

1 Building a tool to overcome barriers in 2 research-implementation spaces: the 3 Conservation Evidence database

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30 volunteers and staff have contributed to building the Conservation Evidence database.

31

32

33 **Abstract**

34 Conservation practitioners, policy-makers and researchers work within shared spaces with
35 many shared goals. Improving the flow of information between conservation researchers,
36 practitioners and policy-makers could lead to dramatic gains in the effectiveness of
37 conservation practice. However, several barriers can hinder this transfer including lack of time,
38 inaccessibility of evidence, the real or perceived irrelevance of scientific research to practical
39 questions, and the politically motivated spread of disinformation. Conservation Evidence works
40 to overcome these barriers by providing a freely-available database of summarized scientific
41 evidence for the effects of conservation interventions on biodiversity. The methods used to
42 build this database – a combination of discipline-wide literature searching and subject-wide
43 evidence synthesis – have been developed over the last 15 years to address the challenges of
44 synthesizing large volumes of evidence of varying quality and measured outcomes. Here, we
45 describe the methods to enhance understanding of the database and how it should be used.
46 We discuss how the database can help to expand multi-directional information transfers
47 between research, practice and policy, which should improve the implementation of evidence-
48 based conservation and, ultimately, achieve better outcomes for biodiversity.

49 **Keywords:** evidence-based conservation, evidence-based policy, evidence-based practice,
50 Delphi technique, subject-wide evidence synthesis, research-implementation space

51 **Word count: 7790**

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 Despite efforts to conserve it, biodiversity is being lost at an alarming and increasing
55 rate (Dirzo et al., 2014; Ripple et al., 2017). Research on the effectiveness of conservation
56 interventions is critical to ensure conservation efforts are beneficial, efficient, and not creating
57 additional harms (Cardinale et al., 2012). The number of publications evaluating the impact of
58 conservation-relevant interventions is growing annually, but the lessons learned are often not
59 employed in management decisions or policy (Sutherland et al., 2004; Young and Van Aarde,
60 2011).

61 This problem has been widely conceptualized as a "research-implementation gap"
62 (Anon, 2007; Knight et al., 2008; Westgate et al., 2018, see Glossary in Supplementary
63 Material). More recently, it has been reconceptualized as an issue within a series of "research-
64 implementation spaces": arenas in which various stakeholders and interest groups interact,
65 collaborate and learn together (Toomey et al., 2017). This concept explicitly recognizes the
66 existing connections between research and practice rather than implying there are voids
67 between research and practice that need to be filled, as well as the broader context in which
68 scientific knowledge is produced and utilized.

69 Within research-practice and research-policy spaces, several clearly defined barriers
70 limit collaboration and coproduction of knowledge (Roux et al., 2006; van Kerkhoff and Lebel,
71 2015; Table 1). These include communication barriers (e.g. length, linguistic and statistical
72 complexity of scientific articles), financial barriers (e.g. studies hidden behind paywalls),
73 relevance barriers (research often lacks direct relevance to practitioners or policy-makers),

74 synthesis barriers (an overwhelming volume of unsynthesized scientific literature) and socio-
75 political barriers (e.g. motivated skepticism of information that challenges existing worldviews).

76 Evidence synthesis is fundamental to overcoming some of these barriers, increasing the
77 flow of ideas within research-implementation spaces, and ultimately helping researchers,
78 practitioners and policy-makers navigate towards the common goal of conserving biodiversity.
79 Evidence synthesis methods aim to locate, collate, and synthesize relevant information, usually
80 from published literature. They range from unsystematic, ad hoc literature reviews, to
81 comprehensive systematic reviews, and even reviews of reviews (Collins et al., 2015). However,
82 these existing approaches have shortfalls. Traditional literature reviews can be subjective, liable
83 to bias and methodologically opaque (Collins et al., 2015; Haddaway et al., 2015). Systematic
84 reviews are designed to reduce those issues, but can be expensive and time-consuming (Borah
85 et al, 2017; Haddaway and Westgate, 2019). Therefore, they are not always possible in
86 conservation, where resources are limited (Soulé, 1985; Gerber, 2016). The intended audience
87 of reviews and systematic reviews sometimes face communication barriers (e.g. Cochrane
88 Clinical Answers are needed as a “readable, digestible” entry point to medical Cochrane
89 Reviews; Cochrane Library, 2019) and financial barriers (e.g. paywalls, although *Environmental*
90 *Evidence* provides open access systematic reviews).

