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2 ***Research Weaving: Visualizing the Future of Research Synthesis***3 Shinichi Nakagawa<sup>1,2#</sup>, Gihan Samarasinghe<sup>1</sup>, Neal R. Haddaway<sup>3,4</sup>, Martin J.4 Westgate<sup>5</sup>, Rose E. O'Dea<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Dan W. A. Noble<sup>1\*#</sup>, and Malgorzata Lagisz<sup>1\*</sup>

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24

25 **Abstract (120 max)**

26 We propose, and formalize, a new framework for research synthesis of both  
27 evidence and influence, named 'research weaving'. It summarizes and visualizes  
28 information content, history, and networks among a collection of diverse publication  
29 types on any given topic. Research weaving achieves this feat by combining the  
30 power of two methodologies: systematic mapping and bibliometrics. Systematic  
31 mapping provides a snapshot of the current state of knowledge, identifying areas  
32 needing more research attention and those ready for full synthesis (e.g., using meta-  
33 analysis). Bibliometrics enables researchers to see how pieces of evidence are  
34 connected, revealing the structure and the evolution of a field. We explain how to  
35 become a 'research weaver', and discuss how research weaving may change the  
36 landscape of research synthesis.

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38

39 *Keywords:* meta-research, quantitative synthesis, systematic review, Big Data, data  
40 visualization, evidence synthesis (max 6)

41

## 42 **A New Framework for Research Synthesis of Evidence and** 43 **Influence**

44 Research fields are flooded with torrents of publications, and researchers require  
45 informative reviews to stay afloat. For many years, researchers sought expert  
46 opinions from **narrative reviews** (see Glossary) to obtain and update their  
47 knowledge of a research topic or question [1]. These reviews were valuable not just  
48 for summarizing ‘facts’ about a particular research field, but also for giving broader  
49 insights, such as identifying the origin and development of key theoretical concepts,  
50 or drawing attention to ideas that deserved greater research focus. More  
51 sophisticated syntheses are now commonly used – **systematic review** and **meta-**  
52 **analysis** [2-8] – which incorporate systematic and often quantitative methods to  
53 extract factual information from the literature in a reliable manner. However, both  
54 these syntheses have their limitations. They are not practical for broad fields  
55 encompassing thousands of publications, and cannot handle a highly heterogeneous  
56 literature. A new technique has emerged to deal with these limitations: mapping.

57 Currently, scientists’ ‘map’ research evidence using two complementary  
58 methodologies of different origins: **systematic mapping** and **bibliometrics**.  
59 Systematic mapping (sometimes called ‘**evidence mapping**’) is a method derived  
60 from systematic reviews, with the goal of classifying the types of research on a broad  
61 topic [9-14]. Systematic mapping is still a nascent methodology, with the first  
62 systematic maps appearing only in the last decade [9, 10]. In addition to providing a  
63 written report, a systematic map typically involves the production of a database of  
64 studies and their attributes, which can be provided to users as a searchable  
65 database or a series of visualisations [10-12]. In contrast, **bibliometrics** (more

66 specifically '**bibliometric mapping**' [15, 16]) aims to describe the structure of  
67 scientific literature using information on authors, citations, or words shared between  
68 articles. With such techniques, we can easily visualize a field's origin and  
69 development by documenting changes in the networks of publications through time  
70 [17]. Both methodologies have also benefitted from recent developments in  
71 computational techniques such as (big) data visualization, text mining, and network  
72 analysis [15, 16, 18, 19]. Despite their high degree of complementarity, however,  
73 bibliometrics has rarely (if ever) been explicitly incorporated within systematic  
74 reviews or maps.

75 Here, we propose a new framework for **research synthesis** that combines the  
76 power and utility of both systematic mapping and bibliometrics, which we term  
77 **research weaving**. This approach merges rigorous article classification (systematic  
78 mapping) with quantification and visualization of the *impact* or *influence* of research,  
79 (i.e., bibliometrics; including the influence of individual articles, or authors, on later  
80 research). Therefore, we see research weaving as both **evidence synthesis** and  
81 **influence synthesis**. Research weaving enables the synthesis of any research topic  
82 in an informative and visual manner, and opens up new ways to study critical  
83 questions in evidence synthesis. Before describing research weaving in more detail,  
84 we will first provide an overview of different types of research synthesis methods.

## 85 **Alternative Roles of Research Syntheses**

86 Although there are many types of research synthesis [20, 21], they can roughly be  
87 divided into two large categories which achieve different goals: deep and broad  
88 synthesis (**Figure 1**). A deep synthesis combines studies that have examined the  
89 same phenomenon over similar or varying contexts. In ecology and evolution, for

90 example, we often use a systematic review or meta-analysis to understand the  
91 effects of a particular process, and to examine how general those effects are. In  
92 contrast, a broad synthesis aims to classify what research has been conducted on a  
93 topic, and locate clusters and gaps of research activity within that topic. Interweaving  
94 deep and broad syntheses is the key idea of research weaving, enabling the  
95 development of new questions, concepts, and insights.

### 96 **Deep Synthesis: Systematic Reviews and Meta-analysis**

97 Synthesizing evidence usually involves four tasks: locating, screening, appraising,  
98 and combining scientific information. Currently, the most rigorous way to accomplish  
99 these tasks is via some form of 'systematic review', a term that signifies a review's  
100 adherence to transparent, reproducible and structured procedures for locating and  
101 summarizing information (i.e. **systematic-review approach**). Because a systematic  
102 review involves a large number of complex and important stages, current best  
103 practice is governed, and frequently updated, via a set of guidelines produced by  
104 three major collaborations: Cochrane ([www.cochrane.org](http://www.cochrane.org)) [22], the Campbell  
105 Collaboration ([www.campbellcollaboration.org](http://www.campbellcollaboration.org)) and the Collaboration for  
106 Environmental Evidence (CEE) ([www.environmentalevidence.org](http://www.environmentalevidence.org)). Adherence to  
107 these guidelines is usually assessed by authors self-reporting their methodology  
108 using a framework such as PRISMA (<http://www.prisma-statement.org/>)[23, 24] or  
109 ROSES (<http://www.roses-reporting.com>) [25]. A systematic review may use  
110 methods for synthesising studies that are qualitative or quantitative, depending on  
111 the nature of the data [11, 21, 26], and may also include a meta-analysis of any  
112 quantitative findings (see below). Despite 'systematic review' and 'meta-analysis' not  
113 being equivalent, these terms are sometimes used synonymously in the field of  
114 ecology and evolution [27].

