The John Massengale Paper

RESEARCH QUALITY; A COLLECTIVE ENDEAVOR

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Shifflett. An allegory published nearly 60 years ago titled ‘Chaos in the Brickyard’ (Forscher, 1963) spoke to the decline in the quality of research. In the intervening time, greater awareness of the issues and actions to improve research have emerged. Still, problems persist. This paper is intended to clarify some of the challenges, particularly with respect to quantitative research, then suggest ways the academe can contribute, in concrete ways, to the improvement of the quality of published research. The paper highlights where feasible refinements in research design and analytical techniques can be made and provides a guide to fundamental principles related to data analysis in research.

Key Words: research design, data analysis, quantitative research

Introduction

Forscher’s (1963) allegory portrayed scientists as builders constructing edifices (theory) by assembling bricks (facts). As the story ‘Chaos in the Brickyard’ explains, the original pride in producing bricks of the highest quality to facilitate the creation of solid edifices gave way to simply making bricks. “Unfortunately, the builders were almost destroyed. It became difficult to find the proper bricks for a task because one had to hunt among so many” (Forscher, 1963, p. 339). The ripple effect of this piece can be observed through faculty who continue to introduce their students to this commentary in order to elicit an awareness of significant design and analysis issues in research. Faculty members (from wide-ranging disciplines) may take the discussion in a particular direction (e.g., ethics, data integrity, reporting bias); yet the overall impact has likely been that students become more familiar with the problematic nature of published work than they would have been. In fact, in the author’s experience, students often realize for the first time that published work might be flawed after reading ‘Chaos in the Brickyard’. Forscher’s allegory provides a springboard for faculty to continue the dialogue with their students and an opportunity for researchers to reflect on the status of published research today.

Turning attention then to the identification of problems along with possible strategies to address areas where publications fall short can help guide efforts to improve the quality of research and its subsequent publication. Hence, this paper seeks to focus on the foundational elements of quantitative research in order to emphasize the importance of basic principles pertaining to research design, descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics. The intention is to compile a resource that weaves together content from disparate texts and articles in a manner that supports faculty and advances discussions that address ongoing efforts to improve the quality of research.

Issues and challenges

Awareness of the wide range of issues related to the quality of publications has certainly been raised
Through academic journal publications (Fischman, 2011; Knudson, 2009; Weed, 2006) and the media in general (Bower, 2013; Chwe, 2014; Kolata, 2013; Lamb, 2013; Weins, 2014). Researchers note that what continues to be a problem, and perhaps a more pronounced one since Forscher’s (1963) publication, is the proliferation of research of questionable quality (Bauerlein, Gad-el-Hak, Grody, McKelvey & Trimble, 2010). It is important to make a distinction at this point between the proliferation of weak research and the proliferation of data. The problem is not the explosion of available data, often referred to as ‘big data’. Big data are here to stay and researchers are beginning to understand how best to capture and use such data to good effect. A particularly good example is the work done by Silver (2012) in analyzing large volumes of data to predict election results. His success lent credibility and respect to an analytical approach to practical problem solving. The visibility of this quantitative work provided an opportunity to garner support for quantitative research. Its ongoing good reputation as a valuable resource can build public confidence in other arenas, provided publications possess comparable credibility and quality.

Consider the point made by Bauerlein et al., (2010) that the “amount of redundant, inconsequential, and outright poor research has swelled in recent decades” (p. 1). Taken as a call to change the landscape, it is a challenge worth tackling. The situation has a particularly negative impact on everyone involved when one considers the time required by researchers to read and evaluate volumes of published work to determine its relevance, quality, and connection to their own projects, in addition to the time invested in having the work assessed by editors and reviewers. A related problem is the proliferation of online journals that appear to publish work without genuine peer review or consideration of the quality of the research, provided a fee is paid by the author (Beall, 2013; Kolata, 2013). The expansion of new open-access online publication venues does increase the opportunity for the expedient distribution of research. The challenge for the researcher becomes identifying reputable online journals from among so many. A confluence of ongoing pressures on faculty to publish combined with the predatory nature of a growing number of publishers of questionable integrity may be exacerbating the ‘chaos in the brickyard’. When the field becomes littered with poor quality research the task of finding solid work to build on becomes a challenge.