91 To address these issues, we have developed a method to rapidly synthesize evidence
92 across entire subject areas (comprising tens or hundreds of related review questions), whilst
93 being transparent, objective and minimizing bias. Target end users (i.e. researchers,
94 practitioners and policy-makers) are actively involved in the synthesis process. Uniquely, our

95 subject-wide evidence syntheses (Sutherland and Wordley, 2018) are part of a broader
96 discipline-wide project, pooling resources to increase speed and cost-effectiveness. The
97 ultimate output of this process is the freely accessible, plain-English Conservation Evidence
98 database, which contains evidence for the effects of conservation interventions. The database
99 is complemented by other tools in the Conservation Evidence toolbox (e.g. the journal
100 *Conservation Evidence* and Evidence Champions). Together, these tools are designed to
101 overcome or lower barriers within research-implementation spaces, increasing the use of
102 evidence in practical conservation and policy-making, and enabling practice and policy to
103 influence research. Ultimately, we hope this will lead to more targeted conservation research
104 and more effective conservation action.

105 In this paper, we focus on the Conservation Evidence database, describing the methods
106 used to create it and how it helps to overcome barriers between conservation researchers,
107 practitioners and policy-makers. Although aspects of the methods have been described
108 previously (e.g. Dicks et al., 2016; Sutherland and Wordley, 2018), this paper provides the only
109 complete and detailed overview of the methods currently used by Conservation Evidence.
110 Through increasing methodological transparency and communicating what the database is (and
111 is not) designed to do, we hope this paper will encourage effective and appropriate use of this
112 tool. We also discuss the database in a broader context, acknowledging that published evidence
113 is just one of a multitude of factors within research-implementation spaces that affect
114 conservation decision making.

115

116 **2. Building the Conservation Evidence Database**

117 **2.1. An overview of the Conservation Evidence database**

118 The Conservation Evidence database gathers, organizes, and summarizes studies that
119 quantify the effects of conservation interventions (i.e. actions that have been or could be used
120 to conserve biodiversity) on any aspect of biodiversity (e.g. abundance of a focal species,
121 survival rates of translocated individuals, use of nest boxes, extent of habitat) or human
122 behavior related to biodiversity conservation (e.g. levels of hunting, or sales of products
123 detrimental to biodiversity). Ultimately, the database will present the evidence for
124 interventions across the entire discipline of biodiversity conservation. Four key types of
125 information fall largely outside the scope of the database: qualitative data, unpublished
126 practitioner experience, traditional or indigenous knowledge, and detailed information on
127 social or ethical issues (see Section 3.4). At present our focus is restricted to quantitative data
128 which provide objective information on the size and direction of effects.

129 The database is split into subject areas, usually along taxonomic lines (e.g. bats,
130 amphibians) with some taxa split by habitat (e.g. forest vegetation, shrubland vegetation).
131 Subjects are distinct areas of research and practice, which we delimit according to (1) what we,
132 and our advisory boards (Section 2.3.2), think would produce a useful synthesis for
133 practitioners; (2) shared conservation challenges and relevance of interventions across the
134 subject; (3) the abundance and distribution of literature, with a subject needing to be covered
135 within a 1–3 year project and (4) aims and budgets of funders. For example, bat conservation is
136 synthesized separately from conservation of other terrestrial mammals because

137 chiropterologists form a distinct research and practice community, and because initial funding
138 was limited. At the user interface, subject areas provide a rapid overview of the scope of the
139 database, and coarse filters to focus on the most relevant information.

140 In each subject area, the database provides a comprehensive list of interventions. For
141 each intervention, the database provides: background information such as the logic behind the
142 intervention and how it might be carried out; standardized paragraphs summarizing individual
143 scientific studies that have quantified the effects of that intervention; key messages that
144 provide a narrative index to the combined evidence from all of those studies; and an overall
145 effectiveness category based on an assessment of the evidence (effectiveness, certainty, and
146 harm) by a panel of experts.

147 In the following sections, we outline the two levels of work involved in building the
148 database and the steps therein (Figure 1). At a high level, *discipline-wide literature searches*
149 identify publications that fall within the scope of the Conservation Evidence project. At a lower
150 level, *subject-wide evidence syntheses* collate and summarize studies across subject areas.

