

1. Motivation.

Likert items are used to measure respondents attitudes to a particular question or statement. One must recall that Likert-type data is ordinal data, i.e. we can only say that one score is higher than another, not the *distance* between the points.

Now lets imagine we are interested in analysing responses to some ascertainment made, answered on a Liket scale as below;

- 1 = *Strongly disagree*
- 2 = *Disagree*
- 3 = *Neutral*
- 4 = *Agree*
- 5 = *Strongly agree*

2. Inference techniques.

Due to the ordinal nature of the data we cannot use parametric techniques to analyse Likert type data; Analysis of variance techniques include;

- Mann Whitney test.
- Kruskal Wallis test.

Regression techniques include;

- Ordered logistic regression or;
- Multinomial logistic regression.
- Alternatively collapse the levels of the Dependent variable into two levels and run binary logistic regression.

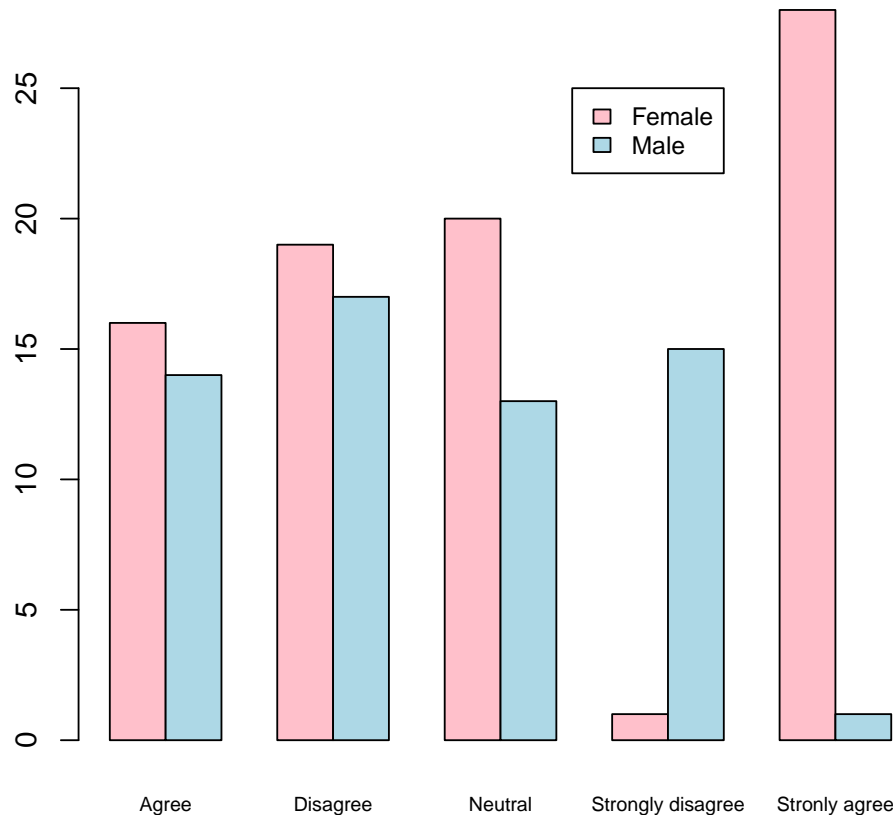
2.1. Data. Our data consists of respondents **answer** to the question of interest, their **sex** (*Male, Female*), highest post-school **degree** achieved (*Bacheors, Masters, PhD, Other, None*), and a standardised **income** related variable. The **score** column contain the numerical equivalent scores to the respondents answers, and the **nominal** column relates to a binning of respontants answers (*where Neutral = 1, Strongly disagree or Disagree = 0, and Strongly agree or Agree = 2*). The first 6 respondents data are shown below;

```
> head(dat)
```

	Answer	sex	degree	income	score	nominal
1	Neutral	F	PhD	-0.1459603	3	1
2	Disagree	F	Masters	0.8308092	2	1
3	Agree	F	Bachelors	0.7433269	1	0
4	Stronly agree	F	Masters	1.2890023	5	2
5	Neutral	F	PhD	-0.5763977	3	1
6	Disagree	F	Bachelors	-0.8089441	2	1

