

# Collecting & Making Sense of Quantitative Data

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# Objectives

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1. Identify principles of measurement as they relate to research design
2. Describe strategies for data collection and data management
3. Describe the differences between statistical and clinical significance

# Measurement

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- The process of assigning numbers to objects in accord with some rule
- Goals for Measurement
  - Capture intended phenomenon = **Validity**
  - Measure perform consistently = **Reliability**
  - Control error - **Data collection & processing**

# Measurement Error

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Observed score = true score + error

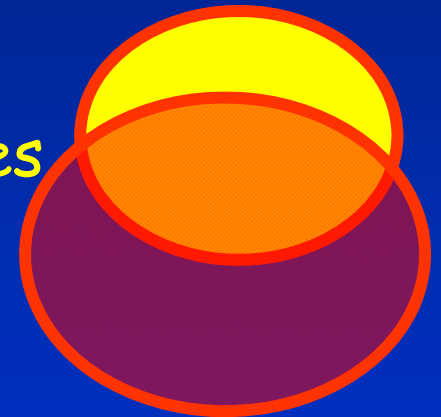
- Systematic Error:

Influences **direction** of the mean

- Variation in administration of scales
- Data processing errors
- Situational factors

- Random Error:

Influences **variation** around the mean



# Levels of Measurement

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- Nominal
- Ordinal
- Interval
- Ratio

# Level of Measurement: Nominal

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- Name or category only
- Can not be ordered or compared
- Mutually exclusive categories
- Numbers assigned as labels only
  - Ethnicity, religion, marital status
  - Gender: males = 1 ; females = 2
  - Experimental group, control group

# Level of Measurement: Ordinal

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- Attribute that can be ranked
- Interval not equal
- Intensity of pain, ability to provide self-care
- Daily exercise:
  - 0 = no exercise
  - 1 = moderate, no sweating
  - 2 = sweating, altered breathing
  - 3 = strenuous, heavy breathing

# Level of Measurement: Interval

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- Rank ordering with equal interval
- Continuum of values
- No absolute zero
  - Temperature:
  - $40^{\circ}$  versus  $70^{\circ}$  same as  $100^{\circ}$  to  $130^{\circ}$



# Level of Measurement: Ratio

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- Absolute zero, and all other constraints
  - Weight, length, and volume
- Most commonly, interval and ratio level data are treated the same way

# Types of Measures

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- Direct vs. Indirect
- Physiological vs. Psychological/  
Attitudinal
  - Objective vs. Subjective

# Physiological Measures

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- Physiology has greater precision than attitudes
  - devices include thermometers, sphygmomanometers, stethoscopes, electrocardiograms, ICU monitors
- Calibration (reliability, validation)
- Inter-rater consistency
  - identify error range

# Likert-type Scales

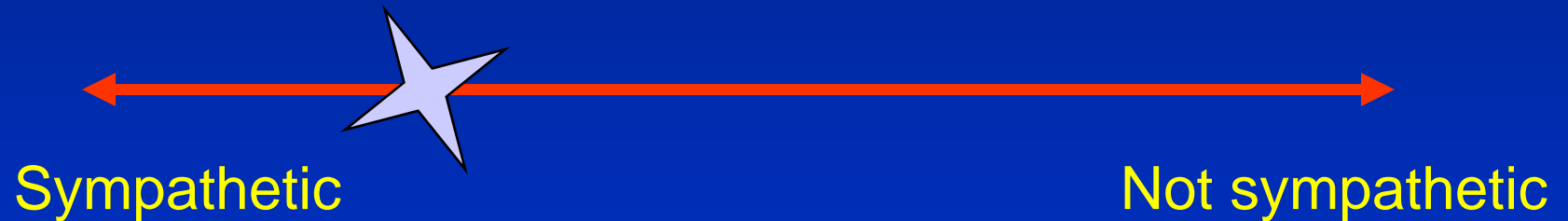
Continuum between 'agree and disagree'  
 Typical range is 5-7 per item

Do you do this type of help for your family member?	No	If Yes, circle how <b>hard</b> it is for you to do that.					How <b>frequently</b> do you do this activity?				
		Yes	Very Hard 5	Pretty Hard 4	Some-what Hard 3	Not too Hard 2	Easy 1	2-3x wk 1	4-5x wk 2	1x daily 3	2-3x daily 4
1. Do you check in on your family member to make sure he or she is OK?	No	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4
2. Do you monitor the number of people who come to see him or her?	No	Yes	5	4	3	2	1	1	2	3	4

# Semantic Differential Scales

Continuum between two adjectives  
(e.g. 'friendly and unfriendly')

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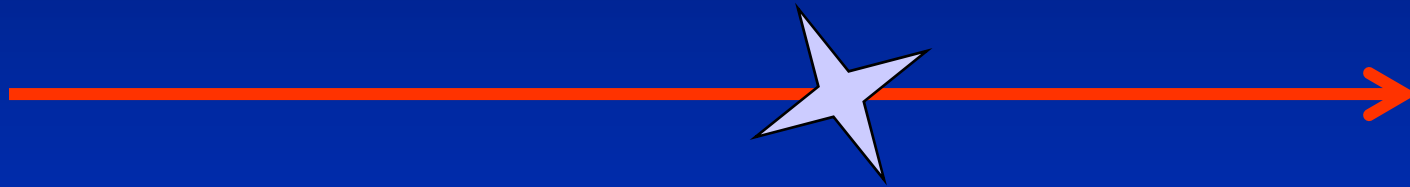


