.9 because Excel assigns a different random number *each time the =RAND() command is given*.

Before we leave this chapter, you need to learn how to print a file so that all of the information on that file fits onto a single page without “dribbling over” onto a second or third page.

2.4 Printing an Excel File So That All of the Information Fits onto One Page

Objective: To print a file so that all of the information fits onto one page

Note that the three practice problems at the end of this chapter require you to sort random numbers when the files contain 63 resistors, 114 steel samples, and 75 toxic waste sites, respectively. These files will be “too big” to fit onto one page when you print them unless you format these files so that they fit onto a single page when you print them.

Let’s create a situation where the file does not fit onto one printed page unless you format it first to do that.

Go back to the file you just created, Random 33, and enter the name: *Jennifer* into cell: A50.

If you printed this file now, the name, *Jennifer*, would be printed onto a second page because it “dribbles over” outside of the page rage for this file in its current format.

So, you would need to change the page format so that all of the information, including the name, *Jennifer*, fits onto just one page when you print this file by using the following steps:

Page Layout (top left of the computer screen)

(Notice the “Scale to Fit” section in the center of your screen; see Fig. 2.10)

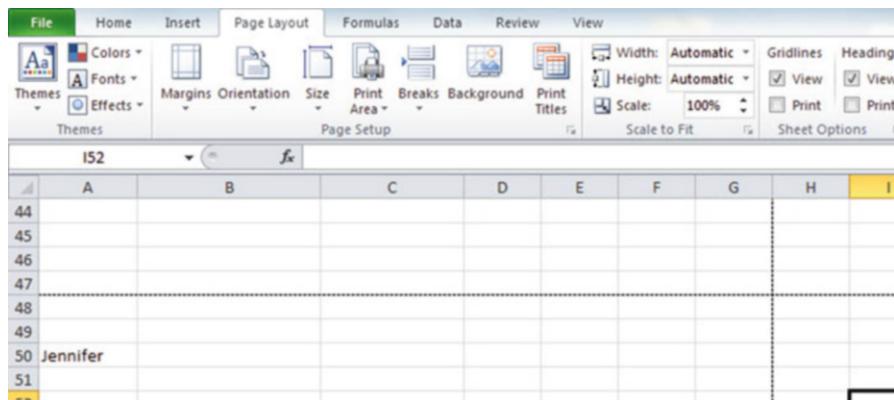


Fig. 2.10 Dialogue Box for Page Layout/Scale to Fit Commands

Hit the down arrow to the right of 100 % *once* to reduce the size of the page to 95 %

Now, note that the name, *Jennifer*, is still on a second page on your screen because her name is below the horizontal dotted line on your screen in Fig. 2.11 (the dotted lines tell you outline dimensions of the file if you printed it now).

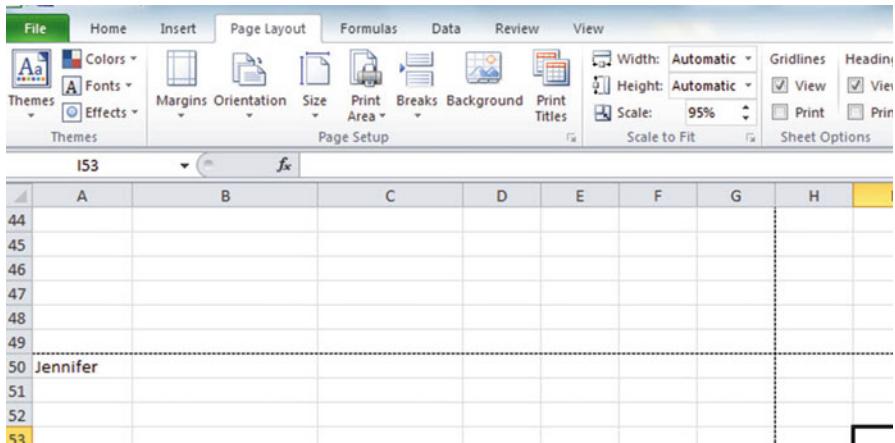


Fig. 2.11 Example of Scale Reduced to 95 % with “Jennifer” to be Printed on a Second Page

So, you need to repeat the “scale change steps” by hitting the down arrow on the right once more to reduce the size of the worksheet to 90 % of its normal size.

Notice that the “dotted lines” on your computer screen in Fig. 2.12 are now below Jennifer’s name to indicate that all of the information, including her name, is now formatted to fit onto just one page when you print this file.

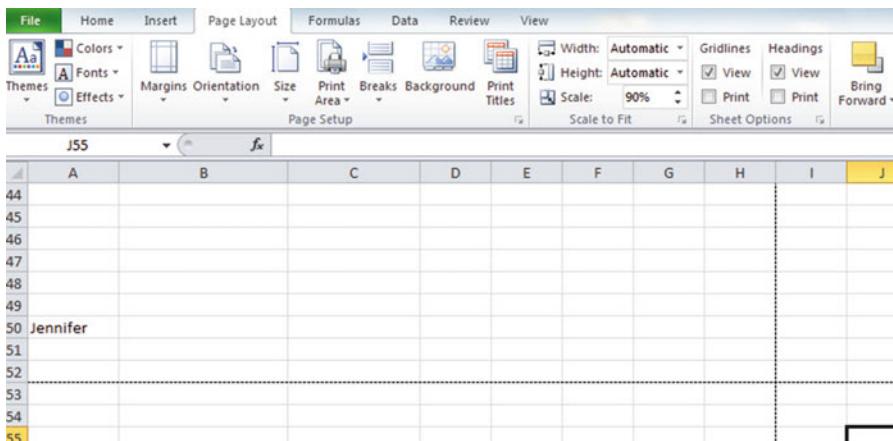


Fig. 2.12 Example of Scale Reduced to 90 % with “Jennifer” to be printed on the first page (note the dotted line below Jennifer on your screen)

Save the file as: Random34

Print the file. Does it all fit onto one page? It should (see Fig. 2.13).

Fig. 2.13 Final
Spreadsheet of 90 % Scale
to Fit

FRAME NO.	DUPLICATE FRAME NO.	RANDOM NO.
1	5	0.747176905
2	6	0.038774393
3	15	0.091368861
4	16	0.63147137
5	32	0.190734495
6	1	0.411943765
7	26	0.138033007
8	28	0.927874602
9	24	0.058336576
10	11	0.043243606
11	2	0.729011126
12	25	0.204119693
13	8	0.456656709
14	7	0.232589896
15	9	0.09096704
16	22	0.935399501
17	10	0.201267198
18	3	0.52638312
19	19	0.53734605
20	30	0.969840616
21	29	0.475657455
22	27	0.558049277
23	17	0.488444809
24	21	0.717097206
25	23	0.86192944
26	13	0.875595013
27	20	0.536748908
28	12	0.331784725
29	4	0.642847666
30	14	0.575767804
31	18	0.939789757
32	31	0.776050794

2.5 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Suppose that you work for an electronics company and that you needed to test electrical resistors for quality purposes. You have 63 resistors of one particular type. You need to randomly test 15 of these 63 resistors.

- (a) Set up a spreadsheet of frame numbers for these resistors with the heading: FRAME NUMBERS using the Home/Fill commands.
- (b) Then, create a separate column to the right of these frame numbers which duplicates these frame numbers with the title: Duplicate frame numbers
- (c) Then, create a separate column to the right of these duplicate frame numbers and use the =RAND() function to assign random numbers to all of the frame numbers in the duplicate frame numbers column, and change this column format so that three decimal places appear for each random number
- (d) Sort the duplicate frame numbers and random numbers into a random order
- (e) Print the result so that the spreadsheet fits onto one page
- (f) Circle on your printout the I.D. number of the first 15 resistors that you would use in your research study
- (g) Save the file as: RAND9

Important note: Note that everyone who does this problem will generate a different random order of resistor ID numbers since Excel assigns a different random number each time the RAND() command is used. For this reason, the answer to this problem given in this Excel Guide will have a completely different sequence of random numbers from the random sequence that you generate. This is normal and what is to be expected.

- 2. Suppose that you have been hired as a consultant to test building materials for engineers designing suspension bridges. The engineers of this company are interested in using a new type of steel in future bridge construction. You have been given 114 samples of this type of steel and you have been asked to test a random sample of 10 of these samples for tensile strength in terms of their material consistency.
 - (a) Set up a spreadsheet of frame numbers for these steel samples with the heading: FRAME NO.
 - (b) Then, create a separate column to the right of these frame numbers which duplicates these frame numbers with the title: Duplicate frame no.
 - (c) Then, create a separate column to the right of these duplicate frame numbers entitled “Random number” and use the =RAND() function to assign random numbers to all of the frame numbers in the duplicate frame numbers column. Then, change this column format so that three decimal places appear for each random number
 - (d) Sort the duplicate frame numbers and random numbers into a random order
 - (e) Print the result so that the spreadsheet fits onto one page
 - (f) Circle on your printout the I.D. number of the first 10 steel samples that would be used in this research study.
 - (g) Save the file as: RANDOM6
- 3. Suppose that an engineering field researcher wants to take a random sample of 20 of 75 toxic waste sites that have been mapped surrounding a commercial

house paint plant that has been closed and abandoned. The researcher wants to test the amount of lead in the soil around this plant as part of a field research study.

- (a) Set up a spreadsheet of frame numbers for these sites with the heading: FRAME NUMBERS.
- (b) Then, create a separate column to the right of these frame numbers which duplicates these frame numbers with the title: Duplicate frame numbers
- (c) Then, create a separate column to the right of these duplicate frame numbers entitled “Random number” and use the =RAND() function to assign random numbers to all of the frame numbers in the duplicate frame numbers column. Then, change this column format so that three decimal places appear for each random number
- (d) Sort the duplicate frame numbers and random numbers into a random order
- (e) Print the result so that the spreadsheet fits onto one page
- (f) Circle on your printout the I.D. number of the first 20 sites that the field engineer should select for her study.
- (g) Save the file as: RAND5

Chapter 3

Confidence Interval About the Mean Using the TINV Function and Hypothesis Testing

This chapter focuses on two ideas: (1) finding the 95 % confidence interval about the mean, and (2) hypothesis testing.

Let's talk about the confidence interval first.

3.1 Confidence Interval About the Mean

In statistics, we are always interested in *estimating the population mean*. How do we do that?

3.1.1 How to Estimate the Population Mean

Objective: To estimate the population mean, μ

Remember that the population mean is the average of all of the people in the target population. For example, if we were interested in how well adults ages 25–44 liked a new flavor of Ben & Jerry's ice cream, we could never ask this question of all of the people in the U.S. who were in that age group. Such a research study would take way too much time to complete and the cost of doing that study would be prohibitive.

So, instead of testing *everyone* in the population, we take a sample of people in the population and use the results of this sample to estimate the mean of the entire population. This saves both time and money. When we use the results of a sample to estimate the population mean, this is called "*inferential statistics*" because we are inferring the population mean from the sample mean.

When we study a sample of people in science research, we know the size of our sample (n), the mean of our sample (\bar{X}), and the standard deviation of our sample (STDEV). We use these figures to estimate the population mean with a test called the “confidence interval about the mean.”

3.1.2 *Estimating the Lower Limit and the Upper Limit of the 95 % Confidence Interval About the Mean*

The theoretical background of this test is beyond the scope of this book, and you can learn more about this test from studying any good statistics textbook (e.g. McKillup and Dyer 2010 or Ledolter and Hogg 2010), but the basic ideas are as follows.

We assume that the population mean is somewhere in an interval which has a “lower limit” and an “upper limit” to it. We also assume in this book that we want to be “95 % confident” that the population mean is inside this interval somewhere. So, we intend to make the following type of statement:

“We are 95 % confident that the population mean in miles per gallon (mpg) for the Chevy Impala automobile is between 26.92 miles per gallon and 29.42 miles per gallon.”

If we want to create a billboard emphasizing the perceived lower environmental impact of the Chevy Impala by claiming that this car gets 28 miles per gallon (mpg), we can do this because 28 is *inside the 95 % confidence interval* in our research study in the above example. We do not know exactly what the population mean is, only that it is somewhere between 26.92 mpg and 29.42 mpg, and 28 is inside this interval.

But we are only 95 % confident that the population mean is inside this interval, and 5 % of the time we will be wrong in assuming that the population mean is 28 mpg.

But, for our purposes in science research, we are happy to be 95 % confident that our assumption is accurate. We should also point out that 95 % is an arbitrary level of confidence for our results. We could choose to be 80 % confident, or 90 % confident, or even 99 % confident in our results if we wanted to do that. But, in this book, *we will always assume that we want to be 95 % confident of our results*. That way, you will not have to guess on how confident you want to be in any of the problems in this book. We will always want to be 95 % confident of our results in this book.

So how do we find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for our data?

In words, we will find this interval this way:

“Take the sample mean (\bar{X}), and add to it 1.96 times the standard error of the mean (s.e.) to get the upper limit of the confidence interval. Then, take the sample mean, and subtract from it 1.96 times the standard error of the mean to get the lower limit of the confidence interval.”

You will remember (See Sect. 1.3) that the standard error of the mean (s.e.) is found by dividing the standard deviation of our sample (STDEV) by the square root of our sample size, n .

In mathematical terms, the formula for the 95 % confidence interval about the mean is:

$$\bar{X} \pm 1.96 \text{ s.e} \quad (3.1)$$

Note that the “ \pm sign” stands for “plus or minus,” and this means that you first add 1.96 times the s.e. to the mean to get the upper limit of the confidence interval, and then subtract 1.96 times the s.e. from the mean to get the lower limit of the confidence interval. Also, the symbol 1.96 s.e. means that you multiply 1.96 times the standard error of the mean to get this part of the formula for the confidence interval.

Note: We will explain shortly where the number 1.96 came from.

Let's try a simple example to illustrate this formula.

3.1.3 *Estimating the Confidence Interval for the Chevy Impala in Miles Per Gallon*

Let's suppose that you have been asked to be a part of a larger study looking at the carbon footprint of Chevy Impala drivers. You are interested in the average miles per gallon (mpg) of a Chevy Impala. You asked owners of the Chevy Impala to keep track of their mileage and the number of gallons used for two tanks of gas. Let's suppose that 49 owners did this, and that they average 27.83 miles per gallon (mpg) with a standard deviation of 3.01 mpg. The standard error (s.e.) would be 3.01 divided by the square root of 49 (i.e., 7) which gives a s.e. equal to 0.43.

The 95 % confidence interval for these data would be:

$$27.83 \pm 1.96(0.43)$$

The *upper limit of this confidence interval* uses the plus sign of the \pm sign in the formula. Therefore, the upper limit would be:

$$27.83 + 1.96(0.43) = 27.83 + 0.84 = 28.67 \text{ mpg}$$

Similarly, the *lower limit of this confidence interval* uses the minus sign of the \pm sign in the formula. Therefore, the lower limit would be:

$$27.83 - 1.96(0.43) = 27.83 - 0.84 = 26.99 \text{ mpg}$$

The result of our part of the ongoing research study would, therefore, be the following:

“We are 95 % confident that the population mean for the Chevy Impala is somewhere between 26.99 mpg and 28.67 mpg.”

Based upon the 28 mpg of the Chevy Impala being inside the confidence interval, we could create a billboard emphasizing the miles per gallon and highlight a perceived lower environmental impact. Our data supports this claim because the 28 mpg is inside of this 95 % confidence interval for the population mean.

You are probably asking yourself: “Where did that 1.96 in the formula come from?”

3.1.4 Where Did the Number “1.96” Come From?

A detailed mathematical answer to that question is beyond the scope of this book, but here is the basic idea.

We make an assumption that the data in the population are “normally distributed” in the sense that the population data would take the shape of a “normal curve” if we could test all of the people or properties in the population. The normal curve looks like the outline of the Liberty Bell that sits in front of Independence Hall in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The normal curve is “symmetric” in the sense that if we cut it down the middle, and folded it over to one side, the half that we folded over would fit perfectly onto the half on the other side.

A discussion of integral calculus is beyond the scope of this book, but essentially we want to find the lower limit and the upper limit of the population data in the normal curve so that 95 % of the area under this curve is between these two limits. *If we have more than 40 people in our research study,* the value of these limits is plus or minus 1.96 times the standard error of the mean (s.e.) of our sample. The number 1.96 times the s.e. of our sample gives us the upper limit and the lower limit of our confidence interval. If you want to learn more about this idea, you can consult a good statistics book (e.g. McKillup and Dyer 2010).

The number 1.96 would change if we wanted to be confident of our results at a different level from 95 % as long as we have more than 40 people in our research study.

For example:

1. If we wanted to be 80 % confident of our results, this number would be 1.282.
2. If we wanted to be 90 % confident of our results, this number would be 1.645.
3. If we wanted to be 99 % confident of our results, this number would be 2.576.

But since we always want to be 95 % confident of our results in this book, we will always use 1.96 in this book whenever we have more than 40 people in our research study.

By now, you are probably asking yourself: “Is this number in the confidence interval about the mean always 1.96 ?” The answer is: “No!”, and we will explain why this is true now.

3.1.5 Finding the Value for t in the Confidence Interval Formula

Objective: To find the value for t in the confidence interval formula

The correct formula for the confidence interval about the mean for different sample sizes is the following:

$$\bar{X} \pm t \text{ s.e.} \quad (3.2)$$

To use this formula, you find the sample mean, \bar{X} , and add to it the value of t times the s.e. to get the upper limit of this 95 % confidence interval. Also, you take the sample mean, \bar{X} , and subtract from it the value of t times the s.e. to get the lower limit of this 95 % confidence interval. And, you find the value of t in the table given in Appendix E of this book in the following way:

Objective: To find the value of t in the t-table in Appendix E

Before we get into an explanation of what is meant by “the value of t ,” let’s give you practice in finding the value of t by using the t-table in Appendix E.

Keep your finger on Appendix E as we explain how you need to “read” that table.

Since the test in this chapter is called the “confidence interval about the mean test,” you will use the first column on the left in Appendix E to find the critical value of t for your research study (note that this column is headed: “sample size n”).

To find the value of t , you go down this first column until you find the sample size in your research study, and then you go to the right and read the value of t for that sample size in the “critical t column” of the table (note that this column is the column that you would use for the 95 % confidence interval about the mean).

For example, if you have 14 people in your research study, the value of t is 2.160.

If you have 26 people in your research study, the value of t is 2.060.

If you have more than 40 people in your research study, the value of t is always 1.96.

Note that the “critical t column” in Appendix E represents the value of t that you need to use to obtain to be 95 % confident of your results as “significant” results.

Throughout this book, we are assuming that you want to be 95 % confident in the results of your statistical tests. Therefore, the value for t in the t-table in Appendix E tells you which value you should use for t when you use the formula for the 95 % confidence interval about the mean.

Now that you know how to find the value of t in the formula for the confidence interval about the mean, let’s explore how you find this confidence interval using Excel.

3.1.6 Using Excel's TINV Function to Find the Confidence Interval About the Mean

Objective: To use the TINV function in Excel to find the confidence interval about the mean

When you use Excel, the formulas for finding the confidence interval are:

$$\text{Lower limit} := \bar{X} - \text{TINV}(1 - 0.95, n - 1) * s.e. \quad (\text{no spaces between these symbols}) \quad (3.3)$$

$$\text{Upper limit} := \bar{X} + \text{TINV}(1 - 0.95, n - 1) * s.e. \quad (\text{no spaces between these symbols}) \quad (3.4)$$

Note that the “* symbol” in this formula tells Excel to use the multiplication step in the formula, and it stands for “times” in the way we talk about multiplication.

You will recall from Chap. 1 that n stands for the sample size, and so $n - 1$ stands for the sample size minus one.

You will also recall from Chap. 1 that the standard error of the mean, s.e., equals the STDEV divided by the square root of the sample size, n (See Sect. 1.3).

Let's try a sample problem using Excel to find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for a problem.

Let's suppose that General Motors wanted to claim that its Chevy Impala achieves 28 miles per gallon (mpg). Let's call 28 mpg the “reference value” for this car.

Suppose that you work for Ford Motor Co. and that you want to check this claim to see if it holds up based on some research evidence. You decide to collect some data and to use a two-side 95 % confidence interval about the mean to test your results:

3.1.7 Using Excel to Find the 95 % Confidence Interval for a Car's mpg Claim

Objective: To analyze the data using a two-side 95 % confidence interval about the mean

You select a sample of new car owners for this car and they agree to keep track of their mileage for two tanks of gas and to record the average miles per gallon they achieve on these two tanks of gas. Your research study produces the hypothetical results given in Fig. 3.1:

Chevy Impala				
Miles per gallon				
30.9				
24.5				
31.2				
28.7				
35.1				
29.0				
28.8				
23.1				
31.0				
30.2				
28.4				
29.3				
24.2				
27.0				
26.7				
31.0				
23.5				
29.4				
26.3				
27.5				
28.2				
28.4				
29.1				
21.9				
30.9				

Fig. 3.1 Worksheet Data for Chevy Impala (Practical Example)

Create a spreadsheet with these data and use Excel to find the sample size (n), the mean, the standard deviation (STDEV), and the standard error of the mean (s.e.) for these data using the following cell references.

- A3: Chevy Impala
- A5: Miles per gallon
- A6: 30.9

Enter the other mpg data in cells A7: A30

Now, highlight cells A6:A30 and format these numbers in number format (one decimal place). Center these numbers in Column A. Then, widen columns A and B by making both of them twice as wide as the original width of column A. Then, widen column C so that it is three times as wide as the original width of column A so that your table looks more professional.

- C7: n
- C10: Mean
- C13: STDEV
- C16: s.e.
- C19: 95 % confidence interval
- D21: Lower limit:
- D23: Upper limit: (see Fig. 3.2)

Chevy Impala	
Miles per gallon	
30.9	
24.5	n
31.2	
28.7	
35.1	Mean
29.0	
28.8	
23.1	STDEV
31.0	
30.2	
28.4	s.e
29.3	
24.2	
27.0	95% confidence interval
26.7	
31.0	Lower limit:
23.5	
29.4	Upper Limit:
26.3	
27.5	
28.2	
28.4	
29.1	
21.9	
30.9	

Fig. 3.2 Example of Chevy Impala Format for the Confidence Interval About the Mean Labels

- B26: Draw a picture below this confidence interval
- B28: 26.92
- B29: lower (right-align this word)
- B30: limit (right-align this word)
- C28: ‘----- 28 -----28.17 ----- (note that you need to begin cell C28 with a *single quotation mark* (‘) to tell Excel that this is a *label*, and not a number)
- D28: ‘----- (note the single quotation mark)
- E28: ‘29.42 (note the single quotation mark)
- C29: ref. Mean
- C30: value
- E29: upper
- E30: limit
- B33: Conclusion:

Now, align the labels underneath the picture of the confidence interval so that they look like Fig. 3.3.

Chevy Impala						
Miles per gallon						
30.9						
24.5		n				
31.2						
28.7						
35.1	Mean					
29.0						
28.8						
23.1	STDEV					
31.0						
30.2						
28.4	s.e.					
29.3						
24.2						
27.0	95% confidence interval					
26.7						
31.0					Lower limit:	
23.5						
29.4					Upper Limit:	
26.3						
27.5						
28.2	Draw a picture below this confidence interval					
28.4						
29.1	26.92	-----	28	-----	28.17	-----
21.9	lower	ref.		Mean		upper
30.9	limit	value				limit
Conclusion:						

Fig. 3.3 Example of Drawing a Picture of a Confidence Interval About the Mean Result

Next, name the range of data from A6:A30 as: miles

- D7: Use Excel to find the sample size
- D10: Use Excel to find the mean
- D13: Use Excel to find the STDEV
- D16: Use Excel to find the s.e.

Now, you need to find the lower limit and the upper limit of the 95 % confidence interval for this study.

We will use Excel's TINV function to do this. We will assume that you want to be 95 % confident of your results.

F21: = D10 - TINV(1 - .95, 24)*D16 (no spaces between symbols)

Note that this TINV formula uses 24 since 24 is one less than the sample size of 25 (i.e., 24 is $n - 1$). Note that D10 is the mean, while D16 is the standard error of the mean. The above formula gives the *lower limit of the confidence interval*, 26.92.

F23: = D10 + TINV(1 - .95, 24)*D16 (no spaces between symbols)

The above formula gives the *upper limit of the confidence interval*, 29.42.

Now, use number format (two decimal places) in your Excel spreadsheet for the mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean, and for both the lower limit and the upper limit of your confidence interval. If you printed this spreadsheet now, the lower limit of the confidence interval (26.92) and the upper limit of the confidence interval (29.42) would “dribble over” onto a second printed page because the information on the spreadsheet is too large to fit onto one page in its present format.

So, you need to use Excel’s “Scale to Fit” commands that we discussed in Chap. 2 (see Sect. 2.4) to reduce the size of the spreadsheet to 95 % of its current size using the Page Layout/Scale to Fit function. Do that now, and notice that the dotted line to the right of 26.92 and 29.42 indicates that these numbers would now fit onto one page when the spreadsheet is printed out (see Fig. 3.4)

Chevy Impala		
Miles per gallon		
30.9		
24.5	n	25
31.2		
28.7		
35.1	Mean	28.17
29.0		
28.8		
23.1	STDEV	3.03
31.0		
30.2		
28.4	s.e	0.61
29.3		
24.2		
27.0	95% confidence interval	
26.7		
31.0		Lower limit: 26.92
23.5		Upper Limit: 29.42
29.4		
26.3		
27.5		
28.2	Draw a picture below this confidence interval	
28.4		
29.1	26.92 -----	28 ----- 28.17 ----- 29.42
21.9	lower limit	ref. value
30.9	upper limit	
	Conclusion:	

Fig. 3.4 Result of Using the TINV Function to Find the Confidence Interval About the Mean

Note that you have drawn a picture of the 95 % confidence interval beneath cell B26, including the lower limit, the upper limit, the mean, and the reference value of 28 mpg given in the claim that the company wants to make about the car's miles per gallon performance.

Now, let's write the conclusion to your research study on your spreadsheet:

- C33: Since the reference value of 28 is inside
- C34: the confidence interval, we accept that
- C35: the Chevy Impala does get 28 mpg.

Important note: You are probably wondering why we wrote the conclusion on three separate lines of the spreadsheet instead of writing it on one long line. This is because if you wrote it on one line, two things would happen that you would not like: (1) If you printed the conclusion by reducing the size of the layout of the page so that the entire spreadsheet would fit onto one page, the print font size for the entire spreadsheet would be so small that you could not read it without a magnifying glass, and (2) If you printed the spreadsheet without reducing the page size layout, it would “dribble over” part of the conclusion to a separate page all by itself, and your spreadsheet would not look professional.

Your research study accepted the claim that the Chevy Impala did get 28 miles per gallon. The average miles per gallon in your study was 28.17. (See Fig. 3.5)

Save your resulting spreadsheet as: **CHEVY7**

Chevy Impala			
Miles per gallon			
30.9			
24.5	n		25
31.2			
28.7			
35.1	Mean		28.17
29.0			
28.8			
23.1	STDEV		3.03
31.0			
30.2			
28.4	s.e		0.61
29.3			
24.2			
27.0	95% confidence interval		
26.7			
31.0		Lower limit:	26.92
23.5			
29.4		Upper Limit:	29.42
26.3			
27.5			
28.2	Draw a picture below this confidence interval		
28.4			
29.1	26.92 -----	28 -----	28.17 ----- 29.42
21.9	lower	ref.	Mean
30.9	limit	value	upper limit
Conclusion:		Since the reference value of 28 is inside the confidence interval, we accept that the Chevy Impala does get 28 mpg.	

Fig. 3.5 Final Spreadsheet for the Chevy Impala Confidence Interval About the Mean

3.2 Hypothesis Testing

One of the important activities of research scientists is that they attempt to “check” their assumptions about the world by testing these assumptions in the form of hypotheses.

A typical hypothesis is in the form: “*If x, then y.*”

Some examples would be:

1. “If we use this new method fertilizing the soil, the corn yield of the plot will increase by 3 %.”
2. “There will be no difference in the concentration of lead in water that has circulated in soils mixed with apatite (a type of mineral found in rocks that is used to make fertilizer) compared to soils without apatite.”
3. “If we change the format for teaching Introductory Engineering to our undergraduates, then their final exam scores will increase by 8 %.”

A hypothesis, then, to a research scientist is a “guess” about what we think is true in the real world. We can test these guesses using statistical formulas to see if our predictions come true in the real world.

So, in order to perform these statistical tests, we must first state our hypotheses so that we can test our results against our hypotheses to see if our hypotheses match reality.

So, how do we generate hypotheses in science research?

3.2.1 Hypotheses Always Refer to the Population of Physical Properties that You Are Studying

The first step is to understand that our hypotheses always refer to the *population* of physical properties in a study.

For example, suppose we are interested in studying the brightness of various types of light bulbs used in a certain type of vehicle headlight. We would select various types of light bulbs used in the vehicle headlight and measure the brightness (in lumens) of each bulb type. These brightness measurements would be used as our sample. This sample would be used in generalizing our findings for all of the light bulbs used in this vehicle.

All of the light bulbs used in this type of vehicle would be the *population* that we are interested in studying, while the specific light bulbs in our study are called the *sample* from this population.

Since our sample sizes typically contain only a portion of the light bulbs, we are interested in the results of our sample *only insofar as the results of our sample can be “generalized” to the population in which we are really interested.*

That is why our hypotheses always refer to the population, and never to the sample of physical properties in our study.

You will recall from Chap. 1 that we used the symbol: \bar{X} to refer to the mean of the sample we use in our research study (See Sect. 1.1).

We will use the symbol: μ (the Greek letter “mu”) to refer to the *population mean*.

In testing our hypotheses, we are trying to decide which one of two competing hypotheses *about the population mean* we should accept given our data set.

3.2.2 The Null Hypothesis and the Research (Alternative) Hypothesis

These two hypotheses are called the *null hypothesis* and the *research hypothesis*.

Statistics textbooks typically refer to the *null hypothesis* with the notation: H_0 .

The *research hypothesis* is typically referred to with the notation: H_1 , and it is sometimes called the *alternative hypothesis*.

Let's explain first what is meant by the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis:

- (1) *The null hypothesis is what we accept as true unless we have compelling evidence that it is not true.*
- (2) *The research hypothesis is what we accept as true whenever we reject the null hypothesis as true.*

This is similar to our legal system in America where we assume that a supposed criminal is innocent until he or she is proven guilty in the eyes of a jury. Our null hypothesis is that this defendant is innocent, while the research hypothesis is that he or she is guilty.

In the great state of Missouri, every license plate has the state slogan: "Show me." This means that people in Missouri think of themselves as not gullible enough to accept everything that someone says as true unless that person's actions indicate the truth of his or her claim. In other words, people in Missouri believe strongly that a person's actions speak much louder than that person's words.

Since both the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis cannot both be true, the task of hypothesis testing using statistical formulas is to decide which one you will accept as true, and which one you will reject as true.

Sometimes in science research a series of rating scales is used to measure people's attitudes toward a company, toward one of its products, or toward their intention-to-buy that company's products. These rating scales are typically 5-point, 7-point, or 10-point scales, although other scale values are often used as well.

3.2.2.1 Determining the Null Hypothesis and the Research Hypothesis When Rating Scales Are Used

The following examples are another way to test the null hypothesis and research hypothesis using rating scales. Although rating scales are seldom used in the engineering sciences, the following examples are good examples of how you would test these hypotheses if you encountered rating scales in your work.

Here is a typical example of a 7-point scale that could be used by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME) to obtain feedback from participants in the value of its annual International Mechanical Engineering Congress and Exposition technical conference (see Fig. 3.6):

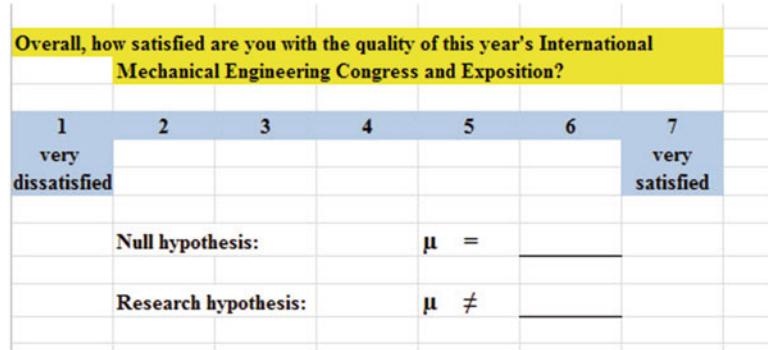


Fig. 3.6 Example of a Rating Scale Item for a Conference (Practical Example)

So, how do we decide what to use as the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis whenever rating scales are used?

Objective: To decide on the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis whenever rating scales are used.

In order to make this determination, we will use a simple rule:

Rule: Whenever rating scales are used, we will use the “middle” of the scale as the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis.

In the above example, since 4 is the number in the middle of the scale (i.e., three numbers are below it, and three numbers are above it), our hypotheses become:

Null hypothesis: $\mu = 4$

Research hypothesis: $\mu \neq 4$

In the above rating scale example, if the result of our statistical test for this one attitude scale item indicates that our population mean is “close to 4,” we say that we accept the null hypothesis that the ASME conference participants were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the quality of the conference.

In the above example, *if the result of our statistical test indicates that the population mean is significantly different from 4*, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis by stating either that:

“ASME conference participants were significantly satisfied with the quality of the conference” (this is true whenever our sample mean is significantly greater than our expected population mean of 4).

or

“ASME conference participants were significantly dissatisfied with the quality of the conference” (this is accepted as true whenever our sample mean is significantly less than our expected population mean of 4).

Both of these conclusions cannot be true. We accept one of the hypotheses as “true” based on the data set in our research study, and the other one as “not true” based on our data set.

The job of the research engineer, then, is to decide which of these two hypotheses, the null hypothesis or the research hypothesis, he or she will accept as true given the data set in the research study.

Let's try some examples of rating scales so that you can practice figuring out what the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis are for each rating scale.

In the spaces in Fig. 3.7, write in the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the rating scales:

1. The Missouri University of Science & Technology is an excellent university.									
1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Undecided	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree					
Null hypothesis: $\mu =$ _____									
Research hypothesis: $\mu \neq$ _____									
2. How would you rate the quality of teaching in the BS in Civil Engineering Program at the Missouri University of Science and Technology?									
poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	excellent	
Null hypothesis: $\mu =$ _____									
Research hypothesis: $\mu \neq$ _____									
3. How would you rate the quality of the faculty in the BS in Civil Engineering Program at the Missouri University of Science and Technology?									
1 very poor	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 very good
Null hypothesis: $\mu =$ _____									
Research hypothesis: $\mu \neq$ _____									

Fig. 3.7 Examples of Rating Scales for Determining the Null Hypothesis and the Research Hypothesis

How did you do?

Here are the answers to these three questions:

1. The null hypothesis is $\mu = 3$, and the research hypothesis is $\mu \neq 3$ on this 5-point scale (i.e. the “middle” of the scale is 3).
2. The null hypothesis is $\mu = 4$, and the research hypothesis is $\mu \neq 4$ on this 7-point scale (i.e., the “middle” of the scale is 4).
3. The null hypothesis is $\mu = 5.5$, and the research hypothesis is $\mu \neq 5.5$ on this 10-point scale (i.e., the “middle” of the scale is 5.5 since there are 5 numbers below 5.5 and 5 numbers above 5.5).

As another example, Webster University, whose main campus is in St. Louis, Missouri USA, uses a Course Feedback form for student evaluations at the end of its pre-engineering courses which have 12 rating items referring to the course's planning and organization and the communications from the instructor to the students. The ratings are summarized and the results given to instructors after the course is completed. Each of these items is rated on the following 4-point scale:

- 1 = Very Effective
- 2 = Effective
- 3 = Ineffective
- 4 = Very Ineffective

On this scale, the null hypothesis is: $\mu = 2.5$ and the research hypothesis is: $\mu \neq 2.5$, because there are two numbers below 2.5, and two numbers above 2.5 on these rating scales. (Note that the scales are scored so that a low score, like a low score in golf, is a better score).

Now, let's discuss the 7 STEPS of hypothesis testing for using the confidence interval about the mean.

3.2.3 The 7 Steps for Hypothesis-Testing Using the Confidence Interval About the Mean

Objective: To learn the 7 steps of hypothesis-testing using the confidence interval about the mean

There are seven basic steps of hypothesis-testing for this statistical test.

3.2.3.1 STEP 1: State the Null Hypothesis and the Research Hypothesis

If you are using numerical scales in your survey, you need to remember that these hypotheses refer to the "middle" of the numerical scale. For example, if you are using 7-point scales with 1 = poor and 7 = excellent, these hypotheses would refer to the middle of these scales and would be:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Null hypothesis } H_0: \quad \mu &= 4 \\ \text{Research hypothesis } H_1: \quad \mu &\neq 4 \end{aligned}$$

3.2.3.2 STEP 2: Select the Appropriate Statistical Test

In this chapter we are studying the confidence interval about the mean, and so we will select that test.

3.2.3.3 STEP 3: Calculate the Formula for the Statistical Test

You will recall (see Sect. 3.1.5) that the formula for the confidence interval about the mean is:

$$\bar{X} \pm t \text{ s.e.} \quad (3.2)$$

We discussed the procedure for computing this formula for the confidence interval about the mean using Excel earlier in this chapter, and the steps involved in using that formula are:

1. Use Excel's =COUNT function to find the sample size.
2. Use Excel's =AVERAGE function to find the sample mean, \bar{X} .
3. Use Excel's =STDEV function to find the standard deviation, STDEV.
4. Find the standard error of the mean (s.e.) by dividing the standard deviation (STDEV) by the square root of the sample size, n .
5. Use Excel's TINV function to find the lower limit of the confidence interval.
6. Use Excel's TINV function to find the upper limit of the confidence interval.

3.2.3.4 STEP 4: Draw a Picture of the Confidence Interval About the Mean, Including the Mean, the Lower Limit of the Interval, the Upper Limit of the Interval, and the Reference Value Given in the Null Hypothesis, H_0 (We Will Explain Step 4 Later in the Chapter.)

3.2.3.5 STEP 5: Decide on a Decision Rule

- (a) *If the reference value is inside the confidence interval, accept the null hypothesis, H_0*
- (b) *If the reference value is outside the confidence interval, reject the null hypothesis, H_0 , and accept the research hypothesis, H_1*

3.2.3.6 STEP 6: State the Result of Your Statistical Test

There are two possible results when you use the confidence interval about the mean, and only one of them can be accepted as “true.” So your result would be one of the following:

Either: Since the reference value is inside the confidence interval, we accept the null hypothesis, H_0

Or: Since the reference value is outside the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis, H_0 , and accept the research hypothesis, H_1

3.2.3.7 STEP 7: State the Conclusion of Your Statistical Test in Plain English!

In practice, this is more difficult than it sounds because you are trying to summarize the result of your statistical test in simple English that is both concise and accurate so that someone who has never had a statistics course (such as your boss, perhaps) can understand the conclusion of your test. This is a difficult task, and we will give you lots of practice doing this last and most important step throughout this book.

Objective: To write the conclusion of the confidence interval about the mean test

Let’s set some basic rules for stating the conclusion of a hypothesis test.

Rule #1: Whenever you reject H_0 and accept H_1 , you must use the word “significantly” in the conclusion to alert the reader that this test found an important result.

Rule #2: Create an outline in words of the “key terms” you want to include in your conclusion so that you do not forget to include some of them.

Rule #3: Write the conclusion in plain English so that the reader can understand it even if that reader has never taken a statistics course.

Let’s practice these rules using the Chevy Impala Excel spreadsheet that you created earlier in this chapter, but first we need to state the hypotheses for that car.

