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1. Abstract

34 The first sport science-oriented and comprehensive paper on magnitude-based inferences (MBI)
35 was published 10 years ago in the first issue of this journal. While debate continues, MBI is today well-
36 established in sports science and in other fields, particularly clinical medicine where practical/clinical
37 significance often takes priority over statistical significance. In this commentary, some reasons why
38 both academics and sport scientists should abandon null hypothesis significance testing (NHST) and
39 embrace MBI are reviewed. Apparent limitations and future areas of research are also discussed. The
40 following arguments are presented: P values and in turn, study conclusions, are sample-size dependent,
41 irrespective of the size of the effect; significance doesn't inform on magnitude of effects, yet magnitude
42 is what matters the most; MBI allows authors to be honest with their sample size and better acknowledge
43 trivial effects; the examination of magnitudes *per se* helps provide better research questions; MBI can
44 be applied to assess changes in individuals; MBI improves data visualisation; and lastly, MBI is
45 supported by spreadsheets freely available on the internet. Finally, recommendations to define the
46 smallest important effect and improve the presentation of standardized effects are presented.

47 **Keywords:** magnitude-based inferences; null hypothesis significance testing; sample size; trivial
48 effect; smallest important effect.

49

2. Introduction

50 I discovered magnitude-based inferences (MBI) in 2008 while reading Impellizzeri et al.'s
51 repeated-sprint testing paper in professional soccer.¹ I found the first figure of their paper to be simply
52 fascinating. First, changes in repeated-sprint performance were compared in reference to a typical
53 threshold representative of a smallest important or meaningful change (later to be termed the smallest
54 worthwhile change, SWC²). Second, instead of a classical 'yes or no' type response, the authors reported
55 both quantitatively and qualitatively the probabilities for these changes to be 'real' (Figure 1). Never
56 had I previously read of anything more meaningful to that day. The message displayed within that figure
57 spoke to both sport scientists and practitioners alike. In France, as in most other countries at that time,
58 statistical lectures exclusively sang the praises of null hypothesis significance testing (NHST). The
59 understanding of these statistics took long hours of self-driven and motivated learning. However, this
60 new statistical approach, driven largely by Will G. Hopkins's efforts, has changed my life, both as an
61 academic and practitioner in elite sport.³

62 Perhaps analogous to spirituality and religion, where individuals follow their own God, editors
63 and reviewers of most journals (even those with high impact factors⁴) can find it difficult to think outside
64 their bubble, believing only what they were taught in graduate school. Since authors driven by their H-
65 index know that providing everything other than a P value increase dramatically their chances of seeing
66 their paper rejected,³ they simply stick to NHST to facilitate reviews and expedite publication.
67 Fortunately, things have progressively moved on in some sports science journals.^{5,6} While some may
68 view such occurrences as a coincidence, the first sport science-oriented and comprehensive paper on
69 MBI was published 10 years ago in the first issue of our journal,⁷ and remains one of the most cited
70 papers on the topic, together with the 2009 update in another journal.⁸ Somewhat unexpectedly last year,
71 some authors claimed that MBI had questionable theoretical foundations and suffered from apparently
72 high rates of type I errors (i.e., false positives), which lead them to advise researchers against using
73 MBI.⁹ In March this year, Hopkins and Batterham¹⁰ provided evidence to dismiss the critiques and to
74 reassure researchers and practitioners that MBI is in reality superior to NHST. While the debate will
75 likely continue, MBI is today a well-established analytical approach in sports science and in other fields,
76 particularly clinical medicine where practical/clinical significance often takes priority over statistical
77 significance.

78 While the present work is only an invited commentary, and should not be considered as journal
79 policy, I personally wish that MBI is influential with other scientists, as it has been to me. I take this
80 opportunity to put forth the following recommendations, limitations and future areas of research, to
81 assist researchers and practitioners to make better decisions with our numbers.