# Visual Analog Scales

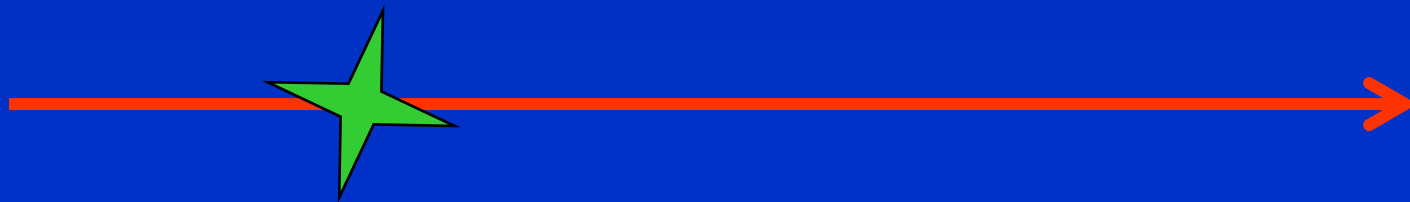
10 millimeter line

Asked to mark how much they feel a certain way

Mark along the line below how **SAD** you feel at this time



Mark along the line below how **ANXIOUS** you feel at this time



# Questionnaires

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- Typically self-reported data
  - Demographic
  - Open-ended vs. closed-ended
  - Contingency and filler
- If mailed, send instructions re: completion

# Interviews

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- Types of questions
  - Open ended vs. closed ended
  - Order of questions
  - Timing and setting
- Interviewer training / guidelines
- Influence of interviewer on respondents



# Observational Methods

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- What is being observed?
  - Structured vs. unstructured observations
  - Event sampling and time sampling
- Training for data collection
- Relationship between observer and subjects (Hawthorne effect)
- Role of nurse vs. researcher

# Plan for data collection

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- What methods will be used to collect data?
  - How will the data be collected?
    - Who will collect the data?
  - Where will data be collected?
  - When will data be collected?

# Variables

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- **Dependent variable:** characteristic or outcome that researcher is interested in understanding, explaining, predicting, or affecting
- **Independent variable:** presumed cause of, or antecedent to, or the influence on the dependent variable

# Selecting Instruments

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- What information is available
  - Reliability
  - Validity
  - Sample for development? For testing?
- Scoring instructions
- Feasibility issues

# Reliability

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- **Consistency** of a measure, equivalence
- Does the instrument perform the way you expect it to across items, over time, between persons, different settings?
- Same scale used by two data collectors or in two settings would yield the same results

# Internal consistency

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- Correlation among items on long scale
- Expressed as a correlation coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) with a score ranging from 0 to 1.0.
- Typically should be above .80+, new instruments acceptable at .70+
- Determined from a specific sample; may not hold true with other samples.

# Stability

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- Test-retest reliability, often with 2 or more measurements.
- STATE vs. TRAIT characteristics
- Consider: Did the phenomenon being measured change
  - pain or anxiety
  - optimism or attachment style

# Equivalence

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- Compares two versions of the same instrument
- Interrater reliability
  - 2 data collectors
  - # of agreements/# of possible agreements
- Alternate forms, parallel forms



# Validity

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- The extent to which the instrument actually reflects the concept being measured.
- Are you measuring what you intended to measure (or is there another concept that you might have captured)?

# Content Validity

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- Examines the extent to which the measure captures ALL of the relevant elements
- Literature, clinical experts, and lay experts used to generate items
- Content Validity Index
  - Relevance, comprehensiveness, readability/clarity, and face validity

# Construct Validity

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- Determines validity of measure by exploring a set of relationships that SHOULD map out as expected
  - Factor analysis
  - Structural equation modeling

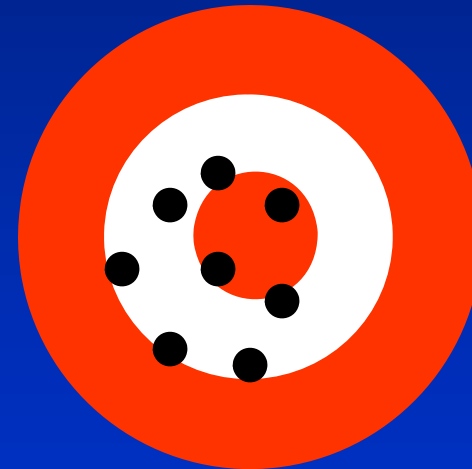
# Which is most important?

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Reliability



Validity



# Feasibility for Data Collection

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- How difficult is instrument to complete?
- Reading level, language choices
- Is phenomena under study sensitive - would data collection change the experience?
- Cost for data collection or processing

# Making Sense of Data (statistics)

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# What are statistics really about?

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- Describe what is going on with data
- Is this group different from another group?
- How BIG is this difference? Relationship?
- Is this difference due to chance?
- What else accounts for the difference?
- Will this difference / relationship be important to patients?

