

2 **An opinion regarding equivalence testing for**  
3 **evaluating measurement agreement**

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7 **ABSTRACT**

The novel statistical approach 'equivalence testing' has been proposed in order to statistically examine agreement between different physical activity measures. By using this method, researchers argued that it is possible to determine whether a method is significantly equivalent to another method. Recently, equivalence testing was supported with the use of 90% confidence interval, obtained from a mixed ANOVA, which I believe is a more robust approach. This paper further discusses the use of this method in comparison to a more well-established statistical analysis (i.e. mixed design ANOVA), as well as various limitations and arbitrary assumptions in order to perform this analysis. The paper concludes with some remarks and considerations for future use in similar approaches.

8  
9 *Keywords:* Mixed design ANOVA; p-value; confidence interval; methods' comparison

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14 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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16 **Equivalence tests have gained some attention during the past two decades, mainly starting**  
17 **with applications in the pharmaceutical industry and biology.** I recently came across the  
18 paper of Dixon and colleagues (2018) regarding the novel statistical approach 'equivalence  
19 testing' in order to statistically examine agreement between different physical activity (PA)  
20 measures and to evaluate the validity of a new method. The researchers suggest that the

21 use of standard statistical tests of mean differences (e.g. ANOVA, t-test) is employed in  
22 similar research approaches, which generally focus in significant differences, rather than  
23 equivalences. I have to mention that this test is proposed only for group-level measurement  
24 agreement, because for individual-level agreement other tests are widely accepted as more  
25 adequate and valid (i.e. Bland-Altman plots, Mean Absolute Percentage Error and Root  
26 Mean Square Error of Approximation).

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## 28 **2. RATIONALE**

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30 Initially this statistical technique was introduced by Lee, Kim and Welk's [1] study, with the  
31 exception that there were not mentioned any p-values. They stated that 'in traditional  
32 hypothesis testing, the focus is on testing for a significant difference', however by 'using an  
33 equivalence test, it is possible to determine whether a method is significantly equivalent to  
34 another method' [1, p. 1843]. Since then, a number of studies have used this method in  
35 order to evaluate the agreement between methods in sport science [2-4].

36 In that initial approach [1], as well as some of following studies [4], equivalence was  
37 supported with the use of 90% confidence interval (CI), obtained from a mixed ANOVA. I  
38 believe that was a more robust approach, taking into consideration the misuse of p-values in  
39 order to support statistical hypotheses [5]. In fact, the American Statistical Association  
40 released specific guidelines on the use of p-values stating, among else, that p-values do not  
41 measure the probability that the studied hypothesis is true, do not measure the size of an  
42 effect or the importance of a result and not provide a good measure of evidence regarding a  
43 model or hypothesis. For this reason, the use of methods that emphasize estimation over  
44 testing was suggested, such as confidence, credibility, or prediction intervals and Bayesian  
45 methods [6]. In order to better understand the context and significance of this statement,  
46 Yaddanapudi's [7] editorial paper explains its salient features. To make it more concrete, the  
47 point in the American Statistical Association statement is not that p-values give the wrong  
48 answer; the point is that p-values usually commit what is called 'errors of the third kind:  
49 solving the wrong problem' and cannot be a good guide for probability testing [8].

50 The basic assumption made in order to justify equivalence testing was that standard  
51 statistical tests of mean differences are designed to detect differences, not equivalence and  
52 failure to reject the null hypothesis of no difference does not necessarily provide evidence of  
53 equivalence [9]. I am not convinced that this statement is correct. It is widely accepted that  
54 hypothesis testing is an important activity of empirical research. The initial null hypothesis  
55 ( $H_0$ ) assumes that population means are equivalent and only if there is strong evidence to

56 the contrary (alternative hypothesis;  $H_A$ ), it can be assumed that there are differences among  
57 group means [10].

