Modelling publication bias and p-hacking

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Abstract
Publication bias and p-hacking are two well-known phenomena that strongly affect the scientific literature and cause severe problems in meta-analyses. Due to these phenomena, the assumptions of meta-analyses are seriously violated and the results of the studies cannot be trusted. While publication bias is very often captured well by the weighting function selection model, p-hacking is much harder to model and no definitive solution has been found yet. In this paper, we advocate the selection model approach to model publication bias and propose a mixture model for p-hacking. We derive some properties for these models, and we compare them formally and through simulations. Finally, two real data examples are used to show how the models work in practice.

KEYWORDS
file drawer problem, fishing for significance, meta-analysis, questionable research practices, selection bias

1 | INTRODUCTION

Meta-analysis is the quantitative combination of information from different studies. Aggregating information from multiple studies brings higher statistical power, higher accuracy in estimation and greater reproducibility. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to believe in the results of meta-analyses, as some model assumptions may be seriously violated. In particular, a meta-analysis must not be based on a biased selection of studies. Publication bias (Sterling, 1959) and p-hacking (Simmons et al., 2011) are the most common phenomena that violate these assumptions. Depending on their magnitude, they may have a substantial effect on the cumulative evidence (see, e.g., Friese and Frankenbach, 2020).

Publication bias, also known as the file drawer problem (Rosenthal, 1979), denotes the phenomenon when a study with a smaller p-value is more likely to be published than a study with a higher p-value. Publication bias is a well-known issue, and several approaches have been proposed to tackle it. Two famous examples are the trim-and-fill (Duval and Tweedie, 2000) and fail-safe N (Becker, 2005) methods, but neither of them explicitly model the publication selection mechanism. From a statistical point of view, the most important class of models used to deal with publication bias are the selection models. They were first studied by Hedges (1984) for F-distributed variables with a cutoff at 0.05, and extended to the setting of t-values by Iyengar and Greenhouse (1988). Hedges (1992) proposed a random effects publication bias model with more than one cutoff, while Citkowicz and Vevea (2017) used beta distributed weights. Other examples of selection models include the non-parametric approach of Dear and Begg (1992), the sensitivity analysis of Copas and Shi (2000) and the regression methods of Vevea and Hedges (1995). McShane et al. (2016) is an accessible overview of selection models in publication bias.

Publication bias is a well-known problem in several research areas, and therefore various approaches to solve the issue have been also proposed outside the statistical literature. Hailing from economics, PET, PEESE and PET-PEESE (Stanley and Doucouliagos, 2014) are models based on linear regression and an approximation of the selection mechanism based on the inverse Mill’s ratio. From psychology, the p-curve of Simonsohn et al. (2014a) is a method that only looks at significant p-values and judges
whether their distribution shows sign of being produced by studies with insufficient power. The $p$-curve for estimation (Simonsohn et al., 2014b) is a fixed effect selection model with a significance cutoff at 0.05 estimated by minimizing the Kolmogorov–Smirnov distance (McShane et al., 2016). Another method from the psychology literature is $p$-uniform (van Assen et al., 2015), which is similar to the $p$-curve. A recent study by Carter et al. (2019) compared several approaches and showed that the selection model works better than the others. However, not even the best method works well in every considered scenario. For more information on publication bias, we refer to Rothstein et al. (2006) and Marks-Anglin and Chen (2020).

In contrast, $p$-hacking, sometimes also called question-able research practices (Sijtsma, 2016) and fishing for significance (Boulesteix, 2009), occurs when the authors of a study manipulate results into statistical significance. $p$-hacking can be done at the experimental stage, using, for example, optional stopping, or at the analysis stage, for instance, by changing models or dropping out participants. Examples of $p$-hacking can be found in Simmons et al. (2011). While publication bias, at least that based on $p$-values, has been shown to be captured well by selection models such as that of Hedges (1992), $p$-hacking is harder to model (Carter et al., 2019). The aforementioned $p$-curve approach by Simonsohn et al. (2014a) has been used for $p$-hacking as well, but it has been shown to be not reliable (Bruns and Ioannidis, 2016). Here, we advocate the selection model approach to model publication bias and propose a mixture model for $p$-hacking. We derive some properties for these models and argue they are best handled by Bayesian methods.

The paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we define the framework and introduce the models, which are also theoretically compared. Further comparisons are presented through simulations in Section 3 and examples in Section 4. We conclude with some remarks and possible extensions in Section 5.

2 | MODELS

2.1 | Framework

The main ingredient of a meta-analysis is a collection of exchangeable statistics $x_i$. Each statistic $x_i$ has density $f^*(x_i | \theta_i, \eta_i)$, where $\eta_i$ is a known or unknown nuisance parameter and $\theta_i$ is an unknown parameter we wish to make inference on. This paper corrects the bias due to the transformation of the true data-generation model $f^*(x_i | \theta_i, \eta_i)$ into a new model $f(x_i | \theta_i, \eta_i)$ by publication bias and $p$-hacking. Our goal is to understand the latter model and correctly estimate $\theta_i$. Although our methodology only requires the dependencies on $\theta_i$ and that statistical inference on $\theta_i$ is the goal of the analysis, here we mainly focus on the most common case of Gaussian densities (i.e. $f^*(x_i | \theta_i, \eta_i) = \phi(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma_i^2)$). Moreover, as usual in meta-analysis studies (van Houwelingen et al., 2002), we assume $\sigma_i^2$ as known.

The parameter $\theta_i$ is typically an effect size, such as a standardized mean difference. In a fixed effects meta-analysis, $\theta_i = \theta$ for all $i$. In a random effects meta-analysis, $\theta_i$ is drawn from an effect size distribution $p(\theta)$ common to all $i$, and the goal of the study is often to make inference on the parameters of the effect size distribution, usually on the mean $\theta_0$ and the variance $\tau^2$ when $\theta_i \sim N(\theta_0, \tau^2)$. If we marginalize away $\theta_i$ we will end up with a density on the form $N(\theta_0, \sigma_i^2 + \tau^2)$. This is possible in our framework, but it turns out that an important property of the publication bias model gets lost, as marginalizing out the $\theta_i$s can mask the fact that the selection mechanism in the publication bias has an effect both on the effect size distribution and the individual densities $\phi(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma_i^2)$.

