### Open Science, Reproducibility, and R.

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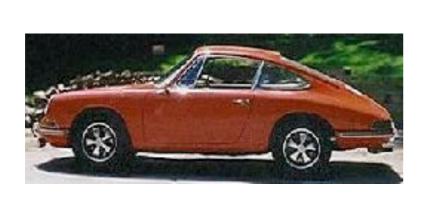


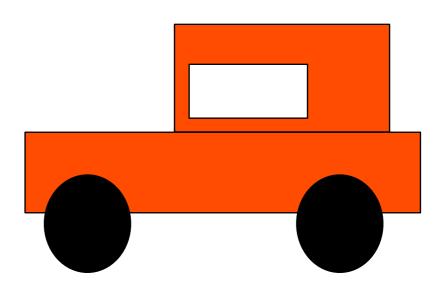
### Statistical Models

- Most of what we do when using statistics in Psychology is model building. We build a statistical model and test whether it is a good fit for our data - in other words, whether it describes our data well.
- All models are an approximation of reality, and some are better than others.
- Or to paraphrase the statistician George Box, "all models are wrong but some are useful".

#### Real data



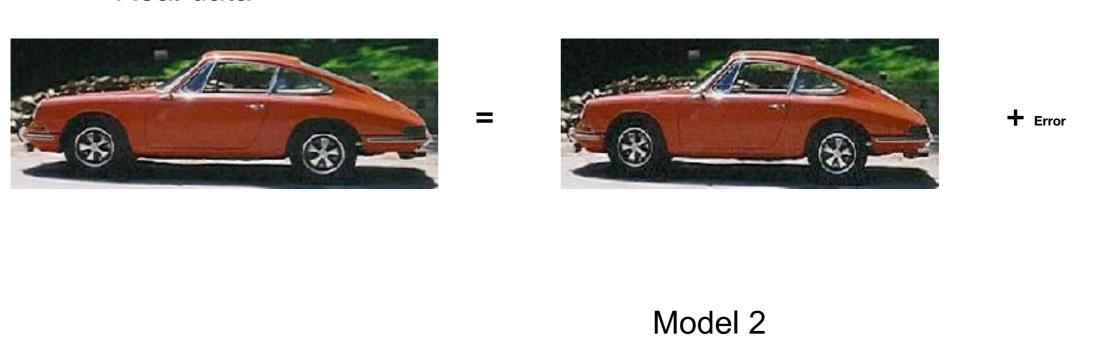




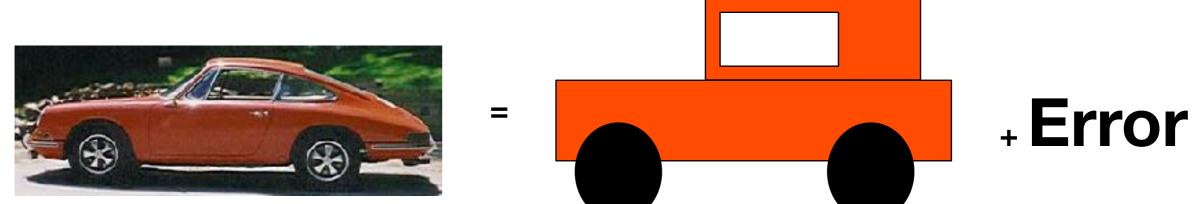
Model 1 Model 2

- So how do we tell if a particular statistical model is a good fit to our data?
- We can look at the extent to which our data deviate from a particular model (where deviation = error)...

### Real data Model 1



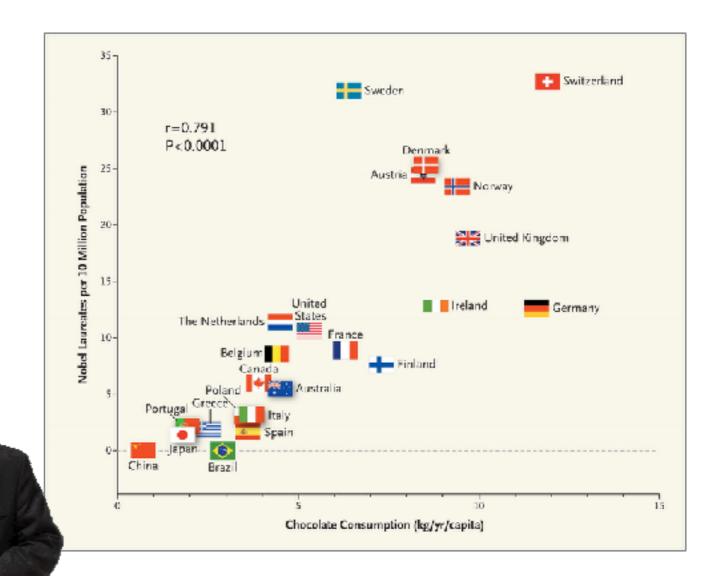
### Real data



 We want to select the model which has the smallest error (aka model residuals)...

## Relationships between variables

There is a high correlation (r = 0.791) between chocolate consumption in a country and the number of Nobel Prize winners in that country...Why do you think this is?



### The Linear Model

 We can capture the linear relationship between two variables with:

$$y = \beta x_i + \beta_o + residual_i$$

 $\beta$  = gradient of the line

 $\beta_o$  = intercept (when x=0)

residual<sub>i</sub> = difference between predicted score and actual score for participant i

### The Linear Model in R

We are interested in whether house prices in 250 regions of the UK can be predicted by:

- (a) Population size
- (b) Crime rate (per 10,000 people)
- (c) Average age of people in the region
- (d) Average household income in the region.

Including our predictor and a column identifying our Regions, our datasets consists of 6 variables.

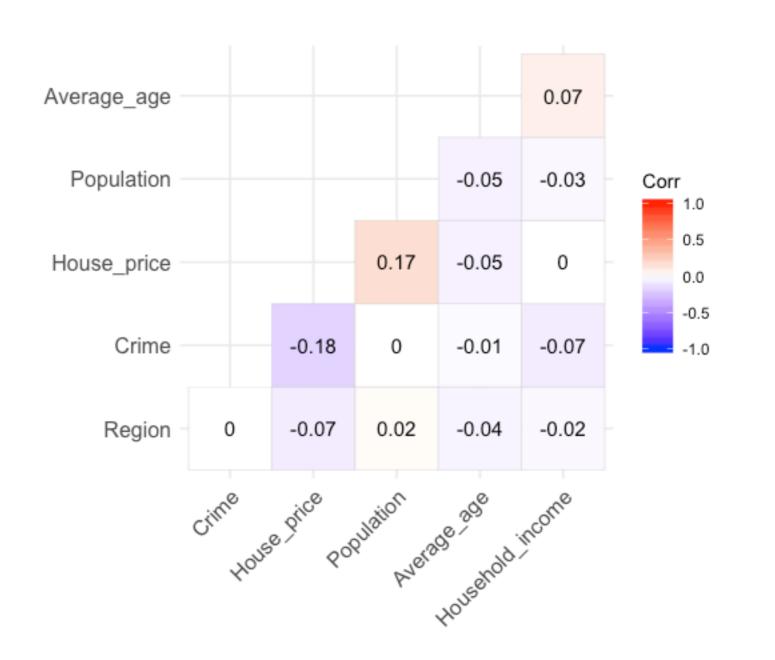
## Load the packages we're going to use and our dataset...

```
library(tidyverse)
library(ggcorrplot)
library(car)

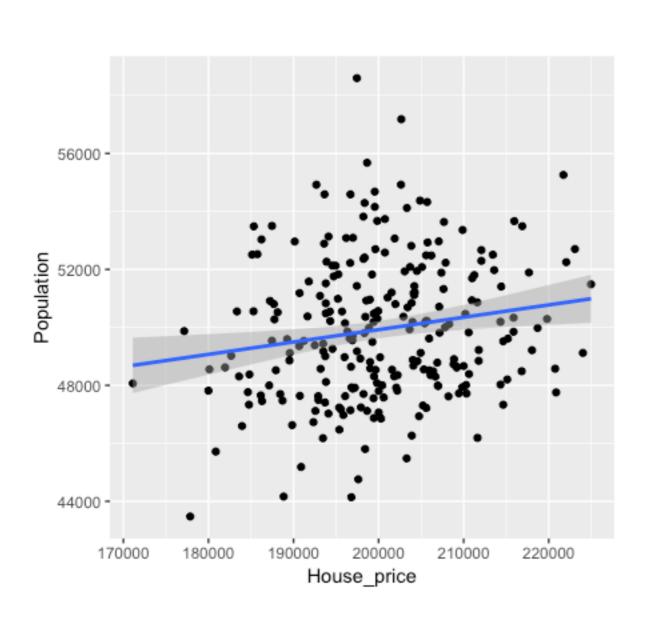
my_data <- read_csv("https://bit.ly/31FxhF4")</pre>
```

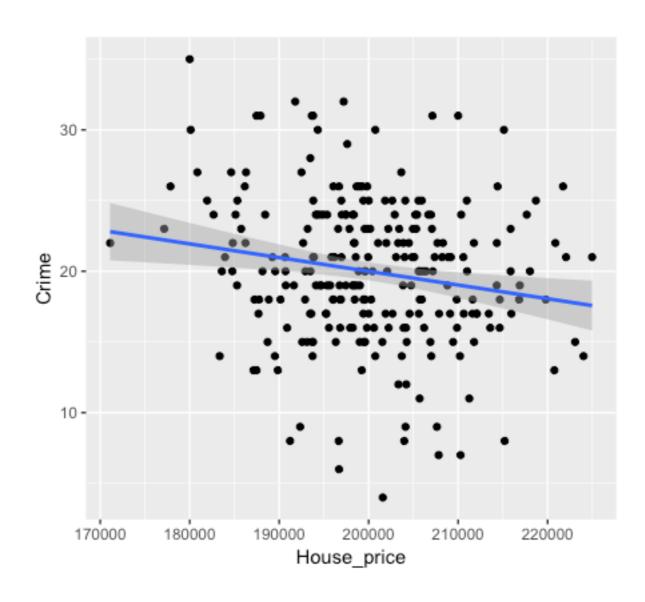
	Region	House_price	Population	Crime	Average_age	Household_income
	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>	<dbl></dbl>
1	1	193735	49004	14	72.7	20843.
2	2	201836	48307	25	78.1	19130.
3	3	191643	50379	19	71.4	20411.
4	4	215952	53664	17	72.1	16863.
5	5	203295	45481	22	76.1	19964.
6	6	191795	51582	32	81.2	20207.