2.2. Do Males and Females answer differently? Imagine we were interested in statistically testing if there were a significant difference between the answering tendancies of Males and Females. Unofficially we may conclude from the barplot below that Males seem to have a higher tendency to *Strongly Disagree* with the ascertainment made, Females seem to have a higher tendency to *Strongly Agree* with the ascertainment made. Using a **Mann-Whitney** (*as we only have two groups M and F*) we can “officially” test for a difference in scoring tendency.

```
> barplot(table(dat$sex,dat$Answer),beside=T,
+         cex.names=0.7,legend.text=c("Female","Male"),
+         args.legend=list(x=12,y=25,cex=0.8),
+         col=c("pink","light blue"))
```



2.2.1. *Mann-Whitney test.* To “officially” test for a difference in scoring tendencies between Males and Females we use a **Mann-Whitney** (*This is the same as a two-sample wilcoxon test*).

```
> wilcox.test(score~sex,data=dat)
Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction
```

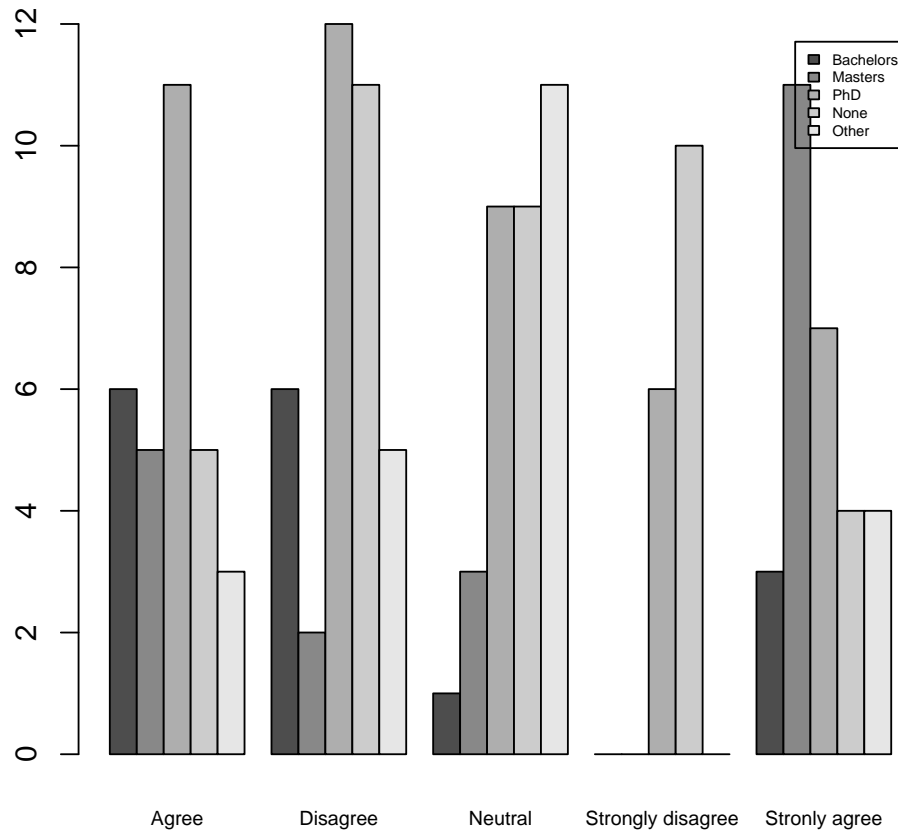
```
data: score by sex
W = 3007, p-value = 0.04353
alternative hypothesis: true location shift is not equal to 0
```

From the Mann-Whitney test we get a p-value of 0.04353, hence we can reject the null hypothesis *That Males and Females have the same scoring tendency* at the 5% level. This is also evident from the bar chart which indicates far more Females answer with *Strongly Agree*, and far more Males answer with *Strongly Disagree*.