82 **Reasons why academics should abandon NHST and embrace MBI (using the probable effect** 83 **of a new nutritional supplement on performance as an example).**

- 84 1. **P values and in turn, study conclusions, are sample-size dependent (the greater the n, the**
85 **lower the P), irrespective of the size of the effect.** While it can be concluded that the nutritional
86 supplement is ineffective with a sample of 12 athletes ($P > 0.05$), the same comparison may turn
87 useful with $n = 14$ ($P < 0.05$). In other words, the drop-out of a few athletes, or the lucky
88 involvement of 2 more subjects can induce a 180 degree change in a study conclusion.¹¹ This
89 sample size issue explains also a large portion of the publication bias in research,¹² where only
90 significant results tend to be submitted (among the studies with small sample size only those
91 showing large effects –more likely significant ($P < 0.05$)– are submitted and published).¹⁰
- 92 2. **Significance doesn't inform on magnitude of effects, yet magnitude is what matters the**
93 **most.**¹³ With a large enough sample size, even very small, trivial or non-practical effects can
94 turn significant ($P < 0.05$). In practice, with 200 athletes showing a 0.01% improvement in
95 performance, NHST would suggest that the nutritional supplement works, while the effects may
96 in fact be negligible. In my experience, coaches and athletes (and probably most of our readers

97 too) are first interested in knowing what kind of performance benefits may be expected from
98 the supplement (i.e., how much, the actual magnitude), and how likely this magnitude is of
99 practical importance (i.e., likelihood of the effect to be greater than the SWC).

- 100 3. **MBI allows authors to be honest with their sample size and better acknowledge trivial**
101 **effects.** While a $P > 0.05$ is often interpreted as a lack of an effect/difference, it is actually
102 impossible to be confident that this is the right interpretation of the data analysis (sample size
103 issue, Type II error resulting from low statistical power). The beauty of MBI is that it allows
104 deciphering between clear (confidence limits within the SWC) and unclear (CL overlapping the
105 SWC) trivial effects (Figure 1). This can't be touched by NHST. An unclear effect/difference is
106 not to be interpreted as a lack of an effect, but suggests the need to increase sample size to
107 improve precision.
- 108 4. **The examination of magnitudes *per se* helps provide better research questions.** Considering
109 that the size of an effect matters more than a simple yes or no answer (NHST), typical
110 hypotheses that do not have clear foundations (e.g., "We hypothesized that the new supplement
111 would be beneficial for performance") can be replaced by a simpler and more relevant
112 statement: "Our aim was to quantify the performance benefit of that supplement, if any".
- 113 5. **MBI is supported by spreadsheets freely available on the internet (e.g.,¹⁴)**

114 115 **Reasons why magnitude-based inferences are the essential statistical tool for practitioners in the** 116 **field**

- 117 1. **MBI can be applied to assess changes in individuals.** In essence, conventional statistics allow
118 analysis of population-based responses, which are impractical for monitoring performance
119 changes in individuals (Figure 2). While individual score changes can be assessed in various
120 ways (e.g., Z-scores,¹⁵ standard difference score¹⁶), MBI additionally allow us to assess the
121 likelihood of these changes to be true for any given athlete, once the typical error of the test of
122 interest and the SWC are known.^{17, 18}
- 123 2. **MBI improves data visualisation.** MBI principles should be applied to graphical reports
124 produced by sport scientists, where shaded trivial areas and confidence limits (or typical errors
125 for individual data) are presented systematically to acknowledge the fact that not all changes
126 are worthwhile and that some uncertainty always remains (Figures 1, 2 and 3).

127
128 **An apparent limitation of MBI** is that, in contrast to NHST, researchers have to define *a priori*
129 both the magnitude of the smallest important effect and the thresholds used to qualify likelihoods (e.g.,
130 *very likely*).¹⁹ My view is that instead of being a limitation, this forces researchers to adopt a conscious
131 process when analysing their data. "NHST is easy, but misleading. MBI is hard but honest" (W.G.
132 Hopkins, personal communication). The importance of an appropriate SWC definition is often
133 overlooked^{20, 21} and may directly impact decisions: while a larger SWC may lead to more conservative
134 decisions, a smaller SWC increases the chance of effects/differences being substantial. In fact, the most
135 appropriate SWC is variable-dependent and based on either theoretical or practical considerations.
136 While for individual athlete performance, a third of the performance coefficient of variation (CV) is
137 generally suggested, and a fifth of the between-athlete SD is often used for performance variables in
138 team sports.¹⁷ A limitation however of using the SD for standardization is that the SWC may be affected
139 by group homogeneity; for that reason, performance clues may be sometimes used instead, e.g., based
140 on empirical observations of direct performance benefits, such as a distance of 20–50 cm that one soccer
141 player needs to be ahead of the opponent to win a ball, corresponding to a 1% improvement in 20-m
142 sprint time.²² For physiological data with no direct link to performance (e.g., heart rate variability), using
143 multiples of the within-athlete SD is a relevant option. In contrast, when an association with performance
144 can be established for a physiological variable (i.e., submaximal HR), the actual change in this variable

