

Publication Bias: The “File-Drawer” Problem in Scientific Inference

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It is human nature for “the affirmative or active to effect more than the negative or privative. So that a few times hitting, or presence, countervails oft-times failing or absence.”

—Francis Bacon, *The Advancement of Learning*

Abstract—Publication bias arises whenever the probability that a study is published depends on the statistical significance of its results. This bias, often called the file-drawer effect because the unpublished results are imagined to be tucked away in researchers’ file cabinets, is a potentially severe impediment to combining the statistical results of studies collected from the literature. With almost any reasonable quantitative model for publication bias, only a small number of studies lost in the file drawer will produce a significant bias. This result contradicts the well-known fail-safe file-drawer (FSFD) method for setting limits on the potential harm of publication bias, widely used in social, medical, and psychic research. This method incorrectly treats the file drawer as unbiased and almost always misestimates the seriousness of publication bias. A large body of not only psychic research, but medical and social science studies as well, has mistakenly relied on this method to validate claimed discoveries. Statistical combination can be trusted only if it is known with certainty that all studies that have been carried out are included. Such certainty is virtually impossible to achieve in literature surveys.

Key words: publication bias — meta-analysis — file drawer effect — statistics

1. Introduction: Combined Studies

The goal of many studies in science, medicine, and engineering is the measurement of a quantity to detect a suspected effect or to gain information about a known one. Observational errors and other noise sources make this a statistical endeavor in which one obtains repeated measurements to average out these fluctuations.

If individual studies are not conclusive, improvement is possible by combining the results of different measurements of the same effect. The idea is to

perform statistical analysis on relevant data collected from the literature¹ to improve the signal-to-noise ratio (on the assumption that the noise averages to zero). (For clarity and consistency with most of the literature, individually published results will be called *studies* throughout this paper, and the term *analysis* will refer to the endeavor to combine two or more studies.)

Two problems arise in such analyses. First, experimenters often publish only statistical summaries of their studies, not the actual data. The analyst then is faced with combining the summaries, a nontrivial technical problem (*e.g.*, Rosenthal, 1978, 1995). Modern communication technology should circumvent these problems by making even large data arrays accessible to other researchers. Reproducible research (Buckheit and Donoho, 1995; Claerbout, Schwab, and Karrenbach, 1999) is a discipline for doing this and more, but even this methodology does not solve the other problem, which is publication bias.

2. Publication Bias

The second problem facing combined analysis is that studies collected from the literature often are not a representative sample. Erroneous statistical conclusions may result from a prejudiced collection process or if the literature is itself a biased sample of all relevant studies. The latter, publication bias, is the subject of this paper. The bibliography contains a sample of the rather large literature on the file-drawer effect and publication bias. The essence of this effect, as described by nearly all authors, can be expressed in statistical language as follows: A publication bias exists if the probability that a study reaches the literature, and is thus available for combined analysis, depends on the results of the study.

What matters is whether the experimental results are actually used in the combined analysis, not just the question of publication. That is, the relevant process is the following sequence, in its entirety, following the initiation of the study:

1. Study is carried out to a predefined stop point.
2. All data are permanently recorded.
3. Data are reduced and analyzed.
4. A paper is written.
5. The paper is submitted to a journal.
6. The journal agrees to consider the paper.
7. The referee and author negotiate revisions.
8. The referee accepts the paper.

¹ In some fields, this is called *meta-analysis*, from the Greek *meta*, meaning behind, after, higher or beyond, and often denoting change. Its usage here presumably refers to new issues arising in the statistical analysis of combined data, such as the file-drawer effect itself. It is used, mostly in scientific terminology, to imply a kind of superior or oversight status, as in metaphysics. I prefer the more straightforward term *combined analysis*.

9. The editor accepts the paper for publication.
10. The author still wishes to publish the paper.
11. The author's institution agrees to pay page charges.
12. The paper is published.
13. The paper is located during a literature search.
14. Data from the paper are included in combined analysis.

I refer to this concatenated process loosely as *publication*, but it is obviously more complex than what is usually meant by the term. Some of the steps may seem trivial, but all are relevant. Each step involves human decisions and so may be influenced by the result of the study. Publication probability may depend on the specific conclusion,² on the size of the effect measured, and on the statistical confidence in the result.