If General Motors wants to claim that the Chevy Impala gets 28 miles per gallon on a billboard ad, the hypotheses would be:

$$H_0: \mu = 28 \text{ mpg}$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq 28 \text{ mpg}$$

You will remember that the reference value of 28 mpg was inside the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for your data, so we would accept H_0 for the Chevy Impala that the car does get 28 mpg.

Objective: To state the result when you accept H_0

Result: Since the reference value of 28 mpg is inside the confidence interval, we accept the null hypothesis, H_0

Let's try our three rules now:

Objective: To write the conclusion when you accept H_0

Rule #1: *Since the reference value was inside the confidence interval, we cannot use the word “significantly” in the conclusion. This is a basic rule we are using in this chapter for every problem.*

Rule #2: The key terms in the conclusion would be:

- Chevy Impala
- reference value of 28 mpg

Rule #3: The Chevy Impala did get 28 mpg.

The process of writing the conclusion when you accept H_0 is relatively straightforward since you put into words what you said when you wrote the null hypothesis.

However, the process of stating the conclusion when you reject H_0 and accept H_1 is more difficult, so let's practice writing that type of conclusion with three practice case examples:

Objective: To write the result and conclusion when you reject H_0

CASE #1: Suppose that an ad in *The Wall Street Journal* claimed that the Honda Accord Sedan gets 34 miles per gallon. The hypotheses would be:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0: \mu &= 34 \text{ mpg} \\ H_1: \mu &\neq 34 \text{ mpg} \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that your research yields the following confidence interval:

30	31	32	34
lower limit	Mean	upper limit	Ref. Value

Result: Since the reference value is outside the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis

The three rules for stating the conclusion would be:

Rule #1: We must include the word “significantly” since the reference value of 34 is outside the confidence interval.

Rule #2: The key terms would be:

- Honda Accord Sedan
- significantly
- either “more than” or “less than”
- and probably closer to

Rule #3: The Honda Accord Sedan got significantly less than 34 mpg, and it was probably closer to 31 mpg.

Note that this conclusion says that the mpg was less than 34 mpg because the sample mean was only 31 mpg. Note, also, that when you find a significant result by rejecting the null hypothesis, *it is not sufficient to say only: “significantly less than 34 mpg,”* because that does not tell the reader “how much less than 34 mpg” the sample mean was from 34 mpg. To make the conclusion clear, you need to add: “probably closer to 31 mpg” since the sample mean was only 31 mpg.

CASE #2: The density of a substance does not change significantly within the sample. In almost all cases, the density of a substance will be the same no matter how much or how little of the substance you have. This is particularly useful in identifying minerals. Density is calculated by taking the mass (g) of an object and dividing it by its volume (cm^3). For example, silver has a density of 10.49 g/cm^3 . If you are given a substance and told that it is “pure silver,” and the density of that substance is not 10.49 g/cm^3 , then the substance you have is not pure silver, no matter what it looks like. The density of the substance could be more or less depending on what is mixed in with it. Science doesn’t lie when it comes to density.

Let’s suppose that you have been asked by a company to determine if a substance they purchased as being pure silver was actually pure silver. Suppose, further, that you have obtained 50 random samples of the material this company purchased and that you have calculated the density of each of these samples. You want to practice your data interpretation skills on the hypothetical data which produces the confidence interval below:

The hypotheses for this test would be:

$$H_0: \mu = 10.49 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq 10.49 \text{ g/cm}^3$$

Essentially, the null hypothesis equal to 10.49 g/cm^3 states that if the obtained mean score for this sample is not significantly different from 10.49 g/cm^3 , then the substance purchased by the company was really pure silver.

Suppose that your analysis produced the following confidence interval for this test:

10.41	10.43	10.45	10.49
lower limit	Mean	upper limit	Ref. Value

Result: Since the reference value is outside the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Rule #1: You must include the word “significantly” since the reference value is outside the confidence interval

Rule #2: The key terms would be:

- density
- substance tested
- significantly
- less or greater (depending on your result)
- either pure silver or not pure silver (since the result is significant)

Rule #3: The observed density of the substance tested was significantly less than the known density of silver, and it was probably closer to 10.43 g/cm³. Therefore, the tested substance was not pure silver.

Note that you need to use the word “less” since the sample mean of 10.43 g/cm³ was less than the reference value of 10.49 g/cm³.

CASE #3: Your work as a “quality control supervisor” in a machine shop that produces steel rods of various diameters and lengths for use in construction projects. Your machine shop is known for producing high quality rods that consistently meet specific standards set by customers. Recently, the machine that cuts the rods to length at the shop has been having problems with making accurate cuts. The cutting machine has supposedly been “fixed,” but management wants to make sure that the machine is now accurate. You have been asked to use your Excel skills to determine if the cutting machine is now working properly. You have obtained a random set of test rods that were cut with the machine when the machine was set to cut them to a length of 5.5 cm.

The hypotheses would be:

$$H_0: \mu = 5.5 \text{ cm}$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq 5.5 \text{ cm}$$

Suppose that your research produced the following confidence interval for this machine for your test:

5.5	5.7	5.8	5.9
Ref. Value	lower limit	Mean	upper limit

Result: Since the reference value is outside the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis

The three rules for stating the conclusion would be:

Rule #1: You must include the word “significantly” since the reference value is outside the confidence interval

Rule #2: The key terms would be:

- sample of test bars
- significantly
- longer or shorter (depending on the result of your test)

Rule #3: The sample of test bars were cut significantly longer than what the cutting machine was set for at 5.5 cm, and were probably closer to 5.8 cm.

Note two important things about this conclusion above: (1) people when speaking English do not normally say “significantly longer” but your use of statistics allows you to speak with authority in this case, and (2) the mean of 5.8 cm was greater (longer) than the reference value of 5.5 cm.

If you want a more detailed explanation of the confidence interval about the mean, see Townend (2002).

The three practice problems at the end of this chapter will give you additional practice in stating the conclusion of your result, and this book will include many more examples that will help you to write a clear and accurate conclusion to your research findings.

3.3 Alternative Ways to Summarize the Result of a Hypothesis Test

It is important for you to understand that in this book we are summarizing an hypothesis test in one of two ways: (1) We accept the null hypothesis, or (2) We reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis. We are consistent in the use of these words so that you can understand the concept underlying hypothesis testing.

However, there are many other ways to summarize the result of an hypothesis test, and all of them are correct theoretically, even though the terminology differs. If you are taking a course with a professor who wants you to summarize the results of a statistical test of hypotheses in language which is different from the language we are using in this book, do not panic! If you understand the concept of hypothesis testing as described in this book, you can then translate your understanding to use the terms that your professor wants you to use to reach the same conclusion to the hypothesis test.

Statisticians and professors of science statistics all have their own language that they like to use to summarize the results of an hypothesis test. There is no one set of words that these statisticians and professors will ever agree on, and so we have chosen the one that we believe to be easier to understand in terms of the concept of hypothesis testing.

To convince you that there are many ways to summarize the results of an hypothesis test, we present the following quotes from prominent statistics and research books to give you an idea of the different ways that are possible.

3.3.1 *Different Ways to Accept the Null Hypothesis*

The following quotes are typical of the language used in statistics and research books *when the null hypothesis is accepted*:

- “The null hypothesis is not rejected.” (Black 2010, p. 310)
- “The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.” (McDaniel and Gates 2010, p. 545)
- “The null hypothesis . . . claims that there is no difference between groups.” (Salkind 2010, p. 193)
- “The difference is not statistically significant.” (McDaniel and Gates 2010, p. 545)
- “. . . the obtained value is not extreme enough for us to say that the difference between Groups 1 and 2 occurred by anything other than chance.” (Salkind 2010, p. 225)
- “If we do not reject the null hypothesis, we conclude that there is not enough statistical evidence to infer that the alternative (hypothesis) is true.” (Keller 2009, p. 358)
- “The research hypothesis is not supported.” (Zikmund and Babin 2010, p. 552)

3.3.2 *Different Ways to Reject the Null Hypothesis*

The following quotes are typical of the quotes used in statistics and research books *when the null hypothesis is rejected*:

- “The null hypothesis is rejected.” (McDaniel and Gates 2010, p. 546)
- “If we reject the null hypothesis, we conclude that there is enough statistical evidence to infer that the alternative hypothesis is true.” (Keller 2009, p. 358)
- “If the test statistic’s value is inconsistent with the null hypothesis, we reject the null hypothesis and infer that the alternative hypothesis is true.” (Keller 2009, p. 348)
- “Because the observed value . . . is greater than the critical value . . . , the decision is to reject the null hypothesis.” (Black 2010, p. 359)
- “If the obtained value is more extreme than the critical value, the null hypothesis cannot be accepted.” (Salkind 2010, p. 243)
- “The critical t-value . . . must be surpassed by the observed t-value if the hypothesis test is to be statistically significant” (Zikmund and Babin 2010, p. 567)
- “The calculated test statistic . . . exceeds the upper boundary and falls into this rejection region. The null hypothesis is rejected.” (Weiers 2011, p. 330)

You should note that all of the above quotes are used by statisticians and professors when discussing the results of an hypothesis test, and so you should not be surprised if someone asks you to summarize the results of a statistical test using a different language than the one we are using in this book.

3.4 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Suppose that you are an engineer working for a major tire manufacturer and that you have been asked to determine in a laboratory using specialized machines the “expected lifetime” of a new type of passenger sedan tire that has been made from a new type of synthetic material. Suppose, further, that your company would like to claim in its advertising for this new type of tire that this tire “lasts for 40,000 miles.” You have been asked to take a random sample of tires produced with this new material, and to check their lifetime. You decide to test your Excel skills on a small number of tires, and the hypothetical data appear in Fig. 3.8:

EXPECTED LIFETIME OF A NEW TYPE OF PASSENGER CAR TIRE	
Research question:	"Does this new type of synthetic tire have an expected lifetime of 40,000 miles?
LIFETIME IN MILES	
	38,400
	39,500
	39,400
	42,300
	46,700
	45,800
	44,300
	38,600
	42,500
	41,600
	40,200
	38,600
	37,900
	38,900
	40,600

Fig. 3.8 Worksheet Data for Chap. 3: Practice Problem #1

- (a) To the right of this table, use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for the lifetime figures. Label your answers. Use number format (two decimal places) for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean.

- (b) Enter the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis onto your spreadsheet.
(c) Use Excel's TINV function to find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for these figures. Label your answers. Use number format (two decimal places).
(d) Enter your *result* onto your spreadsheet.
(e) Enter your *conclusion in plain English* onto your spreadsheet.
(f) Print the final spreadsheet to fit onto one page (if you need help remembering how to do this, see the objectives at the end of Chap. 2 in Sect. 2.4)
(g) On your printout, draw a diagram of this 95 % confidence interval by hand
(h) Save the file as: lifetime3
2. Suppose that you are an electrical engineer and that your company wants to determine if the lifetime of a new type of light bulb made with a new type of fusing process is 1300 hours under laboratory testing conditions. Let's suppose that you have taken a small random sample of light bulbs produced with this new process and that you want to analyze the hypothetical data in Fig. 3.9.

EXPECTED LIFETIME OF A NEW TYPE OF LIGHT BULB	
Research question:	"Does this new type of light bulb have an expected lifetime of 1300 hours?
LIFETIME IN HOURS	
	1252.3
	1310.6
	1264.1
	1244.2
	1282.8
	1308.4
	1319.4
	1277.4
	1289.7
	1292.3
	1256.2
	1288.4
	1279.9
	1264.7
	1305.8
	1297.5

Fig. 3.9 Worksheet Data for Chap. 3: Practice Problem #2

Create an Excel spreadsheet with these data.

- (a) Use Excel to the right of the table to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and use one decimal place for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean
 - (b) Enter the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for this light bulb on your spreadsheet.
 - (c) Use Excel's TINV function to find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for these data. Label your answers on your spreadsheet. Use one decimal place for the lower limit and the upper limit of the confidence interval.
 - (d) Enter the *result* of the test on your spreadsheet.
 - (e) Enter the *conclusion* of the test in plain English on your spreadsheet.
 - (f) Print your final spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page (if you need help remembering how to do this, see the objectives at the end of Chap. 2 in Sect. 2.4).
 - (g) Draw a picture of the confidence interval, including the reference value, onto your spreadsheet.
 - (h) Save the final spreadsheet as: lightbulb3
3. Welch's sells a small can of what the company claims as "100 % Grape Juice" and the package states that the can contains 5.5 fluid ounces (FL.OZ.) of grape juice, and the can also labels this amount as 163 milliliters (ml) of grape juice. Suppose that you have been asked to take a random sample of cans produced today to see if they contain 163 ml of grape juice. You select a random sample of cans, measure the volume of liquid in them, and then start to analyze the hypothetical data are given in Fig. 3.10:

WELCH'S 100% GRAPE JUICE	
Research question:	"Does the average can of Welch's 100% grape juice produced today contain 163 ml of grape juice?
ml	
165	
158	
163	
159	
154	
157	
159	
161	
164	
154	
157	
161	
163	
163	

Fig. 3.10 Worksheet Data for Chap. 3: Practice Problem #3

Create an Excel spreadsheet with these data.

- (a) Use Excel to the right of the table to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and use two decimal places for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean
- (b) Enter the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis onto your spreadsheet.
- (c) Use Excel's TINV function to find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for these data. Label your answers on your spreadsheet. Use two decimal places for the lower limit and the upper limit of the confidence interval.
- (d) Enter the *result* of the test on your spreadsheet.
- (e) Enter the *conclusion* of the test in plain English on your spreadsheet.
- (f) Print your final spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page (if you need help remembering how to do this, see the objectives at the end of Chap. 2 in Sect. 2.4).
- (g) Draw a picture of the confidence interval, including the reference value, onto your spreadsheet.
- (h) Save the final spreadsheet as: grape3

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Chapter 4

One-Group t-Test for the Mean

In this chapter, you will learn how to use one of the most popular and most helpful statistical tests in science research: the one-group t-test for the mean.

The formula for the one-group t-test is as follows:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S_{\bar{X}}} \text{ where} \quad (4.1)$$

$$\text{s.e.} = S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (4.2)$$

This formula asks you to take the mean (\bar{X}) and subtract the population mean (μ) from it, and then divide the answer by the standard error of the mean (s.e.). The standard error of the mean equals the standard deviation divided by the square root of n (the sample size). If you want to learn more about this test, see Schuenemeyer and Drew (2011).

Let's discuss the 7 STEPS of hypothesis testing using the one-group t-test so that you can understand how this test is used.

4.1 The 7 STEPS for Hypothesis-Testing Using the One-Group t-Test

Objective: To learn the 7 steps of hypothesis-testing using the one-group t-test

Before you can try out your Excel skills on the one-group t-test, you need to learn the basic steps of hypothesis-testing for this statistical test. There are 7 steps in this process:

4.1.1 *STEP 1: State the Null Hypothesis and the Research Hypothesis*

If you are using numerical scales in your survey, you need to remember that these hypotheses refer to the “middle” of the numerical scale. For example, if you are using 7-point scales with 1 = poor and 7 = excellent, these hypotheses would refer to the middle of these scales and would be:

Null hypothesis $H_0: \mu = 4$

Research hypothesis $H_1: \mu \neq 4$

As a second example, suppose that you worked for Honda Motor Company and that you wanted to place a magazine ad that claimed that the new Honda Fit got 35 miles per gallon (mpg). The hypotheses for testing this claim on actual data would be:

$H_0: \mu = 35 \text{ mpg}$

$H_1: \mu \neq 35 \text{ mpg}$

4.1.2 *STEP 2: Select the Appropriate Statistical Test*

In this chapter we will be studying the one-group t-test, and so we will select that test.

4.1.3 *STEP 3: Decide on a Decision Rule for the One-Group t-Test*

- If the absolute value of t is less than the critical value of t , accept the null hypothesis.
- If the absolute value of t is greater than the critical value of t , reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

You are probably saying to yourself: “That sounds fine, but how do I find the absolute value of t ? ”

4.1.3.1 **Finding the Absolute Value of a Number**

To do that, we need another objective:

Objective: To find the absolute value of a number

If you took a basic algebra course in high school, you may remember the concept of “absolute value.” In mathematical terms, the absolute value of any number is *always* that number expressed as a positive number.

For example, the absolute value of 2.35 is +2.35.

And the absolute value of minus 2.35 (i.e. -2.35) is also +2.35.

This becomes important when you are using the t-table in Appendix E of this book. We will discuss this table later when we get to Step 5 of the one-group t-test where we explain how to find the critical value of t using Appendix E.

4.1.4 STEP 4: Calculate the Formula for the One-Group t-Test

Objective: To learn how to use the formula for the one-group t-test

The formula for the one-group t-test is as follows:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S_{\bar{X}}} \text{ where} \quad (4.1)$$

$$\text{s.e.} = S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (4.2)$$

This formula makes the following assumptions about the data (Foster et al. 1998): (1) The data are independent of each other (i.e., each person or event receives only one score), (2) the *population* of the data is normally distributed, and (3) the data have a constant variance (note that the standard deviation is the square root of the variance).

To use this formula, you need to follow these steps:

1. Take the sample mean in your research study and subtract the population mean μ from it (remember that the population mean for a study involving numerical rating scales is the “middle” number in the scale).
2. Then take your answer from the above step, and divide your answer by the standard error of the mean for your research study (you will remember that you learned how to find the standard error of the mean in Chap. 1; to find the standard error of the mean, just take the standard deviation of your research study and divide it by the square root of n , where n is the number of people or events used in your research study).
3. The number you get after you complete the above step is the value for t that results when you use the formula stated above.

4.1.5 STEP 5: Find the Critical Value of t in the t-Table in Appendix E

Objective: To find the critical value of t in the t-table in Appendix E

Before we get into an explanation of what is meant by “the critical value of t,” let’s give you practice in finding the critical value of t by using the t-table in Appendix E.

Keep your finger on Appendix E as we explain how you need to “read” that table.

Since the test in this chapter is called the “one-group t-test,” you will use the first column on the left in Appendix E to find the critical value of t for your research study (note that this column is headed: “sample size n”).

To find the critical value of t, you go down this first column until you find the sample size in your research study, and then you go to the right and read the critical value of t for that sample size in the critical t column in the table (note that *this is the column that you would use for both the one-group t-test and the 95 % confidence interval about the mean*).

For example, if you have 27 people in your research study, the critical value of t is 2.056.

If you have 38 people in your research study, the critical value of t is 2.026.

If you have more than 40 people in your research study, the critical value of t is always 1.96.

Note that the “critical t column” in Appendix E represents the value of t that you need to obtain to be 95 % confident of your results as “significant” results.

The critical value of t is the value that tells you whether or not you have found a “significant result” in your statistical test.

The t-table in Appendix E represents a series of “bell-shaped normal curves” (they are called bell-shaped because they look like the outline of the Liberty Bell that you can see in Philadelphia outside of Independence Hall).

The “middle” of these normal curves is treated as if it were zero point on the x-axis (the technical explanation of this fact is beyond the scope of this book, but any good statistics book (e.g. Zikmund and Babin 2010) will explain this concept to you if you are interested in learning more about it).

Thus, values of t that are to the right of this zero point are positive values that use a plus sign before them, and values of t that are to the left of this zero point are negative values that use a minus sign before them. Thus, some values of t are positive, and some are negative.

However, every statistics book that includes a t-table only reprints the *positive* side of the t-curves because the negative side is the mirror image of the positive side; this means that the negative side contains the exact same numbers as the positive side, but the negative numbers all have a minus sign in front of them.

Therefore, to use the t-table in Appendix E, you need to *take the absolute value of the t-value you found when you use the t-test formula* since the t-table in Appendix E only has the values of t that are the positive values for t.

Throughout this book, we are assuming that you want to be 95 % confident in the results of your statistical tests. Therefore, the value for t in the t-table in Appendix E tells you whether or not the t-value you obtained when you used the formula for the one-group t-test is within the 95 % interval of the t-curve range that that t-value would be expected to occur with 95 % confidence.

If the t-value you obtained when you used the formula for the one-group t-test is *inside* of the 95 % confidence range, we say that the result you found is *not significant* (note that this is equivalent to *accepting the null hypothesis!*).

If the t-value you found when you used the formula for the one-group t-test is *outside* of this 95 % confidence range, we say that you have found a *significant result* that would be expected to occur less than 5 % of the time (note that this is equivalent to *rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the research hypothesis*).

4.1.6 STEP 6: State the Result of Your Statistical Test

There are two possible results when you use the one-group t-test, and only one of them can be accepted as “true.”

Either: Since the absolute value of t that you found in the t-test formula is *less than the critical value of t* in Appendix E, you accept the null hypothesis.

Or: Since the absolute value of t that you found in the t-test formula is *greater than the critical value of t* in Appendix E, you reject the null hypothesis, and accept the research hypothesis.

4.1.7 STEP 7: State the Conclusion of Your Statistical Test in Plain English!

In practice, this is more difficult than it sounds because you are trying to summarize the result of your statistical test in simple English that is both concise and accurate so that someone who has never had a statistics course (such as your boss, perhaps) can understand the result of your test. This is a difficult task, and we will give you lots of practice doing this last and most important step throughout this book.

If you have read this far, you are ready to sit down at your computer and perform the one-group t-test using Excel on some hypothetical data.

Let's give this a try.

4.2 One-Group t-Test for the Mean

Suppose that you worked for a company that produces powdered graphite for use in gear lubrication of machines. Graphite as a lubrication in machines is particularly useful because it can be applied dry and does not attract soil or other material that may cause gears not to operate smoothly. Your company sells its powdered graphite in various containers and amounts. Other companies that purchase the graphite in “bulk” have traditionally been charged by volume or cubic meters (m^3). The company had several cubic meter containers that were filled with graphite and then transferred to plastic tubes for shipping. Suppose that your company wanted to determine if it was better to sell the graphite by mass (kg). Owners of the company believe that they are losing money because its bulk orders are measured by volume. Given the type of graphite that your company sells, there should be 650 kilograms (kg) of graphite per cubic meter. Your company conducts a series of tests where it measures a cubic meter of graphite and then measures the same graphite sample in terms of kilograms. You have been provided with a random sample of those tests.

Suppose further, that you have decided to analyze the data from the tests using the one-group t-test.

Suppose that the hypothetical data for these tests were based on a sample size of 124 samples which had a mean of 678 kg and a standard deviation of 144 kg.

Objective: To analyze the data using the one-group t-test

Create an Excel spreadsheet with the following information:

B11: Null hypothesis:

B14: Research hypothesis:

Note: In this situation, you know that one cubic meter of graphite should have 650 kg of graphite. Therefore, the hypotheses for this example are:

H₀: $\mu = 650$ kg

H₁: $\mu \neq 650$ kg

B17: n

B20: mean

B23: STDEV

B26: s.e.

B29: critical t

B32: t-test

B36: Result:

B41: Conclusion:

Now, use Excel:

D17: enter the sample size

D20: enter the mean

D23: enter the STDEV (see Fig. 4.1)

Null hypothesis:						
Research hypothesis:						
n		124				
mean		678				
STDEV		144				
s.e.						
critical t						
t-test						
Result:						
Conclusion:						

Fig. 4.1 Basic Data Table for Graphite (Practical Example)

D26: compute the standard error using the formula in Chap. 1

D29: find the critical t value of t in the t-table in Appendix E

Now, enter the following formula in cell D32 to find the t-test result:

$$= (D20 - 650) / D26$$

This formula takes the sample mean (D20) and subtracts the population hypothesized mean of 650 from the sample mean, and THEN divides the answer by the standard error of the mean (D26). Note that you need to enter D20-650 with an open-parenthesis *before* D20 and a closed-parenthesis *after* 650 so that the *answer of 28 is THEN divided by the standard error of 12.93* to get the t-test result of 2.17.

Now, use two decimal places for both the s.e. and the t-test result (see Fig. 4.2).

Null hypothesis:						
Research hypothesis:						
n		124				
mean		678				
STDEV		144				
s.e.		12.93				
critical t		1.96				
t-test		2.17				
Result:						
Conclusion:						

Fig. 4.2 t-test Formula Result for Graphite Example

Now, write the following sentence in D36–D39 to summarize the result of the t-test:

- D36: Since the absolute value of t of 2.17 is
- D37: greater than the critical t of 1.96, we
- D38: reject the null hypothesis and accept
- D39: the research hypothesis.

Lastly, write the following sentence in D41–D44 to summarize the conclusion of the result for the graphite example:

- D41: There is significantly more than 650 kg per cubic meter
- D42: of graphite sold when measured by volume compared
- D43: to when the graphite is measured by mass, and it is
- D44: probably closer to 678 kg per cubic meter.

Save your file as: graphite4

Important note: We have used the term “significantly more” because the sample mean mass of 678 kg is greater than the hypothesized mean mass of 650 kg.

You are probably wondering why we entered both the result and the conclusion in separate cells instead of in just one cell. This is because if you enter them in one cell, you will be very disappointed when you print out your final spreadsheet, because one of two things will happen that you will not like: (1) if you print the spreadsheet to fit onto only one page, the result and the conclusion will force the entire spreadsheet to be printed in such small font size that you will be unable to read it, or (2) if you do not print the final spreadsheet to fit onto one page, both the result and the conclusion will “dribble over” onto a second page instead of fitting the entire spreadsheet onto one page. In either case, your spreadsheet will not have a “professional look.”

Print the final spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page as given in Fig. 4.3. Enter the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis by hand on your spreadsheet

Null hypothesis:	$\mu = 650 \text{ kg}$
Research hypothesis:	$\mu \neq 650 \text{ kg}$
n	124
mean	678
STDEV	144
s.e.	12.93
critical t	1.96
t-test	2.17
Result:	Since the absolute value of t of 2.17 is greater than the critical t of 1.96, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.
Conclusion:	There is significantly more than 650 kg per cubic meter of graphite sold when measured by volume compared to when the graphite is measured by mass, and it is probably closer to 678 kg per cubic meter.

Fig. 4.3 Final Spreadsheet for Graphite Example

Important Note: It is important for you to understand that “technically” the above conclusion in statistical terms should state:

“There is significantly more than 650 kg of graphite sold when measured by volume compared to when the graphite is measured by mass, and this result was probably not obtained by chance.”

However, throughout this book, we are using the term “significantly” in writing the conclusion of statistical tests to alert the reader that the result of the statistical test was probably not a

chance finding, but instead of writing all of those words each time, we use the word “significantly” as a shorthand to the longer explanation. This makes it much easier for the reader to understand the conclusion when it is written “in plain English,” instead of technical, statistical language.

4.3 Can You Use Either the 95 % Confidence Interval About the Mean OR the One-Group t-Test When Testing Hypotheses?

You are probably asking yourself:

“It sounds like you could use *either* the 95 % confidence interval about the mean or the one-group t-test to analyze the results of the types of problems described so far in this book? Is this a correct statement?”

The answer is a resounding: “Yes!”

Both the confidence interval about the mean and the one-group t-test are used often in science research on the types of problems described so far in this book. *Both of these tests produce the same result and the same conclusion from the data set!*

Both of these tests are explained in this book because some researchers prefer the confidence interval about the mean test, others prefer the one-group t-test, and still others prefer to use both tests on the same data to make their results and conclusions clearer to the reader of their research reports. Since we do not know which of these tests your researcher prefers, we have explained both of them so that you are competent in the use of both tests in the analysis of statistical data.

Now, let’s try your Excel skills on the one-group t-test on these three problems at the end of this chapter.

4.4 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Suppose that the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has set a maximum total phosphorus concentration (mg/L) for waste water effluent produced by chemical plants to be 0.015 mg/L. Suppose, further, that over a 90-day period, a random sample of waste water effluent was taken from a specific chemical plant and tested for phosphorus concentration. You have been asked to test your Excel skills on the hypothetical data given in Fig. 4.4.

PHOSPORUS CONCENTRATION (mg/L) IN WASTE WATER EFFLUENT	
CONCENTRATION (mg/L)	
0.0142	
0.0135	
0.0138	
0.0136	
0.0137	
0.0135	
0.0141	
0.0140	
0.0138	
0.0134	
0.0135	
0.0137	
0.0142	
0.0132	
0.0133	

Fig. 4.4 Worksheet Data for Chap. 4: Practice Problem #1

- (a) Write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on your spreadsheet
 - (b) Use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to the right of the data set. Use number format (four decimal places) for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean.
 - (c) Enter the critical t from the t-table in Appendix E onto your spreadsheet, and label it.
 - (d) Use Excel to compute the t-value for these data (use two decimal places) and label it on your spreadsheet
 - (e) Type the result on your spreadsheet, and then type the conclusion in plain English on your spreadsheet
 - (f) Save the file as: waste31
2. Suppose that the Mayor of St. Louis wanted to reduce the amount of waste garbage collected in households in the Central West End of the city from an average of 26 kilograms (kg) per week in the weekly pickup cycle by instituting a recycling program for six months (26 weeks) in addition to the garbage collection program. You want to test your Excel skills to determine if there has been any change in the garbage collection program per household. The hypothetical data are presented in Fig. 4.5:

WASTE GARBAGE COLLECTED IN HOUSEHOLDS	
Central West End, St. Louis, Missouri (USA)	
WEEKLY GARBAGE COLLECTION (kg)	
18	
21	
20	
19	
21	
23	
22	
24	
18	
17	
19	
20	
21	
24	
26	
21	
18	
25	
19	
26	
21	
23	
22	
24	
26	
19	

Fig. 4.5 Worksheet Data for Chap. 4: Practice Problem #2

- (a) *On your Excel spreadsheet*, write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for these data.
- (b) Use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data (two decimal places for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean).
- (c) Use Excel to perform a one-group t-test on these data (two decimal places).
- (d) On your printout, type the critical value of t given in your t-table in Appendix E.
- (e) On your spreadsheet, type the result of the t-test.
- (f) On your spreadsheet, type the conclusion of your study in plain English.
- (g) save the file as: garbage3

3. The density of a substance does not change significantly within the sample. In almost all cases, the density of a substance will be the same no matter how much or how little of the substance you have. This is particularly useful in identifying minerals. Density is calculated by taking the mass (g) of an object and dividing it by its volume (cm^3). For example, silver has a density of 10.49 g/cm^3 . If you are given a substance and told that it is “pure silver,” and the density of that substance is not 10.49 g/cm^3 , then the substance you have is not pure silver, no matter what it looks like. The density of the substance could be more or less depending on what is mixed in with it. Science doesn’t lie when it comes to density.

Let’s suppose that you have been asked by a company to determine if a substance they purchased as being pure silver was actually pure silver. Suppose, further, that you have obtained 17 random samples of the material this company purchased and that you have calculated the density of each of these samples. You want to practice your data interpretation skills on the hypothetical data which appears in Fig. 4.6.

Research question: Is this sample of minerals "pure silver"?	
	DENSITY (g/cm^3)
	10.38
	10.41
	10.39
	10.42
	10.44
	10.46
	10.45
	10.47
	10.48
	10.49
	10.51
	10.52
	10.37
	10.41
	10.45
	10.43
	10.48

Fig. 4.6 Worksheet Data for Chap. 4: Practice Problem #3

- (a) Write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on your spreadsheet
- (b) Use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to the right of the data set. Use number format (two decimal places) for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean.
- (c) Enter the critical t from the t-table in Appendix E onto your spreadsheet, and label it.
- (d) Use Excel to compute the t-value for these data (use two decimal places) and label it on your spreadsheet
- (e) Type the result on your spreadsheet, and then type the conclusion in plain English on your spreadsheet
- (f) Save the file as: SILVER30

References

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- Zikmund W, Babin B. Exploring marketing research. 10th ed. Mason: South-Western Cengage Learning; 2010.

Chapter 5

Two-Group t-Test of the Difference of the Means for Independent Groups

Up until now in this book, you have been dealing with the situation in which you have had only one group of people or events in your research study and only one measurement “number” on each of these people or events. We will now change gears and deal with the situation in which you are measuring two groups instead of only one group.

Whenever you have two completely different groups of people or events (i.e., no one person or event is in both groups, but every person or event is measured on only one variable to produce one “number” for each person or event), we say that the two groups are “independent of one another.” This chapter deals with just that situation and that is why it is called the two-group t-test for independent groups.

The two assumptions underlying the two-group t-test are the following (Wheater and Cook 2000): (1) both groups are sampled from a normal population, and (2) the variances of the two populations are approximately equal. Note that the standard deviation is merely the square root of the variance. (There are different formulas to use when each person or event is measured twice to create two groups of data, and this situation is called “dependent,” but those formulas are beyond the scope of this book.) This book only deals with two groups that are independent of one another so that no person or event is in both groups of data.

When you are testing for the difference between the means for two groups, it is important to remember that there are two different formulas that you need to use depending on the sample sizes of the two groups:

- (1) Use Formula #1 in this chapter when both of the groups have a sample size greater than 30, and
- (2) Use Formula #2 in this chapter when either one group, or both groups, have a sample size less than 30.

We will illustrate both of these situations in this chapter.

But, first, we need to understand the steps involved in hypothesis-testing when two groups are involved before we dive into the formulas for this test.

5.1 The 9 STEPS for Hypothesis-Testing Using the Two-Group t-Test

Objective: To learn the 9 steps of hypothesis-testing using two groups of people or events and the two-group t-test

You will see that these steps parallel the steps used in the previous chapter that dealt with the one-group t-test, but there are some important differences between the steps that you need to understand clearly before we dive into the formulas for the two-group t-test.

5.1.1 *STEP 1: Name One Group, Group 1, and the Other Group, Group 2*

The formulas used in this chapter will use the numbers 1 and 2 to distinguish between the two groups. If you define which group is Group 1 and which group is Group 2, you can use these numbers in your computations without having to write out the names of the groups.

For example, if you are testing entering college freshmen who said that they wanted to major in engineering to see if there were gender differences in their SAT-Math scores as high school seniors, you could call the groups: “Freshmen Males” and “Freshmen Females,” but this would require your writing out the words “Freshmen Males” and “Freshmen Females” whenever you wanted to refer to one of these groups. If you call the “Freshmen Males” group, Group 1, and the “Freshmen Females” group, Group 2, this makes it much easier to refer to the groups because it saves you writing time.

As a second example, you could be comparing the durability (i.e., lasting life) for two types of house paint, “latex paint” *versus* “oil-based paint.” If you had to write out the names of the two types of paint whenever you wanted to refer to them, it would take you more time than it would if, instead, you named one type of paint, Group 1, and the other type of paint, Group 2.

Note, also, that it is completely arbitrary which group you call Group 1, and which Group you call Group 2. You will achieve the same result and the same conclusion from the formulas however you decide to define these two groups.

5.1.2 STEP 2: Create a Table That Summarizes the Sample Size, Mean Score, and Standard Deviation of Each Group

This step makes it easier for you to make sure that you are using the correct numbers in the formulas for the two-group t-test. If you get the numbers “mixed-up,” your entire formula work will be incorrect and you will botch the problem terribly.

For example, suppose that you collected data on entering freshmen who said that they planned to become engineering majors and found that the Freshmen Males group had 57 men in it and their SAT-Math scores averaged 610 with a standard deviation of 120, while the Freshmen Females group had 46 females in it and their SAT-Math scores averaged 640 with a standard deviation of 110.

The formulas for analyzing these data to determine if there was a significant difference in the average SAT-Math score for Freshmen Males *versus* Freshmen Females require you to use six numbers correctly in the formulas: the sample size, the mean, and the standard deviation of each of the two groups. All six of these numbers must be used correctly in the formulas if you are to analyze the data correctly.

If you create a table to summarize these data, a good example of the table, using both Step 1 and Step 2, would be the data presented in Fig. 5.1:

A	B	C	D	E	F
1					
2					
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV	
4	1 (name it)				
5	2 (name it)				
6					
7					

Fig. 5.1 Basic Table Format for the Two-group t-test

For example, if you decide to call Group 1 the Freshmen Males group and Group 2 the Freshmen Females group, the following table would place the six numbers from your research study into the proper cells of the table as in Fig. 5.2:

A	B	C	D	E	F
1					
2					
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV	
4	1 Freshmen Males SAT-Math scores	57	610	120	
5	2 Freshmen Females SAT-Math scores	46	640	110	
6					
7					

Fig. 5.2 Results of Entering the Data Needed for the Two-group t-test

You can now use the formulas for the two-group t-test with more confidence that the six numbers will be placed in the proper place in the formulas.

Note that you could just as easily call Group 1 the Freshmen Females group and Group 2 the Freshmen Males group; it makes no difference how you decide to name the two groups; this decision is up to you and you will get the same result to your statistical test no matter which decision you make.

5.1.3 STEP 3: State the Null Hypothesis and the Research Hypothesis for the Two-Group t-Test

If you have completed Step 1 above, this step is very easy because the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis will always be stated in the same way for the two-group t-test. The null hypothesis states that the population means of the two groups are equal, while the research hypothesis states that the population means of the two groups are not equal. In notation format, this becomes:

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

You can now see that this notation is much simpler than having to write out the names of the two groups in all of your formulas.

5.1.4 STEP 4: Select the Appropriate Statistical Test

Since this chapter deals with the situation in which you have two groups but only one measurement on each person or event in each group, we will use the two-group t-test throughout this chapter.

5.1.5 STEP 5: Decide on a Decision Rule for the Two-Group t-Test

The decision rule is exactly what it was in the previous chapter (see Sect. 4.1.3) when we dealt with the one-group t-test.

- If the absolute value of t is less than the critical value of t , accept the null hypothesis.
- If the absolute value of t is greater than the critical value of t , reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Since you learned how to find the absolute value of t in the previous chapter (see Sect. 4.1.3.1), you can use that knowledge in this chapter.

5.1.6 STEP 6: Calculate the Formula for the Two-Group t-Test

Since we are using two different formulas in this chapter for the two-group t-test depending on the sample size in the two groups, we will explain how to use those formulas later in this chapter.

5.1.7 STEP 7: Find the Critical Value of *t* in the *t*-Table in Appendix E

In the previous chapter where we were dealing with the one-group *t*-test, you found the critical value of *t* in the *t*-table in Appendix E by finding the sample size for the one group in the first column of the table, and then reading the critical value of *t* across from it on the right in the “critical *t* column” in the table (see Sect. 4.1.5). This process was fairly simple once you have had some practice in doing this step.

However, for the two-group *t*-test, the procedure for finding the critical value of *t* is more complicated because you have two different groups in your study, and they often have different sample sizes in each group.

To use Appendix E correctly in this chapter, you need to learn how to find the “degrees of freedom” for your study. We will discuss that process now.

5.1.7.1 Finding the Degrees of Freedom (df) for the Two-Group *t*-Test

Objective: To find the degrees of freedom for the two-group *t*-test and to use it to find the critical value of *t* in the *t*-table in Appendix E

The mathematical explanation of the concept of the “degrees of freedom” is beyond the scope of this book, but you can find out more about this concept by reading any good statistics book (e.g. Keller, 2009). For our purposes, you can easily understand how to find the degrees of freedom and to use it to find the critical value of *t* in Appendix E. The formula for the degrees of freedom (df) is:

$$\text{degrees of freedom} = df = n_1 + n_2 - 2 \quad (5.1)$$

In other words, you add the sample size for Group 1 to the sample size for Group 2 and then subtract 2 from this total to get the number of degrees of freedom to use in Appendix E.

Take a look at Appendix E.

Instead of using the first column as we did in the one-group t-test that is based on the sample size, n , of one group, we need to use the second-column of this table (df) to find the critical value of t for the two-group t-test.

For example, if you had 13 people in Group 1 and 17 people in Group 2, the degrees of freedom would be: $13 + 17 - 2 = 28$, and the critical value of t would be 2.048 *since you look down the second column which contains the degrees of freedom until you come to the number 28, and then read 2.048 in the “critical t column” in the table to find the critical value of t when df = 28.*

As a second example, if you had 52 people in Group 1 and 57 people in Group 2, the degrees of freedom would be: $52 + 57 - 2 = 107$. When you go down the second column in Appendix E for the degrees of freedom, you find that *once you go beyond the degrees of freedom equal to 39, the critical value of t is always 1.96*, and that is the value you would use for the critical t with this example.

