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Supplementary Table	1	Haddaway et al. Supplementary File.xlsx	Supplementary Table 1. Examples of literature reviews and common problems identified.

1

2 **Eight problems with literature reviews and how to fix them**

3

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7

8 **Article impact statement:** Systematic reviews can easily fall foul of eight key pitfalls
9 commonly found in poor reviews. However, these pitfalls can be readily avoided.

10

11 **Running head:** The road to reliable systematic reviews

12

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15

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17

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38 **Eight problems with literature reviews and how to fix them**

39

40 **Abstract**

41 Traditional approaches to reviewing literature may be susceptible to bias and result
42 in incorrect decisions. This is of particular concern when reviews address policy- and
43 practice- relevant questions. Systematic reviews have been introduced as a more
44 rigorous approach to synthesising evidence across studies; they rely on a suite of
45 evidence-based methods aimed at maximising rigour and minimising susceptibility
46 to bias. Despite the increasing popularity of systematic reviews in the environmental
47 field, evidence synthesis methods continue to be poorly applied in practice, resulting
48 in the publication of syntheses that are highly susceptible to bias. Recognising the
49 constraints that researchers can sometimes feel when attempting to plan, conduct
50 and publish rigorous and comprehensive evidence syntheses, we aim here to
51 identify major pitfalls in the conduct and reporting of systematic reviews, making
52 use of recent examples from across the field. Adopting a 'critical friend' role in
53 supporting would-be systematic reviews and avoiding individual responses to
54 police use of the 'systematic review' label, we go on to identify methodological
55 solutions to mitigate these pitfalls. We then highlight existing support available to
56 avoid these issues and call on the entire community, including systematic review
57 specialists, to work towards better evidence syntheses for better evidence and better
58 decisions.

59 **Background**

60 The aims of literature reviews range from providing a primer for the uninitiated to
61 summarising the evidence for decision making [1]. Traditional approaches to
62 literature reviews are susceptible to bias and may result in incorrect decisions [2, 3].
63 This can be particularly problematic when reviews address applied, policy-relevant
64 questions, such as human impact on the environment or effectiveness of
65 interventions where there is a need for review results to provide a high level of
66 credibility, accountability, transparency, objectivity, or where there is a large or
67 disparate evidence base or controversy and disagreement amongst existing studies.
68 Instead, rigorous approaches to synthesising evidence across studies may be needed,
69 i.e. systematic reviews.

70

71 Systematic review is a type of research synthesis that relies on a suite of evidence-
72 based methods aimed at maximising rigour and minimising susceptibility to bias.
73 This is achieved by attempting to increase comprehensiveness, transparency, and
74 procedural objectivity of the review process [4]. The methods involved are outlined
75 in Figure 1 [see also 2, 5].

76

77 Systematic reviews were originally developed in the fields of social science and
78 healthcare and have had a transformative effect, particularly in health, where they
79 underpin evidence-based medicine [6]. Introduction of systematic reviews into
80 medicine was facilitated by Cochrane, the review coordinating body that sets
81 standards and guidance for systematic reviews of healthcare interventions
82 (<https://www.cochrane.org/>). Systematic reviews are now increasingly published
83 in other fields, with the Collaboration for Environmental Evidence (CEE) established
84 in 2008 to act as the coordinating body supporting efforts in the field of conservation
85 and environmental management (see <http://www.environmentalevidence.org>).

86

87

88 *Towards a better understanding of rigour in evidence synthesis*

89 Despite the increasing popularity of systematic reviews in the environmental field,
90 evidence synthesis methods continue to be poorly applied in practice, resulting in
91 the publication of syntheses that are highly susceptible to bias. In one assessment by
92 O’Leary et al. [7], a set of 92 environmental reviews published in 2015 was judged to
93 be poorly conducted and reported (a median score of 2.5 out of a possible 39 using
94 the synthesis appraisal tool CEESAT, Woodcock et al. [8]). Substandard reviews
95 could provide misleading findings, potentially causing harm and wasting valuable
96 resources in research, policy and practice. Furthermore, these reviews could erode
97 trust in evidence synthesis as an academic endeavour.