Here is the prototype for the analyses treated here: Each of the publishable studies consists of repeated measurements of a quantity, say x . The number of measurements is, in general, different in each such study. The null hypothesis is that x is normally distributed, for example:

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma); \quad (1)$$

this notation means that the errors in x are normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ . The results of the study are reported in terms of a shifted (*i.e.*, μ is subtracted) and renormalized (*i.e.*, σ is divided out) standard normal deviate $Z = (x - \mu)/\sigma$. The null hypothesis—usually that μ is zero, one half, or some other specific value—yields

$$Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (2)$$

This normalization removes the dependence on the number of repeated measurements in the studies. In this step, it is important that σ be well estimated, often a tricky business.

A common procedure for evaluating such studies is to obtain a p value from the probability distribution $P(Z)$ and interpret it as providing the statistical significance of the result. The discussion here is confined to this approach because it has been adopted by most researchers in the relevant fields. Nonetheless, as noted by Sturrock (Sturrock, 1994, 1997) and others (Jefferys, 1990, 1995; Matthews, 1999), this procedure may yield incorrect conclusions—usually overestimating the significance of putative anomalous results. The Bayesian methodology is probably the best way to treat publication bias (Big-

² The literature of social sciences contains horror stories of journal editors and others who consider a study worthwhile only if it reaches a statistically significant, positive conclusion; that is, an equally significant rejection of a hypothesis is not considered worthwhile.

gerstaff, 1995; Biggerstaff, Tweedie, and Mengersen, 1994; Givens, Smith, and Tweedie, 1995, 1997; Tweedie *et al.*, 1996).

This section concludes with some historical notes. Science has long known the problems of biased samples. An interesting historical note (Petticrew, 1998) nominates an utterance by Diagoras of Melos in 500 BC as the first historical mention of publication bias.³ See also Dickersin and Min (1993) for other early examples of awareness of publication bias.

Publication bias is an important problem in medical studies (*e.g.*, Allison, Faith, and Gorman, 1996; Dickersin, 1997; Earleywine, 1993; Faber and Gallo, 1994; Helfenstein and Steiner, 1994; Kleijnen and Knipschild, 1992; LaFleur *et al.*, 1997; Laupacis, 1997; Persaud, 1996; Sacks *et al.*, 1983), as well as in other fields (see Bauchau, 1997; Fiske, Rintamäki, and Karvonen, 1998; Riniolo, 1997; Silvertown and McConway, 1997; and Stanton and Shadish, 1997, for examples). The negative conclusions we shall soon reach about the commonly used procedure to deal with this problem yield a discouraging picture of the usefulness of combined analysis in all of these contexts. On the other hand, the application of modern, sophisticated methods such as those listed above (see also Taylor, 2000) is encouraging.

3. The “Fail Safe File-Drawer” Calculation

Rosenthal’s influential work (Rosenthal, 1979, 1984, 1990, 1991, 1995) is widely used to set limits on the possibility that the file-drawer effect is causing a spurious result. One of the clearest descriptions of the overall problem, and certainly the most influential in the social sciences, is

researchers and statisticians have long suspected that the studies published in the behavioral sciences are a biased sample of the studies that are actually carried out... . The extreme view of this problem, the “file drawer problem,” is that the journals are filled with the 5% of the studies that show Type I errors, while the file drawers back at the lab are filled with the 95% of the studies that show nonsignificant (*e.g.*, $p > .05$) results. (Rosenthal, 1979, p. 638)

A Type I error is rejection of a true null hypothesis. (Type II is failing to reject a false one.)

This lucid description of the problem is followed by a proposed solution:

In the past, there was very little we could do to assess the net effect of studies tucked away in file drawers that did not make the magic .05 level... Now, however, although

³Early Greek sailors who escaped from shipwrecks or were saved from drowning at sea displayed portraits of themselves in a votive temple on the Aegean island of Samothrace, in thanks to Neptune. Answering a claim that these portraits are sure proof that the gods really do intervene in human affairs, Diagoras replied “Yea, but ... where are they painted that are drowned?”

no definitive solution to the problem is available, we can establish reasonable boundaries on the problem and estimate the degree of damage to any research conclusions that could be done by the file drawer problem. The fundamental idea in coping with the file drawer problem is simply to calculate the number of studies **averaging null results** that must be in the file drawers before the overall probability of a Type I error can be just brought to any desired level of significance, say $p = .05$. This number of filed studies, or the tolerance for future null results, is then evaluated for whether such a tolerance level is small enough to threaten the overall conclusion drawn by the reviewer. If the overall level of significance of the research review will be brought down to the level of *just significant* by the addition of just a few more **null results**, the finding is not resistant to the file drawer threat. (Rosenthal, 1984, p. 108) [The italic emphasis is original; I have indicated what I believe is the fundamental flaw in reasoning with boldface.]