5.1.8 STEP 8: State the Result of Your Statistical Test

The result follows the exact same result format that you found for the one-group t-test in the previous chapter (see Sect. 4.1.6):

Either: Since the absolute value of t that you found in the t-test formula is *less than the critical value of t* in Appendix E, you accept the null hypothesis.

Or: Since the absolute value of t that you found in the t-test formula is *greater than the critical value of t* in Appendix E, you reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

5.1.9 STEP 9: State the Conclusion of Your Statistical Test in Plain English!

Writing the conclusion for the two-group t-test is more difficult than writing the conclusion for the one-group t-test because you have to decide what the difference was between the two groups.

When you accept the null hypothesis, the conclusion is simple to write: “There is no difference between the two groups in the variable that was measured.”

But when you reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis, you need to be careful about writing the conclusion so that it is both accurate and concise.

Let’s give you some practice in writing the conclusion of a two-group t-test.

5.1.9.1 Writing the Conclusion of the Two-Group t-Test When You Accept the Null Hypothesis

Objective: To write the conclusion of the two-group t- test when you have accepted the null hypothesis.

Suppose that you worked for a company that produces engineered (man-made) stone. The most popular stone that your company produces has always had complaints about being too soft. Generally, the hardness of stone is measured using the Mohs scale of hardness. The Mohs scale of hardness ranges from 1 to 10 with one being the softest (talc) and 10 being the hardest (diamond). Your company has changed the chemical formula for their most popular stone to try to increase its hardness. A test has been developed using the Mohs scale, and tried out with a pilot study with just a few samples to see how it was working. Item #10 of this survey is given in Fig. 5.3.



Fig. 5.3 Mohs Scale Survey Item #10

Suppose further, that you have decided to analyze the data from the tests comparing the “Old Stone” to the “New Stone” by using the two-group t-test.

Important note: You would need to use this test for each of the survey items separately.

Suppose that the hypothetical data for Item #10 was based on a sample size of 124 pieces of “Old Stone” which had a mean score on this item of 6.58 and a standard deviation on this item of 2.44. Suppose that you also had data from 86 samples of the “New Stone” which had a mean score of 6.45 with a standard deviation of 1.86.

We will explain later in this chapter how to produce the results of the two-group t-test using its formulas, but, for now, let’s “cut to the chase” and tell you that those formulas would produce the following in Fig. 5.4:

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1						
2						
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV		
4	1 Old Stone	124	6.58	2.44		
5	2 New Stone	86	6.45	1.86		
6						

Fig. 5.4 Worksheet Data for the Mohs Scale for Item #10 for Accepting the Null Hypothesis

degrees of freedom: 208

critical t: 1.96 (in Appendix E)

t-test formula: 0.44 (when you use your calculator!)

Result: Since the absolute value of 0.44 is less than the critical t of 1.96, we accept the null hypothesis.

Conclusion: There was no difference between the “Old Stone” and the “New Stone” in their hardness using the Mohs scale of hardness.

Now, let’s see what happens when you reject the null hypothesis (H_0) and accept the research hypothesis (H_1).

5.1.9.2 Writing the Conclusion of the Two-Group t-Test When You Reject the Null Hypothesis and Accept the Research Hypothesis

Objective: To write the conclusion of the two-group t-test when you have rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the research hypothesis

Let’s continue with this same example, but with the result that we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Let’s assume that this time you have “Old Stone” data on 85 samples and their mean score on this question was 7.26 with a standard deviation of 2.35. Let’s further suppose that you also have data on 48 “New Stone” samples and their mean score on this question was 4.37 with a standard deviation of 3.26.

Without going into the details of the formulas for the two-group t-test, these data would produce the following result and conclusion based on Fig. 5.5:

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1						
2						
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV		
4	1 Old Stone	85	7.26	2.35		
5	2 New Stone	48	4.37	3.26		
6						

Fig. 5.5 Worksheet Data for Item #10 for Obtaining a Significant Difference between the Two Types of Stone

Null Hypothesis: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$

Research Hypothesis: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

degrees of freedom: 131

critical t: 1.96 (in Appendix E)

t-test formula: 5.40 (when you use your calculator!)

Result: Since the absolute value of 5.40 is greater than the critical t of 1.96, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Now, you need to compare the ratings on the old stone and the new stone to find out which type of stone had a harder rating according to the Mohs hardness scale using the following rule:

Rule: To summarize the conclusion of the two-group t-test, just compare the means of the two groups, and be sure to use the word “significantly” in your conclusion if you rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the research hypothesis.

A good way to prepare to write the conclusion of the two-group t-test when you are using a rating scale is to place the mean scores of the two groups on a drawing of the scale so that you can visualize the difference of the mean scores. For example, for our stone hardness example above, you would draw this “picture” of the scale in Fig. 5.6:



Fig. 5.6 Example of Drawing a “Picture” of the Means of the Two Groups on the Rating Scale

This drawing tells you visually that the Old Stone was harder than the New Stone on this item (7.26 vs. 4.37). *And, since you rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the research hypothesis, you know that you have found a significant difference between the two mean scores.*

So, our conclusion needs to contain the following key words:

- Old Stone
- New Stone
- Mohs hardness scale
- significantly
- harder or softer
- either (7.26 vs. 4.37) or (4.37 vs. 7.26)

We can use these key words to write the either of two conclusions which are *logically identical*:

Either: The Old Stones were significantly harder than the New Stones according to the Mohs scale of hardness (7.26 vs. 4.37).

Or: The New Stones were significantly softer than the Old Stones according to the Mohs scale of hardness (4.37 vs. 7.26).

Both of these conclusions are accurate, so you can decide which one you want to write. It is your choice.

Also, note that the mean scores in parentheses at the end of these conclusions must match the sequence of the two groups in your conclusion. For example, if you say that: "The Old stones were significantly harder than the New Stones according to the Mohs scale of hardness," the end of this conclusion should be: (7.26 vs. 4.37) since you mentioned Old Stones first, and New Stones second.

Alternately, if you wrote that: "The New Stones were significantly softer than the Old Stones according to the Mohs scale of hardness," the end of this conclusion should be: (4.37 vs. 7.26) since you mentioned New Stones first, and Old Stones second.

Putting the two mean scores at the end of your conclusion saves the reader from having to turn back to the table in your research report to find these mean scores to see how far apart the mean scores were.

Now, let's discuss FORMULA #1 that deals with the situation in which both groups have a sample size greater than 30.

Objective: To use FORMULA #1 for the two-group t-test when both groups have a sample size greater than 30

5.2 Formula #1: Both Groups Have a Sample Size Greater Than 30

The first formula we will discuss will be used when you have two groups with a sample size greater than 30 in each group and one measurement on each member in each group. This formula for the two-group t-test is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}} \quad (5.2)$$

$$\text{where } S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}} \quad (5.3)$$

$$\text{and where degrees of freedom } = df = n_1 + n_2 - 2 \quad (5.1)$$

This formula looks daunting when you first see it, but let's explain some of the parts of this formula:

We have explained the concept of “degrees of freedom” earlier in this chapter, and so you should be able to find the degrees of freedom needed for this formula in order to find the critical value of t in Appendix E.

In the previous chapter, *the formula for the one-group t-test was the following:*

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s_{\bar{X}}} \quad (4.1)$$

$$\text{where s.e.} = S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \quad (4.2)$$

For the one-group t-test, you found the mean score and subtracted the population mean from it, and then divided the result by the standard error of the mean (s.e.) to get the result of the t-test. You then compared the t-test result to the critical value of t to see if you either accepted the null hypothesis, or rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the research hypothesis.

The two-group t-test requires a different formula because you have two groups, each with a mean score on some variable. You are trying to determine whether to accept the null hypothesis that the *population means of the two groups are equal* (in other words, there is no difference statistically between these two means), or whether the difference between the means of the two groups is “sufficiently large” that you would accept *that there is a significant difference* in the mean scores of the two groups.

The numerator of the two-group t-test asks you to find the difference of the means of the two groups:

$$\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 \quad (5.4)$$

The next step in the formula for the two-group t-test is to divide the answer you get when you subtract the two means by the standard error of the difference of the two means, and *this is a different standard error of the mean that you found for the one-group t-test because there are two means in the two-group t-test.*

The standard error of the mean when you have two groups is called the “standard error of the difference of the means.” This formula looks less scary when you break it down into four steps:

1. Square the standard deviation of Group 1, and divide this result by the sample size for Group 1 (n_1).
2. Square the standard deviation of Group 2, and divide this result by the sample size for Group 2 (n_2).
3. Add the results of the above two steps to get a total score.
4. *Take the square root of this total score to find the standard error of the difference of the means between the two groups,* $S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$

This last step is the one that gives students the most difficulty when they are finding this standard error using their calculator, because they are in such a hurry to get to the answer that they forget to carry the square root sign down to the last step, and thus get a larger number than they should for the standard error.

5.2.1 An Example of Formula #1 for the Two-Group t-Test

Now, let's use Formula #1 in a situation in which both groups have a sample size greater than 30.

Suppose that a large manufacturing company produced several types of thermoses using two different metal alloys (A and B) to form the thermos bodies, and that it wanted to compare these alloys to see if there were differences in their insulating properties for the thermoses. The company has conducted a test in which 100 °C water was placed in a thermos with a temperature probe and the lid was then closed on the container. The temperature of the water was taken 8 hours later. Suppose, further, that the results of this test are given in Fig. 5.7.

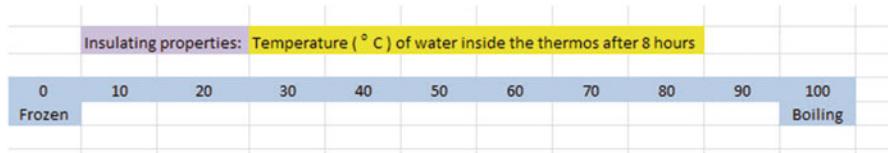


Fig. 5.7 Example of a Temperature Scale Rating for Water Temperature Inside the Thermos (Practical Example)

Suppose you collect these measurements and determine (using your new Excel skills) that the 52 thermoses in Group A had a mean temperature of 55 with a standard deviation of 7, while the 57 thermoses in Group B had a mean temperature of 64 with a standard deviation of 13.

Note that the two-group t-test does not require that both groups have the same sample size. This is another way of saying that the two-group t-test is “robust” (a fancy term that statisticians like to use).

Your data then produce the following table in Fig. 5.8:

Fig. 5.8 Worksheet Data for Water Temperature

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1						
2						
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV		
4	1 Group A	52	55	7		
5	2 Group B	57	64	13		
6						

Create an Excel spreadsheet, and enter the following information:

- B3: Group
- B4: 1 Group A
- B5: 2 Group B
- C3: n
- D3: Mean
- E3: STDEV
- C4: 52
- D4: 55
- E4: 7
- C5: 57
- D5: 64
- E5: 13

Now, widen column B so that it is twice as wide as column A, and center the six numbers and their labels in your table (see Fig. 5.9)

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1						
2						
3	Group	n	Mean	STDEV		
4	1 Group A	52	55	7		
5	2 Group B	57	64	13		
6						

Fig. 5.9 Results of Widening Column B and Centering the Numbers in the Cells

B8: Null hypothesis:

B10: Research hypothesis:

Since both groups have a sample size greater than 30, you need to use Formula #1 for the t-test for the difference of the means of the two groups.

Let's "break this formula down into pieces" to reduce the chance of making a mistake.

B13: STDEV1 squared/n1 (note that you square the standard deviation of Group 1, and then divide the result by the sample size of Group 1)

B16: STDEV2 squared/n2

B19: D13 + D16

B22: s.e.

B25: critical t

B28: t-test

B31: Result:

B36: Conclusion: (see Fig. 5.10)

Fig. 5.10 Formula Labels
for the Two-group t-test

Group	n	Mean	STDEV
1 Group A	52	55	7
2 Group B	57	64	13
Null hypothesis:			
Research hypothesis:			
STDEV1 squared/n1			
STDEV2 squared/n2			
D13 + D16			
s.e.			
critical t			
t-test			
Result:			
Conclusion:			

You now need to compute the values of the above formulas in the following cells:

- D13: the result of the formula needed to compute cell B13 (use two decimals)
- D16: the result of the formula needed to compute cell B16 (use two decimals)
- D19: the result of the formula needed to compute cell B19 (use two decimals)
- D22: =SQRT(D19) (use two decimals)

This formula should give you a standard error (s.e.) of 1.98.

D25: 1.96

(Since $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$, this gives $df = 109 - 2 = 107$, and the critical t is therefore, 1.96 in Appendix E.

D28: $= (D4 - D5) / D22$ (use two decimals)

This formula should give you a value for the t-test of: -4.55.

Next, check to see if you have rounded off all figures in D13:D28 to two decimal places (see Fig. 5.11).

Fig. 5.11 Results of the t-test Formula for Water Temperature Comparisons

Group	n	Mean	STDEV
1 Group A	52	55	7
2 Group B	57	64	13
Null hypothesis:			
Research hypothesis:			
STDEV1 squared/n1		0.94	
STDEV2 squared/n2		2.96	
D13 + D16		3.91	
s.e.		1.98	
critical t		1.96	
t-test		-4.55	
Result:			
Conclusion:			

Now, write the following sentence in D31 to D34 to summarize the result of the study:

- D31: Since the absolute value of -4.55
- D32: is greater than the critical t of
- D33: 1.96, we reject the null hypothesis
- D34: and accept the research hypothesis.

Finally, write the following sentence in D36 to D38 to summarize the conclusion of the study in plain English:

- D36: Overall, Thermoses from Group B were significantly
- D37: better at insulating than Thermoses from Group A
- D38: (64 vs. 55).

Save your file as: TEMP12E

Important note: You are probably wondering why we entered both the result and the conclusion in separate cells instead of in just one cell. This is because if you enter them in one cell, you will be very disappointed when you print out your final spreadsheet, because one of two things will happen that you will not like: (1) if you print the spreadsheet to fit onto only one page, the result and the conclusion will force the entire spreadsheet to be printed in such small font size that you will be unable to read it, or (2) if you do not print the final spreadsheet to fit onto one page, both the result and the conclusion will “dribble over” onto a second page instead of fitting the entire spreadsheet onto one page. In either case, your spreadsheet will not have a “professional look.”

Print this file so that it fits onto one page, and write by hand the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on your printout.

The final spreadsheet appears in Fig. 5.12.

Group	n	Mean	STDEV
1 Group A	52	55	7
2 Group B	57	64	13
Null hypothesis:		μ_1	=
Research hypothesis:		μ_1	\neq
STDEV1 squared/n1		0.94	
STDEV2 squared/n2		2.96	
D13 + D16		3.91	
s.e.		1.98	
critical t		1.96	
t-test		-4.55	
Result:	Since the absolute value of -4.55 is greater than the critical t of 1.96, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion:	Overall, Thermoses from Group B were significantly better at insulating than Thermoses from Group A (64 vs. 55)		

Fig. 5.12 Final Worksheet for Water Temperature Comparisons

Now, let's use the second formula for the two-group t-test which we use whenever either one group, or both groups, have a sample size less than 30.

Objective: To use Formula #2 for the two-group t-test when one or both groups have a sample size less than 30

Now, let's look at the case when one or both groups have a sample size less than 30.

5.3 Formula #2: One or Both Groups Have a Sample Size Less Than 30

Suppose that you are an electrical engineer and you have been asked to compare the number of hours until failure of two new models of light bulbs (Model A and Model B) that have been prepared by your company's Research & Development department. Suppose, further, that you have decided to analyze the data from this study using the two-group t-test for independent samples. You decide to try out your new Excel skills on a small sample of light bulbs of each model on the hypothetical data given in Fig. 5.13:

Fig. 5.13 Worksheet Data for Light Bulbs (Practical Example)

LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE	
Model A	Model B
910	890
940	940
980	950
1005	960
842	913
836	908
869	1030
910	1050
930	1040
897	
864	

Let's call Model A as Group 1, and Model B as Group 2.

Null hypothesis: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
 Research hypothesis: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

Note: Since both groups have a sample size less than 30, you need to use Formula #2 in the following steps:

Create an Excel spreadsheet, and enter the following information:

- B2: LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE
- B4: Model A
- C4: Model B
- B5: 910
- B15: 864
- C5: 890
- C13: 1040

Now, enter the other figures into this table. Be sure to double-check all of your figures. If you have only one incorrect figure, you will not be able to obtain the correct answer to this problem.

Now, widen columns B and C so that all of the information fits inside the cells. To do this, click on both letters B and C at the top of these columns on your spreadsheet to highlight all of the cells in columns B and C. Then, move the mouse pointer to the right end of the B cell until you get a “cross” sign; then, click on this cross sign and drag the sign to the right until you can read all of the words on your screen. Then, stop clicking! Both Column B and Column C should now be the same width.

Then, center all information in the table except the top title by using the following steps:

Left-click your mouse and highlight cells B4:C15. Then, click on the bottom line, second from the left icon, under “Alignment” at the top-center of Home. All of the information in the table should now be in the center of each cell.

E5: Null hypothesis:

E7: Research hypothesis:

E9: Group

E10: 1 Model A

E11: 2 Model B

F9: n

G9: Mean

H9: STDEV

Your spreadsheet should now look like Fig. 5.14.

LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE		
Model A	Model B	Null hypothesis:
910	890	
940	940	
980	950	Research hypothesis:
1005	960	
842	913	Group
836	908	n
869	1030	Mean
910	1050	STDEV
930	1040	
897		
864		

Fig. 5.14 Light Bulb Hours Until Failure Worksheet Data for Hypothesis Testing

Now you need to use your Excel skills from Chap. 1 to fill in the sample sizes (n), the Means, and the Standard Deviations (STDEV) in the Table in cells F10:H11. Be sure to double-check your work or you will not be able to obtain the correct answer to this problem if you have only one incorrect figure! Round off the means and standard deviations to zero decimal places and center these six figures within their cells.

Since both groups have a sample size less than 30, you need to use Formula #2 for the t-test for the difference of the means of two independent samples.

Formula #2 for the two-group t-test is the following:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}} \quad (5.1)$$

$$\text{where } S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)} \quad (5.5)$$

$$\text{and where degrees of freedom } = df = n_1 + n_2 - 2 \quad (5.6)$$

This formula is complicated, and so it will reduce your chance of making a mistake in writing it if you “break it down into pieces” instead of trying to write the formula as one cell entry.

Now, enter these words on your spreadsheet:

- E14: $(n_1 - 1) \times \text{STDEV1 squared}$
- E16: $(n_2 - 1) \times \text{STDEV2 squared}$
- E18: $n_1 + n_2 - 2$
- E20: $1/n_1 + 1/n_2$
- E23: s.e.
- E26: critical t
- E29: t-test
- B32: Result:
- B36: Conclusion: (see Fig. 5.15)

LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE				
Model A	Model B			
910	890	Null hypothesis:		
940	940			
980	950	Research hypothesis:		
1005	960			
842	913	Group	n	Mean
836	908	1 Model A	11	908
869	1030	2 Model B	9	965
910	1050			54
930	1040			61
897		(n1 - 1) x STDEV1 squared		
864		(n2-1) x STDEV2 squared		
		n1 + n2 - 2		
		1/n1+1/n2		
		S.e.		
		critical t		
		t-test		
Result:				
Conclusion:				

Fig. 5.15 Light Bulb Formula Labels for the Two-group t-test

You now need to use your Excel skills to compute the values of the above formulas in the following cells:

- H14: the result of the formula needed to compute cell E14 (use two decimals)
- H16: the result of the formula needed to compute cell E16 (use two decimals)
- H18: the result of the formula needed to compute cell E18
- H20: the result of the formula needed to compute cell E20 (use two decimals)
- H23: =SQRT(((H14+H16)/H18)*H20)

Note the three open-parentheses after SQRT, and the three closed parentheses on the right side of this formula. You need three open parentheses and three closed parentheses in this formula or the formula will not work correctly.

The above formula gives a standard error of the difference of the means equal to 25.68 (two decimals) in cell H23.

- H26: Enter the critical t value from the t-table in Appendix E in this cell using $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$ to find the critical t value
- H29: =(G10-G11)/H23

Note that you need an open-parenthesis *before G10* and a closed-parenthesis *after G11* so that this answer of -57 is *THEN* divided by the standard error of the difference of the means of 25.68, to give a t-test value of -2.22 . Use two decimal places for the t-test result (see Fig. 5.16).

LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE				
Model A	Model B			
910	890	Null hypothesis:		
940	940			
980	950	Research hypothesis:		
1005	960			
842	913	Group	n	Mean
836	908	1 Model A	11	908
869	1030	2 Model B	9	965
910	1050			
930	1040			
897		(n1 - 1) x STDEV1 squared		29224.73
864		(n2-1) x STDEV2 squared		29526.22
		n1 + n2 - 2		18
		1/n1 + 1/n2		0.20
		S.e.		25.68
		critical t		2.101
		t-test		-2.22
Result:				
Conclusion:				

Fig. 5.16 Light Bulb Hours Two-group t-test Formula Results

Now write the following sentence in C32 to C33 to summarize the *result* of the study:

- C32: Since the absolute value of -2.22 is greater than 2.101 ,
 C33: we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Finally, write the following sentence in C36 to C37 to summarize the *conclusion* of the study:

C36: Model B lasted significantly more hours until failure than Model A

C37: (965 hours vs. 908 hours).

Save your file as: bulb3

Print the final spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page.

Write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis by hand on your printout.

The final spreadsheet appears in Fig. 5.17.

LIGHT BULB HOURS (hrs) UNTIL FAILURE				
Model A	Model B			
910	890	Null hypothesis:	$\mu_1 = \mu_2$	
940	940			
980	950	Research hypothesis:	$\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$	
1005	960			
842	913	Group	n	Mean
836	908	1 Model A	11	908
869	1030	2 Model B	9	965
910	1050			
930	1040			
897		(n1 - 1) x STDEV1 squared		29224.73
864		(n2-1) x STDEV2 squared		29526.22
		n1 + n2 - 2		18
		1/n1 + 1/n2		0.20
		s.e.		25.68
		critical t		2.101
		t-test		-2.22
Result:		Since the absolute value of -2.22 is greater than the critical t of 2.101, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion:		Model B lasted significantly more hours until failure than Model A (965 hours vs. 908 hours).		

Fig. 5.17 Light Bulb Hours Final Spreadsheet

5.4 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Suppose that you are an electrical engineer and that you have been asked to perform a laboratory test on two types of lead wires that can be used in the manufacturing of household light bulbs. In each production run of the wire currently being used by your company, some of the wires did not feed properly into the machines. Your company is experimenting with a new type of lead wire to be used in production if the average number of misfeeding lead wires per hour for the New Wire is less than the number of misfeeding lead wires per hour for the Current Wire being used in production. 112 Current Wires were tested and had an average of 21.1 misfeeds per hour with a standard deviation of 3.24 misfeeds per hour. 126 New Wires were tested and had an average of 19.6 misfeeds per hour with a standard deviation of 3.06 misfeeds per hour.
 - (a) State the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on an Excel spreadsheet.
 - (b) Find the standard error of the difference between the means using Excel
 - (c) Find the critical t value using Appendix E, and enter it on your spreadsheet.
 - (d) Perform a t-test on these data using Excel. What is the value of t that you obtain?

Use three decimal places for all figures in the formula section of your spreadsheet.
 - (e) State your result on your spreadsheet.
 - (f) State your conclusion in plain English on your spreadsheet.
 - (g) Save the file as: leadwire3
2. Suppose that you have been asked to “run the data” at a large university by the Chair of the Chemical Engineering Department who wants to know if there is a gender difference in cumulative grade-point averages (GPAs) of undergraduate Chemical Engineering majors who have completed all of the required courses in their major. The Chair has obtained the cooperation of the Registrar and has promised to keep the GPA information confidential and has obtained the hypothetical data given in Fig. 5.18:

GPA OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING MAJORS WHO HAVE COMPLETED ALL REQUIRED ENGINEERING COURSES	
MEN	WOMEN
2.45	2.83
2.53	2.74
2.64	2.86
2.72	3.32
2.85	3.36
2.96	3.64
3.01	3.56
3.11	3.56
3.24	3.64
3.35	3.37
3.36	3.67
3.38	3.91
3.21	3.92
3.52	3.64
3.64	3.71
3.75	
3.86	

Fig. 5.18 Worksheet Data for Chap. 5: Practice Problem #2

- (a) State the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on an Excel spreadsheet.
 - (b) Find the standard error of the difference between the means using Excel
 - (c) Find the critical t value using Appendix E, and enter it on your spreadsheet.
 - (d) Perform a t-test on these data using Excel. What is the value of t that you obtain?
 - (e) State your result on your spreadsheet.
 - (f) State your conclusion in plain English on your spreadsheet.
 - (g) Save the file as: ENGINE34
3. Suppose that the CEO of a national fishing hook manufacturing company has asked you to “run the data” to see if there is a difference in tensile strength between its two brands (Brand A and Brand B) of fishing hooks. Tensile strength is typically measured in pascals (Pa). Brand A is considered to be a premiere hook and it costs much more than Brand B which is considered a standard hook. Because the specific alloys used in the making of the hook steel are proprietary, the CEO has obtained the cooperation of the company that supplies the raw materials (rolls of high carbon steel wire) for the hooks, and has obtained the hypothetical data given in Fig. 5.19:

TENSILE STRENGTH OF TWO TYPES OF HIGH CARBON STEEL USED IN FISH HOOK MANUFACTURING	
PREMIERE (MPa)	STANDARD (MPa)
761	740
760	738
755	736
763	742
765	747
745	744
758	739
761	730
763	737
757	743
750	741
759	738
764	725
767	745
762	743
756	
758	

Fig. 5.19 Worksheet Data for Chap. 5: Practice Problem #3

- (a) State the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on an Excel spreadsheet.
- (b) Find the standard error of the difference between the means using Excel
- (c) Find the critical t value using Appendix E, and enter it on your spreadsheet.
- (d) Perform a t-test on these data using Excel. What is the value of t that you obtain?
- (e) State your result on your spreadsheet.
- (f) State your conclusion in plain English on your spreadsheet.
- (g) Save the file as: FISH13

References

- Keller G. Statistics for management and economics. 8th ed. Mason: South-Western Cengage Learning; 2009.
Wheater C, Cook P. Using statistics to understand the environment. New York: Routledge; 2000.

Chapter 6

Correlation and Simple Linear Regression

There are many different types of “correlation coefficients,” but the one we will use in this book is the Pearson product-moment correlation which we will call: r .

6.1 What Is a “Correlation?”

Basically, a correlation is a number between -1 and $+1$ that summarizes the relationship between two variables, which we will call X and Y .

A correlation can be either positive or negative. A *positive correlation means that as X increases, Y increases*. A *negative correlation means that as X increases, Y decreases*. In statistics books, this part of the relationship is called the *direction* of the relationship (i.e., it is either positive or negative).

The correlation also tells us the *magnitude* of the relationship between X and Y . As the correlation approaches closer to $+1$, we say that the relationship is *strong and positive*.

As the correlation approaches closer to -1 , we say that the relationship is *strong and negative*.

A zero correlation means that there is no relationship between X and Y . This means that neither X nor Y can be used as a predictor of the other.

A good way to understand what a correlation means is to see a “picture” of the scatterplot of points produced in a chart by the data points. Let’s suppose that you want to know if variable X can be used to predict variable Y . We will place *the predictor variable X on the x -axis* (the horizontal axis of a chart) and *the criterion variable Y on the y -axis* (the vertical axis of a chart). Suppose, further, that you have collected data given in the scatterplots below (see Figs. 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5, and 6.6).

Figure 6.1 shows the scatterplot for a perfect positive correlation of $r = +1.0$. This means that you can perfectly predict each y -value from each x -value because the data points move “upward-and-to-the-right” along a perfectly-fitting straight line (see Fig. 6.1).

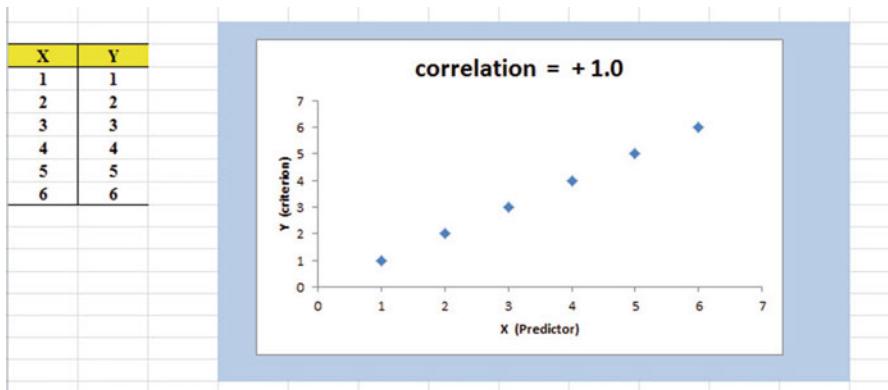


Fig. 6.1 Example of a Scatterplot for a Perfect, Positive Correlation ($r = +1.0$)

Figure 6.2 shows the scatterplot for a moderately positive correlation of $r = +.54$. This means that each x-value can predict each y-value moderately well because you can draw a picture of a “football” around the outside of the data points that move upward-and-to-the-right, but not along a straight line (see Fig. 6.2).

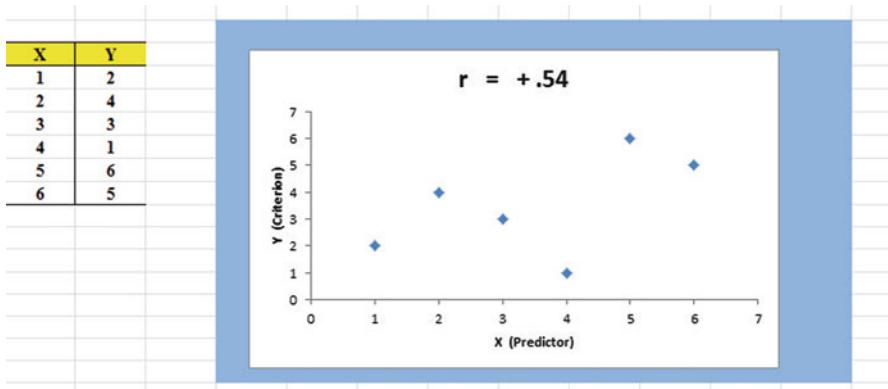


Fig. 6.2 Example of a Scatterplot for a Moderate, Positive Correlation ($r = +.54$)

Figure 6.3 shows the scatterplot for a low, positive correlation of $r = +.09$. This means that each x-value is a poor predictor of each y-value because the “picture” you could draw around the outside of the data points approaches a circle in shape (see Fig. 6.3).

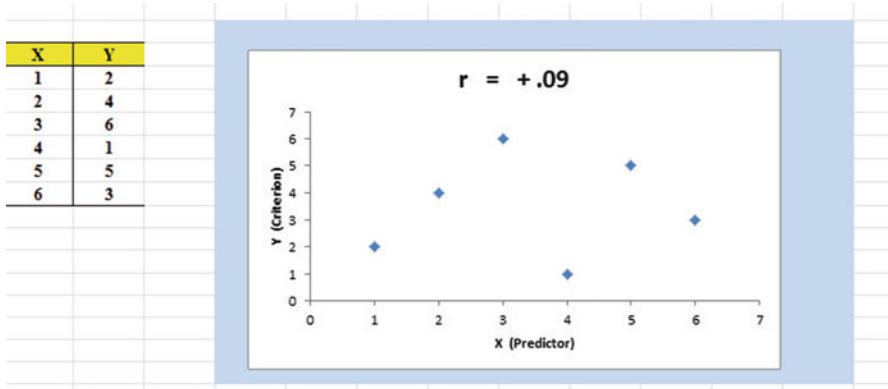


Fig. 6.3 Example of a Scatterplot for a Low, Positive Correlation ($r = +.09$)

We have not shown a Figure of a zero correlation because it is easy to imagine what it looks like as a scatterplot. A zero correlation of $r = .00$ means that there is no relationship between X and Y and the “picture” drawn around the data points would be a perfect circle in shape, indicating that you cannot use X to predict Y because these two variables are not correlated with one another.

Figure 6.4 shows the scatterplot for a low, negative correlation of $r = -.09$ which means that each X is a poor predictor of Y in an inverse relationship, meaning that as X increases, Y decreases (see Fig. 6.4). In this case, it is a negative correlation because the “football” you could draw around the data points slopes down and to the right.

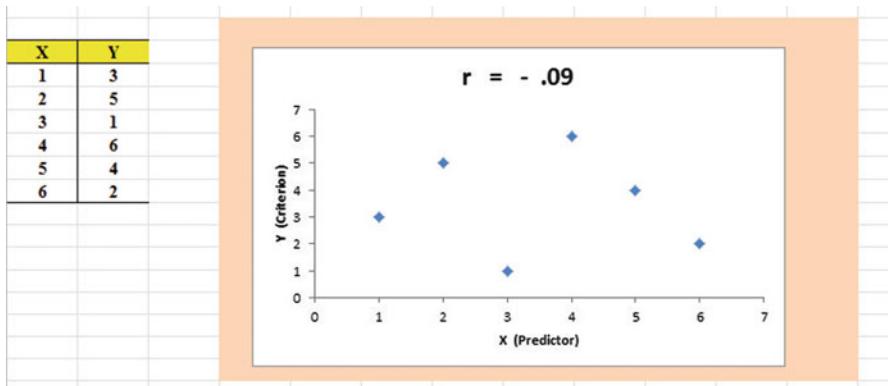


Fig. 6.4 Example of a Scatterplot for a Low, Negative Correlation ($r = -.09$)

Figure 6.5 shows the scatterplot for a moderate, negative correlation of $r = -.54$ which means that X is a moderately good predictor of Y, although there is an inverse relationship between X and Y (i.e., as X increases, Y decreases; see Fig. 6.5).

In this case, it is a negative correlation because the “football” you could draw around the data points slopes down and to the right.

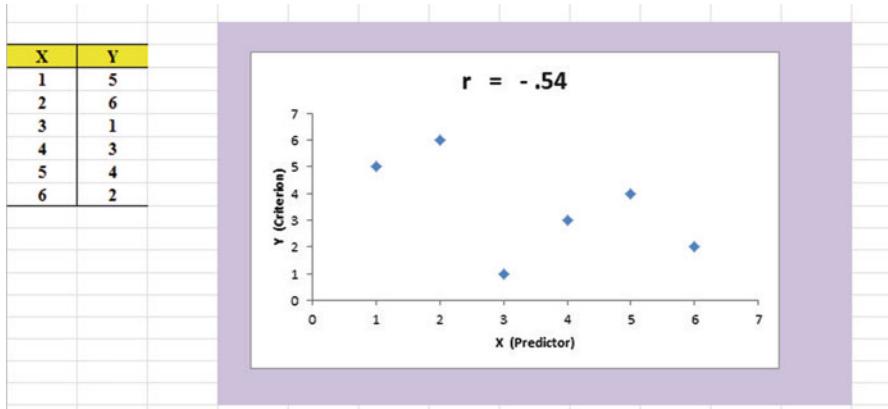


Fig. 6.5 Example of a Scatterplot for a Moderate, Negative Correlation ($r = -.54$)

Figure 6.6 shows a perfect negative correlation of $r = -1.0$ which means that X is a perfect predictor of Y, although in an inverse relationship such that as X increases, Y decreases. The data points fit perfectly along a downward-sloping straight line (see Fig. 6.6).

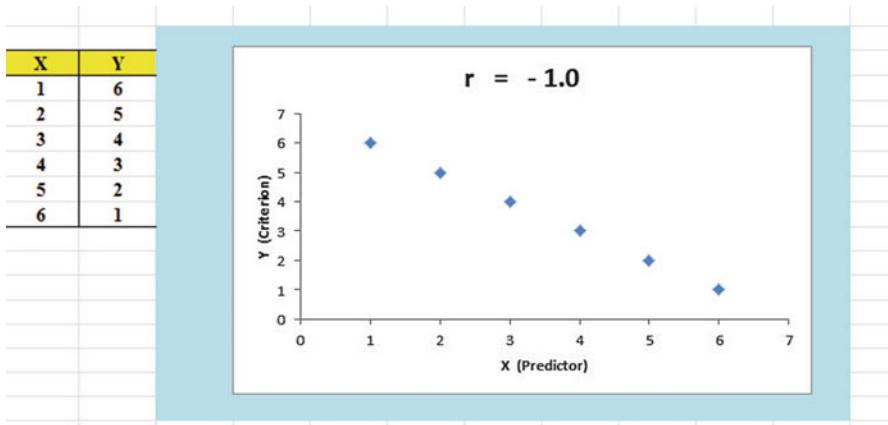


Fig. 6.6 Example of a Scatterplot for a Perfect, Negative Correlation ($r = -1.0$)

Let's explain the formula for computing the correlation r so that you can understand where the number summarizing the correlation came from.

In order to help you to understand *where* the correlation number that ranges from -1.0 to $+1.0$ comes from, we will walk you through the steps involved to use the

formula as if you were using a pocket calculator. This is the one time in this book that we will ask you to use your pocket calculator to find a correlation, but knowing how the correlation is computed step-by-step will give you the opportunity to understand *how* the formula works in practice.

To do that, let’s create a situation in which you need to find the correlation between two variables.

Suppose that you wanted to find out if there was a relationship between high school grade-point average (HSGPA) and freshman GPA (FRGPA) for Engineering majors at a College of Science and Technology. You have decided to call HSGPA the x-variable (i.e., the predictor variable) and FRGPA as the y-variable (i.e., the criterion variable) in your analysis. To test your Excel skills, you take a random sample of freshmen Engineering majors at the end of their freshman year and record their GPA. The hypothetical data for eight students appear in Fig. 6.7. (*Note: We are using only one decimal place for these GPAs in this example to simplify the mathematical computations.*)

	A	B	C	D
1				
2		X	Y	
3	Student	High School GPA	FROSH GPA	
4	1	2.8	2.9	
5	2	2.5	2.8	
6	3	3.1	2.8	
7	4	3.5	3.2	
8	5	2.4	2.6	
9	6	2.6	2.3	
10	7	2.4	2.1	
11	8	3.6	3.2	
12				
13	n	8	8	
14	MEAN	2.86	2.74	
15	STDEV	0.48	0.39	
16				

Fig. 6.7 Worksheet Data for High School GPA and Frosh GPA (Practical Example)

Notice also that we have used Excel to find the sample size for both variables, X and Y, and the MEAN and STDEV of both variables. (You can practice your Excel skills by seeing if you get this same result when you create an Excel spreadsheet for these data.)

Now, let’s use the above table to compute the correlation r between HSGPA and FRGPA using your pocket calculator.

6.1.1 Understanding the Formula for Computing a Correlation

Objective: To understand the formula for computing the correlation r

The formula for computing the correlation r is as follows:

$$r = \frac{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{S_x S_y} \quad (6.1)$$

This formula looks daunting at first glance, but let's "break it down into its steps" to understand how to compute the correlation r .