98

99 Substantial support exists to help raise the rigour of evidence synthesis toward the
100 recognised standards of systematic reviews: a range of Open Access methodological
101 guidance and standards exists both across subjects [9, 10] and in the field of
102 conservation and environment [5]. Methods for peer-reviewing and critically
103 appraising the rigour of systematic reviews are also freely available [8, 11]. Open
104 Educational resources in evidence synthesis methodology exist online (e.g. ¹ and
105 <https://synthesistraining.github.io/>). There are free-to-use, online platforms
106 designed to support the methodology, such as SysRev (<https://sysrev.com>). Finally,
107 an open and willing community of practice consisting of hundreds of
108 methodologists exists in the field of conservation and environment (CEE,
109 www.environmentalevidence.org), as it does in social policy (the Campbell
110 Collaboration, www.campbellcollaboration.org) and healthcare (Cochrane,
111 www.cochrane.org). That said, the lack of awareness and adherence to
112 internationally accepted minimum standards and best practices in evidence
113 synthesis in the field of conservation and environment demonstrates that more must
114 be done to support the publication of reliable syntheses. Despite all these clear
115 international standards and freely accessible and abundant guidance for systematic
116 reviews, review articles are frequently published that claim to be ‘systematic
117 reviews’, because they have employed some elements of the method, but fall
118 substantially short of the standard [12]. In sum, we see two related issues when
119 considering rigour of evidence syntheses. Firstly, most published evidence reviews

120 are poorly conducted. Secondly, those that describe themselves as ‘systematic
121 reviews’ imply an increased level of rigour, and where this is not true (i.e. the
122 authors have failed to adequately follow accepted standards), confusion occurs over
123 what the term ‘systematic review’ really means.

124

125 Here, we describe issues affecting all evidence reviews and encourage review
126 authors to transparently report their methods so that the reader can judge how
127 systematic they have been. We do not believe that all reviews should be ‘systematic
128 reviews’; for example, ‘primers’ or overviews to a novel topic or reviews that
129 combine concepts do not seek to be comprehensive, rigorous or definitive in
130 influencing policy. However, we do believe that all reviews can benefit from
131 applying some of these best practices in systematic approaches, with transparency
132 perhaps being the least costly to operationalise.

133

134 We understand the resource and time constraints faced by review authors, and we
135 appreciate the costs involved in attempting to produce and publish rigorous
136 evidence syntheses. However, we do believe that the reliability of reviews intended
137 to inform policy is a serious scientific and social issue and could be substantially
138 improved if the research community were to fully embrace rigorous evidence
139 synthesis methods, committing to raise awareness across the board. We also know
140 that this can be achieved incrementally, progressively increasing the standard of
141 reviews produced over time, and without necessarily breaking the bank when it
142 comes to resources and funding.

143

144

145 **Objectives**

146 Recognising the constraints that researchers can sometimes face when attempting to
147 plan, conduct and publish rigorous and comprehensive evidence syntheses, we aim
148 here to identify major pitfalls in the conduct and reporting of systematic reviews,
149 making use of recent examples from across the field. Adopting a ‘critical friend’ role
150 of supporting potential systematic reviewers, we go on to identify methodological

151 solutions to mitigate these pitfalls. We then highlight existing support available to
152 avoid these issues. Finally, we describe key intervention points where the
153 conservation and environmental management communities, including funders,
154 review authors, editors, peer-reviewers, educators, and us as methodologists, can act
155 to avoid problems associated with unreliable and substandard reviews.

156

157

158 **8 problems, 8 solutions**

159 In the following section, we use recent examples of literature reviews published in
160 the field of conservation and environmental science to highlight 8 major limitations
161 and sources of bias in evidence synthesis that undermine reliability. We describe
162 each problem and provide potential mitigation solutions in turn. The problems,
163 examples and solutions for different actors are outlined in Supplementary
164 Information.

165

166 *1. Lack of relevance (limited stakeholder engagement)*

167 *Description:* Taking a broad definition of stakeholders (including any individual or
168 group who is affected by or may affect the review and its findings [13]), all reviews
169 whose results will be used either to shape an academic field or to inform policy or
170 practice decision making should involve some degree of stakeholder engagement.
171 Doing so can improve review effectiveness, efficiency and impact [14, 15]. In some
172 ‘public goods’ reviews (i.e. those published and intended for a wide audience [16]),
173 however, authors do not adequately engage with relevant stakeholders. This may
174 result in the scope of the review being of limited practical relevance to researchers
175 and decision-makers. It may also result in the review using definitions of key
176 concepts and search terms that are not broadly accepted or appropriate, limiting
177 acceptance and uptake of the review’s findings, or producing an inaccurate or biased
178 selection of literature. This may result from a lack of coherence within the
179 stakeholder communities themselves. Stakeholder engagement in evidence synthesis
180 is an opportunity for attempting to resolve these issues, however; providing broad
181 benefits to the wider science-policy and -practice community.

