

Best practices for reporting scientific results

Navigating the minefield around P -values and significance

Stefanie Muff

Open Science course, Hjerkinn, November 2025

The ongoing controversy around p -values

In February 2014, George Cobb, Professor Emeritus of Mathematics and Statistics at Mount Holyoke College, posed these questions to an ASA discussion forum:

Q: Why do so many colleges and grad schools teach $p = 0.05$?

A: Because that's still what the scientific community and journal editors use.

Q: Why do so many people still use $p = 0.05$?

A: Because that's what they were taught in college or grad school.

(Wasserstein and Lazar 2016)

Lots of publications in the past decades...

STATISTICAL ERRORS

P values, the 'gold standard' of statistical validity, are not as reliable as many scientists assume.

BY REGINA NUZZO

COMMENT • 20 MARCH 2019

Scientists rise up against statistical significance

Valentin Amrhein, Sander Greenland, Blake McShane and more than 800 signatories call for an end to hyped claims and the dismissal of possibly crucial effects.

Valentin Amrhein[✉], Sander Greenland & Blake McShane

Ioannidis (2005), Goodman (2008), Nuzzo (2014), Amrhein, Greenland, and McShane (2019), ...

A Dirty Dozen: Twelve P-Value Misconceptions

Steven Goodman

The *P* value is a measure of statistical evidence that appears in virtually all medical research papers. Its interpretation is often extremely difficult and it is not part of any formal training of statistical inference. As a result, the *P*-value's inferential meaning is widely and often wildly misconstrued, a fact that has been pointed out in numerous papers and books appearing since at least the 1940s. This commentary reviews a dozen of these common misinterpretations and explains why each is wrong. It also reviews the possible consequences of these improper understandings or representations of its meaning. Finally, it contrasts the *P* value with its Bayesian counterpart, the Bayes' factor, which has virtually all of the desirable properties of an evidential measure that the *P* value lacks, most notably its ability to measure evidence. The most serious consequence of this array of *P*-value misconceptions is the false belief that the probability of a conclusion being in error can be calculated from the data in a single experiment without reference to external evidence or the plausibility of the underlying mechanism.

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Essay

Why Most Published Research Findings Are False

John P. Ioannidis

Summary

There is increasing concern that most current published research findings are false. The probability that a research claim is true may depend on study design and analysis sample size, according to a new paper. In this framework, a research finding is less likely to be true when the studies are smaller; when there is greater heterogeneity among studies on a question; when important协变量are not controlled for or included in the analysis; when effect sizes are smaller; when there is a greater number and lesser pretection against multiple comparisons; when studies include weaker outcome measures; when studies are smaller; when there is greater heterogeneity in designs, definitions, outcomes, and analytical methods; when there is greater financial or other conflicts of interest; and when more associate factors and interactions are assessed in a scientific field. In case of statistical significance, this bias towards false findings is not most appropriately represented and summarized by *p*-values, but, unfortunately, there is a widespread notion that medical research articles

factors that influence this problem and some correlates thereof.

Modelling the Framework for False Positive Findings

Several methodologists have pointed out [1–11] that the high rate of acceptance (the α level) of null hypotheses as discoveries is a consequence of the common, oft-downplayed strategy of claiming a discovery based on a single study, on the basis of a single study assumed to have statistical significance, typically $p < 0.05$. This strategy is not most appropriately represented and summarized by *p*-values, but, unfortunately, there is a widespread notion that medical research articles

in a chosen scientific field and can vary a lot depending on whether the field targets highly likely relationships or searches for only one or a few relationships among many thousands and millions of hypotheses that may be postulated. Let us also consider, for example, the situation in a well characterized field where either there is only one true relationship (among many that can be hypothesized) or the field is characterized by the presence of several existing true relationships. The pre-study probability of a relationship being true is denoted by π_0 . For example, out of a study finding a true relationship, the power $1 - \beta$ (one minus the Type II error rate) is the probability that the relationship is true. Conversely, if a false relationship is found, the Type I error rate α is the probability that the relationship is false. Assuming that a relationship is true, the expected value of the 2×2 table are given in Table 1. After a research finding is declared statistically significant, the poststudy probability that it is true is the posterior predictive value, PPV . The PPV is also known as the positive predictive value or the probability of what Wacholder et al. have called the false positive report

overlooked (FPO). According to the

P-values / statistical significance criticism

P-value **criticism** is as **old** as statistical significance testing (1920s!).