An overview of all quantities used in this paper can be found in the Web Appendix A.

2.2 | The selection model

Before introducing the publication bias and the $p$-hacking models, let us define the selection model of which both models are instances. Consider the statistic $x_i$ and its density $\phi(x_i)$, for the moment without dependencies on $\theta_i$ and $\sigma_i^2$. Let the selection variable $s$ be a binary stochastic variable that equals 1 if and only if $x_i$ is observed, for instance, if the paper containing $x_i$ has been accepted by an editor. When the selection only depends on $x_i$, the density of our observed statistic is $f(x_i) = p(s = 1 | x_i)\phi(x_i)/p(s = 1)$. This is also known as a weighted distribution (Rao, 1985, eq. 3.1), and can be interpreted as a rejection sampling model (von Neumann, 1951).

The selection mechanism may depend on other quantities, such as the study-specific parameter $\theta_i$ and the study-specific nuisance parameter $\sigma_i^2$. We will see that the selection mechanism can be changed by conditioning on $\theta_i$ in the denominator, which is what we do with the $p$-hacking model in Section 2.4.

2.3 | The publication bias model

Imagine the publication bias scenario:

Alice is an editor who receives a study with a $p$-value $u_i$. She knows her journals will suffer if she publishes many null-results, so she
is disinclined to publish studies with large \( p \)-values. Still, she will publish any result with some \( p \)-value-dependent probability \( w(u_i) \). Every study you will ever read in Alice’s journal has survived this selection mechanism, the rest are lost forever.

In this story, the underlying model \( \phi(x_i \mid \theta_i, \sigma_i^2) \) is transformed into a publication bias model

\[
f(x_i \mid \theta_i, \sigma_i^2) \propto \phi(x_i \mid \theta_i, \sigma_i^2)w(u_i) \tag{1}
\]

by the selection probability \( w(u_i) \in [0, 1] \), which is a probability for each \( u_i \). Here, \( u_i \) is a \( p \)-value that depends on \( x_i \) and maybe on something else, such as the standard deviation of \( x_i \), but does not depend on \( \theta_i \). We can write the model using the selection variable \( s \), as \( w(u_i) = w(u_i(x_i, \sigma_i^2)) = p(s = 1 \mid x_i, \sigma_i^2) \). Note that \( w(u_i) \) cannot depend on \( \theta_i \) since the editor has no way of knowing the parameter \( \theta_i \); if she did, she would not have to look at the \( p \)-values at all. The normalizing constant of model (1) is finite for any probability \( w(u_i) \), hence \( f \) is a bona fide density.

An argument against the publication bias scenario is that publication bias does not act only through \( p \)-values, but also through other features of the study such as language (Egger and Smith, 1998) and originality (Callaham et al., 1998). While this is true, the publication bias scenario seems to completely capture the idea of \( p \)-value-based publication bias. Even if other sources of publication bias exist, maybe acting through \( x_i \) but not its \( p \)-value, publication bias based on \( p \)-values is a universally recognized problem, and a good place to start. The kind of model sketched here is almost the same as the one of Hedges (1992), with the sole exception that Hedges (1992) does not require \( w(u_i) \) to be a probability. We demand it, as otherwise the intuitive publication bias scenario interpretation of the model disappears.

Even if we know the underlying \( \phi(x_i \mid \theta_i, \sigma_i^2) \) of model (1), we will need to decide on what \( p \)-value to use. Usually, the \( p \)-value will be approximately a one-sided normal \( p \)-value, because most hypotheses have just one direction that is interesting. For instance, the effect of an antidepressant must be positive for the study to be publishable. A one-sided \( p \)-value can also be used if the researchers reported a two-sided value, since \( p = 0.05 \) for a two-sided hypothesis corresponds to \( p = 0.025 \) for a one-sided hypothesis. We will use the one-sided normal \( p \)-value in all examples in this paper.

Provided we know the underlying distributions and \( p \)-values \( u_i \), we only need to decide on the selection probability to have a fully specified model. Hedges (1992) proposes the discrete selection probability

\[
w(u_i \mid \alpha, \rho) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j 1(\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j)(u_i), \tag{2}
\]

where \( \alpha \) is a vector of cutoffs satisfying \( 0 = \alpha_0 < \alpha_1 < \cdots < \alpha_J = 1 \) and \( \rho \) is a non-negative vector with \( \rho_1 = 1 \). The interpretation of this selection probability is simple: When Alice reads the \( p \)-value \( u_i \), she finds the \( j \) that makes \( u_i \) an element of \( [\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j] \) and accepts the study with probability \( \rho_j \). Related to this view, Hedges (1992) proposed to use the cutoffs 0.001, 0.005, 0.01 and 0.05, as these ‘have particular salience for interpretation’ (Hedges, 1992). In fact, a publication decision often depends on whether a \( p \)-value crosses the 0.05-threshold. Considering the bias-variance trade-off heuristic, we would prefer to only use one split point at 0.05, as done by Iyengar and Greenhouse (1988) in their second weight function. Other reasons to prefer one split are ease of interpretation and presentation. Despite this, only using 0.05 as a threshold for one-sided \( p \)-values is problematic, as many published results are calculated using a two-sided \( p \)-value instead. For this reason, it is useful to add a splitting point at 0.025. In our examples, we will use a two-step function selection probability \( w(u_i \mid \rho) = 1_{[0,0.025]}(u_i) + \rho_2 1_{[0.025,0.05]}(u_i) + \rho_3 1_{[0.05,1]}(u_i) \), where the selection probability when \( u_i \in (0,0.025) \) is normalized to 1 to make the model identifiable. Nevertheless we present models in broad generality in order to allow for any arbitrary number of cutoffs \( J \). This possibility is already implemented in the R package associated with this paper, pub11pha (Moss, 2020b).