151 **2.2. Discipline-wide literature searches**

152 ***2.2.1 Systematic manual searches***

153
154 The main method used by Conservation Evidence to find relevant literature is discipline-wide,
155 systematic, manual literature searching. This means identifying literature sources (e.g.
156 academic journals, report series, organizational websites) that are likely to contain relevant
157 information, then manually scanning the title and abstract (or summary) of every document in

158 those sources. All documents meeting the general inclusion criteria (Section 2.1) are added to a
159 discipline-wide repository, and tagged or filed by subject areas.

160 Sources with a broad, discipline-wide scope (e.g. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, *Biological*
161 *Conservation*) are searched annually to keep the literature repository up to date. Specialist
162 subject sources (e.g. *Journal of Mammalogy*, British Trust for Ornithology reports) are searched
163 when the synthesis project for that subject is carried out (Section 2.3). Typically, sources are
164 searched from their first publication date until a specified recent date. The list of sources and
165 years screened is published alongside evidence synthesis products.

166 The key advantages of this method are that it does not depend on search term choice
167 and can identify novel interventions not suggested a priori by the authors or advisory board for
168 a synthesis (Sutherland and Wordley, 2018). It is also highly repeatable and transparent,
169 notwithstanding some inevitable variation in the interpretation of inclusion criteria. We use
170 Kappa tests (Cohen, 1960) to identify, and then correct, inconsistency between searchers.
171 Because all relevant publications are added to a discipline-wide repository, each journal issue or
172 block of reports only needs screening once. Each new synthesis or synthesis update can draw
173 from (and contribute to) an existing repository rather than starting afresh (Figure 1),
174 substantially increasing cost-effectiveness.

175 The disadvantages of the systematic manual search approach are that it requires a high
176 initial outlay of time and money, cannot easily incorporate some sources that contain a large
177 number of publications (e.g. mega-journals such as *PLoS ONE*), and cannot cover sources with a
178 likely low yield of relevant publications. Thus, search terms are used instead of, or to

179 complement, systematic manual searching in some specific cases (see Section 2.3.4). In the
180 future, automated processes based on machine learning could reduce the cost of systematic
181 source-by-source literature screening, whilst increasing coverage (Westgate et al., 2018).

182 **2.2.2. Non-English and grey literature**

183
184 A large proportion of the global scientific literature in conservation is not published in English
185 (Amano et al., 2016). Conservation Evidence is creating a list of priority conservation journals in
186 20 different languages. Of these, 159 journals have been searched by fluent speakers of each
187 language, with more searches underway. Results are being added to the discipline-wide
188 literature repository (Figure 1), with titles and abstracts translated into English. Papers
189 retrieved during these searches are being incorporated into the Conservation Evidence
190 database as staff language skills permit. The aim is to reduce bias in the database towards
191 evidence from English-speaking countries.

192 “Grey literature” refers to documents not controlled by commercial publishers, such as
193 governmental and non-governmental reports, newsletters, conference proceedings, and theses
194 (Farace and Schöpfel, 2010). Including grey literature in evidence syntheses may help to
195 counteract the problem of publication bias, where studies reporting negative or non-significant
196 findings are less likely to be written up and published in journals (McAuley et al., 2000; Dwan et
197 al., 2013). Conservation Evidence is making a concerted effort to systematically search more
198 grey literature sources (e.g. 687 reports from the British Trust for Ornithology and 945 from
199 Scottish Natural Heritage were searched by 2017) and include relevant publications in the
200 database.

201 **2.3. Subject-wide evidence syntheses**

202 ***2.3.1. Defining the subject and its scope***

203

204 The detailed process of synthesizing evidence for the Conservation Evidence database is broken
205 down into subject-focused work packages, or subject-wide evidence syntheses (Figure 1). The
206 precise subject and scope of each synthesis is decided at an early stage in consultation with the
207 advisory board (see Section 2.3.2). It is essential to define what each synthesis will include and
208 exclude (Pullin and Stewart, 2006).

209 The subject is usually defined taxonomically, then sometimes further refined by habitat
210 type (see Section 2.1). It is occasionally defined by other areas of interest, such as invasive
211 species management or sustainable agriculture. The geographic scope is usually global.

212 Conservation Evidence syntheses are focused on the effects of conservation interventions, so
213 the question structure for review typically follows a PICO format (population, intervention,
214 comparator, outcome). There is a separate review of the evidence for each intervention.

