The Reliability of Instructor Evaluations

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Author note

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Abstract

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*Keywords:* keywords

The Reliability of Instructor Evaluations

In the United States, college and university professors are evaluated to varying degrees on research productivity, service, and teaching effectiveness. These dimensions are often used for high-stakes administration decisions (Freishtat, 2014; e.g., hiring, retention, promotion, pay, and tenure, Hornstein, 2017; Spooren, Brockx, & Mortelmans, 2013) !!stoebe, 2020!!. Depending on the institution, a major failure of one these areas could jeopardize a professors’ position within the department; thus, evaluating research, service, and teaching is of the utmost importance. Focusing on evaluating educators on teaching effectiveness, however, is both difficult and costly. Indeed, the vast majority of the 9,000 professors polled by the American Association of University Professors shared that teaching needs to be taken as seriously as research and service (!!Flaherty, 2015!!). As students consider rising tutition costs, perceived quality education can improve student engagement and retention.

Teaching effectiveness can be defined as the degree to which student achievement is facilitated [i.e., how much have students learned in a particular course; P. A. Cohen (1981)]. Generally, the assessment of teaching effectiveness comes from students and their evaluations which may focus on the instructor or the course specifically [e.g., “Student Opinion of Instruction”, “Student Evaluations of Teaching”, “Students Opinion of Teaching Effectiveness”, “Students Evaluation of Faculty”, “Overall Course Ratings”, “Instruction Rating”; P. A. Cohen (1981)]. !!Flaherty, 2020!! Often these are described as “quality” of an individual course (Gillmore, Kane, & Naccarato, 1978; Marsh, 2007). Teaching effectiveness measures are designed to tap into factors of teaching, such as communication, organization, instructor behavior, grading, and more (Hattie & Marsh, 1996). Given teaching evaluations use in administrative decisions, both reliability and validity should be demonstrated for the measurement to have utility. Therefore, the natural question arises: are students’ evaluation of the course and/or instructor reliable and valid measures of teaching effectiveness?

## Validity

Sheehan (1975) review of the literature nearly 50 years ago indicated multiple factors of bias that likely exist within student evaluations: 1) student demographics: gender, class, age, previous achievement, 2) class type: subject matter, size, degree requirements, and 3) instructor: gender, rank, gender-match to student. Even now, these concerns remain (Boring, Ottoboni, & Stark, 2016; Hornstein, 2017; Uttl, White, & Gonzalez, 2017) !! dunn et al., 2016!!. P. A. Cohen (1981)’s early work on the relationship between student achievement and instruction rating indicated a potential moderate relationship; however, recent meta-analyses demonstrate that student evaluations of teaching are likely unrelated to learning (Uttl et al., 2017). Boring et al. (2016) estimate that the bias in student evaluations are unable to be fixed due to the complex interaction of factors within evaluations.

Systemic reviews and recent studies underscore that sexism (e.g., MacNell et al., 2014; Mitchell & Martin, 2018), racism (e.g. Smith & Hawkins, 2011), and general bias pervades students’ evaluations of traditional courses and possibly exist for online ones as well (e.g., Heffernan, 2021; Rovai et al., 2006; Sullivan et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2023). Individual factors may also yield some influence, including instructors’ cultural background (e.g., Fan et al., 2019), attractiveness (e.g., Felton et al., 2008; Wright, 2008), position ranking (e.g., Johnson et al., 2013), and students’ expected grade from the course (e.g., Chen et al., 2017; Crumbly et al., 2001; Marks, 2000). Others suggest biasing factors of students’ ratings include the volume of the instructor’s voice and how legible their instructor’s writing is (Becker et al., 2012). Stroebe (2018) underscores the possible danger of an incentive system that is tied to student ratings; instructors may be then incentivized to be a less effective teacher (e.g., grade leniently, choose to teach courses based off student interest) rather than challenge students critically.

