

Package ‘effectsize’

October 25, 2020

Type Package

Title Indices of Effect Size and Standardized Parameters

Version 0.4.0

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URL <https://easystats.github.io/effectsize/>

BugReports <https://github.com/easystats/effectsize/issues/>

Description Provide utilities to work with indices of effect size and standardized parameters for a wide variety of models (see support list of insight; Lüdtke, Waggoner & Makowski (2019) <doi:10.21105/joss.01412>), allowing computation and conversion of indices such as Cohen's d, r, odds, etc.

License GPL-3

Encoding UTF-8

Depends R (>= 3.5)

Imports insight (>= 0.10.0), bayestestR (>= 0.7.5), parameters (>= 0.8.6), stats, utils

Suggests afex, BayesFactor, brms, boot, car, correlation, covr, dplyr, emmeans, gamm4, ggplot2, knitr, lmerTest, lm.beta, lme4, MuMIn, modelbased, performance, pscl, rlang, rmarkdown, rstan, rstanarm, rstantools, see, testthat, tidyr

RoxygenNote 7.1.1

Language en-GB

VignetteBuilder knitr

NeedsCompilation no

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Repository CRAN

Date/Publication 2020-10-25 14:20:02 UTC

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adjust	<i>Adjust data for the effect of other variable(s)</i>
--------	--

Description

This function can be used to adjust the data for the effect of other variables present in the dataset. It is based on an underlying fitting of regressions models, allowing for quite some flexibility, such as including factors as random effects in mixed models (multilevel partialization), continuous variables as smooth terms in general additive models (non-linear partialization) and/or fitting these models under a Bayesian framework. The values returned by this function are the residuals of the regression models. Note that a regular correlation between two "adjusted" variables is equivalent to the partial correlation between them.

Usage

```
adjust(  
  data,  
  effect = NULL,  
  select = NULL,  
  exclude = NULL,  
  multilevel = FALSE,  
  additive = FALSE,  
  bayesian = FALSE  
)
```

Arguments

data	A dataframe.
effect	Character vector of column names to be adjusted for (regressed out). If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
select	Character vector of column names. If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
exclude	Character vector of column names to be excluded from selection.
multilevel	If TRUE, the factors are included as random factors. Else, if FALSE (default), they are included as fixed effects in the simple regression model.
additive	If TRUE, continuous variables as included as smooth terms in additive models. The goal is to regress-out potential non-linear effects.
bayesian	If TRUE, the models are fitted under the Bayesian framework using <code>rstanarm</code> .

Examples

```
adjust(iris, effect = "Species", select = "Sepal.Length")  
  
adjust(iris, effect = "Species", select = "Sepal.Length", multilevel = TRUE)  
adjust(iris, effect = "Species", select = "Sepal.Length", bayesian = TRUE)  
adjust(iris, effect = "Petal.Width", select = "Sepal.Length", additive = TRUE)
```

```

adjust(iris, effect = "Petal.Width", select = "Sepal.Length",
       additive = TRUE, bayesian = TRUE)
adjust(iris, effect = c("Petal.Width", "Species"), select = "Sepal.Length",
       multilevel = TRUE, additive = TRUE)
adjust(iris)

```

change_scale

Rescale a numeric variable

Description

Rescale a numeric variable to a new range.

Usage

```

change_scale(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'numeric'
change_scale(x, to = c(0, 100), range = NULL, verbose = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'grouped_df'
change_scale(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  to = c(0, 100),
  range = NULL,
  ...
)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
change_scale(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  to = c(0, 100),
  range = NULL,
  ...
)

```

Arguments

x	Object.
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
to	New range of values of the data after rescaling.

range	Initial (old) range of values. If NULL, will take the range of data.
verbose	Toggle warnings on or off.
select	Character vector of column names. If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
exclude	Character vector of column names to be excluded from selection.

Value

A rescaled object.

See Also

[normalize\(\)](#) [standardize\(\)](#) [ranktransform\(\)](#)

Examples

```
change_scale(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2))
change_scale(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2), to = c(-5, 5))

head(change_scale(iris))
```

chisq_to_phi

Conversion Chi-Squared to Phi or Cramer's V

Description

Convert between Chi square, (χ^2), Cramer's V, phi (ϕ) and Cohen's w for contingency tables or goodness of fit.

Usage

```
chisq_to_phi(chisq, n, nrow, ncol, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, ...)

chisq_to_cohens_w(chisq, n, nrow, ncol, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, ...)

chisq_to_cramers_v(chisq, n, nrow, ncol, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, ...)

phi_to_chisq(phi, n, ...)
```

Arguments

chisq	The Chi-squared statistic.
n	Sample size.
nrow, ncol	The number of rows/columns in the contingency table (ignored for Phi when adjust=FALSE and CI=NULL).

ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
adjust	Should the effect size be bias-corrected? Defaults to FALSE.
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
phi	The Phi statistic.

Details

These functions use the following formulae:

$$\phi = \sqrt{\chi^2/n}$$

$$Cramer'sV = \phi / \sqrt{\min(nrow, ncol) - 1}$$

For adjusted versions, see Bergsma, 2013.

Confidence Intervals:

Confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral Chi-squared distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s) between 0-1, and confidence interval(s).

Note

Cohen's *w* is equivalent to *Phi*.

References

- Cumming, G., & Finch, S. (2001). A primer on the understanding, use, and calculation of confidence intervals that are based on central and noncentral distributions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61(4), 532-574.
- Bergsma, W. (2013). A bias-correction for Cramer's V and Tschuprow's T. *Journal of the Korean Statistical Society*, 42(3), 323-328.

Examples

```
contingency_table <- as.table(rbind(c(762, 327, 468), c(484, 239, 477), c(484, 239, 477)))

chisq.test(contingency_table)
#
#      Pearson's Chi-squared test
#
# data:  ctab
# X-squared = 41.234, df = 4, p-value = 2.405e-08
```

```
chisq_to_phi(41.234,  
  n = sum(contingency_table),  
  nrow = nrow(contingency_table),  
  ncol = ncol(contingency_table)  
)  
chisq_to_cramers_v(41.234,  
  n = sum(contingency_table),  
  nrow = nrow(contingency_table),  
  ncol = ncol(contingency_table)  
)
```

cohens_d

Effect size for differences

Description

Compute different indices of effect size. For very small sample sizes ($n < 20$) Hedges' g is considered as less biased than Cohen's d . For sample sizes > 20 , the results for both statistics are roughly equivalent.

The Glass's delta is appropriate if standard deviations are significantly different between groups, as it uses only the *second* group's standard deviation.

Usage

```
cohens_d(  
  x,  
  y = NULL,  
  data = NULL,  
  correction = FALSE,  
  pooled_sd = TRUE,  
  paired = FALSE,  
  ci = 0.95  
)
```

```
hedges_g(  
  x,  
  y = NULL,  
  data = NULL,  
  correction = FALSE,  
  pooled_sd = TRUE,  
  paired = FALSE,  
  ci = 0.95  
)
```

```
glass_delta(x, y = NULL, data = NULL, correction = FALSE, ci = 0.95)
```

```
## S3 method for class 'effectsize_difference'
print(x, digits = 2, append_CL = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

x	A formula, a numeric vector, or a character name of one in data. (For <code>print()</code> the result of one of the standardized difference functions.)
y	A numeric vector, a grouping (character / factor) vector, a or a character name of one in data. Ignored if x is a formula.
data	An optional data frame containing the variables.
correction	If TRUE, applies a correction to make it less biased for small samples (McGrath & Meyer, 2006).
pooled_sd	If TRUE (default), a <code>sd_pooled()</code> is used (assuming equal variance). Else the mean SD from both groups is used instead.
paired	If TRUE, the values of x and y are considered as paired.
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
digits	Number of significant digits.
append_CL	Should the Common Language Effect Sizes be printed as well? Not applicable to Glass' Delta (See <code>d_to_common_language()</code>)
...	Not used.

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s) and confidence interval(s).

Confidence Intervals:

Confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral t distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

References

- Cohen, J. (2013). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. Routledge.
- McGrath, R. E., & Meyer, G. J. (2006). When effect sizes disagree: the case of r and d. *Psychological methods*, 11(4), 386.
- Hedges, L. V. & Olkin, I. (1985). *Statistical methods for meta-analysis*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

See Also

[d_to_common_language\(\)](#)

Examples

```

cohens_d(iris$Sepal.Length, iris$Sepal.Width)
hedges_g("Sepal.Length", "Sepal.Width", data = iris)

cohens_d(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars)
cohens_d(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars, pooled_sd = FALSE)
hedges_g(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars)
glass_delta(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars)

print(cohens_d(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars), append_CL = TRUE)

```

d_to_common_language *Convert Standardized Mean Difference to Common Language Effect Sizes*

Description

Convert Standardized Mean Difference to Common Language Effect Sizes

Usage

```

d_to_common_language(d)

convert_d_to_common_language(d)

```

Arguments

d Standardized difference value (Cohen's d).

Details

This function use the following formulae:

$$Cohen's U_3 = \Phi(d)$$

$$Overlap = 2 \times \Phi(-|d|/2)$$

$$Pr(superiority) = \Phi(d/\sqrt{2})$$

Note

These calculations assume that the populations have equal variance and are normally distributed.

References

- Cohen, J. (1977). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. Routledge.
- Reiser, B., & Faraggi, D. (1999). Confidence intervals for the overlapping coefficient: the normal equal variance case. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 48(3), 413-418.
- Ruscio, J. (2008). A probability-based measure of effect size: robustness to base rates and other factors. *Psychological methods*, 13(1), 19–30.

See Also

[cohens_d\(\)](#)

d_to_r	<i>Convert between d, r and Odds ratio</i>
--------	--

Description

Enables a conversion between different indices of effect size, such as standardized difference (Cohen's d), correlation r or (log) odds ratios.

Usage