182

183 *Example:* In conducting the systematic review on the impacts of palm oil production
184 on biodiversity, Savilaakso et al. [17] contacted recognised experts and key
185 stakeholders as outlined in the protocol [18]. Although the authors contacted
186 company representatives, in retrospect the stakeholder engagement was not broad
187 enough. After publication of the review, the Malaysian palm oil industry criticised
188 the review for its narrow focus on biodiversity and not including poverty impacts. A
189 broader stakeholder engagement could have alleviated the problem by explaining
190 the purpose of the review (i.e. review of existing knowledge as a starting point for
191 research proposals related to land-use) and/or it could have led to a broader review
192 inclusive of social impacts.

193

194 *Mitigation strategies:* Stakeholder engagement can require substantial resources if
195 reviewers aim for it to be comprehensive and include physical meetings, particularly
196 on contentious topics. However, stakeholders can readily be identified, mapped and
197 contacted for feedback and inclusion without the need for extensive budgets.
198 Reviewers could, as a minimum, attempt to identify important minorities or
199 marginalised groups and then engage with key groups remotely, asking for feedback
200 on a brief summary of the planned review by email [14, 19]. This should be
201 described in the review report.

202

203

204 2. *Mission creep and lack of a protocol*

205 *Description:* Mission creep occurs when the review deviates from the initial
206 objectives. Key definitions, search strategies and inclusion or appraisal criteria may
207 alter over time or differ between reviewers. The resultant set of articles will then not
208 be representative of the relevant evidence base and important studies may have been
209 omitted. As a result, the review may be highly inaccurate and misleading, and will
210 be unrepeatably. *A priori* protocols minimise bias, allow constructive feedback before
211 mistakes in review methodology are made, allow readers to verify methods and
212 reporting, and act as a within-group roadmap in methods during conduct of the

213 review. Reviews that lack protocols preclude this clarity and verifiability. This is
214 similar to ‘pre-registering’ of primary research in some fields, where methodological
215 plans are published, date-stamped, versioned and are unalterable).

216

217 *Example:* In their review of insect declines, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys [20] failed
218 to provide a protocol and succumbed to mission creep. They did so by initially
219 focusing on drivers of insect decline as described in the objectives, but shifting to
220 generalise about insect populations across all species, not just those declining. Their
221 searches focused exclusively on studies identifying declining populations, but their
222 conclusions purportedly relate to all insect populations. Similarly, Agarwala and
223 Ginsberg [21] reviewed the tragedy of the commons and common-property
224 resources but failed to provide a protocol that would justify the choice of search
225 terms and clarify the criteria selecting studies for the review.

226

227 *Mitigation strategies:* Review authors should carefully design an *a priori* protocol that
228 outlines planned methods for searching, screening, data extraction, critical appraisal
229 and synthesis in detail. This should ideally be peer-reviewed and published
230 (journals such as Environmental Evidence, Ecological Solutions and Evidence, and
231 Conservation Biology now accept registered reports/protocols, and protocols can be
232 stored publicly on preprint servers such as Open Science Framework Preprints
233 [<https://osf.io/preprints>]), and may benefit substantially from stakeholder feedback
234 (see point 1 above). Occasionally, deviations from the protocol are necessary as
235 evidence emerges, and these must be detailed and justified in the final report.

236

237

238 3. *Lack of transparency/replicability (inability to repeat the study)*

239 *Description:* An ability to repeat a review’s methods exactly (also referred to as
240 ‘replicability’) is a central tenet of the scientific method [22], and the methods used to
241 produce reviews should be reported transparently in sufficient detail to allow the
242 review to be replicated or verified [23]. If the reader can understand neither how
243 studies were identified, selected and synthesised, nor which were excluded, the risk

244 of bias cannot be assessed, and unclear subjective decisions may affect reliability.
245 Unreplicable reviews cannot truly be trusted, since mistakes may have been made
246 during conduct. In addition, unreplicable reviews have limited legacy, since they
247 cannot be upgraded or updated and differences in outcomes between several
248 reviews on the same topic cannot be reconciled. Ultimately, unreplicable reviews
249 erode trust in evidence synthesis as a discipline, creating a barrier to evidence-
250 informed policy. Similarly, a lack of transparency in reporting what was found (i.e.
251 raw study data, summary statistics, and analytical code) prevents analytical
252 replication and verification.

253

254 *Example:* Lwasa et al. [24], in their review of the mediating impacts of urban
255 agriculture and forestry on climate change, failed to describe their methods in
256 sufficient detail; for example, which grey literature sources and which
257 databases/indexes within Web of Science were searched. In addition, the authors
258 reported only some of the terms that were included in the bibliographic searches. In
259 their review of the impact of species traits on responses to climate change, Pacifici et
260 al. [25] did not describe how their inclusion criteria were applied in practice, so it is
261 impossible to know whether or how they dealt with subjectivity and inconsistency
262 between reviewers. More problematic, Owen-Smith [26] and Prugh et al. [27] failed
263 to include a methods section of any kind in their reviews. Also problematic, and
264 perhaps more common than a failure to describe methods, is a failure to include the
265 extracted data. For example, Li et al. [28] did not present their data, which prevents
266 replication of their analyses or later updating of their synthesis.