One of the most commonly proposed solutions is to use multiple evaluations of teaching effectiveness (e.g., subject-matter sit-ins on lecture, peer reviews of course curriculum, Benton & Young, 2018; Berk, 2018; Esarey & Valdes, 2020; Kornell & Hausman, 2016). However, the cost of implementing a more accurate multi-pronged approach may be more than universities can afford, especially given tight budgets and current instructor expectations. The current zeitgeist is often to continue using student evaluations of teaching as the most affordable solution in terms of both time and money. Students’ ratings may show some utility at indicating to other students which classes to pursue and with whom (e.g., Stankiewicz, 2015), and unfortunately, even if instructors believe such ratings to be an inappropriate, it may influence their self-efficacy as an educator regardless (Boswell, 2016). While student evaluations are often considered non-valid measurements of teaching effectiveness, others argue that calls for the complete removal students’ voices from the process is potentially the wrong course of action (Benton and Ryalls (2016)).

## Perceived fairness

Our study focused on potential sources of validity bias using ratings of grading within the course (which will be called perceived fairness). Extant research tends to confirm that instructor evaluations are influenced by students’ grades, possibly pressuring some instructors into reducing the rigor of their course for the sake of attaining higher evaluation ratings (Greenwald & Gillmore, 1997; Marks, 2000). However, as pointed out by Wright (2008), students’ expectations of their final grades may not affect ratings nearly as much as their perceived fairness of the grading process. Professors who are consistent, representative, accurate, unbiased, and correctable in their grading may receive high evaluation ratings regardless of how much a student learns or what his/her final grade turns out to be (Horan et al., 2010; Leventhal, 1980). Thus, grades may predict evaluation ratings only so much as students perceive their grade and the processes by which they were determined as fair (Tata, 1999).

Additionally, the different facets leading into a final grade’s calculation may play on each other as students consider fairness in their evaluations. For example, Tripp and colleagues (2019) found that students’ perceived fairness of their instructors’ grading processes affected their perceived fairness of their assigned grade, which then translated to their evaluation ratings of teacher effectiveness. Perceived fairness of the course workload and difficulty may also be inversely related to perceived fairness of the grading process as a challenging professor may be thought of as less fair (Marks, 2000). Access to grading criteria, frequency of feedback, and proactive instruction are other aspects of grading known to explicitly affect perceived fairness (Pepper & Pathak, 2008); in turn, the fairness of these aspects must be factored in as well. Taken together, students’ perceived fairness of grading may be more akin to comprehensive assessments of the instructor rather than face-value judgments of their grade.

## Reliability

Past investigations utilizing large samples concluded student ratings are reliable and stable (e.g., Arubayi, 1987; Marsh & Roche, 1997). More recently, a review found that students’ ratings within the same class tend to be internally consistent when teaching effectiveness was assessed through several items, reliable across students within the same class, and reliable across the same instructor across multiple courses (Benton & Cashin, 2014). Students who rated a retrospectively rated a course one to three years after the course showed high correlations with their previous course ratings (Overall & Marsh, 1980). Results from studies that tease apart variance in ratings due to instructor, course, and student factors indicate that each is an essential source of variance, which can influence the reliability of instruction evaluation (Feistauer & Richter, 2017). In general, research appears to support the reliability of student evaluations of teaching, yet, only a few studies have examined this reliability across instructor, course, and time. Research into teaching effectiveness appears to suggest that instructors have stable evaluations over time (Marsh, 2007), and our study extends this work to examine reliability patterns over 30 years of evaluations.