```
d_to_r(d, ...)
r_to_d(r, ...)
convert_d_to_r(d, ...)
convert_r_to_d(r, ...)
oddsratio_to_d(OR, log = FALSE, ...)
convert_oddsratio_to_d(OR, log = FALSE, ...)
logoddsratio_to_d(OR, log = TRUE, ...)
d_to_oddsratio(d, log = FALSE, ...)
convert_d_to_oddsratio(d, log = FALSE, ...)
oddsratio_to_r(OR, log = FALSE, ...)
convert_oddsratio_to_r(OR, log = FALSE, ...)
logoddsratio_to_r(OR, log = TRUE, ...)
r_to_oddsratio(r, log = FALSE, ...)
convert_r_to_oddsratio(r, log = FALSE, ...)
```

Arguments

d	Standardized difference value (Cohen's d).
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
r	Correlation coefficient r.
OR	<i>Odds ratio</i> values in vector or data frame.
log	Take in or output the log of the ratio (such as in logistic models).

Details

- *d to r*: $d = \frac{2*r}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}$
- *r to d*: $r = \frac{d}{\sqrt{d^2+4}}$
- *OR to d*: $d = \frac{\log(OR) \times \sqrt{3}}{\pi}$
- *d to OR*: $\log(OR) = d * \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}}$

Conversions between *OR* and *r* is done through these formulae.

When converting *d* to *r*, the resulting *r* is also called the binomial effect size display (BESD; Rosenthal et al., 1982).

Value

Converted index.

References

- Sánchez-Meca, J., Marín-Martínez, F., & Chacón-Moscoso, S. (2003). Effect-size indices for dichotomized outcomes in meta-analysis. *Psychological methods*, 8(4), 448.
- Borenstein, M., Hedges, L. V., Higgins, J. P. T., & Rothstein, H. R. (2009). Converting among effect sizes. *Introduction to meta-analysis*, 45-49.
- Rosenthal, R., & Rubin, D. B. (1982). A simple, general purpose display of magnitude of experimental effect. *Journal of educational psychology*, 74(2), 166.

Examples

```
r_to_d(0.5)
d_to_oddsratio(1.154701)
oddsratio_to_r(8.120534)

d_to_r(1)
r_to_oddsratio(0.4472136, log = TRUE)
oddsratio_to_d(1.813799, log = TRUE)
```

 effectsize

Effect Size

Description

This function tries to return the best effect-size measure for the provided input model. See details.

Usage

```
effectsize(model, ...)
```

Arguments

`model` An object of class `htest`, or a statistical model. See details.
`...` Arguments passed to or from other methods. See details.

Details

- For an object of class `htest`:
 - A **t-test** returns *Cohen's d* via `t_to_d()`.
 - A **correlation test** returns *r*. See `t_to_r()`.
 - A **Chi-squared test** returns *Cramer's V* via `cramers_v()`.
 - A **One-way ANOVA test** returns *Eta squared* via `F_to_eta2()`, but can be changes via an `es` argument.
- For an object of class `BFBayesFactor`, using `bayestestR::describe_posterior()`,
 - A **t-test** returns *Cohen's d*.
 - A **correlation test** returns *r*..
 - A **contingency table test** returns *Cramer's V*.
- Objects of class `anova`, `aov`, or `aovlist` are passed to `eta_squared()`.
- Other objects are passed to `standardize_parameters()`.

For statistical models it is recommended to directly use the listed functions, for the full range of options they provide.

Examples

```
contingency_table <- as.table(rbind(c(762, 327, 468), c(484, 239, 477), c(484, 239, 477)))
Xsq <- chisq.test(contingency_table)
effectsize(Xsq)
```

```
Ts <- t.test(1:10, y = c(7:20))
effectsize(Ts)
```

```
Aov <- oneway.test(extra ~ group, data = sleep)
effectsize(Aov)
```

```

if (require(BayesFactor)) {
  bf1 <- ttestBF(mtcars$mpg[mtcars$am == 1], mtcars$mpg[mtcars$am == 0])
  effectsize(bf1, test = NULL)

  bf2 <- correlationBF(iris$Sepal.Length, iris$Sepal.Width)
  effectsize(bf2, test = NULL)

  data(raceDolls)
  bf3 <- contingencyTableBF(raceDolls, sampleType = "poisson", fixedMargin = "cols")
  effectsize(bf3, test = NULL)
}

fit <- lm(mpg ~ factor(cyl) * wt + hp, data = mtcars)
effectsize(fit)

anova_table <- anova(fit)
effectsize(anova_table)

```

equivalence_test.effectsize_table

Test for Practical Equivalence

Description

Perform a **Test for Practical Equivalence** for indices of effect size.

Usage

```

## S3 method for class 'effectsize_table'
equivalence_test(
  x,
  range = "default",
  rule = c("classic", "cet", "bayes"),
  ...
)

```

Arguments

x	An effect size table, such as returned by cohens_d() , eta_squared() , F_to_r() , etc.
range	The range of practical equivalence of an effect. If a single value is provided, the test is done against $c(-range, range)$. For effect sizes that cannot be negative, the lower bound is set to 0. If "default", will be set to $[-.1, .1]$.
rule	How should acceptance and rejection be decided? See details.
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.

Details

The CIs used in the equivalence test are the ones in the provided effect size table. For results equivalent (ha!) to those that can be obtained using the TOST approach (e.g., Lakens, 2017), appropriate CIs should be extracted using the function used to make the effect size table (cohens_d, eta_squared, F_to_r, etc). See examples.

The Different Rules:

- "classic" - **the classic method:**
 - If the CI is completely within the ROPE - *Accept H0*
 - Else, if the CI does not contain 0 - *Reject H0*
 - Else - *Undecided*
- "cet" - **conditional equivalence testing:**
 - If the CI does not contain 0 - *Reject H0*
 - Else, If the CI is completely within the ROPE - *Accept H0*
 - Else - *Undecided*
- "bayes" - **The Bayesian approach**, as put forth by Kruschke:
 - If the CI does is completely outside the ROPE - *Reject H0*
 - Else, If the CI is completely within the ROPE - *Accept H0*
 - Else - *Undecided*

Value

A data frame.

References

- Campbell, H., & Gustafson, P. (2018). Conditional equivalence testing: An alternative remedy for publication bias. PLOS ONE, 13(4), e0195145. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0195145>
- Kruschke, J. K. (2014). Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial with R, JAGS, and Stan. Academic Press
- Kruschke, J. K. (2018). Rejecting or accepting parameter values in Bayesian estimation. Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 1(2), 270-280. doi: 10.1177/2515245918771304
- Lakens, D. (2017). Equivalence Tests: A Practical Primer for t Tests, Correlations, and Meta-Analyses. Social Psychological and Personality Science, 8(4), 355–362. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550617697177>

See Also

For more details, see `bayestestR::equivalence_test()`.

Examples

```
model <- aov(mpg ~ factor(am) * factor(cyl), data = mtcars)
es <- eta_squared(model)
equivalence_test(es, range = 0.15)
```

```

ds <- t_to_d(t = c(0.45, -0.65, 7, -2.2, 2.25),
            df_error = c(675, 525, 2000, 900, 1875),
            ci = 0.9) # TOST approach
equivalence_test(ds, range = 0.2)

# Can also plot
if (require(see)) plot(equivalence_test(ds, range = 0.2))
if (require(see)) plot(equivalence_test(ds, range = 0.2, rule = "cet"))
if (require(see)) plot(equivalence_test(ds, range = 0.2, rule = "bayes"))

```

eta_squared

Effect size for ANOVA

Description

Functions to compute effect size measures for ANOVAs, such as Eta, Omega and Epsilon squared, and Cohen's f (or their partialled versions) for `aov`, `aovlist` and `anova` models. These indices represent an estimate of how much variance in the response variables is accounted for by the explanatory variable(s).

Effect sizes are computed using the sums of squares obtained from `anova(model)` which might not always be appropriate (*Yeah... ANOVAs are hard...*). It is suggested that ANOVA models be fit with `afex` package. See details.

Usage

```
eta_squared(model, partial = TRUE, generalized = FALSE, ci = 0.9, ...)
```

```
omega_squared(model, partial = TRUE, ci = 0.9, ...)
```

```
epsilon_squared(model, partial = TRUE, ci = 0.9, ...)
```

```
cohens_f(model, partial = TRUE, ci = 0.9, squared = FALSE, model2 = NULL, ...)
```