115 A meta-analysis quantitatively aggregates primary empirical evidence, usually to  
116 answer a well-defined question. For example, a meta-analysis can estimate average  
117 effect sizes of some experimental treatment on an outcome, or differences in these  
118 average effect sizes between different types of experimental approaches [4-6].  
119 Researchers use meta-analyses to answer two main questions: “what works?” and  
120 “what’s general?” [4]. The first question asks whether or not certain interventions or  
121 experimental manipulations are effective. Many meta-analyses in medical and social  
122 sciences are of this kind, and are performed as part of a systematic review. The  
123 second question asks how common and robust a phenomenon is. Ecologists and  
124 evolutionary biologists often deploy meta-analysis for this purpose; for example,  
125 what species or populations are affected by human-induced changes, such as  
126 urbanization and global warming. Incidentally, a second order meta-analysis [28]  
127 (sometimes referred to as an umbrella review, or an overview of reviews [22, 29])  
128 can be also seen as a type of deep synthesis, but it only deals with secondary  
129 research literature (see **Figure 1**).

### 130 **Broad Synthesis: Systematic and Bibliometric Mapping**

131 Systematic maps answer the question “what’s studied?” (**Figure 1**). They usually  
132 probe broad topics or questions, rather than seeking effect-sized based answers [10,  
133 11]. A systematic map can collect relevant primary and secondary research literature  
134 of both empirical and theoretical nature (although it can also focus on a single paper  
135 type, such as observational studies). The key output of a systematic map is a  
136 database of coded features and the contents of each piece of evidence, which can  
137 then be visualized as a **content map**, a temporal trend and a spatial map (see  
138 **Figure 2**). Although a systematic map will not provide inferential statistics to test a  
139 hypothesis, the map can provide plenty of descriptive statistics to visualize attributes

140 of the literature, improving our understanding of research areas. Notably, the value  
141 of this mapping process is in identifying *knowledge gaps* (i.e., areas requiring more  
142 attention), and *knowledge clusters* (i.e., areas that are ripe for a systematic review)  
143 [10, 11]. The use of systematic and evidence mapping approaches has been rapidly  
144 growing in the social, medical and environmental sciences in recent years [10-13].  
145 Systematic mapping, however, is not frequently applied to questions that are  
146 relevant to ecologists and evolutionary biologists (but see [30]).

147 Bibliometric (science) mapping answers the question “what’s published?” and is  
148 therefore focussed on the publication itself, rather than the content contained within  
149 the publication (**Figure 1**). A bibliometric map displays the connections and networks  
150 among authors (collaboration analysis) and among publications, by quantifying  
151 citations (citation analysis) and semantic and text similarities (co-word analysis; **Box**  
152 **1**) [15 , 16, 31]. Bibliometric analysis can objectively identify both ‘seminal’ (the most  
153 cited and/or connected) and disconnected (less well connected or isolated) studies  
154 among a population of papers, revealing the development of the field or set of  
155 concepts [15 , 16, 17, 32]. Such networks of bibliometric information can be  
156 visualised as a ‘bibliometric web’ (**Figure 2**). Some of these methods have begun to  
157 be used in systematic reviews and maps; recent examples include analyses of  
158 terminology and semantics within a collection of relevant literature [33, 34]. However,  
159 the full toolkit of bibliometric mapping is rarely coupled with a systematic review or  
160 mapping approach (i.e. the rigorous screening of included articles in relation to  
161 inclusion and exclusion criteria).

## 162 **Research Weaving: Combining the Power of Maps and Webs**

163 Research weaving marries bibliometrics (influence synthesis) with systematic  
164 mapping (evidence synthesis) to minimise bias, maximise rigor, and to provide new  
165 insights. Research weaving can combine layers of multifaceted information: types of  
166 publications (e.g., primary, secondary), types of research/evidence (experimental,  
167 observational, theoretical), author networks (research groups), a tree of life (species  
168 information), and mapping of traits and/or methodologies. None of these have  
169 previously been combined together under the umbrella of one research synthesis.  
170 Importantly, the information required to conduct a bibliometric analysis is often  
171 readily available within research article databases (e.g., *Scopus*; see **Box 2**).

172 So far, we have emphasised differences between systematic maps and bibliometric  
173 webs (**Figure 2**), but there is substantial overlap between these two approaches.  
174 Here, the *5W1H* questions (*who*, *when*, *where*, *what*, *why* and *how*) are helpful to  
175 understand their similarities and differences. Both systematic mapping and  
176 bibliometrics provide a *who*, *when* and *where*: *who* conducted the research and *who*  
177 wrote the paper (these will usually be the same); *when* the research was conducted  
178 and *when* the paper was published (these will usually be similar); *where* the research  
179 was conducted and *where* the paper was written (sometimes these are on the  
180 opposite sides of the world). Systematic mapping, but not bibliometrics, provides a  
181 *what*, *why*, and *how*: *what* scientists study (e.g., species, biome, or system), *why*  
182 they study it (i.e., their questions or hypotheses), and *how* they study it (e.g.,  
183 experimentally, theoretically, comparatively, meta-analytically). However, if  
184 systematic mapping borrowed tools from bibliometrics, these questions could be  
185 addressed more efficiently.



186 Co-word analysis, when applied to the full text of papers, can help address key  
187 research questions. This may be especially true for *why* questions because, thanks  
188 to recent technical advances, text analysis can effectively capture important  
189 concepts shared by a group of articles. We do this by creating a **term map** (or term  
190 web) [35]. Term mapping (or co-word mapping) assists in setting up a content map,  
191 whose construction is the main purpose of systematic mapping (**Figure 2**). These  
192 tasks are becoming more straightforward through the widespread availability of topic  
193 modelling [19, 36] and, more recently, deep learning [37, 38] (**Box 3**). These tools  
194 will soon help researchers semi-automate term mapping as part of a full text  
195 analysis, to answer the *what*, *why*, and *how* questions of research. Mapping terms  
196 and clarifying connections among terms can also help identify terminological  
197 disagreements and confusion about a topic [19]. Both bibliometrics and systematic  
198 maps can be improved by borrowing techniques from each other. This intertwining of  
199 different synthesis procedures is what research weaving is really about.