2.3. **Do scoring tendencies differ by degree level?** If we were interested in statistically testing if there were a significant difference between the scoring tendencies of people with different post-school degree achievements. Unofficially we may conclude from the barplot that there is seemingly no difference in the scoring tendencies of people having achieved either one of the listed degrees. Using a **Kruskal-Wallis** we can “officially” test for a difference.

```
> barplot(table(dat$degree,dat$Answer),
+         beside=T,args.legend=list(cex=0.5),
+         cex.names=0.7,legend.text=c("Bachelors",
```

```
+
> "Masters", "PhD", "None", "Other"))
```



2.3.1. *Kruskal-Wallis Test*. To “officially” test for a difference in scoring tendencies of people with different post-school degree cheivements we use a **Kruskal-Wallis Test**.

```
> kruskal.test(Answer~degree,data=dat)
Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test
```

```
data: Answer by degree
Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 7.5015, df = 4, p-value = 0.1116
```

The Kruskal-Wallis test gives us a p-vale of 0.1116, hence we have no evidence to reject our null hypothesis. We are likely therefore to believe that there is no difference in scoring tendency between people with different post-school levels of education.

2.3.2. *One-Way ANOVA*. One way of treating this type of data if we there is a “normally” distributed continious independent variable is to flip the variables around. Hence, to “officially” test for a difference in means between the **income** of people scoring differently we use a **One-way ANOVA** (*as the samples are independent*).

```
> anova(lm(income~Answer,data=dat))
Analysis of Variance Table
```

```
Response: income
      Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
```

```
Answer      4      6.699 1.67468  1.8435 0.1239
Residuals 139 126.273 0.90844
```

The ANOVA gives us a p-value of 0.1239, hence we have no evidence to reject our null-hypothesis. We are therefore likely to believe that there is no difference in the average income of people who score in each of the five *Likert* categories.

2.3.3. *Chi-Square test.* The Chi-Square test can be used if we combine the data into *nominal* categories, this compares the observed numbers in each category with those expected (*i.e. equal proportions*), we assess if any observed discrepancies (*from our theory of equal proportions*) can be reasonably put down to chance.

The numbers in each *nominal* category (*as described above*) are shown below;

```
> table(dat$nominal, dat$sex)
      F  M
0 16 14
1 40 45
2 28  1

> table(dat$nominal, dat$degree)
      Bachelors Masters None Other PhD
0           6         5   11     5   3
1           7         5   27    30  16
2           3        11    7     4   4

>
```

Output from each Chi-square test is shown below. Initially we test if there is a significant difference between the expected frequencies and the observed frequencies between the specified (*nominal*) scoring categories of the sexes. The second Chi-squared test tests if there is a significant difference between the expected frequencies and the observed frequencies between the specified (*nominal*) scoring categories of people with different post-school education levels.

```
> chisq.test(table(dat$nominal, dat$sex))
      Pearson's Chi-squared test

data:  table(dat$nominal, dat$sex)
X-squared = 22.1815, df = 2, p-value = 1.525e-05

> chisq.test(table(dat$nominal, dat$degree))
      Pearson's Chi-squared test
```

```
data:  table(dat$nominal, dat$degree)
X-squared = 25.2794, df = 8, p-value = 0.001394
```

The first Chi-squared test gives us a p-value of < 0.001 , hence we have a significant result at the 1% level allowing us to reject the null hypothesis (*of equal proportions*). We would therefore believe that there are unequal proportions of Males and Females scoring in each of the three (*nominal*) categories. The second Chi-squared test gives us a p-value of < 0.002 , hence we have a significant result at the 2% level allowing us to reject the null hypothesis (*of equal proportions*). We would therefore believe that there are unequal proportions of people with different post-school education levels scoring in each of the three (*nominal*) categories.