145 that relates to the smallest important change in performance is often preferred.²³ There are some
146 variables however for which the most appropriate SWC remains to be determined. For match running
147 performance data in team sports for example, which are neither related to actual physical capacities nor
148 match outcomes,²⁴ using the between-athlete SD is questionable, but using within-athlete variation is
149 not easy either. In fact, the magnitude of within-athlete variations may depend on both tracking variables
150 and intensity zones.²⁵

151 **How standardized changes/differences are presented is crucial for a better understanding of**
152 **magnitudes.** While percentages are commonly used to report changes/differences both in research and
153 field practice, there are no clear thresholds to interpret their magnitudes, and they often bias the
154 comparison of variables that differ in units²⁶ (e.g., in terms of athlete trainability, while a 3% increase
155 in sprinting speed may be considered remarkable,²² the same improvement in maximal oxygen uptake
156 may be relatively negligible). For these reasons, using Cohen's effect size principle (d) is generally the
157 first step toward standardization (Figure 3).²⁷ However, if we consider that the actual method of SWC
158 determination may be variable-dependent (Cohen's d vs. within-athletes CV vs. performance clues), the
159 same approach could be applied to standardize the changes in different variables. The thresholds for
160 small, moderate, large and very large standardized changes (Cohen's d) being 0.2, 0.6, 1.2 and 2,
161 respectively, means that any change of 1x, 3x, 6x and 10x SWC can be considered as small, moderate,
162 large and very large, respectively (Figure 3). Reporting effects/changes as multiples of the SWC²⁸ is
163 relevant for at least two reasons: i) in manuscripts, the changes in all variables can be easily aggregated
164 into a single figure with a single shaded trivial area (Figure 3) and ii) for coaches and athletes, the
165 message cannot be simpler than: "the effect is *x* times greater than what generally matters to you guys".

166

167 **3. Conclusion.**

168 The introduction of MBI into sports science nearly 15 ago represents one of the most important
169 analytical progressions in our field. While there are still areas that need to be developed, there is no
170 doubt that we should all be leaning toward a more mature and conscious process of analysing and
171 presenting our data.¹⁹ "The numbers are where the discussion should start, not end."²⁹

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177 holding my hand in 2009 when we took the risky decision (at that time) not to ever report a P value
178 anymore in any of our manuscripts.

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248 **Figures Legends**

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250 **Figure 1.** Example of possible decisions when interpreting changes using magnitude-based inferences.
251 Note the clear vs. unclear cases (based on confidence limits, in relation to the shaded trivial area),
252 which i) is one of the extreme beauty of magnitude-based inferences and ii) provide no insight through
253 null hypothesis significance testing. Note also how, for clear effects, the likelihood of changes
254 increases as the confidence limits shrink.

255 **Figure 2.** Individual changes in submaximal heart rate in a professional soccer player when running at
256 12 km/h throughout 1.5 competitive seasons (% of maximal heart rate). The shaded area represents
257 trivial changes (1%).²³ The error bars represent the typical error of measurement (3%).²³ The numbers
258 of * indicate the likelihood for the changes to be substantial, with 1 symbols referring to possible
259 changes, 2 to likely, 3 to very likely and 4 to almost certain changes.

260 **Figure 3.** Differences in various anthropometric, physiological and performance measures between
261 two groups of young soccer players differing by their maturity status (0.9 ± 0.3 vs. -0.2 ± 0.4 years
262 from predicted peak height velocity)³⁰ when expressed in percentages (A), using Cohen's effect size
263 principle (B) and as a factor of variable-specific smallest worthwhile differences (SWD) (C):²⁸ $0.2 \times$
264 between-athletes SD for height, MAS and matches tracking data; performance-related changes for
265 HRR and MSS (7²³ and 2²²%, respectively). The numbers of * indicate the likelihood for the between-
266 group differences to be substantial, with 1 symbols referring to possible difference, 2 to likely, 3 to
267 very likely and 4 to almost certain differences. Note that that magnitude of the between-group
268 differences and their likelihood varies between the panels. My suggestion is to use the method used in
269 panel C (with a variable-specific SWD). MSS: maximal sprinting speed, MAS: maximal aerobic
270 speed, HRR: heart rate recovery after submaximal exercise, D>16 km/h: distance ran above 16 km/h
271 during matches, #HIR: number of high intensity runs during matches.

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