The following proposition shows the densities of the one-sided normal step function selection probability publication bias models, with fixed effects and with normal random effects, respectively. Here, the notation \( \phi_{[a,b]}(x \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2) \) indicates a normal truncated to \([a, b)\).

**Proposition 1.** The density of an observation from a fixed effects one-sided normal step function selection probability publication bias model and parameters \( \theta, \sigma_i^2 \), is

\[
f(x_i \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_j^* \phi_{[c_j,c_{j-1}]}(x_i \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2), \tag{3}
\]

where \( \pi_j^* = \rho_j \frac{\Phi(c_{j-1} \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2) - \Phi(c_j \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j \left( \Phi(c_{j-1} \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2) - \Phi(c_j \mid \theta, \sigma_i^2) \right)} \) is the probability that \( x_i \in (c_{j-1}, c_j] \) and \( c_j = \theta + \sigma_i \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha_j) \). Here, \( u_i = 1 - \Phi\left(x_i - \theta \over \sigma_i \right) \), so \( w(u_i \mid \rho) = \rho_j \) when \( \alpha_{j-1} \leq 1 - \Phi\left(x_i - \theta \over \sigma_i \right) < \alpha_j \).

The density of an observation from the one-sided normal step function selection probability publication bias model
with normal random effects and parameters $\sigma^2_i, \theta_0, \tau$, is

$$f(x_i | \theta_0, \tau, \sigma^2_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_j^*(\theta_0, \tau, \sigma^2_i) \Phi(c_j, c_j-1)(x | \theta_0, \tau^2 + \sigma^2_i),$$

where

$$\pi_j^*(\theta_0, \tau, \sigma^2_i) = \rho_j \frac{\Phi(c_j-1 | \theta_0, \tau^2 + \sigma^2_i) - \Phi(c_j | \theta_0, \tau^2 + \sigma^2_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j [\Phi(c_j-1 | \theta_0, \tau^2 + \sigma^2_i) - \Phi(c_j | \theta_0, \tau^2 + \sigma^2_i)].}$$

**Proof.** Consider the fixed effects model. By definition,

$$f(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i) \propto \sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j \int 1_{[\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j]}(u_i) \phi(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i).$$

The normalizing constant is

$$\sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j \int 1_{[\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j]}(u_i) \phi(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i) dx_i$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{J} \rho_j [\Phi(c_{j-1} | \theta, \sigma^2_i) - \Phi(c_j | \theta, \sigma^2_i)].$$

Rewriting

$$\frac{\phi(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i) 1_{[\alpha_{j-1}, \alpha_j]}(u_i)}{\Phi(c_{j-1} | \theta, \sigma^2_i) - \Phi(c_j | \theta, \sigma^2_i)} = \phi(c_j, c_j-1)(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i),$$

we get Equation (3).

For the random effect model, we proceed similarly, see Web Appendix B. Note that $f(x_i | \theta_0, \tau, \sigma^2_i)$ does not equal $\int f(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2_i) \phi(\theta | \theta_0, \tau^2) d\theta$, as might have been expected.

### 2.4 The $p$-hacking model

Imagine the $p$-hacking scenario:

Bob is an astute researcher who is able to $p$-hack any study to whatever level of significance he wishes. Whenever Bob does his research, he decides on a significance level to reach by drawing an $\alpha$ from a distribution $\omega$. Then he $p$-hacks his study to this $\alpha$-level, for example by excluding particular observations, collecting new data ex-post, or selectively excluding covariates.

In this scenario, the original density $\phi(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i)$ is transformed into the $p$-hacked density

$$f(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) = \int_{[0,1]} \phi_\alpha(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) \omega(\alpha) d\alpha,$$

where $\phi_\alpha$ is $\phi$ truncated so that the $p$-value $u_i$ lies inside $[0, \alpha]$, with $\alpha \in [0, 1]$. For instance, when using a one-sided $p$-value, we get that $\phi_\alpha(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) = \phi(c_j, c_j-1)(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i)$, where $c_j = \theta_i + \sigma_i \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha_j)$. As described in the $p$-hacking scenario, the $p$-hacking level $\alpha$ is drawn from a density $\omega(\alpha)$, which might depend on covariates. On the other hand, it should not depend on $\theta_i$, as the researcher cannot know the true effect size of his study. While publication bias model (1) is a selection model, the $p$-hacking model (8) is a mixture model. Mathematically, the publication bias model could be written as a mixture model on the same form as the $p$-hacking model, but then $\omega$ would incorrectly depend on $\theta_i$, see Web Appendix C. In our current setting, where the original distributions are Gaussian, it means that the publication bias model and the $p$-hacking model differs in the random effect case, while are equal in the fixed effect case (see Web Appendix D). Correspondingly, the $p$-hacking model could be written as a selection model (1), but the publication probability would then in general depend on the true effect size, which violates an obvious condition for a model to be considered a publication bias model. We stress therefore that the model (8) is not a publication bias model.

Just as the publication bias model requires a choice of $\omega$, the $p$-hacking model requires a choice of $\omega$. A $p$-hacking scientist is motivated to $p$-hack to the 0.05 level, or maybe to the levels 0.01 or 0.025, but never to a level such as 0.07 or 0.37. This motivates the discrete $p$-hacking probability distribution

$$\omega(\alpha | \pi) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_j 1(\alpha = \alpha_j)$$

for some $j$-ary vector of cutoffs $\alpha$ satisfying $0 < \alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \cdots < \alpha_J = 1$, and $j$-ary vector of probabilities $\pi$. In our example, it means that Bob will $p$-hack at a level $\alpha_1$ with probability $\pi_1, \alpha_2$ with probability $\pi_2$ and so on. The resulting density is

$$f(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_j \phi_\alpha(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) 1(\alpha = \alpha_j).$$

Using reasoning analogous to that of Section 2.3, we suggest to use an $\omega$ only based on the two splitting points 0.025 and 0.05, that is, $\omega(\alpha | \pi) = \pi_1 1(\alpha = 0.025) + \pi_2 1(\alpha = 0.05) + \pi_3 1(\alpha = 1)$, but the model below is again presented using the more general $J$ cutoffs.

