# Summarising and Plotting Data in R

Analysing Data in R

Glenn Williams

University of Sunderland

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## Some Background

Data analysis is surprisingly one of the easiest parts of working with R.

- Once your data is in the correct (long) format, analysis using any test is highly consistent.
- We rely on a formula interface like this:

```
DV ~ IV
```

- Our dependent variable/predicted variable goes to the left of the ~ (tilde), while our independent variables or predictors go to the right.
- After this we specify our data:

```
DV ~ IV, data
```

We then apply a function to our formula which is the name of our test. There's some minor options we can choose within tests, but that's pretty much it!

### **Correlations**

#### The Data

Let's check out the **starwars** data set again. We'll use this for our tests.

```
starwars <- starwars %>% filter(mass < 500)
```

We will use the height and mass columns, looking at whether mass is associated with height.

### Correlation

- Here, we aren't predicting any one variable from the other, so both variables go to the right of the tilde.
- We add multiple variables with a +.
- We choose the type of correlation we want (e.g. Pearson, Spearman) with the method.

```
cor.test(~ height + mass, starwars, method = "pearson")

##

## Pearson's product-moment correlation

##

## data: height and mass

## t = 8.7853, df = 56, p-value = 4.018e-12

## alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0

## 95 percent confidence interval:

## 0.6260700 0.8520232

## sample estimates:

## cor

## 0.7612612
```

### Tests of Difference

- We'll use some different data here on out.
- Let's assume this data looks at giving people a placebo or drug, and tests the effect of that drug at two different time points.
- We care about improvements in reaction times.

```
mixed_data <- read_csv(here("data", "mixed_factorial.csv"))
head(mixed_data)</pre>
```

```
## # A tibble: 6 x 4
    id
          drug time
##
                                rt
##
    <chr> <chr> <chr>
                           <dbl>
## 1 S001 control daylater
                              431.
         control monthlater
## 2 S001
                              421.
## 3 S002
          control daylater
                              372.
         control monthlater
## 4 S002
                              350.
## 5 S003
         control daylater
                              393.
## 6 S003
          control monthlater
                              368.
```

### t-tests

### One-sample t-test

- We have only one variable here, so we don't even need a formula.
- We compare the mean of this variable against a specified baseline mean (here 400).

```
t.test(mixed_data$rt, mu = 400)
```

```
##
## One Sample t-test
##
## data: mixed_data$rt
## t = -9.5311, df = 479, p-value < 2.2e-16
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 400
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 376.3267 384.4193
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
## 380.373</pre>
```

### t-tests

### Independent-samples t-test

- Do reaction times vary depending on the drug given to participants?
- We test reaction times predicted by drug, with a regular t-test where variances are assumed to be equal (var.equal = TRUE).

t.test(rt ~ drug, mixed\_data, var.equal = TRUE)

```
##
##
       Two Sample t-test
##
## data: rt by drug
## t = 3.732, df = 478, p-value = 0.0002128
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
     7.18135 23.15251
##
## sample estimates:
     mean in group control mean in group treatment
##
##
                  387.9564
                                           372.7895
```

### t-tests

#### Paired t-test

- Do reaction times vary over time (i.e. practice)?
- We test reaction times predicted by the time of testing. This is a paired test (paired = TRUE) and a regular t-test where variances are assumed to be equal (var.equal = TRUE).

```
t.test(rt ~ time, mixed_data, paired = TRUE, var.equal = TRUE)
```

```
##
## Paired t-test
##
## data: rt by time
## t = 18.348, df = 239, p-value < 2.2e-16
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 49.10644 60.91970
## sample estimates:
## mean of the differences</pre>
```

## One-way ANOVA

#### Between-subjects

- What if we had **more than two groups** for the drug condition? We use an ANOVA.
- We simply change the test function to aov() (Analysis Of Variance)
- We need to summarise the model results here to get a regular ANOVA output.

