

## CHAPTER 10

### FILL-IN-THE-BLANK ITEMS

#### Introduction

In Chapter 9 we looked at a distribution composed of means of single samples drawn from a population, whereas in this chapter we considered (1) \_\_\_\_\_ samples taken simultaneously.

#### The Sampling Distribution of the Differences Between Sample Means

If the behavior of the members of one sample is not related to the behavior of subjects in the other sample, the samples are (2) \_\_\_\_\_. The assumption of independence is often made as long as subjects are selected at (3) \_\_\_\_\_ and are (4) \_\_\_\_\_ assigned to the different treatment conditions.

To construct the sampling distribution of the differences, we first draw (5) \_\_\_\_\_ of random samples from the same population. For each sample of the pair, a (6) \_\_\_\_\_ is computed and the (7) \_\_\_\_\_ between the means is found. A frequency (8) \_\_\_\_\_ based on the differences is then made, and from this a frequency (9) \_\_\_\_\_ is plotted. The standard deviation of the sampling distribution of differences is called the (10) \_\_\_\_\_ of the differences.

Three properties of the sampling distribution of the differences are: the mean of the distribution is equal to (11) \_\_\_\_\_; the larger the size of the samples taken from the population, the more

closely the distribution approximates the (12) \_\_\_\_\_ curve; and the larger the size of the samples, the (13) \_\_\_\_\_ the standard error of the difference between means.

In the sampling distribution of the differences, a score is symbolized by (14) \_\_\_\_\_. The mean is symbolized by (15) \_\_\_\_\_, and the standard error is symbolized by (16) \_\_\_\_\_. Putting these together, the formula for a  $z$  score is (17) \_\_\_\_\_ = \_\_\_\_\_. If we divide by the estimated standard error, we obtain the formula for  $t$ , which is usually written as (18) \_\_\_\_\_ = \_\_\_\_\_.

### Computing $t$ : Independent Samples

To compute  $t$  for independent samples, we need three things: the mean of each sample, the (19) \_\_\_\_\_ of subjects in each sample, and the (20) \_\_\_\_\_ of each sample. The null hypothesis is that both samples were drawn from the (21) \_\_\_\_\_ and that the mean of the sampling distribution is (22) \_\_\_\_\_. The degrees of freedom for the test are given by (23) \_\_\_\_\_.

#### *One-tailed versus two-tailed tests*

A (24) \_\_\_\_\_ test of significance is one considering both ends of the distribution. To use it, we don't have to make any (25) \_\_\_\_\_ about the experiment's outcome. The (26) \_\_\_\_\_ test, on the other hand, looks only at the tail of the distribution predicted by the experimenter before the experiment. However, with a one-tailed test, we must make our prediction (27) \_\_\_\_\_ doing the study.

The (28) \_\_\_\_\_ test is a more powerful test if the prediction comes true. A more powerful test is one with which it will be (29) \_\_\_\_\_ to reject the null hypothesis.

#### *Assumptions of the two-sample $t$ test*

The  $t$  test assumes that the dependent variable is (30) \_\_\_\_\_ distributed in the population from which the samples are drawn. Another assumption is that the population (31) \_\_\_\_\_ are

homogeneous. If you have reason to suspect that the assumptions will be violated, you should use (32) \_\_\_\_\_ samples with the same number of subjects in each. Both assumptions can apparently be violated with (33) \_\_\_\_\_ effect upon the conclusions reached with the  $t$  test, which means that the  $t$  test is a (34) \_\_\_\_\_ test.

### Computing $t$ : Dependent Samples

In testing  $H_0$ , the most desired outcome is (35) \_\_\_\_\_ of the null hypothesis. One way to increase the (36) \_\_\_\_\_ of the  $t$  test is to use dependent samples.

One way to obtain dependent samples is to form (37) \_\_\_\_\_ of unrelated individuals with one member of a pair assigned to one treatment group and the other member assigned to the other group. In the (38) \_\_\_\_\_ design, each subject is given both treatments; that is, each subject is his or her own (39) \_\_\_\_\_. Sometimes, this type of design is called the (40) \_\_\_\_\_ design. The dependent-samples design increases the power of the test by (41) \_\_\_\_\_ the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of differences between related samples.

#### *The direct difference method*

(42) \_\_\_\_\_ is a procedure used to control for the effects of the order of presentation of the treatment in experiments. A (43) \_\_\_\_\_ method of drug presentation is one in which neither the administrator nor the subject knows which drug is being given. With the direct difference method, all calculations are based on the (44) \_\_\_\_\_ between each pair of scores rather than on the scores themselves. The  $t$  ratio is the mean of the differences divided by the estimated (45) \_\_\_\_\_ of the differences. The mean of the differences is defined as the (46) \_\_\_\_\_ sum of the differences divided by  $N$ , which is the number of (47) \_\_\_\_\_ of scores. For the test,  $df =$  (48) \_\_\_\_\_.

#### Troubleshooting Your Computations

The (49) \_\_\_\_\_ used must be appropriate to your data; that is, when the samples are assumed to be independent of each other, the  $t$  test for (50) \_\_\_\_\_ samples should be used. If the samples are related or matched in some way, the  $t$  test for (51) \_\_\_\_\_ samples should be used.

The estimated standard error of the differences should always have a (52) \_\_\_\_\_ sign. Also, be sure to retain the appropriate (53) \_\_\_\_\_ when computing the final value for  $t$ . In the  $t$  test for dependent samples, all computations are made on the (54) \_\_\_\_\_ scores rather than on the actual scores themselves. Be careful to add the difference scores (55) \_\_\_\_\_ — that is, taking the signs into account.

Remember the decision rule for a nondirectional test: If the absolute value of the computed  $t$  is equal to or larger than the critical value of  $t$  from Table B, (56) \_\_\_\_\_  $H_0$ .