# Descriptive Statistics

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- Used to describe major elements of the sample:
- Demographic characteristics
  - (Did randomization work?)
- Predictors
- Outcomes



# Distribution

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- How do the data look?
- Frequency distribution or counts
- Graphed
  - pie charts
  - bar charts
  - histograms

# Central Tendency

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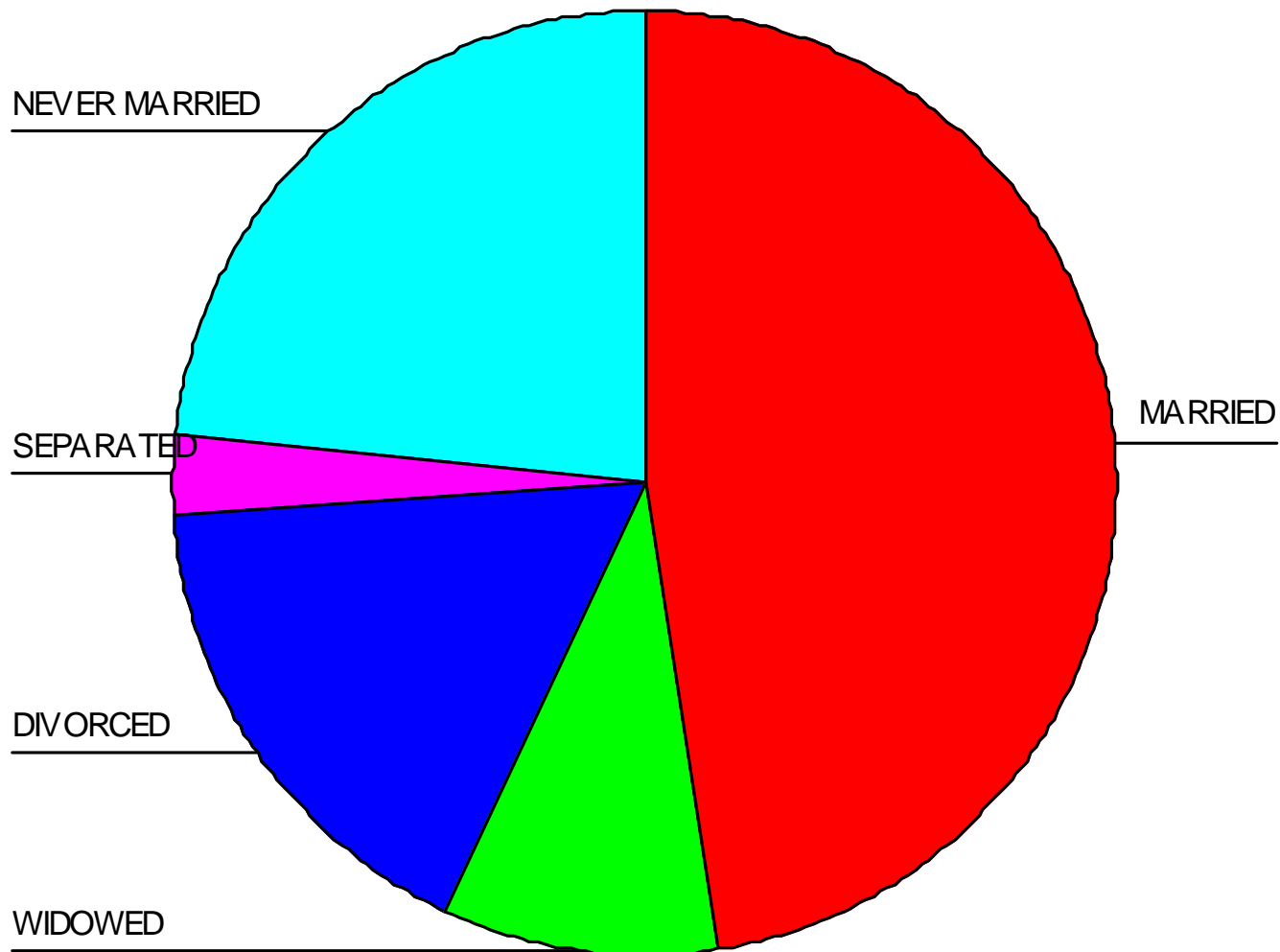
- How alike are the group members?
- Mode (nominal)
  - Score of greatest frequency
- Median (ordinal)
  - Score at center of distribution; 50%ile
- Mean (interval/ratio)
  - $\text{sum of scores} / \text{number of scores}$

