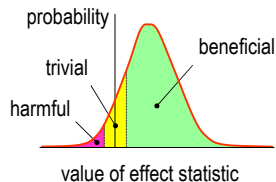


Making Inferences: Clinical vs Statistical Significance

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- Hypothesis testing, p values, statistical significance
- Confidence limits
- Chances of benefit/harm



- This slideshow is an updated version of the slideshow in:
 - Batterham AM, Hopkins WG (2005). Making meaningful inferences about magnitudes. *Sports Science* 9, 6-13. See link at sportssci.org.
- Other resources:
 - Hopkins WG (2007). A spreadsheet for deriving a confidence interval, mechanistic inference and clinical inference from a p value. *Sports Science* 11, 16-20. See sportssci.org.
 - Hopkins WG, Marshall SW, Batterham AM, Hanin J (2009). Progressive statistics for studies in sports medicine and exercise science. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise* 41, 3-12. (Also available at sportssci.org: *Sports Science* 13, 55-70, 2009.)

Background

- A major aim of research is to make an **inference** about an **effect** in a **population** based on study of a **sample**.
- **Null-hypothesis testing** via the P value and **statistical significance** is the traditional but **flawed** approach to making an inference.
- **Precision of estimation** via **confidence limits** is an improvement.
- But what's missing is some way to make inferences about the **clinical, practical or mechanistic significance** of an effect.
- I will explain how to do it via confidence limits using values for the **smallest beneficial and harmful effect**.
- I will also explain how to do it by **calculating and interpreting chances** that an effect is **beneficial, trivial, and harmful**.

Hypothesis Testing, P Values and Statistical Significance

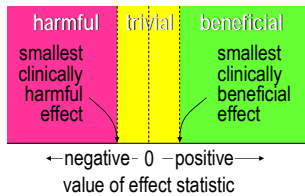
- Based on the notion that we can **disprove**, but not prove, things.
- Therefore, we need a thing to disprove.
- Let's try the **null hypothesis**: the population or true effect is zero.
- If the value of the **observed** effect is **unlikely** under this assumption, we **reject** (disprove) the null hypothesis.
- **Unlikely** is related to (but not equal to) the **P value**.
- **$P < 0.05$** is regarded as unlikely enough to reject the null hypothesis (that is, to conclude the effect is not zero or null).
 - We say *the effect is statistically significant at the 0.05 or 5% level*.
 - Some folks also say *there is a real effect*.
- **$P > 0.05$** means there is not enough evidence to reject the null.
 - We say *the effect is statistically non-significant*.
 - Some folks also accept the null and say *there is no effect*.

- **Problems** with this philosophy...
 - We can disprove things only in pure mathematics, not in real life.
 - Failure to reject the null doesn't mean we have to accept the null.
 - In any case, true effects are always "real", never zero. So...
 - The null hypothesis is always false!
 - Therefore, to assume that effects are zero until disproved is illogical and sometimes impractical or unethical.
 - 0.05 is arbitrary.
 - The P value is not a probability of anything in reality.
 - Some useful effects aren't statistically significant.
 - Some statistically significant effects aren't useful.
 - *Non-significant* is usually misinterpreted as *unpublishable*.
 - So good data don't get published.
- Solution: **clinical significance** or **magnitude-based inferences** via confidence limits and chances of benefit and harm.
 - Statistical significance = null-based inferences.

Clinical Significance via Confidence Limits

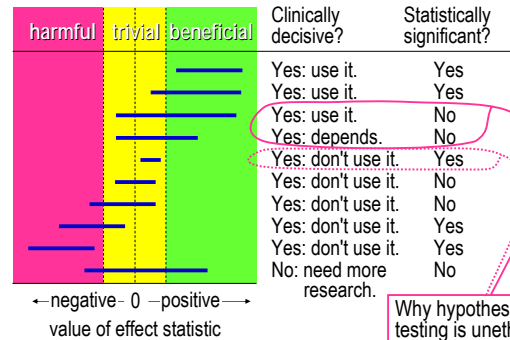
- Start with confidence limits, which define a **range** within which we infer the **true, population or large-sample value** is likely to fall.
 - **Likely** is usually a probability of 0.95 (for 95% limits).
 - Representation of the limits as a confidence interval:
- **Caution**: the confidence interval is not a range of responses!