By its very definition, the file drawer is a biased sample. In the nominal example given, it is the 95% of the studies that have 5% or greater chance of being statistical fluctuations. The mean Z in this subsample is

$$\bar{Z} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)}} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}Z_0^2}}{.95} = -0.1085. \quad (3)$$

It is not zero. As we will see below, Rosenthal's analysis explicitly assumed that $\bar{Z} = 0$ for the file-drawer sample. Because this assumption contradicts the essence of the file-drawer effect, the quantitative results are incorrect.

I now recapitulate the analysis given in Rosenthal (1984), using slightly different notation. For convenience and consistency with the literature, we refer to this as the fail-safe file-drawer, or FSFD, analysis. The basic context is a specific collection of published studies having a combined Z that is deemed to be significant, that is, the probability that the Z value is attributable to a statistical fluctuation is below some threshold, say 0.05. The question Rosenthal sought to answer is, How many members of a hypothetical set of unpublished studies have to be added to this collection to bring the mean Z down to a level considered insignificant? As argued elsewhere, this does not mirror publication bias, but this is the problem addressed.

Let N_{pub} be the number studies combined in the analysis of the published literature (Rosenthal's K), and N_{filed} be the number of studies that are unpublished, for whatever reason (Rosenthal's X). Then $N = N_{\text{pub}} + N_{\text{filed}}$ is the total number of studies carried out.

The basic relation (Equation 5.16 of Rosenthal, [1984]) is,

$$1.645 = \frac{N_{\text{pub}}\bar{Z}}{\sqrt{N}}. \quad (4)$$

This is presumably derived from

$$1.645 = \frac{N_{\text{pub}}\bar{Z} + N_{\text{filed}}\bar{Z}_{\text{filed}}}{\sqrt{N}} \quad (5)$$

i.e., an application of his method of adding weighted Z 's as in Equation 5.5 of

Rosenthal, by setting the standard normal deviate of the file drawer, $\bar{Z}_{\text{filed}} = 0$. This is incorrect for a biased file drawer. Equation 4 can be rearranged to give

$$\frac{N}{N_{\text{pub}}} = \frac{N_{\text{pub}} \bar{Z}^2}{2.706}, \quad (6)$$

which is the equation used widely in the literature, and throughout this paper, to compute FSFD estimates.

What fundamentally went wrong in this analysis, and why has it survived uncriticized for so long? First, it is simply the case that the notion of null, or insignificant results is easily confused with $\bar{Z} = 0$. While the latter implies the former, the former (which is true, in a sense, for the file drawer) does not imply the latter.

Second, the logic behind the FSFD is seductive. Pouring a flood of insignificant studies—with normally distributed Z s—into the published sample until the putative effect submerges into insignificance is a great idea. What does it mean, though? It is, indeed, a possible measure of the statistical fragility of the result obtained from the published sample. On the other hand, there are much better and more direct ways of assessing statistical significance; I do not believe that FSFD should be used even in this fashion.

Third, I believe some workers have mechanically calculated FSFD results, found that it justified their analysis or otherwise confirmed their beliefs, and were therefore not inclined to look for errors or examine the method critically. A simple thought experiment makes the threat of a publication bias with N_{filed} on the same order as N_{pub} clear: Construct a putative file-drawer sample by multiplying all published Z values by -1 ; then the total sample then has \bar{Z} exactly zero, no matter what.

The two-sided case often is raised in this context. That is to say, publication bias might mean that studies with either $Z \gg 0$ or $Z \ll 0$ are published in preference to those with small $|Z|$. This situation could be discussed, but it is a red herring in the current context (*e.g.*, Iyengar and Greenhouse, 1988). Further, none of the empirical distributions I have seen published show any hint of the bimodality that would result from this effect, including those in Radin (1997).

In addition, I first was puzzled by statements such as, FSFD analysis assesses “tolerance for future null results.” The file-drawer effect is something that has already happened by the time one is preparing a combined analysis. I concluded that such expressions are a kind of metaphor for what would happen if the studies in the file drawers were suddenly made available for analysis. But even if this imagined event were to happen, one would still be left to explain how a biased sample was culled from the total sample. It seems to me that whether the result of opening this Pandora’s file drawer is to dilute the putative effect into insignificance is of no explanatory value in this context—even if the calculation were correct.