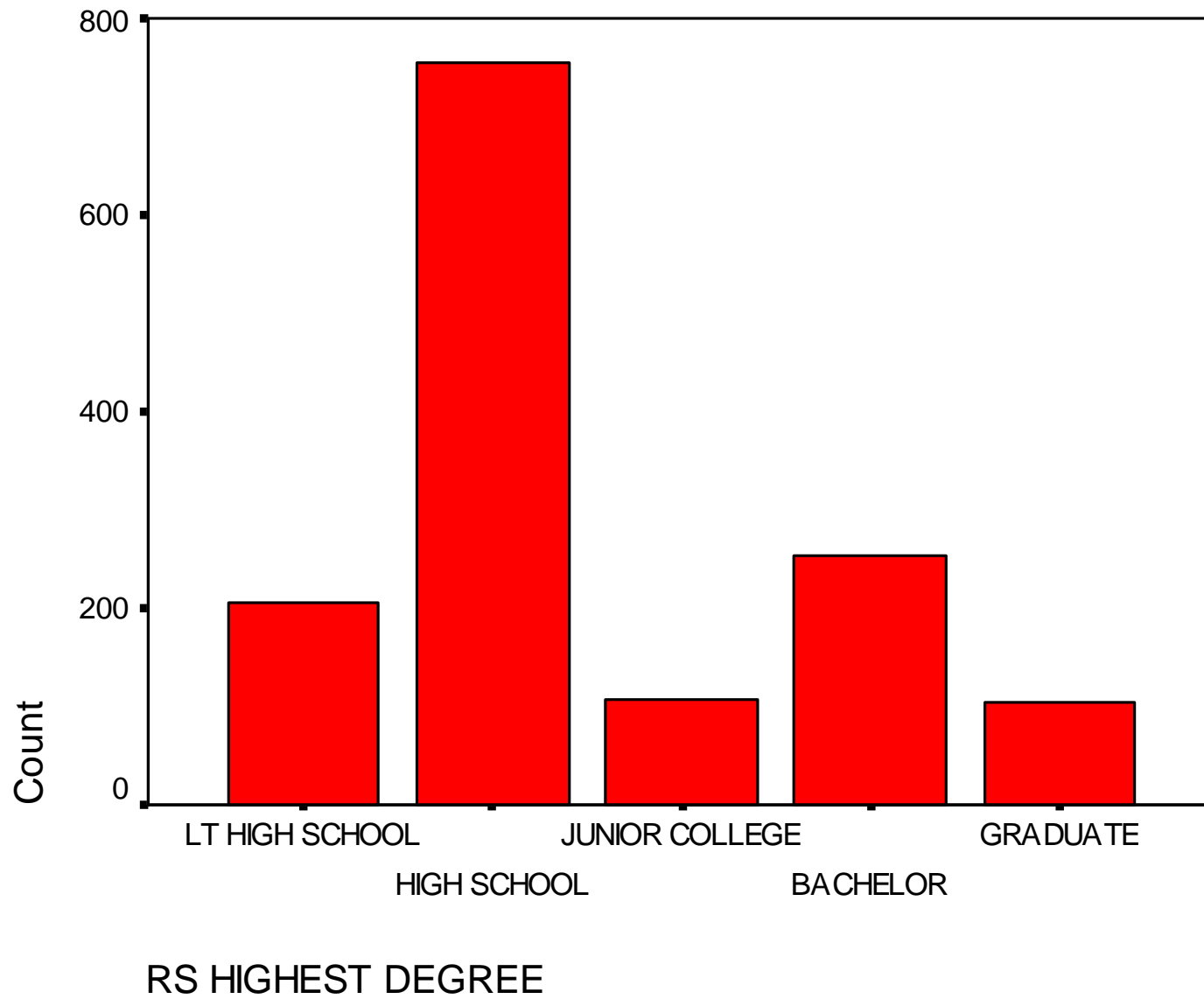
# Dispersion

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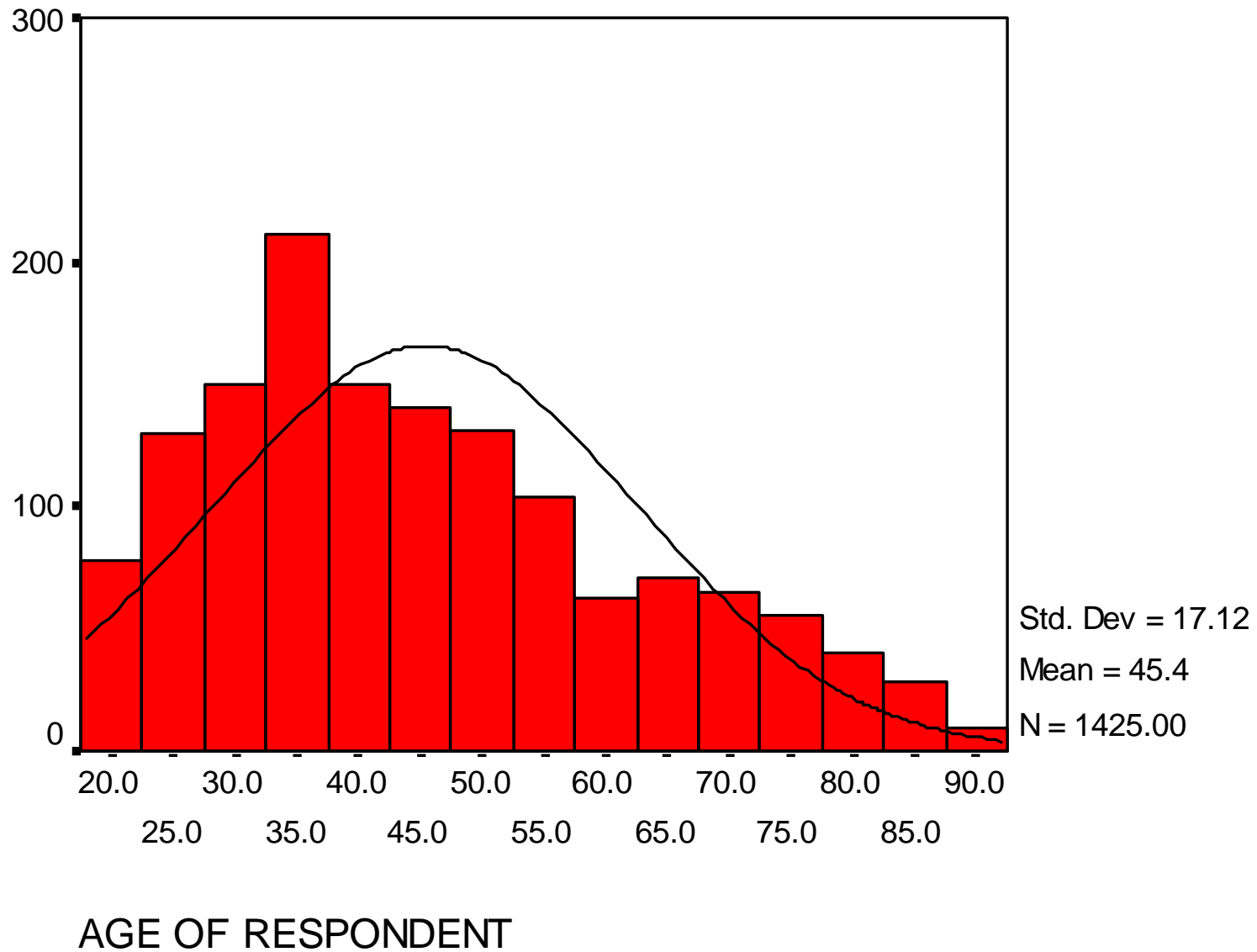
- How different are the group members?
- Range
  - High to low score
- Difference scores
  - Score minus the mean
- Variance / Standard Deviation
  - Average deviation score
  - How different is mean from any individual score