```

cohens_f_squared(
  model,
  partial = TRUE,
  ci = 0.9,
  squared = TRUE,
  model2 = NULL,
  ...
)

```

Arguments

model	A model, ANOVA object, or the result of parameters::model_parameters.
partial	If TRUE, return partial indices.
generalized	If TRUE, returns generalized Eta Squared, assuming all variables are manipulated. Can also be a character vector of observed (non-manipulated) variables, in which case generalized Eta Squared is calculated taking these observed variables into account. For afex_aov model, generalized = TRUE, the observed variables are extracted automatically from the fitted model, if they were provided then.
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods (ignored).
squared	Return Cohen's f or Cohen's f -squared?
model2	Second model. If specified, returns Cohen's f for R-squared-change between the two models.

Details

For aov and aovlist models, the effect sizes are computed directly with Sums-of-Squares (for mlm / maov models, effect sizes are computed for each response separately). For all other model, the model is passed to anova(), and effect sizes are approximated via test statistic conversion (see [F_to_eta2\(\)](#) for more details.)

Type of Sums of Squares:

The sums of squares (or F statistics) used for the computation of the effect sizes is based on those returned by anova(model) (whatever those may be - for aov and aovlist these are *type-1* sums of squares; for merMod these are *type-3* sums of squares). Make sure these are the sums of squares you are interested in; You might want to pass the result of car::Anova(mode, type = 3), or use the afex package to fit ANOVA models.

It is generally recommended to fit models with `contr.sum` factor weights and *centered covariates*, for sensible results. See examples and the afex package.

Confidence Intervals:

Confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral F distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

Special care should be taken when interpreting CIs with a lower bound equal to (or small then) 0, and even more care should be taken when the *upper* bound is equal to (or small then) 0 (Steiger, 2004; Morey et al., 2016).

Un-Biased Estimate of Eta:

Both **Omega** and **Epsilon** are unbiased estimators of the population's **Eta**, which is especially important is small samples. But which to choose?

Though Omega is the more popular choice (Albers & Lakens, 2018), Epsilon is analogous to adjusted R2 (Allen, 2017, p. 382), and has been found to be less biased (Carroll & Nordholm, 1975).

Cohen's f:

Cohen's f can take on values between zero, when the population means are all equal, and an indefinitely large number as standard deviation of means increases relative to the average standard deviation within each group.

When comparing two models in a sequential regression analysis, Cohen's f for R-square change is the ratio between ratio between the increase in R-square and the \

Cohen has suggested that the values of 0.10, 0.25, and 0.40 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively.

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s) and confidence interval(s).

A data frame containing the effect size values and their confidence intervals.

References

- Albers, C., & Lakens, D. (2018). When power analyses based on pilot data are biased: Inaccurate effect size estimators and follow-up bias. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, 74, 187-195.
- Allen, R. (2017). *Statistics and Experimental Design for Psychologists: A Model Comparison Approach*. World Scientific Publishing Company.
- Carroll, R. M., & Nordholm, L. A. (1975). Sampling Characteristics of Kelley's epsilon and Hays' omega. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 35(3), 541-554.
- Kelley, T. (1935) An unbiased correlation ratio measure. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. 21(9). 554-559.
- Morey, R. D., Hoekstra, R., Rouder, J. N., Lee, M. D., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2016). The fallacy of placing confidence in confidence intervals. *Psychonomic bulletin & review*, 23(1), 103-123.
- Olejnik, S., & Algina, J. (2003). Generalized eta and omega squared statistics: measures of effect size for some common research designs. *Psychological methods*, 8(4), 434.
- Steiger, J. H. (2004). Beyond the F test: Effect size confidence intervals and tests of close fit in the analysis of variance and contrast analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 9, 164-182.

See Also

[F_to_eta2\(\)](#)

Examples

```
library(effectsize)
mtcars$am_f <- factor(mtcars$am)
mtcars$cyl_f <- factor(mtcars$cyl)

model <- aov(mpg ~ am_f * cyl_f, data = mtcars)
```

```

eta_squared(model)
eta_squared(model, generalized = "cyl_f")
omega_squared(model)
epsilon_squared(model)
cohens_f(model)
(etas <- eta_squared(model, partial = FALSE))

if(require(see)) plot(etas)

model0 <- aov(mpg ~ am_f + cyl_f, data = mtcars) # no interaction
cohens_f_squared(model0, model2 = model)

# Recommended:
# Type-3 effect sizes + effects coding
if (require(car, quietly = TRUE)) {
  contrasts(mtcars$am_f) <- contr.sum
  contrasts(mtcars$cyl_f) <- contr.sum

  model <- aov(mpg ~ am_f * cyl_f, data = mtcars)
  model_anova <- car::Anova(model, type = 3)

  eta_squared(model_anova)
}

# afex takes care of both type-3 effects and effects coding:
if (require(afex)) {
  data(obk.long, package = "afex")
  model <- aov_car(value ~ treatment * gender + Error(id/(phase)),
                  data = obk.long, observed = "gender")
  eta_squared(model)
  epsilon_squared(model)
  omega_squared(model)
  eta_squared(model, partial = FALSE)
  epsilon_squared(model, partial = FALSE)
  omega_squared(model, partial = FALSE)
  eta_squared(model, generalized = TRUE)
}

if (require("parameters")) {
  model <- lm(mpg ~ wt + cyl, data = mtcars)
  mp <- model_parameters(model)
  eta_squared(mp)
}

if (require(lmerTest, quietly = TRUE)) {
  model <- lmer(mpg ~ am_f * cyl_f + (1|vs), data = mtcars)
  omega_squared(model)
}

```

 eta_squared_posterior *Simulate Eta Squared from Posterior Predictive Distribution*

Description

This function simulates data from the posterior predictive distribution (ppd) and for each simulation the Eta Squared is computed for the model's fixed effects. This means that the returned values are the population level effect size as implied by the posterior model (and not the effect size in the sample data). See [rstantools::posterior_predict\(\)](#) for more info.

Effect sizes are computed using the sums of squares obtained from `car::Anova(model, ...)` which might not always be appropriate (*Yeah... ANOVAs are hard...*), e.g., when factors aren't 0-mean coded and covariates aren't centered; a warning will be given in such predictors are detected. See *details* section in [eta_squared\(\)](#).

Usage

```
eta_squared_posterior(
  model,
  partial = TRUE,
  type = 3,
  draws = 500,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

model	A Bayesian linear model, fit with brms or rstanarm.
partial	Whether Partial Eta should be returned.
type	Type of sum-of-squares to use. See car::Anova() .
draws	An integer indicating the number of draws from the posterior predictive distribution to return. Larger numbers take longer to run, but provide estimates that are more stable.
verbose	Show messages / warning about centering.
...	Currently not used.

Value

A data frame containing the ppd of the Eta squared for each fixed effect, which can then be passed to [bayestestR::describe_posterior\(\)](#) for summary stats.

Examples

```

if (require(rstanarm) && require(bayestestR)) {
  fit_bayes <- stan_glm(mpg ~ factor(cyl) * wt + qsec,
                      data = mtcars,
                      family = gaussian(),
                      refresh = 0)

  es <- eta_squared_posterior(fit_bayes)

  bayestestR::describe_posterior(es)
}

# compare to:
if (require(car)) {
  fit_freq <- lm(mpg ~ factor(cyl) * wt + qsec,
                data = mtcars)
  aov_table <- car::Anova(fit_freq, type = 3)
  eta_squared(aov_table)
}

```

format_standardize *Transform a standardized vector into character*

Description

Transform a standardized vector into character, e.g., `c("-1 SD", "Mean", "+1 SD")`.

Usage

```
format_standardize(x, reference = x, robust = FALSE, digits = NULL, ...)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A standardized numeric vector.
<code>reference</code>	The reference vector from which to compute the mean and SD.
<code>robust</code>	Logical, if TRUE, centering is done by subtracting the median from the variables and dividing it by the median absolute deviation (MAD). If FALSE, variables are standardized by subtracting the mean and dividing it by the standard deviation (SD).
<code>digits</code>	Number of significant digits.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to or from other methods.

Examples

```
format_standardize(c(-1, 0, 1))
format_standardize(c(-1, 0, 1, 2), reference = rnorm(1000))
format_standardize(c(-1, 0, 1, 2), reference = rnorm(1000), robust = TRUE)
```

F_to_eta2	<i>Convert test statistics (F, t) to indices of partial variance explained (partial Eta / Omega / Epsilon squared and Cohen's f)</i>
-----------	---

Description

These functions are convenience functions to convert F and t test statistics to **partial** Eta squared, (η_p^2), Omega squared (ω_p^2), Epsilon squared (ϵ_p^2 ; an alias for the adjusted Eta squared) and Cohen's f. These are useful in cases where the various Sum of Squares and Mean Squares are not easily available or their computation is not straightforward (e.g., in liner mixed models, contrasts, etc.). For test statistics derived from lm and aov models, these functions give exact results. For all other cases, they return close approximations.

See [Effect Size from Test Statistics vignette](#).

Usage

```
F_to_eta2(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)
t_to_eta2(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)

F_to_epsilon2(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)
t_to_epsilon2(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)

F_to_eta2_adj(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)
t_to_eta2_adj(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)

F_to_omega2(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)
t_to_omega2(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, ...)

F_to_f(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, squared = FALSE, ...)
t_to_f(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, squared = FALSE, ...)

