

Cultural Problems Cannot Be Solved with Technical Solutions Alone

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Abstract

A crisis in psychology has provoked researchers to seek remedies for bad practices that might damage the integrity of the discipline as a whole. The ardor for wholesale reform has led to a suite of proposed technical solutions, some of which are considered in the context of computational modeling by the target article. Any technical solution, however, must be placed within a larger cultural and scientific context to be effective (or, indeed, meaningful at all). Many of the suggestions presented in the target article represent good practice in computational cognitive modeling but, even then, still require some amount of nuance in the consideration of the relationship between practice and theory. We consider two examples—model preregistration and bookending—as a means of examining the limits of any proposed technical solution.

Keywords

In moments of crisis, people are willing to hand over a great deal of power to anyone who claims to have a magic cure. . . — Naomi Klein, *The Shock Doctrine* (2007)

In 2010, the year before the allegations against Diederik Stapel surfaced (see the report by the Levelt et al. 2012) and the publication of Bem's *JPSP* article on the putative existence of ESP (Bem 2011), popular science writer Jonah Lehrer (2010) noted a worrying trend for apparently real effects in psychology and elsewhere to evaporate with time. This observation was followed by specific failures to replicate effects within social priming (Harris et al. 2013; Shanks et al. 2013) and, then, much more general failures to replicate effects across psychology as a whole. The Open Science Collaboration (2015) found, in line with Lehrer's observation, that the number of statistically significant results fell from 97 to 36% upon replication.¹

¹Ironically, Lehrer himself later resigned from the *New Yorker* after fabricating Bob Dylan quotes to support the argument of his book *Imagine*, lending some support towards the idea that, whatever cultural issue that causes novelty to be preferred over evidence is at play, it is not solely located within science, let alone psychology.

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That cluster of apparently negative outcomes—and similar incidents in the intervening period—has led to a flurry of commentary and introspection attempting to anatomize and remedy the set of problems. Many of the potential solutions focus on introducing mechanisms of additional conformity at a technical level: among them, a revolution of widespread preregistration (Nosek et al. 2018) or merit badges (Kidwell et al. 2016) or making null hypothesis significance testing uniformly more conservative (Benjamin et al. 2018).

In the current issue, the target article by Lee and colleagues (Lee et al. *in press*) provides a number of technical solutions as they may pertain specifically to computational and mathematical modeling within psychology. We agree that each of the proposed measures has clear utility, when applied appropriately and thoughtfully, but also wish to express reservations about the general purpose nature of such solutions, particularly any solution pitched at a purely technical level. The solutions proposed in the target article include the use of a combination of qualitative and quantitative benchmarks against which to test models, the use of multiple data sets to test a model's generalizability, the use of multiple fit indices to ensure the robustness of conclusions, and the use of cross-validation and out-of-sample prediction to guard against overfitting. Different subsets of these techniques would be understood by most researchers as hallmarks of good modeling in psychology as it is currently practiced (see, for instance, Heathcote et al. 2015) but each represents an intervention in the technical side of scientific practice that may collectively lead to improvements

47 in the way inferences are drawn from data, but leave the
48 underlying cultural issues unaddressed.

49 Advocacy, by its general nature, can be one-sided in
50 its presentation: it operates from putting forth a strong
51 position in response to a perceived problem, but often
52 must leave any considerations which might moderate that
53 position and might establish parameters on the candidate
54 solution to others. This becomes a problem when these
55 solutions are actually applied in practice, and becomes
56 a particular problem when that advocacy is invoked in
57 tandem with a singular conception of what constitutes “good
58 science” or “ideal practice.” To offer an example: the broad
59 catch-cry of “increase your sample size,” reasonable when
60 “sample size” is interpreted as “the number of observations”
61 available, was interpreted by some—largely in the review
62 of psychophysical papers—as being confined to increasing
63 the total number of individual participants, which led to the
64 article by Smith and Little (2018). The transformation of a
65 very minimal good faith prescription (collect more data!)
66 into an injunction (small N research is not worth publishing)
67 reflects a cultural problem that has remained intact despite
68 efforts to frame the problem in technical terms, namely in
69 terms of reducing the number of underpowered studies.