## Marital Status, GSS 1998; n = 1427





# Age, GSS 1998; N = 1425

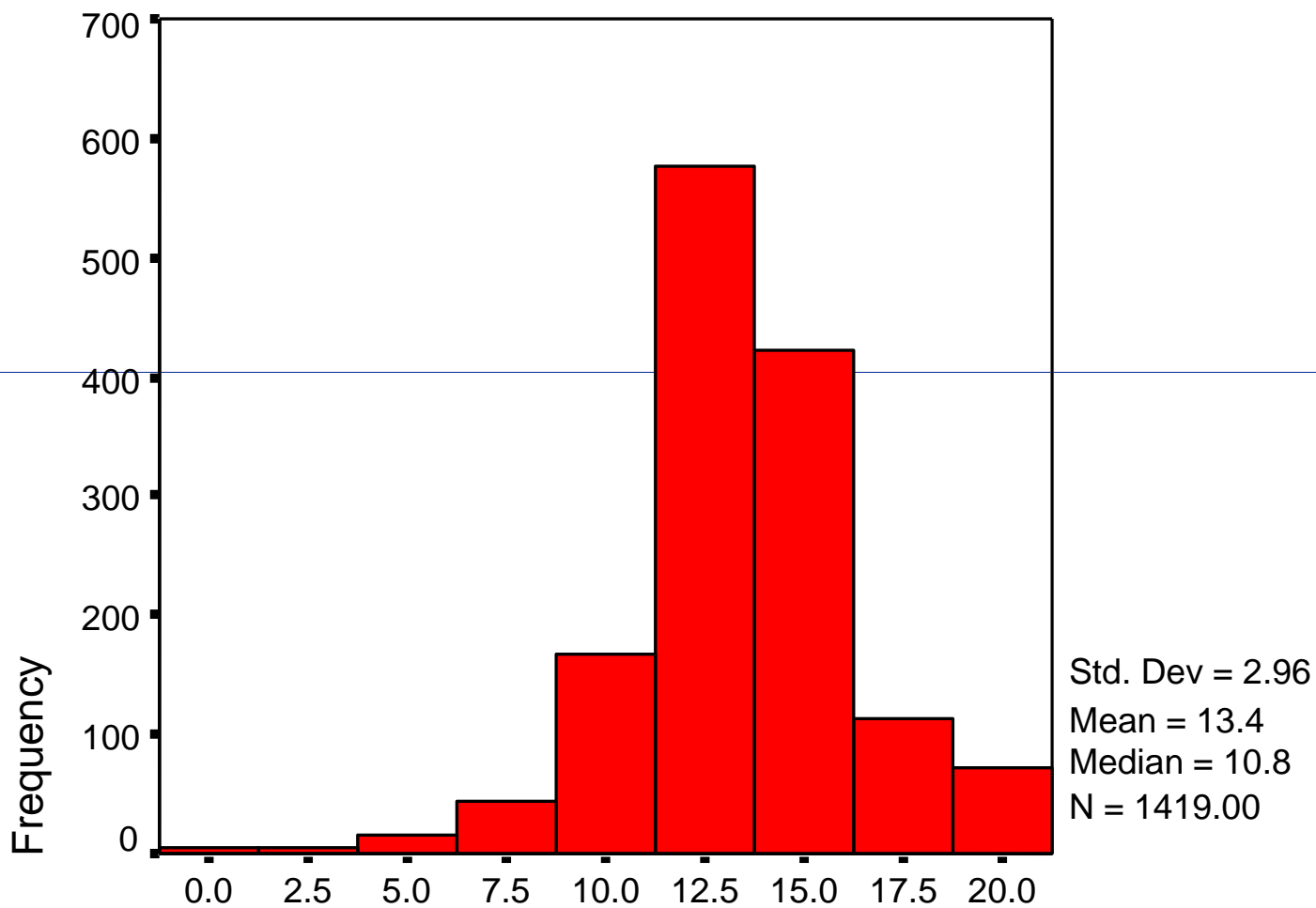


# Skewed Data

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- Extreme scores (either high or low) will skew data, distribution will be shifted to right or left
- Non-normal data
- Determine how outliers have been handled
- When data are skewed, important to consider both MEAN and MEDIAN

## Months of Disease Free Survival





# Inferential Statistics

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- Use inductive reasoning to infer from specific case to general truth
- The process of estimating that what is true in sample is true in population
- Use sample descriptive statistics to generalize to population

# Inferences about...

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- Tests of means (differences between groups)
  - T-test and ANOVA
- Magnitude and direction of relationship
  - Correlation and regression

# Tests of Means

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- Are these groups drawn from the same population?
  - Ratio of difference to variability
- T-test formula:

$$\frac{M_1 - M_2}{\text{(pooled standard dev)}}$$

# Types of T-Tests

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## Independent Groups

- Boys vs. Girls
- Drug A vs. Drug B
- Experimental vs. control groups

## Dependent Group or Scores

- Pre-test, post-test design
- Partners' scores

# Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

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- Simultaneously analyzes the differences between several means at one time
  - 3 or more groups
  - The same group 3 or more times
- Examines the ratio of the differences between groups and the differences within groups
  - $F$ -distribution,  $F$ -value