F_to_f2(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.9, squared = TRUE, ...)
t_to_f2(t, df_error, ci = 0.9, squared = TRUE, ...)
```

Arguments

df, df_error	Degrees of freedom of numerator or of the error estimate (i.e., the residuals).
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
t, f	The t or the F statistics.
squared	Return Cohen's f or Cohen's f -squared?

Details

These functions use the following formulae:

$$\eta_p^2 = \frac{F \times df_{num}}{F \times df_{num} + df_{den}}$$

$$\epsilon_p^2 = \frac{(F - 1) \times df_{num}}{F \times df_{num} + df_{den}}$$

$$\omega_p^2 = \frac{(F - 1) \times df_{num}}{F \times df_{num} + df_{den} + 1}$$

$$f_p = \sqrt{\frac{\eta_p^2}{1 - \eta_p^2}}$$

For t , the conversion is based on the equality of $t^2 = F$ when $df_{num} = 1$.

Choosing an Un-Biased Estimate:

Both Omega and Epsilon are unbiased estimators of the population Eta. But which to choose? Though Omega is the more popular choice, it should be noted that:

1. The formula given above for Omega is only an approximation for complex designs.
2. Epsilon has been found to be less biased (Carroll & Nordholm, 1975).

Confidence Intervals:

Confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral F distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

Special care should be taken when interpreting CIs with a lower bound equal to (or small then) 0, and even more care should be taken when the *upper* bound is equal to (or small then) 0 (Steiger, 2004; Morey et al., 2016).

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s) between 0-1, and confidence interval(s) (Note that for ω_p^2 and ϵ_p^2 it is possible to compute a negative number; even though this doesn't make any practical sense, it is recommended to report the negative number and not a 0).

Note

$Adj.\eta_p^2$ is an alias for ϵ_p^2 .

References

- Albers, C., & Lakens, D. (2018). When power analyses based on pilot data are biased: Inaccurate effect size estimators and follow-up bias. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, 74, 187-195. doi: [10.31234/osf.io/b7z4q](https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/b7z4q)
- Carroll, R. M., & Nordholm, L. A. (1975). Sampling Characteristics of Kelley's epsilon and Hays' omega. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 35(3), 541-554.
- Cumming, G., & Finch, S. (2001). A primer on the understanding, use, and calculation of confidence intervals that are based on central and noncentral distributions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61(4), 532-574.
- Friedman, H. (1982). Simplified determinations of statistical power, magnitude of effect and research sample sizes. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 42(2), 521-526. doi: [10.1177/001316448204200214](https://doi.org/10.1177/001316448204200214)
- Mordkoff, J. T. (2019). A Simple Method for Removing Bias From a Popular Measure of Standardized Effect Size: Adjusted Partial Eta Squared. *Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science*, 2(3), 228-232. doi: [10.1177/2515245919855053](https://doi.org/10.1177/2515245919855053)
- Morey, R. D., Hoekstra, R., Rouder, J. N., Lee, M. D., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2016). The fallacy of placing confidence in confidence intervals. *Psychonomic bulletin & review*, 23(1), 103-123.
- Steiger, J. H. (2004). Beyond the F test: Effect size confidence intervals and tests of close fit in the analysis of variance and contrast analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 9, 164-182.

See Also

[eta_squared\(\)](#) for more details.

Examples

```
if (require("afex")) {
  data(md_12.1)
  aov_ez("id", "rt", md_12.1,
    within = c("angle", "noise"),
    anova_table = list(correction = "none", es = "pes")
  )
}
# compare to:
(etas <- F_to_eta2(
  f = c(40.72, 33.77, 45.31),
  df = c(2, 1, 2),
  df_error = c(18, 9, 18)
))

if(require(see)) plot(etas)
```

```

if (require("lmerTest")) { # for the df_error
  fit <- lmer(extra ~ group + (1 | ID), sleep)
  # anova(fit)
  # Type III Analysis of Variance Table with Satterthwaite's method
  #      Sum Sq Mean Sq NumDF DenDF F value    Pr(>F)
  # group 12.482  12.482     1     9  16.501 0.002833 **
  # ---
  # Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
  F_to_eta2(16.501, 1, 9)
  F_to_omega2(16.501, 1, 9)
  F_to_epsilon2(16.501, 1, 9)
  F_to_f(16.501, 1, 9)
}

## Use with emmeans based contrasts
if (require(emmeans)) {
  warp.lm <- lm(breaks ~ wool * tension, data = warpbreaks)

  jt <- joint_tests(warp.lm, by = "wool")
  F_to_eta2(jt$F.ratio, jt$df1, jt$df2)
}

```

hardlyworking

Workers' salary and other information

Description

A sample (simulated) dataset, used in tests and some examples.

Format

A data frame with 500 rows and 5 variables:

salary Salary, in Shmekels

xtra_hours Number of overtime hours (on average, per week)

n_comps Number of compliments given to the boss (observed over the last week)

age Age in years

seniority How many years with the company

interpret	<i>Generic function for interpretation</i>
-----------	--

Description

Interpret a value based on a set of rules. See [rules\(\)](#).

Usage

```
interpret(x, rules, name = attr(rules, "rule_name"))
```

Arguments

x	Vector of value break points (edges defining categories).
rules	Set of rules() .
name	Name of the set of rules (stored as a 'rule_name' attribute).

See Also

[rules](#)

Examples

```
rules_grid <- rules(c(0.01, 0.05), c("very significant", "significant", "not significant"))
interpret(0.001, rules_grid)
interpret(0.021, rules_grid)
interpret(0.08, rules_grid)
interpret(c(0.01, 0.005, 0.08), rules_grid)

interpret(c(0.35, 0.15), c("small" = 0.2, "large" = 0.4), name = "Cohen's Rules")
interpret(c(0.35, 0.15), rules(c(0.2, 0.4), c("small", "medium", "large")))
```

interpret_bf	<i>Interpret Bayes Factor (BF)</i>
--------------	------------------------------------

Description

Interpret Bayes Factor (BF)

Usage

```
interpret_bf(
  bf,
  rules = "jeffreys1961",
  include_value = FALSE,
  protect_ratio = TRUE,
  exact = TRUE
)
```

Arguments

bf	Value or vector of Bayes factor (BF) values.
rules	Can be "jeffreys1961" (default), "raftery1995" or custom set of <code>rules()</code> (for the <i>absolute magnitude</i> of evidence).
include_value	Include the value in the output.
protect_ratio	Should values smaller than 1 be represented as ratios?
exact	Should very large or very small values be reported with a scientific format (e.g., 4.24e5), or as truncated values (as "> 1000" and "< 1/1000").

Details

Argument names can be partially matched.

Rules

Rules apply to BF as ratios, so BF of 10 is as extreme as a BF of 0.1 (1/10).

- Jeffreys (1961) ("jeffreys1961"; default)
 - **BF = 1** - No evidence
 - **1 < BF < 3** - Anecdotal
 - **3 < BF < 10** - Moderate
 - **10 < BF < 30** - Strong
 - **30 < BF < 100** - Very strong
 - **BF > 100** - Extreme.
- Raftery (1995) ("raftery1995")
 - **BF = 1** - No evidence
 - **1 < BF < 3** - Weak
 - **3 < BF < 20** - Positive
 - **20 < BF < 150** - Strong
 - **BF > 150** - Very strong

References

- Jeffreys, H. (1961), Theory of Probability, 3rd ed., Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Raftery, A. E. (1995). Bayesian model selection in social research. *Sociological methodology*, 25, 111-164.
- Jarosz, A. F., & Wiley, J. (2014). What are the odds? A practical guide to computing and reporting Bayes factors. *The Journal of Problem Solving*, 7(1), 2.

Examples

```
interpret_bf(1)
interpret_bf(c(5, 2))
```

interpret_d	<i>Interpret standardized differences</i>
-------------	---

Description

Interpretation of standardized differences using different sets of rules of thumb.

Usage

```
interpret_d(d, rules = "cohen1988", ...)
interpret_g(g, rules = "cohen1988")
interpret_delta(delta, rules = "cohen1988")
```

Arguments

d, g, delta	Value or vector of effect size values.
rules	Can be "cohen1988" (default), "gignac2016", "sawilowsky2009" or custom set of rules() .
...	Not directly used.

Rules

Rules apply to equally to positive and negative d .

- Cohen (1988) ("cohen1988"; default)
 - $d < 0.2$ - Very small
 - $0.2 < d < 0.5$ - Small
 - $0.5 < d < 0.8$ - Medium
 - $d > 0.8$ - Large
- Sawilowsky (2009) ("sawilowsky2009")
 - $d < 0.1$ - Tiny
 - $0.1 < d < 0.2$ - Very small
 - $0.2 < d < 0.5$ - Small
 - $0.5 < d < 0.8$ - Medium
 - $0.8 < d < 1.2$ - Large
 - $1.2 < d < 2$ - Very large
 - $d > 2$ - Huge
- Gignac & Szodorai (2016) ("gignac2016", based on the [d_to_r\(\)](#) conversion, see [interpret_r\(\)](#))
 - $d < 0.2$ - Very small
 - $0.2 < d < 0.41$ - Small
 - $0.41 < d < 0.63$ - Moderate
 - $d > 0.63$ - Large

References

- Gignac, G. E., & Szodorai, E. T. (2016). Effect size guidelines for individual differences researchers. *Personality and individual differences*, 102, 74-78.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*.
- Sawilowsky, S. S. (2009). New effect size rules of thumb.

Examples

```
interpret_d(.02)
interpret_d(c(.5, .02))
```

```
interpret_direction    Interpret direction
```

Description

Interpret direction

Usage

```
interpret_direction(x)
```

Arguments

x Numeric value.

Examples

```
interpret_direction(.02)
interpret_direction(c(.5, -.02))
#
```

```
interpret_ess          Interpret Bayesian diagnostic indices
```

Description

Interpretation of Bayesian indices, such as Effective Sample Size (ESS), Rhat, or percentage in ROPE.

Usage

```
interpret_ess(ess, rules = "burkner2017")

interpret_rhat(rhat, rules = "vehtari2019")
```

Arguments

ess	Value or vector of Effective Sample Size (ESS) values.
rules	A character string (see <i>Rules</i>) or a custom set of <code>rules()</code> .
rhat	Value or vector of Rhat values.

Rules

ESS:

- Bürkner, P. C. (2017) ("burkner2017"; default)
 - **ESS < 1000** - Insufficient
 - **ESS >= 1000** - Sufficient

Rhat:

- Vehtari et al. (2019) ("vehtari2019"; default)
 - **Rhat < 1.01** - Converged
 - **Rhat >= 1.01** - Failed
- Gelman & Rubin (1992) ("gelman1992")
 - **Rhat < 1.1** - Converged
 - **Rhat >= 1.1** - Failed

References

- Bürkner, P. C. (2017). brms: An R package for Bayesian multilevel models using Stan. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 80(1), 1-28.
- Gelman, A., & Rubin, D. B. (1992). Inference from iterative simulation using multiple sequences. *Statistical science*, 7(4), 457-472.
- Vehtari, A., Gelman, A., Simpson, D., Carpenter, B., & Bürkner, P. C. (2019). Rank-normalization, folding, and localization: An improved Rhat for assessing convergence of MCMC. arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.08008.

Examples