215 Outcome measures are usually direct measures of effects on biodiversity, but may include less
216 direct or intermediate outcomes (see Section 2.1). A synthesis-specific list of focal metrics may
217 be constructed (e.g. abundance of certain indicator plant taxa) to guide consistent reporting of
218 results from summarized studies. Synthesis-specific inclusion/exclusion criteria may also be
219 defined. For example, laboratory and greenhouse studies are excluded for most interventions
220 within vegetation-focused syntheses.

221 **2.3.2. Forming an advisory board**

222 The advisory board for each synthesis is a panel of subject experts who can help to
223 refine its scope (Section 2.3.1) as well as its structure and language (Section 2.3.7), identify
224 interventions (Section 2.3.3) and identify key sources of evidence to search (Section 2.2.1).
225 Advisors contribute to planning each synthesis as well as reviewing a near-final version. Since
226 2018, we have formalized the input of the advisory board to the planning stage by asking them
227 to review a synthesis protocol. These protocols are registered on the Open Science Framework
228 (<https://osf.io/mz5rx/>) and published ahead of each synthesis on the Conservation Evidence
229 website. We have always used and reported standard methodologies that allow for robust
230 evidence synthesis, but we now appreciate the added value of publishing protocols in advance
231 (Haddaway and Macura, 2018).

232 Advisory boards are selected to provide expertise in diverse topics within the subject,
233 represent the geographic range covered by the evidence synthesis, and to include a mix of
234 academics, practitioners and policy-makers. Thus, anticipated users of the database contribute
235 to its development, helping to ensure applicability to practice and to increase the likelihood of
236 uptake. So far, advisory boards for Conservation Evidence syntheses have comprised a mean of
237 11.6 (\pm 6.9 SD, $n = 15$) subject experts. Of the 157 individual experts from a total of 28 countries
238 across six continents, approximately 53% have been from institutes operating more within
239 research domains, and 47% from organizations oriented more towards policy and practice
240 domains.

241 **2.3.3. Intervention scanning**

242 Based on initial literature scans and consultation with the advisory board, a list of
243 conservation interventions for the subject of the synthesis is created. The aim is to produce a
244 comprehensive list of all interventions that have been tried or suggested for the subject of the
245 synthesis and that could realistically be implemented. The intervention list can be modified, and
246 added to, as the synthesis process proceeds. Including all possible interventions and then
247 populating these with evidence forms the basis for identifying and mapping evidence gaps (see
248 Section 2.3.6).

249 Interventions are grouped in a consistent manner across syntheses: primarily according
250 to the IUCN threat category that they address (Salafsky et al., 2008) and, for interventions that
251 tackle multiple threats, secondary categories based on IUCN action types. The naming and
252 division of interventions are guided by both the existing literature and the advisory board.
253 Where possible, interventions are described at a fine scale (for example “Set longlines at the
254 side of the boat to reduce seabird bycatch” is a separate intervention from “Set lines
255 underwater to reduce seabird bycatch”; Williams et al., 2013), so that they can be combined in
256 multiple ways by the user to address larger closed questions (e.g. are longlines at the side of
257 the boat more effective than setting lines underwater to reduce seabird bycatch?), or open
258 questions (what is the state of knowledge on seabird bycatch reduction methods?).

259 As the evidence synthesis is constructed, background information is added to each
260 intervention. This briefly explains the logic behind the intervention, key issues regarding
261 practical implementation, any unavoidable technical terms used, and potential harms to society
262 or the wider environment. This background information is not, for pragmatic reasons, based on

263 systematic literature searches and is therefore not taken into account during expert assessment
264 (Section 2.3.8).

265 **2.3.4. Collating subject-relevant literature**

266 The synthesis authors collate a repository of literature that is relevant to their synthesis,
267 based on title and abstract/summary screening. The authors draw documents from the
268 discipline-wide repository—which contains the results from screening sources with a discipline-
269 wide focus and sources with a focus on other previously-synthesized subjects (Section
270 2.2.1)—but also search sources most relevant to their synthesis subject (e.g. herpetological
271 journals for an amphibian-focused synthesis). Relevant sources are identified in collaboration
272 with the advisory board. The documents extracted from these synthesis-specific searches in
273 turn feed back into the discipline-wide repository. For example, searches of herpetological
274 journals for the amphibian-focused synthesis will also return papers relevant to a synthesis for
275 reptiles.