3. The Ordinal Logistic Regression Model.

Ordinal logistic regression or (ordinal regression) is used to predict an ordinal dependent variable given one or more independent variables.

```
> library(MASS)
> mod<-polr(Answer~sex + degree + income, data=dat, Hess=T)
> summary(mod)

Call:
polr(formula = Answer ~ sex + degree + income, data = dat, Hess = T)
```

Coefficients:

	Value	Std. Error	t value
sexM	-1.1084	0.4518	-2.453
degreeMasters	1.8911	0.6666	2.837
degreeNone	1.5455	0.6398	2.415
degreeOther	1.9284	0.6511	2.962
degreePhD	1.0565	0.5883	1.796
income	-0.1626	0.1577	-1.031

Intercepts:

	Value	Std. Error	t value
Agree Disagree	-0.4930	0.4672	-1.0553
Disagree Neutral	0.7670	0.4754	1.6134
Neutral Strongly disagree	1.7947	0.4951	3.6245
Strongly disagree Stronly agree	2.4345	0.5113	4.7617

Residual Deviance: 437.2247

AIC: 457.2247

The summary output in R gives us the estimated log-odds **Coefficients** of each of the predictor variables shown in the **Coefficients** section of the output. The cut-points for the adjacent levels of the response variable shown in the **Intercepts** section of the output.

Standard interpretation of the ordered log-odds coefficient is that for a one unit increase in the predictor, the response variable level is expected to change by its respective regression coefficient in the ordered log-odds scale while the other variables in the model are held constant. In our model Female and Bachelors are included in the baseline for the model as both **sex** and **degree** are factor variables, so for a Male with a Masters degree his ordered log-odds of scoring in a higher category would increase by $-1.1084 + 1.8911 = 0.77827$ over the factors included in the baseline.

Interpreting the estimate of the coefficient for the “income” variable tells us that for one unit increase in the income variable the ordered log-odds of scoring in a higher category decreases by 0.1626 with the other factors in the model being held constant.

The cutpoints are used to differentiate the adjacent levels of the response variable, i.e. (*points on a continuous unobservable phenomena, that result in the different observed values on the levels of the dependent variable used to measure the unobservable variable*). Hence **Agree|Disagree**, is used to differentiate the other levels of the response variable when the values of the predictor variables are set to zero. Interpretation of this may be that people who had a value of -0.4930 or less on the underlying unobserved variable that gave rise to the Answer would be classified as lower scoring given that they were Female with a Bachelors (*the baseline variables*) and had all other variables set to zero.

R doesn't calculate the associated p-values for each coefficient by default, hence below is the R code to do this (*to 3 decimal places*);

```
> coeffs <- coef(summary(mod))
> p <- pnorm(abs(coeffs[, "t value"]), lower.tail = FALSE) * 2
> cbind(coeffs, "p value" = round(p,3))
```

	Value	Std. Error	t value	p value
sexM	-1.1083975	0.4518069	-2.453255	0.014
degreeMasters	1.8911478	0.6665792	2.837094	0.005
degreeNone	1.5454807	0.6398273	2.415465	0.016
degreeOther	1.9283955	0.6511113	2.961698	0.003
degreePhD	1.0564763	0.5882532	1.795955	0.073
income	-0.1626251	0.1577345	-1.031005	0.303
Agree Disagree	-0.4929701	0.4671580	-1.055253	0.291
Disagree Neutral	0.7670239	0.4753955	1.613444	0.107
Neutral Strongly disagree	1.7946651	0.4951443	3.624530	0.000
Strongly disagree Stronly agree	2.4345280	0.5112730	4.761699	0.000

Above are the test statistics and p-values, respectively for the null hypothesis that an individual predictor's regression coefficient is zero given that the rest of the predictors are in the model. We note that we can reject this null hypothesis for the predictors **degreeOther** and **degreeMasters** with associated p-values 0.005 and 0.003

respectively. Interpretation for these p-values is similar to any other regression analysis.

The Odds ratios are simply the inverse log (*i.e. the exponential*) of the estimated coefficients, code for doing this in R is shown below;

```
> exp(coef(mod))
```

sexM	degreeMasters	degreeNone	degreeOther	degreePhD
0.3300875	6.6269710	4.6902255	6.8784647	2.8762181
income				
0.8499098				

Interpreting these Odds ratios we are essentially comparing the people who are in groups greater than x versus those who are in groups less than or equal to x, where x is the level of the response variable. Hence for a one unit change in the predictor variable, the odds for cases in a group that is greater than x versus less than or equal to x are the proportional odds times larger. So for say the “income” variable a one unit increase in this variable, the odds of high “Answer” versus the combined adjacent “Answer” categories are 0.8499098 times greater, given the other variables are held constant in the model.

