

Animal Behavioral Diversity and the Scientific Method

Objectives

To compare and appreciate animal diversity through the lens of behavior. To consider the diversity of behavioral adaptations that have evolved in response to selection pressures from different physical and social environments.

To understand the major components of the scientific method. To generate testable hypotheses, design experiments to test hypotheses, and analyze results from an experiment.

Introduction

Animal behavior

Broadly defined, behavior is the sum of an organism's responses to stimuli in its environment (*Campbell Ch. 51*). Behavior is what an organism does. After detecting another organism, for example, an animal may respond by attacking it, fleeing from it, attempting to eat it, courting it, freezing in place, or ignoring it, just to name a few of the possible behavioral responses depending on the identity and perhaps behavior of that other organism.

Most animals possess far different sensory abilities and live in drastically different habitats than the humans studying them. Animal behaviorists study their subjects by carefully observing and experimentally analyzing behavior patterns. In your study of animal behavior in lab today, consider both the proximate and ultimate causes of the behaviors you observe.

Proximate causes include the immediate sensory, physiological, and biomechanical events that led to the behavior. For example, did the organism use chemical, visual, or electrical cues to detect the stimulus, and what kind of nervous or hormonal events did it trigger in the organism?

Ultimate causes refer to the adaptive value and evolutionary origin of the behavior. In other words, how does this behavior help the survival and reproductive success of the organism, and what is the pattern of behavior in the species' ancestors?

To illustrate, a sparrow feeding on the ground will respond to a stalking cat by taking flight. Part of the **proximate** cause of this behavior might be the sight or sound of the approaching cat stimulating sensory receptors that in turn trigger nervous impulses that lead to muscle contractions in the wings. The **ultimate** cause, the adaptive value, might include fleeing from a predator to avoid being eaten.

In today's lab you will be investigating three categories of behavior: orientation behavior, agonistic behavior, and reproductive behavior.

- **Orientation** behavior helps an organism locate the most favorable environment currently available to it. Orientation behavior includes taxis, movement directly toward or away from a stimulus. Positive taxis refers to movement toward a stimulus while negative taxis refers to movement away from a stimulus. Prefixes such as photo-, chemo-, and thermo- describe the nature of the taxis. For example, an animal that approaches light is positively phototactic.
- **Agonistic behavior.** In addition to the need to find a favorable place to live, animals often find themselves in conflict with other organisms. For example, two bears may attempt to use the same profitable location along a stream to catch fish. Behaviors associated with conflict situations are known as agonistic and include both aggressive (attack or

threatening) and submissive (retreat and avoidance) behaviors. Agonistic behavior often involves displays to make the animal appear larger or threatening, and in many cases (but not all), a conflict ends without serious injury or death. These threats and displays often help an animal to maintain a territory or social position in which it has predominant access to resources such as space, food, and mates.

- **Reproductive behavior.** Behaviors that facilitate reproduction have obvious adaptive value. Mating behaviors vary greatly among species and can involve complex and often amazing routines that assist an organism in finding, courting, and mating with a member of the same species. Can you suggest why it behooves an organism to mate with a member of the same species?

Scientific Method

The information contained in your biology textbook results from thousands of scientific investigations. Scientists express curiosity about the world and ask questions that address their desire and often society's pressing need for knowledge. Most scientists follow the same general procedure, called the **scientific method**, for formalizing questions and seeking information to address them.

The scientific method typically begins with observations of a pattern or process that suggests one or more corresponding questions to the observer. A scientist attempts to formulate alternate answers for the questions called **hypotheses**. The process of formulating a hypothesis often starts with an initial or informal hypothesis that the scientist reformulates into a formal hypothesis that ideally produces unambiguous predictions that can be tested with future experiments or observations. Formal hypotheses strive to yield mutually exclusive predictions that do not overlap with predictions from competing hypotheses. Scientists usually express formal hypotheses in two forms: a null hypothesis and one or more alternate hypotheses.

A **null hypothesis (H_0)** predicts "no difference" or "no effect" between two or more experimental conditions. For example, in an experiment to test the effectiveness of a flu shot, the null hypothesis would predict that people that received the flu shot are just as likely to contract the flu as people who did not receive the shot (i.e., no difference between the two experimental groups).

In contrast, the **alternate hypothesis (H_A)** predicts a difference or effect of the experimental condition. For the flu shot example, an alternate hypothesis might predict that there will be a difference between people who received the flu shot compared to those who did not in the likelihood of contracting the flu.