The density of an observation from a fixed effects one-sided normal discrete probability $p$-hacking model is
where \( c_j = \theta + \sigma \Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha_j) \). Compared to the corresponding fixed effects publication bias model (3), where 
\[
f(x_i | \theta, \sigma^2) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \pi_j f_{\theta_j, \sigma^2} (x_i | \theta, \sigma^2),
\]
the main difference are the truncation intervals: \([c_j, \infty)\) for the p-hacking model and \((c_j, c_{j-1}]\) for the publication bias model. We illustrate the fixed effects models further in Web Appendix D, where we also show that models are reparametrizations of each other. However, as already mentioned, the two models differ in the random effect case. In contrast to the publication bias model, there is no closed form for the density of the random effects variant of the one-sided normal discrete probability p-hacking model.

### 2.5 The difference between the models in the case of random effects

In the random effects publication bias model, a completely new study is done whenever the last one failed to be published. In the event that \( s = 0 \) and the study fails to be published, a new effect size \( \theta_i \) is sampled from the original effect size distribution \( p(\theta_i) \), and then a new \( x_i \) from \( N(\theta_i, \sigma^2) \). As a consequence, the modified effect size distributed \( p^*(\theta_i | \sigma^2) \) will generally not equal the original effect size distribution, as

\[
p^*(\theta_i | \sigma^2) = \int p(s = 1 | x_i, \sigma^2) f(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2) p(\theta_i) dx_i / p(s = 1 | \sigma^2).
\]

For an example that relates the selection biases to the two models, see Web Appendix E.

### 3 SIMULATIONS

We want to answer these three questions about the p-hacking and publication bias models: (1) Do they work even in the absence of p-hacking and publication bias? Although we know these phenomena are ubiquitous and should always be corrected for, it is still important that the models do not distort the results when there is no publication bias or p-hacking. (2) How do they behave in extreme situations, in particular when \( n \) is small and the heterogeneity is large? (3) Does the p-hacking model work under the publication bias scenario and vice versa?

#### 3.1 Settings

We generate data under three scenarios: (i) With no publication bias nor p-hacking, using the normal random effect meta-analysis model. (ii) Under the presence of publication bias, using model (4). (iii) Under presence of p-hacking, using the normal random effects normal p-hacking model. The study-specific variances \( \sigma_i^2 \) are sampled uniformly from \([20, ..., 80] \). The size of the meta-analyses are \( n = 5, 30, 100 \), corresponding to small, medium and large meta-analyses, while the means for the effect size distribution are \( 0, 0.2, 0.8 \). The value \( \theta_0 = 0 \) corresponds to no expected effect, while the positive \( \theta_0 = 8 \) are the cutoffs for small and large effect sizes of Cohen (1988, pp. 24–27). The standard deviations of the random effects distributions are \( \tau = 0.1 \) and \( \tau = 0.5 \). While \( \tau = 0.1 \) is a reasonable amount of heterogeneity, \( \tau = 0.5 \) is a large amount of heterogeneity that provides a challenge for the models. The probability of acceptance of a paper is simulated to be 1 if the \( p \)-value is between 0 and 0.025, 0.7 if the \( p \)-value is between 0.025 and 0.05, and 0.1 otherwise. The p-hacking probabilities are 0.6, 0.3 and 0.1, for the threshold 0.025, 0.05 and 1, respectively.

In addition to the classical uncorrected model for meta-analysis, for each parameter combination we estimate the
TABLE 1  No publication bias, no p-hacking

| τ   | 𝜃₀   | 𝑛  | 𝑝-hacking model | 𝜃₀  | τ   | Publication bias model | 𝜃₀  | τ   | Classical model |
|-----|-------|----|-----------------|-----|-----|------------------------|-----|-----|-----------------|
| 0.1 | 0     | 5  | -0.02 (0.07)    | 0.17 (0.06) | -0.02 (0.03)    | 0.08 (0.03) | -0.02 (0.03)    | 0.07 (0.03) | 0.00 (0.08)    | 0.18 (0.07) |
|     |       | 30 | -0.06 (0.03)    | 0.08 (0.03) | -0.06 (0.02)    | 0.08 (0.03) | -0.06 (0.02)    | 0.07 (0.03) | 0.00 (0.08)    | 0.10 (0.03) |
|     |       | 100| -0.01 (0.02)    | 0.08 (0.03) | -0.01 (0.02)    | 0.08 (0.03) | -0.01 (0.02)    | 0.07 (0.03) | 0.00 (0.08)    | 0.10 (0.03) |
| 0.2 | 0     | 5  | 0.12 (0.09)     | 0.21 (0.08) | 0.09 (0.06)     | 0.17 (0.07) | 0.20 (0.08)     | 0.19 (0.08) | 0.20 (0.08)     | 0.19 (0.08) |
|     |       | 30 | 0.16 (0.03)     | 0.09 (0.04) | 0.15 (0.03)     | 0.09 (0.04) | 0.20 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04) | 0.20 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04) |
|     |       | 100| 0.18 (0.02)     | 0.09 (0.03) | 0.17 (0.02)     | 0.09 (0.03) | 0.20 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.02) | 0.20 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.02) |
| 0.8 | 0     | 5  | 0.78 (0.09)     | 0.20 (0.10) | 0.64 (0.14)     | 0.32 (0.13) | 0.79 (0.08)     | 0.19 (0.08) | 0.79 (0.08)     | 0.19 (0.08) |
|     |       | 30 | 0.80 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04) | 0.80 (0.03)     | 0.11 (0.04) | 0.80 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04) | 0.80 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04) |
|     |       | 100| 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.03) | 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.03) | 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.02) | 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.02) |
| 0.5 | 0     | 5  | -0.05 (0.22)    | 0.57 (0.21) | -0.22 (0.19)    | 0.51 (0.20) | -0.01 (0.22)    | 0.59 (0.20) | 0.59 (0.20)     | 0.59 (0.20) |
|     |       | 30 | -0.03 (0.09)    | 0.52 (0.07) | -0.13 (0.10)    | 0.48 (0.07) | 0.00 (0.09)     | 0.52 (0.07) | 0.52 (0.07)     | 0.52 (0.07) |
|     |       | 100| -0.02 (0.05)    | 0.50 (0.04) | -0.08 (0.05)    | 0.48 (0.04) | 0.00 (0.05)     | 0.50 (0.04) | 0.50 (0.04)     | 0.50 (0.04) |
| 0.2 | 0     | 5  | 0.14 (0.22)     | 0.59 (0.20) | -0.08 (0.19)    | 0.56 (0.20) | 0.19 (0.22)     | 0.59 (0.20) | 0.59 (0.20)     | 0.59 (0.20) |
|     |       | 30 | 0.17 (0.09)     | 0.52 (0.07) | 0.05 (0.09)     | 0.50 (0.08) | 0.20 (0.09)     | 0.51 (0.07) | 0.51 (0.07)     | 0.51 (0.07) |
|     |       | 100| 0.18 (0.05)     | 0.51 (0.04) | 0.11 (0.06)     | 0.50 (0.04) | 0.20 (0.05)     | 0.50 (0.04) | 0.50 (0.04)     | 0.50 (0.04) |
| 0.8 | 0     | 5  | 0.71 (0.24)     | 0.63 (0.21) | 0.37 (0.25)     | 0.75 (0.21) | 0.74 (0.23)     | 0.59 (0.21) | 0.59 (0.21)     | 0.59 (0.21) |
|     |       | 30 | 0.77 (0.10)     | 0.53 (0.07) | 0.59 (0.13)     | 0.60 (0.08) | 0.79 (0.09)     | 0.51 (0.07) | 0.51 (0.07)     | 0.51 (0.07) |
|     |       | 100| 0.79 (0.05)     | 0.52 (0.04) | 0.69 (0.07)     | 0.56 (0.05) | 0.80 (0.05)     | 0.51 (0.04) | 0.51 (0.04)     | 0.51 (0.04) |