## The current study

The current study is similar in scope to recent work (e.g., Boring et al., 2016; Fan et al., 2019) in its calibration of teacher evaluations collected over an extensive period. Boring and colleagues’ (2016) investigation on both French instructors and U.S. teaching assistants’ gender ranged across five years; similarly, Fan and peers (2019) investigated the topic across seven. Their utilization of multi-sections has been described as the gold standard for researching students’ ratings. Thus, we aimed to follow their lead by analyzing the reliability of students’ ratings provided the same or different instructor, course type, and/or semester in addition to testing reliability over more than 30 years of data. We examined the impact of a potential validity variable on the reliability of ratings using perceived fairness of grading. Therefore, we sought to explore the following research questions:

Exploratory Research Questions:

1. What is the reliability of instructor evaluations?
2. Are instructor evaluations reliable across time?
3. Is the average level of perceived fairness of the grading in the course a moderator of reliability in instructor evaluations?
4. Does the average variability in instructor fairness rating moderate reliability of instructor evaluations?

The following was pre-registered as a secondary data analysis at: <https://osf.io/czb4f>. The manuscript, code, and data can be found on our Open Science Framework page at: <https://osf.io/k7zh2/> or GitHub: <https://github.com/doomlab/Grade-Lean>. This manuscript was written with the *R* packages *papaja* (Aust et al., 2022), *rio* (Becker et al., 2021), *dplyr* (Wickham, François, Henry, & Kirill Müller, 2020), *nlme* (Pinheiro, Bates, Debroy, Sarkar, & Team, 2017), *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016), *MuMIn* (Bartoń, 2020), *ppcor* (Kim, 2015), and *effectsize* (**ben-shachar?**).

# Method

## Data Source

The archival study was conducted using data from the psychology department at a large Midwestern public university. We used data from 2898 undergraduate, 274 mixed-level undergraduate, and 42 graduate psychology classes taught from 1987 to 2018 that were evaluated by students using the same 15-item instrument. Faculty followed set procedures in distributing scan forms no more than two weeks before the conclusion of the semester. A student was assigned to collect the forms and deliver them to the departmental secretary. The instructor was required to leave the room while students completed the forms. In the last several years of evaluations, online versions of these forms were used with faculty encouraged to give students time to complete them in class while they were outside the classroom.

The questionnaire given to students can be found at <https://osf.io/4sphx>. These items were presented with a five-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). For this study, the overall instructor evaluation question was “The overall quality of this course was among the top 20% of those I have taken.”. For fairness, we used the question of “The instructor used fair and appropriate methods in the determination of grades.”. The ratings were averaged for each course, and the sample size for each rating was included.

## Planned Analyses

The evaluations were filtered for those with at least fifteen student ratings for the course (Rantanen, 2012). We performed a robustness check for the first research question on the data when the sample size is at least *n* = 10 up to *n* = 14 (i.e., on all evaluations with at least 10 ratings, then at least 11 ratings, etc.) to determine if the reliability estimates are stable at lower sample sizes. We first screened the dataset (two evaluation questions, sample size for course) for accuracy errors, linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity. The data is assumed to not have traditional “outliers”, as these evaluations represent true averages from student evaluations. If the linearity assumption fails, we considered potential nonparametric models to address non-linearity. Deviations from normality were noted as the large sample size should provide robustness for any violations of normality. If data appears to be heteroscedastic, we used bootstrapping to provide estimates and confidence intervals.

This data was considered structured by instructor; therefore, all analyses below were coded in *R* using the *nlme* package (Pinheiro et al., 2017) to control for correlated error of instructor as a random intercept in a multilevel model. Multilevel models allow for analysis of repeated measures data without collapsing by participant [i.e., each instructor/semester/course combination can be kept separate without averaging over these measurements; Gelman (2006)]. Random intercept models are regression models on repeated data that structure the data by a specified variable, which was instructor in this analysis. Therefore, each instructor’s average rating score was allowed to vary within the analysis, as ratings would be expected to be different from instructor to instructor. In each of the analyses described below, the number of students providing ratings for the course was included as a control variable to even out differences in course size as an influence in the results. However, this variable was excluded if the models did not converge. The dependent variable and predictors varied based on the research question, and these are described with each analysis below.