70 What is true for sample size is likely also true for other
71 kinds of methodological advocacy, such as the target arti-
72 cle’s advocacy of a sharper distinction between exploratory
73 and confirmatory modeling studies. Like prescriptions
74 about sample size, proposals of this nature tend to become
75 divorced from any qualifications and caveats that accom-
76 panied them when they were first made, through no fault
77 of the advocates themselves. This is especially so when
78 attempts are made to codify a given set of ideas about good
79 practice within the editorial and reviewing standards of jour-
80 nals. While well-intended, these attempts can result in a set
81 of restrictive prescriptions that frustrate the very ends they
82 were seeking to promote.

83 In this response, we wish to discuss two proposals of
84 the target article, model preregistration and bookending,
85 as solutions that can be powerful but do not sidestep the
86 consideration and judgement of scientists operating in good
87 faith and must always be subordinated to the question of
88 whether the procedure naturally aligns with the question
89 being asked.

90 Preregistration, or, the Procrustean Bargain

91 The interplay between model construction and testing
92 against data is explored in the target article through the
93 lens of preregistration, registered model reports, and “blind

94 modeling.”² These concepts, and particularly modeling
95 preregistration, import the larger conversation within
96 psychology about the potential benefits of widespread
97 preregistration (Nosek et al. 2018) into a computational
98 modeling framework. Without doubt, preregistration is a
99 useful methodological tool. Its efficacy in some settings
100 is unquestionable: Kaplan and Irvin (2015) noted a
101 large change in the number of positive results reported
102 in randomized clinical trials from before and after the
103 year 2000 with the introduction of preregistration at
104 ClinicalTrials.gov, going from 57% of studies with non-null
105 effects prior to 2000 to only 8% afterwards.

106 This example, however, also highlights some of the
107 limits of preregistration when taken as a general normative
108 model for science. A clinical trial is undertaken when the
109 substantive science is complete: it would be worrying to
110 learn something dramatically new about an intervention
111 being administered to human subjects at the point of a
112 clinical trial. That regime also tends to be very well suited
113 to null hypothesis significance testing, in the sense that
114 intervention efficacy, rather than process, is all that matters.
115 The actual execution of any preregistered plan should be,
116 in the best case, “dumb,” in that running a preregistered
117 study should resolve to the rote implementation of a fully
118 specified procedure in a way that does not require the
119 intervention of a scientist, but can be handled by any
120 technician (or, better, an automated script on a computer).

121 Most science, and most modeling in particular, does not
122 readily fit this frame. Aside from proven cases, such as
123 clinical trials, or areas with a known propensity of ques-
124 tionable practices—where “registered reports” provide an
125 appropriate way to enforce a methodological “firewall”
126 between initial assumptions and final results—most science,
127 and most modeling in particular, requires scientific judge-
128 ment. Even rigorous, well-specified models are confronted
129 with ancillary assumptions or unanticipated design ques-
130 tions. Some of these assumptions are interesting, in that
131 they may lead to a theoretically useful insight, and some are

²We think postregistration is a useful idea. Many modelers will have been frustrated by editors asking them to remove material detailing the full range of model variants they considered because it is seen as dry and indigestible. But we worry that the effort required to do justice to postregistration as envisaged in the target article means it is an idea that will be honored mainly in the breach. Postregistration is tantamount to the requirement that modeling studies be accompanied by substantial supplementary materials sections. Laboratory notebooks are usually aides memoire for researchers rather than public records intended to communicate to others. The effort required by authors, reviewers, and editors to turn them into truly useful adjuncts to scientific practice should not be underestimated.

132 just lapses in foresight. Among the discourse of those advoc- 182
 133 ating for preregistration as a general movement, however, 183
 134 the difference between “predictions” in the mode of, say, 184
 135 cross-validation (i.e., a single data format is obtained and a 185
 136 single set of algorithms are used for producing predictions) 186
 137 and “prediction” in a broader sense of substantive theoret- 187
 138 ical consequences (e.g., relativity predicting gravitational 188
 139 waves even though the design and operation of LIGO would 189
 140 have been entirely unknown to Einstein) is somewhat elided. 190
 141 That distinction is, however, critical: one type of prediction 191
 142 is rote to implement, obviates any need for the scientist to 192
 143 intervene, and fits neatly within a totally prespecified frame- 193
 144 work, and the other requires substantial theoretical work that 194
 145 would be difficult—if not impossible—to fully anticipate. 195