Note: Posterior means and, between brackets, the corresponding standard deviations for 𝜃₀ and τ from the p-hacking and publication bias models when the data are simulated from the normal random effects meta-analysis model.

p-hacking model and the publication bias model using Bayesian methods. While a frequentist approach is in theory possible, it may lead to poor results if ad hoc penalizations or bias corrections are not implemented. See McShane et al. (2016, Appendix, 1) and Moss (2020a) for further details. All models have normal likelihoods and normal effect size distributions. We use one-sided significance cutoffs at 0.025 and 0.05 for both the publication bias and the p-hacking models. We use standard normal priors for 𝜃₀, 𝜓₀ ∼ 𝑁(0,1), a standard half-normal prior for τ, that is τ = |τ∗|, with τ∗ ∼ 𝑁(0,1), and, in the p-hacking model, a uniform Dirichlet prior for 𝜋, 𝜋 ∼ Dir(1). For the 𝜌 in the publication bias model, we use a uniform Dirichlet that constrains 𝜌₀ ≥ ... ≥ 𝜌_J. That is, the publication probability is a decreasing function of the p-value.

All of these priors are reasonable. A standard normal for 𝜃₀ is reasonable because we know that 𝜃₀ has a small magnitude in pretty much any meta-analysis, and most are clustered around 0. A half-normal prior for τ is also reasonable, as τ is much more likely to be very small than very big. The priors for ρ and τ are harder to reason about, but a uniform Dirichlet seems like a natural and neutral choice. These are the standard prior of the R package publipha (Moss, 2020b), which we used for all computations. publipha uses STAN (Carpenter et al., 2017) to estimate the models, and each estimation uses eight chains. As suggested by a reviewer, we also tried different priors (uniform on [0,3] and the inverse gamma with shape = 2 and scale = 0.5) for τ, because this quantity is critical in Bayesian meta-analyses (see, e.g., Turner et al., 2012). The results in Web Appendix F show that our models are robust to this choice.

The number of simulations is 𝑁 = 1000 for each parameter combination. The code used to run the simulations is available in the Online Supporting Information and in an OSF repository (https://osf.io/tx8qn/).

3.2 | Results

No publication bias, no p-hacking

The results under this scenario are reported in Table 1. When the amount of heterogeneity is reasonable (τ = 0.1) both the p-hacking and the publication bias perform well. The publication bias model performs slightly worse than the p-hacking model when the mean effect size is large (𝜃₀ = 0.8) and the number of studies small (𝑛 = 5), but it catches up as 𝑛 increases. With τ = 0.5, the p-hacking model outperforms the publication bias model, with the latter tending to underestimate the mean effect. While increasing 𝑛 alleviates the problem, there is still a substantial underestimation of 𝜃₀ even in the case of 𝑛 = 100. In contrast, both models seem to estimate τ pretty well. Obviously, without any publication bias or
**Publication bias**

Overall, the publication bias model outperforms the \( p \)-hacking model when the data are generated from the publication bias model, but not by much (see Table 2). When \( \tau = 0.5 \), the \( p \)-hacking model tends to overestimate \( \theta_0 \) while the publication bias model tends to underestimate it. The overestimation of the \( p \)-hacking model is most extreme when \( \theta_0 = 0.2 \), but not as strong as the classical uncorrected model. When \( \tau = 0.1 \), the publication bias and \( p \)-hacking models produce almost indistinguishable results, outperforming the uncorrected model (especially if the effect \( \theta_0 \) is null or small). Just as in the \( p \)-hacking scenario, both models estimate \( \tau \) reasonably well.