After formulating the hypotheses, scientists devise experiments or additional observation protocols to collect the data needed to test the hypotheses. The data typically require analysis, often statistical, before they can be judged against the predictions. If the data fail to support the predictions of the hypothesis, that hypothesis is rejected. If the data support the hypothesis, the hypothesis is not rejected. The scientist could then say that the results of the experiment support the hypothesis. However, the results do not prove that the hypothesis is true. Additional experiments need to be conducted that address the hypothesis in different ways. Several different experiments each in support of the hypothesis would strongly suggest that the hypothesis is true. Moreover, additional experiments may reveal that the hypothesis seems to hold under certain conditions but not others.

A brief example may be useful. Imagine that you are driving around town with a couple of friends, one of whom is male and one of whom is female, and you end up lost. Your female friend wants to stop and ask for directions but your male friend does not. You joke that men hate to ask for help with directions (an initial hypothesis). To develop a formal hypothesis that men are less likely to ask for help than women, you must develop a measure of the

likelihood of asking for help that works equally well for both sexes and can be measured accurately. For instance, you might conduct a survey and ask men and women how often in the past month they have asked for directions. This measure though would rely on several assumptions including the ability of subjects to accurately remember how often they have stopped for directions, the honesty with which men and women will answer the question, the number of times each subject has gotten lost and perhaps the severity and location of where they were lost, the tendency for men and women to travel beyond neighborhoods familiar to them, the frequency with which each sex drove a car in the last month, etc. If any of these assumptions differ for men and women, for example if men are even reluctant to admit that they asked for directions, then the measure will be biased.

Instead you decide to conduct an experiment in which you send men and women on an errand across town but give them the wrong directions. If given accurate directions, men and women should perform equally well on driving to the destination. You send along a spy as a passenger in the car to record how long it takes for the subject to stop and ask for directions after getting lost. Your **response variable** then is the length of time between getting lost and asking for directions. Your two mutually exclusive, opposing hypotheses for this experiment would be:

H_0 : The length of time between getting lost and asking for directions will be the same for men and women.

H_A : The length of time between getting lost and asking for directions will not be the same for men and women

Before you test your hypothesis, you have to determine the number of experimental subjects (data points) you will use. This is also known as the **sample size**. Can we test with just one male and female? This approach might be acceptable if all males were the same and all females were the same (i.e., no variation), but this is clearly unreasonable. For this experiment, say you recruited 25 students of each sex from the UMass Boston campus.

Assume you have completed your experiment and obtained the following results:

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Average time to ask for directions</u>
Female (n=25)	10.3 min
Male (n=25)	28.2 min

Can you reject the null hypothesis that men and women are the same in regards to asking for directions based on these results? Can you tentatively accept your alternate hypothesis that men and women are indeed different in this regard? This sample of men had a higher average result for this experiment than the women, but is this difference significant?

Statistical tests take into account the amount of variation within the samples and the size of the samples to allow you to estimate the probability that the results you obtained could have been due to chance events alone. A significant difference is one that is greater than would be expected by chance. Later in this lab, we will introduce the binomial test that will be used for statistically testing today's experiments. Suppose you applied the appropriate statistical test to the results, and the test indicated that these results are unlikely if males and females are equally inclined to ask for directions when lost. The results from the test allow you to reject the null hypothesis and state that your results support the alternate hypothesis.

However, you would ideally like your results to apply to all men and women, not just to the 25 of each that you selected for your study. In order to generalize your results beyond the particular set of individuals in the experiment, you need to expand your sample to include a reasonably large number of different subjects. The experiment has not proven that men are less inclined to ask for help than women, but that under the particular circumstances for the particular group of people studied (students at UMass), males appear to be more hesitant than women to ask for directions after becoming lost. Before the evening news states that men hate

to ask for help, you would want to expand your study to include different groups of people (perhaps this is only an UMass student, Bostonian, or American phenomenon), subjects of different ages, and larger numbers of subjects. You may also want to try different experimental conditions—areas that vary in familiarity to the subjects, walking versus driving, the types of places and people available to ask for help, with or without access to a map, or asking for directions before beginning a trip somewhere (not just after getting lost). Also, you might want to investigate different types of help for which people ask—directions for how to assemble something or how to use a new computer program. If all of these experiments produced similar results, you would have much stronger support for your initial hypothesis.