146 Indeed, even in cases where an apparently “confirma- 196
 147 tory” frame is used, preregistration may not add much more 197
 148 over sufficiently well-developed model comparisons. Con- 198
 149 sider two recent and (to our minds) theoretically interesting 199
 150 cases: first, the possible existence of “collapsing bound- 200
 151 aries” in sequential-sampling models, where the response 201
 152 thresholds change as a function of time, and, second, the 202
 153 underlying structure of representations within visual work- 203
 154 ing memory. In both cases, the literature as a whole con- 204
 155 verged upon a particular set of candidate models where 205
 156 distinct predictions for certain tasks could be made. 206

157 On the question of collapsing boundaries, Hawkins 207
 158 et al. (2015) used nine different datasets, from humans 208
 159 and nonhuman primates, to indicate that the participant 209
 160 populations and the way in which the studies were 210
 161 conducted had a strong effect on whether boundaries 211
 162 appeared to collapse or not. They found that the majority 212
 163 of human participants exhibited strong support for the 213
 164 standard diffusion model with an unchanging response 214
 165 boundaries, judged using an approximation to posterior 215
 166 model probabilities based upon the BIC, but it may 216
 167 be affected by practice or the way that rewards are 217
 168 administered. On the question of visual working memory 218
 169 structure, van den Berg et al. (2014) formulated a variety 219
 170 of different models that combined alternative assumptions 220
 171 about the structure and capacity of memory and examined 221
 172 data from ten published continuous report experiments from 222
 173 different laboratories. They found that the best model— 223
 174 judged in terms of AIC—was one in which the quality and 224
 175 number of items within memory varied across trials, but 225
 176 that the memory system did not itself have an item-capacity 226
 177 limit. 227

178 Because the class of scientifically interesting models 228
 179 is not closed, neither of these studies represents the last 229
 180 word on the questions they sought to address, but both 230
 181 made important contributions to their respective literatures. 231

Neither study was preregistered and, to our way of thinking, 182
 neither suffered as a result. In either instance, the scientific 183
 credibility of the study is inherent in its own internal logic, 184
 with the close correspondence between theory and analysis, 185
 rather than whether the procedures that were used and the 186
 alternatives that were considered were graven in stone prior 187
 to seeing the data. In both studies, the researchers laid out 188
 a set of alternative models that made differing predictions 189
 in relation to the overarching research question and then 190
 established the generality of the finding by applying the 191
 models to a number of different data sets. Importantly, both 192
 studies addressed the issues of replicability and generality as 193
 a natural part of ordinary scientific practice. Contrary to the 194
 views of the preregistration movement, it makes no sense to 195
 dismiss the studies prior to these as “merely exploratory,” 196
 and to accord these studies special status as “confirmatory” 197
 (a feeling conveyed by, e.g., Wagenmakers et al. 2012). 198
 Rather the confirmation focus grows organically out of the 199
 exploration focus at a time when competing claims emerge 200
 that need to be adjudicated. No reform is needed because the 201
 ordinary practice of scientific inquiry and debate naturally 202
 concentrates the research effort in the places where it is 203
 required. In both these cases, the literature as a whole 204
 had converged upon a set of competing models that had 205
 been supported by previous research. The studies sought to 206
 adjudicate between the competing models in a systematic 207
 way by applying them to multiple data sets collected under 208
 a variety of different conditions by different investigators in 209
 different laboratories. 210

211 Other suggestions in the target article, like blinding, 211
 212 work to emphasize this dichotomy between exploration 212
 and confirmation, and imply that confirmation is somehow 213
 preferable. But good science, and good current modeling 214
 practice, involves an organic mix of exploration and 215
 confirmation—a mix that resists categorization as wholly 216
 one or the other. When these practices form some sort 217
 of normative framework of scientific inquiry—however 218
 minimal that framework might appear—questions about 219
 how to thoughtfully diverge from that dichotomy or how 220
 to pursue other means of scientific progress become much 221
 more difficult to prosecute. 222

**Bookending, or, Judging Model Fits by Their 223
 Cover 224**

225 In providing a definition of “bookending,” the authors of the 225
 226 target article preface their discussion with a comment that 226
 227 model comparison is inherently relative. This is true, but in 227
 228 a trivial way: if model comparison is the act of comparing 228

229 two or more models, then it must be, by definition, relative.
 230 However, construed slightly more broadly, one could say that
 231 model comparison also encompasses the act of comparing
 232 the model to the data in some sort of absolute sense: Does
 233 the model provide an adequate sense of the data obtained?