200 One final advantage of research weaving is to provide a methodological toolbox to  
201 support the new field of meta-research (research on research) [39-42], which has  
202 emerged in the midst of the current reproducibility crisis [43-45]. The mission of  
203 meta-research is to improve scientific methods and practices by understanding and  
204 combating biases in science. Meta-research originates in research synthesis,  
205 especially meta-analysis [42]. It has already utilized bibliometric mapping [46, 47]  
206 and meta-analysis (using systematic-review approaches) [48, 49]. Therefore,  
207 research weaving can be used to elucidate not only research biases and biased  
208 practices (e.g., by detecting unusual citation patterns, and dominance of certain  
209 research groups), but also research clusters and gaps (e.g., a field's focus on one  
210 particular taxonomic group or topic, but not other relevant ones). Visualization of

211 content maps and bibliometric webs can truly deliver the “bird’s eye view of science”,  
212 which meta-research seeks [40, 41].

### 213 **Implementation: How to Become a Research Weaver**

214 Currently, no single software package will serve all aspects of research weaving  
215 (**Figure 2**), but do not be deterred. The process of research weaving resembles that  
216 of a meta-analysis (or a systematic review), for which many resources and software  
217 packages are already available [50-52].

218 A meta-analysis (more correctly, a systematic review with meta-analysis [8]) involves  
219 roughly six steps: i) formulating a question, ii) searching for publications, iii)  
220 screening resultant papers, iv) extracting and coding data (including appraising study  
221 validity), v) analyzing data (i.e. meta-analysis), and vi) interpreting results [4, 5, 7, 22,  
222 53 ]. Research weaving deviates from this six-step process in five main ways  
223 (**Figure 3**). First, research weaving analyzes full bibliometric data (including  
224 bibliographic data), specifically adding to steps iii and iv. Therefore, we need to  
225 download all the relevant bibliometric information (e.g., citation data) from  
226 bibliographic resources such as the *Web of Science* and *Scopus*. Both resources  
227 provide not only the usual reference information and abstracts, but also the number  
228 of citations for a paper, and bibliometric information on cited references, keywords,  
229 funding bodies, and author affiliations. We can analyze these data before and/or  
230 after screening (for a review of types of bibliometric analyses, see [15, 16]). For  
231 example, we can create a pre-screening term map to help devise keyword strings for  
232 searching, and we can also make a post-screening term map to help code each  
233 paper or create a content map (**Box 3**). Second, we can use relevant publications  
234 post screening to create a network via bibliometric coupling to identify articles that

235 were not in the post-screened set – this facilitates a process called snowballing (i.e.  
236 backward and forward search of articles). Third, we can also code contents, study  
237 types, and characteristics of a paper (this process is inherent to systematic  
238 mapping), and then merge this content information with bibliometric information.  
239 Fourth, we can apply a wide range of visualizations (**Figure 2**) at any stage in the  
240 synthesis (cf. **Figure 3**). Visualization is a core step in research weaving. Fifth, and  
241 crucially, we integrate and interpret the information of both maps and webs together;  
242 we can describe the content of each article and its relationship to other published  
243 works in a single analysis.

#### 244 **Available Tools for Research Weaving**

245 There has been a recent surge of ‘tools’ for systematic reviews and maps. A  
246 comprehensive and growing catalogue can be found on the Systematic Review  
247 Toolbox website ([systematicreviewtools.com](http://systematicreviewtools.com)). Also, a recent review has compared  
248 and contrasted the capabilities of 22 tools for managing a review [52], such as  
249 CADIMA ([www.cadima.info](http://www.cadima.info)), Colandr ([www.colandrapp.com](http://www.colandrapp.com)), and metagear [54].  
250 These tools are put together mainly to support systematic reviews (e.g., planning,  
251 screening, documentation, bibliographic management [51]), but none of them  
252 actively incorporate features required for the full range of bibliometrics (i.e.  
253 **performance analysis** and bibliometric mapping). Therefore, we collated an  
254 introductory list of tools for bibliometric analyses, text mining, and associated data  
255 visualization (see **Supplemental Information**). We show some examples of these  
256 tools in **Figure 3**.

## 257 **Current Implementation Limitations**

258 Research weaving promises a richer analysis of a research field than is typically  
259 provided by systematic mapping and bibliometrics on their own. However, combining  
260 these approaches faces some limitations. First, systematic reviews should use  
261 multiple databases, because different databases catalogue different literature  
262 sources (e.g., overlap between *Web of Science* and *Scopus* can be as low as 40-50%  
263 [55]). However, different databases also structure their content differently, which  
264 presents technical challenges to smoothly merging overlapping content [16, 56].  
265 Encouragingly, some programs are capable of merging disparate database outputs  
266 that may be structured differently (e.g., *bibliometrix*, [31]).

267 Second, despite the majority of bibliographic information about an article being  
268 reliable within databases, multiple versions of the same publication may result from  
269 variants of journal or author names or even different book editions [16, 31]. This may  
270 require substantial data cleaning of the article data itself using text-based  
271 approaches (e.g., the use of regular expressions or automated duplication  
272 identification, if applicable) prior to analysis of a body of work.

273 Third, content analysis (i.e. extracting information such as species or experimental  
274 design from each paper) will be limited by the size and scope of the literature being  
275 used (cf. **Figure 1**). Even with some automation, much of a body of work will still  
276 need to be processed manually to ensure the content is relevant and has been  
277 extracted correctly [16].

278 A final potential hindrance to research weaving is cultural. The systematic review  
279 community has traditionally been weary of making decisions regarding relevance of  
280 evidence based on information regarding authorship or even journal titles, to avoid

281 bias towards high-status individuals or publishing venues [54]. It is unclear to what  
282 extent research weaving might confound some forms of bias, despite explicitly  
283 seeking to quantify and remove it from the synthesis process. Conversely, the  
284 bibliometric community has typically focussed on computational methods that differ  
285 markedly from the more manual approaches traditionally employed during  
286 systematic review. While research weaving provides strong opportunities to both  
287 communities, widespread adoption will depend on a culture that prioritizes careful  
288 testing and data sharing [51].

### 289 **Benefits of Research Weaving and Future Opportunities**

290 We see three major benefits of the research weaving framework which go beyond  
291 the field of ecology and evolution. First, research weaving involves a more in-depth  
292 assessment of a collection of literature than has previously been possible, thus  
293 providing a much better understanding of a topic in terms of both research content  
294 and people involved (**Figure 2, 3**). This information could help researchers direct  
295 primary research efforts and form new groups of collaborators, driving innovations  
296 that may increase research efficacy and capacity. Second, research weaving can  
297 better identify research biases, gaps, and limitations within a collection of literature,  
298 supporting the emerging field of meta-research [39-42]. Finally, the strong emphasis  
299 on visualisations within research weaving can greatly aid researchers to rapidly  
300 digest the rich information that studies and citations contain. Such visualisations are  
301 likely to help not only researchers within and outside the field (thereby facilitating  
302 inter-disciplinary collaborations), but also members of the public (where applicable,  
303 stakeholders and policymakers), enhancing science communication and the public  
304 understanding of science [57].