- For **clinical significance**, we interpret confidence limits in relation to the **smallest clinically beneficial and harmful effects**.
- These are usually equal and opposite in sign.
 - Harm is the opposite of benefit, not side effects.
- They define regions of beneficial, trivial, and harmful values:



- The next slide is the key to clinical or practical significance.
 - All you need is these two things: the confidence interval and a sense of what is important (e.g., beneficial and harmful).

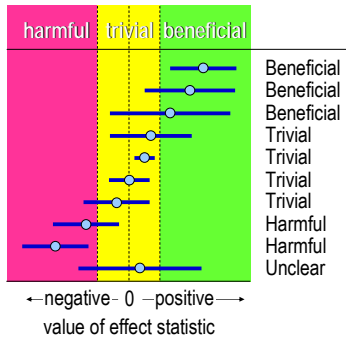
- Put the confidence interval and these regions together to make a decision about clinically significant, **clear** or **decisive** effects.



• UNDERSTAND THIS SLIDE!

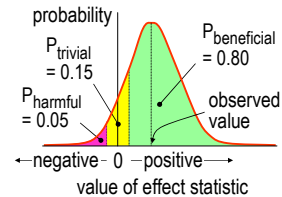
Why hypothesis testing is unethical and impractical!

- Making a **crude** call on magnitude.
 - Declare the observed magnitude of clinically clear effects.

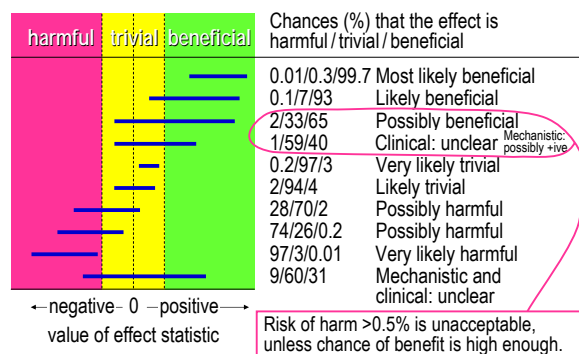


Clinical Significance via Clinical Chances

- We calculate probabilities that the true effect could be **clinically beneficial, trivial, or harmful** ($P_{\text{beneficial}}$, P_{trivial} , P_{harmful}).
- These Ps are NOT the proportions of positive, non- and negative responders in the population.
- Calculating the Ps is easy.
 - Put the observed value, smallest beneficial/harmful value, and P value into a spreadsheet at newstats.org.
- The Ps allow a more detailed call on magnitude, as follows...



- Making a more **detailed** call on magnitudes using chances of benefit and harm.



- Use this table for the plain-language version of chances:

Probability	Chances	Odds	The effect... beneficial/trivial/harmful
<0.005	<0.5%	<1:199	is almost certainly not...
0.005–0.05	0.5–5%	1:999–1:19	is very unlikely to be...
0.05–0.25	5–25%	1:19–1:3	is unlikely to be..., is probably not...
0.25–0.75	25–75%	1:3–3:1	is possibly (not)..., may (not) be...
0.75–0.95	75–95%	3:1–19:1	is likely to be..., is probably...
0.95–0.995	95–99.5%	19:1–199:1	is very likely to be...
>0.995	>99.5%	>199:1	is almost certainly...

- An effect should be almost certainly not harmful (<0.5%) and at least possibly beneficial (>25%) before you decide to use it.
 - But you can tolerate higher chances of harm if chances of benefit are much higher: e.g., 3% harm and 76% benefit = clearly useful.
 - I use an odds ratio of benefit/harm of >66 in such situations.