Issues:

- The sharp line $p < 0.05$ is *arbitrary*.
- *P*-hacking / data dredging: Search until you find a result with $p < 0.05$.
- Publication bias: Studies with $p < 0.05$ are more likely to be published than “non-significant” results.
- HARKING: Hypothesizing After the Results are Known.
- Model selection using p -values → **model selection bias**.

Note: R.A. Fisher, the “inventor” of the p -value (1920s) didn’t mean the p -value to be used in the way it is used today, which is: doing a single experiment and use $p < 0.05$ for a conclusion.

From Goodman (2016):

Fisher used “significance” merely to indicate that an observation was worth following up, with refutation of the null hypothesis justified only if further experiments “rarely failed” to achieve significance. This is in stark contrast to the modern practice of making claims based on a single demonstration of statistical significance.

Right or wrong?

Go to www.menti.com and use indicated code.

Which of these statements are right or wrong?

1. The p -value is the probability that the null hypothesis is true.
2. $p = 0.02$ means that the alternative hypothesis is true with 98% probability.
3. The p -value is the type-1 error rate.
4. The p -value is the probability that the result happened by chance.
5. If $p > 0.05$, we can conclude that there is no effect.
6. Two studies with $p > 0.05$ and $p < 0.05$ are in a conflict.

Significance thresholding is arbitrary

- Is there a significant difference between $p = 0.049$ and $p = 0.051\dots??$

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No: *Absence of evidence is not evidence of absence* (Altman and Bland 1995). *The null hypothesis cannot be proved.*

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Reasons for large p -values:

- Low sample size (\rightarrow low power).
- The truth is not far from the null hypothesis.
- Collinear covariates.

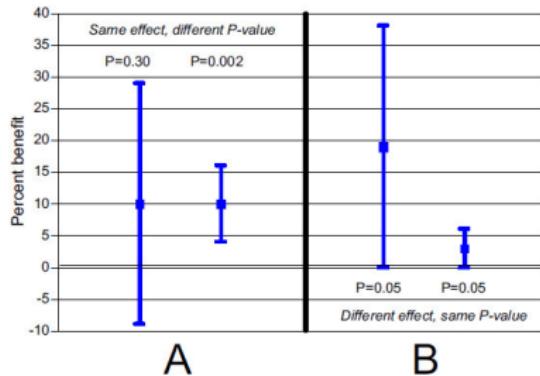
- “Statistical significance” is often used almost synonymously with “there is an effect”.
- But we all know: Correlation is not causation.

Significance vs relevance

Paul D. Ellis in *The Essential Guide to Effect Sizes* (2010, chapter 2):

Indeed, statistical significance, which partly reflects sample size, may say nothing at all about the practical significance of a result. [...] To extract meaning from their results [...] scientists need to look beyond p values and effect sizes and make informed judgments about what they see.

- A low p -value does not automatically imply that a variable is “important” – and vice versa.
- “Is there an effect?” vs. “How much of an effect is there?”



Goodman (2008)

Problem: The p -value blends the estimated effect size with its uncertainty.

Shall we abolish p -values?

NATURE | RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS: SOCIAL SELECTION



Psychology journal bans P values

Test for reliability of results ‘too easy to pass’, say editors.

Chris Woolston

26 February 2015 | Clarified: 09 March 2015



PDF

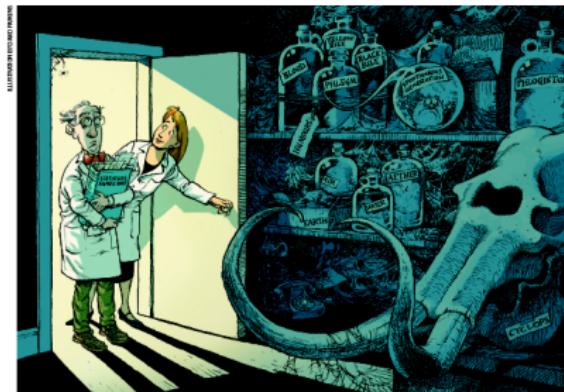


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A controversial statistical test has finally met its end, at least in one journal. Earlier this month, the editors of *Basic and Applied Social Psychology* (BASP) announced that the journal would no longer publish papers containing P values because the statistics were too often used to support lower-quality research¹.

- But that throws the baby out with the bath water. It's as if we would forbid trains because they cannot fly to South America...
- p -values are not “good” or “bad”. They have **strengths** and **weaknesses**.

What should we do then?