One more issue that can undermine the ability of your data to support your hypothesis is that of **confounding factors**. An experimental confound produces an alternate causal explanation for the observed results. For example, if you wanted to test the effects of heat on the movement of an animal and used a light to produce that heat, you could not say whether the animal was responding to heat or light even if your results were statistically significant. In our previous example, possible confounds could include the experimenter who provided the directions or the spy passenger systematically treating men and women differently. The sex of the spy passenger may also influence the results even if you always used one sex (say you always used a male passenger) for both male and female subjects; the male subjects may systematically respond differently to that man than the female subjects do (perhaps male drivers are less likely to ask for help in front of another guy).

Experimental Organisms

In today's lab, you will work with three different animal species from three different phyla: red worms (*Eisenia foetida*), crickets (*Achetus domesticus*) and Betta or fighting fish (*Betta splendenda*). You will investigate taxis in red worms, mating behavior in crickets, and, as befitting its name, agonistic behavior in fighting fish. For the Betta fish and the crickets, you will perform (or your TA will demonstrate) experimental manipulations with the subjects so that you may observe some of the behaviors of interest. Based on your observations, you will then design your own experiment for either the Betta fish or crickets. After you complete your Betta fish or cricket experiment, you will design, conduct, and analyze a formal experiment on red worms. Because of the advanced nature of the statistical procedure required to analyze the data you gathered from your cricket or Betta fish experiment and the limited number of subjects available for experimentation with those species, you will only conduct a statistical analysis on your red worm data.

Betta fish

The agonistic behavior of male Betta fish is widely known and studied, hence their common name of fighting fish. The sight of another male typically stimulates a series of agonistic behavioral displays toward the intruder often followed by physical aggression. Most pet stores, for instance, keep Betta males in separate containers because of the severe aggression that follows when the confines of the tank prevent one of the males from escaping or avoiding the more dominant male. Male Betta fish often use changes in body posture, fin and gill cover placement, general orientation, and coloration in their agonistic displays. Possible responses to a rival male include frontal approach (facing the intruder), broadside display, undulating movements, increased swimming speed, fin elevation, gill cover extension, tail expansion, and enhanced coloration in tail, fin, or body. Your behavioral experiment will investigate the use of agonistic displays by Betta fish. Think about the proximate and ultimate causes of the behavior when designing your experiment. You need to become familiar with the fish's external anatomy by locating the dorsal fin, ventral fin, pectoral fin, gill cover, and tail.

First, observe your fish subject for a few minutes to familiarize yourself with its behavior in a non-agonistic context. Next, place a tank containing another male fish against your subject's tank and observe the response. Discuss what you observed with your lab partners and ensure that you all agree on the behaviors you observed, how to record your observations, and how to quantify them (e.g., timing the duration of behaviors or recording the intensity of them).

Design your own experiment. Think about the proximate and ultimate causes driving the behaviors you observed, look at the supplies available to you, and talk to your TA if you need to stimulate your creative juices. What cues or stimuli might stimulate the fish's aggressive behavior? Under what circumstances does it benefit the male to show aggression to another organism?

Form a general hypothesis about the response of the fish subjects to your experimental manipulation. For example, if you were conducting an experiment similar to the pre-experimental procedures that you just finished, you might have hypothesized that the subject will display heightened agonistic behaviors upon seeing another male compared to the condition in which the fish could see only another empty tank. (Note: you must design an experiment different from this one.) **Answer questions 1a and b for your lab report.**

What will be your response variables? For a complex set of behaviors such as these, multiple behavioral responses will provide a more accurate picture of the response to the stimulus. You should select three behavioral responses that you can measure. Each member of your lab group can record one of your selected responses (e.g., duration of gill cover extension, length of time to react to the stimulus, occurrence of body color change, etc). Write hypotheses for each of your specific response variables. **Answer questions 1c and d for your lab report.**

Describe your experimental design. **Answer question 1e.**

Now you are ready to conduct your experiment. Have ready a pencil and paper and whatever other supplies (e.g., timer) you need. Because of the limited number of fish available for this lab, you will only be able to test your hypothesis on 2-3 individuals. Remember, this would not normally be an acceptable sample size.