### Let's build a correlation plot:



## Let's first build some plots looking at the possible relationship between each predictor and our outcome variable.







First we will build a linear model with all 4 predictors, then a second model with just the intercept (i.e., the mean) - we then compare them - is the model with the 4 predictors a better fit to our data than the model with just the mean?

The F-ratio comparing our two models is 4.0985 indicating our model with all the predictors is a better fit than our model with just the intercept (the mean). We then need to get our parameter estimates using the function summary()

```
> summary(model1)
```

#### Call:

lm(formula = House\_price ~ Population + Crime + Average\_age
+
Household income, data = my data)

Residuals:

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max -26460.7 -6011.9 -386.4 6331.8 24591.6

#### Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr (>|t|)  $10.754^{-1} < 2e-16 ***$ (Intercept) 1.807e+05 1.680e+04 Population 6.577e-01 2.453e-01 2.682 0.00782 \*\* Crime -3.358e+02 1.153e+02 -2.913 0.00391 \*\* -8.218e+01 1.186e+02 -0.693 0.48915 Average age Household income -1.957e-02 3.033e-01 -0.065 0.94861

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '
' 1

Residual standard error: 9394 on 245 degrees of freedom Multiple R-squared: 0.06272, Adjusted R-squared: 0.04741 F-statistic: 4.098 on 4 and 245 DF, p-value: 0.00311

Here we have our parameter estimates and the t-tests associated with our predictors.

Here are the R-squared and Adjusted R-squared values (which reflects number of predictors in our model).

```
# Notice that Average_age and Household_income do not seem to predict house prices
# Let's drop them in model2
model2 <- lm(House_price ~ Population + Crime, data = my_data)
anova(model2, model1)

> anova(model2, model1)
Analysis of Variance Table

Model 1: House_price ~ Population + Crime
Model 2: House_price ~ Population + Crime + Average_age + Household_income
Res.Df RSS Df Sum of Sq F Pr(>F)
1 247 2.1666e+10
2 245 2.1622e+10 2 43401593 0.2459 0.7822
```

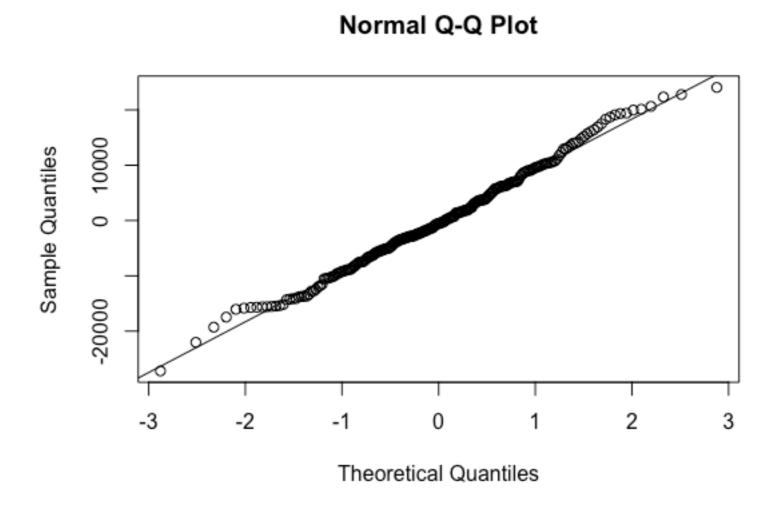
OK, so the models do not differ significantly by this test - we can use another measure of goodness-of-fit - AIC (Aikaike Information Criterion). AIC tells us how much information in our data is not captured by each model - lower values are better - can only be interpreted in a relative sense (i.e., comparing one model to another)...

```
> AIC (model1)
[1] 5290.354
> AIC (model2)
[1] 5286.855
```

We defined model2 as having just two predictors - as model2 has the lower AIC value (so more information in our data is explained by model2 than by model1), we would be justified in selecting that as our 'best' model. AIC penalises models with increasing number of parameters (but not as much as BIC) so gives us a good trade-off of fitting our data and model complexity.

In regression our residuals need to be normally distributed the easiest way to check this is to plot them:

```
qqnorm(residuals(model2))
qqline(residuals(model2))
```

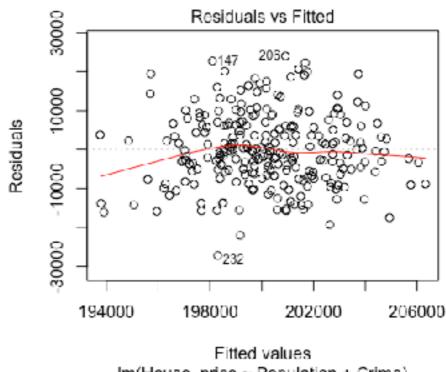


Now let's look at a number of diagnostic plots...

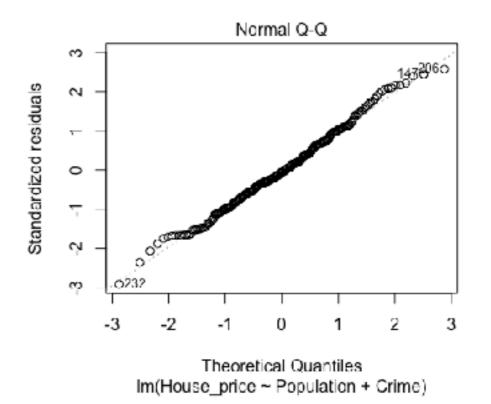
We can use the following command to get some visual representations of model fit:

> plot(model2)

We should have a similar distribution of points (via LOESS Curve Fitting) either side of zero - if we don't it would suggest non-random errors (see Durbin Watson test later). In the Q-Q plot we should see a diagonal line if our residuals are normally distributed.



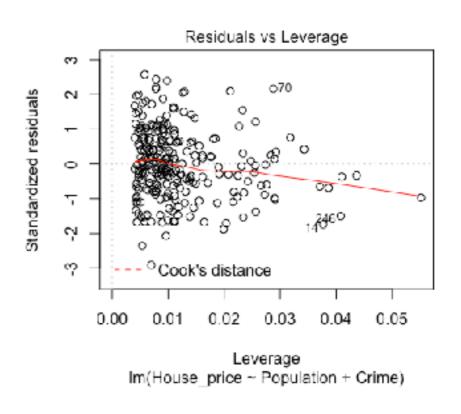
Im(House price ~ Population + Crime)



The Scale-Location plot shows if residuals are spread equally along the ranges of predictors. We used this to check the assumption of equal variance (homoscedasticity). We really want to see a horizontal line with equally, randomly spread points.

The Residuals vs. Leverage plot tells us about influential outliers (i.e., outliers that are affecting our model) - when cases are outside of Cook's distance (beyond the dashed line) it means they are having an influential affect on the regression model - we'd might want to exclude these points and rebuild our model.





### **Durbin Watson Test**

 This tests for the non-independence of errors - our errors need to be independent (one of the assumptions of regression). This test needs the car package to be loaded.

A D-W value of 2 means that there is no autocorrelation in the sample - our calculated value is pretty close to that - p = .66 so we conclude our errors are independent of each other.

## Stepwise Regression Based on AIC Improvement

Rather than building our regression model step by step manually, we can use the step function in R - it takes a starting model, and then uses forwards or backwards procedures (or a combination of both) to produce the best model.

Let's apply the procedure to model0 and model1 as our limits - we can specify the stepwise procedure with the parameter "direction":

```
> steplimitsboth <- step(model0, scope = list(upper =
model1), direction = "both")</pre>
```

 Let's focus on the combined method that adds predictors which improve model fit, and removes ones that don't - based on minimising AIC:

```
> summary(steplimitsboth)
Call:
lm(formula = House price ~ Crime + Population, data = my data)
Residuals:
     Min
              10 Median
                                30
                                        Max
-27192.2 -6161.4 -555.2
                            6203.4 24061.0
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.736e+05 1.243e+04 13.973 < 2e-16 ***
           -3.343e+02 1.147e+02 -2.915 0.00388 **
Crime
           6.662e-01 2.442e-01 2.729 0.00682 **
Population
               0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Signif. codes:
Residual standard error: 9366 on 247 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.06084, Adjusted R-squared: 0.05323
                8 on 2 and 247 DF, p-value: 0.0004301
F-statistic:
> AIC(steplimitsboth)
[1] 5286.855
```

We can see the procedure has settled on the model with Crime and Population. AIC value is 5286.855. In this case the stepwise model is the same as what we arrived at manually.

We can also estimate the confidence intervals for each of our parameters using the confint() function - repeating the study, 95% of calculated confidence intervals will include the true value of the parameter.

```
> confint(steplimitsboth, level = 0.95) 2.5 \% \qquad 97.5 \% (Intercept) 1.491596e+05 \qquad 198110.856517 Crime -5.602084e+02 \qquad -108.461481 Population 1.853052e-01 \qquad 1.147126
```

## Stepwise Regression Based on Adjusted R Squared Improvement

• Use the ols\_step\_forward function to work out the model with predictors entered on the basis of improvement via *p*-value and adjusted R<sup>2</sup>. For this we need the package olsrr.

```
# Using ols_step_forward
> install.packages("olsrr")
> library(olsrr)
> pmodel <- ols_step_forward_p(model1)
> pmodel
```

> pmodel <- ols\_step\_forward\_p(model1)
Forward Selection Method</pre>

----

#### Candidate Terms:

- 1. Population
- 2. Crime
- 3. Average age
- 4. Household income

We are selecting variables based on p value...