Retire statistical significance

Valentin Amrhein, Sander Greenland, Blake McShane and more than 800 signatories call for an end to hyped claims and the dismissal of possibly crucial effects.

- In many situations it is not justified to make a strict yes/no decision.¹
- **Instead:** accumulating evidence over more and more studies.²

¹ And we are usually not forced to! In contrast to e.g. clinical trials.

² That's why it is so important to publish non-significant results, too! And: the importance of meta-analyses.

A small literature review

Did reporting behavior change?

Has the debate had an impact on how we report and interpret our findings in the ecology and evolution research community? In order to get a better feeling for this question, we carried out a small literature review. We used the January 2021 issues (December 2020 if January 2021 was a special issue) of eight major journals in ecology and evolution and checked all research papers containing at least one statistical analysis ($n = 137$, see the supplemental information online). Of those, 113 (82.5%) reported results based on the NHST philosophy: 104/113 (92%) of the dichotomous decisions were based on the P -value, while seven used the 95% CIs, and two used an information criterion. A total of 110/113 (97.3%) reported their findings using the 'significance' terminology. It appears as if the decades with waving warning flags had relatively little impact on the routines in our field when it comes to writing the results sections of scientific papers.

Suggestion 1: Language matters!

Rewrite your results and use a *gradual interpretation of the p-value*.

For single (observational) studies, the following has been suggested already decades ago (Bland 1986):

Interpreting the P value

As a rough and ready guide, we can think of P values as indicating the strength of evidence like this:

P value	Evidence for a difference or relationship
Greater than 0.1:	Little or no evidence
Between 0.05 and 0.1:	Weak evidence
Between 0.01 and 0.05:	Evidence
Less than 0.01:	Strong evidence
Less than 0.001:	Very strong evidence

Rewriting results sections in the language of evidence

Stefanie Muff  ^{1,2,*,@} Erlend B. Nilsen, ^{2,3,4,@} Robert B. O'Hara, ^{1,2,@} and Chloé R. Nater ^{2,3,@}

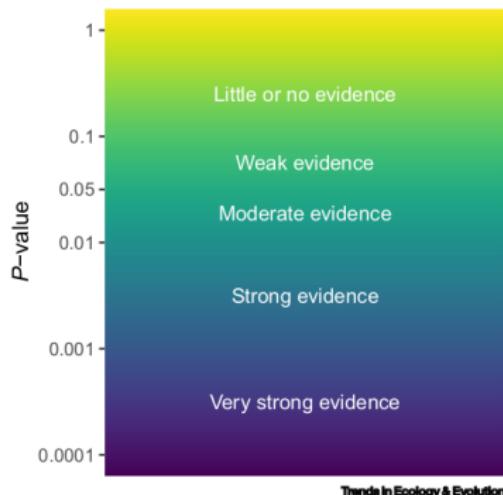


Figure 1. Suggested ranges to approximately translate the P -value into the language of evidence. The ranges are based on Bland (1986) [27], but the boundaries should not be understood as hard thresholds.

Suggestion 2: Report effect sizes, 95% CIs, and figures

Ask:

- Is the effect size (biologically, medically, socially...) *relevant*?
- Which range of true effects is statistically *compatible* with the observed data?
→ 95% confidence interval

However

- The choice of 95% is again somewhat arbitrary. We could also go for 90% or 99% or any other interval.
- The 95% CI should **not be misused for simple hypothesis testing** in the sense of “Is 0 in the confidence interval or not?” – that is just significance testing.

A results table from an example where I was involved (Imo et al. 2018):

Table 4. Evidence for the association with log-transformed mercury values in urine ($\mu\text{g/g}$ creatinine).

n = 164	Variable	Coefficient	95% CI	p-Value
Very strong evidence	Amalgam fillings	0.33	0.24, 0.42	<0.001
	Last time sea fish	0.32	0.17, 0.47	<0.001
	Age	-0.04	-0.06, -0.02	<0.001
Strong evidence	Interaction age \times mother	0.05	0.02, 0.08	<0.001
	Mother (indicator)	-0.97	-1.64, -0.31	0.004
	Smoking	0.30	0.09, 0.50	0.005
Little or no evidence	Sea fish	0.08	0.03, 0.13	0.003
	\log_{10} Hg soil	0.02	-0.06, 0.10	0.64
	Limit of quantification	-0.08	-0.25, 0.09	0.37
	Country of birth near the sea	-0.01	-0.16, 0.15	0.93
	Eats vegetables from region	0.07	-0.03, 0.18	0.18

CI: Confidence interval.