Bias and Fragmentation

Among the issues that frequently receive attention is bias. For example, selection bias is the practice, often associated with government agencies, businesses, and the pharmaceutical industry, of being selective in reporting research/evidence to the point where findings are misrepresented. Similarly, reporting bias is the predisposition to give less attention to, choose not to submit for review, or not publish work with ‘negative’ results (Editorial commentary, 2007; Pigott, Valentine, Polanin, Williams & Canada, 2013). Such bias could lead to conclusions that treatments are more useful than if research with both significant and non-significant findings were viewed as relevant. One indication of the problematic situation is the observation by Ioannidis (2005) that data mining resources are publicized for their capacity to identify significant results. This puts at the top of the list of priorities finding something (anything) significant rather than identifying and exploring important and relevant questions. One additional issue in this category is confirmation bias. This pertains to giving less scrutiny to results in line with expectations. Picture the deep and probing review of data entry, error checking, and appraisal of analytical procedures that might ensue when findings of a completely unexpected nature occur. Does that same level of scrutiny take place when findings are in line with expectations? If not, the likelihood that confirmation bias may lead to the perpetuation of inaccurate findings is cause for concern.

Another problematic practice is the piecemeal or fragmented publication of research findings. Referred to by Fischman (2011) as ‘salami science’, it is the practice of publishing multiple articles all derived from one study which can misrepresent the extent to which findings are statistically significant. It also gives the illusion of greater breadth and depth of study in an area than has actually taken place. While researchers have recommended the use of meta-analysis to better assemble all the various studies in
an area (Altman, 2012; Knudson, 2009; Weed, 2005; Weed, 2006), the original problem of having it appear that multiple independent studies have been conducted remains.

Research Methods and Data Analysis

Two of the issues raised in Forscher’s story are equally important. The first was the lament that few aspired to be builders. The second was that the poor quality of numerous bricks would inhibit progress. Theory development and testing that emerges from theory-driven questions designed to extend the knowledge base are important (Achterberg, Novak, & Gillespie, 1985; Eisenhardt, 1989; Walshe, 2007) and builders that take us in this direction are needed. Equally important in Forscher’s (1963) story, and relevant today, is the need for bricks of the highest quality. Some of those bricks will not necessarily be theory-based yet they can probe important questions that need exploration. It takes both builders and brick makers to advance our understanding in any discipline. This section focuses on the elements of basic research that impact the quality of the research produced which can subsequently facilitate, or inhibit, if of poor quality, the work of theory building.

With respect to methodological and analytical issues, the critique of research includes questionable research practices such as data manipulation, selectively altering variables, and reshaping hypotheses to support data (O’Boyle, Banks, & Gonzalez-Mulé, 2017), and how statistics are used (Bartlett, 2013; Franks & Huck, 1986; Knudson, 2009; Marteniuk & Bertram, 1999; Seife, 2011; Seife, 2014; Taleb, 2014; Vaisrub, 1991). Building quantitative research skills in the process of honing scientific literacy could prove valuable in resolving some of the problems associated with the design of research projects and subsequent application of statistics to analyze research data.

Psychometrics

The term psychometrics refers to validity, reliability, and when observations are the data source, objectivity. They can be applied to both research and data. As Claydon (2015) noted, in addition to the importance of analytical work to convey the impact of research findings beyond statistical significance (e.g., effect size), design considerations related to the internal and external validity of the research remain important when considering research rigor. With regard to the validity of research, examining internal and external validity are the key elements. Internal validity is a matter of considering the extent to which findings can be attributed to the independent variable while external validity is about the generalizability of the findings. The reliability of research is focused on the replicability of findings. Good practice calls on the researcher to consider what the threats to internal validity, external validity, and reliability (or objectivity when observations are the source of the data) of the research might be and establish protocols for data collection that minimize the threats (Brown, 2015; Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 2010). On this point, the methods section of most publications provides sufficient detail for readers to assess the quality of the research. More problematic is lack of attention to reporting the psychometric characteristics of the data collected.