4. Analysing Likert scale data.

A Likert scale is composed of a series of four or more Likert-type items that represent *similar* questions combined into a single composite score/variable. Likert scale data can be analyzed as interval data, i.e. the mean is the best measure of central tendency.

4.1. **Inference.** Parametric analysis of ordinary averages of Likert scale data is justifiable by the Central Limit Theorem, analysis of variance techniques include;

- t-test.
- ANOVA.
- Linear regression procedures

4.2. **Motivation.** If we consider the situation where we had five such questions each scored on the same Likert type items (*on a numerical scale*), we would simply sum each respondents answer to create a single score. The first few rows of the data analysed can be seen below;

```
> head(dataframe)
```

	qu1	qu2	qu3	qu4	qu5	sex
1	Neutral	Stronly agree	Disagree	Neutral	Neutral	F
2	Disagree	Neutral	Stronly agree	Stronly agree	Stronly agree	F
3	Agree	Agree	Stronly agree	Agree	Disagree	F
4	Stronly agree	Stronly agree	Stronly agree	Agree	Stronly agree	F
5	Neutral	Disagree	Neutral	Disagree	Neutral	F
6	Disagree	Neutral	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	F

	degree	income	sum
1	PhD	-0.1459603	16
2	Masters	0.8308092	20
3	Bachelors	0.7433269	10
4	Masters	1.2890023	21
5	PhD	-0.5763977	13
6	Bachelors	-0.8089441	11

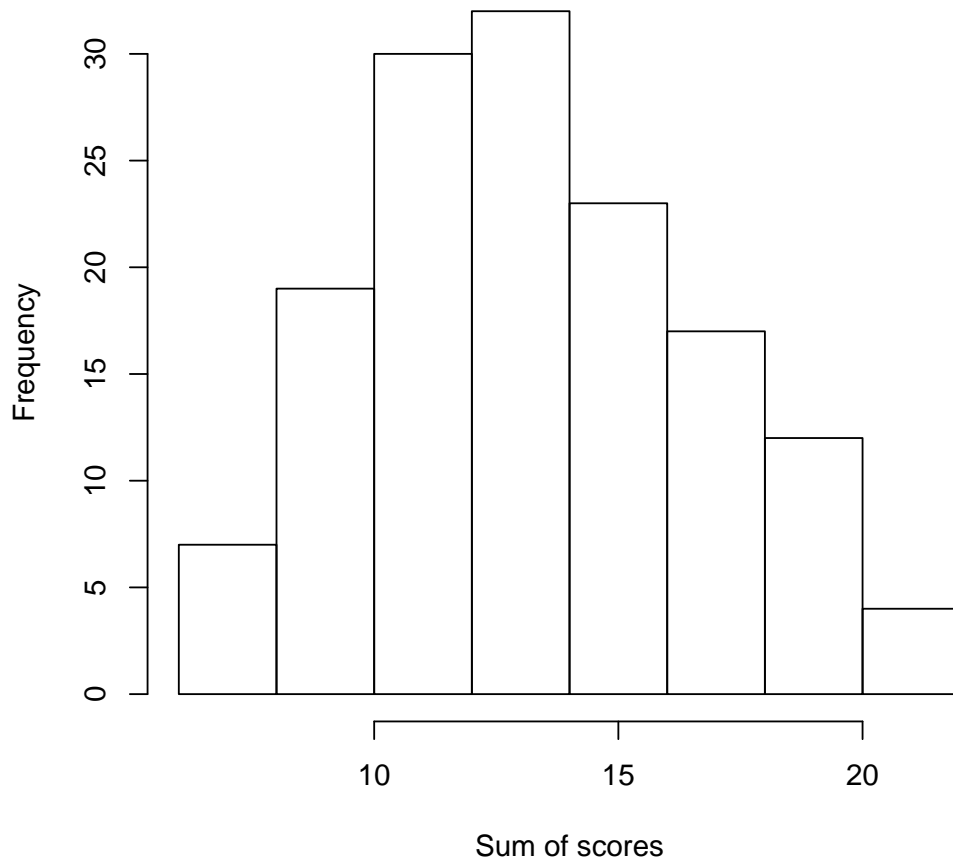
```
>
```

Where **qu1, qu2,qu3,qu4, and qu5** are the columns containing the respondents answers to the 5 questions, **sex, degree** and **income** are the same as above. The **sum** column contains the sums of each respondents answers to questions 1 to 5.