In any case, the bottom line is that the widespread use of the FSFD to conclude that various statistical analyses are robust against the file-drawer effect

is wrong because the underlying calculation is based on an inapplicable premise. Other critical comments have been published, including Berlin (1998) and Sharpe (1997). Most important is the paper by Iyengar and Greenhouse (1988), which makes the same point but further provides an analysis that explicitly accounts for the bias (for the case of the truncated selection functions discussed in the next section). These authors note that their formulation “always yields a smaller estimate of the fail-safe sample size than does” Rosenthal’s.

4. Statistical Models

This section presents a specific model for combined analysis and the file-drawer effect operating on it. Figure 1 shows the distribution of $N = 1,000$ samples from a normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance, namely

$$G(Z) = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}Z^2}. \quad (7)$$

Publication bias means that the probability of completion of the entire

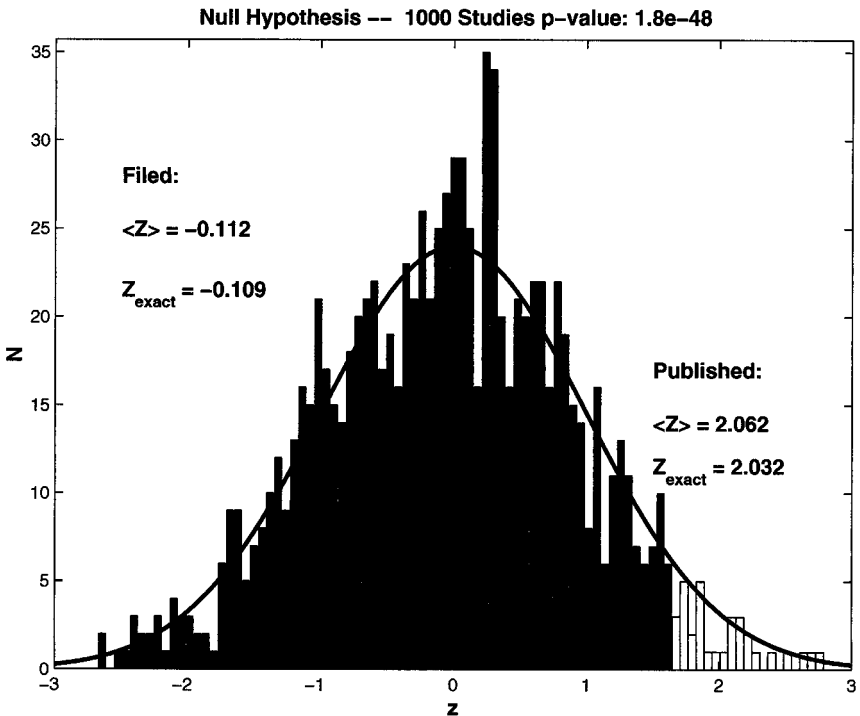


Fig. 1. Histogram corresponding to the null hypothesis: normal distribution of Z values from 1,000 independent studies. Those 5% with $Z \geq 1.645$ are published (open bars), the remainder are “tucked away in file drawers,” *i.e.*, unpublished (solid bars). Empirical and exact values of Z (cf. Equation 14) are indicated for the filed and published sets.

process detailed in Section 2 is a function of the study's reported Z . Note that I am not assuming this is the only thing that it depends on. I use the notation

$$S(Z) = \text{publication probability} \quad (8)$$

for the selection function, where $0 \leq S(Z) \leq 1$. Note $S(Z)$ is not a probability distribution over Z ; for example, its Z integral is not constrained to be 1.

This model captures what almost all authors describe as publication bias (*e.g.*, Hedges, 1992; Iyengar and Greenhouse, 1988). In view of the complexity of the full publication process (see Section 2), it is unlikely that its psychological and sociological factors can be understood and accurately modeled. I therefore regard the function S as unknowable. The approach taken here is to study the generic behavior of plausible quantitative models, with no claim to having accurate or detailed representations of actual selection functions.

Taken with the distribution $G(Z)$ in Equation 7, an assumed $S(Z)$ immediately yields three useful quantities: the number of studies published

$$N_{\text{pub}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(Z)S(Z) dZ, \quad (9)$$

the number consigned to the file drawer

$$N_{\text{filed}} = N - N_{\text{pub}}, \quad (10)$$

and the expected value of the standard normal deviate Z , averaged over the published values

$$\bar{Z} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ZG(Z)S(Z) dZ}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(Z)S(Z) dZ} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ZG(Z)S(Z) dZ}{N_{\text{pub}}}. \quad (11)$$

The denominator in the last equation takes into account the reduced size of the collection of published studies (N_{pub}) relative to the set of all studies performed (N). Absent any publication bias [*i.e.*, $S(Z) \equiv 1$] $\bar{Z} = 0$ from the symmetry of the Gaussian, as expected.