267

268 *Mitigation strategies:* Making use of high-standard evidence syntheses and guidance
269 (such as those published by Cochrane, the Campbell Collaboration and CEE) as
270 examples can help improve reporting. Similarly, review authors should attempt to
271 conform to internationally accepted review reporting standards, such as PRISMA
272 [29] and ROSES [23], to ensure all relevant methodological information has been
273 included in protocols and review reports. Additionally, review authors can choose to
274 include methodology experts in their review teams or advisory groups. Finally,

275 review authors can choose to publish their syntheses through leading organisations
276 and journals working with systematic reviews and maps, such as CEE.

277

278 Review authors should provide meta-data (descriptive information), data
279 (individual study findings), and analytical code (e.g. R scripts used for meta-
280 analysis) in full alongside their review as far as is legally permitted, and summary
281 data where not. Guidelines ([https://data.research.cornell.edu/content/writing-
282 metadata](https://data.research.cornell.edu/content/writing-metadata)) and example systematic reviews [e.g. 30] can highlight best practices in
283 meta-data creation. Where authors' decisions are known to be somewhat subjective,
284 for example on issues relating to study validity, review authors should first trial
285 assessments and then discuss among co-authors all inconsistencies in detail before
286 continuing. In addition, reviewers should report in detail all decisions, for example:
287 which studies are eligible, what data should be extracted, and how valid studies are
288 viewed to be, along with justifications for these decisions. This then allows actions to
289 be fully understood and replicated.

290

291

292 4. *Selection bias and a lack of comprehensiveness (inappropriate search methods and
293 strategy)*

294 *Description:* Selection bias occurs where the articles included in a review are not
295 representative of the evidence base as a whole [31]. Any resultant synthesis and
296 conclusions based on this evidence are then highly likely to be biased or inaccurate.
297 Broadly speaking, selection bias may occur in reviews as a result of failing to account
298 for bias in what research is published (publication bias) and what data are reported
299 in published studies (reporting bias), and by substandard review methods that affect
300 which studies are included in the review. Specifically in relation to search strategies,
301 however, selection bias affects syntheses through inappropriate search strategies; for
302 example, as a result of 'cherry picking' studies for inclusion, choosing
303 biased/unrepresentative bibliographic databases, or using inappropriate search
304 strategies for the subject at hand.

305

306 *Example:* By including ‘decline’ as a search term, Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys [20]
307 targeted only studies showing a reduction in insect population, contradicting their
308 goal to collate “all long-term insect surveys conducted over the past 40 years”. Thus,
309 the authors synthesised a subset of evidence based on the direction of observed
310 results, potentially missing studies showing a neutral or positive change, and
311 exaggerating the insect populations’ declining status. Furthermore, the authors’
312 search was not comprehensive, including no synonyms, which are vital to account
313 for differences in how researchers describe a concept. Their string will have missed
314 any research using other terms that may be important synonyms; for example,
315 ‘reduction’ as well as ‘decline’. Adding the term ‘increas*’ would retrieve a
316 significant additional body of evidence. Secondly, the review authors searched only
317 one resource, Web of Science (they probably mean Web of Science Core Collections,
318 but the exact indexes involved would still be unclear). The authors also
319 excluded/ignored grey literature (see point 5, below).

320

321 In a review of tropical forest management impacts [32] and in a review of forest
322 conservation policies [33] searches for evidence were performed only within Google
323 Scholar, relying on Google’s relevance-based sorting algorithm that displays only the
324 first 1,000 records, which likely provides a biased subset of the literature and has
325 been widely shown to be inappropriate as a main source of studies for literature
326 review [34-36].

327

328 *Mitigation strategies:* Search methods should include more than bibliographic
329 database searching; supplementary methods should also be employed, for example
330 forwards and backwards citation searching, web searching, and calls for submission
331 of evidence. Search strategies should be carefully planned and should include a
332 comprehensive set of synonyms relevant to the review scope. Specifically, the
333 strategy should: 1) be based on thorough scoping of the literature; 2) be trialled in a
334 sample database and tested to ensure it recovers studies of known relevance
335 (benchmarking [37]); 3) should ideally be constructed by or with input/support from
336 an information specialist/librarian; 4) involve searches of multiple bibliographic

337 databases (ranging in subject/geographic/temporal scope; for example Scopus, CAB
338 Abstracts and MEDLINE) to maximise comprehensiveness and mitigate bias; and 6)
339 be outlined in an *a priori* protocol that is published and open for scrutiny.