Final Model Output

-----

R	0.247	RMSE	9365.686
R-Squared	0.061	Coef. Var	4.678
Adj. R-Squared	0.053	MSE	87716066.079
Pred R-Squared	0.039	MAE	7416.676

Model Summary

RMSE: Root Mean Square Error

MSE: Mean Square Error MAE: Mean Absolute Error

#### Parameter Estimates

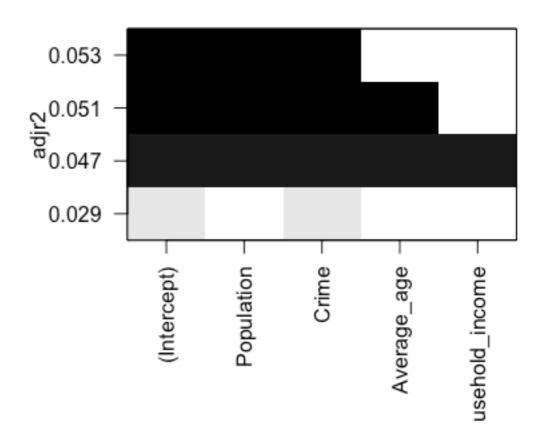
model	Beta	Std. Error	Std. Beta	t	Sig	lower	upper
(Intercept) Crime Population	173635.236 -334.335 0.666	12426.603 114.679 0.244	-0.180 0.168	13.973 -2.915 2.729	0.000 0.004 0.007	149159.616 -560.208 0.185	198110.857 -108.461 1.147

The model determined by p-value improvement is also the one with the lowest AIC value - but this may not always be the case.

• Visualise the possible models (incl. the one with the largest adjusted R<sup>2</sup> value) using the *leaps* package.

## > library(leaps) > leapsmodels <- regsubsets(House\_price ~ Population + Crime + Average\_age + Household\_income, data = data) > plot(leapsmodels, scale = "adjr2", main = "Models")

#### Models



## Collinearity?

 We can apply the vif() function to our model - it will work out the VIF values for each of our variables - vif() is in the car package so don't forget to load that...

- As a rule of thumb VIF greater than 10 suggests a multicollinearity issue (although greater than 5 has been suggested too - more conservative).
- For our case, we don't have a collinearity problem as the VIF values are low.

```
Coefficients:

Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

(Intercept) 1.736e+05 1.243e+04 13.973 < 2e-16 ***

Crime -3.343e+02 1.147e+02 -2.915 0.00388 **

Population 6.662e-01 2.442e-01 2.729 0.00682 **

---

Signif. codes: 0 \***' 0.001 \**' 0.01 \*' 0.05 \'.' 0.1 \' 1
```

 Using these regression coefficents, we could write our regression equation as something like:

```
House price = 173,600 - 334.2 (Crime) + 0.6662 (Population) + residual
```

 So, crime has a negative influence on house prices (more crime = lower prices) while population size has a positive influence on house prices (more people = higher house prices).

### ANOVA

We have 45 participants, a between participants condition with 3 levels (Water vs. Single Espresso vs. Double Espresso), and Ability as our DV measured on a continuous scale.

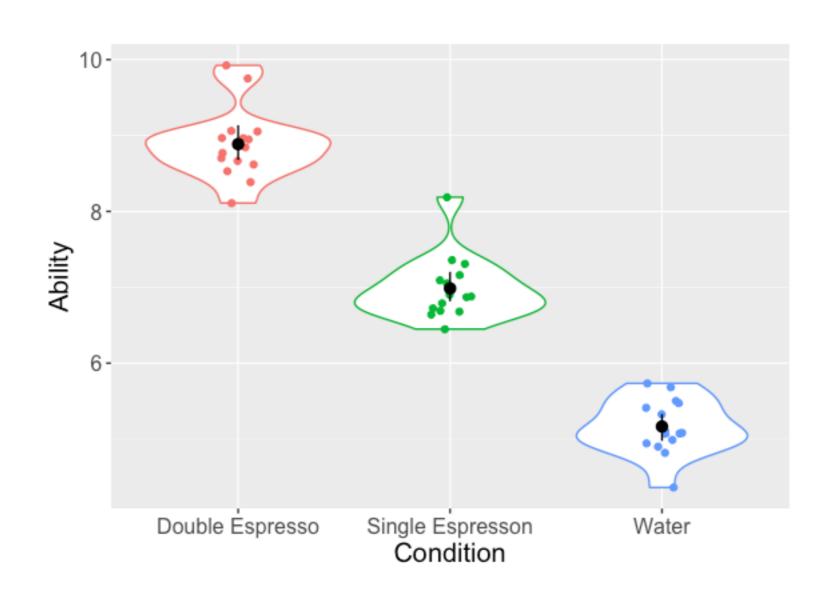
```
cond <- read_csv("https://bit.ly/33xm62R")
cond$Condition <- as.factor(cond$Condition)</pre>
```

```
> cond
# A tibble: 45 x 3
  Participant Condition Ability
       <dbl> <fct>
                     <dbl>
          1 Water
                     4.82
          2 Water 5.41
3
          3 Water 5.73
          4 Water 4.36
5
          5 Water 5.47
6
          6 Water 5.50
        7 Water 5.07
8
        8 Water 5.08
9
        9 Water 5.07
         10 Water
                    4.94
10
# ... with 35 more rows
```

We have three columns - Participant number, Condition, and Ability. Condition is our IV, and Ability our DV. Note, our data are in tidy format with one observation per row.

## Generating Descriptives and Visualising the Data

```
cond %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = Condition, y = Ability, colour = Condition)) +
  geom_violin() +
  geom_jitter(width = .1) +
  guides(colour = FALSE) +
  stat_summary(fun.data = "mean_cl_boot", colour = "black") +
  theme(text = element text(size = 15))
```



## aov 4 vs. base aov ()

- A particularly good package for ANOVA in R is by Henrik Singmann and called afex.
- Built to work like ANOVA in SPSS uses Type III
  Sums of Squares with effect coding of contrasts.
  This overrides the default contrast coding in base
  R's aov () which is dummy coding.

### library(afex)

model <- aov 4 (Ability ~ Condition + (1 | Participant), data = cond)

This is our DV

This is our IV This is our random effect

```
> summary(model)
Anova Table (Type 3 tests)
```

Response: Ability

num Df den Df MSE F ges Pr(>F) Condition 2 42 0.17484 297.05 0.93397 < 2.2e-16 \*\*\*

Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0.001 '\*\*' 0.01 '\*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

To determine what's driving the effect we can use the emmeans::emmeans() to run pairwise comparisons (note, default is Tukey correction).

```
> emmeans (model, pairwise ~ Condition)
$emmeans
 Condition emmean SE df lower.CL upper.CL
Double Espresso 8.89 0.108 42 8.67 9.10
 Single Espresson 6.99 0.108 42 6.77 7.20
 Water
       5.17 0.108 42 4.95 5.38
Confidence level used: 0.95
$contrasts
                                 estimate SE df t.ratio
 contrast
p.value
 Double Espresso - Single Espresson 1.90 0.153 42 12.453 <.0001
                                  3.72 0.153 42 24.372
Double Espresso - Water
                                                        <.0001
                                    1.82 0.153 42 11.920
 Single Espresson - Water
                                                        < .0001
P value adjustment: tukey method for comparing a family of 3
estimates
```

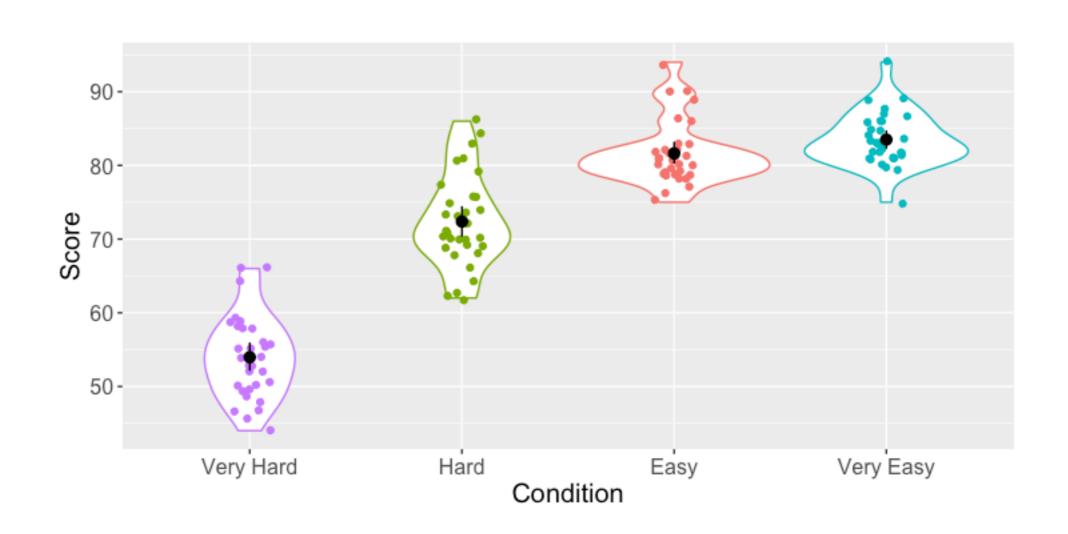
# ANOVA for factorial designs

- Let's imagine we have an experiment where we asked 32 participants to memorise words of differing levels of spelling complexity - Very Easy, Easy, Hard, and Very Hard.
- They were presented with these words in an initial exposure phrase. After a 30 minute break we tested them by asking them to write down all the words. We scored them as number correct for each condition.
- We want to know whether there is a difference in the number of words they remembered for each level of spelling complexity.

```
rm data <- read csv("https://bit.ly/304Koiu")
rm data$Condition <- as.factor(rm data$Condition)</pre>
rm data
# A tibble: 128 x 3
  Participant Condition Score
        <dbl> <fct> <dbl>
                           80
            1 Very Easy
 2
            2 Very Easy 86
            3 Very Easy 89
            4 Very Easy 75
 5
            5 Very Easy 86
 6
                        87
            6 Very Easy
                        82
           7 Very Easy
 8
                        82
            8 Very Easy
 9
                        82
            9 Very Easy
                        81
10
           10 Very Easy
# ... with 118 more rows
```