6.1.2 Understanding the Nine Steps for Computing a Correlation, r

Objective: To understand the nine steps of computing a correlation r

The nine steps are as follows:

Step	Computation	Result
1	Find the sample size n by noting the number of students	8
2	Divide the number 1 by the sample size minus 1 (i.e., $1/7$)	0.14286
3	For each student, take the HSGPA and subtract the mean HSGPA for the 8 students and call this $X - \bar{X}$ (For example, for student # 6, this would be: $2.6 - 2.86$)	-0.26
<i>Note: With your calculator, this difference is -0.26, but when Excel uses 16 decimal places for every computation, this result could be slightly different for each student</i>		
4	For each student, take the FRGPA and subtract the mean FRGPA for the 8 students and call this $Y - \bar{Y}$ (For example, for student # 6, this would be: $2.3 - 2.74$)	-0.44
5	Then, for each student, multiply $(X - \bar{X})$ times $(Y - \bar{Y})$ (For example, for student # 6 this would be: $(-0.26) \times (-0.44)$)	+0.1144
6	Add the results of $(X - \bar{X})$ times $(Y - \bar{Y})$ for the 8 students	+1.09

Steps 1–6 would produce the Excel table given in Fig. 6.8.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1						
2	X	Y				
3	Student	High School GPA	FROSH GPA	$X - \bar{X}$	$Y - \bar{Y}$	$(X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})$
4	1	2.8	2.9	-0.06	0.16	-0.01
5	2	2.5	2.8	-0.36	0.06	-0.02
6	3	3.1	2.8	0.24	0.06	0.01
7	4	3.5	3.2	0.64	0.46	0.29
8	5	2.4	2.6	-0.46	-0.14	0.06
9	6	2.6	2.3	-0.26	-0.44	0.11
10	7	2.4	2.1	-0.46	-0.64	0.29
11	8	3.6	3.2	0.74	0.46	0.34
12						-----
13	n	8	8		Total	1.09
14	MEAN	2.86	2.74			
15	STDEV	0.48	0.39			

Fig. 6.8 Worksheet for Computing the Correlation, r

Notice that when Excel multiplies a minus number by a minus number, the result is a plus number (for example for student #7: $(-0.46) \times (-0.64) = +0.29$). And when Excel multiplies a minus number by a plus number, the result is a negative number (for example for student #1: $(-0.06) \times (+0.16) = -0.01$).

Note: Excel computes all computation to 16 decimal places. So, when you check your work with a calculator, you frequently get a slightly different answer than Excel’s answer.

For example, when you compute above:

$$(X - \bar{X}) \times (Y - \bar{Y}) \text{ for student \#2, your calculator gives:} \quad (6.2)$$

$$(-0.36) \times (+0.06) = -0.0216$$

As you can see from the table, Excel’s answer is -0.02 which is really *more accurate* because Excel uses 16 decimal places for every number, even though only two decimal places are shown in Fig. 6.8.

You should also note that when you do Step 6, you have to be careful to add all of the positive numbers first to get $+1.10$ and then add all of the negative numbers second to get -0.03 , so that when you subtract these two numbers you get $+1.07$ as your answer to Step 6. When you do these computations using Excel, this total figure will be $+1.09$ because Excel carries every number and computation out to 16 decimal places which is much more accurate than your calculator.

Step		
7	Multiply the answer for step 2 above by the answer for step 6 (0.14286×1.09)	0.1557
8	Multiply the STDEV of X times the STDEV of Y (0.48×0.39)	0.1872
9	Finally, divide the answer from step 7 by the answer from step 8 $(0.1557 \text{ divided by } 0.1872)$	+0.83

This number of 0.83 is the correlation between HSGPA (X) and FRGPA (Y) for these 8 students. The number +0.83 means that there is a strong, positive correlation between these two variables. That is, as HSGPA increases, FRGPA increases. For a more detailed discussion of correlation, see Ledholter and Hogg (2010) and McCleery et al. (2007).

You could also use the results of the above table in the formula for computing the correlation r in the following way:

$$\text{correlation } r = [(1/(n - 1)) \times \sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})] / (\text{STDEV}_x \times \text{STDEV}_y)$$

$$\text{correlation } r = [(1/7) \times 1.09] / [(0.48) \times (0.39)]$$

$$\text{correlation } = r = 0.83$$

When you use Excel for these computations, you obtain a slightly different correlation of +0.82 because Excel uses 16 decimal places for all numbers and computations and is, therefore, more accurate than your calculator.

Now, let's discuss how you can use Excel to find the correlation between two variables in a much simpler, and much faster, fashion than using your calculator.

6.2 Using Excel to Compute a Correlation Between Two Variables

Objective: To use Excel to find the correlation between two variables

Suppose that you worked for a car manufacturing company and that you were asked to study the relationship between the weight of 4-door sedans and the fuel consumption they used to drive 150 miles. Suppose, further, that you have obtained 12 sedans, all the latest models, and have hired drivers to drive 150 miles from Forest Park in St. Louis, Missouri, toward Kansas City, Missouri, on a specified route and at a specified set of speeds. The drivers were all about the same weight.

To test your Excel skills, you have organized the resulting data into a table in which the weight of the cars was measured in thousands of pounds, and the number of gallons of gasoline used in the drive by each car was recorded. The hypothetical data appear in Fig. 6.9.

WEIGHT OF 4-DOOR SEDANS VS. NO. OF GALLONS USED TO DRIVE 150 MILES	
Is there a relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and the number of gallons used to drive 150 miles?	
WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)	NO. OF GALLONS USED
2.1	5.1
2.3	5.3
2.5	5.2
2.6	5.6
2.7	5.1
3.2	6.1
3.2	6.7
3.4	6.8
3.5	6.8
3.6	6.7
3.8	6.5
4.1	6.9

Fig. 6.9 Worksheet Data for Weight and Number of Gallons Used (Practical Example)

Important note: Note that the weight of the cars is recorded in thousands of pounds, so that a car that weighed 3500 pounds would be recorded as 3.5 in this table.

You want to determine if there is a *relationship* between the weight of the cars and their fuel consumption, and you decide to use a correlation to determine this relationship. Let's call the weight of the cars the predictor, X, and the number of gallons used, the criterion, Y.

Create an Excel spreadsheet with the following information:

- A3: WEIGHT OF 4-DOOR SEDANS VS. NO. OF GALLONS USED TO DRIVE 150 MILES
- B5: Is there a relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and the number of gallons used to drive 150 miles?
- B8: WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)
- C8: NO. OF GALLONS USED
- B9: 2.1
- C9: 5.1

Next, change the width of Columns B and C so that the information fits inside the cells.

Now, complete the remaining figures in the table given above so that B20 is 4.1 and C20 is 6.9. (Be sure to double-check your figures to make sure that they are correct!) Then, center the information in all of these cells.

A22: n
 A23: mean
 A24: stdev

Next, define the “name” to the range of data from B9:B20 as: weight

We discussed earlier in this book (see Sect. 1.4.4) how to “name a range of data,” but here is a reminder of how to do that:

To give a “name” to a range of data:

Click on the top number in the range of data and drag the mouse down to the bottom number of the range.

For example, to give the name: “weight” to the cells: B9:B20, click on B9, and drag the pointer down to B20 so that the cells B9:B20 are highlighted on your computer screen. Then, click on:

Formulas

Define name (top center of your screen)

weight (enter this in the Name box; see Fig. 6.10)

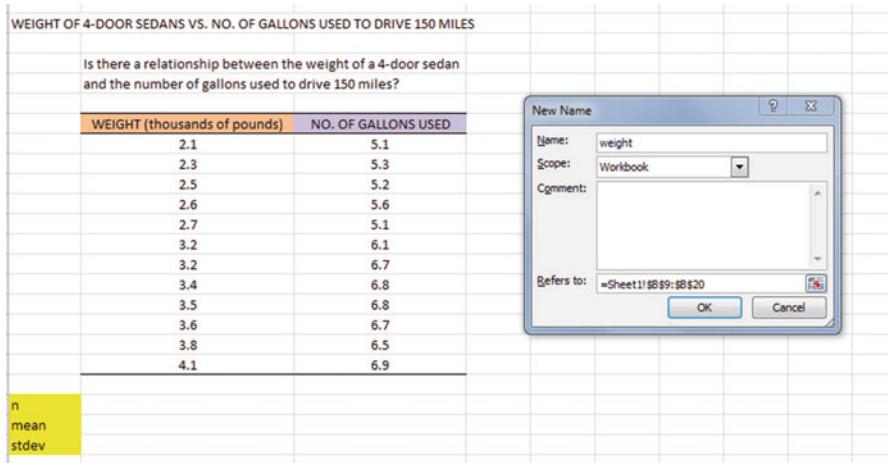


Fig. 6.10 Dialogue Box for Naming a Range of Data as: “weight”

OK

Now, repeat these steps to give the name: gallons to C9:C20

Finally, click on any blank cell on your spreadsheet to “deselect” cells C9:C20 on your computer screen.

Now, complete the data for these sample sizes, means, and standard deviations in columns B and C so that B23 is 3.08, and C24 is 0.75 (use two decimals for the means and standard deviations; see Fig. 6.11)

WEIGHT OF 4-DOOR SEDANS VS. NO. OF GALLONS USED TO DRIVE 150 MILES	
Is there a relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and the number of gallons used to drive 150 miles?	
WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)	NO. OF GALLONS USED
2.1	5.1
2.3	5.3
2.5	5.2
2.6	5.6
2.7	5.1
3.2	6.1
3.2	6.7
3.4	6.8
3.5	6.8
3.6	6.7
3.8	6.5
4.1	6.9
n	12
mean	3.08
stdev	0.63
	12
	6.07
	0.75

Fig. 6.11 Example of Using Excel to Find the Sample Size, Mean, and STDEV

Objective: Find the correlation between weight and gallons used

B26: correlation

C26: =correl(weight,gallons) ; see Fig. 6.12

SUM	X	✓	f(x)	=correl(weight,gallons)
A	B	C	D	
WEIGHT OF 4-DOOR SEDANS VS. NO. OF GALLONS USED TO DRIVE 150 MILES				
Is there a relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and the number of gallons used to drive 150 miles?				
WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)		NO. OF GALLONS USED		
2.1		5.1		
2.3		5.3		
2.5		5.2		
2.6		5.6		
2.7		5.1		
3.2		6.1		
3.2		6.7		
3.4		6.8		
3.5		6.8		
3.6		6.7		
3.8		6.5		
4.1		6.9		
n		12		
mean		3.08		
stdev		0.63		
correlation		=correl(weight,gallons)		

Fig. 6.12 Example of Using Excel's =correl Function to Compute the Correlation Coefficient

Hit the Enter key to compute the correlation

C26: format this cell to two decimals

Note that the equal sign in =correl(weight,gallons) in C26 tells Excel that you are going to use a formula in this cell.

The correlation between weight (X) and the number of gallons used (Y) is +.91, a very strong positive correlation. This means that you have evidence that there is a strong relationship between these two variables. In effect, the higher the weight, the more gallons needed to drive 150 miles.

Save this file as: GALLONS3

The final spreadsheet appears in Fig. 6.13.

A	B	C	D	
2				
3	WEIGHT OF 4-DOOR SEDANS VS. NO. OF GALLONS USED TO DRIVE 150 MILES			
4				
5	Is there a relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and the number of gallons used to drive 150 miles?			
6				
7				
8	WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)		NO. OF GALLONS USED	
9	2.1		5.1	
10	2.3		5.3	
11	2.5		5.2	
12	2.6		5.6	
13	GALLONS3		5.1	
14	2.7		6.1	
15	3.2		6.7	
16	3.2		6.8	
17	3.4		6.8	
18	3.5		6.7	
19	3.6		6.5	
20	3.8		6.5	
	4.1		6.9	
21				
22	n	12		
23	mean	3.08		6.07
24	stdev	0.63		0.75
25				
26	correlation		0.91	

Fig. 6.13 Final Result of Using the =correl Function to Compute the Correlation Coefficient

6.3 Creating a Chart and Drawing the Regression Line onto the Chart

This section deals with the concept of “linear regression.” Technically, the use of a simple linear regression model (i.e., the word “simple” means that only one predictor, X, is used to predict the criterion, Y) requires that the data meet the following four assumptions if that statistical model is to be used:

1. The underlying relationship between the two variables under study (X and Y) is *linear* in the sense that a straight line, and not a curved line, can fit among the data points on the chart.
2. The errors of measurement are independent of each other (e.g. the errors from a specific time period are sometimes correlated with the errors in a previous time period).
3. The errors fit a normal distribution of Y-values at each of the X-values.
4. The variance of the errors is the same for all X-values (i.e., the variability of the Y-values is the same for both low and high values of X).

A detailed explanation of these assumptions is beyond the scope of this book, but the interested reader can find a detailed discussion of these assumptions in Levine et al. (2011, pp. 529–530).

Now, let's create a chart summarizing these data.

Important note: Whenever you draw a chart, it is ESSENTIAL that you put the predictor variable (X) on the left, and the criterion variable (Y) on the right in your Excel spreadsheet, so that you know which variable is the predictor variable and which variable is the criterion variable. If you do this, you will save yourself a lot of grief whenever you do a problem involving correlation and simple linear regression using Excel!

Important note: You need to understand that in any chart that has one predictor and a criterion that there are really TWO LINES that can be drawn between the data points:

- (1) One line uses X as the predictor, and Y as the criterion
- (2) A second line uses Y as the predictor, and X as the criterion

This means that you have to be very careful to note in your input data the cells that contain X as the predictor, and Y as the criterion. If you get these cells mixed up and reverse them, you will create the wrong line for your data and you will have botched the problem terribly.

This is why we STRONGLY RECOMMEND IN THIS BOOK that you always put the X data (i.e., the predictor variable) on the LEFT of your table, and the Y data (i.e., the criterion variable) on the RIGHT of your table on your spreadsheet so that you don't get these variables mixed up.

Also note that the correlation, r , will be exactly the same correlation no matter which variable you call the predictor variable and which variable you call the criterion variable. The correlation coefficient just summarizes the relationship between two variables, and doesn't care which one is the predictor and which one is the criterion.

Let's suppose that you would like to use weight of the car as the predictor variable, and that you would like to use it to predict the number of gallons needed to drive 150 miles. Since the correlation between these two variables is +.91, this shows that there is a strong, positive relationship and that weight is a good predictor of the number of gallons needed to drive 150 miles.

1. Open the file that you saved earlier in this chapter: GALLONS3

6.3.1 Using Excel to Create a Chart and the Regression Line Through the Data Points

Objective: To create a chart and the regression line summarizing the relationship between weight and gallons used

2. Click and drag the mouse to highlight both columns of numbers (B9:C20), *but do not highlight the labels above the data points*.

Highlight the data set: B9:C20

Insert (top left of screen)

Highlight: Scatter chart icon (immediately above the word: “Charts”) at the top center of your screen

Click on the down arrow on the right of the chart icon

Highlight the top left scatter chart icon (see Fig. 6.14)

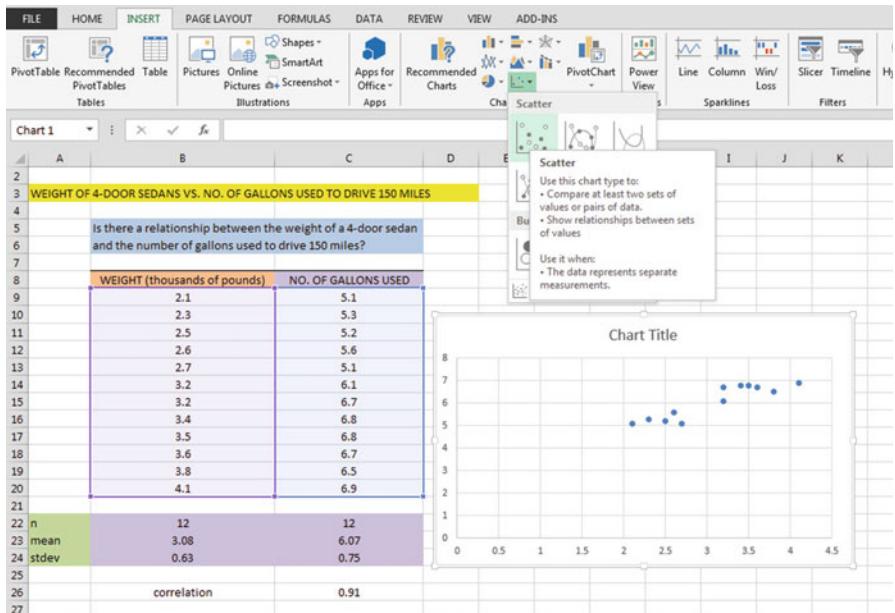


Fig. 6.14 Example of Selecting a Scatter Chart

Click on the top left chart to select it

Click on the “+ icon” to the right of the chart (CHART ELEMENTS)

Click on the check mark next to “Chart Title” **and also** next to “Gridlines” to remove these check marks (see Fig. 6.15)

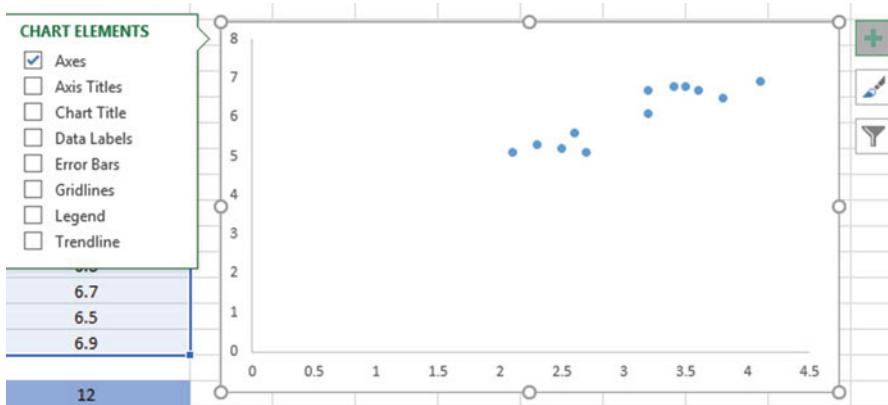


Fig. 6.15 Example of Chart Elements Selected

Click on the box next to: “Chart Title” and then click on the arrow to its right. Then, click on: “Above chart.”

Note that the words: “Chart Title” are now in a box at the top of the chart (see Fig. 6.16).

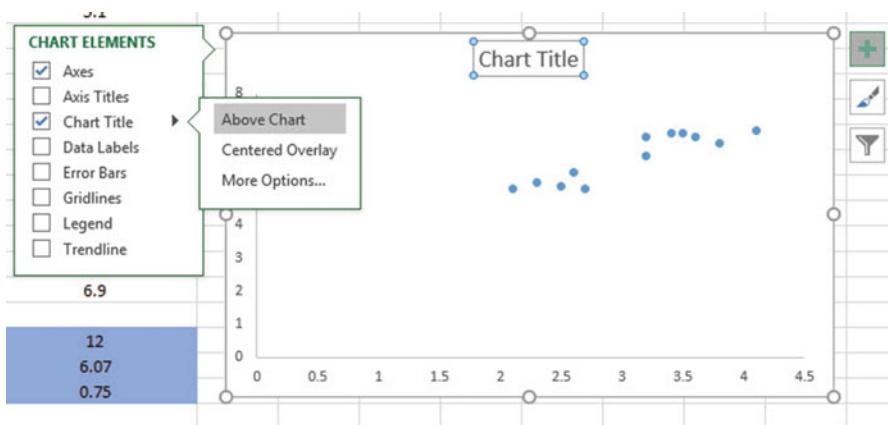


Fig. 6.16 Example of Chart Title Selected

Enter the following Chart Title to the right of “ f_x ” at the top of your screen:
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WEIGHT AND NO. OF GALLONS USED (see Fig. 6.17)

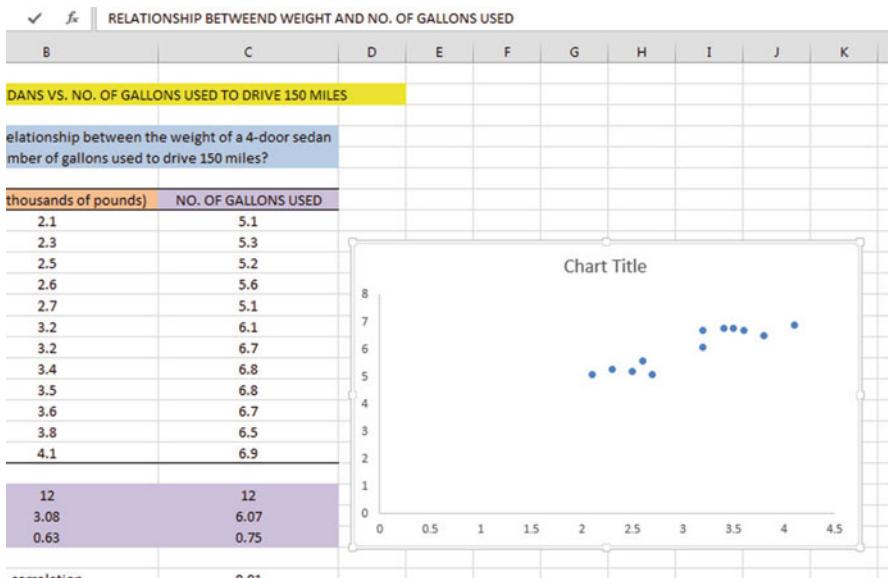


Fig. 6.17 Example of Creating a Chart Title

Hit the Enter Key to enter this chart title onto the chart

Click *inside the chart at the top right corner of the chart* to “deselect” the box around the Chart Title (see Fig. 6.18)

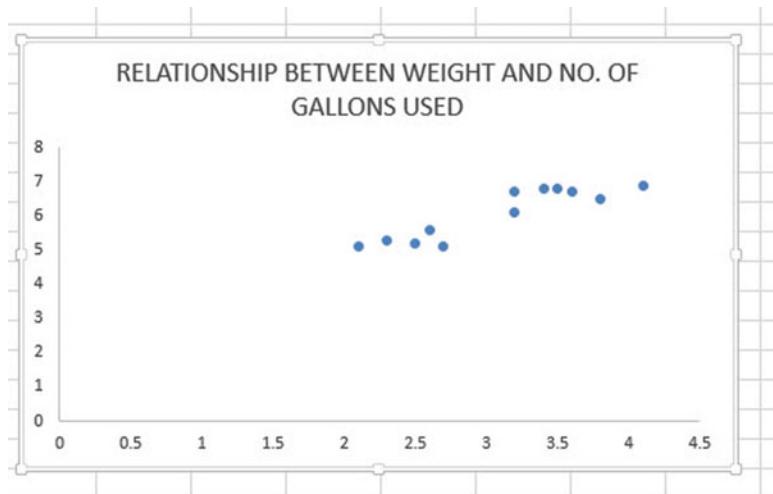


Fig. 6.18 Example of a Chart Title Inserted Onto the Chart

Click on the “+ box” to the right of the chart

Add a check mark to the left of “Axis Titles” (This will create an “Axis Title” box on the y-axis of the chart.)

Click on the right arrow for “Axis titles” and then click on: “Primary Horizontal” to remove the check mark in its box (this will create the y-axis title)

Enter the following y-axis title to the right of f_x at the top of your screen:
NO. OF GALLONS USED

Then, hit the Enter Key to enter this y-axis title to the chart.

Click *inside the chart at the top right corner of the chart* to “deselect” the box around the y-axis title (see Fig. 6.19).

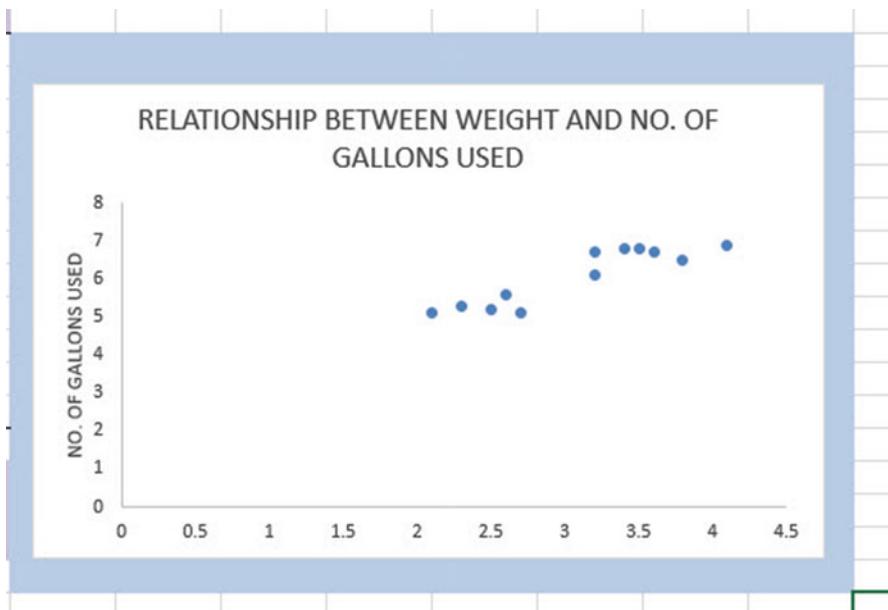


Fig. 6.19 Example of Adding a y-axis Title to the Chart

Click on the “+ box” to the right of the chart

Highlight “Axis Titles” and click on its right arrow

Click on the words: “Primary Horizontal” to add a check mark to its box (this creates an “Axis Title” box on the x-axis of the chart)

Enter the following x-axis title to the right of f_x at the top of your screen:
WEIGHT (thousands of pounds)

Then hit the Enter Key to add this x-axis title to the chart

Click *inside the chart at the top right corner of the chart* to “deselect” the box around the x-axis title (see Fig. 6.20)

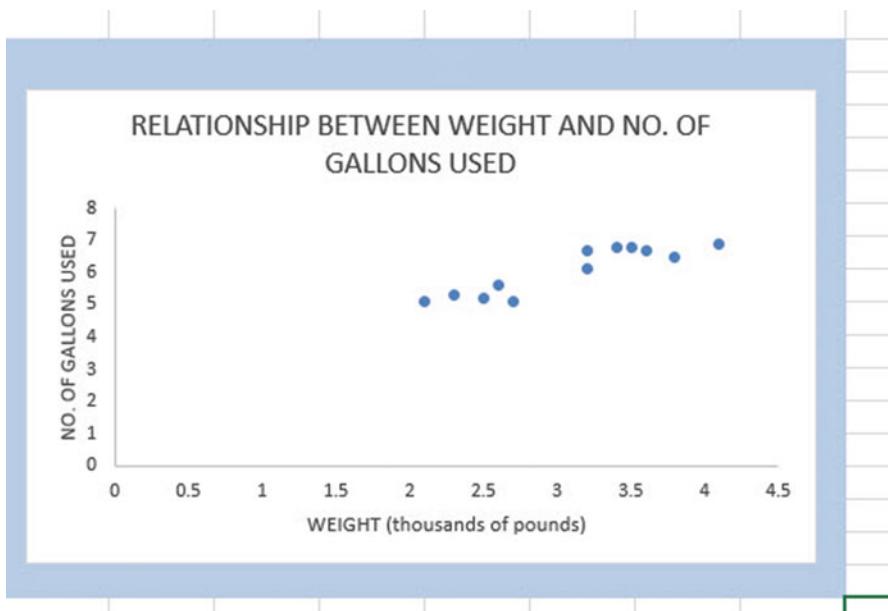


Fig. 6.20 Example of a Chart Title, an x-axis Title, and a y-axis Title

Now, let's draw the regression line onto the chart. This regression line is called the "least-squares regression line" and it is the "best-fitting" straight line through the data points.

6.3.1.1 Drawing the Regression Line Through the Data Points in the Chart

Objective: To draw the regression line through the data points on the chart

Right-click on any one of the data points inside the chart

Highlight: Add Trendline (see Fig. 6.21)

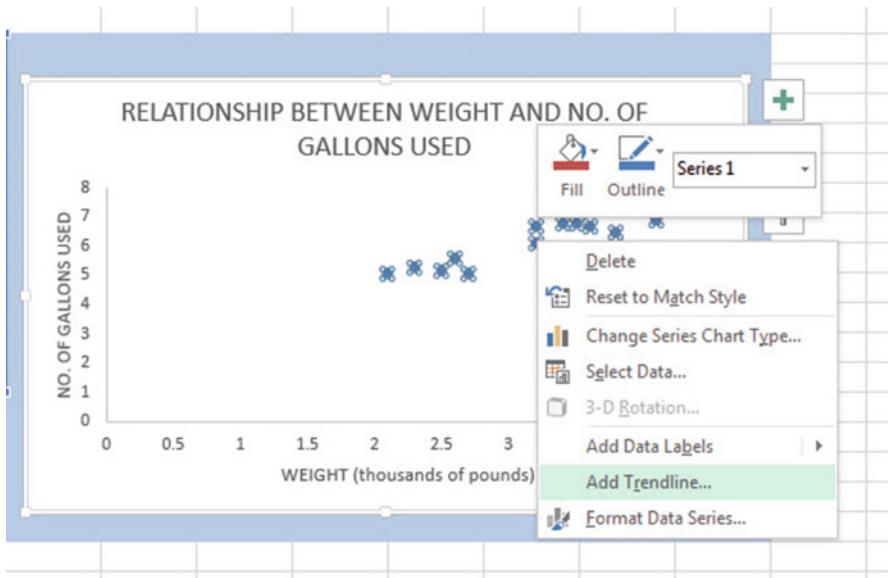


Fig. 6.21 Dialogue Box for Adding a Trendline to the Chart

Click on: Add Trendline

Linear (be sure the “Linear” button near the top is selected on the “Format Trendline” dialog box; see Fig. 6.22)

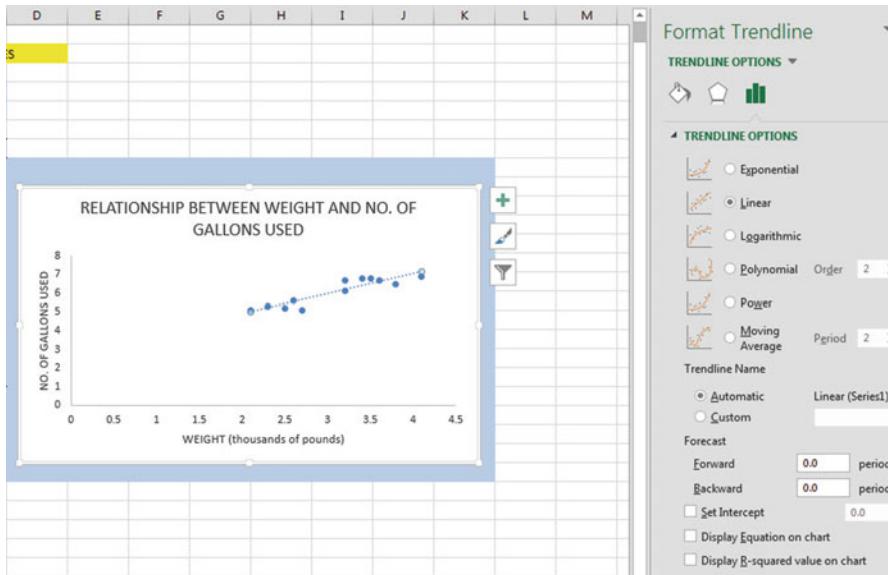


Fig. 6.22 Dialogue Box for a Linear Trendline

Click on the X at the top right of the “Format Trendline” dialog box to close this dialog box

Click on any blank cell outside the chart to “deselect” the chart

Save this file as: GALLONS4

Your spreadsheet should look like the spreadsheet in Fig. 6.23.

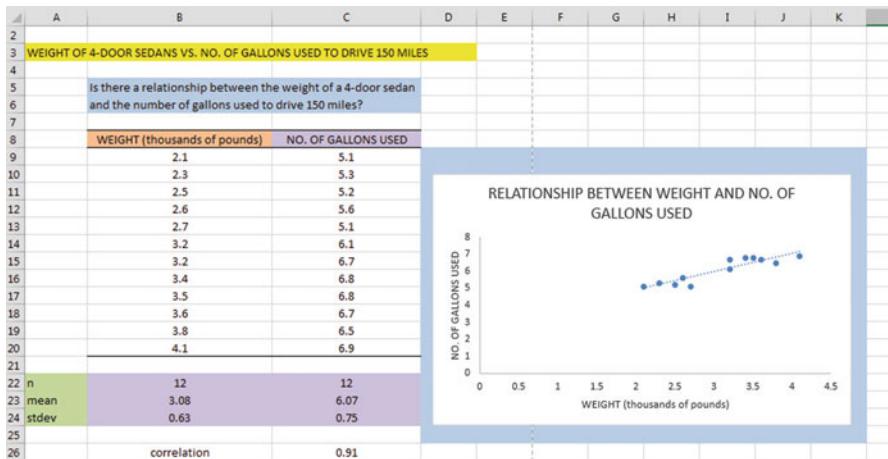


Fig. 6.23 Final Chart with the Trendline Fitted Through the Data Points of the Scatterplot

6.3.1.2 Moving the Chart Below the Table in the Spreadsheet

Objective: To move the chart below the table

Left-click your mouse on *any white space to the right of the top title inside the chart*, keep the left-click down, and drag the chart down and to the left so that the top left corner of the chart is in cell A29, then take your finger off the left-click of the mouse (see Fig. 6.24).

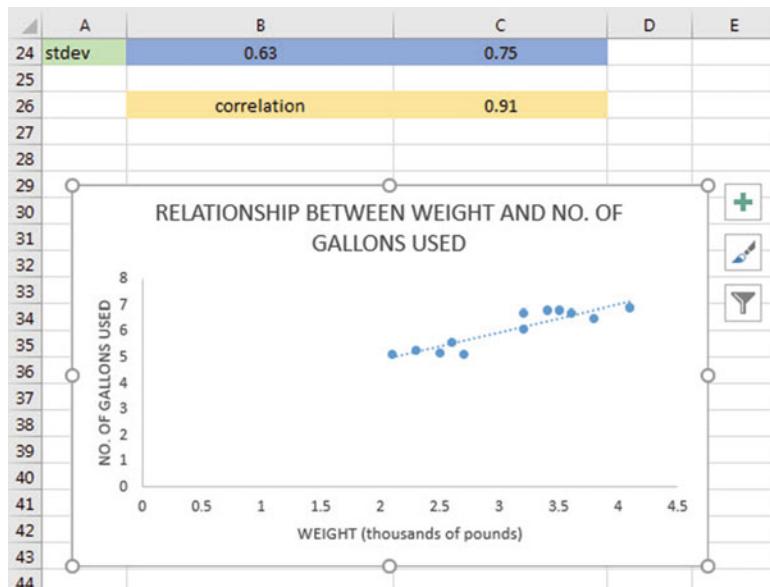


Fig. 6.24 Example of Moving the Chart Below the Table

6.3.1.3 Making the Chart “Longer” So That It Is “Taller”

Objective: To make the chart “longer” so that it is taller

Left-click your mouse on the bottom-center of the chart to create an “up-and-down-arrow” sign, hold the left-click of the mouse down and drag the bottom of the chart down to row 48 to make the chart longer, and then take your finger off the mouse.

6.3.1.4 Making the Chart “Wider”

Objective: To make the chart “wider”

Put the pointer at the middle of the right-border of the chart to create a “left-to-right arrow” sign, and then left-click your mouse and hold the left-click down while you drag the right border of the chart to the middle of Column H to make the chart wider. Now, click on any empty cell outside the chart to “deselect” the chart (see Fig. 6.25).

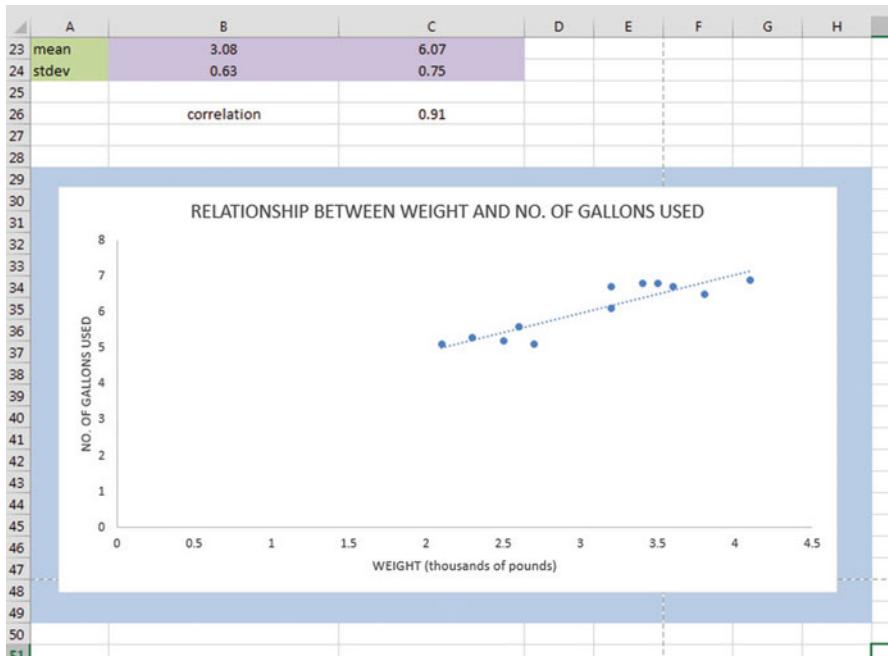


Fig. 6.25 Example of a Chart that is Enlarged to Fit the Cells: A29:H48

Save this file as: GALLONS5

Note: If you printed this spreadsheet now, it is “too big” to fit onto one page, and would “dribble over” onto four pages of printout because the scale needs to be reduced below 100 percent in order for this worksheet to fit onto only one page. You need to complete these next steps below to print out some, or all, of this spreadsheet.