276 Conservation Evidence syntheses on a new subject area unlikely to retrieve many
277 publications from the existing discipline-wide repository, or on a very specific subject (e.g. the
278 control of a particular group of invasive species), may use search terms to query databases of
279 scientific literature. In such cases, employing search terms can be a useful complement to, or
280 replacement for, journal searching. If this approach is taken, records are kept and presented to
281 show the databases searched, the terms used and the dates searches were carried out.

282 **2.3.5. Summarizing relevant studies**

283

284 Each publication retrieved through literature searches is screened at full-text by the
285 synthesis authors. If the publication contains at least one study (i.e. conceptually distinct
286 experiment or test of an intervention) that meets the general inclusion criteria as well as any
287 specific criteria defined for that synthesis, then each study is summarized in a standardized
288 paragraph. Reviews and meta-analyses are summarized as evidence if they provide new or
289 collective data relevant to the synthesis.

290 Summary paragraphs consistently present the same key information from each study in
291 the same order (see Figure A1. in Appendix). This includes: study design; years of study; habitat;
292 location; conservation intervention; target species or habitat; whether there was a statistically
293 significant effect of the intervention and the direction of any effect; quantitative data on the
294 outcome of the intervention; and a brief overview of the methods and monitoring approach.
295 Summary paragraphs are concise—typically around 150–200 words—and written in plain
296 English, avoiding technical terms wherever possible. Although short, the aim is for summary
297 paragraphs to include sufficient detail of the study context and methods to allow users to begin
298 to assess its importance and relevance to their own system (e.g. location, length of monitoring,
299 exactly how the intervention was done) and interpret simple context-dependencies in results.

300 Conservation Evidence does not follow a formal process for critically appraising studies:
301 generally, all studies that meet inclusion criteria are summarized. However, the design and size
302 of each study are reported to help the user—and expert assessors (Section 2.3.8)—judge its
303 importance and reliability (internal validity). As a simple example, the reader might give more
304 weight to results from reviews, and particularly systematic reviews, than to results from

305 individual case studies. Major concerns (from the original authors or synthesis authors) over the
306 study design are explicitly highlighted in summary paragraphs. Exceptionally, studies may not
307 be summarized if they clearly involve invalid comparisons, or are missing key information that
308 severely inhibits comprehension. These issues are noted in the subject-wide literature
309 repository (Figure 1).

310 **2.3.6. Key messages: an overview of the summaries**

311
312 Summary paragraphs describing studies that test the same intervention are grouped
313 together. “Key messages” provide a brief overview of the studies testing each intervention:
314 usually some indication of the number of studies, their geographical distribution, and their
315 reported effects on key outcome metrics. Key messages are intended to provide an index to the
316 evidence, easing the user into summary paragraphs and helping them identify the most
317 relevant studies to their situation, and to facilitate comparisons of studies.

318 The key messages also highlight knowledge clusters and gaps in relation to
319 interventions, targets, outcomes, habitats and geographic locations – and thus help identify
320 where further research is needed. For example, no studies were found testing the intervention
321 “Leave unharvested cereal headlands within arable fields” for bird populations (Williams et al.,
322 2013). Furthermore, whilst four studies tested the intervention “Leave standing
323 deadwood/snags in forests” for amphibian populations, they were all carried out in the USA
324 (three in Virginia) and all but one focused on salamanders (Smith and Sutherland, 2014). The
325 key messages across all interventions in a synthesis map the distribution of evidence across the

326 subject area. Ultimately, key messages across the entire Conservation Evidence database will
327 provide a “mega-map” of evidence for the whole conservation discipline.

328 We realize our key messages may be interpreted as an invitation to vote count (i.e. draw
329 conclusions based on the number of studies showing positive vs negative results), which is
330 usually a misleading method of synthesis (Stewart and Ward 2019). This is not the intended
331 use. Key messages include information about study designs to suggest that the value of
332 evidence varies between studies. Online, they link directly to the summary paragraphs that
333 contain data to indicate the magnitude of any effects. We have added an explicit warning about
334 vote counting to key messages on the Conservation Evidence website, and are considering
335 alternative ways to provide an overview of the evidence base.