234 Typically, the difficulties involved in assessing absolute
 235 fit arise because of the presence in data of theoretically
 236 unimportant, unmodeled sources of variability, such as those
 237 that violate the independent, identically distributed random
 238 variables assumption on which classical likelihood-based
 239 statistics depend. However, the solution to these difficulties
 240 is not to recast the problem as one of assessing relative
 241 rather than absolute fit. When using routine procedures to
 242 assess the relative performance of members of a set of
 243 candidate models, it is very easy to lose sight of the more
 244 pertinent question of absolute model performance.³

245 Both relative and absolute model performance require a
 246 judgement call about which variance in the experimental
 247 data is important. An experiment in which the precession
 248 of a top on desk is measured will not fully conform to the
 249 calculations of force computed from a Newtonian analysis
 250 of gravity and the angular momentum directly applied to
 251 the top; an experiment in which the precession of the
 252 perihelion of mercury is measured will not fully conform to
 253 calculations of force computed from a Newtonian analysis
 254 of gravity and the angular momentum applied directly to
 255 the planet. Unfortunately, the apparently parallel failure of
 256 theory in those cases reflects wholly different outcomes for
 257 science. Adequately explaining the latter case involves a
 258 consideration of relativity, and this consideration reformed
 259 our understanding of the universe; adequately explaining
 260 the former case might involve a consideration of air drag or
 261 thermal convection, and this consideration would reform our
 262 understanding of the air conditioner in the room. When none
 263 of the models being compared fit the data in an absolute
 264 sense (as is the case in the authors' Figure 2), then the
 265 "meaning" of the errors remains unknown: i.e., is the failure
 266 of the model due to the universal gravitational constant or
 267 the air conditioning?

268 That parts of observed variance are not equal in terms of
 269 scientific interest is no revelation to people who deal closely
 270 with specifying and testing models, but it does hamper
 271 any stronger normative expectations about how science
 272 ought to conduct itself. Even the formulation of a null
 273 model beyond simple standard sampling distributions—
 274 which are often maligned as being radically implausible in
 275 psychology (as argued by, e.g., Meehl 1990, 1997; Lykken
 276 1968)—requires consideration about the interesting and
 277 uninteresting components of variation. The solution to this
 278 problem is exactly the kind of informal and distributed
 279 negotiation that occurs in science: iterative steps, punctuated

by creative leaps, which inform the set of models and
 variants that scientists consider interesting.

Where some bookends might be readily apparent, others
 require just as much consideration as what might be
 considered theoretically substantive models (because, in
 effect, they are theoretically substantive models) and the
 process of making them useful often requires the same sort
 of close consideration of underlying processes and data that
 makes fully specifying them in advanced difficult in all but
 a limited number of cases. Stronger versions of Bayesian
 model averaging and selection which require explicit prior
 probabilities placed on models themselves raise even more
 complex issues along these lines: how should one deal not
 only with the fact that not all models are included within the
 candidate set (so-called \mathcal{M} -open scenarios; see, Bernardo
 and Smith 1994; Vehtari and Ojanen 2012) but also with
 the fact that the candidate set might (and probably should)
 change from the model specification a priori to subsequent
 observations of data. Even a strong methodological firewall
 between model specification and data collection is difficult
 to reconcile with the natural progression of scientifically
 interesting models.

Truth on the Installment Plan

There is no way, in our mind, to legislate bad science
 out of existence. Our view is that the issues that plague
 psychological science at the moment—those outside of
 simple bad faith fabrication and fraud—are, at a broad level,
 issues with an incentive structure that pushes individuals to
 produce substantive conclusions where none are licensed.⁴
 The problem with this scenario is not, generally speaking,
 the statistics themselves, but the gap between the statistics,
 the properties of measurement, and the mental model within
 the researcher about how these two things relate (Smith and
 Little 2018).