# Generating Descriptives and Visualising the Data

```
rm_data %>%
   ggplot(aes(x = fct_reorder(Condition, Score), y = Score, colour =
Condition)) +
   geom_violin() +
   geom_jitter(width = .1) +
   guides(colour = FALSE) +
   stat_summary(fun.data = "mean_cl_boot", colour = "black") +
   theme(text = element_text(size = 15)) +
   labs(x = "Condition")
```



## This is the our ANOVA model - we have a significant effect of Condition.

```
> model <- aov 4(Score ~ Condition + (1 + Condition | Participant), data = rm data)
> summary(model)
Univariate Type III Repeated-Measures ANOVA Assuming Sphericity
               SS num Df Error SS den Df F Pr(>F)
(Intercept) 679632 1 936.49
                                    31 22497.36 < 2.2e-16 ***
Condition 17509 3 2179.48 93
                                         249.04 < 2.2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Mauchly Tests for Sphericity
         Test statistic p-value
Condition 0.90603 0.71042
Greenhouse-Geisser and Huynh-Feldt Corrections
for Departure from Sphericity
         GG eps Pr(>F[GG])
Condition 0.9401 < 2.2e-16 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
           HF eps Pr(>F[HF])
Condition 1.043895 2.615157e-44
```

The effect size is measured by ges which stands for generalised effect size  $(\eta_G^2)$  - this is the recommended effect size measure for repeated measures designs (Bakeman, 2005). We get this by using the anova () function on our model. Note the dfs in this output are always corrected as if there is a violation of sphericity - to be conservative (and to avoid Type I errors) we might be better off to always choose these corrected dfs.

#### Where does the difference lie?

Warning: EMMs are biased unless design is perfectly balanced Confidence level used: 0.95

P value adjustment: bonferroni method for 6 tests

## **Factorial ANOVA**

• Imagine the case where we're interested in the effect of positive vs. negative contexts on how quickly (in milliseconds) people respond to positive vs negative sentences. We think there might be a priming effect (i.e., people are quicker to respond to positive sentences after positive contexts vs. after negative contexts - and vice versa).

 So, we have two factors, each with two levels. This is what's known as a full factorial design where every subject participates in every condition.

```
fact data <- read csv("https://bit.ly/2H6G4Ie")</pre>
fact data$Sentence <- as.factor(fact data$Sentence)</pre>
fact data$Context <- as.factor(fact data$Context)</pre>
fact data
# A tibble: 1,680 \times 5
   Subject Item RT Sentence Context
     <dbl> <dbl> <fct>
                               <fct>
 1
              3 1270 Positive Negative
          7 739 Positive Negative
 3
        1 11 982 Positive Negative
             15 1291 Positive Negative
 5
             19 1734 Positive Negative
        1 23 1757 Positive Negative
 6
             27 1052 Positive Negative
 8
          4 1706 Positive Negative
 9
          8 533 Positive Negative
10
             12 1009 Positive Negative
# ... with 1,670 more rows
```

# Generating Descriptives and Visualising the Data

```
fact_data %>%
   group_by(Context, Sentence) %>%
   summarise(mean = mean(RT), sd = sd(RT))

# A tibble: 4 x 4

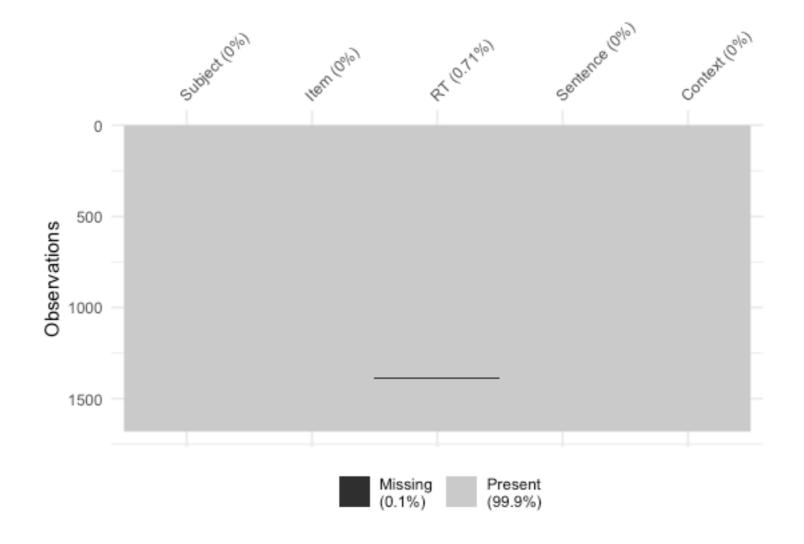
# Groups: Context [2]
   Context Sentence mean sd
   <fct> <fct> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl>
1 Negative Negative 1474. 729.
2 Negative Positive NA NA
3 Positive Negative 1579. 841.
```

What's going on here?

# Let's visualise the whole dataset...

We can use a function in a package without loading it into our library using package name::function name like this:

visdat::vis\_miss(fact\_data)



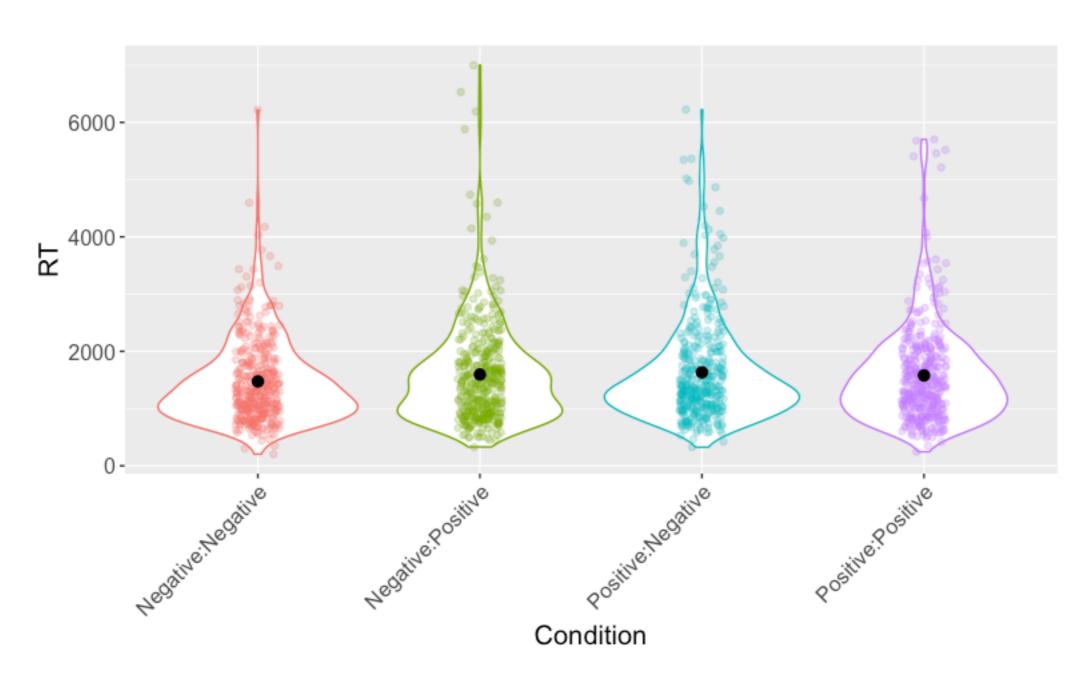
# Let's ignore the missing data (NAs)...

```
fact_data %>%
  filter(!is.na(RT)) %>%
  group_by(Context, Sentence) %>%
  summarise(mean = mean(RT), sd = sd(RT))

# A tibble: 4 x 4

# Groups: Context [2]
  Context Sentence mean sd
  <fct> <fct> <dbl> <dbl>
1 Negative Negative 1474. 729.
2 Negative Positive 1595. 887.
3 Positive Negative 1633. 877.
4 Positive Positive 1579. 841.
```

```
fact_data %>%
  ggplot(aes(x = Context:Sentence, y = RT, colour = Context:Sentence)) +
  geom_violin() +
  geom_jitter(width = .1, alpha = .25) +
  guides(colour = FALSE) +
  stat_summary(fun.data = "mean_cl_boot", colour = "black") +
  theme(text = element_text(size = 15), axis.text.x = element_text(angle = 45, hjust = 1)) +
  labs(x = "Condition")
```



```
model <- aov_4(RT ~ Context * Sentence + (1 + Context *
Sentence | Subject), data = fact data, na.rm = TRUE)</pre>
```

- Syntax corresponds to RT being predicted by the two factors (Context \* Sentence) corresponds to two main effects plus the interaction) plus the random effect by Subjects using the datafile called DV. By setting na.rm to be TRUE, we are telling the analysis to ignore individual trials where there might be missing data effectively this calculates the condition means over the data that is present (and ignores trial where it is missing).
- aov\_4 aggregates over the grouping term in the random effect. Simply change to (I + Context \* Sentence | Item) for byitem (i.e., F2) analysis. This requires the data to contain the individual observations (not aggregated as means).

• The output contains the main effect of Sentence, the main effect of Context, and the interaction between the two. Associated with each are the dfs, the Mean Squared Error, the F ratio, the generalized eta-squared, and p-value. Note, you can ask for partial eta-squared as effect size measure too.

## Interpreting Interactions

We can build the model as before and pass the model to the function emmeans (remember to load the emmeans package) and ask for pairwise comparisons with no correction - we need to work out the Bonferroni corrected value ourselves...