305 Furthermore, we see the current limitations discussed above as future opportunities,  
306 because the research weaving framework is likely to bring (or is already bringing;  
307 [evidencesynthesisishackathon.com](https://evidencesynthesisishackathon.com)) researchers and developers together to solve  
308 these problems. Advances in text mining and machine learning (see **Box 3**) are  
309 developing rapidly and are likely to provide creative solutions to some of the  
310 aforementioned limitations. We envisage research weaving growing rapidly from  
311 cross-fertilization of ideas from many different fields, mirroring what happened to  
312 meta-analysis over the last 40 years [3, 4, 6].

### 313 **Concluding Remarks**

314 Synthesis of scientific information is an essential part of modern research that both  
315 enhances the value of existing primary research, and highlights research gaps  
316 deserving further research [58]. Research synthesis is growing in importance as a  
317 tool for sorting through the ever-increasing amounts of data, and their associated  
318 scientific publications. The research weaving framework visualizes research  
319 landscapes by utilizing emerging methods of systematic mapping and bibliometrics.  
320 Thus, research weaving navigates researchers through a complex research terrain  
321 with gaps, clusters, and biases, despite some anticipated difficulties and unknowns  
322 (see **Outstanding Questions**). In addition to pulling meta-analysis out of its 'midlife  
323 crisis' (see **Box 2**) [4], research weaving will equip meta-research with a new  
324 generation of tools necessary to give an "eagle's-eye view" of the growing scientific  
325 literature.

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333

## 334 **Box 1: Bibliometrics, Science Maps, and Citation Analysis**

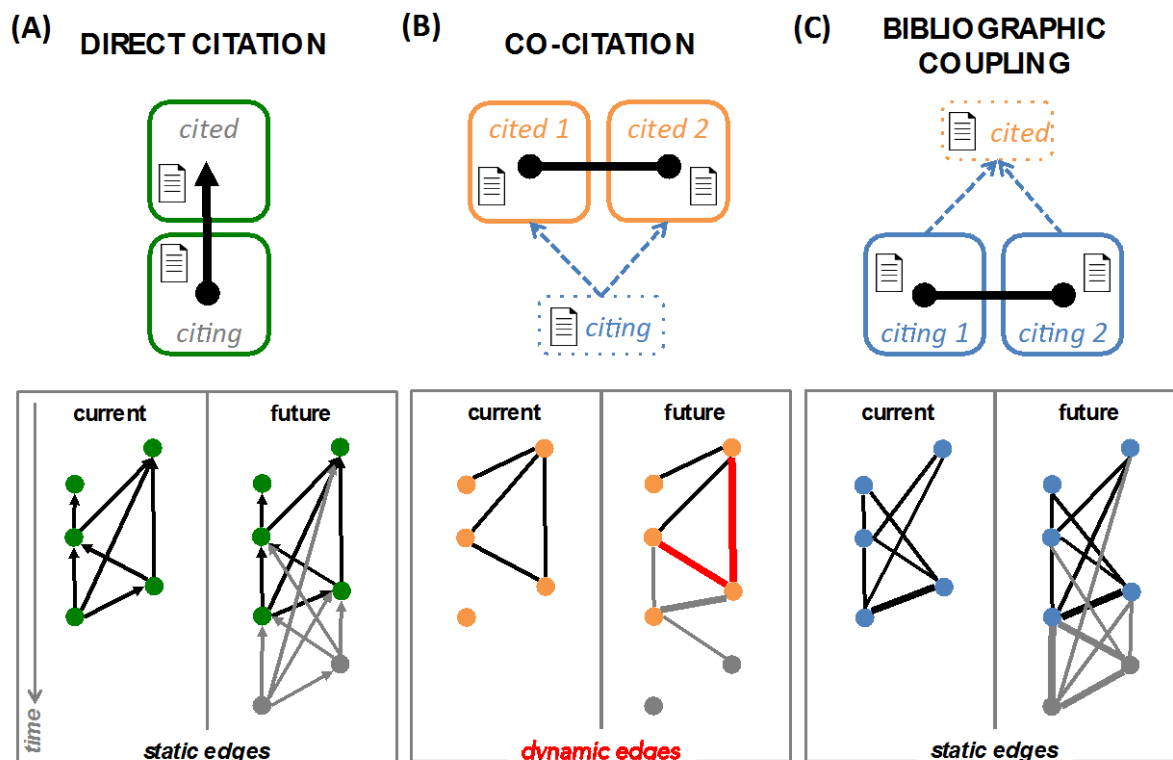
335 Bibliometrics is concerned with the analysis of publications and has been the main  
336 focus of library and information sciences [59]. Bibliometrics employs two main  
337 approaches: performance analysis and bibliometric mapping (also called science  
338 mapping). These approaches can be used at the same time and often overlap with  
339 each other [18, 59]. With performance analysis, we quantify citation impacts and  
340 productivity using, for example, the *h*-index [60] and Journal Impact Factor [61],  
341 which are all too familiar to scientists, and an obsession to some [62]. With  
342 bibliometric mapping, we quantify connections and networks among publications,  
343 using three types of techniques: 1) collaboration (co-author) analysis, 2) co-word  
344 (term) analysis, and 3) citation analysis [15, 16, 31]. Collaboration analysis explores  
345 co-occurrences of authors, countries, and institutions in a collection of publications.  
346 In a similar manner, co-word analysis identifies the most frequently used or co-  
347 occurring set of terms within a group of documents, which can reveal important  
348 concepts in a research field.