```
interpret_ess(1001)
interpret_ess(c(852, 1200))

interpret_rhat(1.00)
interpret_rhat(c(1.5, 0.9))
```

interpret_gfi	<i>Interpret of indices of CFA / SEM goodness of fit</i>
---------------	--

Description

Interpretation of indices of fit found in confirmatory analysis or structural equation modelling, such as RMSEA, CFI, NFI, IFI, etc.

Usage

```
interpret_gfi(x, rules = "default")
interpret_agfi(x, rules = "default")
interpret_nfi(x, rules = "byrne1994")
interpret_nnfi(x, rules = "byrne1994")
interpret_cfi(x, rules = "default")
interpret_rmsea(x, rules = "default")
interpret_srmr(x, rules = "default")
interpret_rfi(x, rules = "default")
interpret_ifi(x, rules = "default")
interpret_pnfi(x, rules = "default")
```

Arguments

x	vector of values.
rules	Can be "default" or custom set of <code>rules()</code> .

Details

Indices of fit:

- **Chisq:** The model Chi-squared assesses overall fit and the discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices. Its p-value should be $> .05$ (i.e., the hypothesis of a perfect fit cannot be rejected). However, it is quite sensitive to sample size.
- **GFI/AGFI:** The (Adjusted) Goodness of Fit is the proportion of variance accounted for by the estimated population covariance. Analogous to R^2 . The GFI and the AGFI should be $> .95$ and $> .90$, respectively.
- **NFI/NNFI/TLI:** The (Non) Normed Fit Index. An NFI of 0.95, indicates the model of interest improves the fit by 95\

- **CFI:** The Comparative Fit Index is a revised form of NFI. Not very sensitive to sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999). Compares the fit of a target model to the fit of an independent, or null, model. It should be $> .90$.
- **RMSEA:** The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation is a parsimony-adjusted index. Values closer to 0 represent a good fit. It should be $< .08$ or $< .05$. The p-value printed with it tests the hypothesis that RMSEA is less than or equal to .05 (a cutoff sometimes used for good fit), and thus should be not significant.
- **RMR/SRMR:** the (Standardized) Root Mean Square Residual represents the square-root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesized model. As the RMR can be sometimes hard to interpret, better to use SRMR. Should be $< .08$.
- **RFI:** the Relative Fit Index, also known as RHO1, is not guaranteed to vary from 0 to 1. However, RFI close to 1 indicates a good fit.
- **IFI:** the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) adjusts the Normed Fit Index (NFI) for sample size and degrees of freedom (Bollen's, 1989). Over 0.90 is a good fit, but the index can exceed 1.
- **PNFI:** the Parsimony-Adjusted Measures Index. There is no commonly agreed-upon cutoff value for an acceptable model for this index. Should be > 0.50 .

See the documentation for [fitmeasures\(\)](#).

What to report:

For structural equation models (SEM), Kline (2015) suggests that at a minimum the following indices should be reported: The model **chi-square**, the **RMSEA**, the **CFI** and the **SRMR**.

References

- Awang, Z. (2012). A handbook on SEM. Structural equation modeling.
- Byrne, B. M. (1994). Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). The reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 38, 1-10.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling, Second edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Fan, X., B. Thompson, & L. Wang (1999). Effects of sample size, estimation method, and model specification on structural equation modeling fit indexes. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 56-83.
- Kline, R. B. (2015). Principles and practice of structural equation modeling. Guilford publications.

Examples

```
interpret_gfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_agfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_nfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_nnfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_cfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_rmsea(c(.07, .04))
interpret_srmr(c(.5, .99))
```

```
interpret_rfi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_ifi(c(.5, .99))
interpret_pnfi(c(.5, .99))
```

interpret_oddsratio *Interpret Odds ratio*

Description

Interpret Odds ratio

Usage

```
interpret_oddsratio(OR, rules = "chen2010", log = FALSE)
```

Arguments

OR	Value or vector of (log) odds ratio values.
rules	Can be "chen2010" (default), "cohen1988" (through transformation to standardized difference, see odds_to_d()) or custom set of rules() .
log	Are the provided values log odds ratio.

Rules

Rules apply to OR as ratios, so OR of 10 is as extreme as a OR of 0.1 (1/10).

- Chen et al. (2010) ("chen2010"; default)
 - **OR < 1.68** - Very small
 - **1.68 < OR < 3.47** - Small
 - **3.47 < OR < 6.71** - Medium
 - ****OR > 6.71 **** - Large
- Cohen (1988) ("cohen1988", based on the [oddsratio_to_d\(\)](#) conversion, see [interpret_d\(\)](#))
 - **OR < 1.44** - Very small
 - **1.44 < OR < 2.48** - Small
 - **2.48 < OR < 4.27** - Medium
 - ****OR > 4.27 **** - Large

References

- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences.
- Chen, H., Cohen, P., & Chen, S. (2010). How big is a big odds ratio? Interpreting the magnitudes of odds ratios in epidemiological studies. *Communications in Statistics—Simulation and Computation*, 39(4), 860-864.
- Sánchez-Meca, J., Marín-Martínez, F., & Chacón-Moscoso, S. (2003). Effect-size indices for dichotomized outcomes in meta-analysis. *Psychological methods*, 8(4), 448.

Examples

```
interpret_oddsratio(1)
interpret_oddsratio(c(5, 2))
```

```
interpret_omega_squared
```

Interpret ANOVA effect size

Description

Interpret ANOVA effect size

Usage

```
interpret_omega_squared(es, rules = "field2013")
interpret_eta_squared(es, rules = "field2013")
interpret_epsilon_squared(es, rules = "field2013")
```

Arguments

`es` Value or vector of eta / omega / epsilon squared values.
`rules` Can be "field2013" (default), "cohen1992" or custom set of `rules()`.

Rules

- Field (2013) ("field2013"; default)
 - **ES < 0.01** - Very small
 - **0.01 < ES < 0.06** - Small
 - **0.16 < ES < 0.14** - Medium
 - ****ES > 0.14 **** - Large
- Cohen (1992) ("cohen1992") applicable to one-way anova, or to *partial* eta / omega / epsilon squared in multi-way anova.
 - **ES < 0.02** - Very small
 - **0.02 < ES < 0.13** - Small
 - **0.13 < ES < 0.26** - Medium
 - **ES > 0.26** - Large

References

- Field, A (2013) Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics. Fourth Edition. Sage:London.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. Psychological bulletin, 112(1), 155.

See Also

<http://imaging.mrc-cbu.cam.ac.uk/statswiki/FAQ/effectSize>

Examples

```
interpret_eta_squared(.02)
interpret_eta_squared(c(.5, .02), rules = "cohen1992")
```

interpret_p	<i>Interpret p-values</i>
-------------	---------------------------

Description

Interpret p-values

Usage

```
interpret_p(p, rules = "default")
```

Arguments

p	Value or vector of p-values.
rules	Can be "default", "rss" (for <i>Redefine statistical significance</i> rules) or custom set of rules() .

Rules

- Default
 - $p > 0.05$ - Not significant
 - $p < 0.05$ - Significant
- Benjamin et al. (2018) ("rss")
 - $p > 0.05$ - Not significant
 - $0.005 < p < 0.05$ - Suggestive
 - $p < 0.005$ - Significant

References

- Benjamin, D. J., Berger, J. O., Johannesson, M., Nosek, B. A., Wagenmakers, E. J., Berk, R., ... & Cesarini, D. (2018). Redefine statistical significance. *Nature Human Behaviour*, 2(1), 6-10.

Examples

```
interpret_p(c(.5, .02, 0.001))
interpret_p(c(.5, .02, 0.001), rules = "rss")
```

interpret_parameters *Interpret of standardized slopes*

Description

Automated interpretation of standardized slopes.

Usage

```
interpret_parameters(model, ...)

## S3 method for class 'lm'
interpret_parameters(
  model,
  parameters = NULL,
  interpretation = "funder2019",
  standardize_method = "refit",
  standardize_robust = FALSE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

model	A statistical model.
...	For <code>standardize_parameters()</code> , arguments passed to <code>parameters::model_parameters</code> , such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <code>ci_method</code>, centrality for Bayesian models... • <code>df_method</code> for Mixed models ... • <code>exponentiate</code>, ... • etc.
parameters	A custom parameters table. If NULL, will use <code>standardize_parameters()</code> to get it.
interpretation	Interpretation grid (i.e., the set of rules of thumb) used to interpret the effects.
standardize_method	See <code>standardize_parameters()</code> .
standardize_robust	See <code>standardize_parameters()</code> .

Examples

```
model <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species * Petal.Width, data = iris)
interpret_parameters(model)
```

interpret_r	<i>Interpret correlation</i>
-------------	------------------------------

Description

Interpret correlation

Usage

```
interpret_r(r, rules = "funder2019")
```

Arguments

r	Value or vector of correlation coefficient.
rules	Can be "funder2019" (default), "gignac2016", "cohen1988", "evans1996" or custom set of <code>rules()</code> .

Rules

Rules apply positive and negative r alike.