Cut Off Selection Functions

Consider first the following choice for the selection function:

$$S(Z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } Z < Z_0 \\ 1 & \text{for } Z \geq Z_0, \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where, in principle, Z_0 can have any value, but small positive numbers are of most practical interest. That is to say, studies that find an effect at or above the significance level corresponding to Z_0 are always published, whereas those that do not are never published.

Putting this into the above general expressions Equations 9 and 11 gives

$$N_{\text{pub}} = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{Z_0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}Z^2} dZ = \frac{N}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{2}} \right], \quad (13)$$

where erfc is the complementary error function. The mean Z for these published studies is

$$\bar{Z} = \frac{N}{N_{\text{pub}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{Z_0}^{\infty} Z e^{-\frac{1}{2}Z^2} dZ = \sqrt{\left[\frac{2}{\pi} \right]} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2}Z_0^2}}{\operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{2}} \right)}. \quad (14)$$

Consider the special value $Z_0 = 1.645$, corresponding to the classical 95% confidence level and obtained by solving for Z the equation

$$p = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{Z}{\sqrt{2}} \right] \quad (15)$$

(with $p = .05$). This case frequently is taken as a prototype for the file drawer (Iyengar and Greenhouse, 1988; Rosenthal, 1979). Equation 13 gives $N_{\text{pub}} = 0.05N$; that is (by design) 5% of the studies are published and 95% are not published. Equation 14 gives $\bar{Z} = 2.0622$.

Let the total number of studies, be $N = 1,000$, *i. e.*, 1,000 studies, of which 50 are published and 950 are not. We have chosen this large value for N , here and in Figure 1, for illustration, not realism. For the 50 published studies, the combined Z , namely $\sqrt{50}\bar{Z}$, in Equation 15 gives an infinitesimal p value, $\approx 10^{-48}$ —highly supportive of rejecting the null hypothesis. The FSFD estimate of the ratio of filed to published experiments (see equation 6) is about 78 for this case, an overestimate by a factor of around 4 of the true value of 19. The formula of Iyengar and Greenhouse (1988) discussed above gives 11.4 for the same ratio, an underestimate by a factor of about 1.7.

Finally, Figure 2 shows the behavior of the filed and published fractions, as a function of Z_0 , including the fraction of the studies in the file drawer predicted by FSFD analysis, given by Equation 6 above. Two things are evident from this comparison:

- The FSFD prediction is a strong function of N , whereas the true filed fraction is independent of N .
- The FSFD values are far from the truth, except accidentally at a few special values of N and Z_0 .

Step Selection Functions

Because it is zero over a significant range, the selection function considered in the previous section may be too extreme. The following generalization allows any value between zero and one for small Z :

$$S(Z) = \begin{cases} S_0 & \text{for } Z < Z_0 \\ 1 & \text{for } Z \geq Z_0 \end{cases} \quad (0 \leq S_0 \leq 1). \quad (16)$$