349 Citation analysis examines how often a publication is cited and how such citations  
350 are connected. In the field of bibliometrics, however, this 'direct' citation analysis is  
351 relatively new compared to two other types of analysis [16, 17]: co-citation analysis  
352 [63] and bibliographic coupling [64]. Co-citation and bibliographic coupling are both  
353 methods of measuring the connection between two papers (see **Figure I**). Co-  
354 citation tallies the number of publications that cite both papers, whereas bibliographic  
355 coupling measures the overlap in the citations of the papers themselves. Notably,  
356 connections (edges) for co-citation dynamically change over time as more papers  
357 are published, whereas those of bibliographic coupling and direct citation are static,



358 given a collection of publications [15 , 16, 31]. The idea of bibliographic coupling is  
359 closer to collaboration and co-word analysis. All types of citation analyses can be  
360 conducted at the level of authors, papers, and journals. The usage of these three  
361 types of citation analysis depend on the purpose and scope of research synthesis  
362 [15] (see also **Figure 1B**). Direct and co-citation analysis is probably more  
363 appropriate when a set is large and consists of papers published over many years,  
364 whereas bibliographic coupling is more amendable to a recent set of publications. A  
365 spectacular example of a citation network is the Shape of Science project  
366 ([www.scimagojr.com/shapeofscience/](http://www.scimagojr.com/shapeofscience/)) where the citation network of most scientific  
367 journals was constructed by incorporating all three types of citation relationships [65].

368



370

371 **Figure I. Three main types of bibliographic networks.**

372 Papers are represented as nodes/vertices of constant size (i.e. not scaled by number  
 373 of citations, centrality or any other indices). (A) Direct citations are denoted by  
 374 arrows (edges) from citing to cited papers. If we create a network for a set of  
 375 currently existing papers (green nodes/vertices), the edges in this part of the network  
 376 will not change when new papers (in grey) appear and are added to the network in  
 377 the future. (B) Co-citations are represented by non-directional connections (edges)  
 378 between papers that are cited together in other papers (citing). The strength of these  
 379 connections can change when new papers (in grey) appear and are added to the  
 380 network in the future, because they can cite existing papers. (C) Bibliographic  
 381 coupling is shown as non-directional connections (edges) between papers that are

382 citing the same set of papers (cited). The strength of these connections will not  
383 change when new papers (in grey) appear and are added to the network in the  
384 future, as the reference lists of published papers will not be affected.

385

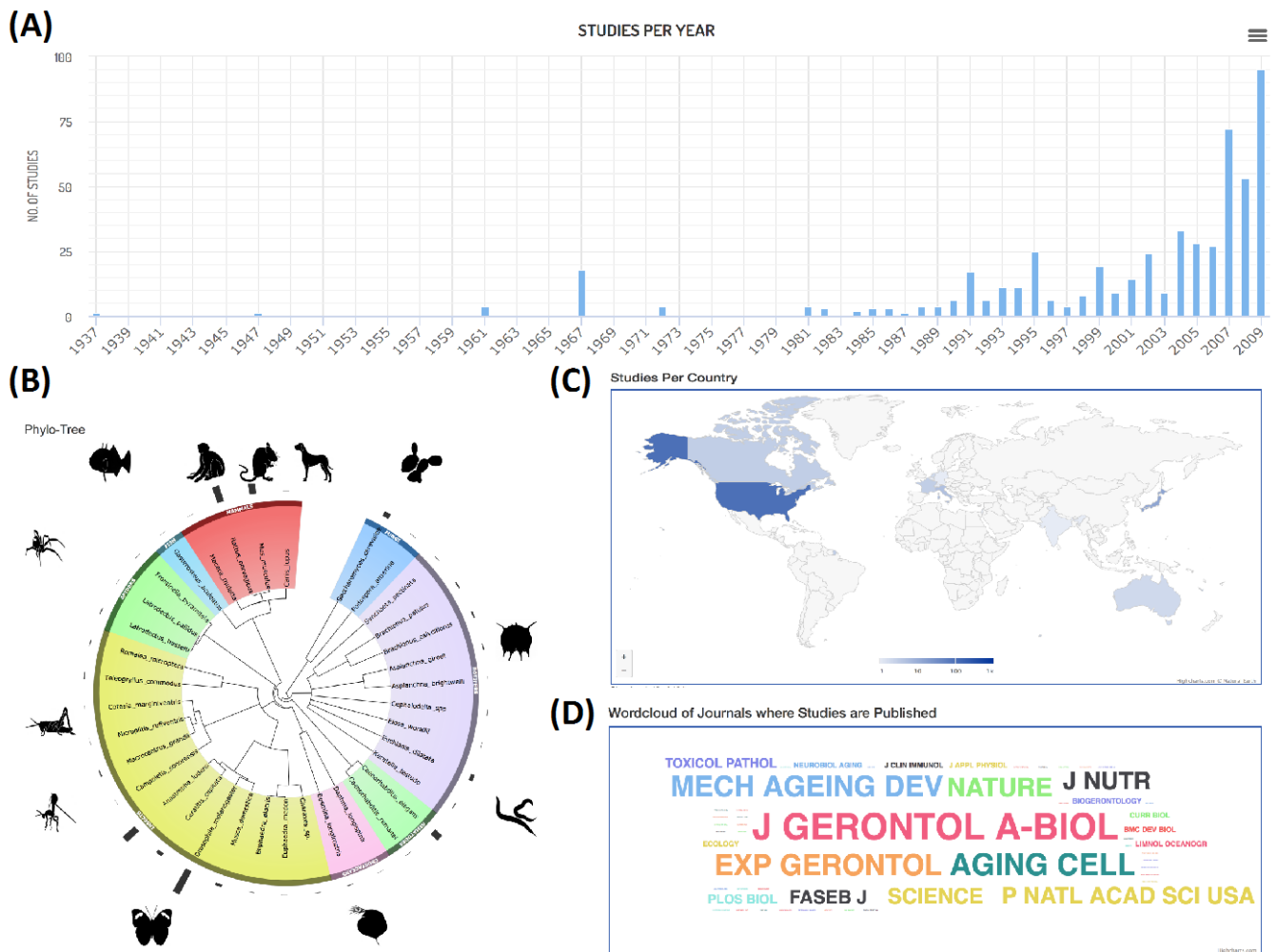
## 386 **Box 2: Research Weaving Helps Meta-analysis**

387 Meta-analysis, now over 40 years old, is said to be going through a ‘midlife crisis’ [4,  
388 6] with many poor quality meta-analyses being mass-produced (e.g., a meta-analysis  
389 without a systematic-review approach) [66]. Research weaving can assist a meta-  
390 analysis in divorcing itself from poor practices, because research weaving  
391 encourages researchers to use a systematic-review approach. Further, the  
392 processes and visualisation techniques of research weaving can be powerful aids for  
393 meta-analysts. For example, a meta-analyst would typically only visualise effect  
394 sizes via forest and funnel plots [4, 5]. In contrast, given the same dataset, a  
395 research weaver would visualise all moderators (i.e. predictors collected to explain  
396 variation in effect sizes) and associated information across papers (e.g., taxonomic  
397 groups, methodological differences, experimental features, biological information,  
398 and publication year) (**Figure 2**). Although such figures would certainly allow readers  
399 to see the strengths and weaknesses of a dataset (e.g., confounding effects or  
400 overlaps of two variables), few meta-analyses currently present such visualisations.  
401 We can see a notable exception in a recent meta-analysis where researchers  
402 collated data on the heritability of human traits over the last 40 years [67]. They  
403 provide impressive visualisations of the different facets of their dataset via an  
404 interactive website ([match.ctglab.nl/](http://match.ctglab.nl/)). We also have a simple web-based example of  
405 research weaving associated with our evolutionary/ecological meta-analysis [68]  
406 ([www.example.researchweaving.com](http://www.example.researchweaving.com); see **Figure 1**).