340

341

342 5. *Publication bias (exclusion of grey literature and failure to test for evidence of*
343 *publication bias)*

344 *Description:* This issue is closely related to and perhaps a subset of Problem 4 above,
345 but nevertheless requires a separate discussion due to the nature of the mitigation
346 strategies necessary. Positive and statistically significant research findings are more
347 likely to be published than negative and non-significant results [38]. The findings of
348 syntheses based only on traditional, commercially published academic research will
349 be as biased as the underlying research. Research that is not published in traditional
350 academic journals controlled by commercial publishers is called ‘grey literature’, and
351 consists of two main groups - the ‘file-drawer’ research that was intended to be
352 published in an academic outlet but for some reason was not; where this reason was
353 a lack of statistical or perceived biological significance, publication bias has occurred.
354 A second type of grey literature consists of organisational reports and other studies
355 that were not intended for an academic audience. Where relevant studies of this type
356 are omitted from a review, the evidence base will lack comprehensiveness (see point
357 4 above). Tests that lead one to strongly suspect the presence of publication bias
358 and/or quantify its potential impact are an important element of a high-quality
359 quantitative synthesis (Egger Test, Vivea and Hedges tests [39]).

360

361 *Example:* In their recent review, Agarwala and Ginsberg [21] ignored grey (i.e. not
362 commercially published) literature, excluding organisational reports and theses
363 shown to be valuable sources of evidence [30]. When the authors then critically
364 appraised studies, there was no justification for avoiding grey literature on the
365 grounds of validity, and including it could have reduced the probability of
366 publication bias. Pacifici et al. [25] also failed to include grey literature. As a result,

367 the included evidence is likely to be unreliable (although their summaries are
368 arguably more dangerous because of vote-counting (see point 7, below).

369

370 *Mitigation strategies:* Review authors should attempt to identify and include relevant
371 grey literature in their syntheses [37, 40]. This can be attempted by searching
372 specifically for file-drawer research in thesis repositories and catalogues, preprint
373 servers, and funders' registries. Calls can also be made for researchers to submit
374 unpublished studies. Organisational reports should be searched for by screening
375 websites and physical repositories of relevant organisations, and by searching on
376 specific bibliographic databases or web-based academic search engines, such as
377 Google Scholar. Review authors should attempt to identify publication bias in their
378 syntheses by conducting appropriate tests (e.g. Egger test) and visualisations (e.g.
379 funnel plots) that may suggest publication bias as a feasible reason for heterogeneity
380 between large and small studies [41].

381

382

383 *6. Lack of appropriate critical appraisal (treating all evidence as equally valid)*

384 *Description:* Some primary research is less reliable than others because of problems
385 with the methods used, potentially resulting in an inaccurate or biased finding [42].
386 Reviews that fail to appropriately assess and account for the reliability of included
387 studies are susceptible to perpetuating these problems through the synthesis,
388 resulting in inaccurate and biased findings. Primary research may have issues
389 relating to 'internal validity' (i.e. the accuracy of methods) that are caused, for
390 example, by confounding variables, a lack of blinding, failure to account for the
391 presence of confounding variables, and a lack of randomisation. Reviews may also
392 suffer from problems with external validity, whereby primary studies vary in their
393 relevance to the review question (for example being conducted across different
394 spatial scales) but this is not accounted for in the synthesis. Finally, review
395 conclusions may be misleading if studies are selected for meta-analysis based on
396 criteria that do not properly relate to the study question.

397

398 Englund et al. [43] provide an illustrative example of how criteria influence study
399 selection and subsequent meta-analysis results. Their datasets on stream predation
400 experiments vary from all-inclusive criteria to minimal subset of studies. The study
401 shows how meta-analytic patterns can appear and disappear based on the selection
402 criteria applied.

403

404 *Example:* Burivalova et al. [32] included in their review a variety of studies from
405 meta-analysis to case studies. Their stated goal was “to compare forest variables
406 under two different management regimes, or before and after management
407 implementation” in tropical forests. They did not conduct critical appraisal of the
408 studies and ended up including studies that lacked either internal or external
409 validity. For example, they included an earlier study by Burivalova et al. [44] that
410 looked at the importance of logging intensity as a driver of biodiversity decline in
411 timber estates. However, conclusions about logging intensity were hampered by a
412 failure to consider log extraction techniques, and this failure had already been noted
413 by Bicknell et al. [45] who sought to account for the influence of extraction
414 techniques with meta-analysis. Burivalova et al. [32] also included a study by
415 Damette and Delacote [46] that used global country-level data to study deforestation
416 and assess sustainability of forest harvesting. Although some of the results were
417 given separately for developing countries, the dataset used to assess certification
418 impacts included countries globally and thus lacked external validity in a review
419 focused on tropical forests only. Similarly, they included a study by Blomley et al.
420 [47] that compared participatory forest management to government managed forests
421 in Tanzania without reporting any baseline differences or matching criteria for the
422 different forest areas.