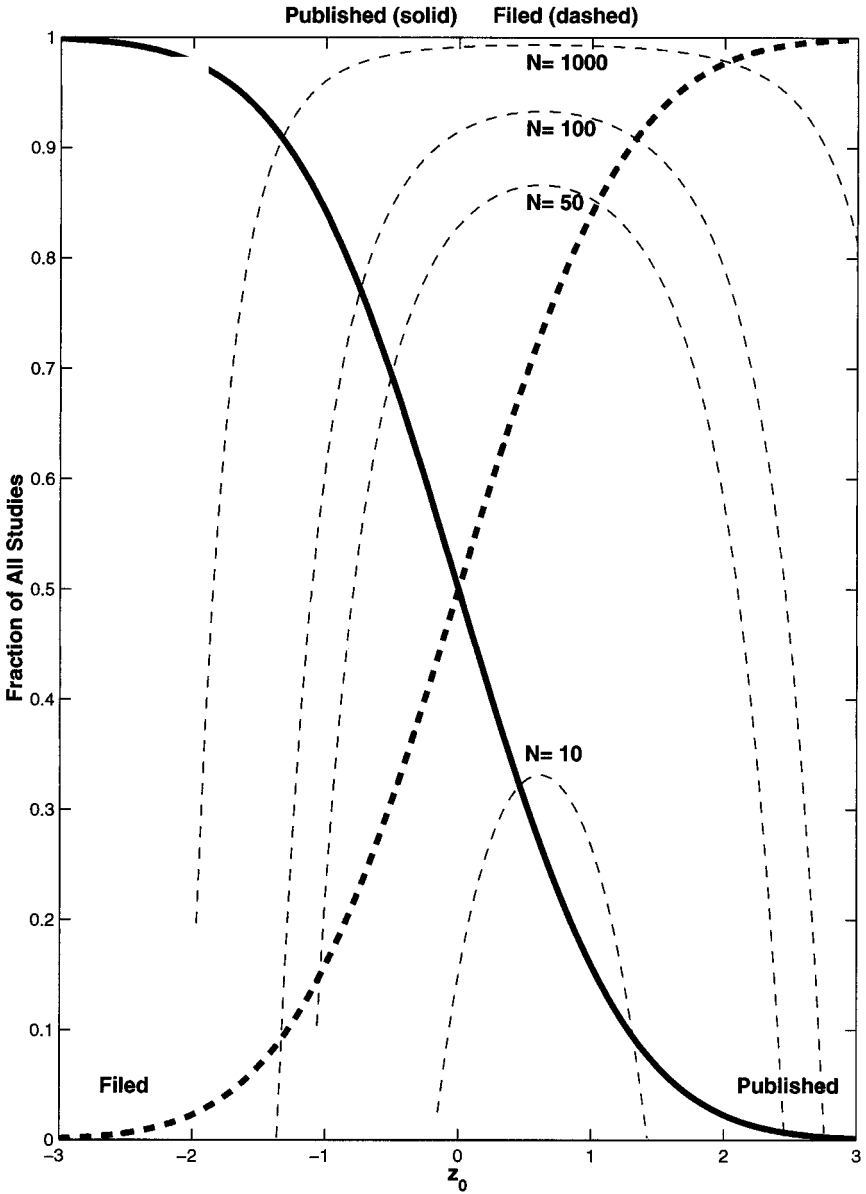


Fig. 2. Plot of the fraction of the total number of studies that are published (thick solid line) and filed (thick dashed line) in the model given by Equation 12. The FSFD predictions for the filed fraction are shown as a series of thin dashed lines, labeled by the value of N , the total number of studies carried out.

Much as before, direct integration yields

$$N_{\text{pub}} = N \left[S_0 + (1 - S_0) \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{2}} \right] \right], \quad (17)$$

and

$$\bar{Z} = (1 - S_0) \sqrt{\left[\frac{2}{\pi} \right] \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} Z_0^2}}{\operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{2}} \right)}}. \quad (18)$$

Equation 17 directly determines the ratio of the number of filed studies to the number of those published under the given selection function. The value of \bar{Z} is the quantity that would be (incorrectly) used to reject the hypothesis that there is no effect present and the sample is drawn from a normal distribution.