407 Further, research weaving, specifically bibliometric analysis, can help meta-analysts  
408 during data screening and data collection stages. For example, co-word analysis  
409 (and text mining) of key research articles and reviews will help construct a string of

410 keywords for database searches [35, 69]; such analysis could also help detect  
411 relevant moderators, once a final dataset is obtained. Co-citation and bibliographic  
412 coupling networks from pre-screened 'hits' (publications) can facilitate screening by  
413 creating clusters of connected and unconnected publications [69]. Collaboration  
414 networks will identify key people and laboratories conducting research addressing  
415 similar questions. Meta-analysts can then contact these key players or labs to see  
416 whether they have unpublished work (e.g., 'unpublished' MSc and PhD thesis  
417 chapters; we have successfully used this process in several meta-analyses).

418



420

421 **Figure I. Example Visualizations from the Meta-analysis on the Relationship**  
 422 **between Dietary Restriction and Longevity.**

423 (A) Distribution of publication dates of included studies, indicating a recent increase  
 424 in number of published relevant studies. (B) Phylogenetic tree and representation of  
 425 the main taxonomic groups of the species present in the meta-analytical dataset  
 426 (bars show relative numbers of individuals of each species included in the analyses).  
 427 (C) Geographic distribution of the countries of origin of the first author of the included  
 428 studies. (D) Word cloud of the publication journal names of the included studies.

429

430

### 431 **Box 3: Potential of Text Mining with Deep Learning**

432 Text mining is a collection of methods for extracting information from free text [70].

433 While it can include tasks such as detecting keywords, synonyms, or named entities

434 (locations, people, species names, etc.), in evidence synthesis projects (e.g.,

435 systematic reviews and maps), the term ‘text mining’ more commonly refers to a set

436 of tools for classifying articles on the basis of the words they contain (i.e. content

437 analysis or mapping). Thus, text mining contrasts with the bibliometric analysis of

438 grouping articles by their citation or collaboration networks (see **Box 1**). The function

439 of text mining is virtually the same as co-word analysis, except that co-word analysis

440 usually uses the algorithms developed for network-analysis, whereas text mining

441 uses some form of machine learning to perform the classification [71]. One

442 particularly successful machine-learning approach is ‘deep learning’, which uses

443 artificial neural networks to perform a diverse range of tasks from image

444 classification to natural language processing [37, 38].

445 Machine learning is typically applied to evidence synthesis in one of two closely

446 related ways. *Unsupervised classification* groups articles into a pre-specified number

447 of related types (e.g., via topic models) [72], providing a broad overview of patterns

448 in the article set (corpus). This is particularly useful during the ‘scoping’ phase of a

449 review project. Alternatively, the user may have some information on what groups

450 are known (or expected) to occur in a corpus and might then perform *supervised*

451 *classification* to apply that information to a second set of documents. For example,

452 the academic search engine ‘Dimensions’ uses this approach to apply the New

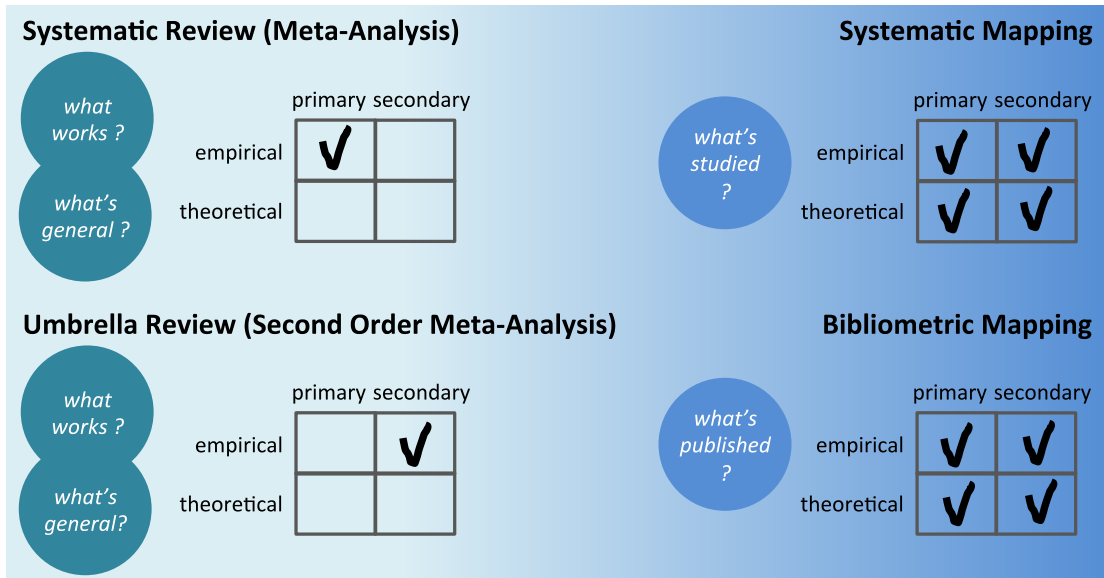
453 Zealand & Australian fields of research codes to the entire body of untagged

454 research in their database [9]. A related approach is to track user classifications of  
455 articles during a systematic review, and iteratively update a machine learning  
456 algorithm to classify as-yet unchecked articles (e.g., Colandr [72]).

457 There are several potential benefits of machine learning in research synthesis  
458 projects. First, it can make the process more efficient without having to reduce the  
459 number of articles that are screened, meaning that time can be reduced without  
460 compromising methodological rigor [51]. Second, machine learning allows reviews to  
461 be quickly updated as new information becomes available, progressing towards the  
462 goal of 'living systematic reviews' [73, 74]. Finally, automated approaches are well  
463 suited to identifying regions within the academic literature that have been rarely  
464 studied and which may benefit from further research [13, 19].