- Funder & Ozer (2019) ("funder2019"; default)
 - $r < 0.05$ - Tiny
 - $0.05 < r < 0.1$ - Very small
 - $0.1 < r < 0.2$ - Small
 - $0.2 < r < 0.3$ - Medium
 - $0.3 < r < 0.4$ - Large
 - $r > 0.4$ - Very large
- Gignac & Szodorai (2016) ("gignac2016")
 - $r < 0.1$ - Very small
 - $0.1 < r < 0.2$ - Small
 - $0.2 < r < 0.3$ - Moderate
 - $r > 0.3$ - Large
- Cohen (1988) ("cohen1988")
 - $r < 0.1$ - Very small
 - $0.1 < r < 0.3$ - Small
 - $0.3 < r < 0.5$ - Moderate
 - $r > 0.5$ - Large
- Evans (1996) ("evans1996")
 - $r < 0.2$ - Very weak
 - $0.2 < r < 0.4$ - Weak
 - $0.4 < r < 0.6$ - Moderate
 - $0.6 < r < 0.8$ - Strong
 - $r > 0.8$ - Very strong

References

- Funder, D. C., & Ozer, D. J. (2019). Evaluating effect size in psychological research: sense and nonsense. *Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science*.
- Gignac, G. E., & Szodorai, E. T. (2016). Effect size guidelines for individual differences researchers. *Personality and individual differences*, 102, 74-78.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*.
- Evans, J. D. (1996). *Straightforward statistics for the behavioral sciences*. Thomson Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.

See Also

Page 88 of APA's 6th Edition.

Examples

```
interpret_r(.015)
interpret_r(c(.5, -.02))
```

interpret_r2	<i>Interpret coefficient of determination (R2)</i>
--------------	--

Description

Interpret coefficient of determination (R2)

Usage

```
interpret_r2(r2, rules = "cohen1988")
```

Arguments

r2	Value or vector of R2 values.
rules	Can be "cohen1988" (default), "falk1992", "chin1998", "hair2011" or custom set of <code>rules()</code>].

Rules

For Linear Regression:

- Cohen (1988) ("cohen1988"; default)
 - $R^2 < 0.02$ - Very weak
 - $0.02 < R^2 < 0.13$ - Weak
 - $0.13 < R^2 < 0.26$ - Moderate
 - $R^2 > 0.26$ - Substantial
- Falk & Miller (1992) ("falk1992")

- $R^2 < 0.1$ - Negligible
- $R^2 > 0.1$ - Adequate

For PLS / SEM R-Squared of *latent* variables:

- Chin, W. W. (1998) ("chin1998")
 - $R^2 < 0.19$ - Very weak
 - $0.19 < R^2 < 0.33$ - Weak
 - $0.33 < R^2 < 0.67$ - Moderate
 - $R^2 > 0.67$ - Substantial
- Hair et al. (2011) ("hair2011")
 - $R^2 < 0.25$ - Very weak
 - $0.25 < R^2 < 0.50$ - Weak
 - $0.50 < R^2 < 0.75$ - Moderate
 - $R^2 > 0.75$ - Substantial

References

- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences.
- Falk, R. F., & Miller, N. B. (1992). A primer for soft modeling. University of Akron Press.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. Modern methods for business research, 295(2), 295-336.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. Journal of Marketing theory and Practice, 19(2), 139-152.

Examples

```
interpret_r2(.02)
interpret_r2(c(.5, .02))
```

interpret_rop	<i>Interpret Bayesian diagnostic indices</i>
---------------	--

Description

Interpretation of Bayesian indices of percentage in ROPE.

Usage

```
interpret_rop(rop, ci = 0.9, rules = "default")
```

Arguments

rop	Value or vector of percentages in ROPE.
ci	The Credible Interval (CI) probability, corresponding to the proportion of HDI, that was used. Can be 1 in the case of "full ROPE".
rules	A character string (see details) or a custom set of <code>rules()</code> .

Rules

- Default
 - For $CI < 1$
 - * **Rope = 0** - Significant
 - * **$0 < \text{Rope} < 1$** - Undecided
 - * **Rope = 1** - Negligible
 - For $CI = 1$
 - * **Rope < 0.01** - Significant
 - * **$0.01 < \text{Rope} < 0.025$** - Probably significant
 - * **$0.025 < \text{Rope} < 0.975$** - Undecided
 - * **$0.975 < \text{Rope} < 0.99$** - Probably negligible
 - * **Rope > 0.99** - Negligible

References

[BayestestR's reporting guidelines](#)

Examples

```
interpret_rope(0, ci = 0.9)
interpret_rope(c(0.005, 0.99), ci = 1)
```

is_effectsize_name	<i>Checks if character is of a supported effect size</i>
--------------------	--

Description

For use by other functions and packages.

Usage

```
is_effectsize_name(x)
```

Arguments

x A character, or a vector / list of ones.

normalize	<i>Normalize numeric variable to [0-1] range</i>
-----------	--

Description

Performs a normalization of data, i.e., it scales all numeric variables in the range 0 - 1. This is a special case of `change_scale()`.

Usage

```
normalize(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'numeric'
normalize(x, include_bounds = TRUE, verbose = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'grouped_df'
normalize(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  include_bounds = TRUE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
normalize(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  include_bounds = TRUE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

x	Object.
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
include_bounds	Logical, if TRUE, return value may include 0 and 1. If FALSE, the return value is compressed, using the formula $(x * (n - 1) + 0.5) / n$ (<i>Smithson and Verkuilen 2006</i>), to avoid zeros and ones in the normalized variables. This can be useful in case of beta-regression, where the response variable is not allowed to include zeros and ones.
verbose	Toggle warnings on or off.

select	Character vector of column names. If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
exclude	Character vector of column names to be excluded from selection.

Value

A normalized object.

References

- Smithson M, Verkuilen J (2006). A Better Lemon Squeezer? Maximum-Likelihood Regression with Beta-Distributed Dependent Variables. *Psychological Methods*, 11(1), 54–71.

See Also

[ranktransform\(\)](#) [standardize\(\)](#) [change_scale\(\)](#)

Examples

```
normalize(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2))
normalize(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2), include_bounds = FALSE)

head(normalize(iris))
```

oddsratio_to_riskratio

Convert between Odds ratios and Risk ratios

Description

Convert between Odds ratios and Risk ratios

Usage

```
oddsratio_to_riskratio(OR, p0, log = FALSE)
```

```
riskratio_to_oddsratio(RR, p0, log = FALSE)
```

Arguments

OR, RR	Risk ratio of $p1/p0$ or Odds ratio of $odds(p1)/odds(p0)$, possibly log-ed.
p0	Baseline risk
log	Take in or output the log of the ratio (such as in logistic models).

References

Grant, R. L. (2014). Converting an odds ratio to a range of plausible relative risks for better communication of research findings. *Bmj*, 348, f7450.

Examples

```

p0 <- 0.4
p1 <- 0.7

(OR <- probs_to_odds(p1) / probs_to_odds(p0))
(RR <- p1 / p0)

riskratio_to_oddsratio(RR, p0 = p0)
oddsratio_to_riskratio(OR, p0 = p0)

```

odds_to_probs

Convert between Odds and Probabilities

Description

Convert between Odds and Probabilities

Usage

```

odds_to_probs(odds, log = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
odds_to_probs(odds, log = FALSE, select = NULL, exclude = NULL, ...)

probs_to_odds(probs, log = FALSE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
probs_to_odds(probs, log = FALSE, select = NULL, exclude = NULL, ...)

convert_odds_to_probs(odds, log = FALSE, ...)

convert_probs_to_odds(probs, log = FALSE, ...)

```

Arguments

odds	The <i>Odds</i> (or $\log(\text{odds})$ when $\text{log} = \text{TRUE}$) to convert.
log	Take in or output log odds (such as in logistic models).
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
select	When a data frame is passed, character or list of column names to be transformed.
exclude	When a data frame is passed, character or list of column names to be excluded from transformation.
probs	Probability values to convert.

See Also

[stats::plogis\(\)](#)

Examples

```
odds_to_probs(3)
odds_to_probs(1.09, log = TRUE)
```

```
probs_to_odds(0.95)
probs_to_odds(0.95, log = TRUE)
```

 phi

Effect size for contingency tables

Description

Compute Cramer's V , phi (ϕ), Cohen's w (an alias of phi) and Cohen's g for contingency tables or goodness-of-fit. See details.

Usage

```
phi(x, y = NULL, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, CI, ...)
cohens_w(x, y = NULL, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, CI, ...)
cramers_v(x, y = NULL, ci = 0.95, adjust = FALSE, CI, ...)
cohens_g(x, y = NULL, ci = 0.95, ...)
```

Arguments

x	a numeric vector or matrix. x and y can also both be factors.
y	a numeric vector; ignored if x is a matrix. If x is a factor, y should be a factor of the same length.
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
adjust	Should the effect size be bias-corrected? Defaults to FALSE.
CI	Deprecated in favor of ci.
...	Arguments passed to stats::chisq.test() , such as p. Ignored for cohens_g().

Details

Cramer's V and phi (ϕ) are effect sizes for tests of independence in 2D contingency tables, or for goodness-of-fit in 1D tables. For 2x2 tables, all 3 are identical, and are equal to the simple correlation between two dichotomous variables, ranging between 0 (no dependence) and 1 (perfect dependence). For larger tables, Cramer's V should be used, as it is bounded between 0-1, whereas phi can be larger than 1.

Cohen's g is an effect size for dependent (paired) contingency tables ranging between 0 (perfect symmetry) and 0.5 (perfect asymmetry) (see `stats::mcnemar.test()`).

Confidence Intervals:

For Cramer's V and phi, confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral Chi-squared distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

For Cohen's g , confidence intervals are based on the proportion ($P = g + 0.5$) confidence intervals returned by `stats::prop.test()` (minus 0.5), which give a good close approximation.

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s), and confidence interval(s).

References

- Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences.

See Also

`chisq_to_phi()` for details regarding estimation and CIs.

Examples

```
M <- rbind(c(150, 130, 35, 55),
           c(100, 50, 10, 40),
           c(165, 65, 2, 25))

dimnames(M) <- list(Study = c("Psych", "Econ", "Law"),
                  Music = c("Pop", "Rock", "Jazz", "Classic"))

M

phi(M)

cramers_v(M)

Performance <-
  matrix(c(794, 86, 150, 570),
        nrow = 2,
        dimnames = list("1st Survey" = c("Approve", "Disapprove"),
```

```

"2nd Survey" = c("Approve", "Disapprove"))))

cohens_g(Performance)

```

ranktransform	<i>(Signed) rank transformation</i>
---------------	-------------------------------------

Description

Transform numeric values with the integers of their rank (i.e., 1st smallest, 2nd smallest, 3rd smallest, etc.). Setting the `sign` argument to `TRUE` will give you signed ranks, where the ranking is done according to absolute size but where the sign is preserved (i.e., 2, 1, -3, 4).

Usage

```

ranktransform(x, ...)