### RQ 1.

In this research question, we examined the reliability of instructor evaluations on the overall rating and separately on the fairness rating. We calculated eight types of reliability using course (same or different) by instructor (same or different) by semester (same or different). The dependent variable was the first question average with a predictor of the comparison question average, and both sample sizes (first sample size, comparison sample size). Instructor code was used as the random intercept for both ratings (i.e., two instructor random intercepts, first and comparison). The value of interest was the standardized regression coefficient for the fixed effect of question from this model. Given that the large sample size will likely produce “significant” *p*-values, we used the 95% CI to determine which reliability values were larger than zero and to compare reliability estimates to each other.

### RQ 2.

We used the reliability for the same instructor and course calculated as described in RQ1 at each time point difference between semesters. For example, the same semester would create a time difference of 0. The next semester (Spring to Summer, Summer to Fall, Fall to Spring) would create a time difference of 1. We used the time difference as a fixed effect to predict reliability for the overall question only with a random intercept of instructor. We used the coefficient of time difference and its confidence interval to determine if there was a linear change over time. Finally, we plotted the changes over time to examine if this effect was non-linear in nature and discuss implications of the graph.

### RQ 3.

Using the reliability estimates from RQ 2, we then added the average rating for the fairness question as the moderator with time to predict reliability. Fairness was calculated as the average of the fairness question for all courses involved in the reliability calculation for that instructor and time difference. Therefore, this rating represented the average perceived fairness of grading at the time of ratings. If this interaction effect’s coefficient does not include zero, we performed a simple slopes analysis to examine the effects of instructors who were rated at average fairness, one standard deviation below average, and one standard deviation above average (J. Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

### RQ 4.

Finally, we examined the average standard deviation of fairness ratings as a moderator of with time to predict reliability. This variable represented the variability in perceived fairness in grading from student evaluations, where small numbers indicated relative agreement on the rating of fairness and larger values indicated a wide range of fairness ratings. The variability in fairness ratings was calculated in the same way as the mean fairness, which was only for the instructor and semester time difference evaluations that were used to calculate the reliability estimate. This research question was assessed the same way as research question three.

# Results

## Data Screening

The overall dataset was screened for normality, linearity, homogeneity, and homoscedasticity using procedures from Tabachnick, Fidell, and Ullman (2019). Data generally met assumptions with a slight skew and some heterogeneity. The complete anonymized dataset and other information can be found online at <https://osf.io/k7zh2>. This page also includes the manuscript written inline with the statistical analysis with the *papaja* package (Aust et al., 2022) for interested researchers/reviewers who wish to recreate these analyses. The bootstrapped versions of analyses and robustness analysis can be found online on our OSF page with a summary of results. We originally planned to bootstrap all analyses; however, the compute time for research question 1 was extremely long due to the size and complexity of the multilevel models, and therefore, we did not bootstrap that research question.

## Descriptive Statistics

3214 evaluations included at least 15 student evaluations for analysis. Table 1 portrays the descriptive statistics for each course level including the total number of evaluations, unique instructors, unique course numbers, and average scores for the two rating items. Students additionally projected their course grade for each class (*A* = 5, *B* = 4, *C* = 3, *D* = 2, *F* = 1), and the average for this item is included for reference. Overall, 231 unique instructors and 70 unique courses were included in the analyses below across 94 semesters.

Table 1:

*Descriptive Statistics of Included Courses*

| Statistic | Undergraduate | Mixed | Master’s |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| N Total | 2898 | 274 | 42 |
| N Instructors | 223 | 40 | 10 |
| N Courses | 41 | 21 | 8 |
| Average N Ratings | 34.39 | 21.15 | 21.10 |
| Average Overall | 3.94 | 4.01 | 3.72 |
| SD Overall | 0.55 | 0.59 | 0.67 |
| Average Fairness | 4.46 | 4.50 | 4.19 |
| SD Fairness | 0.35 | 0.38 | 0.55 |
| Average Grade | 4.26 | 4.52 | 4.41 |
| SD Grade | 0.33 | 0.27 | 0.34 |