465



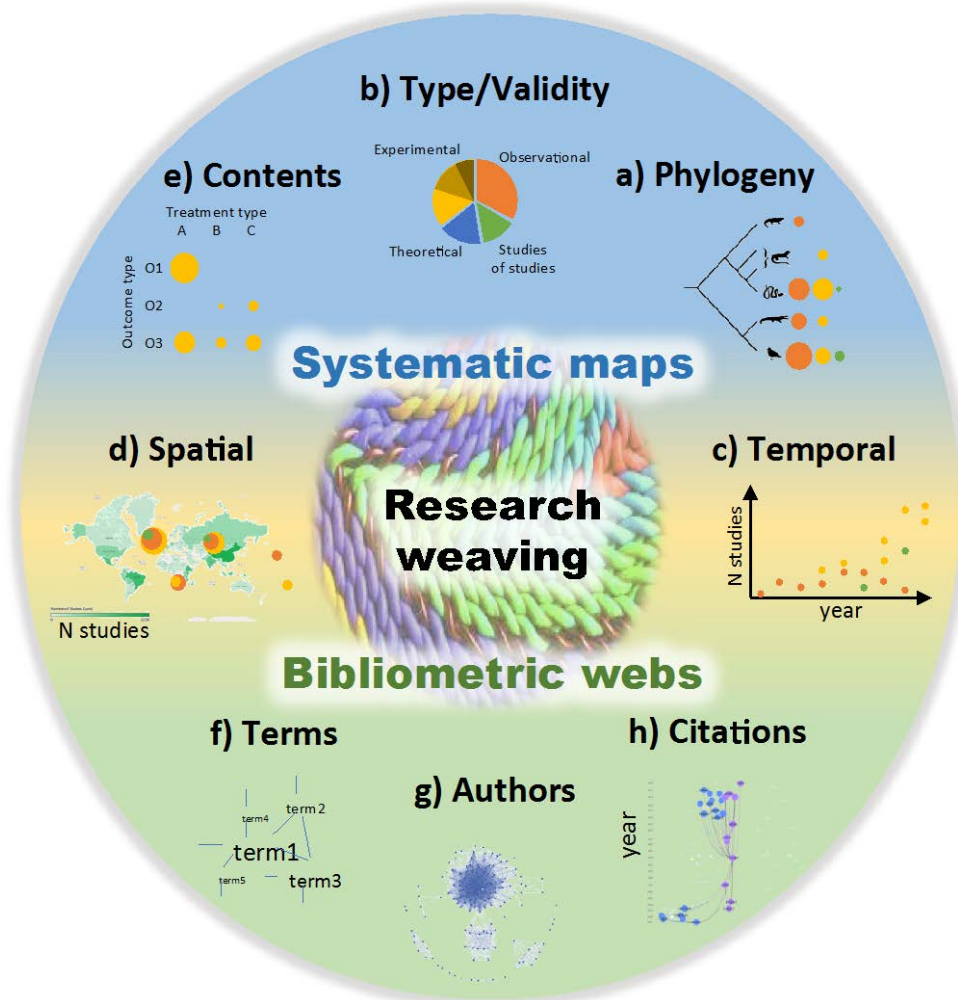


467

468 **Figure1: Types of Research Synthesis and their Scopes**

469 (A) Research syntheses can be deep or broad (or somewhere in-between). The  
 470 main questions asked (in the circles) and types of data typically used are shown for  
 471 the four main types of research syntheses. Systematic reviews and meta-analyses  
 472 put together evidence from primary empirical studies to infer what works and  
 473 where/when. Similarly, umbrella reviews deal with secondary empirical studies.  
 474 Mapping reviews can incorporate many different types of studies to infer what has

475 been done and published and how different pieces (concepts, papers, etc.) are  
476 related. (B) The size of the body of literature that the main types of research  
477 syntheses typically deal with. Systematic review (including meta-analysis) and  
478 systematic mapping are usually restricted to tens or hundreds of papers, due to  
479 manual extraction and coding of the data. Bibliometric direct citation and co-citation  
480 analyses work best on datasets with hundreds or thousands of papers. Bibliometric  
481 coupling, collaboration and co-word analysis can be applied to both small and large  
482 collections of papers.



484

485 **Figure 2**

486 Research weaving encompasses and joins Systematic maps and Bibliometric webs.

487 Pictograms a) to h) illustrate the main types of possible visualisations for interpreting

488 the patterns either in the data extracted from the full text (Systematic maps side) or

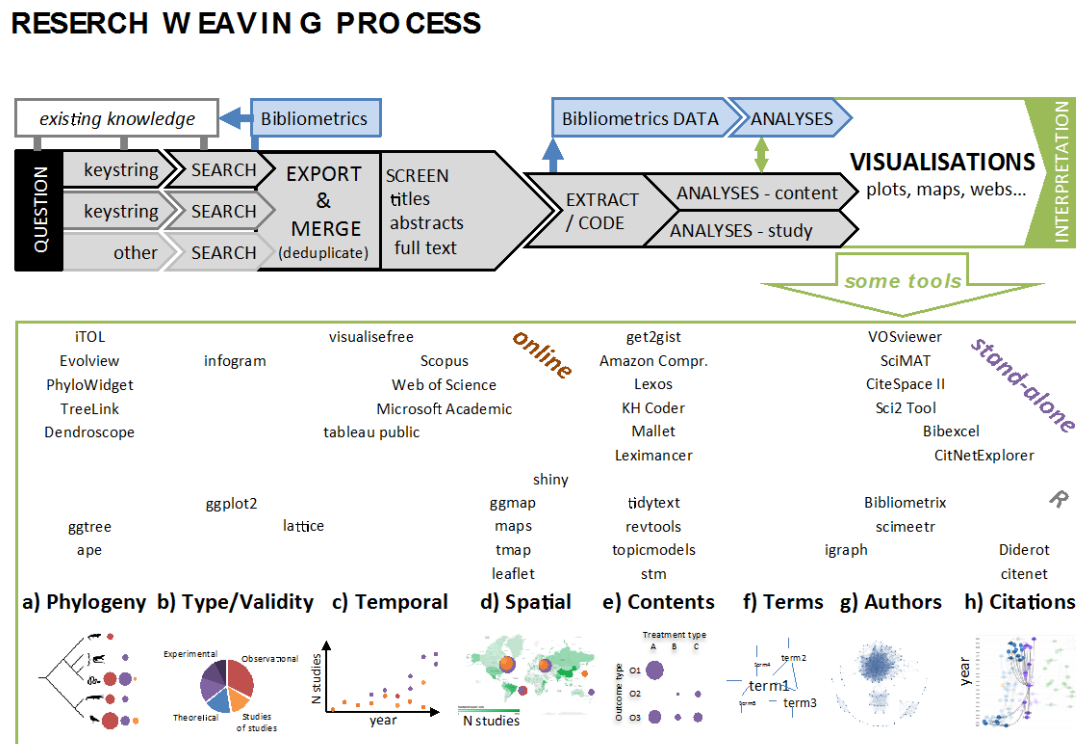
489 from paper-level meta-data (Bibliometric webs side). Spatial and temporal graphs (c,