In examining the reliability of data, of interest is its accuracy. This is typically demonstrated via consistency across repeated measures on one day (internal consistency) or over time (stability). The importance of checking and reporting reliability information for the dependent variable(s) in a study cannot be overstated (Vacha-haase, Ness, Nilsson, & Reetz, 1999). The credibility of all analyses conducted rests on an assumption that the data are accurate. The statistic needed to assess reliability is an intraclass coefficient (e.g., intraclass R or Cronbach’s alpha). Though still observed in publications, an interclass coefficient such as the Pearson Product Moment correlation (PPMC) is not the most appropriate statistic for estimating reliability. The PPCM is a rank order correlation coefficient designed to convey the relationship between two different variables. It is not designed to detect inconsistency across repeated measures of the same variable; yet consistency is the central issue with reliability.

Regarding evidence of the validity of data, of interest is whether or not the data are clean (not confounded by other factors) and relevant in the context of the research question. Correlating the data from the dependent variable with a criterion measure of the same variable is an appropriate quantitative approach to gathering evidence of the validity of
data. Under conditions where a quantitative approach is not feasible (e.g., lack of a criterion measure) at least content validity (cognitive measures) or logical validity (motor skills) should be established through peer review of data collection protocols.

If the quality of the data collected for the dependent variable is questionable then there is little value in testing any hypotheses or trying to draw conclusions from the data. For each study conducted the reliability (or objectivity) and validity of the data collected should be examined.

**Power, Sample size, Effect size, and Type I Error**

These factors, considered in combination, are important in the design of research projects. Power pertains to the probability of correctly rejecting a null hypothesis and is influenced by sample size, effect size, and selection of alpha (type I error). Effect size conveys the magnitude of the difference or relationship found in a study. Type I error is a value selected by the researcher that sets the limit on the probability of incorrectly rejecting a null hypothesis. The important point with regard to the interconnectedness of power and other research design factors is to use the information to determine the sample size needed before a study begins (Myers, Ahn, & Jin, 2011). Once the experiment-wise alpha (type I error), power desired (commonly .80), and expected effect size (identified through pilot studies or previous research) are selected, software can be used to determine an appropriate sample size (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Post-hoc, it is equally important that power be reported as it is an important indicator of research quality (Fraley & Vazire, 2014).

**Analysis of Data**

A solid grasp of the basics with regard to descriptive and inferential statistics can, in a substantive way, help bring order to the ‘chaos in the brickyard’. For example, central to the selection of descriptive and inferential statistics to summarize group data is an understanding of how the type of data collected impacts what statistics should be used. The information presented in Table 1 and Table 2 provides a basic guide regarding which descriptive and inferential statistics to use depending on the type of data available.

For descriptive statistics, discrete data (categorical or ordinal) are best summarized with frequencies or percentages since the numbers simply represent categories (e.g., ethnicity). When continuous data (interval, ratio) are recorded, measures of central tendency (e.g., mean, median) and variability (e.g., standard deviation) are appropriate for summarizing the data descriptively since scores are recorded.

**Table 1**

**Descriptive Statistics for Summary of Group Data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Descriptive statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Categorical (nominal)</td>
<td>Frequencies, Percentages, Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Percentages, Mode, Median*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interval</td>
<td>Median, Mean, Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio</td>
<td>Median, Mean, Standard Deviation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* *The median, as a measure of central tendency, for data at the ordinal level of measurement could be acceptable provided the data do not simply represent a few ordered categories.

**Table 2**

**Inferential Statistics for Testing Differences and Relationships (Correlation)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Type of Question</th>
<th>Inferential Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Categorical (nominal)</td>
<td>Differences</td>
<td>Not Applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Chi-Squared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Differences</td>
<td>Mann Whitney, Kruskal Wallis, Wilcoxon, Friedman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When testing hypotheses where the data for the dependent variable are discrete, nonparametric inferential statistics are best employed. When the data are continuous, parametric inferential statistics would be employed provided distributional assumptions are met. The chart in Figure 1 could aid in the selection of analytical techniques and help journal reviewers identify errors. While not suited to support decision-making at all levels, it does provide a framework when considering the big picture.

Figure 1: Flow chart for the selection of appropriate inferential analyses depending on the type of question and the data’s level of measurement.

Another concern pertains to the use of demographic data as dependent variables (e.g., age) for inferential tests. Demographic information is best summarized using descriptive rather than inferential statistics. Demographic data may also be employed as independent variables in an inferential test related to the primary question(s). The distinction pertains to using descriptive statistics to inform subsequent inferential tests rather than conducting inferential tests using demographic characteristics of subjects as dependent variables.