6.4 Printing a Spreadsheet So That the Table and Chart Fit onto One Page

Objective: To print the spreadsheet so that the table and the chart fit onto one page

Page Layout (top of screen)

Change the scale at the middle icon near the top of the screen “Scale to Fit” by clicking on the down-arrow until it reads “80%” so that the table and the chart will fit onto one page on your printout (see Fig. 6.26):

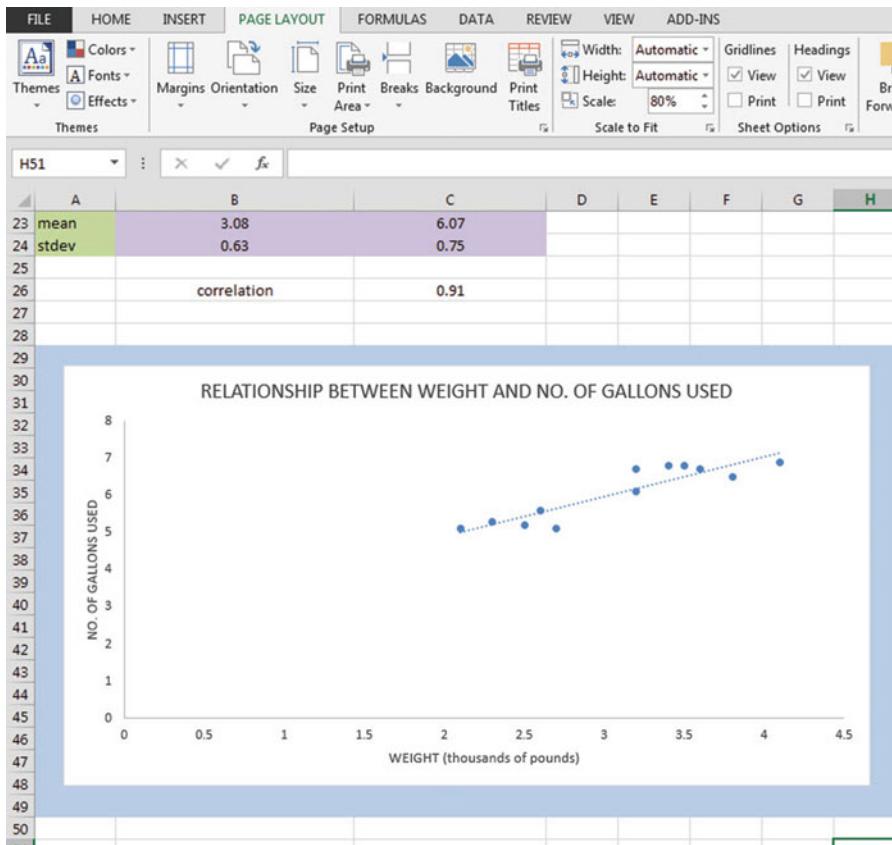


Fig. 6.26 Example of the Page Layout for Reducing the Scale of the Chart to 80 % of Normal Size

File

Print

Print (see Fig. 6.27)

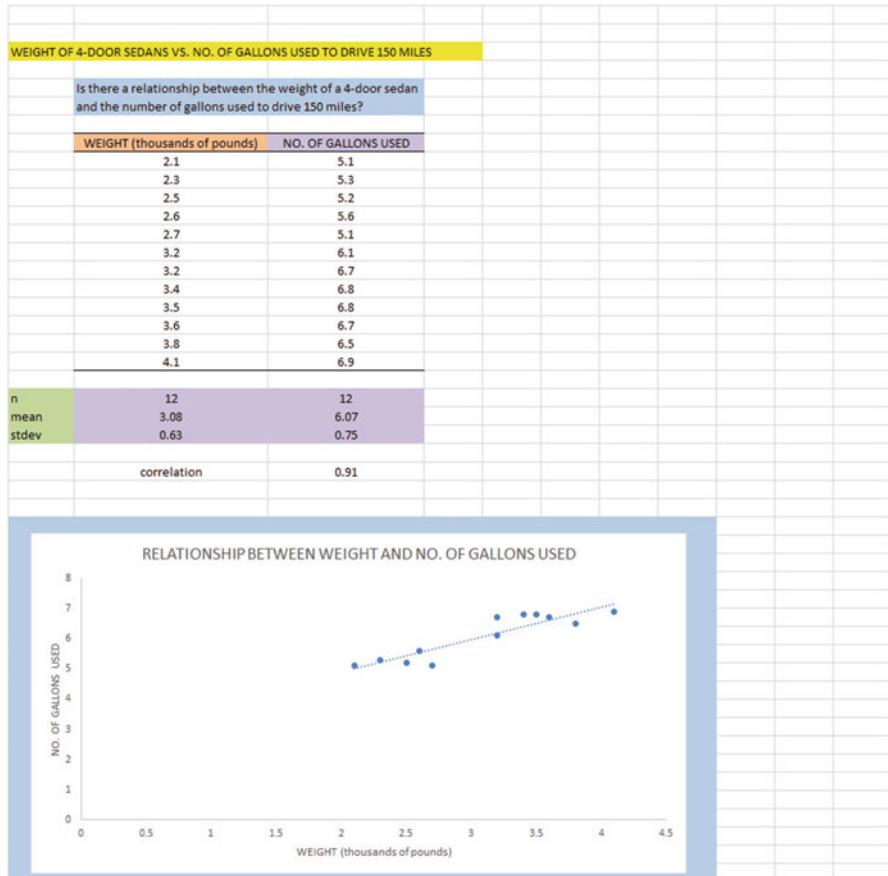


Fig. 6.27 Final Spreadsheet of a Table and a Chart (80 % Scale to Fit Size)

Save your file as: GALLONS6

6.5 Finding the Regression Equation

The main reason for charting the relationship between X and Y (i.e., weight as X and the number of gallons used as Y in our example) is to see if there is a strong enough relationship between X and Y so that the regression equation that summarizes this relationship can be used to predict Y for a given value of X.

Since we know that the correlation between the weight of the cars and the number of gallons used is +.91, this tells us that it makes sense to use weight to predict the number of gallons used based on past data.

We now need to find that regression equation that is the equation of the “best-fitting straight line” through the data points.

Objective: To find the regression equation summarizing the relationship between X and Y.

In order to find this equation, we need to check to see if your version of Excel contains the “Data Analysis ToolPak” necessary to run a regression analysis.

6.5.1 *Installing the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel*

Objective: To install the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel

Since there are currently four versions of Excel in the marketplace (2007, 2010, 2013, 2016), we will give a brief explanation of how to install the Data Analysis ToolPak into each of these versions of Excel.

6.5.1.1 *Installing the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel 2016*

Open a new Excel spreadsheet

Click on: Data (at the top of your screen)

Look at the top of your monitor screen. Do you see the words: “Data Analysis” at the far right of the screen? If you do, the Data Analysis ToolPak for Excel 2016 was correctly installed when you installed Office 2016, and you should skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2.

If the words: “Data Analysis” are not at the top right of your monitor screen, then the ToolPak component of Excel 2016 was not installed when you installed Office 2016 onto your computer. If this happens, you need to follow these steps:

File

Options (bottom left of screen)

Note: This creates a dialog box with “Excel Options” at the top left of the box

Add-Ins (on left of screen)

Manage: Excel Add-Ins (at the bottom of the dialog box)

Go (at bottom center of dialog box)

Highlight: Analysis ToolPak (in the Add-Ins dialog box)

Put a check mark to the left of Analysis ToolPak

OK (at the right of this dialog box)

Data

You now should have the words: “Data Analysis” at the top right of your screen to show that this feature has been installed correctly

*Note: If these steps do not work, you should try these steps instead:
File/Options (bottom left)/Add-ins/Analysis ToolPak/Go/
click to the left of Analysis ToolPak to add a check mark/OK*

If you need help doing this, ask your favorite “computer techie” for help.
You are now ready to skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2

6.5.1.2 Installing the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel 2013

Open a new Excel spreadsheet

Click on: Data (at the top of your screen)

Look at the top of your monitor screen. Do you see the words: “Data Analysis” at the far right of the screen? If you do, the Data Analysis ToolPak for Excel 2013 was correctly installed when you installed Office 2013, and you should skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2.

If the words: “Data Analysis” are not at the top right of your monitor screen, then the ToolPak component of Excel 2013 was not installed when you installed Office 2013 onto your computer. If this happens, you need to follow these steps:

File

Options (bottom left of screen)

Note: This creates a dialog box with “Excel Options” at the top left of the box

Add-Ins (on left of screen)

Manage: Excel Add-Ins (at the bottom of the dialog box)

Go (at bottom center of dialog box)

Highlight: Analysis ToolPak (in the Add-Ins dialog box)

Put a check mark to the left of Analysis Toolpak

OK (at the right of this dialog box)

Data You now should have the words: “Data Analysis” at the top right of your screen to show that this feature has been installed correctly

If you get a prompt asking you for the “installation CD,” put this CD in the CD drive and click on: OK

*Note: If these steps do not work, you should try these steps instead:
File/Options (bottom left)/Add-ins/Analysis ToolPak/Go/
click to the left of Analysis ToolPak to add a check mark/OK*

If you need help doing this, ask your favorite “computer techie” for help.
You are now ready to skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2

6.5.1.3 Installing the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel 2010

Open a new Excel spreadsheet

Click on: Data (at the top of your screen)

Look at the top of your monitor screen. Do you see the words: “Data Analysis” at the far right of the screen? If you do, the Data Analysis ToolPak for Excel 2010 was correctly installed when you installed Office 2010, and you should skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2.

If the words: “Data Analysis” are not at the top right of your monitor screen, then the ToolPak component of Excel 2010 was not installed when you installed Office 2010 onto your computer. If this happens, you need to follow these steps:

File

Options

Excel options (creates a dialog box)

Add-Ins

Manage: Excel Add-Ins (at the bottom of the dialog box)

Go

Highlight: Analysis ToolPak (in the Add-Ins dialog box)

OK

Data (You now should have the words: “Data Analysis” at the top right of your screen)

If you get a prompt asking you for the “installation CD,” put this CD in the CD drive and click on: OK

Note: If these steps do not work, you should try these steps instead:

File/Options (bottom left)/Add-ins/Analysis ToolPak/Go/

click to the left of Analysis ToolPak to add a check mark/OK

If you need help doing this, ask your favorite “computer techie” for help.

You are now ready to skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2.

6.5.1.4 Installing the Data Analysis ToolPak into Excel 2007

Open a new Excel spreadsheet

Click on: Data (at the top of your screen)

If the words “Data Analysis” do not appear at the top right of your screen, you need to install the Data Analysis ToolPak using the following steps:

Microsoft Office button (top left of your screen)

Excel options (bottom of dialog box)

Add-ins (far left of dialog box)

Go (to create a dialog box for Add-Ins)

Highlight: Analysis ToolPak

OK (If Excel asks you for permission to proceed, click on: Yes)

Data (You should now have the words: “Data Analysis” at the top right of your screen)

If you need help doing this, ask your favorite “computer techie” for help.

You are now ready to skip ahead to Sect. 6.5.2.

6.5.2 Using Excel to Find the SUMMARY OUTPUT of Regression

You have now installed *ToolPak*, and you are ready to find the regression equation for the “best-fitting straight line” through the data points by using the following steps:

Open the Excel file: *GALLONS6* (if it is not already open on your screen)

Note: If this file is already open, and there is a border around the chart, you need to click on any empty cell outside of the chart to deselect the chart.

Now that you have installed *ToolPak*, you are ready to find the regression equation summarizing the relationship between weight and gallons used in your data set.

Remember that you gave the name: *weight* to the X data (the predictor), and the name: *gallons* to the Y data (the criterion) in a previous section of this chapter (see Sect. 6.2)

Data (top of screen)

Data analysis (far right at top of screen; see Fig. 6.28)

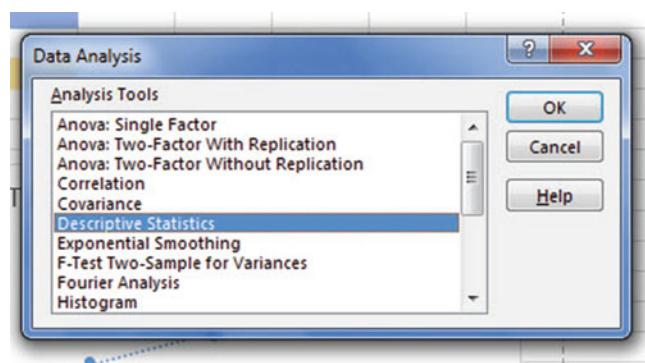


Fig. 6.28 Example of Using the Data/Data Analysis Function of Excel

Scroll down the dialog box using the down arrow and highlight: Regression (see Fig. 6.29)

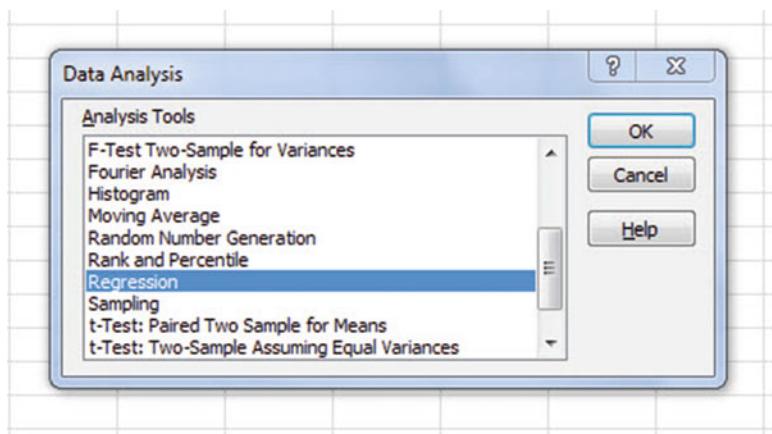


Fig. 6.29 Dialogue Box for Creating the Regression Function in Excel

OK

Input Y Range: gallons

Input X Range: weight

Click on the “button” to the left of Output Range to select this, and enter A50 in the box as the place on your spreadsheet to insert the Regression analysis in cell A50
OK

The *SUMMARY OUTPUT* should now be in cells: A50:I67

Now, make the columns in the Regression Summary Output section of your spreadsheet *wider* so that you can read all of the column headings clearly.

Center all of the numbers in the Summary Output in their cells.

Now, change the data in the following two cells to Number format (two decimal places) by first clicking on: Home at the top left of your screen:

B53

B66

Next, change this cell to four decimal places: B67

Now, change the format for all other numbers that are in decimal format to number format, three decimal places, and center all numbers within their cells.

Print the file so that it fits onto one page. (*Hint: Change the scale under “Page Layout” to 60 % to make it fit.*) Your file should be like the file in Fig. 6.30.

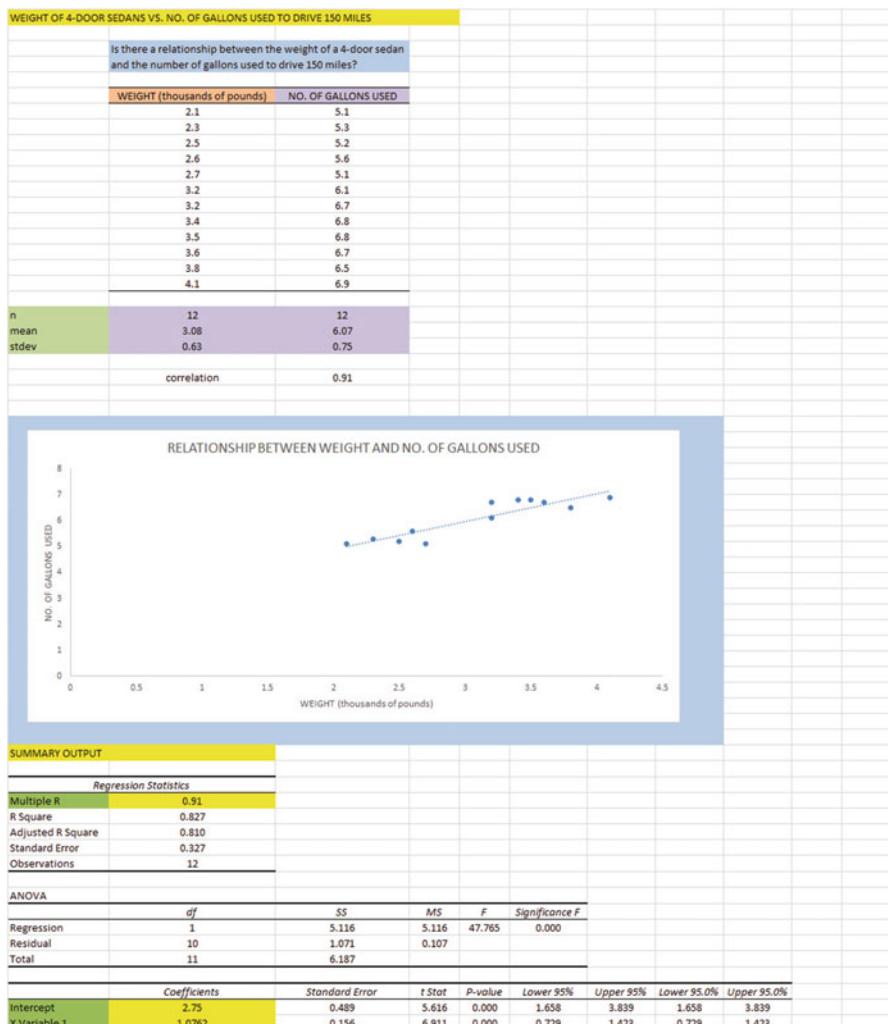


Fig. 6.30 Final Spreadsheet of Correlation and Simple Linear Regression including the SUMMARY OUTPUT for the Data

Save the resulting file as: GALLONS7

Note the following problem with the summary output.

Whoever wrote the computer program for this version of Excel made a mistake and gave the name: “Multiple R” to cell A53.

This is not correct. Instead, cell A53 should say: “correlation r” since this is the notation that we are using for the correlation between X and Y.

You can now use your printout of the regression analysis to find the regression equation that is the best-fitting straight line through the data points.

But first, let's review some basic terms.

6.5.2.1 Finding the y-intercept, a, of the Regression Line

The point on the y-axis that the regression line would intersect the y-axis if it were extended to reach the y-axis is called the “y-intercept” and we will use the letter “*a*” to stand for the y-intercept of the regression line. The y-intercept on the SUMMARY OUTPUT of Fig. 6.30 is 2.75 and appears in cell B66. This means that if you were to draw an imaginary line continuing down the regression line toward the y-axis that this imaginary line would cross the y-axis at 2.75. This is why it is called the “y-intercept.”

6.5.2.2 Finding the Slope, b, of the Regression Line

The “tilt” of the regression line is called the “slope” of the regression line. It summarizes to what degree the regression line is either above or below a horizontal line through the data points. If the correlation between X and Y were zero, the regression line would be exactly horizontal to the X-axis and would have a zero slope.

If the correlation between X and Y is positive, the regression line would “slope upward to the right” above the X-axis. Since the regression line in Fig. 6.30 slopes upward to the right, the slope of the regression line is +1.0762 as given in cell B67. We will use the notation “*b*” to stand for the slope of the regression line. (Note that Excel calls the slope of the line: “X Variable 1” in the Excel printout.)

Since the correlation between weight and gallons used was +.91, you can see that the regression line for these data “slopes upward to the right” through the data. Note that the SUMMARY OUTPUT of the regression line in Fig. 6.30 gives a correlation, r, of +.91 in cell B53.

If the correlation between X and Y were negative, the regression line would “slope down to the right” above the X-axis. This would happen whenever the correlation between X and Y is a negative correlation that is between zero and minus one (0 and –1).

6.5.3 Finding the Equation for the Regression Line

To find the regression equation for the straight line that can be used to predict the number of gallons used from the car’s weight, we only need two numbers in the SUMMARY OUTPUT in Fig. 6.30: B66 and B67.

$$\text{The format for the regression line is: } Y = a + bX \quad (6.3)$$

where *a* = the y-intercept (2.75 in our example in cell B66)

and *b* = the slope of the line (+1.0762 in our example in cell B67)

Therefore, the equation for the best-fitting regression line for our example is:

$$Y = a + bX$$

$$Y = 2.75 + 1.0762X$$

Remember that Y is the number of gallons used that we are trying to predict, using the weight of the car as the predictor, X.

Let's try an example using this formula to predict the number of gallons used for a car.

6.5.4 Using the Regression Line to Predict the y-value for a Given x-value

Objective: To find the number of gallons predicted for a car that weighed 3,000 pounds (Note: 3,000 pounds, when measured in thousands of pounds, is recorded as 3.0)

Important note: Remember that the weight of the car in thousands of pounds.

Since the weight is 3000 pounds (i.e., X = 3.0 in thousands of pounds), substituting this number into our regression equation gives:

$$Y = 2.75 + 1.0762(3.0)$$

$$Y = 2.75 + 3.23$$

$$Y = 5.98 \text{ gallons of gas needed to drive 150 miles}$$

Important note: If you look at your chart, if you go directly upwards for a weight of 3.0 until you hit the regression line, you see that you hit this line just below 6 on the y-axis to the left when you draw a line horizontal to the x-axis (actually, it is 5.98), the result above for predicting the number of gallons needed for a car weighing 3000 pounds.

Now, let's do a second example and predict the number of gallons needed if we used a weight of 3500 pounds. (Remember: 3500 pounds becomes 3.5 when it is measured in thousands of pounds.)

$$Y = 2.75 + 1.0762X$$

$$Y = 2.75 + 1.0762(3.5)$$

$$Y = 2.75 + 3.77$$

$Y = 6.52$ gallons of gas needed to drive 150 miles

Important note: If you look at your chart, if you go directly upwards for a weight of 3.5 until you hit the regression line, you see that you hit this line between 6 and 7 on the y-axis to the left (actually it is 6.52), the result above for predicting the number of gallons of gas needed for a car that weighed 3500 pounds to drive 150 miles.

For a more detailed discussion of regression, see Black (2010) and McKillup and Dyer (2010).

6.6 Adding the Regression Equation to the Chart

Objective: To Add the Regression Equation to the Chart

If you want to include the regression equation within the chart next to the regression line, you can do that, but a word of caution first.

Throughout this book, we are using the regression equation for one predictor and one criterion to be the following:

$$Y = a + bX \quad (6.3)$$

where a = y-intercept and

b = slope of the line

See, for example, the regression equation in Sect. 6.5.3 where the y-intercept was $a = 2.75$ and the slope of the line was $b = +1.0762$ to generate the following regression equation:

$$Y = 2.75 + 1.0762X$$

However, Excel 2016 uses a slightly different regression equation (which is logically identical to the one used in this book) when you add a regression equation to a chart:

$$Y = bX + a \quad (6.4)$$

where a = y-intercept and

b = slope of the line

Note that this equation is identical to the one we are using in this book with the terms arranged in a different sequence.

For the example we used in Sect. 6.5.3, Excel 2016 would write the regression equation on the chart as:

$$Y = 1.0762X + 2.75$$

This is the format that will result when you add the regression equation to the chart using Excel 2016 using the following steps:

Open the file: GALLONS7 (that you saved in Sect. 6.5.2)

Click inside the outer border of the chart in the top right corner to add the “border” around the chart in order to “select the chart” for changes you are about to make

Right-click on any of the data-points in the chart

Highlight: Add Trendline, and click on this command

The “Linear button” near the top of the dialog box will already be selected (on its left)

Scroll down this dialog box and click on: Display Equation on chart near the bottom of the dialog box (see Fig. 6.31).

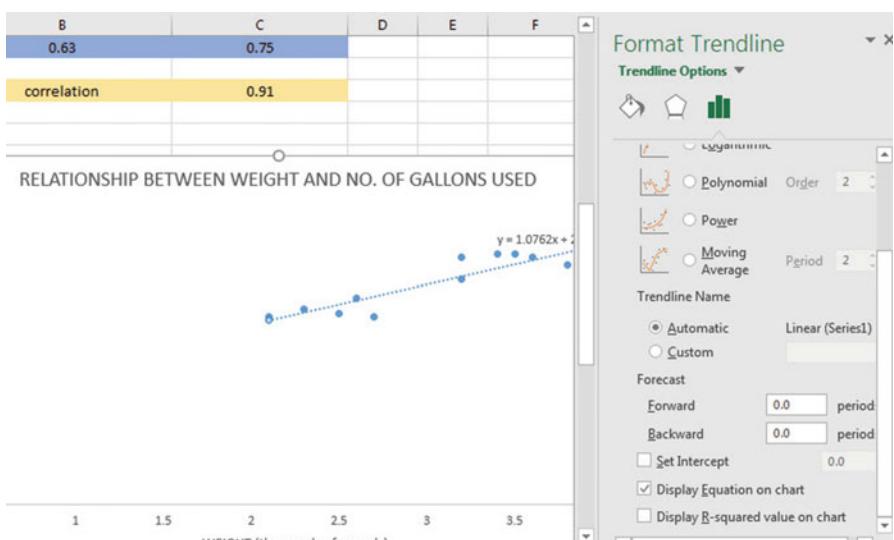


Fig. 6.31 Dialogue Box for Adding the Regression Equation to the Chart Next to the Regression Line on the Chart

Click on the X at the top right of the Format Trendline dialog box to remove this box.

Click on any empty cell outside of the chart to deselect the chart.

Note that the regression equation on the chart is in the following form next to the regression line on the chart (see Fig. 6.32).

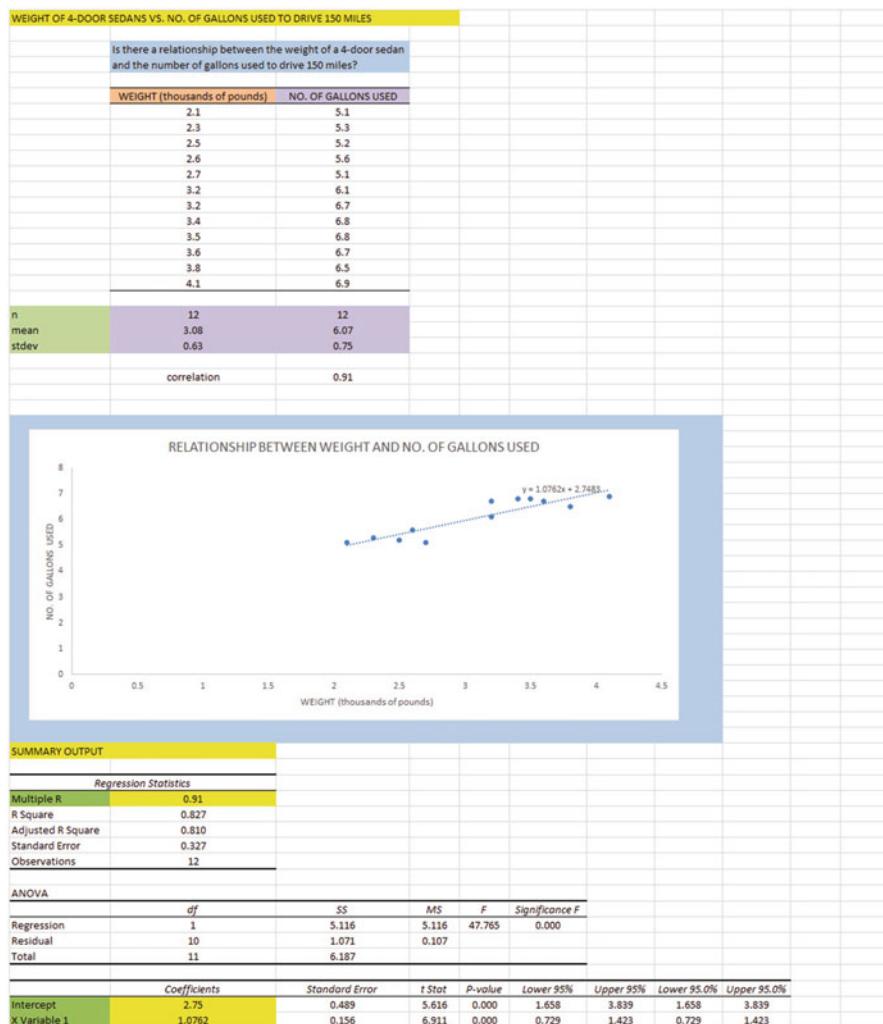


Fig. 6.32 Example of a Chart with the Regression Equation Displayed Next to the Regression Line

$$Y = 1.0762X + 2.75$$

Now, save this file as: GALLONS8, and print it out so that it fits onto one page.

6.7 How to Recognize Negative Correlations in the SUMMARY OUTPUT Table

Important note: Since Excel does not recognize negative correlations in the SUMMARY OUTPUT results, but treats all correlations as if they were positive correlations (this was a mistake made by the programmer), you need to be careful to note that there may be a negative correlation between X and Y even if the printout says that the correlation is a positive correlation.

You will know that the correlation between X and Y is a negative correlation when these two things occur:

- (1) *THE SLOPE, b, IS A NEGATIVE NUMBER. This can only occur when there is a negative correlation.*
- (2) *THE CHART CLEARLY SHOWS A DOWNWARD SLOPE IN THE REGRESSION LINE, which can only occur when the correlation between X and Y is negative.*

6.8 Printing Only Part of a Spreadsheet Instead of the Entire Spreadsheet

Objective: To print part of a spreadsheet separately instead of printing the entire spreadsheet

There will be many occasions when your spreadsheet is so large in the number of cells used for your data and charts that you only want to print part of the spreadsheet separately so that the print will not be so small that you cannot read it easily.

We will now explain how to print only part of a spreadsheet onto a separate page by using three examples of how to do that using the file, GALLONS8, that you created in Sect. 6.6: (1) printing only the table and the chart on a separate page, (2) printing only the chart on a separate page, and (3) printing only the SUMMARY OUTPUT of the regression analysis on a separate page.

Note: If the file: GALLONS8 is not open on your screen, you need to open it now.

If the “border” is around the outside of the chart, click on any white space outside of the chart to deselect the chart.

Let’s describe how to do these three goals with three separate objectives:

6.8.1 Printing Only the Table and the Chart on a Separate Page

Objective: To print only the table and the chart on a separate page

1. Left-click your mouse starting at the top left of the table in cell A3 and drag the mouse *down and to the right so that all of the table and all of the chart are highlighted in light blue on your computer screen from cell A3 to cell H48* (the light blue cells are called the “selection” cells).
2. File
Print
Print Active Sheet (hit the down arrow on the right)
Print selection
Print

The resulting printout should contain only the table of the data and the chart resulting from the data.

Then, click on any empty cell in your spreadsheet to deselect the table and chart.

6.8.2 Printing Only the Chart on a Separate Page

Objective: To print only the chart on a separate page

1. Click on any “white space” *just inside the outside border of the chart in the top right corner of the chart* to create the “border” around all of the borders of the chart in order to “select” the chart.
2. File
Print
Print selected chart
Print selected chart (again)
Print

The resulting printout should contain only the chart resulting from the data.

Important note: After each time you print a chart by itself on a separate page, you should immediately click on any white space OUTSIDE the chart to remove the border from the chart. When the border is on the borders of the chart, this tells Excel that you want to print only the chart by itself. You should do this now!

6.8.3 *Printing Only the SUMMARY OUTPUT of the Regression Analysis on a Separate Page*

Objective: To print only the SUMMARY OUTPUT of the regression analysis on a separate page

1. Left-click your mouse at the cell just above SUMMARY OUTPUT in *cell A50* on the left of your spreadsheet and drag the mouse *down and to the right* until all of the regression output is highlighted in dark blue on your screen from A50 to I67.

Change the “Scale to Fit” to 60 % so that the SUMMARY OUTPUT will fit onto one page when you print it out.

2. File

Print

Print active sheets (hit the down arrow on the right)

Print selection

Print

The resulting printout should contain only the SUMMARY OUTPUT of the regression analysis on a separate page.

Finally, click on any empty cell on the spreadsheet to “deselect” the regression table.

6.9 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. The Advanced Placement (AP) Tests are standardized tests that allow high school students to “test out” of college courses, either by receiving college credit for these courses while in high school or by allowing the students to waive courses in which their AP scores are very high. The AP Exams are scored on a 5-point scale in which a score of “1” means “No recommendation” and a score of “5” means “Extremely well qualified.” There are 34 AP courses for which these exams are available. The AP Calculus BC Test is intended to measure the equivalent of a college introductory calculus course taken by students during their first year of college. Each spring, about 90,000 students take this test.
Suppose that you have been asked by the Chair of the Mechanical Engineering Department at a selective university to see how well the AP Calculus BC Test predicts GPA at the end of the first year of study for Mechanical Engineering majors. This Chair has asked you to use the AP Calculus BC Test as the predictor of this GPA. The Chair would like your recommendation as to whether or not the AP Calculus BC Test should become an admissions requirement in addition to the SAT for admission to the undergraduate major in Mechanical Engineering.

You have decided to use a correlation and simple linear regression analysis, and to test your Excel skills, you have collected the data of a random sample of 19 Mechanical Engineering students who have just finished their first year of study at this university. These hypothetical data appear in Fig. 6.33.

What is the relationship between AP Calculus BC scores and freshman GPA?	
AP score	FROSH GPA
3	3.25
4	3.56
5	3.84
4	3.55
5	3.52
3	3.23
2	3.15
5	3.46
4	3.56
3	3.16
4	3.24
2	2.96
3	3.21
4	3.16
5	3.66
4	3.54
3	3.15
4	3.56
5	3.92

Fig. 6.33 Worksheet Data for Chap. 6: Practice Problem #1

- (a) create an Excel spreadsheet using FROSH GPA as the criterion and the AP Calculus BC Test as the predictor using the following format:
- Top title: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AP CALCULUS BC SCORES AND FROSH GPA
 - x-axis title: AP CALCULUS BC SCORE
 - y-axis title: FROSH GPA
 - Re-size the chart so that it is 7 columns wide and 25 rows long
 - Delete the legend
 - Delete the gridlines
 - Move the chart below the table

- (b) Create the *least-squares regression line* for these data on the scatterplot.
- (c) Use Excel's *regression* function to find the equation for the least-squares regression line for these data and display the results below the chart on your spreadsheet. Add the regression line and the regression equation to the chart.
- (d) Use number format (two decimal places) for the correlation on the SUMMARY OUTPUT, and use number format (three decimal places) for all of the other decimal figures in the SUMMARY OUTPUT.
- (e) Print the input data and the chart so that this information fits onto one page.
- (f) Then, print the regression output table so that this information fits onto a separate page.
- (g) Save the file as: FROSH16

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is correlation r ?
 2. What is the y-intercept a ?
 3. What is the slope b ?
 4. What is the regression equation (use three decimal places for the y-intercept and the slope)?
 5. Use the regression equation to predict the FROSH GPA you would expect for an AP Calculus BC score of 4.
2. Permafrost is soil, sediment, or rock that is frozen based on its temperature. The ground must remain at or below zero degrees centigrade for 2 years or more to be called permafrost. It is found at high altitudes, including the Rocky Mountains in the state of Colorado. Permafrost is measured by down-hole depth created by a drill hole in a formation that is used as part of geophysical studies. Suppose that you wanted to study the relationship between down-hole depth (X) and temperature. Suppose that down-hole depth was measured in meters (m) while temperature was measured in degrees centigrade ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

Create an Excel spreadsheet and enter the data using DEPTH as the independent (predictor) variable, and TEMPERATURE as the dependent (criterion) variable. You decide to test your Excel skills on a small sample of drill holes using the hypothetical data presented in Fig. 6.34.

DOWN-HOLE DEPTH (meters) VS. TEMPERATURE (degrees centigrade)	
DEPTH (m)	TEMPERATURE ($^{\circ}$ C)
0.1	-3.6
0.3	-3.5
0.6	-2.7
0.9	-2.5
1.4	-2.6
2.2	-2.7
3.2	-2.4
4.8	-0.2
6.8	0.0

Fig. 6.34 Worksheet Data for Chap. 6: Practice Problem #2

Create an Excel spreadsheet and enter the data using DEPTH (meters) as the independent variable (predictor) and TEMPERATURE (degrees centigrade) as the dependent variable (criterion).

- (a) create an *XY scatterplot* of these two sets of data such that:
 - top title: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DOWN-HOLE DEPTH AND TEMPERATURE
 - x-axis title: DEPTH (meters)
 - y-axis title: TEMPERATURE (degrees centigrade)
 - re-size the chart so that it is 7 columns wide and 25 rows long
 - delete the legend
 - delete the gridlines
 - move the chart below the table
- (b) Create the *least-squares regression line* for these data on the scatterplot.
- (c) Use Excel to run the regression statistics to find the *equation for the least-squares regression line* for these data and display the results below the chart on your spreadsheet. Use number format (two decimal places) for the correlation, r , and for both the y-intercept and the slope of the line. Change all other decimal figures to four decimal places.
- (d) Print the input data and the chart so that this information fits onto one page.
- (e) Then, print out the regression output table so that this information fits onto a separate page.

By hand:

- (1a) Circle and label the value of the *y-intercept* and the *slope* of the regression line onto that separate page.
 - (2b) *Read from the graph* the temperature you would predict for a *depth of three meters* and write your answer in the space immediately below:
-

- (f) save the file as: DEPTH3

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is the correlation?
2. What is the y-intercept?
3. What is the slope of the line?
4. What is the regression equation for these data (use two decimal places for the y-intercept and the slope)?
5. Use that regression equation to predict the temperature you would expect for a down-hole depth of two meters.

(Note that this correlation is not the multiple correlation as the Excel table indicates, but is merely the correlation *r* instead.)

Note that you found a positive correlation of +.94 between depth and temperature. You know that the correlation is a positive correlation for two reasons: (1) the regression line slopes upward and to the right on the chart, signaling a positive correlation, and (2) the slope is +0.53 which also tells you that the correlation is a positive correlation.

But how does Excel treat *negative correlations*?

Important note: Since Excel does not recognize negative correlations in the SUMMARY OUTPUT but treats all correlations as if they were positive correlations, you need to be careful to note when there is a negative correlation between the two variables under study.

You know that the correlation is negative when:

- (1) *The slope, b, is a negative number which can only occur when there is a negative correlation.*
 - (2) *The chart clearly shows a downward slope in the regression line, which can only happen when the correlation is negative.*
3. Suppose that you wanted to study the relationship between final exam scores and laboratory work scores for undergraduates in a course in electrical engineering when both variables are converted to 100-point scales. You want to test your Excel skills on a random sample of the students to make sure that you can do this type of research. The hypothetical data appear in Fig. 6.35:

FINAL EXAM SCORES VS. LABORATORY SCORES IN AN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING COURSE	
FINAL EXAM SCORE	LABORATORY SCORE
25	45
32	59
42	58
53	53
59	68
64	48
68	55
72	58
76	61
75	78
79	68
81	69
83	65
85	78
87	73
89	75
93	72

Fig. 6.35 Worksheet Data for Chap. 6: Practice Problem #3

Create an Excel spreadsheet and enter the data using final exam scores as the independent variable (predictor) and the laboratory score as the dependent variable (criterion). Underneath the table, use Excel's =correl function to find the correlation between these two variables. Label the correlation and place it underneath the table; then round off the correlation to two decimal places.

- (a) create an *XY scatterplot* of these two sets of data such that:
 - top title: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FINAL EXAM SCORES AND LABORATORY SCORES FOR ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
 - x-axis title: FINAL EXAM IN ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
 - y-axis title: LABORATORY SCORE
 - move the chart below the table
 - re-size the chart so that it is 8 columns wide and 25 rows long
 - delete the legend
 - delete the gridlines
- (b) Create the *least-squares regression line* for these data on the scatterplot, and add the regression equation to the chart.
- (c) Use Excel to run the regression statistics to find the *equation for the least squares regression line* for these data and display the results below the chart on your spreadsheet. Use number format (two decimal places) for the

correlation and three decimal places for all other decimal figures, including the coefficients.

- (d) Print just the input data and the chart so that this information fits onto one page. Then, print the regression output table on a separate page so that it fits onto that separate page.
- (e) save the file as: LAB16

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is the correlation between final exam scores and laboratory scores?
2. What is the y-intercept?
3. What is the slope of the line?
4. What is the regression equation?
5. Use the regression equation to predict the laboratory score you would expect for a student that had a final exam score of 70. Show your work on a separate sheet of paper.

References

- Black K. Business statistics: for contemporary decision making. 6th ed. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; 2010.
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- McCleery R, Watt T, Hart T. Introduction to statistics for biology. 3rd ed. Boca Raton: Chapman & Hall/CRC; 2007.
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Chapter 7

Multiple Correlation and Multiple Regression

There are many times in the engineering sciences when you want to predict a criterion, Y, but you want to find out if you can develop a better prediction model by using *several predictors* in combination (e.g. X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , etc.) instead of a single predictor, X.

The resulting statistical procedure is called “multiple correlation” because it uses two or more predictors in combination to predict Y, instead of a single predictor, X. Each predictor is “weighted” differently based on its separate correlation with Y and its correlation with the other predictors. The job of multiple correlation is to produce a regression equation that will weight each predictor differently and in such a way that the combination of predictors does a better job of predicting Y than any single predictor by itself. We will call the multiple correlation: R_{xy} .

You will recall (see Sect. 6.5.3) that the regression equation that predicts Y when only one predictor, X, is used is:

$$Y = a + bX \quad (7.1)$$

7.1 Multiple Regression Equation

The multiple regression equation follows a similar format and is:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + \text{etc. depending on the number of predictors used} \quad (7.2)$$

The “weight” given to each predictor in the equation is represented by the letter “b” with a subscript to correspond to the same subscript on the predictors.

You will remember from Chap. 6 that the correlation, r, ranges from +1 to -1. However, the multiple correlation, R_{xy} , only ranges from 0 to +1. R_{xy} is never a negative number!

Important note: In order to do multiple regression, you need to have installed the “Data Analysis ToolPak” that was described in Chap. 6 (see Sect. 6.5.1). If you did not install this, you need to do so now.

Let's try a practice problem.

Suppose that you have been asked to analyze some data from the SAT Reasoning Test (formerly called the Scholastic Aptitude Test) which is a standardized test for college admissions in the U.S. This test is intended to measure a student's readiness for academic work in college, and about 1.4 million high school students take this test every year. There are three subtest scores generated from this test: Critical Reading, Writing, and Mathematics, and each of these subtests has a score range between 200 and 800 with an average score of about 500.