Figure 3 shows this function. The basic result is that almost all of the rele-

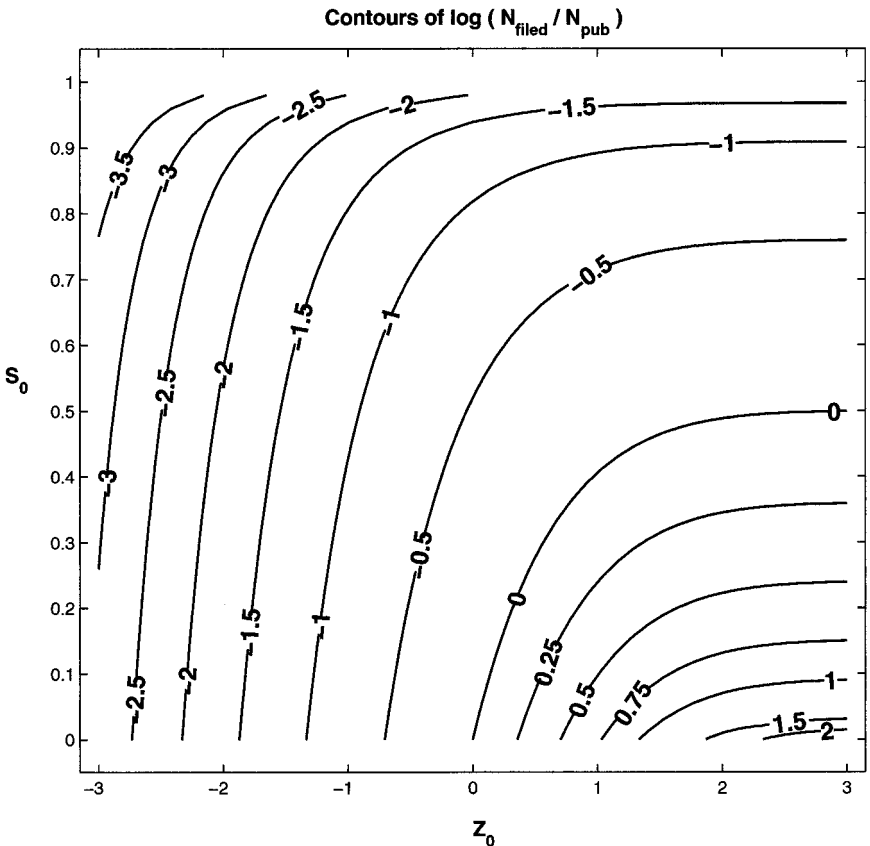


Fig. 3. This figure shows the dependence of $R \equiv N_{\text{filed}}/N_{\text{pub}}$ on the two parameters of the step selection function. Contours of $\log_{10} R$ are indicated. R is large only for a tiny region at the bottom right of this diagram.

vant part of the S_0 - Z_0 plane corresponds to a rather small number of unpublished studies. In particular, $R \gg 1$ in only a small region, namely where simultaneously $S_0 \sim 0$ and $Z_0 \gg 0$. The behavior of \bar{Z} is simple: roughly speaking

$$\bar{Z} \approx (1 - S_0)g(Z_0) \quad (19)$$

where $g(Z_0)$ is a function on the order of unity or larger for all $Z_0 > 0$. Hence, the bias brought about by even a small file drawer is large unless $S_0 \approx 1$ (to be expected, because for such values of S_0 the selection function is almost flat).

Smooth Selection Functions

It might be objected that the selection functions considered here are unreal in that they have a discrete step, at Z_0 . What matters here, however, are integrals over Z , which do not have any pathologic behavior in the presence of such steps. Nevertheless, I experimented with some smooth selection functions and found results that are completely consistent with the conclusions reached in the previous sections for step function choices.

5. Conclusions

Based on the models considered here, I conclude the following:

- Apparently significant, but actually spurious, results can arise from publication bias, with only a modest number of unpublished studies.
- The widely used fail-safe file-drawer (FSFD) analysis is irrelevant because it treats the inherently biased file drawer as unbiased and gives grossly wrong estimates of the size of the file drawer.
- Statistical combinations of studies from the literature can be trusted to be unbiased only if there is reason to believe that there are essentially no unpublished studies (almost never the case!).

It is hoped that these results will discourage combined (“meta”) analyses based on selection from published literature but encourage methodology to control publication bias, such as the establishment of registries (to try to render the probability of publication unity once a study is proposed and accepted in the registry).

The best prospects for establishing conditions under which combined analysis might be reasonable even in the face of possible publication bias seem to lie in a fully Bayesian treatment of this problem (Givens, Smith, and Tweedie, 1997; Smith, Givens, and Tweedie, 1999; Sturrock, 1994, 1997). It is possible that the approach discussed in Radin and Nelson (1989) can lead to improved treatment of publication bias, but one must be cautious when experimenting with *ad hoc* distributions and be aware that small errors in fitting the tail of a distribution can be multiplied by extrapolation to the body of the distribution.

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- Application of a Bayesian method for assessing publication bias to studies of the possible effects of oral contraceptive use on the incidence of cervical cancer. They conclude that publication bias, probably caused by the explicit disregard of “low quality” studies, yielded a spurious statistical connection between oral contraceptive use and the incidence of cervical cancer in a previous study.
- Hedges, L. V. (1992). Modeling publication selection effects in meta-analysis. *Statistical Science*, *7*, 246–255.
- Interesting overview, with comments on the nature of the publishing process and results that are “not statistically significant.” Introduces a quantitative model for publication bias that is much like that given here and offers a quantitative test for the presence of publication bias.
- Helpfenstein, U., & Steiner, M. (1994). Fluoride varnishes (Duraphat): A meta-analysis. *Community Dentistry and Oral Epidemiology*, *22*, 1–5.
- The authors apply the FSFD method to a combined analysis of studies designed to detect the cavity-preventive effect of a fluoride varnish called Duraphat. Application of the FSFD method yields the conclusion (unwarranted, based on my conclusions) that “It is very unlikely that underreporting of non-significant results could reverse the conclusion into an overall null-result.”
- Iyengar, S., & Greenhouse, J. B. (1988). Selection models and the file-drawer problem. *Statistical Science*, *3*, 109–135.
- An excellent overview and nearly definitive study using much the same selection function approach as used here, reaching more or less the same critical conclusions. In addition, these authors’ Equation 4 offers a presumably improved basis for the FSFD estimate. The paper is followed by extensive comments by Larry Hedges; Robert Rosenthal and Donald Rubin; Nan Laird, G. Patil and C. Tailie; M. Bayarri; C. Radhakrishna Rao; and William DuMouchel—all followed by a rejoinder from Iyengar and Greenhouse. Much of this discussion seems to evade the simple issue raised here.