## S3 method for class 'numeric'
ranktransform(x, sign = FALSE, method = "average", verbose = TRUE, ...)

## S3 method for class 'grouped_df'
ranktransform(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  sign = FALSE,
  method = "average",
  ...
)

## S3 method for class 'data.frame'
ranktransform(
  x,
  select = NULL,
  exclude = NULL,
  sign = FALSE,
  method = "average",
  ...
)

```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	Object.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>sign</code>	Logical, if <code>TRUE</code> , return signed ranks.

method	Treatment of ties. Can be one of "average" (default), "first", "last", "random", "max" or "min". See <code>rank()</code> for details.
verbose	Toggle warnings on or off.
select	Character vector of column names. If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
exclude	Character vector of column names to be excluded from selection.

Value

A rank-transformed object.

See Also

`normalize()` `standardize()` `change_scale()`

Examples

```
ranktransform(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2))
ranktransform(c(0, 1, 5, -5, -2), sign = TRUE)

head(ranktransform(iris))
```

rules

Interpretation Grid

Description

Create a container for interpretation rules of thumb. Usually used in conjunction with [interpret](#).

Usage

```
rules(values, labels = NULL, name = NULL)

is.rules(x)
```

Arguments

values	Vector of reference values (edges defining categories or critical values).
labels	Labels associated with each category. If NULL, will try to infer it from values (if it is a named vector or a list), otherwise, will return the breakpoints.
name	Name of the set of rules (stored as a 'rule_name' attribute).
x	An arbitrary R object.

See Also

`interpret`

Examples

```
rules(c(0.05), c("significant", "not significant"))
rules(c(0.2, 0.5, 0.8), c("small", "medium", "large"))
rules(c("small" = 0.2, "medium" = 0.5), name = "Cohen's Rules")
```

sd_pooled

Pooled Standard Deviation

Description

The Pooled Standard Deviation is a weighted average of standard deviations for two or more groups, with more "weight" given to larger sample sizes.

Usage

```
sd_pooled(x, y = NULL, data = NULL)

mad_pooled(x, y = NULL, data = NULL)
```

Arguments

x	A formula, a numeric vector, or a character name of one in data. (For print() the result of one of the standardized difference functions.)
y	A numeric vector, a grouping (character / factor) vector, a or a character name of one in data. Ignored if x is a formula.
data	An optional data frame containing the variables.

Value

Numeric, the pooled standard deviation.

See Also

[cohens_d\(\)](#)

Examples

```
sd_pooled(mpg ~ am, data = mtcars)
```

`standardize`*Standardization (Z-scoring)*

Description

Performs a standardization of data (z-scoring), i.e., centering and scaling, so that the data is expressed in terms of standard deviation (i.e., mean = 0, SD = 1) or Median Absolute Deviance (median = 0, MAD = 1). When applied to a statistical model, this function extracts the dataset, standardizes it, and refits the model with this standardized version of the dataset. The [normalize\(\)](#) function can also be used to scale all numeric variables within the 0 - 1 range.

Usage

```
standardize(  
  x,  
  robust = FALSE,  
  two_sd = FALSE,  
  weights = NULL,  
  verbose = TRUE,  
  ...  
)  
  
## S3 method for class 'numeric'  
standardize(  
  x,  
  robust = FALSE,  
  two_sd = FALSE,  
  weights = NULL,  
  verbose = TRUE,  
  ...  
)  
  
## S3 method for class 'data.frame'  
standardize(  
  x,  
  robust = FALSE,  
  two_sd = FALSE,  
  weights = NULL,  
  verbose = TRUE,  
  select = NULL,  
  exclude = NULL,  
  remove_na = c("none", "selected", "all"),  
  force = FALSE,  
  append = FALSE,  
  suffix = "_z",  
  ...  
)
```



```
## Default S3 method:
standardize(
  x,
  robust = FALSE,
  two_sd = FALSE,
  weights = TRUE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  include_response = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

<code>x</code>	A data frame, a vector or a statistical model.
<code>robust</code>	Logical, if TRUE, centering is done by subtracting the median from the variables and dividing it by the median absolute deviation (MAD). If FALSE, variables are standardized by subtracting the mean and dividing it by the standard deviation (SD).
<code>two_sd</code>	If TRUE, the variables are scaled by two times the deviation (SD or MAD depending on <code>robust</code>). This method can be useful to obtain model coefficients of continuous parameters comparable to coefficients related to binary predictors, when applied to the predictors (not the outcome) (Gelman, 2008).
<code>weights</code>	Can be NULL (for no weighting), or: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For model: if TRUE (default), a weighted-standardization is carried out. • For data.frames: a numeric vector of weights, or a character of the name of a column in the data.frame that contains the weights. • For numeric vectors: a numeric vector of weights.
<code>verbose</code>	Toggle warnings on or off.
<code>...</code>	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
<code>select</code>	Character vector of column names. If NULL (the default), all variables will be selected.
<code>exclude</code>	Character vector of column names to be excluded from selection.
<code>remove_na</code>	How should missing values (NA) be treated: if "none" (default): each column's standardization is done separately, ignoring NAs. Else, rows with NA in the columns selected with <code>select / exclude</code> ("selected") or in all columns ("all") are dropped before standardization, and the resulting data frame does not include these cases.
<code>force</code>	Logical, if TRUE, forces standardization of factors as well. Factors are converted to numerical values, with the lowest level being the value 1 (unless the factor has numeric levels, which are converted to the corresponding numeric value).
<code>append</code>	Logical, if TRUE and <code>x</code> is a data frame, standardized variables will be added as additional columns; if FALSE, existing variables are overwritten.
<code>suffix</code>	Character value, will be appended to variable (column) names of <code>x</code> , if <code>x</code> is a data frame and <code>append = TRUE</code> .

include_response

For a model, if TRUE (default), the response value will also be standardized. If FALSE, only the predictors will be standardized. Note that for certain models (logistic regression, count models, ...), the response value will never be standardized, to make re-fitting the model work.

Value

The standardized object (either a standardize data frame or a statistical model fitted on standardized data).

Model Standardization

If `x` is a model object, standardization is done by completely refitting the model on the standardized data. Hence, this approach is equal to standardizing the variables *before* fitting the model and will return a new model object. However, this method is particularly recommended for complex models that include interactions or transformations (e.g., polynomial or spline terms). The `robust` (default to FALSE) argument enables a robust standardization of data, i.e., based on the median and MAD instead of the mean and SD. See `standardize_parameters()` for other methods of standardizing model coefficients.

Transformed Variables:

When the model's formula contains transformations (e.g. $y \sim \exp(X)$) the transformation effectively takes place after standardization (e.g., $\exp(\text{scale}(X))$). Some transformations are undefined for negative values, such as `log()` and `sqrt()`. To avoid dropping these values, the standardized data is shifted by $Z - \min(Z) + 1$ or $Z - \min(Z)$ (respectively).

Note

When `x` is a vector or a data frame with `remove_na = "none"`, missing values are preserved, so the return value has the same length / number of rows as the original input.

See Also

`normalize()` `standardize_parameters()`

Examples

```
# Data frames
summary(standardize(iris))

# Models
model <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species * Petal.Width, data = iris)
coef(standardize(model))
```

standardize_info	<i>Get Standardization Information</i>
------------------	--

Description

This function extracts information, such as the deviations (SD or MAD) from parent variables, that are necessary for post-hoc standardization of parameters. This function gives a window on how standardized are obtained, i.e., by what they are divided. The "basic" method of standardization uses

Usage

```
standardize_info(
  model,
  robust = FALSE,
  two_sd = FALSE,
  include_pseudo = FALSE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

model	A statistical model.
robust	Logical, if TRUE, centering is done by subtracting the median from the variables and dividing it by the median absolute deviation (MAD). If FALSE, variables are standardized by subtracting the mean and dividing it by the standard deviation (SD).
two_sd	If TRUE, the variables are scaled by two times the deviation (SD or MAD depending on robust). This method can be useful to obtain model coefficients of continuous parameters comparable to coefficients related to binary predictors, when applied to the predictors (not the outcome) (Gelman, 2008).
include_pseudo	(For (G)LMMs) Should Pseudo-standardized information be included?
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.

Examples

```
model <- lm(Sepal.Width ~ Sepal.Length * Species, data = iris)
```

 standardize_parameters

Parameters standardization

Description

Compute standardized model parameters (coefficients).

Usage

```
standardize_parameters(
  model,
  method = "refit",
  ci = 0.95,
  robust = FALSE,
  two_sd = FALSE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  parameters,
  ...
)
```