## RQ 1

Each individual evaluation was compared to every other evaluation resulting in 5163291 total comparisons. Eight combinations of ratings were examined using instructor (same, different), course (same, different), and semester (same, different) on both the overall and fairness evaluation ratings separately. One of the individual ratings was used to predict the comparison rating (i.e., question 1 was used to predict a comparison question 1 for the same instructor, different instructor, same semester, different semester, etc.), and the number of ratings (i.e., rating sample size) per question were used as fixed-effects covariates. The instructor(s) were used as a random intercept to control for correlated error and overall average rating per instructor. The effects were then standardized using the *parameters* package (Lüdecke et al., 2023). The data was sorted by year and semester such that “predictor” was always an earlier semester predicting a later semester’s scores, except in cases of the the same semester comparisons. Therefore, positive standardized scores indicate that scores tend to go up over time, while negative scores indicate that scores tend to go down over time.

As shown in 1, reliability was highest when calculated on the same instructor in the same semester and within the same course for both overall rating and fairness. This reliability was followed by the same instructor, same semester, and different courses. Next, the reliability for same instructor, same course, and different semesters was greater than zero and usually overlapped in confidence interval with same instructor, same semester, and different courses. Interestingly, the same instructor with different courses and semesters showed a non-zero negative relationship, indicating that ratings generally were lower for later semesters in different courses.

For different instructors, we found positive non-zero reliablities when they were at least calculated on the same semester or course. These values were very close to zero, generally in the .01 to .05 range. Last, the reliabilities that were calculated on different courses, semesters, and instructors include zero in their confidence intervals. Exact values can be found in the online supplemental document with the robustness analysis in csv format. Robustness analyses revealed the same pattern and strength of results for evaluation reliabilities when sample size for evaluations was considered at *n* = 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14.