4.3. Parametric Inference.

4.3.1. *Normality.*

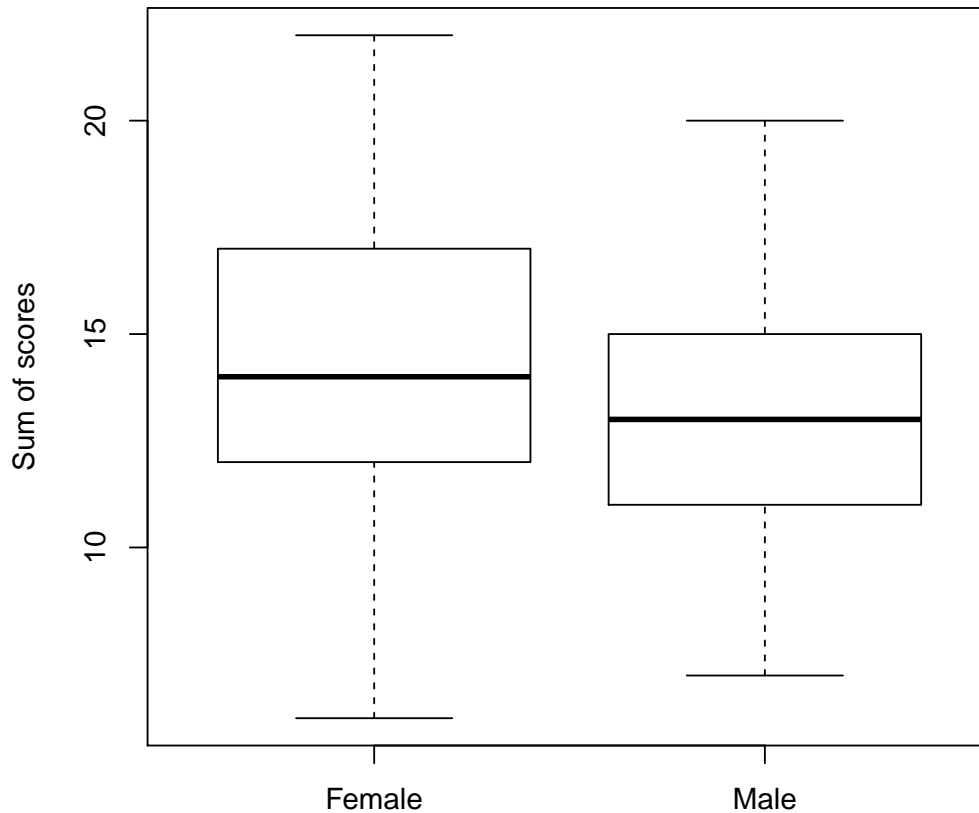
```
> hist(dataframe$sum,xlab="Sum of scores",main="")
```



From the histogram above we can “unofficially” conclude that our data is relatively Normal, hence we are somewhat justified in using parametric statistical methodology.