423

424 *Mitigation strategies:* Systematic reviews should include a critical appraisal of every
425 included study’s internal and external validity [5]. This assessment should be
426 carefully planned *a priori* and trialled to ensure that it is fit-for-purpose and that
427 review authors can conduct the appraisal consistently [10]. Existing critical appraisal
428 tools used in other reviews may prove a useful starter from which to develop a

429 suitable tool [42]. Critical appraisal can be used as a basis to exclude or down-weight
430 flawed studies, and its outputs should be used in the synthesis in some way [5]: for
431 example, by including study validity as a moderator or basis for sensitivity analysis
432 in quantitative synthesis [e.g. 48], or in order to prioritise presentation and
433 discussion of the evidence base. Complex scoring systems should be avoided to
434 minimise the risk of introducing errors and to ensure repeatability. Instead, studies
435 should be given categorical coding, for example *low*, *high* and *unclear* validity [49]. In
436 addition, meta-analysis can be used to compare the magnitude of the effects in
437 studies of different validity (e.g. observational and experimental studies). These
438 analyses should not be used to adjust meta-analytical weighting but should inform
439 judgements about overall strength of evidence and uncertainty in effect estimates.

440

441

442 7. *Inappropriate synthesis (using vote-counting and inappropriate statistics)*

443 *Description:* All literature reviews attempt to create new knowledge by summarising
444 a body of evidence. For quantitative reviews this may take the form of a meta-
445 analysis, i.e. combining of effect sizes and variances across all studies to generate one
446 or more summary effect estimates with confidence intervals (or slopes and intercepts
447 in the case of meta-regressions) [50]. Not all systematic reviews may use meta-
448 analysis as a synthesis method, but all reviews that are identified as ‘meta-analyses’
449 must fulfil a number of standard requirements such as calculation of the effect sizes
450 for individual studies, calculation of the combined effects and confidence intervals
451 etc [51, 52]. Meta-analyses and systematic reviews are therefore overlapping, with
452 some arguing that all meta-analyses in the environmental field should be based on
453 systematic methods to identify, collate, extract information from and appraise
454 studies as they are in other domains [53].

455

456 For reviews of qualitative evidence, summarising the body of evidence takes the
457 form of a formal drawing together of qualitative study findings to generate
458 hypotheses, create new theories or conceptual models [54]. The choice and design of
459 the synthesis methods are just as critical to the rigour of a review as the question

460 formulation, searching, screening, critical appraisal and data extraction:
461 inappropriate synthesis invalidates all preceding steps. Where full synthesis is
462 performed, authors should be careful to ensure they use established and appropriate
463 synthesis methods.

464

465 One common problem with evidence syntheses occurs when authors fall foul of
466 'vote-counting' [reviewed in 55]. Vote-counting is the tallying-up of studies based on
467 statistical significance and direction of their findings. This approach is problematic
468 for several reasons. Firstly, it ignores statistical power and study precision. Many
469 studies might report non-significant effect not because the effect does not exist, but
470 because the statistical power of these studies is too low to detect it. Secondly, vote-
471 counting ignores the magnitude of effect of each study: those showing a positive
472 effect may have a much larger effect size than those showing a negative effect.
473 Finally, vote-counting ignores study validity: the positive studies may have a much
474 higher validity than the negative ones, for example due to better study designs.

475

476 *Example:* Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys [20] claimed to have conducted a meta-
477 analysis of studies on insect decline, but no standard meta-analysis methods were
478 used and the review fails most criteria for meta-analyses [51, 52]. It is also unclear
479 how annual decline rates were calculated, and such measures were not standard
480 effect sizes. There is no mention of weighting, and ANOVA is inappropriate for
481 combining estimates from different studies. Britt et al. [56] similarly did not use
482 established meta-analysis methods in their quantitative synthesis.