490 d) can be constructed for both (e.g., using study site location or author's address,

491 experiment timing or paper publication date). Note that pictograms a-h also appear in

492 **Figure 3.**

493



495

496 **Figure 3. Research Weaving Processes and Implementation Tools**

497 Research weaving uses tools and processes from bibliometrics (blue boxes on top)  
 498 and systematic mapping process (grey boxes). Bibliometric tools can help identify  
 499 relevant literature and knowledge at the early stages of the systematic mapping  
 500 process. Later, for the included papers, visualisations of bibliometric indices and  
 501 relationships can be added and blended with the visualisations of the papers'  
 502 contents. Examples of visualisations are given at the bottom (pictograms a-h); for  
 503 more details see legend of **Figure 2**). The table above the pictograms shows  
 504 examples of software and platforms (grouped by background colours into online,  
 505 stand-alone software and *R* packages) that could be used to produce a given type of  
 506 visualisation. For content visualisations (e), we picked examples of text-mining

507 software representing the tech-savvy end of the continuum of approaches to extract  
508 and represent content data – at the other end of the continuum, manually-coded data  
509 on the details of the study methods/design/results can be visualised using any basic  
510 graphing software.

## 511 **Highlights**

512 An exponential increase in scientific publications requires informative and integrative  
513 reviews to provide a detailed synthesis of a particular research field and this has  
514 resulted in the emergence of novel methods for synthesizing heterogeneous  
515 research.

516 Research weaving provides a novel framework that combines bibliometrics and  
517 systematic mapping to inform the development of a field, the influence of research  
518 papers and their interconnections, and to visualise content across and within  
519 publications.

520 Research weaving has the potential to provide a more efficient, in-depth, and broad  
521 synthesis of a research field, to identify research biases, gaps, and limitations. Such  
522 insights have the potential to inform ecological and environmental policy and  
523 communicate research findings to the general public in more effective ways than are  
524 typically done in current research syntheses.

525

## 526 **Glossary**

### 527 **Bibliometrics**

528 methods to track the dissemination of written communication. For the scientific  
529 literature bibliometrics is used to quantify the impact of research on the rest of the  
530 discipline, and identify how research fields are structured, through two methods: (1)  
531 performance analysis, which quantifies the performance of scientific actors, such as  
532 authors and publishers, through measures of productivity such as citation numbers  
533 over time, and (2) bibliometric mapping (also known as science mapping), which

534 quantifies structure within the scientific literature by analyzing connections between  
535 citations, authors, and keywords or phrases.

### 536 **Content map**

537 tabulates and visualizes the contents of a collection of research literature; this  
538 mapping process is the heart of a systematic map.

### 539 **Evidence synthesis**

540 a type of research synthesis, which summaries research evidence in a given topic  
541 (question); it includes systematic reviews and maps.

### 542 **Influence synthesis**

543 a type of research synthesis which summaries the influence or impact of research  
544 articles in terms of citation, connection and how a particular article contributed to a  
545 development of a field or topic (i.e. performance analysis and bibliometric mapping in  
546 bibliometrics).

### 547 **Meta-analysis**

548 quantitative review of research in a given topic. Statistical analysis of combined  
549 results from different primary empirical research to provide a quantitative answer to a  
550 research question, and identify sources of heterogeneity to explain differences  
551 between studies. The term is often used to indicate the whole process of research  
552 synthesis but, also it is used to mean only the statistical analysis part of synthesis.

### 553 **Narrative reviews**

554 traditional approaches to literature reviewing of research in a given field, which has  
555 not been conducted in a systematic way

556 **Research synthesis**

557 a general term used for the synthesis of research literature, including narrative  
558 reviews, meta-analyses, and systematic reviews and maps, and bibliometric maps.

559 **Research weaving**

560 a holistic form of research synthesis that combines bibliometrics with systematic  
561 mapping (but also possible with systematic reviews and meta-analyses) to provide a  
562 quantitative, qualitative, and visual description of a research field.

563 **Systematic map**

564 has been conducted using strict, systematic standards. it summarizes the  
565 characteristics of studies from a broad research field in a database, figure, or graph.  
566 Can identify knowledge gaps and knowledge clusters. Relating mapping processes  
567 include an **evidence map**, evidence gap map and evidence review map.

568 **Systematic review**

569 a rigorous summary of research literature on a given topic that has been conducted  
570 using structured, transparent, and reproducible methods. The term could be used to  
571 indicate any review which uses approaches involved in a systematic review (i.e.,  
572 systematic review approach)

573 **Term map**

574 also known as a co-word map, visualizes the relatedness of a set of co-occurring  
575 terms. The distance between terms represents the number of co-occurrences  
576 between them.

577

578



579 **Outstanding Questions**

- 580 • Will research weaving successfully merge three different areas of  
581 methodologies: research synthesis (interdisciplinary), bibliometrics (library  
582 and information sciences) and text-mining (computer sciences)?
- 583 • How successful are machine learning algorithms in content classification  
584 using bibliometric information and/or full text information?
- 585 • What are effective approaches for narrowing down a body of work to relevant  
586 research articles in a field, and how much can research weaving help the  
587 process?
- 588 • How can data and methods for research weaving studies be most easily and  
589 effectively disseminated such that research fields in ecology and evolution  
590 can be updated with new research in the future?
- 591 • How effective will research waving be in developing ecological and  
592 environmental policy and communicating a fields research findings to the  
593 politicians and the general public?

594

595 **Supplemental Materials**

596 **SI Table 1. Visual mapping and weaving software tools summary**

597

598

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