Suppose that a nearby selective college in the northeast of the U.S. that is near to you wants to determine the relationship between SAT Reading scores, SAT Writing scores, and SAT Math scores in their ability to predict freshman grade-point average (FROSH GPA) for Engineering majors at the end of freshman year at this college, and that this college has asked you to determine this relationship.

You have decided to use the three subtest scores as the predictors, X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 and the freshman grade-point average (FROSH GPA) as the criterion, Y. To test your Excel skills, you have selected 11 Engineering majors randomly from last year's freshmen class, and have recorded their scores on these variables.

Let's use the following notation:

Y	FROSH GPA
X_1	READING SCORE
X_2	WRITING SCORE
X_3	MATH SCORE

Suppose, further, that you have collected the following hypothetical data summarizing these scores (see Fig. 7.1):

	A	B	C	D	E
1					
2	SAT REASONING TEST				
3					
4	Is there a relationship between SAT scores and Freshman GPA at a local college?				
5					
6	FROSH GPA	READING SCORE	WRITING SCORE	MATH SCORE	
7	2.55	250	230	220	
8	3.05	610	240	440	
9	3.55	620	540	530	
10	2.05	420	420	260	
11	2.45	320	520	320	
12	2.95	630	620	620	
13	3.15	650	540	530	
14	3.45	520	580	560	
15	3.30	420	490	630	
16	2.75	330	220	610	
17	3.65	440	570	660	
18					
19					

Fig. 7.1 Worksheet Data for SAT versus FROSH GPA (Practical Example)

Create an Excel spreadsheet for these data using the following cell reference:

- A2: SAT REASONING TEST
- A4: Is there a relationship between SAT scores and Freshman GPA at a local college?
- A6: FROSH GPA
- A7: 2.55
- B6: READING SCORE
- C6: WRITING SCORE
- D6: MATH SCORE
- D17: 660

Next, change the column width to match the above table, and change all GPA figures to number format (two decimal places).

Now, fill in the additional data in the chart such that:

- A17: 3.65
- B17: 440
- C17: 570

Then, center all numbers in your table

Important note: Be sure to double-check all of your numbers in your table to be sure that they are correct, or your spreadsheets will be incorrect.

Save this file as: GPA25

Before we do the multiple regression analysis, we need to try to make one important point very clear:

Important: When we used one predictor, X, to predict one criterion, Y, we said that you need to make sure that the X variable is ON THE LEFT in your table, and the Y variable is ON THE RIGHT in your table so that you don't get these variables mixed up (see Sect. 6.3).

However, in multiple regression, you need to follow this rule which is exactly the opposite:

When you use several predictors in multiple regression, it is essential that the criterion you are trying to predict, Y, be ON THE FAR LEFT, and all of the predictors are TO THE RIGHT of the criterion, Y, in your table so that you know which variable is the criterion, Y, and which variables are the predictors. If you make this a habit, you will save yourself a lot of grief.

Notice in the table above, that the criterion Y (FROSH GPA) is on the far left of the table, and the three predictors (READING SCORE, WRITING SCORE, and MATH SCORE) are to the right of the criterion variable. If you follow this rule, you will be less likely to make a mistake in this type of analysis.

7.2 Finding the Multiple Correlation and the Multiple Regression Equation

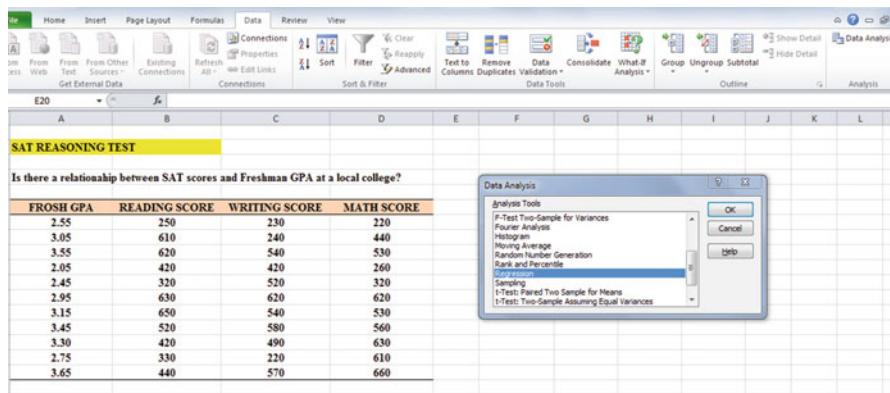
Objective: To find the multiple correlation and multiple regression equation using Excel.

You do this by the following commands:

Data

Click on: Data Analysis (far right top of screen)

Regression (scroll down to this in the box; see Fig. 7.2)

**Fig. 7.2** Dialogue Box for Regression Function

OK

Input Y Range: A6:A17

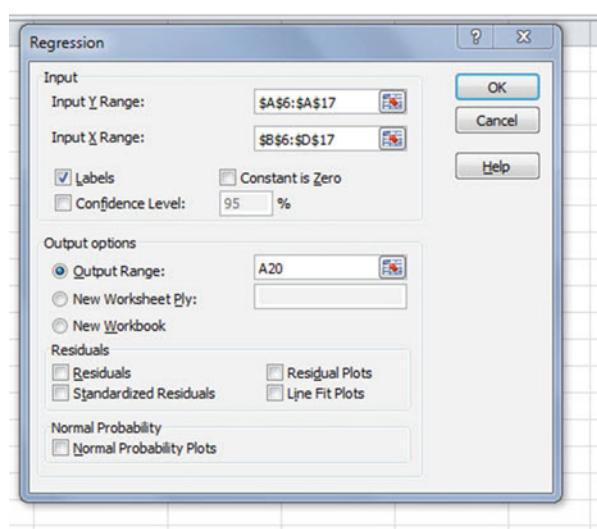
Input X Range: B6:D17

Note that both the input Y Range and the Input X Range above both include the label at the top of the columns.

Click on the Labels box to *add a check mark* to it (because you have included the column labels in row 6)

Output Range (click on the button to its left, and enter): A20 (see Fig. 7.3)

Important note: Excel automatically assigns a dollar sign \$ in front of each column letter and each row number so that you can keep these ranges of data constant for the regression analysis.

Fig. 7.3 Dialogue Box for SAT vs. FROSH GPA Data

OK (see Fig. 7.4 to see the resulting SUMMARY OUTPUT)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
17	3.65	440	570	660						
18										
19										
20	SUMMARY OUTPUT									
21										
22		Regression Statistics								
23	Multiple R	0.797651156								
24	R Square	0.636247366								
25	Adjusted R Square	0.48035338								
26	Standard Error	0.361446932								
27	Observations	11								
28										
29	ANOVA									
30		df	SS	MS	F	Significance F				
31	Regression	3	1.599583719	0.533194573	4.081282	0.057174747				
32	Residual	7	0.91450719	0.130643884						
33	Total	10	2.514090909							
34										
35		Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%	
36	Intercept	1.53627108	0.468442063	3.279532734	0.013496	0.428581617	2.643960543	0.428581617	2.643960543	
37	READING SCORE	0.000642945	0.000963026	0.667629207	0.525762	-0.001634251	0.00292014	-0.001634251	0.00292014	
38	WRITING SCORE	0.000264354	0.000889915	0.297055329	0.775046	-0.00183996	0.002368667	-0.00183996	0.002368667	
39	MATH SCORE	0.00210733	0.000848684	2.4830572	0.042022	0.000100512	0.004114149	0.000100512	0.004114149	

Fig. 7.4 Regression SUMMARY OUTPUT of SAT vs. FROSH GPA Data

Next, format cell B23 in number format (two decimal places)

Next, format the following four cells in Number format (four decimal places):

B36

B37

B38

B39

Change all other decimal figures to two decimal places, and center all figures within their cells.

Save the file as: GPA26

Now, print the file so that it fits onto one page by changing the scale to 60 % size.

The resulting regression analysis is given in Fig. 7.5.

SAT REASONING TEST					
Is there a relationship between SAT scores and Freshman GPA at a local college?					
FROSH GPA		READING SCORE	WRITING SCORE	MATH SCORE	
2.55		250	230	220	
3.05		610	240	440	
3.55		620	540	530	
2.05		420	420	260	
2.45		320	520	320	
2.95		630	620	620	
3.15		650	540	530	
3.45		520	580	560	
3.30		420	490	630	
2.75		330	220	610	
3.65		440	570	660	
SUMMARY OUTPUT					
<i>Regression Statistics</i>					
Multiple R		0.80			
R Square		0.64			
Adjusted R Square		0.48			
Standard Error		0.36			
Observations		11			
ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	1.60	0.53	4.08	0.06
Residual	7	0.91	0.13		
Total	10	2.51			
<i>Coefficients</i>					
Intercept	1.5363	0.47	3.28	0.01	0.43 2.64 0.43 2.64
READING SCORE	0.0006	0.00	0.67	0.53 0.00 0.00 0.00	
WRITING SCORE	0.0003	0.00	0.30	0.78 0.00 0.00 0.00	
MATH SCORE	0.0021	0.00	2.48	0.04 0.00 0.00 0.00	

Fig. 7.5 Final Spreadsheet for SAT vs. FROSH GPA Regression Analysis

Once you have the SUMMARY OUTPUT, you can determine the multiple correlation and the regression equation that is the best-fit line through the data points using READING SCORE, WRITING SCORE, AND MATH SCORE as the three predictors, and FROSH GPA as the criterion.

Note on the SUMMARY OUTPUT where it says: “Multiple R.” This term is correct since this is the term Excel uses for the multiple correlation, which is +0.80. This means, that from these data, that the combination of READING SCORES, WRITING SCORES, AND MATH SCORES together form a very strong positive relationship in predicting FROSH GPA.

To find the regression equation, notice the coefficients at the bottom of the SUMMARY OUTPUT:

Intercept: a (this is the y -intercept)	1.5363
READING SCORE: b_1	0.0006
WRITING SCORE: b_2	0.0003
MATH SCORE: b_3	0.0021

Since the general form of the multiple regression equation is:

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 \quad (7.2)$$

we can now write the multiple regression equation for these data:

$$Y = 1.5363 + 0.0006 X_1 + 0.0003 X_2 + 0.0021 X_3$$

7.3 Using the Regression Equation to Predict FROSH GPA

Objective: To find the predicted FROSH GPA using an SAT Reading Score of 600, an SAT Writing Score of 500, and an SAT Math Score of 550

Plugging these three numbers into our regression equation gives us:

$$Y = 1.5363 + 0.0006 (600) + 0.0003 (500) + 0.0021 (550)$$

$$Y = 1.5363 + 0.36 + 0.15 + 1.155$$

$$Y = 3.20 \text{ (since GPA scores are typically measured in two decimals)}$$

If you want to learn more about the theory behind multiple regression, see Keller (2009) and Ledolter and Hogg (2010).

7.4 Using Excel to Create a Correlation Matrix in Multiple Regression

The final step in multiple regression is to find the correlation between all of the variables that appear in the regression equation.

In our example, this means that we need to find the correlation between each of the six pairs of variables:

To do this, we need to use Excel to create a “correlation matrix.” This matrix summarizes the correlations between all of the variables in the problem.

Objective: To use Excel to create a correlation matrix between the four variables in this example.

To use Excel to do this, use these steps:

Data (top of screen under “Home” at the top left of screen)

Data Analysis

Correlation (scroll *up* to highlight this formula; see Fig. 7.6)

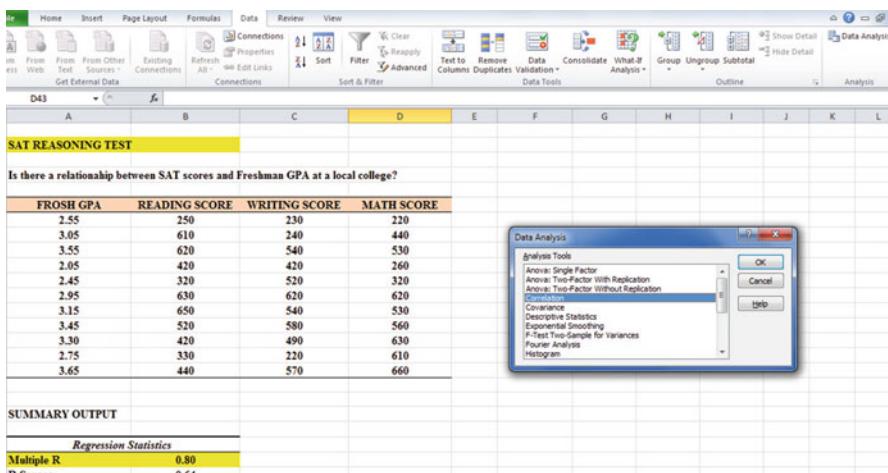


Fig. 7.6 Dialogue Box for SAT vs. FROSH GPA Correlations

OK

Input range: A6:D17

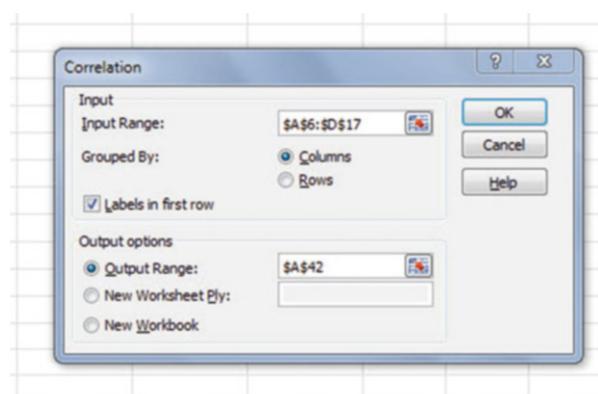
(Note that this input range includes the labels at the top of the FOUR variables (FROSH GPA, READING SCORE, WRITING SCORE, MATH SCORE) as well as all of the figures in the original data set).

Grouped by: Columns

Put a check in the box for: Labels in the First Row (since you included the labels at the top of the columns in your input range of data above)

Output range (click on the button to its left, and enter): A42 (see Fig. 7.7)

Fig. 7.7 Dialogue Box for Input/Output Range for Correlation Matrix



OK

The resulting correlation matrix appears in A42:E46 (see Fig. 7.8).

	FROSH GPA	READING SCORE	WRITING SCORE	MATH SCORE
FROSH GPA	1			
READING SCORE	0.510369686	1		
WRITING SCORE	0.446857676	0.468105152	1	
MATH SCORE	0.772523347	0.444074496	0.429202393	1

Fig. 7.8 Resulting Correlation Matrix for SAT Scores vs. FROSH GPA Data

Next, format all of the numbers in the correlation matrix that are in decimals to two decimal places. And, also, make column E wider so that the MATH SCORE label fits inside cell E42.

Save this Excel file as: GPA27

The final spreadsheet for these scores appears in Fig. 7.9.

SAT REASONING TEST				
Is there a relationship between SAT scores and Freshman GPA at a local college?				
FROSH GPA	READING SCORE	WRITING SCORE	MATH SCORE	
2.55	250	230	220	
3.05	610	240	440	
3.55	620	540	530	
2.05	420	420	260	
2.45	320	520	320	
2.95	630	620	620	
3.15	650	540	530	
3.45	520	580	560	
3.30	420	490	630	
2.75	330	220	610	
3.65	440	570	660	
SUMMARY OUTPUT				
Regression Statistics				
Multiple R	0.80			
R Square	0.64			
Adjusted R Square	0.48			
Standard Error	0.36			
Observations	11			
ANOVA				
	df	SS	MS	F Significance F
Regression	3	1.60	0.53	4.08 0.06
Residual	7	0.91	0.13	
Total	10	2.51		
	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value Lower 95% Upper 95% Lower 95.0% Upper 95.0%
Intercept	1.5363	0.47	3.28	0.01 0.43 2.64 0.43 2.64
READING SCORE	0.0006	0.00	0.67	0.53 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
WRITING SCORE	0.0003	0.00	0.30	0.78 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
MATH SCORE	0.0021	0.00	2.48	0.04 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00
	FROSH GPA	READING SCORE	WRITING SCORE	MATH SCORE
FROSH GPA	1			
READING SCORE	0.51	1		
WRITING SCORE	0.45	0.47	1	
MATH SCORE	0.77	0.44	0.43	1

Fig. 7.9 Final Spreadsheet for SAT Scores vs. FROSH GPA Regression and the Correlation Matrix

Note that the number “1” along the diagonal of the correlation matrix means that the correlation of each variable with itself is a perfect, positive correlation of 1.0.

Correlation coefficients are always expressed in just two decimal places.

You are now ready to read the correlation between the six pairs of variables:

The correlation between READING SCORE and FROSH GPA is : +.51

The correlation between WRITING SCORE and FROSH GPA is : +.45

The correlation between MATH SCORE and FROSH GPA is : +.77

The correlation between WRITING SCORE and READING SCORE is : +.47

The correlation between MATH SCORE and READING SCORE is : +.44

The correlation between MATH SCORE and WRITING SCORE is : +.43

This means that the best predictor of FROSH GPA is the MATH SCORE with a correlation of +.77. Adding the other two predictor variables, READING SCORE and WRITING SCORE, improved the prediction by only 0.03 to 0.80, and was, therefore, only slightly better in prediction. MATH SCORES are an excellent predictor of FROSH GPA all by themselves.

If you want to learn more about the correlation matrix, see Levine et al. (2011).

7.5 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. The Graduate Record Examinations (GRE) are a standardized test that is an admissions requirement for many U.S. graduate schools. The test is intended to measure general academic preparedness, regardless of specialization field. The General GRE test produces three subtest scores: (1) GRE Verbal Reasoning (scale 130–170), (2) GRE Quantitative Reasoning (scale 130–170), and (3) Analytical Writing (scale 0–6).

Suppose that you have been asked by the Chair of the Engineering Department at a selective graduate university to see how well the GRE predicts GPA at the end of the first year of graduate study for Engineering majors. The Chair has asked you to use the three subtest scores of the GRE as predictors, and, in addition, to use the GRE Math Test score (score range 200–990) as an additional predictor of this GPA. The Chair would like your recommendation as to whether or not the Math Test should become an admissions requirement in addition to the GRE for admission to the program in Engineering. The GRE Math Test includes problems in algebra, linear algebra, abstract algebra, number theory, and differential and integral calculus.

You have decided to use a multiple correlation and multiple regression analysis, and to test your Excel skills, you have collected the data of a random sample of 12 Engineering students who have just finished their first year of study at this university. These hypothetical data appear in Fig. 7.10:

GRADUATE RECORD EXAMINATIONS				
How well does the GRE and the GRE subject area test in Math predict GPA at the end of the first year of a Masters' program in Engineering?				
FIRST-YEAR GPA	GRE VERBAL	GRE QUANTITATIVE	GRE WRITING	GRE MATH
3.25	160	161	5	650
3.42	156	158	4	600
2.85	156	157	2	500
2.65	154	153	1	510
3.65	166	166	6	630
3.16	159	160	3	550
3.56	166	163	4	610
2.35	155	154	2	430
2.86	153	154	3	450
2.95	158	157	4	550
3.15	158	159	4	580
3.45	160	160	5	620

Fig. 7.10 Worksheet Data for Chap. 7: Practice Problem #1

- Create an Excel spreadsheet using FIRST-YEAR GPA as the criterion (Y), and GRE VERBAL (X_1), GRE QUANTITATIVE (X_2), GRE WRITING (X_3), and GRE MATH (X_4) as the predictors.
- Use Excel's *multiple regression* function to find the relationship between these five variables and place it below the table.
- Use number format (two decimal places) for the multiple correlation on the SUMMARY OUTPUT, and use four decimal places for the coefficients in the SUMMARY OUTPUT
- Print the table and regression results below the table so that they fit onto one page.
- Save this file as: GRE36

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

- What is the multiple correlation R_{xy} ?
 - What is the y-intercept a ?
 - What is the coefficient for GRE VERBAL b_1 ?
 - What is the coefficient for GRE QUANTITATIVE b_2 ?
 - What is the coefficient for GRE WRITING b_3 ?
 - What is the coefficient for GRE MATH b_4 ?
 - What is the multiple regression equation?
 - Predict the FIRST-YEAR GPA you would expect for a GRE VERBAL score of 150, a GRE QUANTITATIVE score of 160, a GRE WRITING score of 3, and a GRE MATH score of 610.
- Now, go back to your Excel file and create a *correlation matrix* for these five variables, and place it underneath the SUMMARY OUTPUT.

- (g) Re-save this file as: GRE36
- (h) Now, print out *just this correlation matrix* on a separate sheet of paper.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout. Be sure to include the plus or minus sign for each correlation:

9. What is the correlation between GRE VERBAL and FIRST-YEAR GPA?
 10. What is the correlation between GRE QUANTITATIVE and FIRST-YEAR GPA?
 11. What is the correlation between GRE WRITING and FIRST-YEAR GPA?
 12. What is the correlation between GRE MATH and FIRST-YEAR GPA?
 13. What is the correlation between GRE WRITING and GRE VERBAL?
 14. What is the correlation between GRE VERBAL and GRE MATH?
 15. Discuss which of the four predictors is the best predictor of FIRST-YEAR GPA.
 16. Explain in words how much better the four predictor variables together predict FIRST-YEAR GPA than the best single predictor by itself.
2. Suppose you wanted to study locomotive engines for a train and that you wanted to find the relationship between the stopping distance of the train (feet), the speed at which the brakes of the train were applied which is called the enforcement speed in miles per hour (mph), and the weight of the train (tons). Let stopping distance be the dependent variable (criterion), and enforcement speed and weight be the independent variables (predictors). Hypothetical data for 13 test runs are presented in Fig. 7.11.

STOPPING DISTANCE (feet)	ENFORCEMENT SPEED (mph)	WEIGHT (tons)
45	2.9	3300
65	2.6	3800
85	4.2	3600
95	7.2	3750
100	8.6	3850
125	4.6	3950
135	12.2	4320
165	13.2	3850
186	6.5	3600
286	11.1	4750
320	15.6	3850
586	20.1	5800
650	26.2	5500

Fig. 7.11 Worksheet Data for Chap. 7: Practice Problem #2

- (a) create an Excel spreadsheet using stopping distance as the criterion (Y), and the other variables as the two predictors of this criterion.
- (b) Use Excel's *multiple regression* function to find the relationship between these variables and place it below the table.
- (c) Use number format (two decimal places) for the multiple correlation on the Summary Output, and use number format (three decimal places) for the coefficients and all other decimal figures in the Summary Output.
- (d) Print the table and regression results below the table so that they fit onto one page.
- (e) By hand on this printout, *circle and label*:
 - (1a) multiple correlation R_{xy}
 - (2b) coefficients for the y-intercept, enforcement speed, and weight.
- (f) Save this file as: TRAIN3
- (g) Now, go back to your Excel file and create a correlation matrix for these three variables, and place it underneath the Summary Table. *Change each correlation to just two decimals*. Save this file again as: TRAIN3
- (h) Now, print out *just this correlation matrix in portrait mode* on a separate sheet of paper.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is the multiple correlation R_{xy} ?
2. What is the y-intercept a ?
3. What is the coefficient for enforcement speed b_1 ?
4. What is the coefficient for weight b_2 ?
5. What is the multiple regression equation?
6. Underneath this regression equation by hand, predict the stopping distance you would expect for an enforcement speed of 10.8 mph and a weight of 4600 tons.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout. Be sure to include the plus or minus sign for each correlation:

7. What is the correlation between enforcement speed and stopping distance?
8. What is the correlation between weight and stopping distance?
9. What is the correlation between enforcement speed and weight?
10. Discuss which of the two predictors is the better predictor of stopping distance.
11. Explain in words how much better the two predictor variables combined predict stopping distance than the better single predictor by itself.
3. The Advanced Placement (AP) Tests are standardized tests that allow high school students to “test out” of college courses, either by receiving credit for these courses or by allowing the students to waive courses in which their AP scores are very high. The AP Exams are scored on a five-point scale in which a score of “1” means “No recommendation” and a score of “5” means “Extremely

well qualified.” There are 34 AP courses for which these exams are available. The AP Calculus BC Test is intended to measure the equivalent of a 1-year course in the calculus of functions of a single variable, and before studying calculus, students are encouraged to complete 4 years of secondary school mathematics that are designed for college-bound students.

Suppose that you have been asked by the Chair of the Engineering Department at a selective university to see how well the AP Calculus BC Test, along with other predictors, predicts GPA at the end of the first year of study for Engineering majors. This Chair has asked you to use as predictors: (1) - SAT-Verbal scores, (2) SAT-Math scores, and (3) high school GPA, and, in addition, to use the AP Calculus BC Test score as an additional predictor of this GPA. The Chair would like your recommendation as to whether or not the AP Calculus BC Test should become an admissions requirement in addition to the SAT for admission to the undergraduate major in Engineering.

You have decided to use a multiple correlation and multiple regression analysis, and to test your Excel skills, you have collected the data of a random sample of 10 Engineering students who have just finished their first year of study at this university.

These hypothetical data appear in Fig. 7.12.

FROSH GPA	SAT-VERBAL	SAT-MATH	HS GPA	AP CALCULUS BC
3.23	650	510	3.55	2
2.90	490	420	2.96	2
2.80	630	540	3.27	5
3.42	520	520	3.45	4
2.80	560	540	2.90	3
2.90	410	420	2.80	2
2.35	450	460	2.63	2
2.58	420	430	2.71	1
3.12	560	520	3.26	3
3.47	650	680	3.45	4

Fig. 7.12 Worksheet Data for Chap. 7: Practice Problem #3

- Create an Excel spreadsheet using FROSH GPA as the criterion and the other four variables as the predictors.
- Use Excel’s *multiple regression* function to find the relationship between these five variables and place the SUMMARY OUTPUT below the table.
- Use number format (two decimal places) for the multiple correlation on the Summary Output, and use number format (three decimal places) for the coefficients in the summary output and for all other decimal figures in the SUMMARY OUTPUT.

- (d) Save the file as: APMATH45
- (e) Print the table and regression results below the table so that they fit onto one page.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is multiple correlation R_{xy} ?
 2. What is the y-intercept a ?
 3. What is the coefficient for SAT-V b_1 ?
 4. What is the coefficient for SAT-M b_2 ?
 5. What is the coefficient for HS GPA b_3 ?
 6. What is the coefficient for the AP Calculus BC b_4 ?
 7. What is the multiple regression equation?
 8. Predict the FROSH GPA you would expect for an SAT-V score of 650, an SAT-M score of 630, a HS GPA of 3.47, and an AP Calculus BC Test score of 4.
- (f) Now, go back to your Excel file and create a correlation matrix for these five variables, and place it underneath the SUMMARY OUTPUT on your spreadsheet.
 - (g) Save this file as: APMATH44
 - (h) Now, print out *just this correlation matrix* on a separate sheet of paper.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout. Be sure to include the plus or minus sign for each correlation:

9. What is the correlation between SAT-V and FROSH GPA?
10. What is the correlation between SAT-M and FROSH GPA?
11. What is the correlation between HS GPA and FROSH GPA?
12. What is the correlation between AP Calculus BC and FROSH GPA?
13. What is the correlation between SAT-V and SAT-M?
14. What is the correlation between HS GPA and AP Calculus BC?
15. What is the correlation between SAT-M and AP Calculus BC?
16. What is the correlation between SAT-V and AP Calculus BC?
17. Discuss which of the four predictors is the best predictor of FROSH GPA.
18. Explain in words how much better the four predictor variables combined predict FROSH GPA than the best single predictor by itself.

References

- Keller G. Statistics for management and economics. 8th ed. Mason: South-Western Cengage Learning; 2009.
- Ledolter J, Hogg R. Applied statistics for engineers and physical scientists. 3rd ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice Hall; 2010.
- Levine D, Stephan D, Krehbiel T, Berenson M. Statistics for managers using Microsoft Excel. 6th ed. Boston: Pearson Prentice Hall; 2011.

Chapter 8

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

So far in this 2016 Excel Guide, you have learned how to use a one-group t-test to compare the sample mean to the population mean, and a two-group t-test to test for the difference between two sample means. *But what should you do when you have more than two groups and you want to determine if there is a significant difference between the means of these groups?*

The answer to this question is: *Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)*.

The ANOVA test allows you to test for the difference between the means when you have *three or more groups* in your research study.

Important note: In order to do One-way Analysis of Variance, you need to have installed the “Data Analysis Toolpak” that was described in Chap. 6 (see Sect. 6.5.1). If you did not install this, you need to do that now.

Let’s suppose that you were working as a research scientist for a company and that you wanted to compare your company’s premium brand of tire (Brand A) against two major competitors’ brands (B and C). You have set up a laboratory test of the three types of tires, and you have measured the number of simulated miles driven before the tread length reached a predetermined amount. The hypothetical results are given in Fig. 8.1. Note that the data are in thousands of miles driven (1000), so, for example, 63 is really 63,000 miles.

You have been asked to analyze the data to determine if there was any significant difference in miles driven between the three brands. To test your Excel skills, you have selected a random sample of tires from each of these brands (see Fig. 8.1). Note that each brand can have a different number of tires in order for ANOVA to be used on the data. Statisticians delight in this fact by referring to this characteristic by stating that: “ANOVA is a very robust test.” (Statisticians love that term!)

TIRE MILEAGE TEST		
(Data are in thousands of miles)		
Brand A (1000 miles)	Brand B (1000 miles)	Brand C (1000 miles)
62	61	65
61	62	67
62	63	71
64	60	66
61	64	65
	59	64
	62	
	63	
	62	
	63	

Fig. 8.1 Worksheet Data for Tire Mileage Test (Practical Example)

Create an Excel spreadsheet for these data in this way:

- A4: TIRE MILEAGE TEST
- A6: (Data are in thousands of miles)
- B8: Brand A
- C8: Brand B
- D8: Brand C
- B9: 62

Enter the other information into your spreadsheet table. When you have finished entering these data, the last cell on the left should have 61 in cell B13, and the last cell on the right should have 64 in cell D14. Center the numbers in each of the columns. Use number format (zero decimals) for all numbers.

Important note: Be sure to double-check all of your figures in the table to make sure that they are exactly correct or you will not be able to obtain the correct answer for this problem!

Save this file as: TIRE6

8.1 Using Excel to Perform a One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Objective: To use Excel to perform a one-way ANOVA test.

You are now ready to perform an ANOVA test on these data using the following steps:

Data (at top of screen)

Data Analysis (far right at top of screen)

Anova: Single Factor (*scroll up to this formula and highlight it; see Fig. 8.2*)

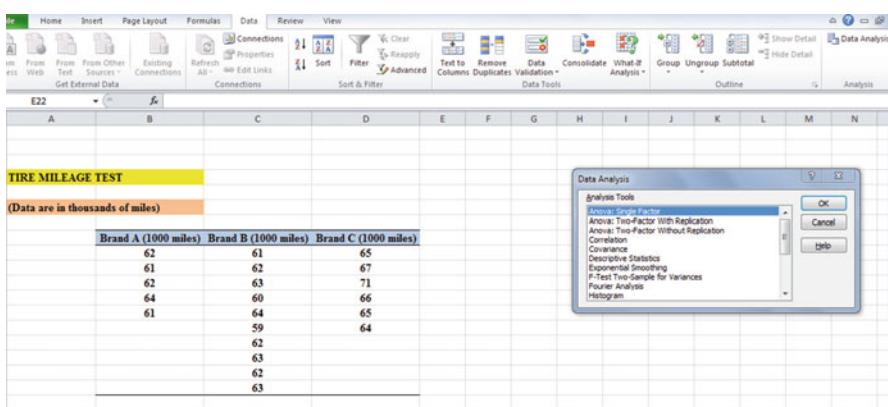


Fig. 8.2 Dialog Box for Data Analysis: Anova Single Factor

OK

Input range: B8:D18 (note that you have included in this range the column titles that are in row 8)

Important note: Whenever the data set has a different sample size in the groups being compared, the INPUT RANGE that you define must start at the column title of the first group on the left and go to the last column on the right to the lowest row that has a figure in it in the entire data matrix so that the INPUT RANGE has the “shape” of a rectangle when you highlight it. Since Brand B has 63 in cell C18, your “rectangle” must include row 18!

Grouped by: Columns

Put a check mark in: Labels in First Row

Output range (click on the button to its left): A20 (see Fig. 8.3)

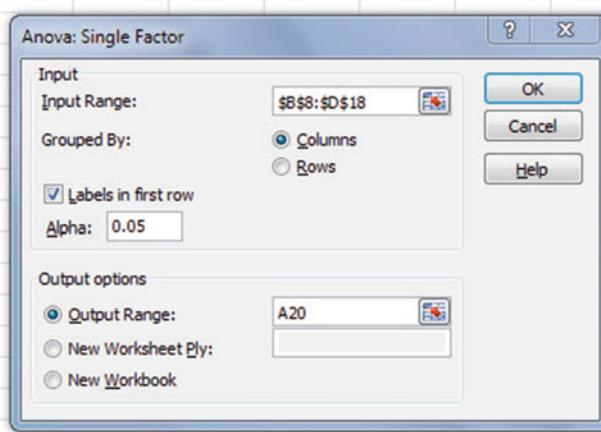


Fig. 8.3 Dialog Box for Anova: Single Factor Input/Output Range

OK

Center all of the numbers in the ANOVA table, and round off all numbers that are decimals to two decimal places.

Save this file as: TIRE6A

You should have generated the table given in Fig. 8.4.

TIRE MILEAGE TEST				
(Data are in thousands of miles)				
	Brand A (1000 miles)	Brand B (1000 miles)	Brand C (1000 miles)	
	62	61	65	
	61	62	67	
	62	63	71	
	64	60	66	
	61	64	65	
	59		64	
	62			
	63			
	62			
	63			

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
Brand A	5	310	62.00	1.50		
Brand B	10	619	61.90	2.32		
Brand C	6	398	66.33	6.27		

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	83.00	2	41.50	12.83	0.00	3.55
Within Groups	58.23	18	3.24			
Total	141.24	20				

Fig. 8.4 ANOVA Results for Tire Mileage Test

Print out both the data table and the ANOVA summary table so that all of this information fits onto one page. (Hint: Set the Page Layout/Fit to Scale to 85 % size).

As a check on your analysis, you should have the following in these cells:

A20: Anova: Single Factor

D24: 62.00

D31: 41.50

E31: 12.83

G31: 3.55

Now, let's discuss how you should interpret this table:

8.2 How to Interpret the ANOVA Table Correctly

Objective: To interpret the ANOVA table correctly

ANOVA allows you to test for the differences between means when you have three or more groups of data. This ANOVA test is called the F-test statistic, and is typically identified with the letter: F.

The formula for the F-test is this:

$F = \text{Mean Square between groups (MS}_b\text{)} \text{ divided by Mean Square within groups (MS}_w\text{)}$

$$F = MS_b/MS_w \quad (8.1)$$

The derivation and explanation of this formula is beyond the scope of this *Excel Guide*. In this *Excel Guide*, we are attempting to teach you *how to use Excel*, and we are not attempting to teach you the statistical theory that is behind the ANOVA formulas. For a detailed explanation of ANOVA, see Hibbert and Gooding (2006) and Black (2010).

Note that cell D31 contains $MS_b = 41.50$, while cell D32 contains $MS_w = 3.24$.

When you divide these two figures using their cell references in Excel, you get the answer for the F-test of 12.83 which is in cell E31. (Remember, Excel is more accurate than your calculator!) Let's discuss now the meaning of the figure: $F = 12.83$.

In order to determine whether this figure for F of 12.83 indicates a significant difference between the means of the three groups, the first step is to write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the three brands of tires.

In our statistics mileage comparisons, the null hypothesis states that the population means of the three groups are equal, while the research hypothesis states that the population means of the three groups are not equal and that there is, therefore, a significant difference between the population means of the three groups. Which of these two hypotheses should you accept based on the ANOVA results?

8.3 Using the Decision Rule for the ANOVA F-test

To state the hypotheses, let's call Brand A as Group 1, Brand B as Group 2, and Brand C as Group 3. The hypotheses would then be:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0: \mu_1 &= \mu_2 = \mu_3 \\ H_1: \mu_1 &\neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \end{aligned}$$

The answer to this question is analogous to the decision rule used in this book for both the one-group t-test and the two-group t-test. You will recall that this rule (see Sects. 4.1.6 and 5.1.8) was:

If the absolute value of t is less than the critical t , you accept the null hypothesis.

or

If the absolute value of t is greater than the critical t , you reject the null hypothesis, and accept the research hypothesis.

Now, here is the decision rule for ANOVA:

Objective: To learn the decision rule for the ANOVA F-test

The decision rule for the ANOVA F-test is the following:

If the value for F is less than the critical F -value, accept the null hypothesis.

or

If the value of F is greater than the critical F -value, reject the null hypothesis, and accept the research hypothesis.

Note that Excel tells you the critical F-value in cell G31: 3.55

Therefore, our decision rule for the tire mileage AVOVA test is this:

Since the value of F of 12.83 is greater than the critical F -value of 3.55, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Therefore, our conclusion, in plain English, is:

There was a significant difference between the number of miles driven between the three brands of tires.

Note that it is not necessary to take the absolute value of F of 12.83. The F -value can never be less than one, and so it can never be a negative value which requires us to take its absolute value in order to treat it as a positive value.

It is important to note that ANOVA tells us that there was a significant difference between the population means of the three groups, *but it does not tell us which pairs of groups were significantly different from each other.*

8.4 Testing the Difference Between Two Groups Using the ANOVA t-test

To answer that question, we need to do a different test called the ANOVA t-test.

Objective: To test the difference between the means of two groups using an ANOVA t-test when the ANOVA F-test results indicate a significant difference between the population means.

Since we have three groups of data (one group for each of the three brands of tires), we would have to perform three separate ANOVA t-tests to determine which pairs of groups were significantly different. This requires that we would have to perform a separate ANOVA t-test for the following pairs of groups:

1. Brand A vs. Brand B
2. Brand A vs. Brand C
3. Brand B vs. Brand C

We will do just one of these pairs of tests, Brand A vs. Brand C, to illustrate the way to perform an ANOVA t-test comparing these two brands of tires. The ANOVA t-test for the other two pairs of groups would be done in the same way.

8.4.1 Comparing Brand A vs. Brand C in Miles Driven Using the ANOVA t-test

Objective: To compare Brand A vs. Brand C in miles driven using the ANOVA t-test.

The first step is to write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for these two brands of tires.

For the ANOVA t-test, the null hypothesis is that the population means of the two groups are equal, while the research hypothesis is that the population means of the two groups are not equal (i.e., there is a significant difference between these two means). Since we are comparing Brand A (Group 1) vs. Brand C (Group 3), these hypotheses would be:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0: \mu_1 &= \mu_3 \\ H_1: \mu_1 &\neq \mu_3 \end{aligned}$$

For Group 1 vs. Group 3, the formula for the ANOVA t-test is:

$$ANOVA\ t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s.e.\cdot ANOVA} \quad (8.2)$$

where

$$s.e.\cdot ANOVA = \sqrt{MS_w \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)} \quad (8.3)$$

The steps involved in computing this ANOVA t-test are:

1. Find the difference of the sample means for the two groups ($62 - 66.33 = -4.33$).

2. Find $1/n_1 + 1/n_3$ (since both groups have a different number of tires in them, this becomes: $1/5 + 1/6 = 0.20 + 0.17 = 0.37$)
3. Multiply MS_w times the answer for step 2 ($3.24 \times 0.37 = 1.20$)
4. Take the square root of step 3 ($\text{SQRT}(1.20) = 1.09$)
5. Divide Step 1 by Step 4 to find ANOVA t ($-4.33/1.09 = -3.97$)

Note: Since Excel computes all calculations to 16 decimal places, when you use Excel for the above computations, your answer will be -3.98 in two decimal places, but Excel's answer will be much more accurate because it is always in 16 decimal places in its computations.