Other basics where a firm understanding is important include (a) checking distributional assumptions and using non-parametric tests when appropriate, (b) the importance of reporting practical significance, and (c) the need to adjust the type I error rate prior to examining statistical significance when multiple inferential tests are done. The following sections elaborate on these issues.

**Distributional Assumptions**
Checking assumptions is an important step in the selection of appropriate analyses. For example, if the distributional assumptions associated with the parametric F test from a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) are violated, the non-parametric equivalent (Kruskal-Wallis Test) could be used. On the one hand a case can be made that the parametric test is fairly robust to violations of the assumption of normally distributed data and is more powerful than its non-parametric equivalent. On the other hand, if assumptions have been violated, the parametric test may misrepresent findings and a comparison based on medians, through a non-parametric test, rather than means may be more appropriate (Thomas et al., 1999). Reporting the outcome after checking assumptions, regardless of the inferential test conducted, serves two valuable functions. First, the reader has been given better context for reported results and second, the need to check assumptions associated with any inferential test gets reinforced and likely replicated by other researchers.

**Practical Significance**

Regarding analyses connected to the main question(s) under study, it is important to report the practical significance of the findings. It is all too common for only statistical significance to be reported. Differences or relationships that may be statistically significant are not necessarily of practical or clinical importance (Ioannidis, 2005). For example, finding a statistically significant relationship simply means that you have rejected the null hypothesis that the correlation is zero. Having established it is not zero is not the same as having established that the relationship is of practical importance. With enough subjects, a correlation coefficient of .20 (very weak) could be statistically significant. The more important point, in this example, is that practical significance, reflected in the coefficient of determination (r squared) is only .04 which means that only four percent of the variability in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable.

Another point to keep in mind is that what constitutes practical significance can depend on the context. For example, if a measure of leg strength when correlated with vertical jump is .60, then the value reflecting practical significance (r squared = .36) means that 36% of the variability in vertical jump can be explained by leg strength. While this number, absent context, may be interpreted as only modest practical significance, in the context of the fact that other variables like height and muscle fiber type cannot be changed, this value is more likely of substantial practical significance to the researcher, coach, or athlete considering resistance training to improve vertical jump.

The practical relevance of findings is central to theory building and the advancement of ideas. In addition, reporting effect sizes provides scholars with a way to gauge the magnitude of a difference or relationship as well as giving future scholars a key component for meta-analyses.

**Adjusting Alpha**

The need to adjust alpha (type I error) prior to examining statistical significance when multiple tests (e.g., multiple t-tests) are done is important. Too often statistical tests are conducted in comparison to an alpha of typically .05 regardless of how many inferential tests are conducted (Franks & Huck, 1986; Ioannidis, 2005; Knudson, Morrow & Thomas, 2014). When the experiment-wise alpha is not adjusted prior to making decisions with respect to statistical significance this could result in exaggerated claims with regard to the significance of findings and caution is called for on the part of readers when this situation is encountered. It is advisable to limit the number of inferential tests conducted or use multivariate analyses when the assumptions can be met. Otherwise, it becomes increasingly difficult to obtain statistical significance and power is sacrificed.

When multiple inferential tests are deemed important, the Bonferroni technique (Franks & Huck, 1986) is a simple approach to adjusting alpha and is easily applied; divide the experiment-wise alpha by the number of statistical tests done. This new adjusted alpha is what each p value (probability of obtaining observed results, assuming that the null hypothesis is true) is then compared to in determining statistical significance. In addition, when reporting statistical significance, it is better to report the actual p value rather than the common ‘p < .05’ statement (Tromovitch, 2012). It is more informative to the reader and easily obtained from software (e.g., SPSS).
In the author’s view, it is not necessary for all questions of interest to be addressed with inferential tests, particularly at the cost of diminished power. The suggestion here is to identify the primary question(s) of interest and apply inferential tests in those cases. Additional questions can be effectively explored via descriptive statistics.