In the results section, describe your results as quantitatively and detailed as possible. For example, if you measured the duration of a particular response, report the average duration for all of your trials for your various experimental conditions. Although, you will not conduct a statistical analysis of your results, do your results appear to support your alternative hypothesis? Explain why or why not? **Answer question 1f.**

What do your results demonstrate? Briefly discuss the proximate and ultimate causes of the behaviors you observed in response to your experimental manipulations. **Answer question 1g.**

Crickets

In many regions of the world, several species of closely-related crickets co-exist. Many species exhibit behavioral or morphological traits related to mating that distinguish them from spatially overlapping species. Mating behavior in *Achetus domesticus* consists of a complex series of several different behavioral patterns displayed by males and females. If the behavior display is successful, the crickets will copulate. Some of the most easily recognizable display behaviors that you might observe in your experiments include:

- Chirping: the male vibrates his wings together to produce sound
- Antenna stroking: antenna are rubbed on the head and body of the other individual
- Following: one individual closely follows the other
- Retreating: one individual leaves the presence of the other
- Ignoring: one individual appears to not respond to the other individual
- Mounting: one individual climbs on top of the other for copulation (which sex varies by species)

First, observe your crickets for a few minutes to familiarize yourself with their behavior in a non-reproductive context. You should have separate containers of males and females. Place a female with a male and observe their behavior. Discuss what you observed with your lab partners and ensure that you all agree on the behaviors you observed, how to record your observations, and how to quantify them (e.g., timing the duration of behaviors or recording the intensity of them).

Design your own experiment. (Remember you will only conduct your own experiment on either the fish or crickets.) Think about the proximate and ultimate causes driving the behaviors you observed, look at the supplies available to you, and talk to your TA if you need to stimulate your creative juices. What cues or stimuli might stimulate a cricket's reproductive behavior? Under what circumstances does it benefit a cricket to show courtship behavior to another organism?

Form a general hypothesis about the response of the cricket subjects to your experimental manipulation. For example, if you were conducting an experiment similar to the pre-experimental procedures that you just finished, you might have hypothesized that the male crickets will display heightened sexual behaviors upon detecting a female compared to the condition in which the male crickets were only in contact with other males. (Note: you must design an experiment different from this one.) **Answer questions 1a and b for your lab report.**

What will be your response variables? For a complex set of behaviors such as these, multiple behavioral responses will provide a more accurate picture of the response to the stimulus. You should select three behavioral responses that you can measure. Each member of your lab group can record one of your selected responses (e.g., length of time to react to the stimulus, duration of chirping, occurrence of mounting, etc). Write hypotheses for each of your specific response variables. **Answer questions 1c and d for your lab report.**

Describe your experimental design. **Answer question 1e for your lab report.**

Now you are ready to conduct your experiment. Have ready a pencil and paper and whatever other supplies (e.g., timer) you need. Because of the limited time and number of crickets available for this lab, you will only be able to test your hypothesis on 5 individuals. Remember, this would not normally be an acceptable sample size.

In the results section, describe your results as quantitatively and detailed as possible. For example, if you measured the duration of a particular response, report the average duration for all of the trials for your various experimental conditions. Although, you will not conduct a statistical analysis of your results, do your results appear to support your alternative hypothesis? Explain why or why not? **Answer question 1f.**

What do your results demonstrate? Briefly discuss the proximate and ultimate causes of the behaviors you observed in response to your experimental manipulations. **Answer question 1g.**

Red worms

Red worms belong to the phylum Annelida which contains about 15,000 species. Like other earthworms, red worms lead primarily subterranean lives and consume organic, often decaying, matter in the soil. Red worms inhabit particularly moist soils rich in organic matter such as compost heaps and gardens. In fact, they are the primary worm used for composting. Worms have no lungs and must absorb oxygen through their skin, a process that requires their skin to stay moist. Your behavioral experiments will investigate taxis in these worms. Recall that orientation behaviors such as taxis function to place an organism in an environment favorable for survival and reproduction. When designing your experiment, you should think about the natural habitat of earthworms and the cues that they may use to detect the suitability of different areas.

Hypothesis testing with red worms

Based on the description of red worm natural history presented above, you will formulate hypotheses, design an experiment to test your hypotheses, conduct an experiment, and statistically examine the results. Equipment and supplies are available for your experiment. Talking to your TA or glancing at the supplies and equipment available may help inspire your creative thinking. For example, think about the habitat of the worms; you may want to examine what environmental cues they use to select where to live and feed. Say you think that temperature may represent an important influence in the lives of red worms (you cannot use this experiment).