As such, the success or failure of any intervention designed
 to make science "good" or "robust" is not necessarily
 located within the technical or methodological rigor of that
 intervention, but rather the relationship between the types
 of questions researchers wish to ask and answer, and the
 tools they have at their disposal. Our sense is that technical
 interventions are not "good" or "robust" in isolation, but

⁴In making our counterargument, we do not seek to provide cover for
 bad actors, but rather, think that it is just as likely that those acting in
 bad faith will find a way to game the preregistration system, potentially
 by making incomplete or late preregistrations, just as they have the
 null hypothesis significance testing one. The solution is as it has
 always been: skepticism, peer review, and due diligence in examining
 published claims. Modeling helps in this endeavor because, in most
 cases, the outcome of a model is easily reproduced by pushing a button
 on a computer. This is naturally why we are in full agreement with
 authors' desire to promote openness and sharing of materials and code.

³This is a point made beautifully by Navarro (2019) within this journal.

321 are useful only in the sense that they align well, that
 322 is to say naturally, with the questions that researchers
 323 wish to answer.⁵ Modeling often has the sense of jointly
 324 discovering the question when trying to formulate the
 325 answer: it is a creative act and one that does not often neatly
 326 fall into the category of “exploration” or “confirmation.”
 327 Consider, for instance, the work of Marr (1982), who
 328 detailed a computational theory of how three-dimensional
 329 representations might be derived from a retinal image,
 330 or Anderson (1990), who examined cognitive phenomena
 331 such as categorization and memory by proposing behavioral
 332 functions that would provide the optimal solution in a given
 333 environment to some larger adaptive goal. These represent
 334 some of the key contributions made within psychology
 335 as works of theory-building, and works in which the
 336 labels “exploration” or “confirmation” do not apply in any
 337 meaningful way. The need to force research into categories
 338 in which the intentions of the researcher do not neatly align
 339 with the method provides the outline for the next crisis.

340 The creative aspect of science *is* science. When
 341 Rutherford said, (in)famously, that all science outside of
 342 physics was “stamp-collecting,” he painted a world in
 343 which all the useful, creative, vital enterprise of science
 344 was the privilege of physicists, and derogated everything
 345 else as just confirmatory box ticking. When students
 346 learn, in their advanced undergraduate years, probability
 347 modeling outside of the null hypothesis significance testing
 348 framework, we often witness their relief in realizing that
 349 there is an escape from a type of conformity which aims to
 350 put the richness of their experimental and theoretical ideas
 351 into molds well suited to split-plot agronomy or clinical
 352 trials. That introduction to modeling provides the first look
 353 at a larger language with which they can more clearly,
 354 more neatly express their theoretical ideas. That language of
 355 expression and the ways it can be applied has limitations, to
 356 be sure, but the closer alignment between theoretical ideas
 357 and their formal expression leads to a stronger coupling
 358 between intention and practice, and a sharper distinction
 359 where the two diverge.

⁵This is also one reason why we cannot, despite all of the limitations of null hypothesis significance testing and its applications in the wild, bring ourselves to endorse abandoning statistical significance entirely. Although it was never intended as such, we could see the wholesale abrogation of a type of statistical inference, either as a piece of advice for the field or as a directive at the journal-level, as tending in the direction of the same all-or-none thinking as individual scientists misusing statistical significance testing in the first place: the kind of cargo cult science that inappropriately identifies that a statistical procedure can provide some license to make inferential statements without understanding the mechanism by which it does so. At worst, it leads people away from an opportunity to gain a nuanced understanding of the limitations of any particular approach to statistical inference to once again promote a regime where understanding is unnecessary, only a set of imperatives are worth understanding; simply put, it replaces the cookbook with the rulebook.

The tools offered by the target article, we believe, are 360
 useful insofar as they allow researchers more expressive, 361
 more precise ways of expressing the ideas they wish to 362
 investigate, and more rigorous ways to pursue those ideas. 363
 But their utility and applicability is easy to overestimate. 364
 No procedure provides privileged access to an otherwise 365
 unseen realm of truth. The authors of the target article have 366
 been careful in discussing caveats and exceptions in their 367
 discussion of suggestions for reform. We hope that authors, 368
 reviewers, and journal editors will be open to new tools and 369
 techniques, while remaining mindful to the pitfalls of their 370
 uncritical application. 371

Acknowledgments Thank you to David Wakeham, Christina van 372
 Heer, David Sewell, Jason Zhou, and Elle Pattenden for their 373
 thoughtful comments and questions. 374

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