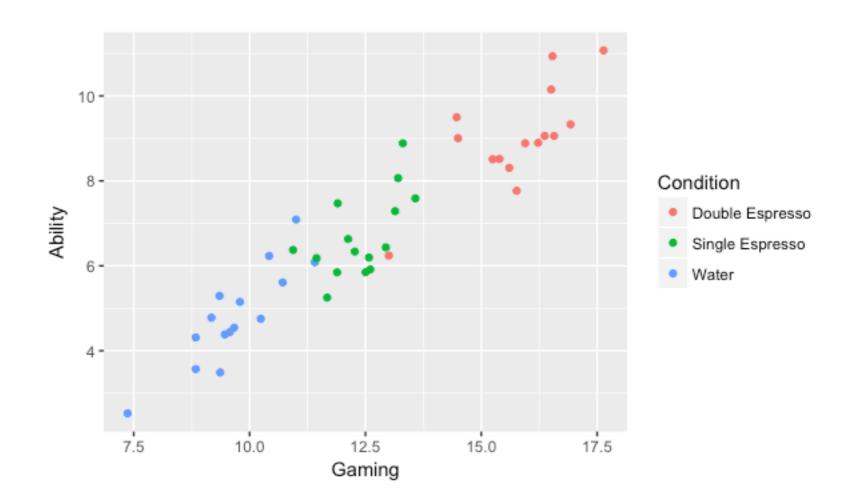
```
> emmeans (model, pairwise ~ Sentence * Context, adjust = "none")
$emmeans
                                         df lower.CL upper.CL
 Sentence Context
                     emmean
Positive Positive 1579.181 57.78624 137.64 1464.917 1693.445
Negative Positive 1627.877 57.78624 137.64 1513.614 1742.141
 Positive Negative 1594.889 57.78624 137.64 1480.625 1709.152
Negative Negative 1473.962 57.78624 137.64 1359.698 1588.225
Confidence level used: 0.95
$contrasts
                                                              df t.ratio p.value
                                                       SE
 contrast
                                        estimate
 Positive, Positive - Negative, Positive -48.69643 60.33730 115.72
                                                                  -0.807
                                                                          0.4213
Positive, Positive - Positive, Negative -15.70794 55.39009 117.95
                                                                  -0.284
                                                                          0.7772
 Positive, Positive - Negative, Negative 105.21905 59.82499 115.06
                                                                   1.759
                                                                          0.0813
 Negative, Positive - Positive, Negative 32.98849 59.82499 115.06
                                                                   0.551
                                                                          0.5824
Negative, Positive - Negative, Negative 153.91548 55.39009 117.95
                                                                   2.779
                                                                          0.0064
 Positive, Negative - Negative, Negative 120.92698 60.33730 115.72
                                                                   2.004
                                                                          0.0474
```

### ANCOVA

- Earlier we looked at how double espresso vs. single espresso vs. water drinking (our IV) might influence motor performance (our DV).
- Imagine we sampled from a new group of participants and we think other factors that we are not manipulating might also influence the DV – e.g., practice with computer games.
- What we want is to be able to see the effect on our DV of our IV after we have removed the effects of other things (computer gaming frequency in this case).

- Now, imagine we have a measure of computer games frequency - perhaps hours per week people play computer games...
- So, in addition to manipulating the type of beverage we're giving people (i.e., double espresso vs. single espresso vs. water) we also measure how often they play computer games...
- Let's do a plot first with our DV (Ability) on the y-axis, and our covariate (Gaming Frequency) on the x-axis...

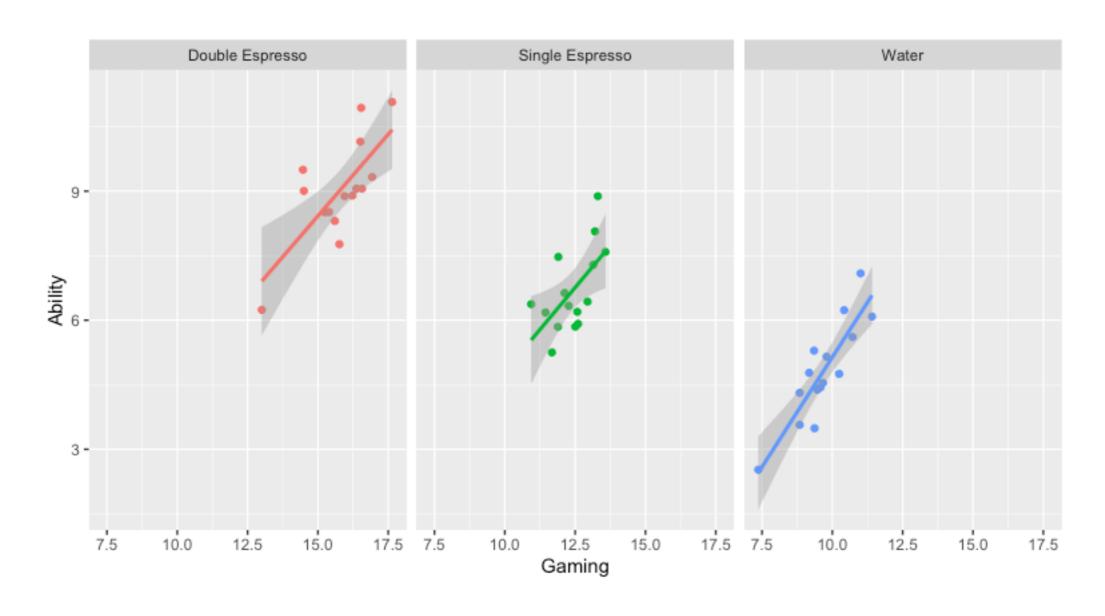
```
ggplot(cond, aes(x = Gaming, y = Ability, colour = Condition)) + geom point()
```



- So we can see there's a relationship between our DV (Ability) and our covariate (Gaming Frequency)...
- We can also see our Gaming Ability groups appear to be clustering in our data by Condition...

## We can look at the data separately by condition using the facet wrap() function:

```
ggplot(cond, aes(x = Gaming, y = Ability, colour = Condition)) +
   geom_point() +
   facet_wrap(~ Condition) +
   geom_smooth(method = 'lm') +
   guides(colour = FALSE)
```



Running a 1-way between participants ANOVA (and ignoring the covariate)...

The factor Condition is significant with an F = 53.432. We would erroneously conclude that our manipulation has had an effect...

## But now let's control for the effect of our co-variate (which we first need to scale and centre)...

```
> cond$Gaming <- scale(cond$Gaming)</pre>
> model ancova <- aov 4 (Ability ~ Gaming + Condition + (1 | Participant),
data = cond, factorize = FALSE)
Contrasts set to contr.sum for the following variables: Condition
> anova(model ancova)
Anova Table (Type 3 tests)
Response: Ability
          num Df den Df MSE
                                                  Pr (>F)
                                            ges
Gaming
              1 41 0.55171 53.5636 0.56643 5.87e-09 ***
               2 41 0.55171 0.8771 0.04103
Condition
                                                  0.4236
                0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Signif. codes:
```

The factor Condition is now <u>not</u> significant with an F < 1. However, our covariate *Gaming Frequency* is significant. Adding it means a lot of the variance we previously attributed to our experimental factor is actually explained by our covariate. Note, the F values are calculated using Type III Sum of Squares by the  $aov_4$  () function - more on that in a bit...

### Rather than calculating over the raw means which are:

Water Group = 4.82 Double Espresso Group = 9.02 Single Espresso Group = 6.69

```
cond %>%
 group by (Condition) %>%
 summarise(mean ability = mean(Ability), sd ability = sd(Ability))
# A tibble: 3 x 3
 Condition
              mean ability sd ability
                  <fct>
                   9.02
                             1.19
1 Double Espresso
2 Single Espresso
                   6.69 0.977
                     4.82
3 Water
                             1.16
```

The ANCOVA model uses the *adjusted* means (which take into consideration the influence of the covariate):

```
Water Group = 7.33

Double Espresso Group = 6.32

Single Espresso Group = 6.87
```

```
> emmeans (model_ancova, pairwise ~ Condition, adjust = "none") $emmeans
Condition emmean SE df lower.CL upper.CL
Double Espresso 6.319464 0.4152816 41 5.480786 7.158142
Single Espresso 6.871614 0.1934303 41 6.480974 7.262255
Water 7.327960 0.3931110 41 6.534056 8.121864
Confidence level used: 0.95
```

If our experimental factor in the ANCOVA had been significant, we could have looked at the pairwise comparisons reported by emmeans to determine what condition was different from what other condition...

But once we take account of the influence of our covariate we found no effect of Condition...

Note, if we had used the base R function aov() the F-tests would have been conducted using Type I (sequential) Sums of Squares. For Type III, we need to use the  $aov_4()$  function.

### **Worksheet 2**

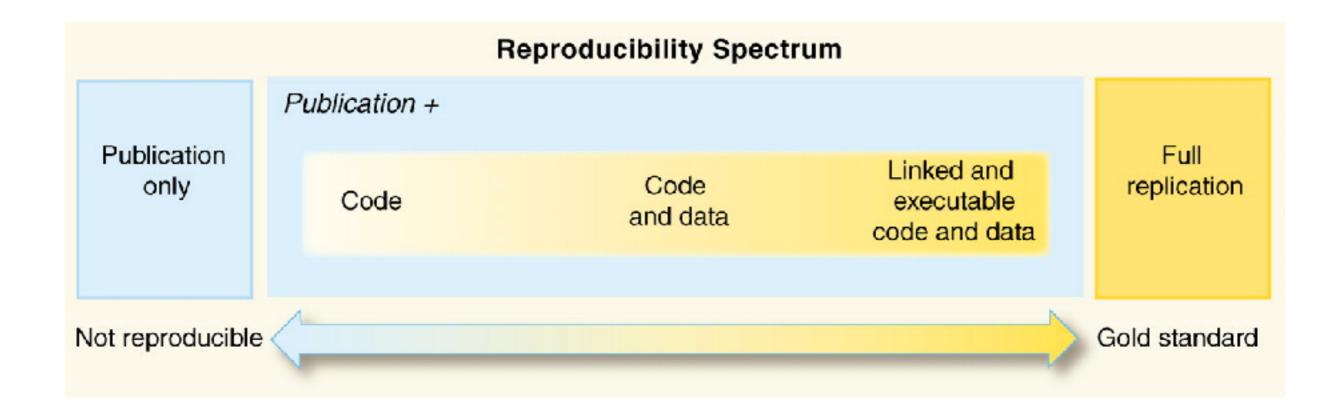
#### PERSPECTIVE

### Reproducible Research in Computational Science

#### Roger D. Peng

+ See all authors and affiliations

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# Why do we need to reproduce the computational environment?