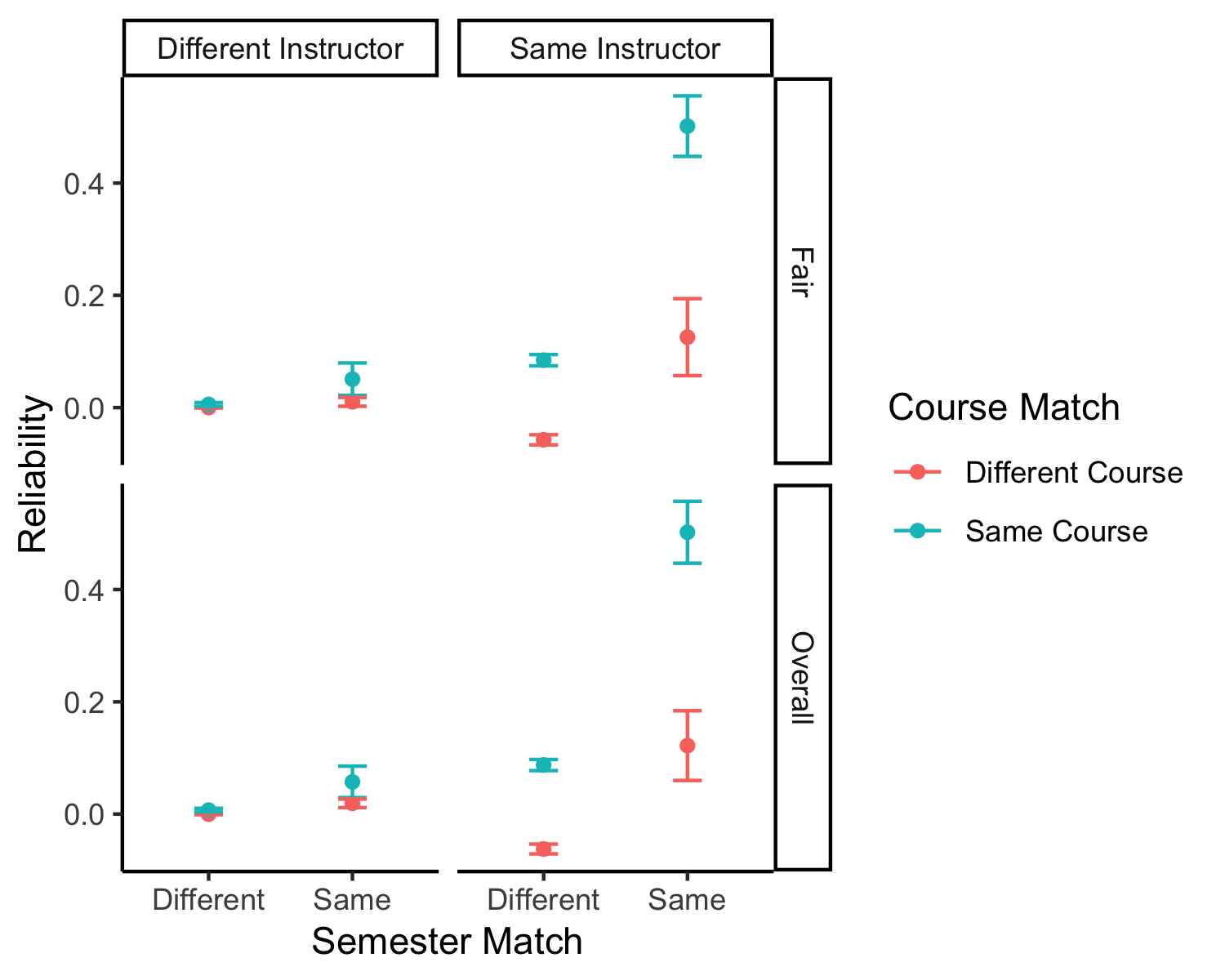


Figure 1: Reliability estimates for instructor, course, and semester combinations.

## RQ 2

The paired evaluations were then filtered to only examine course and instructor matches to explore the relation of reliability across time. Reliability was calculated by calculating the partial correlation between the overall rating for the course first evaluation and the overall rating for the course second evaluation, controlling for the number of ratings within those average scores. This reliability was calculated separately for each instructor and semester difference (i.e., the time between evaluations, 0 means same semester, 1 means the next semester, 2 means two semesters later, etc.). The ratings were filtered so that at least 10 pairs of ratings were present for each instructor and semester difference combination (Weaver & Koopman, 2014). Of 36084 possible matched instructor and course pairings, 30728 included at least 10 pairings, which was 1009 total instructor and semester combinations.

The confidence interval for the effect of semester difference predicting reliability did not cross zero, *b* = -0.004, 95% CI [-0.005, -0.003], = .04. The coefficient, while small, represents a small effect of time on the reliability of instructor ratings. As shown in 2, reliability appears to decrease across time.