**Simple is elegant**

Vaisrub’s (1991) challenge to “simplify, simplify, in a statistical Walden, I dare you” (p. 49) was a call to choose, when appropriate, analytical techniques that are not unnecessarily complex. With software to handle intricate and otherwise time-consuming computations it has become far too easy to point and click through overly complex statistical analyses. When an F test from a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) will answer the research question in a study, this simple analysis is appropriate. Conducting instead an excessively complex analysis because one can, may directly contribute to the ‘chaos in the brickyard’. Even the choice to conduct a 2-way ANOVA should be made in the context of what is needed to answer the primary research question(s) since three F tests will be produced by the 2-way ANOVA.

In summary, each of the fundamental design and analysis factors considered in this section, when appropriately incorporated into research increases the likelihood that credible findings will be obtained. Additionally, published work serves as a model for others. This means that each publication with appropriate analyses employed has the potential to influence the quality of research subsequently conducted.

**A Snapshot of the Current Research Landscape**

Research conducted by Bernard, Ednie, and Shifflett (2021) provides insight into the quality of research in Kinesiology. Their content analysis examined 270 articles spanning a five-year period from 2016-2020 and was stratified into three tiers based on impact factors. Subsequently, analyses focused on (a) research quality over time, and (b) the relationship between research quality and journal impact factors (1=high, 2=moderate, 3=low). Their dependent variable for the content analysis, quality of the quantitative analyses, was derived by documenting authors’ application of basic analytical principles: (a) checking of assumptions, (b) reporting actual p values, (c) reporting practical significance, (d) adjusting alpha when multiple inferential tests conducted, and (e) reporting a measure of reliability for the study’s dependent variable.

Interestingly, there was almost no variation in results depending on the tier (impact factor level) of the journal the articles came from. For example, with respect to adjusting alpha when conducting multiple inferential tests, 74%, 69%, and 71% did not adjust their alpha in studies from tier one, tier two, and tier three journals respectively. Similarly, practical significance was not being reported in studies from tier one (68%), tier two (52%), or tier three (66%) journals.

When examining the question of whether or not there was a change in quality over time, while there was a statistically significant finding (p=.021), the effect size was only .16, and practical significance was negligible (.03). Descriptively, the pattern of change is a reason for some optimism as changes over time were observed to be in a positive direction. However, that change was modest. In addition, foundational components of quantitative research were missing. For example, in 2016, 16% of the articles checked the reliability of the data and in 2020 that increased to only 21%.

Overall, one area where the analytical work was observed to have improved was the reporting of p values. Across all articles in 2016, 52% were not reporting specific p values and in 2020 that switched to 52% were reporting actual p values. There remains plenty of room for improvement but compared to other areas, this was better. In contrast, 97% of the articles that did not determine sample size in the context of power also did not report power at all for their findings. As Abt et al., (2020) notes, “it’s quite likely that we have a problem with underpowered studies in sport and exercise science” (p. 1933).

**Recommendations**

Efforts to clear away the chaos generated by poor quality research have been made through critical reviews of published work (Bartlett, 2013; Marteniuk & Bertram, 1999), compilation of an ‘authors beware’ list of predatory journals (Beall, 2013), and diligent attention among many collegiate faculty to the
development of students' scientific and quantitative literacy skills. These efforts to improve the quality of research and publications are important and should continue. In addition, a more widespread approach is recommended for significant and sustainable improvement to enhance the quality of research and help reduce the ‘chaos in the brickyard’.

The strategy proposed is one that could be applied to any large-scale project. Imagine a group of colleagues responsible for reviewing their institution’s accreditation report and all supporting documentation. Asking all members to review everything is likely to result in duplication of effort while various components may be overlooked. Alternatively, having each person review a specific portion of the work is more likely to result in a thorough examination of all components. A similar approach can be applied to improve the quality of published research. No single person or group can improve the quality of published research. However, the following sections suggest how students and faculty, along with journal editors, can each take manageable actions that are sustainable and result in meaningful contributions to improve the quality of published research.

Student Contributions

Students are in a position to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to be critical consumers of research and to apply what they learn when the opportunity to conduct research presents itself. Depending on the curriculum, at the undergraduate level students are likely to take a measurement and evaluation course and/or a research methods course. Additionally, in other major courses faculty may assign for reading and critique discipline-specific research articles. In each case, as students gain confidence and analytical skills, their ability to discern evidence of good quality can increase to the point where, as professionals, their data-based decision-making skills are stronger.