Initial hypothesis: Red worms will move from warmer environments into cooler ones.

Response variable: The number of worms in each environment after 3 minutes of choice.

Test situation: Test 16 worms in a dish with a warm side and a cool side.

Null hypothesis: # of worms on warm side = # of worms on cool side

Alternate hypothesis: # of worms on warm side \neq # of worms on cool side

You should now decide on an initial hypothesis, your response variable, and H_0 and H_A . **Answer questions 2a-c for your lab report and have your TA approve them.**

Experimental design

Next, you need to design your experiment. How will you test your hypothesis? You should keep in mind several factors when designing your experiment. Recall the problem of confounding factors discussed earlier. In the sample experiment on temperature preference in worms, what if you used a lamp to warm one side of the dish? If the worms move away from the source, they may be responding to light rather than heat. Perhaps you decide to use a chemical heat pack or warm water bottle instead.

If you put a worm in the middle of the dish and it moves away from the heat, you still cannot conclude that red worms, in general, are repelled by heat. Why not? Even in the absence of a heat source, you would expect that the worm may move to one side of the dish or the other 50% of the time (like flipping a coin). You must perform repeated trials of the experiment to gain confidence that the movement away from the heat source is not merely due to chance. Think about the following when designing your experiment: where in the dish do you place the worm, how long do you wait to record the result (you need to be consistent between trials), when will you start the timing? **Answer questions 2d and e.**

Data collection

You should now set up your experiment and collect the data. You will perform 16 trials using 16 different individual worms. **Fill out the chart for your lab report (question 2f) as you collect your data.**

Data analysis

To illustrate how to analyze the significance of your data, we need to revisit the sample red worm experiment. To test the red worms' preferences for heat or cool, suppose you performed 16 three-minute trials on 16 different worms and obtained the following data:

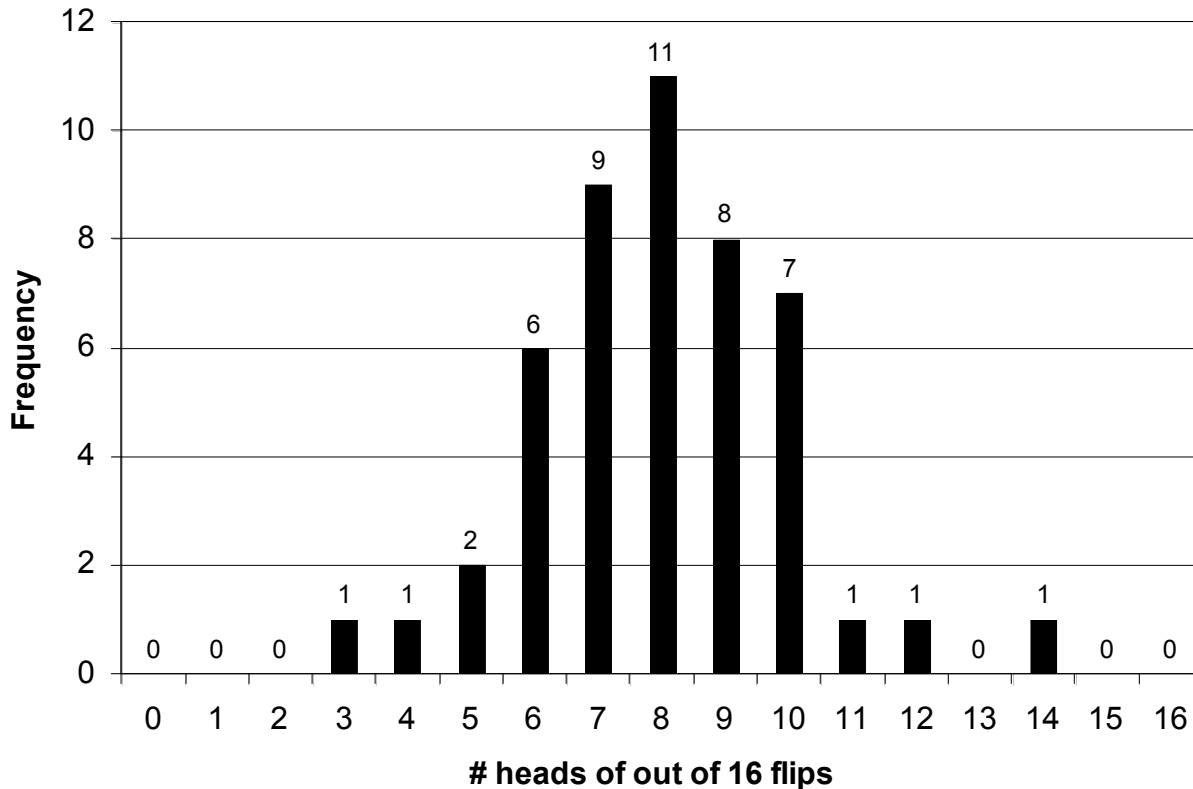
Subject #	Worm on warm side after 3 min	Worm on cool side after 3 min
1	X	
2		X
3		X
4		X
5		X
6	X	
7		X
8		X
9		X
10		X
11		X
12		X
13	X	
14	X	
15		X
16		X
Total	4	12