# ANOVA is omnibus

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- ANOVA tells you THAT differences exist
- Need to do comparisons to determine WHERE exact differences are, called post-hoc tests

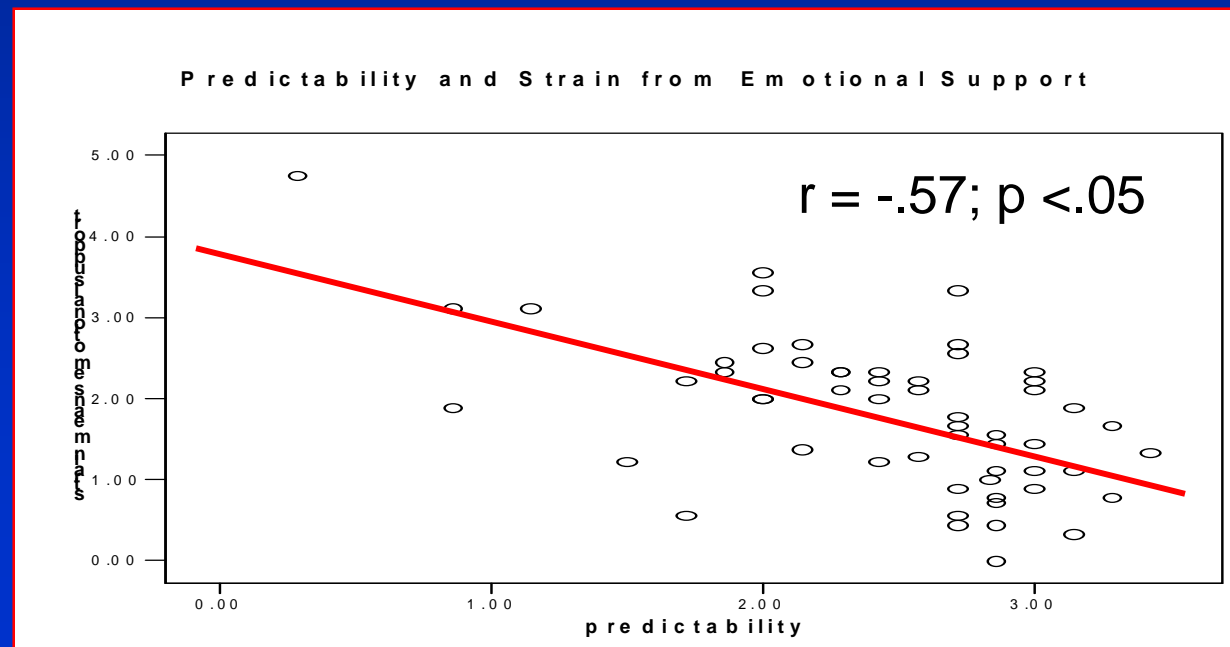
# Tests of Association

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- Examines degree to which the values of one variable (X) are related to the values of another variable (Y)
- Correlation: Extent of linear relationship between two variables
  - Pearson product-moment correlation ( $r$ ) - Interval or ratio data
  - Spearman's rho ( $r_s, r_{rho}$ ) - Ordinal data
  - Contingency coefficient ( $C$ ) & Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) - Nominal data

# Correlation Coefficients

- Direction & magnitude of relationship
- Range from -1.00 to 0 to +1.00
- Graphed as a scatterplot





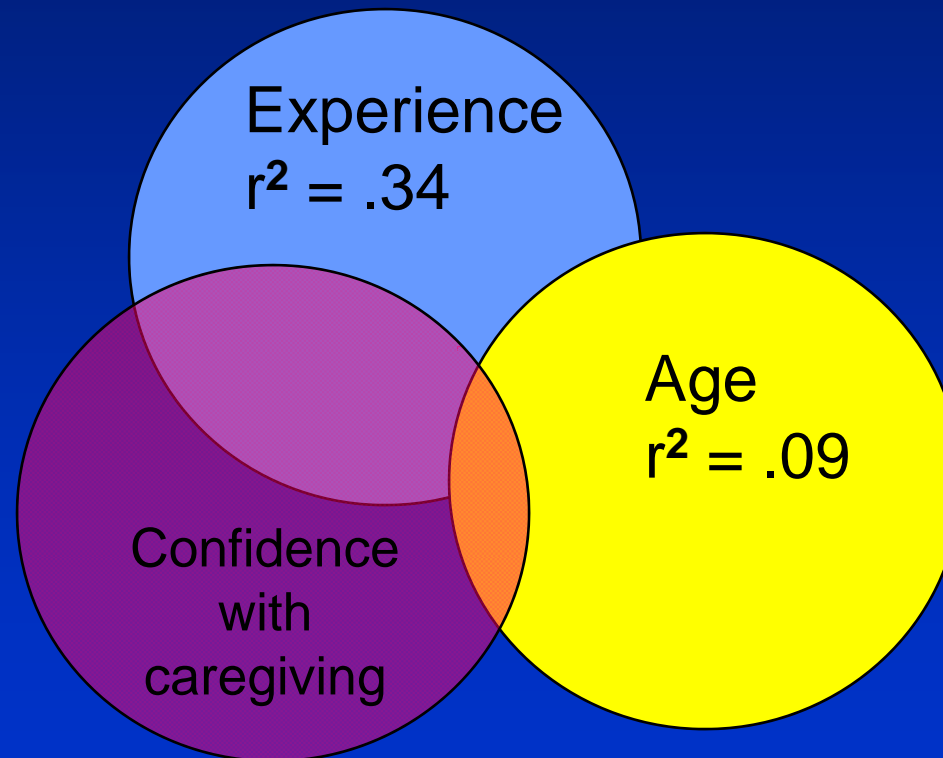
# Regression Analysis

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- Any technique for modeling and analyzing several variables
  - focus is on the relationship between a dependent (outcome) variable and one or more independent (predictor) variables
- helps one understand how the typical value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are held fixed.