At the graduate level, foundational skills can be further developed. Both the breadth and depth of the content of graduate level research and statistics coursework exposes students to principles that can develop a more nuanced understanding of what constitutes quality research. With a solid understanding of descriptive and inferential statistics they will be even better equipped to read and critique publications. In addition, they will be better able to conduct the analyses for projects, theses, and dissertations themselves. While many may not consider quantitative work to be their strong suit, all have the capacity to master the content to the point where they can think critically about what they read and take responsibility for design and analysis decisions for their own research.

Faculty Contributions

Teaching

At both the undergraduate and graduate levels, attention while teaching directed toward raising the awareness of students with respect to what constitutes quality research can lay a good foundation for those who will go on to conduct research in any discipline. In addition, it can provide all students with the skills needed to be more knowledgeable consumers of research. In the author’s experience, nearly all undergraduate students and many masters level students need assistance in order to move beyond reading the beginning and end of research articles while skipping the analytical portion of published work. The task need not fall only on those faculty teaching a research methods, statistics, or psychometrics class. Many faculty, across diverse disciplines, assign article reviews in their classes. Including in the assignment guidelines, critique of the analytical section of articles is an important step in improving the quantitative literacy of all graduates. If each faculty member selects for inclusion even a few design and/or analysis issues for students to consider, collectively, students are likely to acquire greater breadth in their understanding of research design and analysis matters. Instilling in students a healthy skepticism for published work along with the skills to detect problems could be of considerable value.

Faculty working with masters or doctoral students can then add considerable depth to a wide range of research topics and assignments which can include activities designed to prepare graduates to serve as journal peer reviewers (Zhu, 2014). Doctoral programs can cover in much greater detail the range of analytical options to handle questions around differences and relationships and build analytical
skills beyond testing for statistical significance. In parallel, assigning ‘Chaos in the Brickyard’ or comparable pieces for reading and including reference to predatory publication practices would also complement efforts to enhance students’ skills and knowledge with respect to research. This might not directly address the problems noted with respect to the generation of weak research, but it could help students navigate the ‘chaos in the brickyard’.

**Service**

Turning to the service component of faculty responsibilities, there are several ways to promote quality research. Those involved in the retention, tenure, and promotion review (RTP) process can help by engaging their colleagues in discussions that favor quality research over the simple quantity of publications. Without combating the publish or perish culture, the balance in expectations can still be shifted to the point where less is more. Since faculty are the ones sitting on RTP committees they can have a direct impact on keeping expectations with regard to quantity manageable. Faculty can also advocate for resources and promote on campuses, for example, a position responsible for supporting the analytical work of faculty in the conduct and reporting of their research in addition to providing access to professional statistical consulting for all faculty; not just those with funded research.

In addition, faculty are in a position to act on the observation that journal impact factors are not necessarily indicative of research quality (Bernard et al., 2021; Fraley & Vazire, 2014; Köhler, DeSimone, & Schoen, 2020). It remains salient for faculty to have indicators other than journal impact factor reported in their dossiers when documenting their research. When connected to the efforts of faculty involved in shared governance (e.g., campus senates), university policies can be refined to value quality over quantity. This provides a framework for faculty and administrators reviewing tenure-track faculty and makes expectations clear to those being reviewed.

At first glance, it might not be clear how actions in the service area, and RTP in particular, would impact research quality. The connection is that faculty research is often done in the context of publish or perish expectations. This could lead to research choices driven by a need to quickly finish multiple projects, which potentially floods the brickyard with small-scale unrelated findings based on data from few subjects. Reigning in a quantity-focused culture in the RTP process benefits everyone. We will reach a point of diminishing returns and more ‘chaos in the brickyard’ if the pressure to publish results in potentially weak research distributed through publishers with poor or nonexistent standards.

For those whose service takes the form of reviewing manuscripts for publication or presentation, their responsibilities serve a critical function in keeping the profession supplied with quality research. Requiring additional information of authors when needed including checks of distributional assumptions, p values, adjustments to alpha when multiple inferential tests are done, effect size(s), and practical significance will strengthen the end product prior to publication. When analyses are not familiar to a reviewer, asking the editor to solicit review of the analytical work could prove essential and result in important changes that otherwise might not have been made. Papers need not be rejected when lacking in one or more respects. Rather, modifications can be requested prior to accepting a manuscript. Such efforts benefit both reviewers and authors while strengthening the credibility of the journal’s publications. The potential to change the proportion of strong vs. weak research that drives the construction of edifices is significant.