The data appear to exhibit a trend toward a temperature preference for the worms, but is this result significant? If the data supported the null hypothesis of no difference or no preference, you would expect to see approximately half ($n=8$) of the worms crawling to the warm side and half to the cool. To test for significance, the results must be compared to the distribution expected by chance.

If a worm exhibited no preference for the warm or cool side, 50% of the time it would travel to warm side and 50% to the cool. Earlier we compared this to the probability of a flipped coin landing heads up (or likewise, the likelihood that it lands tails up). On average, you would expect that a coin flipped 16 times should land heads up about 8 times and tails up about 8 times. But what if you flipped a coin 16 times and it landed heads up 12 times, does this mean the coin was loaded? Not necessarily. Because each flip is an independent event (in other words, the outcome of any given flip does not depend on the outcome of any other flip), by chance alone you could get 12 heads and 4 tails. By chance alone, you could get 16 tails and no heads although highly improbable. Statistics is concerned with calculating the probability that a certain combination of outcomes will occur by chance.

To illustrate, the class as a whole will generate a distribution graph for this type of problem. Everyone will flip a coin 16 times and count the number of heads and then repeat with another 16 flips. You will have two "head" counts to report to your TA. We intuitively expect that everyone will get 8 heads and 8 tails, but other outcomes will occasionally occur. The TA will pool the class data to see how often we get unexpected results just by chance. Do this now if you haven't already. **Record the distribution generated by the class in question 2g.** You will use this distribution to test your hypothesis.

Suppose 24 students in your lab each flipped a coin 16 times, counted the number of heads, and then repeated it for another 16 flips. In all, the class would have generated 48 ($= 2 \times 24$) trials of 16 flips. Imagine your class obtained the following distribution (**note: do not use this distribution to test your hypothesis, use the one generated by your lab section**).



What can you determine based on this distribution? We got exactly 3 heads out of 16 flips once in 48 trials. This means the probability that the number of heads=3 is 1/48 or 0.021. Eleven out of 48 flips we got 8 heads so that probability is 11/48 or 0.23. As expected, the probability of getting 8 heads out of 16 flips is much greater than 2 heads out of 16 flips. Based on the distribution, what is the probability of getting 11 or more heads in 16 flips? Add the number of times we got 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 heads and divide by the number of trials.

Thus,

$$P(\geq 11 \text{ heads in 16 flips}) = (1 + 1 + 0 + 1 + 0 + 0) / 48 = 0.0625$$

Returning to the red worm temperature experiment, our mutually exclusive hypotheses were

H_0 : # worms on warm side = # worms on cool side

H_A : # worms on warm side \neq # worms on cool side

We can apply this distribution to determine the probability that our results (4 worms on warm side and 12 worms on cool side) could have occurred by chance alone. To determine this, you must look at both extremes or tails of the distribution. In other words, what is the probability due to chance alone that 12 of 16 worms would move either to the cooler side or warmer side? Based on the above distribution,

$$P(\leq 4, \geq 12) = (0 + 0 + 0 + 1 + 1) + (1 + 0 + 1 + 0 + 0) / 48 = 4/48 = 0.083$$

So, a little over 8% of the time we would expect worms to exhibit this degree of preference for either the cooler or warmer side of the dish just by chance alone. From this we can also calculate a **confidence level**:

100% - $P(\leq 4, \geq 12) = \% \text{ confidence}$

100% - 8.3% = 91.7% confidence

Thus, we are almost 92% confident that the red worms are actually exhibiting a preference for either the warmer or cooler side of the dish.