336 **2.3.7. External review of synthesis**

337
338 Once the evidence has been summarized, the draft synthesis is reviewed by the advisory
339 board. They identify problems with language and structure, and suggest further relevant
340 publications not retrieved through literature searches (Sections 2.2.1 and 2.3.4). The synthesis
341 authors then include relevant studies and rectify any problems.

342 **2.3.8. Expert assessment**

343 Expert assessment is an important final step in synthesizing and presenting the evidence
344 (Figure 1). The aim is to consider studies holistically and generate a generalized, overall
345 effectiveness category for each intervention. This provides users with a supplementary
346 decision-support tool, alongside the key messages and individual study summaries.

347 For a Conservation Evidence synthesis, the evidence for each intervention is assessed
348 using a modified Delphi technique (Mukherjee et al., 2015). This involves a panel of
349 experts—academics, practitioners and policy-makers from across the geographic range of the
350 synthesis—carrying out several rounds of scoring for each intervention. The experts score the
351 effectiveness, certainty and harm of each intervention, based on the evidence presented in the
352 synthesis. Anonymized scores and comments are shared within the expert panel between
353 rounds of scoring, to be used as a basis for refining scores. After 2–3 rounds, final median
354 scores are used to assign an overall effectiveness category for each intervention (Sutherland et
355 al., 2018; Table A1 in Appendix).

356 *Effectiveness* is scored by considering whether the intervention produces a desirable
357 outcome in the summarized studies, and the magnitude of that outcome (0% = not effective,
358 100% = highly effective). *Certainty* is a measure of how confident assessors are that the
359 effectiveness score applies across all appropriate contexts. The certainty score incorporates (1)
360 the strength or reliability of the evidence as a whole, based on the number of studies and their
361 quality (internal validity e.g. study design, replication, bias); and (2) how generalizable the
362 results of these studies are, which will depend on the taxonomic/habitat/geographical coverage
363 of studies (external validity). Certainty is scored from 0% (no evidence) to 100% (lots of high
364 quality evidence, high generalizability). An intervention could be scored as having high
365 effectiveness if it is supported by many studies showing strong desirable outcomes, but low
366 certainty if those studies use low quality study designs or only consider a specific local context.
367 *Harm* is scored by rating the magnitude of undesirable effects on the subject of the synthesis
368 from undertaking the intervention (0% = no undesirable effects, 100% = major undesirable

369 effects). The harm score is important to distinguish interventions that lack desirable effects
370 from those that have undesirable effects: such interventions could receive identical
371 effectiveness (and certainty) scores.

372 Currently, the Conservation Evidence database presents the overall effectiveness
373 categories and the percentage scores for their three components (effectiveness, certainty, and
374 harms). Whilst the percentage scores are useful for giving assessors flexibility and to generate
375 medians across all assessors, we realize they could give a false sense of precision to database
376 users. Thus, in the future, we may move towards categorical groupings to present scores for the
377 three components.

378 Combining evidence from disparate locations, of varying rigor, and reporting different
379 output metrics, is a challenge. Conservation Evidence uses expert assessment rather than meta-
380 analyses to synthesize studies testing the same intervention, but reporting very different
381 metrics, into an overall effectiveness category. For example, expert assessment can combine
382 studies reporting the appearance of *Sphagnum* moss species on bogs following rewetting (a
383 desirable change) and studies reporting a decrease in tree cover on bogs following rewetting
384 (also a desirable change) to give an overall assessment that the intervention is effective. Meta-
385 analyses tend not to combine different metrics because the resulting effect size would not be
386 linked to any metric and would therefore lose some meaning. Some studies that can be
387 considered by expert assessment also lack sufficient detail for the calculations involved in meta-
388 analysis (Haddaway and Verhoeven, 2015). Conservation Evidence highlights (e.g. in synopsis

389 introductions) interventions or groups of interventions where we think conducting a meta-
390 analyses would be worthwhile as a more robust alternative to expert assessment.

391 **2.4. Accessing the database**

392 Outputs from each subject-wide evidence synthesis (interventions, summary paragraphs, key
393 messages, expert assessments) are freely available within the searchable online database,
394 www.conservationevidence.com. Users can search and filter the database in multiple ways,
395 including by taxon, habitat, intervention and threat. Synopses capture most of each subject-
396 wide evidence synthesis (interventions, summarized paragraphs and key messages) in a free-to-
397 download pdf, and in some cases as a printed book. An annual publication, *What Works in*
398 *Conservation* (e.g. Sutherland et al., 2018), presents the key messages and expert assessment
399 for interventions reviewed so far, as a rapid overview and gateway into the online database (via
400 hyperlinks).