- Quite often analysis code 'breaks' often in one of two ways:
- Code that worked previously now doesn't maybe a function in an R package was updated (e.g., lsmeans became emmeans so old code using lsmeans wouldn't now run).
- Code that worked previously still works but produces a slightly different result or now throws a warning where it didn't previousy (e.g., convergence/singular fit warnings in lme4 version 1.1-19 vs. version 1.1-20).

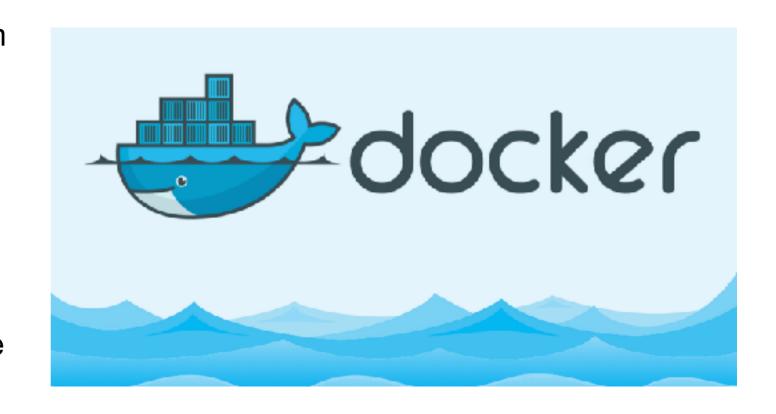
# Capturing your local computational environment

- You need to capture the versions of the different R packages (plus their dependencies).
- May sound trivial but trying running some old R code and be amazed at how many things now don't work as they once did!

## Docker for beginners

Docker packages your data, code and all its dependencies in the form called a docker container to ensure that your application works seamlessly in any environment.

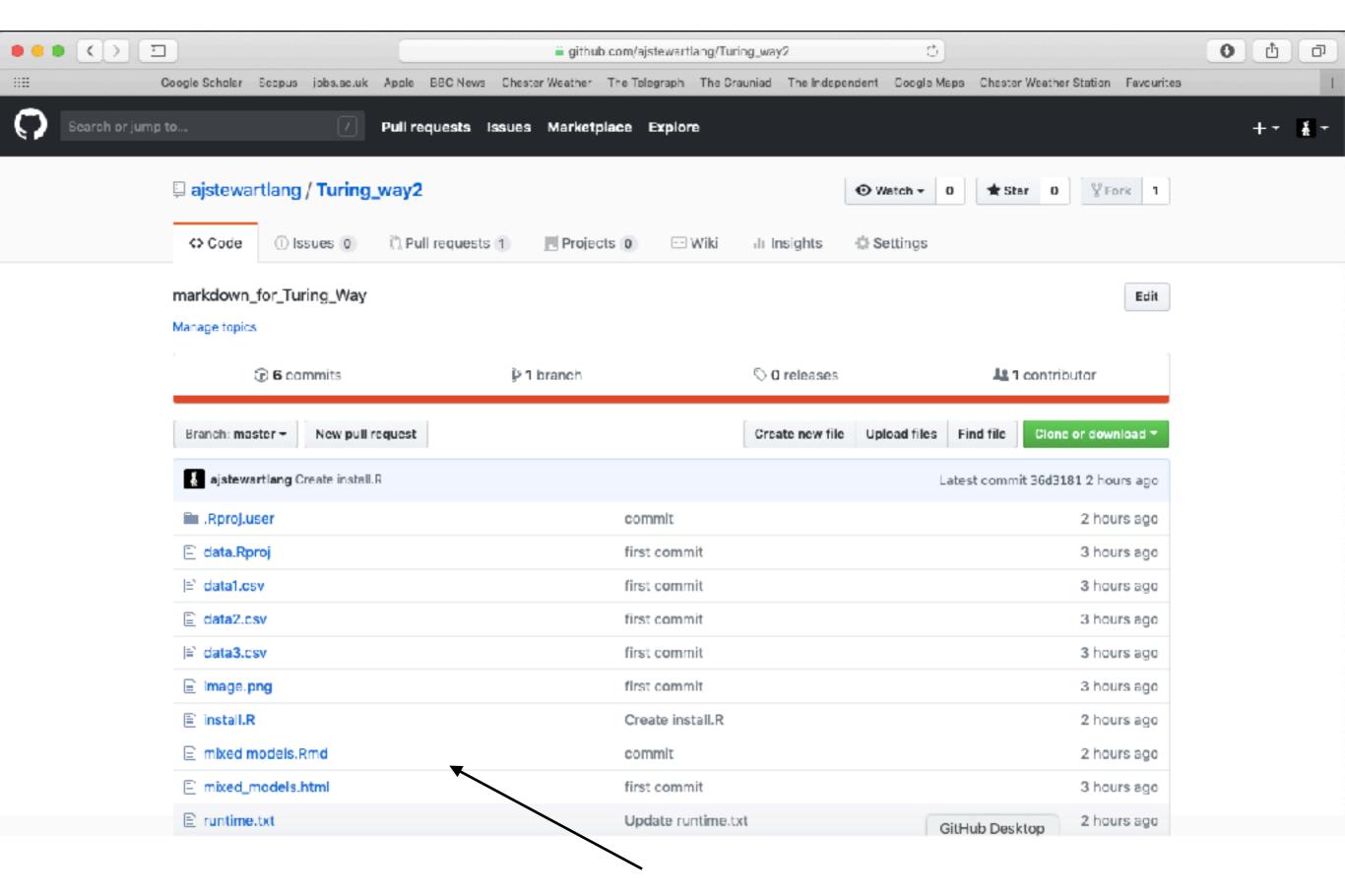
When you run a docker container it's like running your analysis on a virtual computer that has the same configuration as our own one at the point in time when you ran the analysis.



https://medium.com/the-andela-way/docker-for-beginners-61e8e0ce6a19

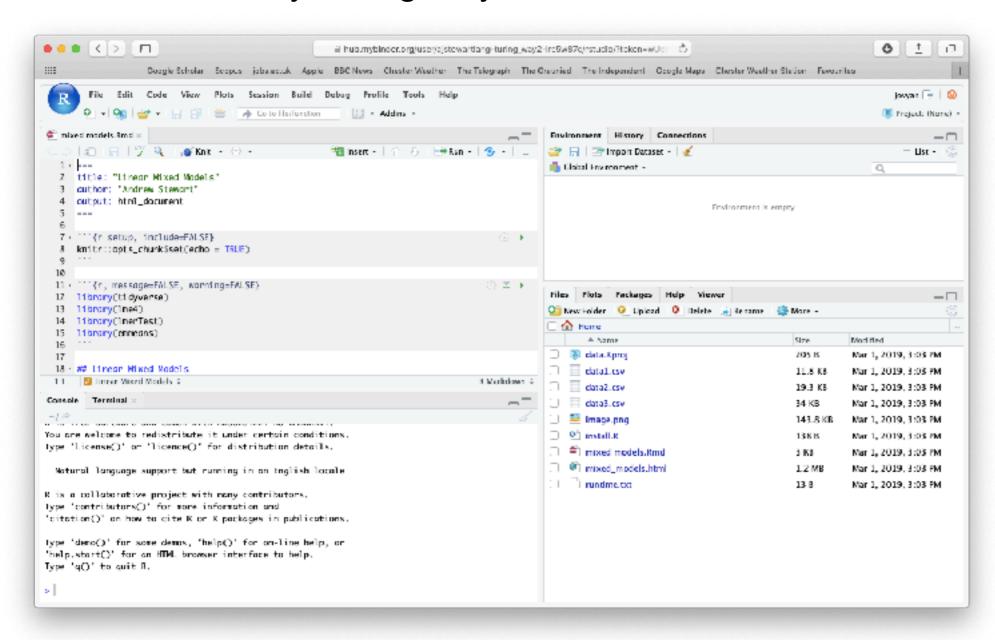
## So what's Binder?

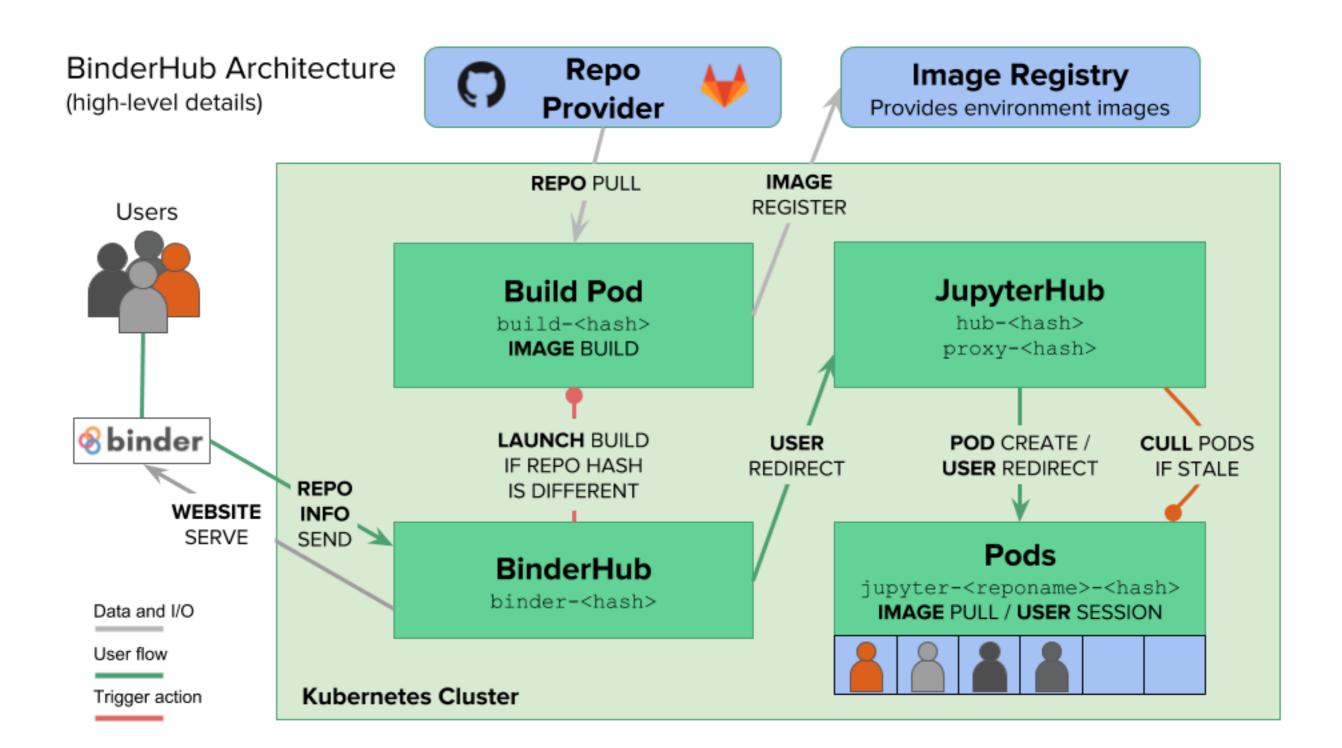
- Binder is powered by BinderHub, which is an open-source tool that deploys the Binder service in the cloud.
- Binder works by pulling a repository that you set up on GitHub into a Docker container - uses repo2docker.
- Think of a repository as a folder containing your R code, your data, and a few other small bits and pieces - but it sits in the cloud rather than on your computer.