Now, what do we do with this ANOVA t-test result of -3.97 ? In order to interpret this value of -3.97 correctly, we need to determine the critical value of t for the ANOVA t-test. To do that, we need to find the degrees of freedom for the ANOVA t-test as follows:

8.4.1.1 Finding the Degrees of Freedom for the ANOVA t-test

Objective: To find the degrees of freedom for the ANOVA t-test.

The degrees of freedom (df) for the ANOVA t-test is found as follows:

$df =$ take the total sample size of all of the groups and subtract the number of groups in your study ($n_{\text{TOTAL}} - k$ where $k =$ the number of groups)

In our example, the total sample size of the three groups is 21 since there are 5 tires in Group 1, 10 tires in Group 2, and 6 tires in Group 3, and since there are three groups, $21 - 3$ gives a degrees of freedom for the ANOVA t-test of 18.

If you look up $df = 18$ in the t-table in Appendix E in the degrees of freedom column (df), which is the *second column on the left of this table*, you will find that the critical t-value is 2.101.

Important note: Be sure to use the degrees of freedom column (df) in Appendix E for the ANOVA t-test critical t value

8.4.1.2 Stating the Decision Rule for the ANOVA t-test

Objective: To learn the decision rule for the ANOVA t-test

Interpreting the result of the ANOVA t-test follows the same decision rule that we used for both the one-group t-test (see Sect. 4.1.6) and the two-group t-test (see Sect. 5.1.8):

If the absolute value of t is less than the critical value of t, we accept the null hypothesis.

or

If the absolute value of t is greater than the critical value of t, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.

Since we are using a type of t-test, we need to take the absolute value of t. Since the absolute value of -3.98 is greater than the critical t-value of 2.101 , we reject the null hypothesis (that the population means of the two groups are equal) and accept the research hypothesis (that the population means of the two groups are significantly different from one another).

This means that our conclusion, in plain English, is as follows:

The average tire mileage for Brand C was significantly greater than the average tire mileage for Brand A (66,000 vs. 62,000).

Note that this difference in average tire mileage of about 4,000 miles between Brand A and Brand C might not seem like much, but in practical terms, this means that the average miles driven for Brand C were 7 % higher than the average miles driven for Brand A. This, clearly, is an important difference in miles driven based on our hypothetical data.

8.4.1.3 Performing an ANOVA t-test Using Excel Commands

Now, let's do these calculations for the ANOVA t-test using Excel with the file you created earlier in this chapter: TIRE6A

- A37: Brand A vs. Brand C
- A39: $1/5 + 1/6$
- A41: s.e. ANOVA
- A43: ANOVA t-test
- B39: $=(1/5 + 1/6)$
- B41: $=\text{SQRT}(D32*B39)$
- B43: $=(D24 - D26)/B41$

You should now have the following results in these cells when you round off all these figures in the ANOVA t-test to two decimal points.:

- B39: 0.37
- B41: 1.09
- B43: -3.98

Save this final result under the file name: TIRE7

Print out the resulting spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page like Fig. 8.5 (Hint: Reduce the Page Layout/Scale to Fit to 85 %).

TIRE MILEAGE TEST			
(Data are in thousands of miles)			
Brand A (1000 miles)	Brand B (1000 miles)	Brand C (1000 miles)	
62	61	65	
61	62	67	
62	63	71	
64	60	66	
61	64	65	
	59	64	
	62		
	63		
	62		
	63		

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
Brand A	5	310	62.00	1.50		
Brand B	10	619	61.90	2.32		
Brand C	6	398	66.33	6.27		

ANOVA						
source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	83.00	2	41.50	12.83	0.0003	3.55
Within Groups	58.23	18	3.24			
Total	141.24	20				

Brand A vs. Brand C	
1/5 + 1 /6	0.37
s.e. ANOVA	1.09
ANOVA t-test	-3.98

Fig. 8.5 Final Spreadsheet of Tire Mileage for Brand A vs. Brand C

For a more detailed explanation of the ANOVA t-test, see Black (2010).

Important note: You are only allowed to perform an ANOVA t-test comparing the means of two groups when the F-test produces a significant difference between the means of all of the groups in your study.

It is improper to do any ANOVA t-test when the value of F is less than the critical value of F. Whenever F is less than the critical F, this means that there was no difference between the means of the

groups, and, therefore, that you cannot test to see if there is a difference between the means of any two groups since this would capitalize on chance differences between these two groups. For more information on this important point, see Gould and Gould (2002).

8.5 End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

1. Let's suppose that an undergraduate Electrical Engineering 101 course at Missouri University of Science and Technology was taught for the spring semester in three different formats: (1) Computer-assisted Instruction (CAI), (2) In-class lectures (LECTURES), and (3) independent study in an online version (INDEPENDENT). Suppose, further, that all students took the same comprehensive final examination (100 points possible).

You have been asked to analyze the data from the final examinations to determine if there was any significant difference in final exam scores between the three types of teaching methods. To test your Excel skills, you have selected a random sample of students from each of these methods (see Fig. 8.6). Note that each group of students can be of a different number of students in order for ANOVA to be used on the data. Statisticians delight in this fact by referring to this characteristic by stating that: "ANOVA is a very robust test." (Statisticians love that term!)

MISSOURI UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY		
UNDERGRADUATE ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING 101 COURSE: FINAL EXAM		
CAI	LECTURES	INDEPENDENT
90	85	76
85	89	80
74	83	90
89	79	84
84	74	78
95	75	65
92	86	42
65	87	58
75	86	63
73	88	75
54		66
71		

Fig. 8.6 Worksheet Data for Chap. 8: Practice Problem #1

- (a) Enter these data on an Excel spreadsheet.
- (b) Perform a *one-way ANOVA test* on these data, and show the resulting ANOVA table *underneath* the input data for the three teaching formats.
- (c) If the F-value in the ANOVA table is significant, create an Excel formula to compute the ANOVA t-test comparing the average for LECTURES against INDEPENDENT STUDY and show the results below the ANOVA table on the spreadsheet (put the standard error and the ANOVA t-test value on separate lines of your spreadsheet, and use two decimal places for each value)
- (d) Print out the resulting spreadsheet so that all of the information fits onto one page
- (e) Save the spreadsheet as: STATS8

Now, write the answers to the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What are the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA F-test?
2. What is MS_b on your Excel printout?
3. What is MS_w on your Excel printout?
4. Compute $F = MS_b/MS_w$ using your calculator.
5. What is the critical value of F on your Excel printout?
6. What is the result of the ANOVA F-test?
7. What is the conclusion of the ANOVA F-test in plain English?
8. If the ANOVA F-test produced a significant difference between the three types of teaching formats in final examination performance, what is the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY?
9. What is the mean (average) for LECTURES on your Excel printout?
10. What is the mean (average) for INDEPENDENT STUDY on your Excel printout?
11. What are the degrees of freedom (df) for the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY?
12. What is the critical t value for this ANOVA t-test in Appendix E for these degrees of freedom?
13. Compute the $s.e._{ANOVA}$ using your calculator.
14. Compute the ANOVA t-test value comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY using your calculator.
15. What is the result of the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY?
16. What is the conclusion of the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY in plain English?

Note: Since there are three types of teaching formats, you need to do three ANOVA t-tests to determine what the significant differences are between the three types of teaching methods. *Since you have just completed the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus INDEPENDENT STUDY,*

you would also need to do the ANOVA t-test comparing LECTURES versus CAI, and also the ANOVA t-test comparing CAI versus INDEPENDENT STUDY in order to write a conclusion summarizing these three types of ANOVA t-tests.

2. Small differences in horsepower output by race car engines can mean the difference between winning and losing professional races. Suppose that you have been hired by a sponsor to develop a new type of fuel injection system for its engine in order to increase the horsepower of the engine. You have worked with different engineers and developed four prototypes of fuel injectors. Let's call the different fuel injectors: A, B, C, and D. The four types of fuel injectors have been placed on several engines to test their horsepower output. You decide to take a random sample of horsepower output readings from the different engines to test your Excel skills, and the hypothetical data are given in Fig. 8.7.

HORSEPOWER OUTPUT WITH PROTOTYPE FUEL INJECTOR			
FUEL INJECTOR A	FUEL INJECTOR B	FUEL INJECTOR C	FUEL INJECTOR D
550	550	555	555
600	560	565	570
650	580	575	580
625	600	580	575
620	610	590	585
670	630	625	590
680	660	640	610
700	670	665	630
725	690	680	625
710		690	645
		695	690
			680

Fig. 8.7 Worksheet Data for Chap. 8: Practice Problem #2

- (a) Enter these data on an Excel spreadsheet.
- (b) Perform a *one-way ANOVA test* on these data, and show the resulting ANOVA table *underneath* the input data for the four types of fuel injectors. Round off all decimal figures to two decimal places, and center all numbers in the ANOVA table.
- (c) If the F-value in the ANOVA table is significant, create an Excel formula to compute the ANOVA t-test comparing the horsepower output for FUEL INJECTOR A against the horsepower output for FUEL INJECTOR C, and show the results below the ANOVA table on the spreadsheet (put the standard error and the ANOVA t-test value on separate lines of your spreadsheet, and use two decimal places for each value)

- (d) Print out the resulting spreadsheet so that all of the information fits onto one page
- (e) Save the spreadsheet as: FUEL3

Now, write the answers to the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What are the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA F-test?
2. What is MS_b on your Excel printout?
3. What is MS_w on your Excel printout?
4. Compute $F = MS_b/MS_w$ using your calculator.
5. What is the critical value of F on your Excel printout?
6. What is the result of the ANOVA F-test?
7. What is the conclusion of the ANOVA F-test in plain English?
8. If the ANOVA F-test produced a significant difference between the four types of fuel injectors in their horsepower output, what is the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA t-test comparing FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C?
9. What is the mean (average) horsepower for FUEL INJECTOR A on your Excel printout?
10. What is the mean (average) horsepower for FUEL INJECTOR C on your Excel printout?
11. What are the degrees of freedom (df) for the ANOVA t-test comparing FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C?
12. What is the critical t value for this ANOVA t-test in Appendix E for these degrees of freedom?
13. Compute the $s.e._{ANOVA}$ using Excel for FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C.
14. Compute the ANOVA t-test value comparing FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C using Excel.
15. What is the result of the ANOVA t-test comparing FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C?
16. What is the conclusion of the ANOVA t-test comparing FUEL INJECTOR A versus FUEL INJECTOR C in plain English?
3. Suppose that you were working as a research scientist and that you wanted to do a research study comparing the highway miles per gallon (mpg) for five types of vehicles: (1) SUBCOMPACTS, (2) COMPACTS, (3) MID-SIZE, (4) LARGE, and (5) SUVs. You want to answer the research question: Is the size of the vehicle related to gasoline usage? You have obtained the cooperation of the owners of each type of vehicle who agree to keep track of their highway mileage over a pre-determined route for three tanks of gasoline. The hypothetical data for this study are given in Fig. 8.8.

HIGHWAY MILES PER GALLON (mpg) COMPARISON OF FIVE TYPES OF CARS				
1	2	3	4	5
SUBCOMPACTS (mpg)	COMPACTS (mpg)	MID-SIZE (mpg)	LARGE (mpg)	SUVs (mpg)
28.1	26.2	24.0	22.0	18.1
30.2	28.3	26.3	23.1	20.2
29.3	29.3	25.2	25.4	22.3
31.6	27.0	27.1	24.3	21.4
33.0	28.0	28.0	25.0	20.5
34.3	29.5	23.6	24.7	19.0
32.1	31.0	29.2	23.1	18.2
35.0	32.3		22.4	19.1
	33.1		26.0	
			21.3	

Fig. 8.8 Worksheet Data for Chap. 8: Practice Problem #3

- Enter these data on an Excel spreadsheet.
- Perform a *one-way ANOVA test* on these data, and show the resulting ANOVA table *underneath* the input data for the five types of vehicles.
- If the F-value in the ANOVA table is significant, create an Excel formula to compute the ANOVA t-test comparing the average mpg for COMPACTS against the average mpg for LARGE, and show the results below the ANOVA table on the spreadsheet (put the standard error and the ANOVA t-test value on separate lines of your spreadsheet, and use two decimal places for each value)
- Print out the resulting spreadsheet so that all of the information fits onto one page
- Save the spreadsheet as: CARS3

Now, write the answers to the following questions using your Excel printout:

- What are the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA F-test?
- What is MS_b on your Excel printout?
- What is MS_w on your Excel printout?
- Compute $F = MS_b/MS_w$ using your calculator.
- What is the critical value of F on your Excel printout?
- What is the result of the ANOVA F-test?
- What is the conclusion of the ANOVA F-test in plain English?
- If the ANOVA F-test produced a significant difference between the five types of vehicles in their mpg, what is the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for the ANOVA t-test comparing COMPACTS versus LARGE?
- What is the mean (average) mpg for COMPACTS on your Excel printout?
- What is the mean (average) mpg for LARGE on your Excel printout?

11. What are the degrees of freedom (df) for the ANOVA t-test comparing COMPACTS versus LARGE?
12. What is the critical t value for this ANOVA t-test in Appendix E for these degrees of freedom?
13. Compute the s.e._{ANOVA} using your calculator for COMPACTS versus LARGE.
14. Compute the ANOVA t-test value comparing COMPACTS versus LARGE using your calculator.
15. What is the result of the ANOVA t-test comparing COMPACTS versus LARGE?
16. What is the conclusion of the ANOVA t-test comparing COMPACTS versus LARGE in plain English?

References

- Black K. Business statistics: for contemporary decision making. 6th ed. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; 2010.
- Gould J, Gould G. Biostats basics: a student handbook. New York: W.H. Freeman and Company; 2002.
- Hibbert D, Gooding J. Data analysis for chemistry: an introductory guide for students and laboratory scientists. New York: Oxford University Press; 2006.

Appendices

Appendix A: Answers to End-of-Chapter Practice Problems

Chapter 1: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.1)

IRON ORE (LIMONITE) SAMPLES		
Percent (%) iron		
18.24		
18.29	n	13
18.26		
18.28		
18.30	Mean	18.27
18.24		
18.26		
18.25	STDEV	0.02
18.28		
18.29		
18.30	s.e.	0.01
18.24		
18.26		

Fig. A.1 Answer to Chap. 1: Practice Problem #1***Chapter 1: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.2)***

LEAD CONCENTRATION IN AIR SAMPLES TAKEN NEAR SAN FRANCISCO		
Micrograms per cubic meter ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)		
3.1		
10.1	n	14
6.7		
8.9		
5.6	Mean	7.44
6.4		
4.8		
10.2	STDEV	2.25
9.8		
8.4		
7.5	s.e.	0.60
9.4		
8.5		
4.8		

Fig. A.2 Answer to Chap. 1: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 1: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.3)

SILVER ORE SAMPLES		
PERCENT (%) SILVER		
12		
15	n	16
13		
8		
10	Mean	11.750
12		
13		
12	STDEV	2.910
9		
4		
11	s.e.	0.727
15		
13		
15		
12		
14		

Fig. A.3 Answer to Chap. 1: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 2: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.4)

Fig. A.4 Answer to
Chap. 2: Practice
Problem #1

FRAME NUMBERS	Duplicate frame numbers	RANDOM NO.
1	7	0.701
2	50	0.491
3	23	0.845
4	13	0.908
5	6	0.000
6	14	0.863
7	60	0.490
8	37	0.404
9	61	0.381
10	33	0.167
11	43	0.455
12	4	0.229
13	8	0.413
14	5	0.408
15	59	0.514
16	39	0.092
17	63	0.119
18	35	0.286
19	49	0.929
20	1	0.098
21	57	0.981
22	12	0.475
23		

	J	0.b.
56	19	0.585
57	45	0.698
58	21	0.337
59	38	0.709
60	17	0.690
61	11	0.787
62	42	0.358
63	54	0.629

Chapter 2: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.5)

Fig. A.5 Answer to
Chap. 2: Practice
Problem #2

FRAME NO.	Duplicate frame no.	Random number
1	58	0.492
2	50	0.219
3	43	0.798
4	42	0.442
5	86	0.169
6	24	0.948
7	22	0.428
8	11	0.473
9	104	0.222
10	105	0.104
11	61	0.672
12	41	0.251
13	79	0.664
14	93	0.181
15	85	0.370
16	54	0.706
17	16	0.131
18	77	0.322
19	15	0.917
20	112	0.156
21	28	0.920
22	102	0.118
	107	

5.		0.500
99	40	0.622
100	96	0.274
101	48	0.002
102	108	0.397
103	109	0.182
104	33	0.945
105	3	0.735
106	90	0.145
107	110	0.305
108	62	0.903
109	88	0.380
110	60	0.998
111	98	0.371
112	94	0.542
113	59	0.248
114	67	0.364

Chapter 2: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.6)

FRAME NUMBERS	Duplicate frame numbers	Random number
1	58	0.819
2	7	0.028
3	37	0.488
4	49	0.399
5	26	0.482
6	65	0.633
7	48	0.402
8	63	0.944
9	15	0.027
10	25	0.854
11	21	0.906
12	36	0.531
13	43	0.212
14	11	0.107
15	10	0.133
16	39	0.472
17	72	0.793
18	59	0.643
19	16	0.151
20	54	0.995
21	52	0.763
22	3	0.783
23	45	0.502
24		15
70	57	0.786
71	60	0.526
72	9	0.804
73	20	0.239
74	18	0.087
75	5	0.214

Fig. A.6 Answer to Chap. 2: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 3: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.7)

EXPECTED LIFETIME OF A NEW TYPE OF PASSENGER CAR TIRE				
Research question: "Does this new type of synthetic tire have an expected lifetime of 40,000 miles?"				
LIFETIME IN MILES				
38,400	Null hypothesis:	μ	= 40,000 miles	
39,500				
39,400				
42,300				
46,700	Research hypothesis:	μ	\neq 40,000 miles	
45,800				
44,300				
38,600	n		15	
42,500				
41,600	Mean		41020.00	
40,200				
38,600	STDEV		2785.47	
37,900				
38,900	s.e.		719.21	
40,600				
95% confidence interval				
	lower limit		39477.46	
	upper limit		42562.54	
	39477	-----40000	---41020---	-----42563
	lower limit	Ref. Value	Mean	upper limit
Result:	Since the reference value is inside the confidence interval, we accept the null hypothesis.			
Conclusion:	This new type of synthetic passenger car tire does have an expected lifetime of 40,000 miles.			

Fig. A.7 Answer to Chap. 3: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 3: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.8)

EXPECTED LIFETIME OF A NEW TYPE OF LIGHT BULB				
Research question: "Does this new type of light bulb have an expected lifetime of 1300 hours?"				
LIFETIME IN HOURS				
1252.3	Null hypothesis:	μ	=	1300 hours
1310.6	Research hypothesis:	μ	\neq	1300 hours
1264.1				
1244.2				
1282.8				
1308.4	n	16		
1319.4				
1277.4	Mean	1283.4		
1289.7				
1292.3	STDEV	22.4		
1256.2				
1288.4	s.e.	5.6		
1279.9				
1264.7				
1305.8	95% confidence interval			
1297.5				
	lower limit	1271.4		
	upper limit	1295.3		
1271.4	-----	1283.4	-----	1295.3 ----- 1300 -----
lower limit	Mean		upper limit	Ref. Value
Result:	Since the reference value is outside of the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.			
Conclusion:	The new type of light bulb lasts significantly less than 1300 hours, and it is probably closer to 1283 hours.			

Fig. A.8 Answer to Chap. 3: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 3: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.9)

WELCH'S 100% GRAPE JUICE				
Research question:	"Does the average can of Welch's 100% grape juice produced today contain 163 ml of grape juice?"			
ml		Null hypothesis:	μ	= 163 ml
165				
158				
163		Research hypothesis:	μ	\neq 163 ml
159				
154				
157	n		13	
159				
161	Mean		159.62	
164				
154	STDEV		3.59	
157				
161	s.e.		1.00	
163				
95% confidence interval				
		lower limit	157.44	
		upper limit	161.79	
157.44	-----	159.62	-----	-----
lower limit	Mean		upper limit	Ref Value
				163
Result:	Since the reference value is outside of the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.			
Conclusion:	Cans of 100% grape juice produced today contained significantly less than 163 ml, and it was probably closer to 160 ml.			

Fig. A.9 Answer to Chap. 3: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 4: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.10)

PHOSPORUS CONCENTRATION (mg/L) IN WASTE WATER EFFLUENT			
CONCENTRATION (mg/L)			
0.0142	Null hypothesis:	μ	= 0.015 mg/L
0.0135	Research hypothesis:	μ	\neq 0.015 mg/L
0.0138	n	15	
0.0136	Mean	0.0137	
0.0137	STDEV	0.0003	
0.0135	s.e.	0.0001	
0.0141			
0.0140			
0.0138			
0.0134			
0.0135			
0.0137			
0.0142			
0.0132			
0.0133			
	critical t	2.145	
	t-test	-15.92	
Result:	Since the absolute value of -15.92 is greater than the critical t of 2.145, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion:	There was significantly less total phosphorus concentration in the waste water effluent produced by the chemical plant than the chemical standard of 0.015 mg/L, and it was probably closer to 0.0137 mg/L.		

Fig. A.10 Answer to Chap. 4: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 4: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.11)

WASTE GARBAGE COLLECTED IN HOUSEHOLDS		
Central West End, St. Louis, Missouri (USA)		
WEEKLY GARBAGE COLLECTION (kg)		
18		
21		
20	Null hypothesis:	$\mu = 26 \text{ kg/wk}$
19		
21	Research hypothesis:	$\mu \neq 26 \text{ kg/wk}$
23		
22		
24	n	26
18		
17		
19	Mean	21.42
20		
21		
24	STDEV	2.72
26		
21		
18	s.e.	0.53
25		
19		
26	critical t	2.060
21		
23		
22	t-test	-8.59
24		
26		
19		
Result: since the absolute value of -8.59 is greater than the critical t of 2.060, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion: There was significantly less garbage collected per week after the recycling program continued for 26 weeks than before the recycling program was initiated, and it was probably closer to 21 kg per week, down from 26 kg/week before the recycling program was initiated.		

Fig. A.11 Answer to Chap. 4: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 4: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.12)

Research question:	Is this sample of minerals "pure silver"?		Null hypothesis:	$\mu = 10.49 \text{ g/cm}^3$
	DENSITY (g/cm^3)	n	17	Research hypothesis: $\mu \neq 10.49 \text{ g/cm}^3$
10.38				
10.41				
10.39				
10.42	Mean	10.44		
10.44				
10.46				
10.45	STDEV	0.04		
10.47				
10.48				
10.49	s.e.	0.01		
10.51				
10.52				
10.37	critical t	2.120		
10.41				
10.45				
10.43	t	-4.21		
10.48				
Result: Since the absolute value of -4.21 is greater than the critical value of t of 2.120, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.				
Conclusion: The observed density of the substance tested was significantly less than the known density of silver, and was probably closer to 10.44 g/cm^3 . Therefore, the tested substance was not pure silver.				

Fig. A.12 Answer to Chap. 4: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 5: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.13)

LEAD WIRES: CURRENT WIRES VS. NEW WIRES			
Number of Misfeeding Wires Per Hour			
Group	n	Mean	STDEV
1 Current wires	112	21.1	3.24
2 New wires	126	19.6	3.06
Null hypothesis:	μ_1	=	μ_2
Research hypothesis:	μ_1	\neq	μ_2
STDEV1 squared / n1		0.094	
STDEV2 squared / n2		0.074	
B17+B19		0.168	
s.e.		0.410	
critical t		1.960	
t-test		3.659	
Result:	Since the absolute value of 3.659 is greater than the critical t of 1.960, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion:	The new wires had significantly fewer misfeeds per hour than the current wires (19.6 vs. 21.1)		

Fig. A.13 Answer to Chap. 5: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 5: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.14)

GPA OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING MAJORS WHO HAVE COMPLETED ALL REQUIRED ENGINEERING COURSES			
MEN	WOMEN		
2.45	2.83		
2.53	2.74	Group	n
2.64	2.86	1 Men	17
2.72	3.32	2 Women	15
2.85	3.36		
2.96	3.64	Null hypothesis:	$\mu_1 = \mu_2$
3.01	3.56		
3.11	3.56	Research hypothesis:	$\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$
3.24	3.64		
3.35	3.37		
3.36	3.67	$(n_1 - 1) \times STDEV_1^2$	2.86
3.38	3.91		
3.21	3.92		
3.52	3.64	$(n_2 - 1) \times STDEV_2^2$	1.95
3.64	3.71		
3.75		$n_1 + n_2 - 2$	30
3.86			
		$1/(n_1 + 1/n_2)$	0.13
		s.e.	0.14
		critical t	2.042
		t-test	-2.09
Result:		Since the absolute value of -2.09 is greater than the critical t of 2.042, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.	
Conclusion:		Female chemical engineering majors who have completed all of the required engineering courses for the major had significantly higher GPAs than male chemical engineering majors who had completed all of the required engineering courses for the major (3.45 vs. 3.15).	

Fig. A.14 Answer to Chap. 5: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 5: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.15)

TENSILE STRENGTH OF TWO TYPES OF HIGH CARBON STEEL USED IN FISH HOOK MANUFACTURING				
PREMIERE (MPa)	STANDARD (MPa)	Group	n	Mean
761	740	1 PREMIERE	17	759.06
760	738	2 STANDARD	15	739.20
755	736			5.75
763	742			
765	747			
745	744	Null hypothesis:	μ_1	=
758	739			μ_2
761	730	Research hypothesis:	μ_1	\neq
763	737			μ_2
757	743			
750	741	(n1 - 1) x STDEV1 squared		482.94
759	738			
764	725	(n2 - 1) x STDEV2 squared		462.40
767	745			
762	743	n1 + n2 - 2		30
756				
758		1/n1 + 1/n2		0.13
		S.e.		1.99
		critical t		2.042
		t-test		9.99
Result:	Since the absolute value of 9.99 is greater than the critical t of 2.042, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.			
Conclusion:	The PREMIERE type of high carbon steel had significantly stronger tensile strength than the STANDARD type (759 MPa vs. 739 MPa).			

Fig. A.15 Answer to Chap. 5: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.16)

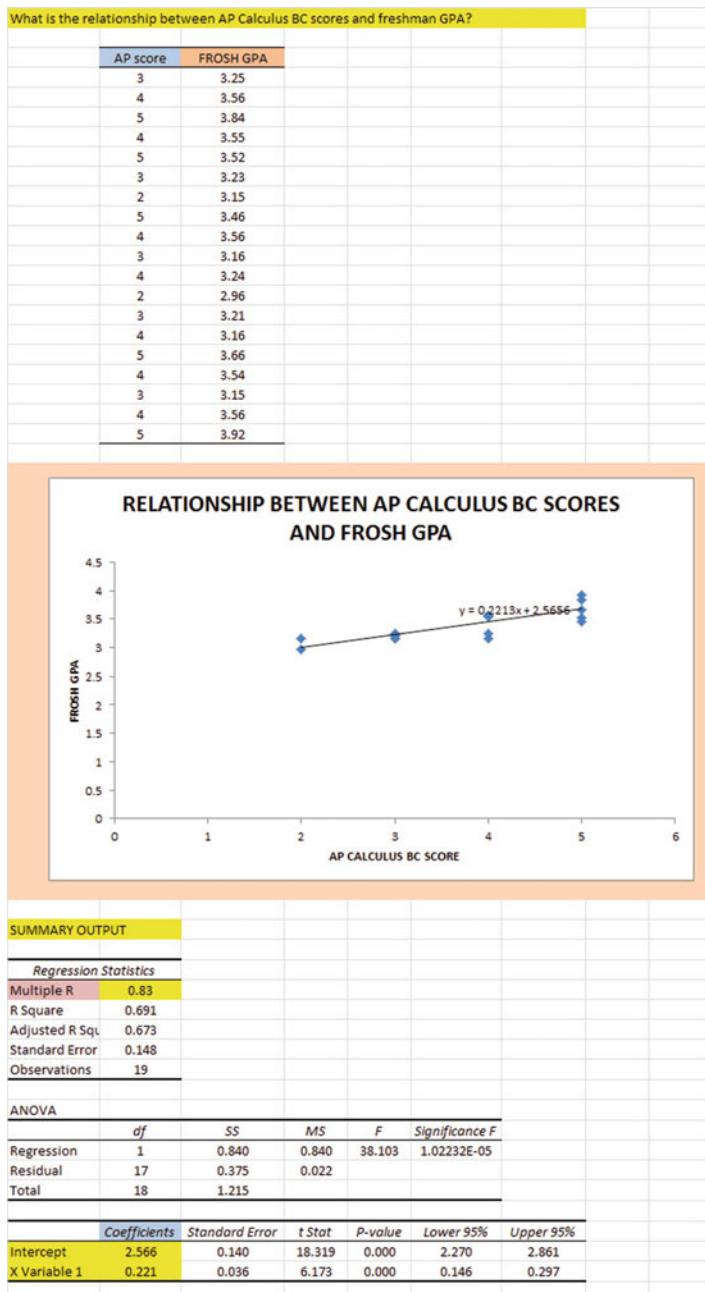


Fig. A.16 Answer to Chap. 6: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #1 (continued)

1. $r = +.83$
2. $a = y - \text{intercept} = + 2.566$
3. $b = \text{slope} = 0.221$
4. $Y = a + bX$
 $Y = 2.566 + 0.221 X$
5. $Y = 2.566 + 0.221 (4)$
 $Y = 2.566 + 0.884$
 $Y = 3.45$

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.17)

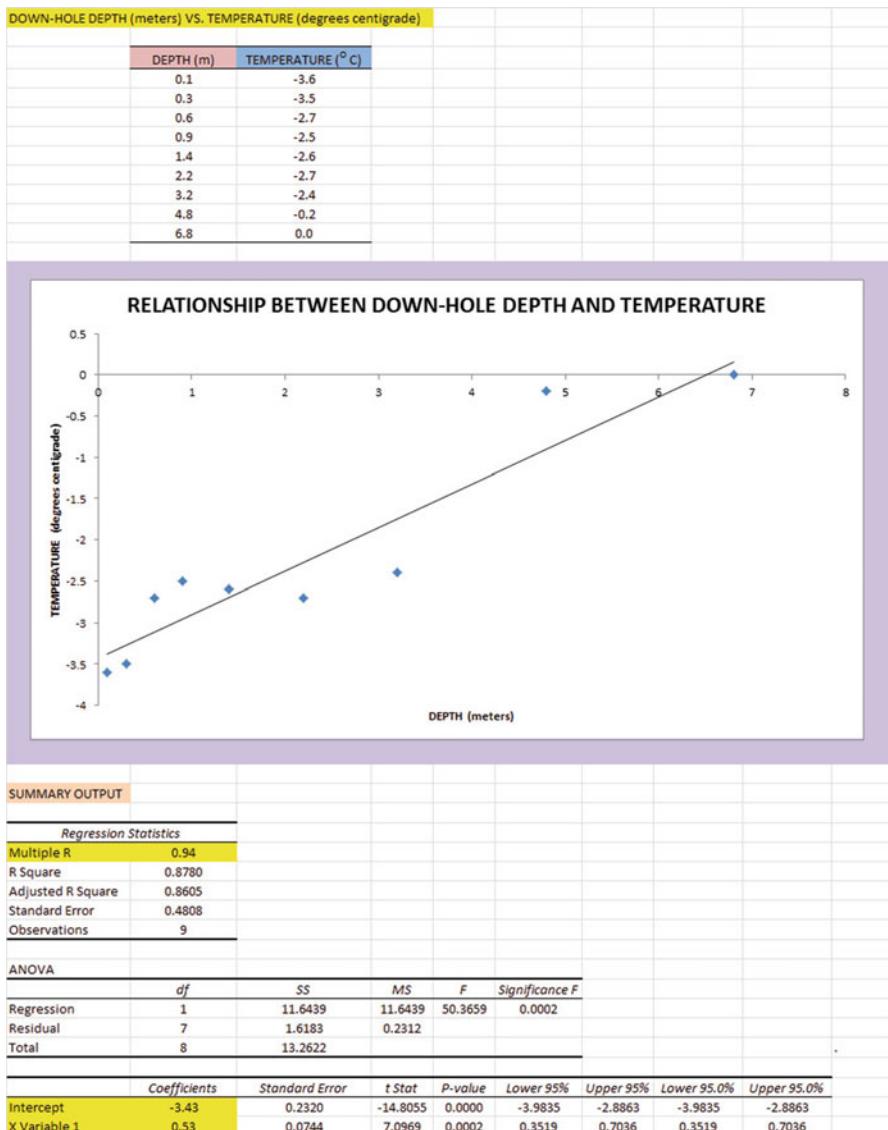


Fig. A.17 Answer to Chap. 6: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #2 (continued)

(2b) about – 1.9 degrees centigrade

1. $r = + .94$

2. $a = y\text{-intercept} = -3.43$

3. $b = \text{slope} = +0.53$

4. $Y = a + b X$

$$Y = -3.43 + 0.53 X$$

5. $Y = -3.43 + 0.53 (2)$

$$Y = -3.43 + 1.06$$

$$Y = -2.37 \text{ degrees centigrade}$$

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.18)

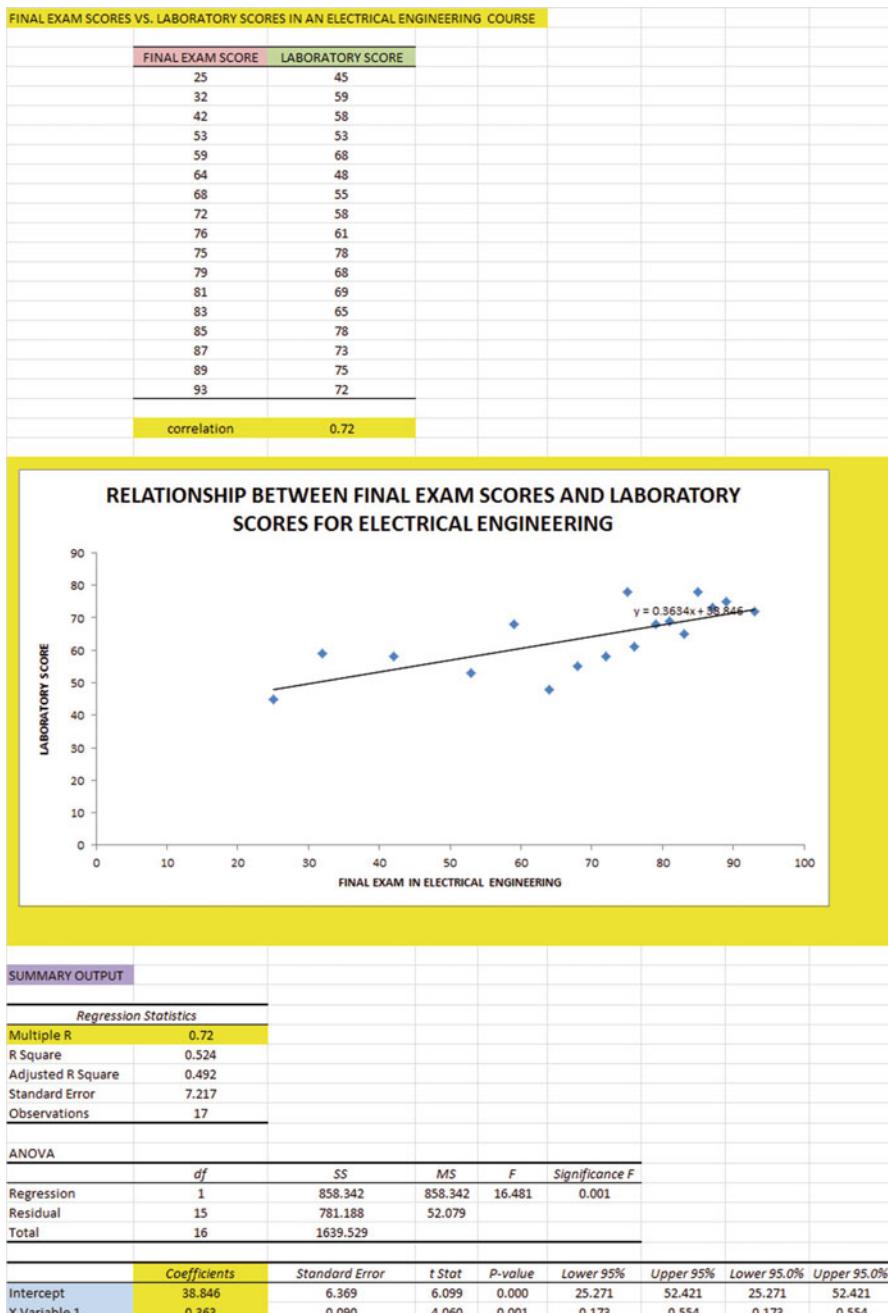


Fig. A.18 Answer to Chap. 6: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 6: Practice Problem #3 (continued)

1. $r = + .72$
2. $a = y - \text{intercept} = 38.846$
3. $b = \text{slope} = 0.363$
4. $Y = a + b X$

$$Y = 38.846 + 0.363 X$$
5. $Y = 38.846 + 0.363 (70)$

$$Y = 38.846 + 25.41$$

$$Y = 64.256$$

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.19)

GRADUATE RECORD EXAMINATIONS					
How well does the GRE and the GRE subject area test in Math predict GPA at the end of the first year of a Masters' program in Engineering?					
FIRST-YEAR GPA	GRE VERBAL	GRE QUANTITATIVE	GRE WRITING	GRE MATH	
3.25	160	161	5	650	
3.42	156	158	4	600	
2.85	156	157	2	500	
2.65	154	153	1	510	
3.65	166	166	6	630	
3.16	159	160	3	550	
3.56	166	163	4	610	
2.35	155	154	2	430	
2.86	153	154	3	450	
2.95	158	157	4	550	
3.15	158	159	4	580	
3.45	160	160	5	620	
SUMMARY OUTPUT					
Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0.93				
R Square	0.868				
Adjusted R Square	0.792				
Standard Error	0.178				
Observations	12				
ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	4	1.453	0.363	11.491	0.003
Residual	7	0.221	0.032		
Total	11	1.674			
	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%
Intercept	-5.2698	4.173	-1.263	0.247	-15.138
GRE VERBAL	-0.0174	0.041	-0.424	0.684	-0.115
GRE QUANTITATIVE	0.0614	0.057	1.070	0.320	-0.074
GRE WRITING	0.0332	0.075	0.444	0.670	-0.144
GRE MATH	0.0023	0.001	1.592	0.155	-0.001
	FIRST-YEAR GPA	GRE VERBAL	GRE QUANTITATIVE	GRE WRITING	GRE MATH
FIRST-YEAR GPA	1				
GRE VERBAL	0.79	1			
GRE QUANTITATIVE	0.88	0.94	1		
GRE WRITING	0.83	0.72	0.83	1	
GRE MATH	0.89	0.74	0.83	0.81	1

Fig. A.19 Answer to Chap. 7: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #1 (continued)

1. Multiple correlation = .93
2. y - intercept = - 5.2698
3. $b_1 = -0.0174$
4. $b_2 = 0.0614$
5. $b_3 = 0.0332$
6. $b_4 = 0.0023$
7. $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4$
 $Y = -5.2698 - 0.0174 X_1 + 0.0614 X_2 + 0.0332 X_3 + 0.0023 X_4$
8. $Y = -5.2698 - 0.0174 (150) + 0.0614 (160) + 0.0332 (3) + 0.0023 (610)$
 $Y = -5.2698 - 2.61 + 9.82 + 0.10 + 1.40$
 $Y = 11.32 - 7.88$
 $Y = 3.44$
9. 0.79
10. 0.88
11. 0.83
12. 0.89
13. 0.72
14. 0.74
15. The best predictor of first-year GPA was GRE Math ($r = .89$).
16. The four predictors combined predict first-year GPA at $R_{xy} = .93$, and this is somewhat better than the best single predictor by itself.