483

484 Graham et al. [57] chose to use a vote-counting approach in their review on
485 hedgerows as farmland habitats because "the data are too heterogeneous to allow
486 any meaningful synthesis or meta-analysis... We follow a standard vote counting
487 procedure where significant positive effects, significant negative effects, and no
488 significant effects are assigned a 'vote' in order to integrate information and
489 generalise the effect direction for each structural component on each taxonomic
490 group". Delaquis et al. [58] similarly stated they deliberately chose a vote-counting

491 approach, despite calculating effect sizes in some cases. Pacifici et al. [25] also
492 synthesised by vote-counting to estimate the percentage of species in major groups
493 that demonstrated responses to climate change. In their review of conservation
494 intervention effectiveness, Burivalova et al. [32] visualised their mapping of evidence
495 by displaying the number of studies for each intervention type and colour coding
496 studies according to their direction of effect (positive, neutral, negative), thereby
497 promoting so-called 'visual vote-counting'.

498

499 *Mitigation strategies:* Vote-counting should never be used instead of meta-analysis. If
500 the data in primary studies are deemed to be too heterogenous to be combined by
501 means of meta-analysis (e.g. because reported measures of outcome are too diverse),
502 using a flawed approach such as vote-counting is unlikely to help. Instead, the scope
503 of the review might need to be reassessed and narrowed down to a subset of studies
504 that could be meaningfully combined. Alternatively, formal methods for narrative
505 synthesis should be used to summarise and describe the evidence base [59]. It is
506 perfectly acceptable (and encouraged) to tabulate the results of all studies in a
507 *narrative synthesis* that includes quantitative results and statistical significance, but
508 this should also include results of critical appraisal of study validity. Doing so
509 ensures that no studies are 'excluded' from the review because data are not reported
510 in a way that allows inclusion in a meta-analysis. Indeed, important conclusions can
511 be made from narrative synthesis without meta-analyses [e.g. 60].

512

513 A common justification for vote-counting is lack of reporting of variance measures in
514 ecological literature. Studies lacking variance measures should be included using the
515 narrative synthesis methods described above. Where quantitative synthesis is
516 desired, meta-analysis of a reduced dataset is preferable to vote-counting a larger
517 data set, ignoring precision, effect magnitude and heterogeneity. Increasing
518 provision of data as Open Science permeates ecological research practice should
519 make this problem less pervasive in the future.

520

521 Maps of evidence (e.g. systematic maps) that aim to catalogue an evidence base
522 typically do not extract study findings: this should primarily only be done in the
523 context of a robust systematic review that also involves critical appraisal of study
524 validity and, ideally, appropriate quantitative or qualitative synthesis. Only
525 established qualitative and quantitative synthesis methods should be used making
526 the most of the plethora of methodological support available in the literature.

527

528 *8. A lack of consistency and error checking (working individually)*

529 *Description:* An individual researcher performing the various tasks of a systematic
530 review may interpret definitions, concepts and system boundaries differently from
531 someone else. This variability is an inherent part of being human, but in a literature
532 review it may result in the inclusion or exclusion of a different set of studies
533 depending on individual interpretation. By working alone and unchallenged, a
534 reviewer cannot be sure they are correctly interpreting the protocol. Similarly,
535 working alone can lead to a higher rate of errors (and importantly for reviews, an
536 unacceptable false negative error rate, or the erroneous exclusion of relevant studies)
537 than working in concert with another researcher [61].

538

539 *Example:* In their review of the water chemistry habitat associations of the white-
540 clawed crayfish (*Austropotamobius pallipes*), Rallo and García-Arberas [62] tabulated
541 minima, maxima and mean for a range of water chemistry variables (their Table 4).
542 Their review methods are not described, but there are several transcription errors in
543 the table that should have been corrected by error checking or dual data extraction.

544

545 *Mitigation:* It is for the reasons of alternative interpretation and false negative errors
546 that the major coordinating bodies require at least a subset of the evidence base to be
547 processed (i.e. screening, data extraction and appraisal) by more than one reviewer –
548 typically following by an initial trial of the task to ensure reviewers interpret and
549 apply the instructions consistently (refining instructions where necessary to improve
550 consistency) [5, 10]. Additionally, few individuals have the requisite skill set to
551 acquire, appraise and synthesise studies alone. High quality evidence synthesis is

552 likely to involve collaboration with information specialists, evidence synthesis
553 methodologists/statisticians as well as domain specialists.

554

555

556 **Advice for more rigorous reviews**

557 In Box 1, we provide general advice for those involved in funding, commissioning,
558 conducting, or editing/peer-reviewing/appraising a review. We give a number of
559 specific recommendations to the research community to support rigorous evidence
560 synthesis.

561

562 **Box 1.** Recommended actions for authors wishing to conduct more rigorous
563 literature reviews.