58 Furthermore, multivariate inferential procedures (i.e. repeated measures ANOVA) include  
59 hypothesis tests that allow several variables to be studied by preserving the significance  
60 level without inflating type I error rate [11]. The sample size is an issue, however with the  
61 correct use of appropriate tests, such as Pillai's trace, small or unequal sample sizes are not  
62 considered problematic, because the greatest protection against type I errors is offered [12].  
63 Additionally, mixed-model designs are recommended in most cases because they can  
64 control for the repeated nature of the data (i.e. collection of data from PA monitors for  
65 multiple activities) [13]. This is not possible in equivalence testing, even though this  
66 approach might have limited value, because a single regression model is fitted to the  
67 average of the estimates throughout the range of all activities and not each activity  
68 separately [9].

69 Lastly, the confidence intervals for equivalence suggested by the authors (i.e. 10% and 2%)  
70 are somewhat arbitrary, an issue also highlighted by Dixon and colleagues [9]. This **might be**  
71 acceptable, since equivalence bounds in sport science are not set by regulations, as it  
72 happens for drug development (i.e., differences up to 20% are not considered to be clinically  
73 relevant). Such general regulations about what constitutes a meaningful effect seem unlikely  
74 to emerge, even though these could be extremely helpful and of increased value, especially  
75 in sport and exercise medicine. However, these intervals remain arbitrary and no  
76 statistically-based justification has been proposed in order to justify them.

77 **Choice of equivalence bounds should be given careful thought, because the selected value**  
78 **will have enormous impact on sample size and interpretation of the observed results. An**  
79 **equivalence bound should be considerably smaller than the "clinically important difference"**  
80 **that would be used in a power analysis for assessing superiority between methods, and**  
81 **rationale for the chosen bound should be explained [14]. The value of an equivalence test is**  
82 **determined by the strength of the justification of the equivalence bounds. If the bounds**  
83 **chosen are based on the observed data, an equivalence test becomes meaningless [15].**

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### 85 **3. CONCLUDING REMARKS**

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87 In future similar researches, I believe it would be more appropriate to compare the results  
88 derived from different statistical methods (i.e. equivalence testing vs mixed design ANOVA)  
89 and not only present the results from a single method. This approach could provide evidence  
90 of similarities and differences between the methods, so that the readers can understand  
91 more adequately what extra the new method has to offer. **Lakens, Scheel and Isager [15]**

92 also recommend that researchers should perform both a null-hypothesis significance test  
93 and an equivalence test on their data, in order to improve the falsifiability of predictions in  
94 science.

95 However, in order to correctly address these results, CI and effect sizes, a set of statistics  
96 that indicates the relative magnitude of the differences between means [10] should also be  
97 calculated for all methods and not simply rely on p-values, as it happens nowadays with  
98 equivalence testing. Especially for effect sizes, the biggest challenge for researchers will be  
99 to specify the smallest effect size of interest, because not specifying a smallest effect size of  
100 interest for research questions at all will severely hinder theoretical progress [15].

101 Lastly, in order this attempt to introduce equivalence testing in sport and exercise science to  
102 be successful, the following considerations should be taken into account: a) Develop easy-  
103 to-use and accessible software; b) Express equivalence bounds in standardized effect sizes  
104 rather than raw scores; c) Related articles should discuss both power analyses and  
105 statistical tests for dependent t-tests, repeated measures or mixed design ANOVA and meta-  
106 analyses; d) Guidance should be provided on how to set a priori equivalence boundaries,  
107 given that there are often no specific theoretical limitations on how small effects are  
108 predicted to be nor cost-benefit boundaries of when effects are too small to be practically  
109 meaningful [16].

110 The interesting article of Dixon and colleagues [9] adds further to our understanding  
111 regarding the adequate use of equivalence testing for evaluating measurement agreement in  
112 sport science. While it is exciting to see increased attention to the development and  
113 dissemination of new statistical approaches and equivalence testing can provide another tool  
114 in the toolbox for scientists, they should be cautious about making and adopting statistical  
115 recommendations, because these could be considered as another 'trend'.

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## 117 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

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119 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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