

Course at the Joint Research Centre of Ispra:

'Sensitivity analysis, sensitivity auditing and beyond' Part on the p-test

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sensitivity analysis, sensitivity auditing, science for policy, impact assessment





# = more material on my web site



# = discussion time

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# An investigation of the false discovery rate and the misinterpretation of *p*-values

#### David Colquhoun

Department of Neuroscience, Physiology and Pharmacology, University College London, Gower Street, London WC1 6BT, UK "If you are foolish enough to define 'statistically significant' as anything less than p=0.05 then... you have a 29% chance (at least) of making a fool of yourself.

Who would take a risk like that? Judging by the medical literature, most people would. No wonder there is a problem"

## P values by way of an example

- Two groups, one with a placebo, one with the treatment
- Random allocation to groups (+more!)
- The difference *d* between the means of the two groups is tested (is it different from zero?)
- *p*=0.05 implies that if there were no effect the probability of observing a value equal to *d* or higher would be 5%

"At first sight, it might be thought that this procedure would guarantee that you would make a fool of yourself only once in every 20 times that you do a test"

"The classical p-value does exactly what it says. But it is a statement about what would happen if there were no true effect. That cannot tell you about your longterm probability of making a fool of yourself, simply because sometimes there really is an effect. In order to do the calculation, **we need to know a few more things**"

### A classic exercise in screening

You test positive for AIDS (one test only). Time for despair?

Only one 1 in 100,000 has AIDS in your population

The test has a 5% false positive rate

Already one can say: in a population of say 100,000 one will have AIDS and 5,000 (5% of 100,000) will test positive

➔ Don't despair (yet)

Another exercise in screening (Colquhoun 2014)

You test positive for mild cognitive impairment (MCI) (one test only). Time to retire?

MCI prevalence in the population 1%, i.e. in a sample of 10,000 then 100 have MCI and 9,900 don't

The test has a 5% false positive rate; of the 9,900 who don't have MCI 495 test (false) positive and the remaining 9,405 (true) negative

The test does not pick all the 100 MCI but only 80; there will be 20 false negative. So we see 80+495=575 positive of which only 80 (a 14%) are true and the remaining 86% false

 $\rightarrow$  It does not make sense to screen the population for MCI!

The number 86% = 495/(495+80) is our false discovery rate



The same concept of false discovery rate applies to the problem of significance test

#### We now consider tests instead of individuals



#### **Unlikely results**

How a small proportion of false positives can prove very misleading

False True False negatives False positives 3. Not knowing 1. Of hypotheses The tests have a what is false and false positive rate interesting of 5%. That means what is not, the enough to test, perhaps one in they produce 45 researcher sees ten will be true. false positives (5% 125 hypotheses as of 900). They have true, 45 of which So imagine tests on 1,000 a power of 0.8, so are not. hypotheses, they confirm only The negative 100 of which 80 of the true results are much are true. hypotheses, more reliable-but producing 20 false unlikely to be negatives. published.

The false discovery rate is ~the dark divided by the light green

→ We see 125 hypotheses as true 45 of which are not; the false discovery rate is 45/125 = 36%

Significance  $p=0.05 \rightarrow$  false discovery rate of 36%

We now know that p=0.05 did not correspond to a chance in twenty of being wrong but to one in three

How many numbers did we need to know to reach this conclusion?





# END

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