We found very strong evidence for a positive association between the number of amalgam fillings and mercury concentration in urine (regression coefficient: 0.33; 95% CI: 0.24–0.42; $p < 0.001$).

We found no evidence for an association of mercury concentrations in soil with concentrations in urine (regression coefficient: 0.02; 95% CI: -0.06–0.10; $p = 0.64$).

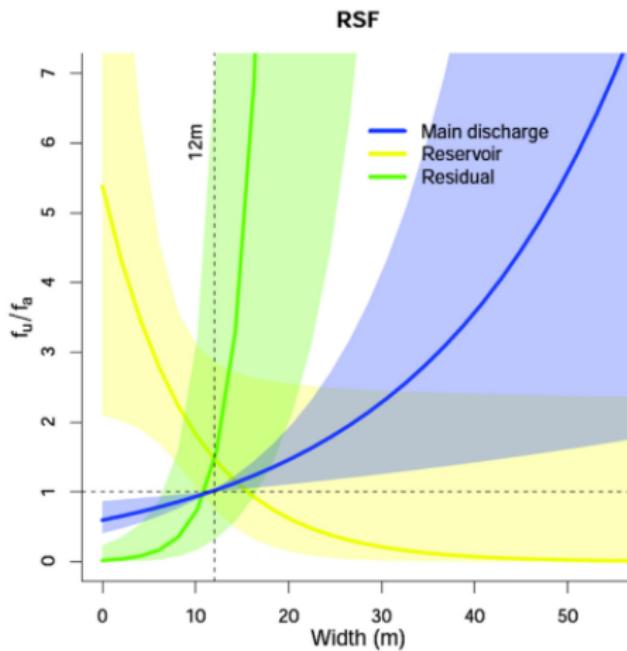
A graphical description often says more than thousand words...

Do you prefer

Two-step conditional logit over all nine animals. Significant factors are in bold.

Covariates	Beta	SD	p-Value (Wald)
Distance to road	0.063	0.031	0.020
Function of riverbed: width (Main discharge as reference category)			
Residual water: width	3.115	1.621	0.027
Reservoir: width	-2.036	1.126	0.035
Distance to dam	-0.103	0.077	0.090
River width	0.599	0.45	0.092
Algae	0.057	0.058	0.162
Distance to fishpond	-0.098	0.101	0.166
Type riparian vegetation	-0.035	0.041	0.194
Width riparian vegetation	-0.038	0.073	0.303
Function of riverbed (Main discharge as reference category)			
Reservoir	0.207	0.515	0.344
Residual water	0.288	1.285	0.411
Wood debris	0.027	0.086	0.377
Riverbank modifications	-0.002	0.038	0.474
Variability in depth	-0.002	0.054	0.483
Material bank side	0.000	0.033	0.500

or ... ?



(Weinberger et al. 2016)

The interpretation of the p -value depends!

- Observational vs experimental study
- Exploratory vs confirmatory analysis

Practice in drug regulation

Clinical trials (CTs) for **drug approval** underlie strict requirements – since decades.

- CTs are **randomized controlled trials**.
- **Study protocols** that are published even before any patient is treated.
- **Pre-registration** of study protocols and analysis plans.
- **Two Trials Rule:**

"at least two adequate and well-controlled studies, each convincing on its own, to establish effectiveness."

- Clinical trials are *experimental* and *confirmatory*, and there are very strict regulations.
→ *We can draw a causal conclusion.*
- On the other hand, in Ecology: (Often) observational studies, lots of researchers degrees of freedom, usually no preregistration, exploratory data analysis, no study protocols, model selection,...
→ *We are mostly detecting correlations.*

Exercise

- Work in teams of 2-3 and choose one of the papers I will give you.
- Check how the authors reported their results.
- Make concrete suggestions (e.g., example sentences) how the authors could have better presented their results.

The material can be found here:

<https://github.com/stefaniemuff/statlearning/tree/master/OpenScience>

“Homework”

I recommend you to read the following short articles (you find the pdfs on the literature list):

- Scientists rise up against statistical significance (2019). Amrhein et al., *Nature*, 567, p. 305–307,
<https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-019-00857-9>
- The ASA statement on *p*-values: context, process, and purpose (2016). Wasserstein and Lazar, *The American Statistician*, 70:2, 129-133, <https://doi.org/10.1080/00031305.2016.1154108>
- Rewriting results sections in the language of evidence (2022). Muff et al., *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 37, 203–210,
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2021.10.009>

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