## What's the True Effect Size? What Do You Want it to Be?

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What's the true effect size? That's my bottom line question when doing a study or reading a paper. I don't expect an exact answer, of course. What I want is a probability distribution telling where the true effect size probably lies. I used to think confidence intervals answered this question, but they don't except under artificial conditions. A better answer comes from Bayes's formula. But caveat emptor: the answer depends on what you expect it to be.

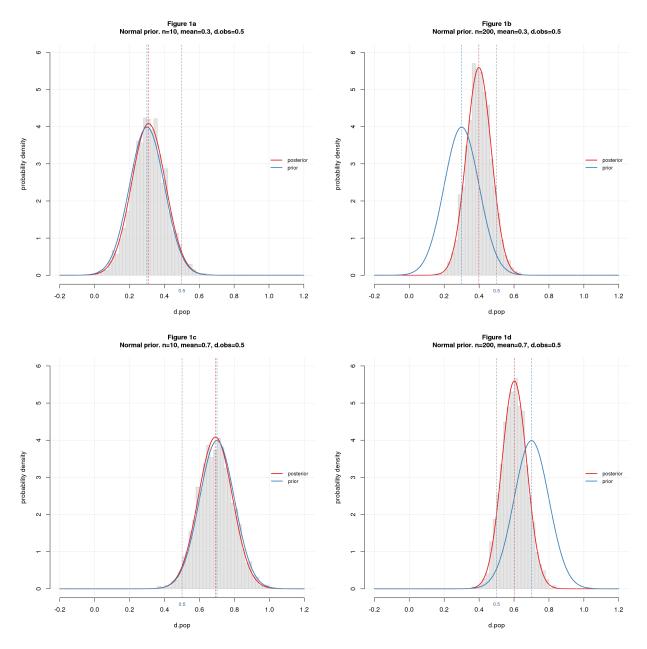
Confidence intervals, like other standard methods such as the t-test, imagine we're repeating a study an infinite number of times, drawing a different sample each time from the same population. That's not how I do science, or rather, it's not how I do basic, exploratory research. What I do is run a study, compute an observed effect size from my data, and try to figure out what true effect size may have led to my observation. Mathematically, I consider all possible true effect sizes and ask, "What's the probability of getting my result for each true effect size?".

I model the scenario as a two stage random process. The first stage selects a population (aka "true") effect size,  $d_{pop}$ , from a distribution; the second carries out a study with that population effect size yielding an observed effect size,  $d_{obs}$ . Imagine I repeat the process infinitely, recording  $d_{pop}$  and  $d_{obs}$  each time. The result is a table with columns  $d_{pop}$  and  $d_{obs}$  showing which  $d_{pop}$ s give rise to which  $d_{obs}$ s. Now, pick a value for  $d_{obs}$ , say 0.5, and limit the table to rows where  $d_{obs}$  is near 0.5. The distribution of  $d_{pop}$  from this subset is the answer to my question. In Bayesian-speak, the first-stage distribution is the *prior*, and the final distribution is the *posterior*.

For this post, the studies in the second stage are simple two group difference-of-mean studies with equal sample size and standard deviation, and the effect size statistic is standardized difference (aka Cohen's d). Concretely, each study selects two random samples of size n from standard normal distributions, one with mean = 0 and the other with  $mean = d_{pop}$ , and calculates  $d_{obs}$  as the difference of the group means divided by the pooled standard deviation.

Now for the cool bit. The Bayesian approach lets us pick a prior that represents our best guess of the distribution of effect sizes in our research field. From what I read in the blogosphere, the typical population effect size in social science research is 0.3. I'll model this as a normal distribution with mean = 0.3 and small standard deviation, 0.1. I'll also try a bigger prior, mean = 0.7, to illustrate the impact of the choice.

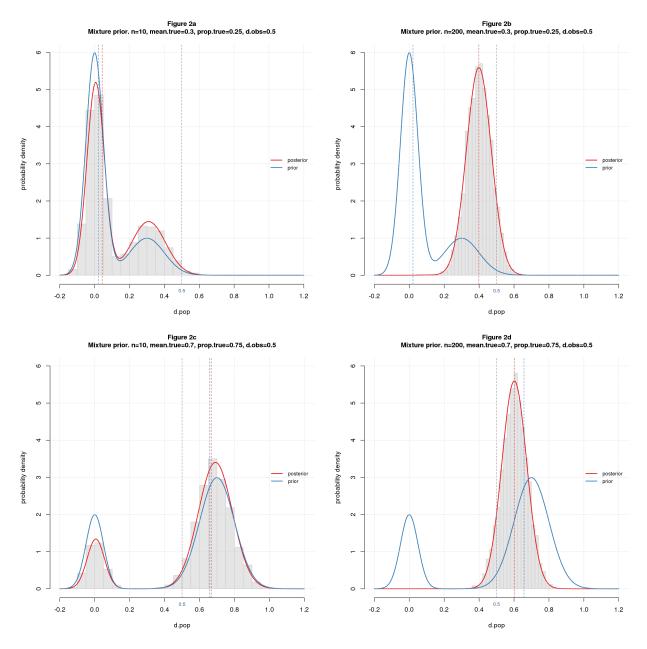
Figures 1a-d show the results for small and large samples (n = 10 or 200) and small and large priors for  $d_{obs} = 0.5$ . Each figure shows a histogram of simulated data, the prior and posterior distributions (blue and red curves), the medians of the two distributions (blue and red dashed vertical lines), and  $d_{obs}$  (gray dashed vertical line).



The posteriors and histograms match pretty well, a good sign that my software works. For n = 10 (left column), the posterior is almost identical to the prior, while for n = 200 (right column), it's shifted toward the observed. It's like a tug-of-war: for small samples, the prior wins, while for large samples, the data is stronger and keeps the posterior close to the observation. The small prior (top row) pulls the posterior down; the large one (bottom row) pushes it up. Completely intuitive.

But wait. I forgot an important fact: some of the problems we study are "false" ("satisfy the null"). No worries. I model the "false" effect sizes as normal with mean=0 and very small standard deviation, 0.05, and the totality of effect sizes as a mixture of this distribution and the "true" ones as above. I also have to specify the proportion of true vs. false problems. To illustrate the impact of this parameter, I use 25% true for the small prior and 75% for the big one.

Figures 2a-d show the results.



The priors have two peaks, reflecting the two classes. With 25% true (top row), the false peak is tall and the true peak short; with 75% true (bottom row), it's the opposite though not as extreme. For small samples (left column), the posterior also has two peaks, indicating that the data does a poor job of distinguishing true from false cases. For big samples (right column), the posterior has a single peak, which is clearly in true territory. As in Figure 1, the small prior (top row) pulls the result down, while the large prior (bottom row) pushes it up.

These results are simple, intuitive, and reasonable. The code for the core Bayesian analysis (available here) is simple, too, just a few lines of R.

The devil is in the priors. Reasonable scientists might choose different priors making it hard to compare results across studies. Unscrupulous scientists can choose priors that make their answers look better, akin to p-hacking.

For this elegant method to become the norm, something has to be done about the priors. Perhaps research

communities could adopt standard priors for specific types of studies. Maybe we can use data from reproducibility projects to inform these choices. It seems technically feasible. No doubt I've missed some important details, but this seems a promising way to move beyond p-values.

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