# Age and Experience on Confidence with Caregiving

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# Multiple Regression

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- Way to estimate the value of the dependent variable based on a set of independent variables.
- Can also determine unique contribution to variance
- Predict or explain as much variance as possible in dependent variable
- $y = a + b_1x + b_2X + b_3x$

# Statistical & Clinical Significance

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- Statistical significance is focused on whether groups different than what would happen by chance alone
  - p level .01 or .0001 does not reflect **MAGNITUDE** of difference
- Clinical significance is focused on whether that difference or association matters to patients

# Clinical Significance

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- Are the results big enough to be clinically or practically important?
- Would it make a difference to my population?
- Size of the benefit
- Depends on clinical expertise
- Rough estimate for clinical significance
  - Half a standard deviation

# Some additional tidbits

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- Probability / normal distribution
- Power
- Hypothesis testing

# Probability Theory

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- Probability of accurately predicting an event or extent of a relationship
- Chances are...
- Expressed as percentage or decimal
- Level of significance set by researcher
  - Alpha before analysis:  $\alpha$
  - Probability after analysis:  $p$

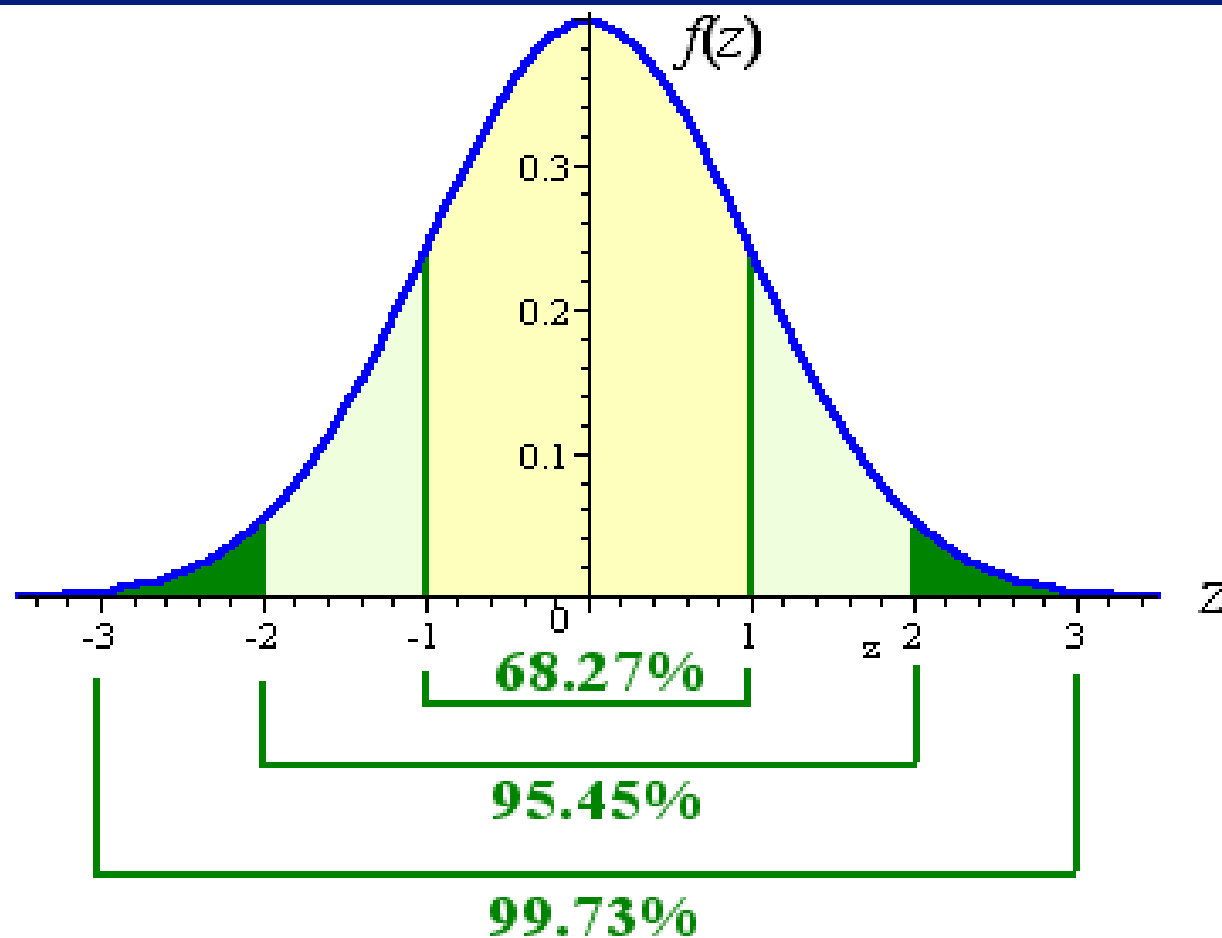
# Normal Curve

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- Theoretical frequency distribution of all possible scores
- The larger the sample, the more certain we are the distribution is normal.
- Extreme scores at tails
  - One tail (directional hypothesis)
  - Two tail (test of any difference)