On a related note, journal editors have a gatekeeper role that impacts the quality of published work. Beyond the responsibilities of a reviewer, an editor in concert with their editorial board can explicitly establish the basic requirements for quantitative research and host/sponsor webinars or conference meetings for reviewers and authors to reinforce good practice. Additional recommendations have included publishing clear evaluation standards, clarifying roles among editors and reviewers, protecting the time commitment of editors and reviewers, and improving reviewer recognition (Knudson et al., 2014).

**Research**

Bartlett’s (2013) points regarding the proliferation of flawed work makes clear that good quality research begins with understanding and
questioning published work. In the research domain it is important to probe authors’ work before attempting to build upon it. Otherwise, we run the risk of perpetuating weak ideas and leading others to pursue a misguided line of research.

Faculty conducting research, independently or in collaboration with others, are in an excellent position to improve the quality of published research. A focus on good quality work from the design of their research built upon a critical review of existing literature, through the implementation of a project, data analysis, and write up of the findings will benefit the entire community of scholars as well as those who base decisions and actions on published findings. Faculty can expand their own reporting when they publish to systematically include practical significance, power, psychometrics, and assumption checks. Subsequent researchers will model what they see in publications so there is a significant ripple effect to be considered.

With regard to the analysis of data, to the extent possible, each researcher should have enough of an understanding of basic descriptive and inferential statistics to ensure that appropriate analyses are conducted; even when the person actually doing the analysis may be a paid consultant. The principal researcher should be the one guiding the research design and analysis of their data to ensure that appropriate analyses are done to address well designed research questions. When in doubt, the principal investigator can and should turn to others with expertise in data analysis for assistance. Once the data are analyzed and outcomes critically examined, findings regarding statistical significance (including p values) should be accompanied by measures of practical significance, power (post-hoc), and effect size. One final point with regard to the write up of a manuscript is that keyword selection should be taken seriously. Careful consideration of what descriptors others will need to find relevant publications is important.

Conclusions/Implications

The fact that The American Statistician journal in the recent past devoted an entire issue (Volume 73; Issue sup1, 2019) to the topic of p values suggests concerns are significant and much work still needs to be done. In that issue, Wasserstein, Schirm and Lazar (2019) provided an excellent overview of the issues and challenges related to quantitative research. There is a middle ground between not taking any action and hoping things improve, and throwing out hypothesis testing entirely since there remain many problems with the analytical work and its reporting in publications. A step away from the bright-line practice of focusing on results with p < .05, with no consideration for practical significance or effect size, is a good place to start. This could also address the concern Head, Holman, Lanfear, Kahn, and Jennions (2015) referred to as inflation bias (selective reporting).

Faculty stand at the nexus of our capacity to impact research quality. As instructors they will influence the next generation of professionals who will rely on and/or generate future research. Recommendations outlined in this paper include incorporating quantitative research principles into curricula at the undergraduate (foundational elements) through the doctoral level (comprehensive) to enhance the quantitative literacy of our graduates.

As engaged scholars, every study published that is of good quality can illuminate the path toward broader application of sound quantitative research principles for others who will model their work on previously published articles. Whether the analytical work is simple or complex, this paper advocates for adherence to a basic set of fundamental elements of quantitative research including: (a) reporting of practical significance, effect sizes, power, and psychometrics, (b) checking and reporting assumptions for parametric and non-parametric inferential tests, and (c) adjusting alpha (type I error), when needed, prior to examining statistical significance.

The suggestions advanced here are certainly not a comprehensive list of all that can be done. Rather, they are meant to provide a catalyst for discussion and action on these and other ideas students, faculty, administrators, and journal editors might have. Members of the academic community, across all disciplines, can help in ways that are sustainable, given their roles and responsibilities, to bring order to the ‘chaos in the brickyard’. The challenges did not emerge overnight; yet collectively if each person takes one small portion of the task in hand, we can
substantively change the landscape. Research of good quality provides us with information that advances our understanding of important issues in a sound and incremental manner.

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