4.3.2. *T-Test.* We can use a two-sample **T-test** to assess if there is a difference in the average scores of Males and Females.

```
> boxplot(sum~sex,data=dataframe,names=c("Female","Male"),
+         ylab="Sum of scores")
```



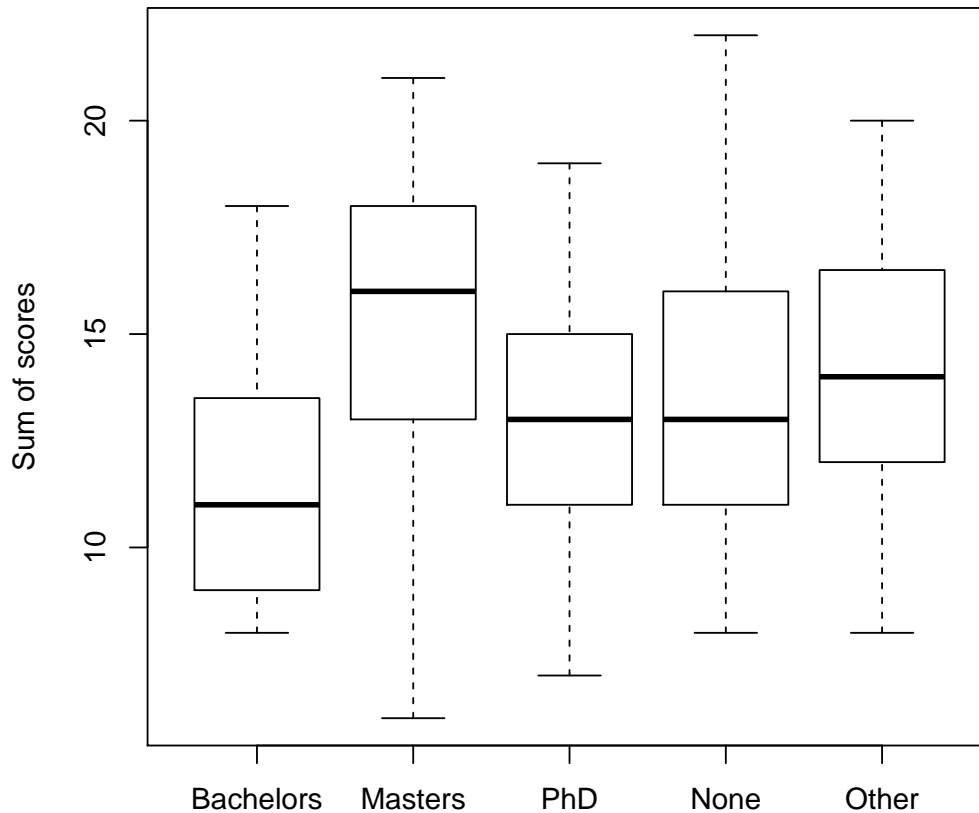
```
> t.test(sum~sex,data=dataframe)
Welch Two Sample t-test
```

```
data: sum by sex
t = 1.9879, df = 136.6, p-value = 0.04882
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 0.005887951 2.246493001
sample estimates:
mean in group F mean in group M
    14.22619      13.10000
```

The t-test gives us a p-value of 0.04882 which is significant at the 5% level, hence we have evidence to reject the null hypothesis. We are therefore likely to believe that the average scores of Males and Females are unequal, from the boxplot and the mean estimates given in the R output we can conclude that on average Males score lower than Females.

4.3.3. *Two-way ANOVA*.. The **Two-way ANOVA** is used to simultaneously assess if there is a difference between the average scores of people of different sex, post-school education level and income score.

```
> boxplot(sum~degree,data=dataframe,
+         names=c("Bachelors","Masters","PhD","None","Other"),
+         ylab="Sum of scores")
>
```

```
> anova(lm(sum~sex+degree+income,data=dataframe))
```

Analysis of Variance Table

Response: sum

	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
sex	1	44.39	44.391	3.9817	0.04798 *
degree	4	138.09	34.522	3.0965	0.01778 *
income	1	6.64	6.645	0.5960	0.44142
Residuals	137	1527.37	11.149		

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

The two-way ANOVA output indicates a significant difference of average scores between sexes (*a p-value of 0.04798*) and people with different post-school level of education (*a p-value of 0.01778*), but no significant difference relating to average “income” (*accounting for the inclusion of the other variables in the model*). From the boxplot we may unofficially conclude that the significant difference in post-school education arises from the scoring of Masters graduates, however further post-hoc analysis would be required to “officially” conclude where the differences lie. The t-test carried out above allows us to see where the significance difference between sexes arises from.