Is this a statistically significant result? Where is the cutoff between statistical significance (reject H_0 but not H_A) and no statistical significance (reject H_A but not H_0)? The cutoff varies somewhat among disciplines but often is set at either $P \leq 0.1$ or $P \leq 0.05$. These respectively correspond to 90% and 95% confidence levels. $P \leq 0.05$ is the more typical standard and the one that we will use here. From our sample experiment, $P = 0.083$ which is greater than 0.05 so we must reject H_A but not H_0 and conclude that our results did not support the hypothesis that red worms show a preference between warm and cool sides of the dish. Note that the rejection of a hypothesis is somewhat subjective though. If we set our significance level cutoff at $P \leq 0.1$, we would have rejected our null hypothesis and concluded that our data support the alternate hypothesis. In practice, scientists use tables of probability calculated for a very large number of coin flips.

The Effects of Sample Size

Sample size can influence whether results show statistical significance. In our sample experiment, 75% (12/16) of the red worms displayed a preference for the cool side of the dish. Yet, at a significance level of $P \leq 0.05$, this result did not reach statistical significance, and we could not reject our null hypothesis. If instead we had tested 100 red worms and 75 had displayed a preference for the cool side (= 75% as before), would this be significant at $P \leq 0.05$? Using statistical tables generated for just this purpose, we would find that $P < 0.0001$, a *highly* significant result, and could quite confidently state that our data supported our alternative hypothesis that red worms displayed a temperature preference. Although we used a series of coin flips to illustrate a frequency distribution based on two equal outcomes (heads or tails), mathematicians and statisticians have generated standardized probability distributions which scientists use to check the significance of their results. As a side note, our sample coin-flip distribution above fairly well simulates the true distribution based on two outcomes of equal probability in an experiment with 16 trials.

Complete questions 2h-j based on the results of your red worm experiment.

Lab report

- Must be typed; handwritten reports will not be accepted. Hand-drawn and labeled drawings are fine; photographs are not acceptable. All drawings must indicate size.
- Due next week at the start of the lab session you are currently in. This is a firm deadline.
- Although you will perform these activities as a group, each member of the group must turn in an individual lab report. Each person's report must be in his or her own words as much as possible.
- Your lab report must contain:

(1) Observations and Hypotheses—Betta fish or crickets

(a) Which species did you experiment with?

(b) State your general hypothesis.

(c) What are your three response variables (note: these should be three different behaviors you examine to test your one general hypothesis)?

1.

2.

3.

(d) State the null and alternate hypotheses for each of your response variables.

1. H_0 :

H_A :

2. H_0 :

H_A :

3. H_0 :

H_A :

(e) Describe your experimental design. Include important details about your organisms, the physical setup, number of subjects, duration of each trial, etc.

(f) What are your results? Describe them as quantitatively as possible. Do the results support your alternate hypotheses? Explain why or why not?

(g) Offer a discussion of your experiment. What do your results demonstrate about the behaviors and organisms you observed? What do your results suggest about the proximate cause(s) of the behaviors you observed in response to your experimental manipulations? What do think may be the ultimate cause(s) of the behaviors you observed.

(2) Red worm experiment

(a) State your initial hypothesis

(b) What response variable will you use to study the behavior of this species?

(c) State your null and alternate hypotheses

H_0 :

H_A :

_____TA's initials

(d) Describe your experimental design. Include important details about your organisms, the physical setup, number of subjects, duration of each trial, etc.

(e) Are there potential confounding factors in your experimental design? If so, explain.

(f) Fill in the blank chart with your data. Label the chart appropriately for your experiment.

Subject			Comments or Notes
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
Total			

Why is it important to use 16 different individuals instead of testing the same subject 16 times?

(g) Fill in the distribution your class generated by coin flipping and label the axes.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16

What is $P(\text{heads}=9)$? Show your calculations.

What is $P(\text{heads}\geq 9)$? Show your calculations.

(h) Using the class coin flipping distribution above as a basis for your statistical test, how likely is it that the results from your red worm experiment are due to chance? Show your calculations.

(i) Should you reject your null hypothesis? Explain. What is your confidence level? What do your data suggest about your hypotheses?

(j) Offer a discussion of your experiment. What do your results demonstrate about the behaviors and organisms you observed? What do your results suggest about the proximate cause(s) of the behaviors you observed in response to your experimental manipulations? What do think may be the ultimate cause(s) of the behaviors you observed.