### 4 | EXAMPLES

In this section, we apply the models on the two meta-analyses of Cuddy et al. (2018) and Anderson et al. (2010). As in the simulation study, we use normal models for each effect size with one-sided significance cutoff at 0.025 and 0.05 for both models. We use the same priors as we did in the simulation study. To compare the fit of the models, we use the leave-one-out cross-validation information criterion (LOOIC) (Vehtari et al., 2017), calculated using the R package loo (Vehtari et al., 2018). LOOIC equals \(-2 \cdot \text{elpd}_{\text{loo}}\), where \( \text{elpd}_{\text{loo}} \) is a leave-one-out cross validation-based estimate of ELPD. In turn, ELPD is the expected log pointwise predictive density for a new data set. Just as the AIC, smaller values indicate better model fit. As for the simulation study, the analyses have been done with the R package publipha (Moss, 2020b), which in turn uses STAN (Carpenter et al., 2017). Each model has been estimated with eight chains. The code used to run the examples can be found in the Online Supporting
Table 3: p-hacking

| True values | p-hacking model | Publication bias model | Classical model |
|--------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------|
|              |                 |                        |                 |
| $\tau$       | $\theta_0$      | $\bar{x}$             | $\theta_0$      | $\bar{x}$       |
| $\phi_0$     | $n$             | $\phi_0$               | $n$             |
| 0.1          | 0               | 5                      | 0.06 (0.15)     | 0.28 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.05 (0.06)     | 0.17 (0.05)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.29 (0.06)     | 0.15 (0.08)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.02 (0.06)     | 0.07 (0.03)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.29 (0.02)     | 0.05 (0.03)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.02 (0.06)     | 0.05 (0.02)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.28 (0.01)     | 0.03 (0.02)     |
| 0.2          | 5               | 0.12 (0.14)            | 0.28 (0.09)     | 0.10 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.20 (0.06)     | 0.17 (0.05)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.35 (0.05)     | 0.13 (0.05)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.16 (0.06)     | 0.09 (0.04)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.34 (0.02)     | 0.04 (0.02)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.16 (0.05)     | 0.08 (0.03)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.34 (0.01)     | 0.02 (0.01)     |
| 0.8          | 5               | 0.78 (0.09)            | 0.20 (0.09)     | 0.63 (0.15)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.32 (0.13)     | 0.79 (0.08)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.19 (0.07)     | 0.19 (0.07)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.80 (0.03)     | 0.10 (0.04)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.10 (0.03)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.80 (0.02)     | 0.09 (0.03)     |
| 0.5          | 0               | 0.07 (0.22)            | 0.48 (0.19)     | 0.00 (0.15)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.37 (0.20)     | 0.36 (0.12)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.29 (0.20)     | 0.29 (0.20)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.36 (0.14)     | 0.37 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.37 (0.03)     | 0.25 (0.05)     |
| 0.2          | 5               | 0.20 (0.22)            | 0.52 (0.20)     | 0.04 (0.14)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.45 (0.21)     | 0.43 (0.13)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.33 (0.19)     | 0.43 (0.13)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.46 (0.10)     | 0.45 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.29 (0.08)     | 0.45 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.45 (0.03)     | 0.28 (0.04)     |
| 0.8          | 5               | 0.73 (0.22)            | 0.61 (0.20)     | 0.36 (0.24)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.74 (0.21)     | 0.80 (0.18)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.52 (0.18)     | 0.80 (0.18)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.85 (0.08)     | 0.43 (0.06)     |
|              |                 |                        | 0.85 (0.04)     | 0.43 (0.03)     |

Note: Posterior means and standard deviations from the p-hacking and publication bias models when the data are simulated from the p-hacking model with cutoffs at 0.025 and 0.05, with p-hacking probabilities equal to 0.6, 0.3 and 0.1 for $\alpha$ equal to 0.025, 0.05 and 1.

Information and in an OSF repository (https://osf.io/tx8qn/).

4.1 Power posing

Cuddy et al. (2018) conducted a meta-analysis of the effect of power posing, an alleged phenomenon where adopting expansive postures has positive psychological feedback effects. Their meta-analysis is not conventional, but a p-curve analysis (Simonsohn et al., 2014a). A p-curve analysis is not based on estimated effect sizes and standard errors, but directly on p-values. The data from Cuddy et al. (2018) can be accessed via the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/pfh6r/). Here, we only consider studies with outcome ‘mean difference’, design ‘2 cell’, and test statistic that is either $F$ or $t$. The $F$-statistics are all with 1 denominator degree of freedom, and the root of these are distributed as the absolute value of a $t$-distributed variable. The $t$-values and the roots of the $F$-statistics are converted to standardized mean differences by using $d = \sqrt{\frac{\nu}{\nu}}$, where $\nu$ is the degrees of freedom for the $t$-test. The standardized mean differences are to the left in Figure 1. Note the outlier $x_{12} = 1.72$. As it has a large effect on all the models, we analyse the data both with and without $x_{12}$.

The estimates of the p-hacking model, the publication bias model and the uncorrected meta-analysis models are in Table 4. According to the LOOIC, the corrected models account much better for the data than the uncorrected model. Both the p-hacking model and the publication bias models estimate larger $\tau$s and smaller $\theta_0$s than the classical model, with the publication bias model estimating the surprising $\theta_0 \approx 0$. But recall the results of the simulation study, where the publication bias model severely underestimates $\theta_0$ when the p-hacking model is true.

The publication bias selection affects not only the observed $x_1$s, but also the $\theta_0$s. As a consequence, the posterior mean of the selected effect size distribution (this equals 0.37, is not shown in the table, and equals the average of the posterior means for the $\theta_0$s) is much closer to the uncorrected model’s estimate than the p-hacked estimate. This effect can be most easily understood by looking at a specific $\theta_0$, for example, the $\theta_2$ reported in the right plot of Figure 1, where $x_2 = 0.62$. In this case, the publication bias posterior for is close to the uncorrected posterior even though $\theta_0 \approx 0$. On the other hand, the p-hacking model pushes 0.62 down to 0.17, towards the meta-analytic mean of 0.18.

Finally, the surprisingly low value for $\theta_0$ obtained with the publication bias model can be a side effect of the presence of the outlier $x_{12} = 1.72$. Its presence on the right tail of an hypothetical true effect size distribution implies unobserved low and negative effects not reported due to publication bias. When the outlier is removed from the
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FIGURE 1 (Left) Effect sizes for the power posing example. The dotted black line is 1.96/sd and the dashed black line is 1.64/sd. The ticks on the right-hand side are the meta-analytic means: 0.48 is from the uncorrected model, 0.17 is the mean of the selected effect size distribution under the p-hacking model, while −0.06 is the mean under the publication bias model. (Right) Posterior densities for $\delta_2$ in the power posing example. The dashed density belongs to the p-hacking model, the dotted density to the publication bias model and the solid density to the uncorrected model. The point $x_2 = 0.62$ is marked for reference.