# Normal Distribution

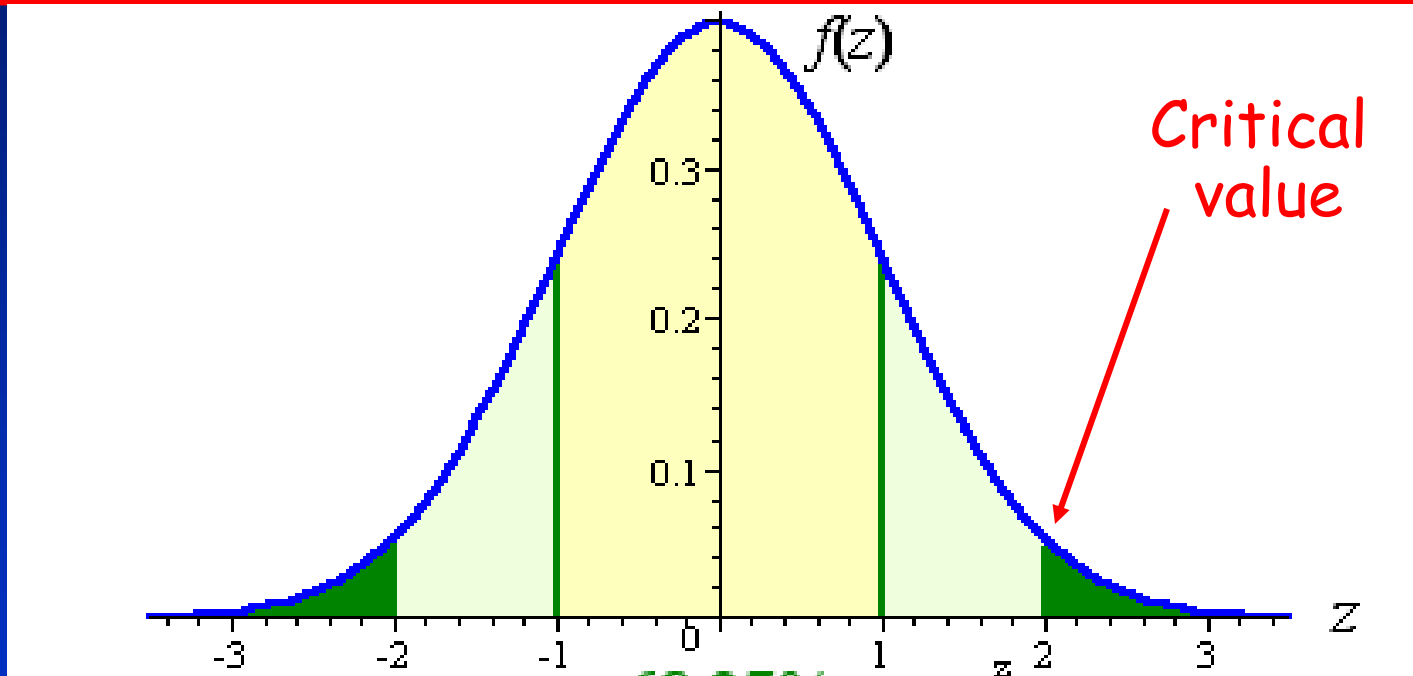


# Significance Level: $\alpha$ and $p$

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- Cutoff point used to determine whether samples being tested are different from the population
- Willingness to reject hypothesis when it should be retained
- Determined by researcher
  - Typically .05 (nursing) or .01 (pharmacologic)
- Corrected with multiple research questions

# Critical Value



- Scores more extreme than critical value are 'significantly different'.
- 95% of the time, the difference would hold up in the population

# Power

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- The probability that a statistical test will detect a difference that exists
- How much POWER do you have to find a true difference?
- Effected by sample size, effect size, and level of significance
- .80 ideal level of power

# Hypothesis Testing Outcomes

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## True State of the World

Decision

	$H_0$ is True	$H_0$ is False
Reject $H_0$	False Rejection Type I error Alpha Significance level	Correct Power 1-beta
Do not reject $H_0$	Correct 1-alpha	Miss Type II error beta

# Correct Decisions

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- Power (microscope)
  - Reject the null hypothesis when it is false
  - Conclude that the intervention does increase positive mood when fact it does
  - Area under the  $H_A$  curve
- Correctly not rejected
  - Do not reject the null hypothesis when it true
  - Conclude that the intervention does not increase positive mood when in fact it doesn't
  - Area under the  $H_0$  curve

# Errors in Hypothesis Testing

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- Type I: false rejection
  - reject null hypothesis when in fact it is true
  - Area under the  $H_0$  curve
  - conclude that the intervention works when it does not (adopt faulty intervention)
- Type II: missed result
  - do not reject null hypothesis when in fact it is false
  - Area under the  $H_A$  curve
  - conclude that the intervention does not work when it does (reject successful intervention)

# Trade-off of Errors

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- Need to weigh the importance of the different errors in the context of your study
  - Type I error: accept drug when it is not effective
    - What if it has lots of side effects?
  - Type II error: miss a drug that is effective
    - Stop a line of inquiry that may be productive



# Reporting statistical findings

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- Report statistic
  - $t, F, r, R^2$
- Report degrees of freedom
- Report probability
  - $p$  value
- Okay to report selected findings
  - Most interesting findings
  - Don't forget non-significant findings