My R code and data files.

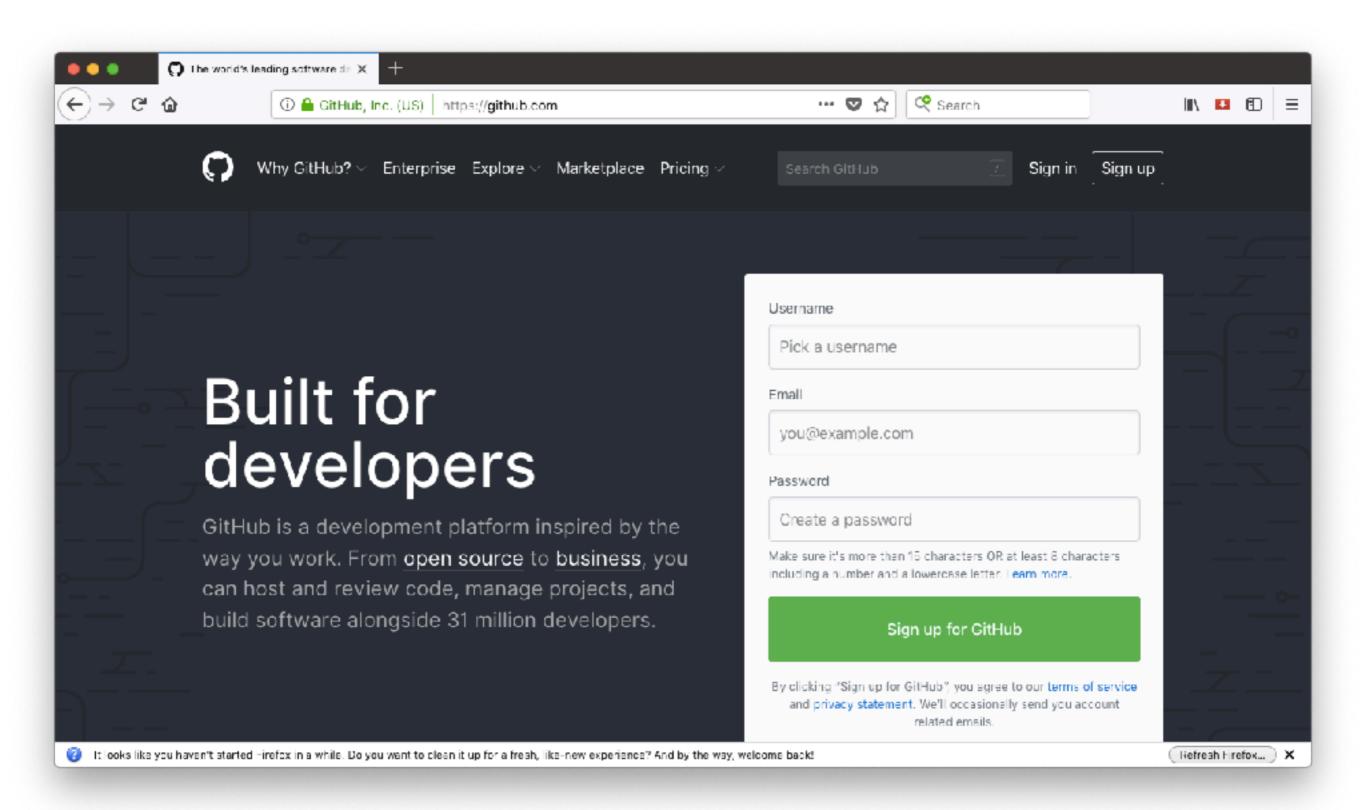
- When I link my GitHub repository to Binder and launch it I then get the following in my web browser.
- This is RStudio running the cloud using my code, my data and the appropriate versions of the packages that I was using when I did the analysis originally!



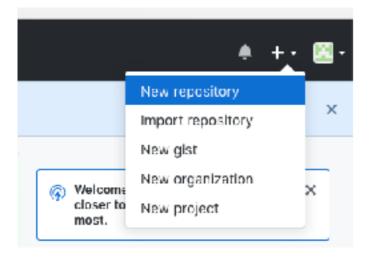


https://binderhub.readthedocs.io/en/latest/index.html

### Step 1 - Set up a GitHub account

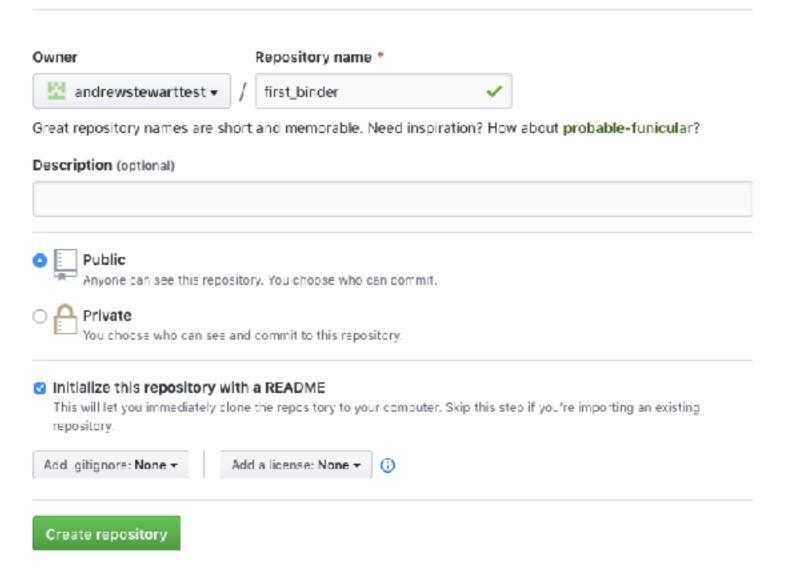


### Step 2 - Create a new repository

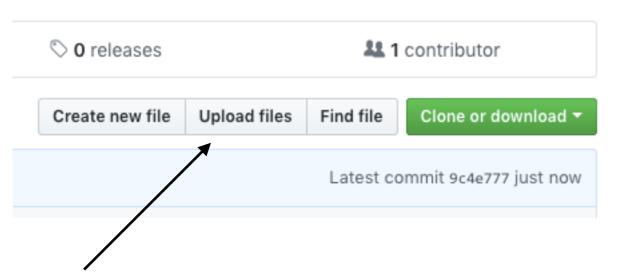


#### Create a new repository

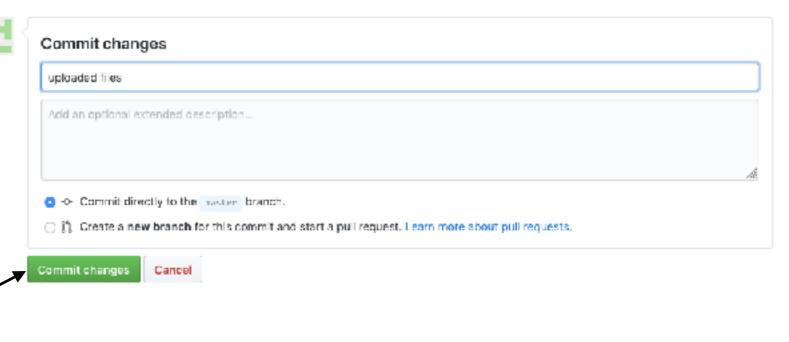
A repository contains all project files, including the revision history.



# Step 3 - Upload your R script and data and make your first "Commit"



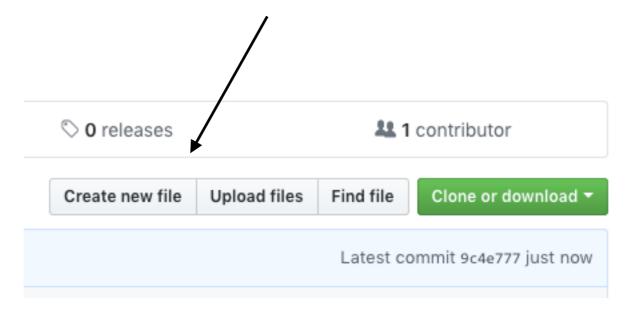
Click here to upload



Click here to Commit

## Step 3 - Upload your R script and data and make your first "Commit"

- We need two other files at this point one is called "runtime.txt" and contains the date of R and its associated packages that you want to simulate.
- The other is called "install.R" and contains the list of R packages that need to be installed in order for your script to run.
- To create a new file select "Create new file"