### TABLE 4  Power posing example

|                     | LOOIC | $\hat{\delta}_0$ | $\tau$ | $\pi_{1/\mathcal{P}_1}$ | $\pi_{2/\mathcal{P}_2}$ |
|---------------------|-------|-------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| **All studies**     |       |                   |        |                          |                          |
| Uncorrected         | 16 (18)| 0.48 (0.07)       | 0.27 (0.06) |                          |                          |
| p-hacking           | −18 (14)| 0.18 (0.12)       | 0.45 (0.10) | 0.62 (0.15)              | 0.23 (0.14)              |
| Publication bias    | −5.1 (22)| −0.06 (0.23)  | 0.37 (0.09) | 0.39 (0.22)              | 0.03 (0.03)              |
| **Without outlier** |       |                   |        |                          |                          |
| Uncorrected         | −7.1 (5.7)| 0.39 (0.04)       | 0.09 (0.05) |                          |                          |
| p-hacking           | −38 (10)| 0.18 (0.07)       | 0.09 (0.07) | 0.62 (0.15)              | 0.24 (0.15)              |
| Publication bias    | −35 (11)| 0.16 (0.09)       | 0.08 (0.06) | 0.26 (0.17)              | 0.03 (0.03)              |

Note: Posterior means for LOOICs and parameters (mean effect $\hat{\delta}$, standard deviation $\tau$, probabilities of p-hacking $\pi$/probabilities of being published $\rho$) of the p-hacking, publication bias and classical meta-analysis (uncorrected) model estimated on the data by Cuddy et al. (2018). The results in the top table are obtained with all studies, those in the bottom without the outlier $x_{12}$. Posterior standard deviations are reported between brackets.

In conclusion, the $p$-hacking and publication bias models suggest there is selection bias in these studies. Both models have much better fit than the uncorrected one and it is reasonable to accept their parameter estimates as more realistic. Nonetheless, both models agree on a value of $\hat{\delta}_0$ that is likely to be different from 0. The results of Table 4 supports Cuddy et al. (2018)’s conclusion that there is evidence for some positive effect of power posing. The $p$-hacking model does not suffer the presence of an outlier, and, in contrast to the publication bias model, provides similar results with and without $x_{12}$ in the data.

#### 4.2 Violent video games

Anderson et al. (2010) conducted a large meta-analysis of the effects of violent video games on seven negative outcomes such as aggressive behaviour and aggressive cognition. As part of their analysis, they classified some experiments as best practice experiments (for more details,
FIGURE 2  Violent video games example with outcome variable aggressive behaviour. (Top-left) Effect sizes. The dotted black line is 1.96/sd and the dashed black line is 1.64/sd. The ticks on the right-hand side are the uncorrected meta-analytical means for each group: 0.29 for the best practices group, 0.08 for the rest. The outlier $x = 1.33$ has been removed from the plot. (Top-right) Posterior densities for $\theta_0$ with all experiments included. The dashed density belongs to the $p$-hacking model, the dotted to the publication bias model and the solid to the uncorrected model. (Bottom-left) Posterior densities for $\theta_0$ from the publication bias model. The solid curve is the model with all experiments, the dotted the model with the best practice experiments and the dashed line the model without the best experiments. The posteriors for the $p$-hacking model are similar to this one. (Bottom-right) Posterior densities for $\theta_0$ (solid line: all experiments; dotted line: best practice experiments only and dashed line without the best experiments) from the uncorrected meta-analysis model.

see tab. 2 of Anderson et al., 2010). Suspecting publication bias, Hilgard et al. (2017) reanalysed the data using an array of tools to detect and adjust for publication bias. For the outcome variable aggressive cognition, Hilgard et al. (2017) noted that ‘Application of best-practices criteria seems to emphasize statistical significance, and a knot of experiments just reach statistical significance’. The data can be found on the web (Hilgard, 2017) and are visualized to the top left in Figure 2. In the plot, the best practice experiments are represented by solid circles, all other experiments by hollow squares. An outlier $x = 1.33$ has been removed from the data set, and excluded from our analyses. Its removal substantially improves the fit for all the models.

In this example, we fit the three models ($p$-hacking, publication bias and uncorrected models) to three data subsets (all experiments, only best practice experiments, without best practice experiments). The outcome variable is aggressive behaviour. Our aim is to answer the following: (1) What are the parameter estimates, in each subset, for each model? (2) Which model has the best fit? (3) Do we have a reason to believe the best practice experiments are drawn from a different underlying distribution than the other experiments, as Hilgard et al. (2017) and the top
TABLE 5 Violent video games example

|                | LOOIC | $\theta_0$  | $\tau$  | $\pi_1/\rho_1$ | $\pi_2/\rho_2$ |
|----------------|-------|-------------|---------|----------------|----------------|
| **All experiments** |       |             |         |                |                |
| Uncorrected     | −38 (11) | 0.18 (0.02) | 0.04 (0.03) |                |                |
| $p$-hacking     | −48 (13) | 0.09 (0.04) | 0.05 (0.04) | 0.25 (0.11) | 0.23 (0.11)   |
| Publication bias| −54 (13) | 0.08 (0.03) | 0.03 (0.02) | 0.44 (0.18) | 0.13 (0.07)   |
| **Only best practice experiments** |       |             |         |                |                |
| Uncorrected     | −42 (6.2) | 0.22 (0.02) | 0.03 (0.02) |                |                |
| $p$-hacking     | −59 (12) | 0.10 (0.05) | 0.06 (0.04) | 0.37 (0.17) | 0.41 (0.17)   |
| Publication bias| −61 (11) | 0.11 (0.04) | 0.03 (0.02) | 0.46 (0.21) | 0.06 (0.05)   |
| **Without best practice experiments** |       |             |         |                |                |
| Uncorrected     | −7.4 (5.7) | 0.06 (0.04) | 0.08 (0.05) |                |                |
| $p$-hacking     | −6.2 (5.1) | 0.01 (0.05) | 0.07 (0.05) | 0.10 (0.07) | 0.11 (0.08)   |
| Publication bias| −7.7 (5) | 0.02 (0.04) | 0.06 (0.04) | 0.61 (0.23) | 0.35 (0.19)   |