## One-way ANOVA

#### Within-subjects

- What if we have more than two groups and a within-subjects design?
- We do the same as before, but need to add an **Error term** to the formula. This states that we adjust our errors to account for the fact scores in each group belong to the same participant (i.e. **id** in our data).

```
summary(aov(rt ~ time + Error(id), mixed_data))
```

### Two-Way ANOVA

#### Mixed

```
summary(aov(rt ~ time * drug + Error(id), mixed_data))
##
## Error: id
##
         Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
## drug 1 27604 27604 20.13 1.13e-05 ***
## Residuals 238 326365 1371
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Frror: Within
   Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
##
## time 1 363173 363173 806.3 <2e-16 ***
## time:drug 1 150636 150636 334.4 <2e-16 ***
## Residuals 238 107206 450
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

## Throw Away the Alphabet Soup

All of the statistical tests you know (e.g. *t*-tests, ANOVA, chi-square) are just extensions of the **general linear model**. This is the most important thing you can learn to use in statistics.

Learn the mean and *variance* of some measurement by using an additive combination of other measurements.

- The **geocentric model of applied statistics**: used wisely, can be useful. But we shouldn't read too much into the numbers produced. They're almost certainly wrong because we can't (and shouldn't) model all sources of variance.
- Predict a **linear relationship** between one or more variable(s) and a continuous (e.g. scale) dependent variable.
- Predictor variables can be continuous or categorical.

## **Linear Regression**

Takes the general form:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + e$$

- Outcome Y = intercept + (slope  $\times$  X) + residual error
- **Residuals** e = distance of observed values from predicted values
- *Note*: We do not fit a perfect model, hence the error term. This is a good thing, otherwise we are probably **overfitting** to our data; relying too much on our observed sample to draw infferences.

## **Linear Regression**

Takes the general form:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + e$$

- The **intercept**,  $\alpha$ , is usually the point on the y-axis at the lowest value of X (usually 0).
- The **slope**,  $\beta$ , corresponds to how much Y increases by for every increment in X.
- The **error**, *e*, corresponds to a constant by which to add to our estimates accounting for additional variation from other sources that we do not model.

## **Linear Regression**

starlm <- lm(height ~ mass, starwars)</pre>

Fit the model predicting height from weight from the starwars data.

$$Y = \alpha + \beta X + e$$

height = intercept + slope imes mass + error

```
summary(starlm)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = height ~ mass, data = starwars)
##
## Residuals:
      Min 10 Median 30
##
                                   Max
## -53.369 -6.816 2.042 13.851 44.719
##
## Coefficients:
##
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 103.5133 8.5937 12.045 < 2e-16 ***
        0.9327 0.1062 8.785 4.02e-12 ***
## mass
##
```

## Comparing tests we know...

#### Correlation

```
broom::tidy(cor.test(~ height + mass, starwars, method = "pearson"))
## # A tibble: 1 x 8
    estimate statistic p.value parameter conf.low conf.high method
##
            <dbl>
                       <dbl>
                                <int>
                                        <dbl> <dbl> <chr>
##
      <dbl>
## 1 0.761 8.79 4.02e-12
                                       0.626
                                                0.852 Pearson'... two.s
                                  56
broom::tidy(lm(height ~ mass, starwars, method = "pearson"))
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
##
    term
        estimate std.error statistic p.value
## <chr>
               <dbl>
                      <dbl>
                                  <dbl>
                                          <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept) 104.
                       8.59
                                  12.0 3.53e-17
                 0.933 0.106 8.79 4.02e-12
## 2 mass
```

t statistics match exactly.

alter

<chr>

## Comparing tests we know...

#### t-tests

t statistics match exactly.

```
broom::tidy(t.test(rt ~ drug, mixed_data, var.equal = TRUE))
## # A tibble: 1 x 10
## estimate estimate1 estimate2 statistic p.value parameter conf.low conf.
## <dbl> <dbl>
                    <dbl>
                                                        <dbl>
                   373. 3.73 0.000213
## 1 15.2 388.
                                                 478
                                                        7.18
## # ... with 2 more variables: method <chr>, alternative <chr>
broom::tidy(summary(lm(rt ~ drug, mixed_data)))
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
        estimate std.error statistic p.value
## term
## <chr>
                  <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> <dbl> </br>
                                           <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept) 388. 2.87 135. 0
## 2 drugtreatment -15.2 4.06 -3.73 0.000213
```

## Comparing tests we know...

#### **ANOVA**

```
summary(aov(rt ~ drug, mixed_data))
##
          Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
## drug 1 27604 27604 13.93 0.000213 ***
## Residuals 478 947379 1982
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
broom::tidy(lm(rt ~ drug, mixed_data))
## # A tibble: 2 x 5
## term estimate std.error statistic p.value
## <chr>
            <dbl>
## 1 (Intercept) 388. 2.87 135. 0
## 2 drugtreatment -15.2 4.06 -3.73 0.000213
```

*t* to *F* is just *t* squared. So, 3.732 squared = 13.93...

# Bye!



Effect sizes are easily handled by the {effectsize} package. Super-easy ANOVAs are done using the {afex} package.