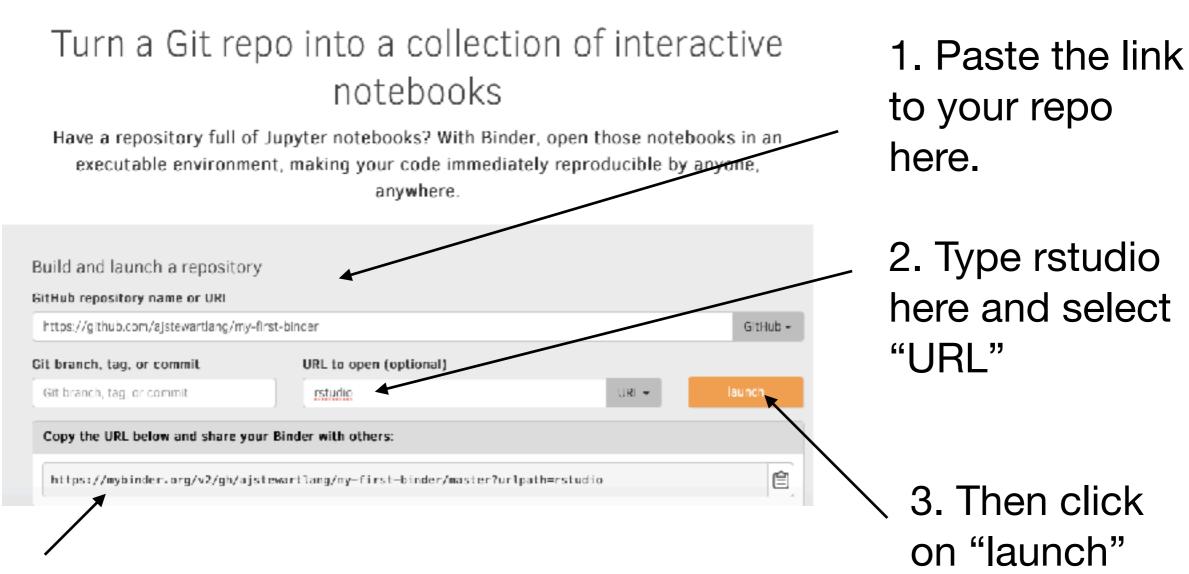




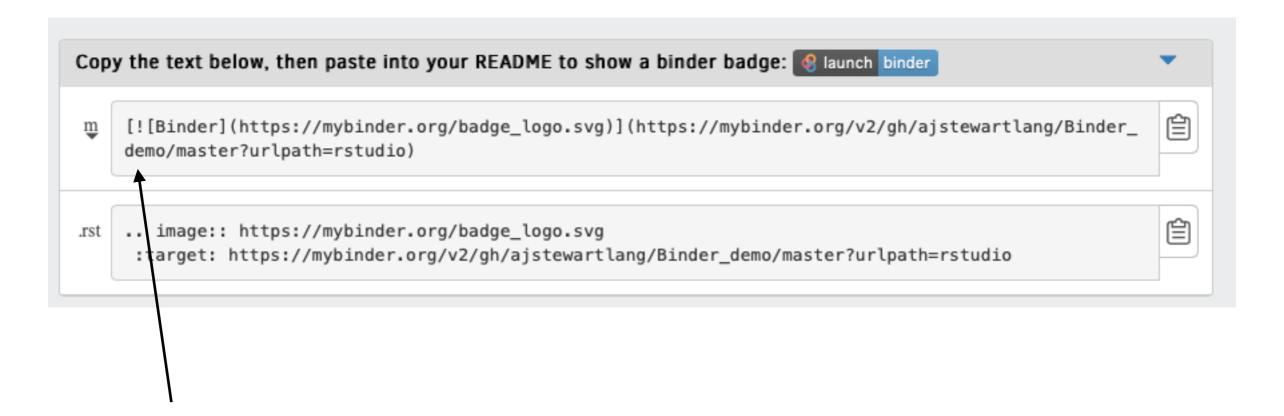
Don't forget to click "Commit" after you've created each file!

# Step 5 - Now we need to link our repote to Binder (mybinder.org)





4. This is the URL to share with others.



 Paste this code into your GitHub repo README.md you'll then be able to click on the 'launch binder' button in your repository to launch the actual binder once it has been built - makes it easy for others to go from you GitHub repo to your code running in Binder.

### Once you click 'Launch'...

```
Buildings

hice

downloaded 23 KB

trying URL 'https://mran.microsoft.com/snapshot/2018-02-05/src/contrib/scales_0.5.0.tar.gz'
Content type 'application/octet-stream' length 59867 bytes (58 KB)

downloaded 53 KB

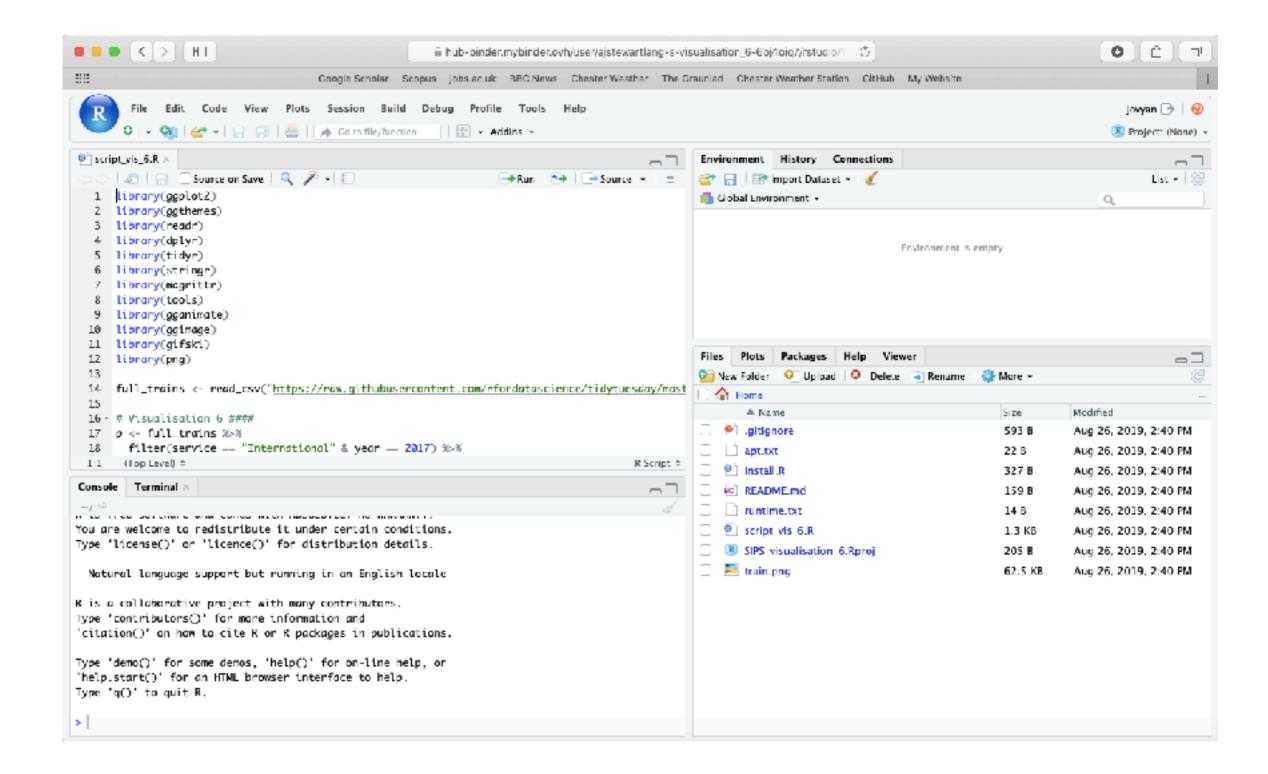
trying URL 'https://mran.microsoft.com/snapshot/2018-02-05/src/contrib/lazyeval_0.2.1.tar.gz'
Content type 'application/octet-stream' length 80150 bytes (78 KB)

downloaded 78 KB

trying URL 'https://mran.microsoft.com/snapshot/2018-02-05/src/contrib/cellranger_1.1.0.tar.gz'
Content type 'application/octet-stream' length 63857 bytes (62 KB)
```

You can check the progress of the build by clicking on the "Build logs" bar.

#### And then...





- If Binder can find an image that you've built previously, it will simply launch that.
- If you've made changes to your GitHub repo, it will rebuild the Docker image and create a new Binder.
- Either way, once Binder launches you get the following in your browser (even on mobile devices so you can even R away on your phone)...

### A few other things...

- Installing the entire Tidyverse in a Binder can take a long time better to install only the packages you use (e.g., ggplot2, dplyr, readr etc.) this will also ensure the packages are consistent with the date in your runtime.txt file.
- Even with just a couple of packages it can take ~15 minutes or so for your Binder to be built.
- Some R packages need system-level packages to also be installed - you can do that via an additional apt.txt file which lists those packages - this is used by apt-install to install those packages from the Ubuntu apt repository.

## A few other things...

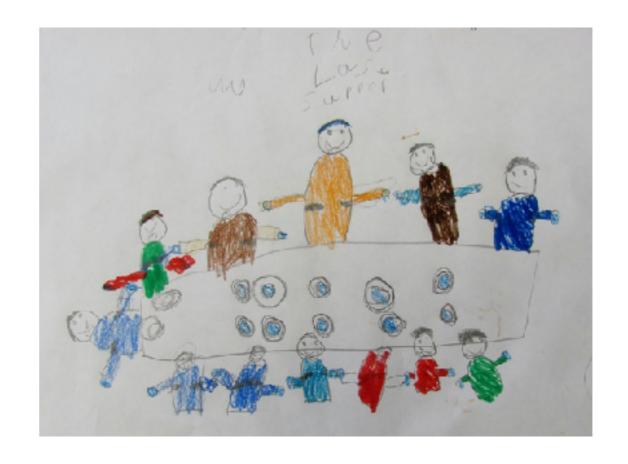
 At the moment, you can't change the version of R that runs on Binder (currently set to 3.4.4.) so need to go down the Rocker route but be aware that you may not get the right version of the packages that you want...

 You can close your laptop if Binder is taking too long - the image and your Binder will continue to be built in the Cloud. And it's always a good excuse for another coffee...

## For Ultimate Reproducibility

- Make sure you have updated all your packages before you run your script.
- Build your Binder and specify the day your ran your analysis in the runtime.txt file
- Patience while your Binder builds...

Quality of science pre-open research.



Quality of science post-open research.