- 564 ● Familiarise yourself with the best practice in evidence synthesis methods and
565 appreciate that systematic reviewing is a flexible methodology that can be
566 applied to any research topic provided the question is suitably formulated.
- 567 ● Make use of freely accessible guidance, minimum standards and educational
568 resources provided by CEE and others (e.g. the Campbell Collaboration and
569 Cochrane)
- 570 ● Seek training in evidence synthesis to produce a reliable review with a lasting
571 legacy and potential to impact decision-making
- 572 ● Connect with existing communities of practice - individual methodologists,
573 information specialists/librarians, working groups, specialist organisations,
574 conferences - and make use of the plethora of online resources related to
575 evidence synthesis
- 576 ● Engage with stakeholders (including experts) when planning your review:
577 consult with a broad range of stakeholders when setting the scope; with
578 librarians and information specialists when developing the search strategy;
579 with statisticians and synthesis methodologists when designing quantitative
580 or qualitative synthesis; and with communications experts when translating
581 review findings
- 582 ● Ensure that a review is clear in its purpose and objectives

- 583 • Ensure the intended level of rigour (including transparency, procedural
584 objectivity and comprehensiveness) of a review is achieved
- 585 • Follow Open Science principles when conducting and publishing reviews
586 (Open Synthesis [63]) to ensure transparency, i.e. make your data, methods
587 and paper freely accessible and reusable
- 588 • Check author guidance for specific journals for advice on what is requested to
589 be included with systematic reviews, e.g. *Environmental Evidence*, which aims
590 to publish high quality systematic reviews;
- 591 • Demonstrate and assess the rigour of a review and how it is reported using
592 existing tools such as ROSES reporting standards [23], CEESAT
593 (www.environmentalevidence.org/ceeder and CEE standards of conduct
594 (<http://www.environmentalevidence.org/information-for-authors>)
- 595 • Editors and publishers should ensure that instructions for authors include
596 sufficient detail and minimum standards regarding the conducting and
597 reporting evidence syntheses, and they should ensure that authors follow
598 them: for example, guidance for reviews for *Biological Conservation* state
599 “Review articles... must include a methods section explaining how the
600 literature for review was selected”. Yet several recent reviews published in
601 this journal lack methods section altogether [e.g. 26, 27]. Journals should
602 endorse or enforce reporting and conduct standards, such as PRISMA
603 (<https://www.prisma-statement.org>), ROSES ([https://www.roses-](https://www.roses-reporting.com)
604 reporting.com), or MECIR ([https://methods.cochrane.org/methodological-](https://methods.cochrane.org/methodological-expectations-cochrane-intervention-reviews)
605 expectations-cochrane-intervention-reviews)
- 606 • Methodology experts should support review authors and editors by: raising
607 awareness of rigorous evidence synthesis methodology; developing and
608 advertising Open Educational resources to support those wishing to conduct
609 or appraise systematic reviews; acting as methodology editors and peer-
610 reviewers for community journals (e.g. *Environment International* that has a
611 dedicated systematic review editor); increasing efficiency of reporting and
612 appraisal tools to make them easier to use in editorial triage and peer-review
-

613

614

615 **Conclusions**

616 Systematic reviews are increasingly seen as viable and important means of reliably
617 summarising rapidly expanding bodies of scientific evidence to support decision
618 making in policy and practice across disciplines. At the same time, however, there is
619 a lack of awareness and appreciation of the methods needed to ensure systematic
620 reviews are as free from bias and as reliable as possible, demonstrated by recent,
621 flawed, high-profile reviews.

622

623 No one group is responsible for this failure and no one group produces perfect
624 systematic reviews. We call for the entire research community to work together to
625 raise the standard of systematic reviews published in conservation and
626 environmental management. Whilst systematic reviews are significant undertakings
627 that require careful planning and involvement of a range of experts, these are not
628 reasons to abandon rigour in favour of an unregulated free-for-all in evidence
629 synthesis methods. We call on review authors to conduct more rigorous reviews, on
630 editors and peer-reviewers to gate keep more strictly, and the community of
631 methodologists to better support the broader research community. We cannot afford
632 to fund or generate second order research waste (i.e. poor-quality reviews): many
633 primary studies are already a waste of resources [64], and we must not waste
634 resources on methodologically poor or biased syntheses. Only by working together
635 can we build and maintain a strong system of rigorous, evidence-informed decision-
636 making in conservation and environmental management.

637

638

639 **Competing interests**

640 The authors declare they have no competing interests.

641

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645

646 **Author contributions**

647 NRH developed the manuscript idea and a first draft. All authors contributed to
648 examples and edited the text. All authors have read and approve of the final
649 submission.

650

651 **Figure legends**

652 **Figure 1.** Schematic showing the mains stages necessary for the conduct of a systematic review as defined by the
653 Collaboration for Environmental Evidence (www.environmentalevidence.org).

654

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