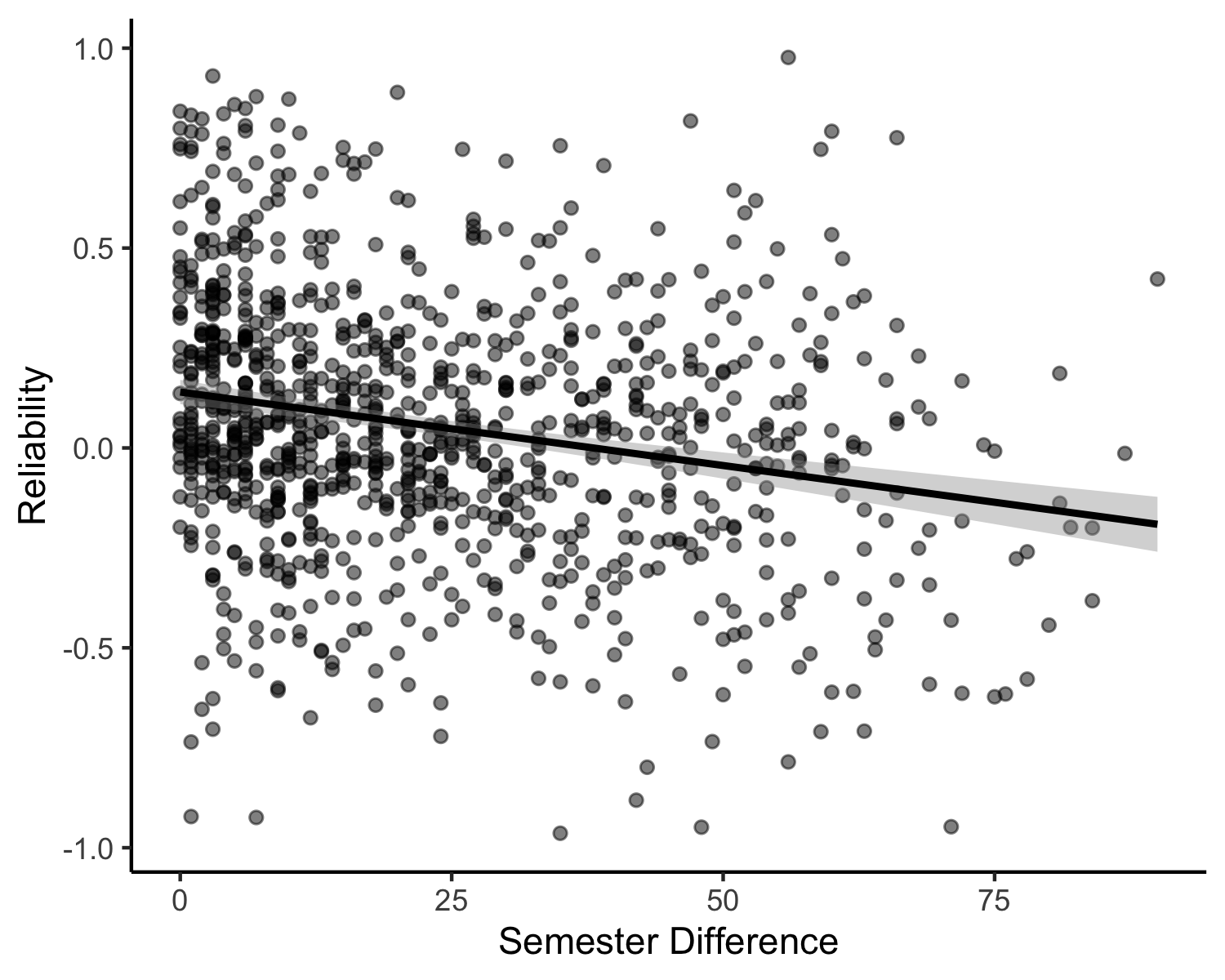


Figure 2: Reliability estimates for same instructor and course across time.

## RQ 3

The confidence interval for the interaction of semester time difference and average fairness did cross zero, *b* = -0.001, 95% CI [-0.007, 0.005], = .04. Therefore, there was no effect of the interaction of average fairness with semester differences in predicting reliability. Similarly, average fairness did not predict reliability overall, *b* = -0.041, 95% CI [-0.226, 0.143].

## RQ 4

The confidence interval for the interaction of variability of fairness and semester time difference did cross zero, *b* = -0.010, 95% CI [-0.022, 0.002], = .05. The variability of fairness also did not predict reliability overall, *b* = 0.291, 95% CI [-0.091, 0.672].

# Discussion

* Summarize the results

## What Should I Do with This Information

* Don’t expect to be reliable across other classes
* Don’t expect to be reliable over long period of time, people change, students change, etc.

## Strengths

* a crap ton of data
* over a long period of time
* robust results

## Limitations

* one item versus many
* evaluations don’t mean what we want them to mean
* one uni means maybe not generalizable

## Future Work

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