```
standardize_posteriors(
  model,
  method = "refit",
  robust = FALSE,
  two_sd = FALSE,
  verbose = TRUE,
  ...
)
```

Arguments

model	A statistical model.
method	The method used for standardizing the parameters. Can be "refit" (default), "posthoc", "smart", "basic" or "pseudo". See 'Details'.
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
robust	Logical, if TRUE, centering is done by subtracting the median from the variables and dividing it by the median absolute deviation (MAD). If FALSE, variables are standardized by subtracting the mean and dividing it by the standard deviation (SD).
two_sd	If TRUE, the variables are scaled by two times the deviation (SD or MAD depending on robust). This method can be useful to obtain model coefficients of continuous parameters comparable to coefficients related to binary predictors, when applied to the predictors (not the outcome) (Gelman, 2008).
verbose	Toggle warnings on or off.

parameters	Deprecated.
...	For <code>standardize_parameters()</code> , arguments passed to <code>parameters::model_parameters</code> , such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <code>ci_method</code>, centrality for Bayesian models... • <code>df_method</code> for Mixed models ... • <code>exponentiate</code>, ... • <code>etc.</code>

Details

Methods::

- **refit**: This method is based on a complete model re-fit with a standardized version of the data. Hence, this method is equal to standardizing the variables before fitting the model. It is the "purest" and the most accurate (Neter et al., 1989), but it is also the most computationally costly and long (especially for heavy models such as Bayesian models). This method is particularly recommended for complex models that include interactions or transformations (e.g., polynomial or spline terms). The `robust` (default to `FALSE`) argument enables a robust standardization of data, i.e., based on the median and MAD instead of the mean and SD. [See `standardize\(\)` for more details.](#)
- **posthoc**: Post-hoc standardization of the parameters, aiming at emulating the results obtained by "refit" without refitting the model. The coefficients are divided by the standard deviation (or MAD if robust) of the outcome (which becomes their expression 'unit'). Then, the coefficients related to numeric variables are additionally multiplied by the standard deviation (or MAD if robust) of the related terms, so that they correspond to changes of 1 SD of the predictor (e.g., "A change in 1 SD of x is related to a change of 0.24 of the SD of y). This does not apply to binary variables or factors, so the coefficients are still related to changes in levels. This method is not accurate and tend to give aberrant results when interactions are specified.
- **smart** (Standardization of Model's parameters with Adjustment, Reconnaissance and Transformation - *experimental*): Similar to `method = "posthoc"` in that it does not involve model refitting. The difference is that the SD (or MAD if robust) of the response is computed on the relevant section of the data. For instance, if a factor with 3 levels A (the intercept), B and C is entered as a predictor, the effect corresponding to B vs. A will be scaled by the variance of the response at the intercept only. As a results, the coefficients for effects of factors are similar to a Glass' delta.
- **basic**: This method is similar to `method = "posthoc"`, but treats all variables as continuous: it also scales the coefficient by the standard deviation of model's matrix' parameter of factors levels (transformed to integers) or binary predictors. Although being inappropriate for these cases, this method is the one implemented by default in other software packages, such as `lm.beta::lm.beta()`.
- **pseudo** (*for 2-level (G)LMMs only*): In this (post-hoc) method, the response and the predictor are standardized based on the level of prediction (levels are detected with `parameters::check_heterogeneity()`): Predictors are standardized based on their SD at level of prediction (see also `parameters::demean()`); The outcome (in linear LMMs) is standardized based on a fitted random-intercept-model, where `sqrt(random-intercept-variance)` is used for level 2 predictors, and `sqrt(residual-variance)` is used for level 1 predictors (Hoffman 2015, page 342). A warning is given when a within-group variable is found to have access between-group variance.

Transformed Variables:

When the model's formula contains transformations (e.g. $y \sim \exp(X)$) `method = "refit"` might give different results compared to `method = "basic"` ("`posthoc`" and "`smart`" do not support such transformations): where "`refit`" standardizes the data prior to the transformation (e.g. equivalent to `exp(scale(X))`), the "`basic`" method standardizes the transformed data (e.g. equivalent to `scale(exp(X))`). See [standardize\(\)](#) for more details on how different transformations are dealt with.

Generalized Linear Models:

When standardizing coefficients of a generalized model (GLM, GLMM, etc), only the predictors are standardized, maintaining the interpretability of the coefficients (e.g., in a binomial model: the exponent of the standardized parameter is the OR of a change of 1 SD in the predictor, etc.)

Value

A data frame with the standardized parameters and their CIs.

Standardized parameters table.

References

- Hoffman, L. (2015). Longitudinal analysis: Modeling within-person fluctuation and change. Routledge.
- Neter, J., Wasserman, W., & Kutner, M. H. (1989). Applied linear regression models.
- Gelman, A. (2008). Scaling regression inputs by dividing by two standard deviations. *Statistics in medicine*, 27(15), 2865-2873.

See Also

[standardize_info\(\)](#)

Examples

```
library(effectsize)
data(iris)

model <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Species * Petal.Width, data = iris)
standardize_parameters(model, method = "refit")

standardize_parameters(model, method = "posthoc")
standardize_parameters(model, method = "smart")
standardize_parameters(model, method = "basic")

# Robust and 2 SD
standardize_parameters(model, robust = TRUE)
standardize_parameters(model, two_sd = TRUE)

model <- glm(am ~ cyl * mpg, data = mtcars, family = "binomial")
standardize_parameters(model, method = "refit")
```

```

standardize_parameters(model, method = "posthoc")
standardize_parameters(model, method = "basic", exponentiate = TRUE)

if (require("lme4")) {
  m <- lmer(mpg ~ cyl + am + vs + (1|cyl), mtcars)
  standardize_parameters(m, method = "pseudo", df_method = "satterthwaite")
}

if (require("rstanarm")) {
  model <- stan_glm(Sepal.Length ~ Species + Petal.Width, data = iris, refresh = 0)
  # standardize_posteriors(model, method = "refit")
  # standardize_posteriors(model, method = "posthoc")
  # standardize_posteriors(model, method = "smart")
  head(standardize_posteriors(model, method = "basic"))
}

```

t_to_d	<i>Convert test statistics (t, z, F) to effect sizes of differences (Cohen's d) or association (partial r)</i>
--------	---

Description

These functions are convenience functions to convert t, z and F test statistics to Cohen's d and **partial r**. These are useful in cases where the data required to compute these are not easily available or their computation is not straightforward (e.g., in liner mixed models, contrasts, etc.). See [Effect Size from Test Statistics vignette](#).

Usage

```

t_to_d(t, df_error, paired = FALSE, ci = 0.95, pooled, ...)

z_to_d(z, n, paired = FALSE, ci = 0.95, pooled, ...)

F_to_d(f, df, df_error, paired = FALSE, ci = 0.95, pooled, ...)

t_to_r(t, df_error, ci = 0.95, ...)

z_to_r(z, n, ci = 0.95, ...)

F_to_r(f, df, df_error, ci = 0.95, ...)

```

Arguments

t, f, z	The t, the F or the z statistics.
paired	Should the estimate account for the t-value being testing the difference between dependant means?
ci	Confidence Interval (CI) level
pooled	Deprecated. Use paired.
...	Arguments passed to or from other methods.
n	The number of observations (the sample size).
df, df_error	Degrees of freedom of numerator or of the error estimate (i.e., the residuals).

Details

These functions use the following formulae to approximate r and d :

$$r_{\text{partial}} = t / \sqrt{t^2 + df_{\text{error}}}$$

$$r_{\text{partial}} = z / \sqrt{z^2 + N}$$

$$\text{Cohen}'sd = 2 * t / \sqrt{df_{\text{error}}}$$

$$\text{Cohen}'sd_z = t / \sqrt{df_{\text{error}}}$$

$$\text{Cohen}'sd = 2 * z / \sqrt{N}$$

Confidence Intervals:

Confidence intervals are estimated using the Noncentrality parameter method; These methods searches for a the best ncp (non-central parameters) for of the noncentral F distribution for the desired tail-probabilities, and then convert these ncps to the corresponding effect sizes.

Value

A data frame with the effect size(s) between 0-1, and confidence interval(s)

References

- Friedman, H. (1982). Simplified determinations of statistical power, magnitude of effect and research sample sizes. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 42(2), 521-526. doi: [10.1177/001316448204200214](https://doi.org/10.1177/001316448204200214)
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- Rosenthal, R. (1991). *Meta-analytic procedures for social research*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Steiger, J. H. (2004). Beyond the F test: Effect size confidence intervals and tests of close fit in the analysis of variance and contrast analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 9, 164-182.
- Cumming, G., & Finch, S. (2001). A primer on the understanding, use, and calculation of confidence intervals that are based on central and noncentral distributions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 61(4), 532-574.

Examples

```
## t Tests
res <- t.test(1:10, y = c(7:20), var.equal = TRUE)
t_to_d(t = res$statistic, res$parameter)
t_to_r(t = res$statistic, res$parameter)

res <- with(sleep, t.test(extra[group == 1], extra[group == 2], paired = TRUE))
t_to_d(t = res$statistic, res$parameter, paired = TRUE)
t_to_r(t = res$statistic, res$parameter)

## Linear Regression
model <- lm(Sepal.Length ~ Sepal.Width + Petal.Length, data = iris)
library(parameters)
(param_tab <- parameters(model))

(rs <- t_to_r(param_tab$t[2:3], param_tab$df_error[2:3]))

if(require(see)) plot(rs)

# How does this compare to actual partial correlations?
if (require("correlation")) {
  correlation::correlation(iris[,1:3], partial = TRUE)[1:2, c(2,3,7,8)]
}

## Use with emmeans based contrasts (see also t_to_eta2)
if (require(emmeans)) {
  warp.lm <- lm(breaks ~ wool * tension, data = warpbreaks)

  conts <- summary(pairs(emmeans(warp.lm, ~ tension | wool)))
  t_to_d(conts$t.ratio, conts$df)
}
```

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