- Two examples of use of the spreadsheet for clinical chances:

P value	value of statistic	Conf. level (%)	deg. of freedom	Confidence limits		threshold values for clinical chances	
				lower	upper	positive	negative
0.03	1.5	90	18	0.4	2.6	1	-1
0.20	2.4	90	18	-0.7	5.5	1	-1

Both these effects are clinically decisive, clear, or significant.

Chances (% or odds) that the true value of the statistic is					
clinically positive		clinically trivial		clinically negative	
prob (%)	odds	prob (%)	odds	prob (%)	odds
78	3:1	22	1:3	0	1:2071
likely, probable		unlikely, probably not		almost certainly not	
78	3:1	19	1:4	3	1:30
likely, probable		unlikely, probably not		very unlikely	

- How to Publish Clinical Chances

Example of a table from a randomized controlled trial:

TABLE 1—Differences in improvements in kayaking sprint speed between slow, explosive and control training groups.

Compared groups	Mean improvement (%) and 90% confidence limits	Qualitative outcome ^a
Slow - control	3.1; ±1.6	Almost certainly beneficial
Explosive - control	2.6; ±1.2	Very likely beneficial
Slow - explosive	0.5; ±1.4	Unclear

^a with reference to a smallest worthwhile change of 0.5%.

- Problem:** what's the smallest clinically important effect?
 - If you can't answer this question, quit the field.
 - This problem applies also with hypothesis testing, because it determines sample size you need to test the null properly.
- Example: in many solo sports, ~0.5% change in power output changes substantially a top athlete's chances of winning.
- The default for most other populations and effects is **Cohen's** set of smallest values.
 - These values apply to clinical, practical and/or mechanistic importance...
 - Standardized changes or differences in the mean: 0.20 of the between-subject standard deviation.
 - In a controlled trial, it's the SD of all subjects in the pre-test, not the SD of the change scores.
 - Correlations: 0.10.
 - Injury or health risk, odds or hazard ratios: 1.1-1.3.

- Problem:** these new approaches are not yet mainstream.
 - Confidence limits at least are coming in, so look for and interpret the importance of the lower and upper limits.
 - You can use a spreadsheet to convert a published P value into a more meaningful magnitude-based inference.
 - If the authors state "P<0.05" you can't do it properly.
 - If they state "P>0.05" or "NS", you can't do it at all.
- Problem:** these approaches, and hypothesis testing, deal with uncertainty about an effect in a population.
 - But effects like risk of injury or changes in physiology or performance can apply to individuals.
 - Alas, more information and analyses are needed to make inferences about effects on individuals.
 - Researchers almost always ignore this issue, because...
 - they don't know how to deal with it, and/or...
 - they don't have enough data to deal with it properly.

Summary

- Show the **observed magnitude** of the effect.
- Attend to **precision of estimation** by showing **90% confidence limits** of the true value.
- Do NOT show P values**, do NOT test a hypothesis and do NOT mention statistical significance.
- Attend to **clinical, practical or mechanistic significance** by...
 - stating, with justification, the smallest worthwhile effect, then...
 - interpreting the confidence limits in relation to this effect, or...
 - estimating probabilities that the true effect is beneficial, trivial, and/or harmful (or substantially positive, trivial, and/or negative).
- Make a **qualitative statement** about the clinical or practical significance of the effect, using *unlikely, very likely*, and so on.
 - Remember, it applies to populations, not individuals.

For related articles and resources:

SPORTSCIENCE sportsci.org
A Peer-Reviewed Site for Sport Research

A New View of Statistics newstats.org
SUMMARIZING DATA GENERALIZING TO A POPULATION
Simple & Effect Precision of Confidence Statistical
Statistics Measurement Limits Models
Dimension Sample-Size
Reduction Estimation