Note: Posterior means for LOOICs and parameters (mean effect $\theta$, standard deviation $\tau$, probabilities of $p$-hacking $\pi$ and probabilities of being published $\rho$) of the $p$-hacking, publication bias and classical meta-analysis (uncorrected) model estimated on the aggressive behaviour data from Anderson et al. (2010). Posterior standard deviations are reported between brackets.

left plot of Figure 2 suggest? (4) Is there a large difference between the posterior for $\theta_0$ and the mean posterior for the $\theta_i$s, as we saw in the previous example?

The first three questions can be answered by looking at Table 5. The estimates of $\theta_0$ are approximately the same for the publication bias and $p$-hacking models, and roughly half of the uncorrected estimate in all cases. In particular, when all experiments or only the best experiments are considered, there is a noticeable difference. In these two cases, the LOOICs suggest that some $p$-hacking or publication bias is present, as they are smaller than the LOOIC for the uncorrected models. Although the publication bias model seems to work slightly better than the $p$-hacking model, we can state that the two models agree and we have little reason to prefer one to the other. Basically, we can interpret this as converging evidence that the parameter estimates obtained with these two models for $\theta_0$ and $\tau$ are in the ballpark of their true values.

Interestingly, when we exclude the experiments not considered best practice by Anderson et al. (2010), the differences between the estimates provided by the corrected and uncorrected models reduce and the LOOICs are almost the same. The question is if the differences between best practice and non-best practice studies reflect a different underlying distribution or not. To answer this question, let us take a look at the posterior densities for $\theta_0$ when all experiments are included, as reported in the top right plot of Figure 2. In this case, the posterior distributions computed with the $p$-hacking and publication bias models are similar (dashed and dotted lines, respectively), which strengthens the agreement seen in Table 5. There is no large difference between the posterior for $\theta_0$ and the mean posterior for the $\theta_i$s as in the previous example. The answer to question (4) is therefore no.

Back to question (3), we have good reasons to believe the best practice experiments have been drawn from a different underlying distribution than the other experiments if there is negligible overlap between the posteriors for the parameters $\theta_0$. The uncorrected model supports this hypothesis (bottom right plot of Figure 2), but the $p$-hacking and publication bias models do not. See the bottom left plot of Figure 2 for the posteriors for $\theta_0$ in the publication bias model (those obtained with the $p$-hacking model are indistinguishable). In this case, the overlap between the posteriors for the different subsets is not negligible, and there is no evidence against hypotheses of equal $\theta_0$s in both groups. The same conclusion can be reached from Table 5 by looking at the posterior standard deviations and posterior means.

5 | CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper, we studied two models to handle the effect of $p$-hacking and publication bias. Although the $p$-hacking model worked really well in the simulation study, we have to admit that the $p$-hacking scenario described in Section 2.4 is less plausible than the publication bias scenario of Section 2.3. The assumption of Bob’s $p$-hacking omnipotence is strong. For while some researchers are able $p$-hackers, most give up at some point. Does truncation actually model $p$-hacking in the wild? Analysing $p$-hacking is hard without serious simplifying assumptions. The model we proposed is interpretable and
implementable, and it appears to work well in practice, as one can see in the examples of Section 4.

In this paper, we only considered normal densities, but the theory holds more generally. A remaining concern is identifiability, but we show in Web Appendix G that the publication bias and the p-hacking models are identifiable under weak conditions on $f$.

We are often interested in understanding and modelling the sources of heterogeneity in a meta-analysis (Thompson, 1994). A way to do this is to let $\theta_i$ linearly depend on covariates, in the meta-analysis context known as moderators. If we extend the one-sided discrete models publication bias and p-hacking models to include covariates, we will be able to estimate their effect while keeping the p-hacking probability or the selection probability fixed, as done by, for example, Vevea and Hedges (1995) in the publication bias model. Another option is to allow the p-hacking probability or the selection probability to depend on covariates themselves. For instance, the difficulty of p-hacking is likely to increase with $n$, the sample size of the study. Similarly, the selection probability is also likely to be influenced by $n$; for example, when $n$ is large, null-effects are more publishable.

Although the common practice in meta-analysis studies is to treat the standard deviations as nuisance parameter, the actual tests usually contain an estimate of the standard error and this can also influence the selection mechanism. Further modifications to the models can be obtained by allowing for this.

We saw in the simulations and in Example 4.1 that the publication bias and the p-hacking models can give remarkably different results even with similar priors and the same cutoff vector. A way to react to this situation is to choose the best-fitting model in terms of, for example, LOOIC. To be safe, one can present the results of both models and try to understand the differences between them, as we did in the examples of Section 4. In the publication bias model, it is especially important to be aware of the interpretation of $\theta_0$ as the mean of the underlying effect size distribution, not the effect size distribution of the observed studies. Therefore, the best response to the question ‘Should one use the p-hacking and publication bias model?’ is probably ‘Use both!’

Finally, it would be interesting to model publication bias and p-hacking at the same time:

Bob $p$-hacks his research to a $p$-value drawn from $\omega$ and sends it to Alice’s journal. Alice accepts the paper with probability $w(u_i)$. Every rejected study is lost.

In this scenario, the original density $\phi(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i)$ is transformed twice: First by p-hacking, then by publication bias. The resulting model is

$$f(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) \propto w(u_i) \int_{[0,1]} \phi_{\omega}(x_i | \theta_i, \sigma^2_i) d\omega(\omega).$$

This is a reasonable model, but its normalizing constant is hard to calculate, even when $\omega$ is discrete and $\omega$ is a step function. Additional work on this problem is required.

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