- Jefferys, W. H. (1990). Bayesian analysis of random event generator data. *Journal of Scientific Exploration*, 4, 153–169.
This excellent paper criticizes the classical use and interpretation of “*p* values” in the analysis of data from psychic random number generator experiments and argues for a Bayesian alternative.
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Incisive comments on the meaning of “*p* values.”
- Kleijnen, J., & Knipschild, P. (1992). Review articles and publication bias. *Arzneimittel Forschung/Drug Research*, 42, 587–591.
Overview of publication bias in drug research.
- Laupacis, A. (1997). Methodological studies of systematic reviews: Is there publication bias? *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 157, 357–358.
Brief suggestion that publication bias should be considered in medical research.
- Matthews, Robert A. J. (1999). Significance levels for the assessment of anomalous phenomena. *Journal of Scientific Exploration*, 13, 1–7.
- Persaud, R. (1996). Studies of ventricular enlargement. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 53, 1165.
Criticism of a combined study of ventricular enlargement in patients with mood disorders for misinterpretation of the results of a FSPD calculation. In the case at issue, a “fail-safe *N*” of 10 results for an analysis with 11 studies. The closing statement, “A few studies that are highly significant, even when their combined *P* value is significant, may well be misleading because only a few unpublished, or yet to be published, studies could change the combined significant result to a nonsignificant result.” seems to capture what people must have in mind for the significance of the FSPD computation.
- Petticrew, M. (1998). Diagoras of Melos (500 BC): An early analyst of publication bias. *The Lancet*, 352, 1558.
- Radin, D. I. (1997). *The conscious universe: The scientific truth of psychic phenomena*. New York: HarperEdge.
A number of combined studies are displayed and offered as evidence for the reality of psychic phenomena. The possibility that these results are spurious and attributable to publication bias is considered and then rejected because the FSPD calculation yields huge values for the putative file drawer. It is my opinion that, for the reasons described here, these values are meaningless and that publication bias may well be responsible for the positive results derived from combined studies.
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- Riniolo, T. C. (1997). Publication bias: A computer-assisted demonstration of excluding non-significant results from research interpretation. *Teaching of Psychology*, 24, 279–282.
Describes an educational software system that allows students to perform statistical experiments to study the effects of publication bias.
- Rosenthal, R. (1978). Combining results of independent studies. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85, 185–193.
Comprehensive and influential (158 references) analysis of the statistics of combined studies.
- Rosenthal, R. (1979). The “file drawer problem” and tolerance for null results. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86, 638–641.
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- Rosenthal, R. (1984). *Applied Social Research Methods Series, Vol. 6. Meta-analytic procedures for social research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
The treatment of the file-drawer effect (Chapter 5, Section II.B) is essentially identical to that in Rosenthal (1979).
- Rosenthal, R. (1990). Replication in behavioral research. In Handbook of replication research in the behavioral and social sciences [Special issue]. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 5, 1–30.

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- Rosenthal, R. (1991). Meta-analysis: A review. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, *53*, 247–271.
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- Sacks, H. S., Reitman, D., Chalmers, T. C., & Smith, H., Jr. (1983). The effect of unpublished studies (the file drawer problem) on decisions about therapeutic efficacy. *Clinical Research* [abstract], *31*, 236.
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- Sharpe, D. (1997). Of apples and oranges, file drawers and garbage: Why validity issues in meta-analysis will not go away. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *17*, 881–901.
This is an extensive review of a number of problems in combined analysis and includes an extensive critical discussion of the FSFD approach, commenting that the rule behind it is arbitrary, but falling short of saying that the method is wrong.
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Short commentary on publication bias in biology. The authors mention several techniques for studying the presence and scope of publication bias and generally downplay the seriousness of the problem.
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