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.20)

STOPPING DISTANCE (feet)	ENFORCEMENT SPEED (mph)	WEIGHT (tons)
45	2.9	3300
65	2.6	3800
85	4.2	3600
95	7.2	3750
100	8.6	3850
125	4.6	3950
135	12.2	4320
165	13.2	3850
186	6.5	3600
286	11.1	4750
320	15.6	3850
586	20.1	5800
650	26.2	5500

SUMMARY OUTPUT					
Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0.95				
R Square	0.910				
Adjusted R Square	0.892				
Standard Error	63.973				
Observations	13				

ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	415594.879	207797.440	50.774	5.79013E-06
Residual	10	40925.890	4092.589		
Total	12	456520.769			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%
Intercept	-412.989	145.361	-2.841	0.018	-736.874
ENFORCEMENT SPEED (mph)	15.305	4.695	3.260	0.009	4.845
WEIGHT (tons)	0.114	0.044	2.594	0.027	0.016

STOPPING DISTANCE (feet)	ENFORCEMENT SPEED (mph)	WEIGHT (tons)
1		
0.92	1	
0.90	0.83	1

Fig. A.20 Answer to Chap. 7: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #2 (continued)

1. $R_{xy} = .95$

2. $a = y - \text{intercept} = -412.989$

3. $b_1 = 15.305$

4. $b_2 = 0.114$

5. $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$

$$Y = -412.989 + 15.305 X_1 + 0.114 X_2$$

6. $Y = -412.989 + 15.305 (10.8) + 0.114 (4600)$

$$Y = -412.989 + 165.294 + 524.4$$

$$Y = 276.705 \text{ feet}$$

7. $+ 0.92$

8. $+ 0.90$

9. $+ 0.83$

10. Enforcement speed is the better predictor of stopping distance ($r = + .92$)

11. The two predictors combined predict stopping distance slightly better ($R_{xy} = .95$) than the better single predictor by itself

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.21)

FRESH GPA	SAT-VERBAL	SAT-MATH	HS GPA	AP CALCULUS BC
3.23	650	510	3.55	2
2.90	490	420	2.96	2
2.80	630	540	3.27	5
3.42	520	520	3.45	4
2.80	560	540	2.90	3
2.90	410	420	2.80	2
2.35	450	460	2.63	2
2.58	420	430	2.71	1
3.12	560	520	3.26	3
3.47	650	680	3.45	4

SUMMARY OUTPUT:					
Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0.95				
R Square	0.911				
Adjusted R Square	0.839				
Standard Error	0.143				
Observations	10				

ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	4	1.043	0.261	12.719	0.008
Residual	5	0.102	0.020		
Total	9	1.145			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%
Intercept	-0.684	0.545	-1.254	0.265	-2.085
SAT-VERBAL	-0.003	0.001	-2.598	0.048	-0.006
SAT-MATH	0.002	0.001	2.029	0.098	-0.001
HS GPA	1.378	0.259	5.320	0.003	0.712
AP CALCULUS BC	-0.048	0.057	-0.845	0.437	-0.195

	FRESH GPA	SAT-VERBAL	SAT-MATH	HS GPA	AP CALCULUS BC
FRESH GPA	1				
SAT-VERBAL	0.59	1			
SAT-MATH	0.61	0.80	1		
HS GPA	0.88	0.83	0.66	1	
AP CALCULUS BC	0.47	0.65	0.71	0.61	1

Fig. A.21 Answer to Chap. 7: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 7: Practice Problem #3 (continued)

1. Multiple correlation = .95
2. $a = y - \text{intercept} = -0.684$
3. $b_1 = -0.003$
4. $b_2 = 0.002$
5. $b_3 = 1.378$
6. $b_4 = -0.048$

7. $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X_4$

$$Y = -0.684 - 0.003 X_1 + 0.002 X_2 + 1.378 X_3 - 0.048 X_4$$

8. $Y = -0.684 - 0.003 (650) + 0.002 (630) + 1.378 (3.47) - 0.048 (4)$

$$Y = -0.684 - 1.95 + 1.26 + 4.78 - 0.19$$

$$Y = 6.04 - 2.82$$

$$Y = 3.22$$

9. + 0.59

10. + 0.61

11. + 0.88

12. + 0.47

13. + 0.80

14. + 0.61

15. + 0.71

16. + 0.65

17. The best single predictor of FROSH GPA was HSGPA ($r = .88$).

18. The four predictors combined predicted FROSH GPA much better at $R_{xy} = .95$, and this was much better than the best single predictor by itself.

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #1 Answer (see Fig. A.22)

MISSOURI UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY		
UNDERGRADUATE ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING 101 COURSE: FINAL EXAM		
CAI	LECTURES	INDEPENDENT
90	85	76
85	89	80
74	83	90
89	79	84
84	74	78
95	75	65
92	86	42
65	87	58
75	86	63
73	88	75
54		66
71		

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
CAI	12	947	78.92	151.72		
LECTURES	10	832	83.20	28.84		
INDEPENDENT	11	777	70.64	183.45		

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	867.12	2	433.56	3.46	0.04	3.32
Within Groups	3763.06	30	125.44			
Total	4630.18	32				

LECTURES vs. INDEPENDENT STUDY		
1/n LECTURES + 1/n INDEPENDENT	0.19	
s.e. of LECTURES vs. INDEPENDENT	4.89	
ANOVA t-test	2.57	

Fig. A.22 Answer to Chap. 8: Practice Problem #1

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #1 (continued)

Let Group 1 = CAI, Group 2 = LECTURES, and Group 3 = INDEPENDENT

1. $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$
 $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$
2. $MS_b = 433.56$
3. $MS_w = 125.44$
4. $F = 433.56 / 125.44 = 3.46$
5. critical F = 3.32
6. Result: Since 3.46 is greater than 3.32, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis
7. There was a significant difference between the three teaching formats in final exam scores.

LECTURES vs. INDEPENDENT STUDY

8. $H_0: \mu_2 = \mu_3$
 $H_1: \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$
9. 83.20
10. 70.64
11. $df = 33 - 3 = 30$
12. critical t = 2.042
13. $1/10 + 1/11 = 0.10 + 0.09 = 0.19$
s.e. = $SQRT(125.44 * 0.19) = SQRT(23.83) = 4.88$
14. ANOVA t = $(83.20 - 70.64)/4.88 = 2.57$
15. Result: Since the absolute value of 2.57 is greater than 2.042, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis
16. Conclusion: LECTURES had significantly higher final exam scores than INDEPENDENT STUDY (83.2 vs. 70.64).

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #2 Answer (see Fig. A.23)

HORSEPOWER OUTPUT WITH PROTOTYPE FUEL INJECTOR				
FUEL INJECTOR A	FUEL INJECTOR B	FUEL INJECTOR C	FUEL INJECTOR D	
550	550	555	555	
600	560	565	570	
650	580	575	580	
625	600	580	575	
620	610	590	585	
670	630	625	590	
680	660	640	610	
700	670	665	630	
725	690	680	625	
710		690	645	
		695	690	
			680	

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
FUEL INJECTOR A	10	6530	653.00	2995.56		
FUEL INJECTOR B	9	5550	616.67	2450.00		
FUEL INJECTOR C	11	6860	623.64	2820.45		
FUEL INJECTOR D	12	7335	611.25	1900.57		

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	10739.32	3	3579.77	1.42	0.25	2.85
Within Groups	95670.80	38	2517.65			
Total	106410.12	41				

IMPORTANT NOTE:	Since the value of F of 1.42 is less than the critical F of 2.85, you cannot run ANY of the paired comparisons for the Fuel Injectors since you are accepting the null hypothesis that there is no difference in horsepower output between the four types of fuel injectors.
-----------------	--

Fig. A.23 Answer to Chap. 8: Practice Problem #2

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #2 (continued)

1. Null hypothesis: $\mu_A = \mu_B = \mu_C = \mu_D$
Research hypothesis: $\mu_A \neq \mu_B \neq \mu_C \neq \mu_D$
2. $MS_b = 3579.77$
3. $MS_w = 2517.65$
4. $F = 3579.77 / 2517.65 = 1.42$
5. critical F = 2.85
6. Since the F-value of 1.42 is less than the critical F value of 2.85, we accept the null hypothesis.
7. There was no difference between the four types of fuel injectors in their horsepower output.
8. 8–16. *Be careful here!* You need to remember that it is incorrect to perform ANY ANOVA t-test when the value of F is less than the critical value of F. The ANOVA F-test found no difference between the four types of fuel injectors in horsepower output, and, therefore, *you cannot compare any two injectors using the ANOVA t-test!*

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #3 Answer (see Fig. A.24)

HIGHWAY MILES PER GALLON (mpg) COMPARISON OF FIVE TYPES OF CARS					
	1	2	3	4	5
	SUBCOMPACTS (mpg)	COMPACTS (mpg)	MID-SIZE (mpg)	LARGE (mpg)	SUVs (mpg)
	28.1	26.2	24.0	22.0	18.1
	30.2	28.3	26.3	23.1	20.2
	29.3	29.3	25.2	25.4	22.3
	31.6	27.0	27.1	24.3	21.4
	33.0	28.0	28.0	25.0	20.5
	34.3	29.5	23.6	24.7	19.0
	32.1	31.0	29.2	23.1	18.2
	35.0	32.3		22.4	19.1
		33.1		26.0	
				21.3	

Anova: Single Factor						
SUMMARY						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
SUBCOMPACTS	8	253.60	31.70	5.78		
COMPACTS	9	264.70	29.41	5.48		
MID-SIZE	7	183.40	26.20	4.28		
LARGE	10	237.30	23.73	2.48		
SUVs	8	158.80	19.85	2.29		

ANOVA						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	718.23	4	179.56	44.80	1.07093E-13	2.63
Within Groups	148.29	37	4.01			
Total	866.52	41				

COMPACTS vs. LARGE	
1/9+1/10	0.21
s.e. ANOVA	0.92
ANOVA t-test	6.18

Fig. A.24 Answer to Chap. 8: Practice Problem #3

Chapter 8: Practice Problem #3 (continued)

Let SUBCOMPACTS = Group 1, COMPACTS = Group 2, MID-SIZE = Group 3, LARGE = Group 4, and SUVs = Group 5

1. Null hypothesis: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 = \mu_5$
Research hypothesis: $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3 \neq \mu_4 \neq \mu_5$
2. $MS_b = 179.56$
3. $MS_w = 4.01$
4. $F = 179.56/4.01 = 44.78$
5. critical F = 2.63
6. Result: Since the F-value of 44.78 is greater than the critical F value of 2.63, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.
7. Conclusion: There was a significant difference between the five types of vehicles in their highway miles per gallon.
8. Null hypothesis: $\mu_2 = \mu_4$
Research hypothesis: $\mu_2 \neq \mu_4$
9. 29.41
10. 23.73
11. degrees of freedom = $42 - 5 = 37$
12. critical t = 2.026
13. $s.e.\text{ANOVA} = \text{SQRT}(MS_w \times \{1/9 + 1/10\}) = \text{SQRT}(4.01 \times 0.21)$
 $= \text{SQRT}(0.84) = 0.92$
14. ANOVA t = $(29.41 - 23.73)/.92 = 6.17$
15. Since the absolute value of 6.17 is greater than the critical t of 2.026, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.
16. COMPACTS had significantly higher highway mpg than LARGE vehicles (29.4 vs. 23.7)

Appendix B: Practice Test

Chapter 1: Practice Test

Suppose that you were hired as a research assistant on a project involving concrete blocks, and that your responsibility on this team was to measure the compressive strength in units of 100 lb per square inch (psi) of concrete blocks from a certain supplier. You want to try out your Excel skills on a small random sample of blocks. The hypothetical data is given below (see Fig. B.1).

COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH OF CONCRETE BLOCKS	
100 POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH (psi)	
	39.3
	42.6
	54.7
	51.3
	48.4
	46.8
	39.8
	40.5
	42.5
	50.6
	51.4
	53.7
	48.5

Fig. B.1 Worksheet Data for Chap. 1 Practice Test (Practical Example)

- (a) Create an Excel table for these data, and then use Excel to the right of the table to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and round off the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to two decimal places.
- (b) Save the file as: CONCRETE3

Chapter 2: Practice Test

Suppose that an engineer who works for an automobile manufacturer wants to take a random sample of 12 of the 54 engine crankshaft bearings produced during the last shift in the plant to see how many of them had a surface finish that was rougher than the engineering specifications required.

- (a) Set up a spreadsheet of frame numbers for these bearings with the heading: FRAME NUMBERS
- (b) Then, create a separate column to the right of these frame numbers which duplicates these frame numbers with the title: Duplicate frame numbers.
- (c) Then, create a separate column to the right of these duplicate frame numbers called RAND NO. and use the =RAND() function to assign random numbers to all of the frame numbers in the duplicate frame numbers column, and change this column format so that three decimal places appear for each random number.
- (d) Sort the *duplicate frame numbers and random numbers* into a random order.
- (e) Print the result so that the spreadsheet fits onto one page.
- (f) Circle on your printout the I.D. number of the first 12 engine crankshaft bearings that you would use in your test.
- (g) Save the file as: RAND62

Important note: Note that everyone who does this problem will generate a different random order of bearings ID numbers since Excel assigns a different random number each time the RAND() command is used. For this reason, the answer to this problem given in this Excel Guide will have a completely different sequence of random numbers from the random sequence that you generate. This is normal and what is to be expected.

Chapter 3: Practice Test

Suppose that a manufacturer of a certain type of house paint has a factory that produced an average of 60 tons per day over the past month for this paint. Suppose, further, that this factory tries out a new manufacturing process for this type of paint for 30 days. You have been asked to “run the data” to see if any change has occurred in the production output with this new procedure, and you have decided to test your Excel skills on a random sample of hypothetical data given in Fig. B.2

Fig. B.2 Worksheet Data for Chap. 3 Practice Test (Practical Example)

HOUSE PAINT PRODUCTION	
New manufacturing process (tons/day)	
62	
61	
64	
63	
61	
63	
62	
67	
59	
61	
60	
63	
64	
62	
65	

- (a) Create an Excel table for these data, and use Excel to the right of the table to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for these data. Label your answers, and round off the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to two decimal places in number format.
- (b) By hand, write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on your printout.
- (c) Use Excel's *TINV function* to find the 95 % confidence interval about the mean for these data. Label your answers. Use two decimal places for the confidence interval figures in number format.
- (d) On your printout, draw a diagram of this 95 % confidence interval by hand, including the reference value.
- (e) On your spreadsheet, enter the *result*.
- (f) On your spreadsheet, enter the *conclusion in plain English*.
- (g) Print the data and the results so that your spreadsheet fits onto one page.
- (h) Save the file as: PAINT15

Chapter 4: Practice Test

Suppose that you work for a company that manufactures small submersible pumps. Submersible pumps are pumps that can be submerged under water and they are used to pump water out of an area. For example, submersible pumps can be used to pump flood water out of basements. Suppose, further, that your company has developed a new style of pump and has decided to test it on some recently flooded homes near Grafton, Illinois, in the USA. The old style pumps pumped an average of 46 gallons per minute (gal/min). You want to test your Excel skills on a small sample of data using the hypothetical data given in Fig. B.3.

Fig. B.3 Worksheet Data
for Chap. 4 Practice Test
(Practical Example)

OUTPUT OF NEW SUBMERSIBLE PUMP	
	GALLONS PER MINUTE (gal/min)
	51
	50
	50
	49
	50
	48
	52
	50
	50
	49
	48
	49
	50
	51
	49
	50
	49
	51
	51
	50

- (a) Write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis on your spreadsheet.
- (b) Create a spreadsheet for these data, and then use Excel to find the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean to the right of the data set. Use number format (two decimal places) for the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean.
- (c) Type the *critical t* from the t-table in Appendix E onto your spreadsheet, and label it.
- (d) Use Excel to compute the *t-test* value for these data (use two decimal places) and label it on your spreadsheet.
- (e) Type the *result* on your spreadsheet, and then type the *conclusion in plain English* on your spreadsheet.
- (f) Save the file as: PUMP8

Chapter 5: Practice Test

Suppose that an automobile repair parts manufacturer/supplier wants to test the crash resistance of two brands of front-bumpers for 2-door passenger sedans (BRAND X and BRAND Y). The engineer in charge of this project has decided to test these bumpers on the most recent Honda Civics that are purposely crashed

into a cement wall at a speed of 15 miles per hour (mph), and then to estimate the cost of repairs to the front-bumper after this test. The engineer then wants to test her Excel skills on the hypothetical data given in Fig. B.4.

FRONT-BUMPER CRASH RESISTANT TEST (2-door passenger cars)	
Honda Civic: 15 mph speed	
REPAIR ESTIMATES (\$)	
BRAND X	BRAND Y
1,242	1,312
1,264	1,300
1,231	1,295
1,159	1,395
1,015	1,354
1,135	1,368
1,140	1,412
1,253	1,295
1,264	1,275
1,275	1,300
1,283	1,354

Fig. B.4 Worksheet Data for Chap. 5 Practice Test (Practical Example)

- (a) Write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis.
- (b) Create an Excel table that summarizes these data.
- (c) Use Excel to find the standard error of the difference of the means.
- (d) Use Excel to perform a *two-group t-test*. What is the value of *t* that you obtain (use two decimal places)?
- (e) On your spreadsheet, type the *critical value of t* using the t-table in Appendix E.
- (f) Type the *result* of the test on your spreadsheet.
- (g) Type your *conclusion in plain English* on your spreadsheet.
- (h) Save the file as: BUMPER3
- (i) Print the final spreadsheet so that it fits onto one page.

Chapter 6: Practice Test

What is the relationship between the weight of the car (measured in thousands of pounds) and its city miles per gallon (mpg) in 4-door passenger sedans? Suppose that you wanted to study this question using different models of cars. Analyze the hypothetical data that are given in Fig. B.5.

Research question:	
"What is the relationship between the weight of a 4-door sedan and its miles per gallon (mpg) performance in city driving?"	
Weight (1000 lbs)	City Miles Per Gallon (mpg)
2.1	32.2
2.4	28.6
3.5	26.7
2.3	28.1
3.4	27.7
4.1	16.2
3.8	20.9
3.6	22.4
4.3	18.4
4.2	15.3

Fig. B.5 Worksheet Data for Chap. 6 Practice Test (Practical Example)

Create an Excel spreadsheet, and enter the data.

- create an *XY scatterplot* of these two sets of data such that:
 - top title: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WEIGHT AND CITY mpg IN 4-DOOR SEDANS
 - x-axis title: WEIGHT (1000 lbs)
 - y-axis title: CITY MILES PER GALLON (mpg)
 - move the chart below the table
 - re-size the chart so that it is 7 columns wide and 25 rows long
 - delete the legend
 - delete the gridlines
- Create the *least-squares regression line* for these data on the scatterplot.
- Use Excel to run the regression statistics to find the *equation for the least-squares regression line* for these data and display the results below the chart on your spreadsheet. Add the regression equation to the chart. Use number format (three decimal places) for the correlation and for the coefficients

Print just the input data and the chart so that this information fits onto one page in portrait format.

Then, print *just the regression output table* on a separate page so that it fits onto that separate page in portrait format.

By hand:

- (d) Circle and label the value of the *y-intercept* and the *slope* of the regression line on your printout.
- (e) Write the regression equation *by hand* on your printout for these data (use three decimal places for the y-intercept and the slope).
- (f) Circle and label the *correlation* between the two sets of scores in the regression analysis summary output table on your printout.
- (g) Underneath the regression equation you wrote by hand on your printout, use the regression equation to predict the average city mpg of a 4-door sedan that weighed 2500 lb.
- (h) *Read from the graph*, the average city mpg you would predict for a 4-door sedan that weighed 3600 lb, and write your answer in the space immediately below:
- (i) _____ save the file as: sedan3

Chapter 7: Practice Test

Suppose that you wanted to estimate the total number of gallons required for 4-door sedans when they were driven on a specific route of 200 miles between St. Louis, Missouri, and Indianapolis, Indiana, at specified speeds using drivers that were about the same weight. You have decided to use two predictors: (1) weight of the car (measured in thousands of pounds), and (2) the car's engine horsepower. To check your skills in Excel, you have created the hypothetical data given in Fig. B.6.

TOTAL GALLONS USED TO DRIVE FROM ST. LOUIS TO INDIANAPOLIS		
FOUR-DOOR SEDANS		
TOTAL GALLONS USED	WEIGHT (1000 lbs)	HORSEPOWER
6.1	3.8	130
6.3	3.7	150
4.8	4.0	140
4.2	2.4	125
3.8	2.9	98
4.7	3.0	115
3.5	2.1	121
5.5	2.9	123
5.9	3.1	110
3.4	2.1	96

Fig. B.6 Worksheet Data for Chap. 7 Practice Test (Practical Example)

- (a) create an Excel spreadsheet using TOTAL GALLONS USED as the criterion (Y), and the other variables as the two predictors of this criterion ($X_1 = \text{WEIGHT}$ (1000 lbs), and $X_2 = \text{HORSEPOWER}$).
- (b) Use Excel's *multiple regression* function to find the relationship between these three variables and place the SUMMARY OUTPUT below the table.
- (c) Use number format (two decimal places) for the multiple correlation on the Summary Output, and use two decimal places for the coefficients in the SUMMARY OUTPUT.
- (d) Save the file as: GALLONS9
- (e) Print the table and regression results below the table so that they fit onto one page.

Answer the following questions using your Excel printout:

1. What is the multiple correlation R_{xy} ?
 2. What is the y-intercept a ?
 3. What is the coefficient for WEIGHT b_1 ?
 4. What is the coefficient for HORSEPOWER b_2 ?
 5. What is the multiple regression equation?
 6. Predict the TOTAL GALLONS USED you would expect for a WEIGHT of 3800 lb and a car that had 126 HORSEPOWER.
- (f) Now, go back to your Excel file and create a correlation matrix for these three variables, and place it underneath the SUMMARY OUTPUT.
- (g) Re-save this file as: GALLONS9
- (h) Now, print out *just this correlation matrix* on a separate sheet of paper.

Answer to the following questions using your Excel printout. (Be sure to include the plus or minus sign for each correlation):

7. What is the correlation between WEIGHT and TOTAL GALLONS USED?
8. What is the correlation between HORSEPOWER and TOTAL GALLONS USED?
9. What is the correlation between WEIGHT and HORSEPOWER?
10. Discuss which of the two predictors is the better predictor of total gallons used.
11. Explain in words how much better the two predictor variables combined predict total gallons used than the better single predictor by itself.

Chapter 8: Practice Test

Let's consider an experiment in which you want to compare the strength of beams made of three types of materials: (1) steel, (2) Alloy A, and (3) Alloy B. The strength of the material was measured by placing each beam in a horizontal position with a support on each end, and then applying a force of 2500 lb to the center of each beam. The "deflection of the beam" was then measured in 1/1000th of an inch. You decide to test your Excel skills on a small sample of beams, and you have created the hypothetical data given in Fig. B.7.

STRENGTH OF THREE TYPES OF BEAMS		
(measured in 1/1000 th of an inch in deflection)		
STEEL	ALLOY A	ALLOY B
81	76	78
85	78	79
86	79	81
84	81	80
87	82	83
82	84	82
81	83	81
85	78	79
86	79	78
88	81	80
87	78	81
86	77	
	76	

Fig. B.7 Worksheet Data for Chap. 8 Practice Test (Practical Example)

- (a) Enter these data on an Excel spreadsheet.

Let STEEL = Group 1, ALLOY A = Group 2, and ALLOY B = Group 3.

- (b) On your spreadsheet, write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis for these data
- (c) Perform a *one-way ANOVA test* on these data, and show the resulting ANOVA table underneath the input data for the three types of beams.
- (d) If the F-value in the ANOVA table is significant, create an Excel formula to compute the ANOVA *t*-test comparing the STEEL beams versus the ALLOY A beams, and show the results below the ANOVA table on the spreadsheet (put the standard error and the ANOVA *t*-test value on separate lines of your spreadsheet, and use two decimal places for each value)
- (e) Print out the resulting spreadsheet so that all of the information fits onto one page
- (f) On your printout, label by hand the MS (between groups) and the MS (within groups)
- (g) Circle and label the value for F on your printout for the ANOVA of the input data
- (h) Label by hand on the printout the mean for steel beams and the mean for Alloy A beams that were produced by your ANOVA formulas
- (i) Save the spreadsheet as: STRENGTH3

On a separate sheet of paper, now do the following by hand:

- (j) find the critical value of F in the ANOVA Single Factor results table
- (k) write a summary of the *result* of the ANOVA test for the input data
- (l) write a summary of the *conclusion* of the ANOVA test in plain English for the input data
- (m) write the null hypothesis and the research hypothesis comparing steel beams versus Alloy A beams.
- (n) compute the degrees of freedom for the *ANOVA t-test* by hand for three types of beams.
- (o) use your calculator and Excel to compute the standard error (s.e.) of the ANOVA *t-test*
- (p) Use your calculator and Excel to compute the ANOVA *t-test* value
- (q) write the *critical value of t* for the ANOVA *t-test* using the table in Appendix E.
- (r) write a summary of the *result* of the ANOVA *t-test*
- (s) write a summary of the *conclusion* of the ANOVA *t-test* in plain English

Appendix C: Answers to Practice Test

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 1 (see. Fig. C.1)

COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH OF CONCRETE BLOCKS		
100 POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH (psi)		
39.3		
42.6	n	13
54.7		
51.3		
48.4	Mean	46.93
46.8		
39.8		
40.5	STDEV	5.42
42.5		
50.6		
51.4	s.e.	1.50
53.7		
48.5		

Fig. C.1 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 1 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 2 (see. Fig. C.2)

Fig. C.2 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 2 Problem

FRAME NUMBERS	Duplicate frame numbers	RAND NO.
1	5	0.679
2	11	0.926
3	40	0.965
4	27	0.556
5	54	0.022
6	1	0.062
7	29	0.140
8	33	0.559
9	31	0.646
10	17	0.942
11	51	0.822
12	12	0.537
13	24	0.179
14	45	0.543
15	7	0.548
16	32	0.936
17	36	0.831
18	38	0.804
19	8	0.667
20	52	0.299
21	18	0.992
22	13	0.910
23	28	0.352
24	14	0.055
25	25	0.730
26	34	0.565
27	35	0.261
28	53	0.234
29	26	0.878
30	44	0.915
31	15	0.058
32	50	0.523
33	46	0.673
34	48	0.341
35	21	0.898
36	39	0.618
37	16	0.891
38	37	0.121
39	43	0.563
40	20	0.027
41	30	0.307
42	49	0.751
43	6	0.853
44	47	0.044
45	2	0.534
46	10	0.399
47	42	0.914
48	23	0.120
49	22	0.071
50	41	0.772
51	3	0.957
52	9	0.252
53	19	0.301
54	4	0.186

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 3 (see. Fig. C.3)

HOUSE PAINT PRODUCTION			
New manufacturing process (tons/day)			
62	Null hypothesis:	μ	= 60 tons/day
61	Research hypothesis:	μ	\neq 60 tons/day
64			
63	n	15	
61	Mean	62.47	
59	STDEV	2.03	
60	s.e.	0.52	
63	95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL		
64	Lower limit	61.34	
62	Upper limit	63.59	
65			
	-----60-----	61.34-----	62.47-----63.59-----
	Ref. value	lower limit	Mean upper limit
Result:	Since the reference value is outside the confidence interval, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.		
Conclusion:	The new manufacturing process produced significantly more than 60 tons/day, and it was probably closer to 62.5 tons/day.		

Fig. C.3 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 3 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 4 (see. Fig. C.4)

OUTPUT OF NEW SUBMERSIBLE PUMP		
GALLONS PER MINUTE (gal/min)		
51	Null hypothesis:	$\mu = 46$ gal/min
50	Research hypothesis:	$\mu \neq 46$ gal/min
49	n	20
50	Mean	49.85
49	STDEV	1.04
50	s.e.	0.23
49		
51		
51		
50	critical t	2.093
	t-test	16.56
Result:	Since the absolute value of 16.56 is greater than the critical t of 2.093, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.	
Conclusion:	The new style of submersible pumps pumped significantly more water than the older style of pumps, and it was probably closer to almost 50 gal/min.	

Fig. C.4 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 4 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 5 (see. Fig. C.5)

FRONT-BUMPER CRASH RESISTANT TEST (2-door passenger cars)			
Honda Civic: 15 mph speed		Null hypothesis:	$\mu_1 = \mu_2$
REPAIR ESTIMATES (\$)		Research hypothesis:	$\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$
BRAND X	BRAND Y	BRAND	n
1,242	1,312	1 BRAND X	11
1,264	1,300	2 BRAND Y	11
1,231	1,295		
1,159	1,395		
1,015	1,354	(n1 - 1) x STDEV1 SQUARED	69,632.73
1,135	1,368		
1,140	1,412	(n2 - 1) x STDEV2 SQUARED	21,062.18
1,253	1,295		
1,264	1,275	n1 + n2 - 2	20
1,275	1,300		
1,283	1,354	1/n1 + 1/n2	0.18
		s.e.	28.71
		critical t	2.086
		t-test	-4.43
Result:		Since the absolute value of -4.43 is greater than the critical t of 2.086, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis.	
Conclusion:		For the Honda Civic (2-door) sedan, the front-bumper for BRAND X cost significantly less to repair than the front-bumper of BRAND Y (\$1,206 vs. \$1,333).	

Fig. C.5 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 5 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 6 (see. Fig. C.6)

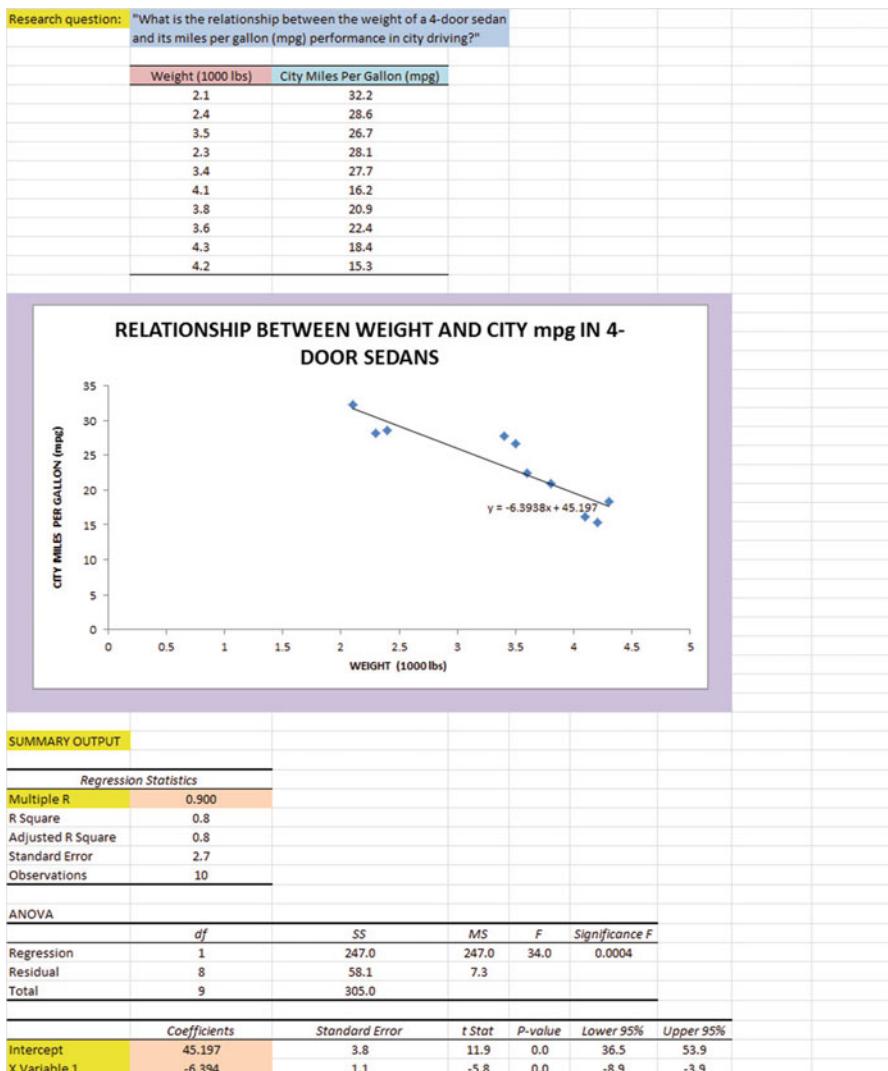


Fig. C.6 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 6 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 6: (continued)

- (d) $a = y\text{-intercept} = 45.197$
 $b = \text{slope} = -6.394$ (note the negative sign!)
- (e) $Y = a + bX$
 $Y = 45.197 - 6.394X$
- (f) $r = \text{correlation} = -.900$ (note the negative sign!)
- (g) $Y = 45.197 - 6.394(2.5)$
 $Y = 45.197 - 15.985$
 $Y = 29.212 \text{ mpg}$
- (h) About $22 - 23 \text{ mpg}$

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 7 (see. Fig. C.7)

TOTAL GALLONS USED TO DRIVE FROM ST. LOUIS TO INDIANAPOLIS					
FOUR-DOOR SEDANS					
TOTAL GALLONS USED	WEIGHT (1000 lbs)	HORSEPOWER			
6.1	3.8	130			
6.3	3.7	150			
4.8	4.0	140			
4.2	2.4	125			
3.8	2.9	98			
4.7	3.0	115			
3.5	2.1	121			
5.5	2.9	123			
5.9	3.1	110			
3.4	2.1	96			

SUMMARY OUTPUT					
Regression Statistics					
Multiple R	0.77				
R Square	0.593				
Adjusted R Square	0.477				
Standard Error	0.787				
Observations	10				

ANOVA					
	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	2	6.320	3.160	5.102	0.043
Residual	7	4.336	0.619		
Total	9	10.656			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%
Intercept	0.29	1.877	0.154	0.882	-4.150
WEIGHT (1000 lbs)	1.01	0.509	1.984	0.088	-0.194
HORSEPOWER	0.01	0.020	0.614	0.559	-0.035

	TOTAL GALLONS USED	WEIGHT (1000 lbs)	HORSEPOWER
TOTAL GALLONS USED	1		
WEIGHT (1000 lbs)	0.76	1	
HORSEPOWER	0.60	0.65	1

Fig. C.7 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 7 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 7 (continued)

1. $R_{xy} = .77$
2. $a = y\text{-intercept} = 0.29$
3. $b_1 = 1.01$
4. $b_2 = 0.01$
5. $Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2$
 $Y = 0.29 + 1.01 X_1 + 0.01 X_2$
6. $Y = 0.29 + 1.01 (3.8) + 0.01 (126))$
 $Y = 0.29 + 3.84 + 1.26$
 $Y = 5.39 \text{ gallons}$
7. + .76
8. + .60
9. + .65
10. The better predictor of TOTAL GALLONS USED was WEIGHT with a correlation of +.76.
11. The two predictors combined predict TOTAL GALLONS USED only slightly better ($R_{xy} = .77$) than the better single predictor by itself

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 8 (see. Fig. C.8)

Null hypothesis:	μ_1	=	μ_2	=	μ_3	
Research hypothesis:	μ_1	\neq	μ_2	\neq	μ_3	
STRENGTH OF THREE TYPES OF BEAMS						
(measured in 1/1000 th of an inch in deflection)						
	STEEL	ALLOY A	ALLOY B			
	81	76	78			
	85	78	79			
	86	79	81			
	84	81	80			
	87	82	83			
	82	84	82			
	81	83	81			
	85	78	79			
	86	79	78			
	88	81	80			
	87	78	81			
	86	77				
		76				
<hr/>						
Anova: Single Factor						
<hr/>						
SUMMARY						
<hr/>						
Groups	Count	Sum	Average	Variance		
STEEL	12	1018	84.83	5.61		
ALLOY A	13	1032	79.38	6.76		
ALLOY B	11	882	80.18	2.56		
<hr/>						
ANOVA						
<hr/>						
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	210.51	2	105.25	20.63	1.54E-06	3.28
Within Groups	168.38	33	5.10			
Total	378.89	35				
<hr/>						
STEEL vs. ALLOY A						
<hr/>						
1/n STEEL + 1/n ALLOY A	0.16					
s.e. STEEL vs. ALLOY A	0.90					
ANOVA t-test	6.03					

Fig. C.8 Practice Test Answer to Chap. 8 Problem

Practice Test Answer: Chapter 8 (continued)

Let STEEL = Group 1, ALLOY A = Group 2, and ALLOY B = Group 3.

- (b) $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$
 $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$
- (f) $MS_b = 105.25$ and $MS_w = 5.10$
- (g) $F = 20.63$
- (h) Mean of STEEL = 84.83 and Mean of ALLOY A = 79.38
- (j) critical F = 3.28
- (k) Result: Since 20.63 is greater than 3.28, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis
- (l) Conclusion: There was a significant difference in strength between the three types of beams.
- (m) $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$
 $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$
- (n) $df = n_{TOTAL} - k = 36 - 3 = 33$
- (o) $1/12 + 1/13 = 0.08 + 0.08 = 0.16$
 $s.e. = \text{SQRT}(5.10 * 0.16)$
 $s.e. = \text{SQRT}(0.82)$
 $s.e. = 0.90$
- (p) ANOVA t = $(84.83 - 79.38)/0.90 = 6.06$
- (q) critical t = 2.035
- (r) Result: Since the absolute value of 6.06 is greater than the critical t of 2.035, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the research hypothesis
- (s) Conclusion: ALLOY A had significantly less deflection (i.e., it was stronger) than STEEL (79.4 vs. 84.8)

Appendix D: Statistical Formulas

Mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{n}$$

Standard Deviation

$$\text{STDEV} = S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(X - \bar{X})^2}{n - 1}}$$

Standard error of the mean

$$\text{s.e.} = S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Confidence interval about the mean

$$\bar{X} \pm t S_{\bar{X}}$$

where $S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$

One-group *t*-test

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S_{\bar{X}}}$$

where $S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$

Two-group *t*-test

(a) when both groups have a sample size greater than 30

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}}$$

where $S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}$

and where $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$

(b) when one or both groups have a sample size less than 30

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}}$$

where $S_{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$

and where $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$

Correlation

$$r = \frac{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum (X - \bar{X})(Y - \bar{Y})}{S_x S_y}$$

where S_x = standard deviation of X
and where S_y = standard deviation of Y

Simple linear regression

$$Y = a + b X$$

where a = y-intercept and b = slope of the line

Multiple regression equation

$$Y = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + b_3 X_3 + \text{etc.}$$

where a = y-intercept

One-way ANOVA F-test

$$F = MS_b / MS_w$$

ANOVA t-test

$$\text{ANOVA } t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s.e.\text{-ANOVA}}$$

$$\text{where } s.e.\text{-ANOVA} = \sqrt{MS_w \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right)}$$

and where $df = n_{\text{TOTAL}} - k$
where $n_{\text{TOTAL}} = n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \text{etc.}$
and where k = the number of groups

Appendix E: t-Table

Critical t-values needed for rejection of the null hypothesis (see Fig. E.1)

Fig. E.1 Critical t-values needed for rejection of the null hypothesis

sample size n	degrees of freedom df	critical t
10	9	2.262
11	10	2.228
12	11	2.201
13	12	2.179
14	13	2.160
15	14	2.145
16	15	2.131
17	16	2.120
18	17	2.110
19	18	2.101
20	19	2.093
21	20	2.086
22	21	2.080
23	22	2.074
24	23	2.069
25	24	2.064
26	25	2.060
27	26	2.056
28	27	2.052
29	28	2.048
30	29	2.045
31	30	2.042
32	31	2.040
33	32	2.037
34	33	2.035
35	34	2.032
36	35	2.030
37	36	2.028
38	37	2.026
39	38	2.024
40	39	2.023
infinity	infinity	1.960

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