401 **2.5. Updates**

402 The Conservation Evidence database is designed to allow the regular incorporation of new
403 evidence. Updating each subject-wide evidence synthesis involves searching new volumes,
404 issues, or documents within the originally-searched literature sources; searching additional
405 literature sources; and adding new interventions or adjusting existing ones (e.g. where new
406 literature suggests actions could be divided into multiple interventions). Further documents
407 suggested by users since the publication of the original synthesis can also be included. Thus, all
408 users can contribute studies to evidence syntheses through publishing their own articles and/or

409 highlighting articles published by others. Key messages are updated and expert assessments
410 repeated for any interventions where new evidence was added. Conservation Evidence has
411 started to update existing syntheses and, in the short term, aims to produce updates every few
412 years. In the longer term, we envisage updating the database in near-real time as new evidence
413 is published, perhaps with the help of artificial intelligence to find publications and/or extract
414 data (Westgate et al. 2018).

415 **3. Discussion**

416 **3.1. Synthesizing complex evidence at scale**

417 The methods developed to build the Conservation Evidence database allow for the synthesis of
418 complex evidence across broad subjects and ultimately across whole disciplines. Using
419 discipline-wide searches and subject-wide syntheses, we can efficiently synthesize evidence for
420 both major and obscure topics, with a large or limited evidence base, respectively. Through a
421 combination of summary paragraphs, key messages and expert assessment, we can present a
422 general overview of the evidence incorporating a diversity of metrics, whilst allowing users to
423 drill down to the evidence most relevant to their situation. Key messages and expert
424 assessment can also highlight knowledge gaps and clusters for subjects and interventions.
425 Finally, by using short summary paragraphs in plain English, we produce a user-friendly end
426 product. We believe the truly unique feature of our methods is the combination of subject-wide
427 synthesis and discipline-wide searches: we are not aware of any other synthesis projects that
428 work across entire subjects and simultaneously collate literature for future syntheses within the

429 discipline. We suggest these methods could be used to synthesize evidence for other themes
430 within biodiversity conservation, such as threats or monitoring methods.

431 The Conservation Evidence database complements other systematic evidence synthesis
432 outputs. The Conservation Evidence database provides syntheses of evidence over a broad
433 range of topics, for which the investment in a systematic review is not (yet) justified but
434 something more than just a map of the evidence would be useful. Systematic reviews, which
435 favor depth of review over breadth of topics reviewed, are desirable for interventions with a
436 large evidence base, where studies present contrasting results, for contentious topics, or where
437 the risks posed by an incorrect conclusion are severe (Collaboration for Environmental
438 Evidence, 2013; Collins et al., 2015). Systematic maps provide a rapid and inexpensive overview
439 of the state of evidence in a broad subject or topic, without detailing what the evidence finds.
440 They are most useful for identifying knowledge gaps and clusters, which can help direct
441 research effort where it is most needed (Haddaway et al. 2016). All of these systematic
442 outputs—including the Conservation Evidence database—are clearly organized, permanent,
443 searchable and designed to minimize several key sources of bias, especially compared to other
444 communication methods such as traditional literature reviews, notes from conference
445 presentations, or word of mouth.

446 **3.2. How the Conservation Evidence database helps to overcome barriers in** 447 **research-implementation spaces**

448 The Conservation Evidence database is designed to overcome some of the barriers between
449 conservation research, practice and policy (Table 1), facilitating the flow of information

450 between (and within) these domains. For example, the scientific literature is vast and ever-
451 expanding, yet only a fraction of it is directly relevant to practitioners or policy-makers
452 (Westgate et al. 2018). The Conservation Evidence database helps to overcome this barrier by
453 presenting a relevant subset of the literature, containing quantitative information about the
454 effects of conservation interventions—which can be a key factor in making robust conservation
455 decisions (Adams and Sandbrook 2013; see also Section 3.4). Furthermore, the database is
456 categorized at multiple levels (subjects, interventions, individual studies), allowing users to
457 quickly drill down to relevant information, and combine it within and across levels to generate a
458 custom evidence synthesis. We are currently developing an online tool that allows users to
459 formally generate custom evidence syntheses.

460 A key feature of the Conservation Evidence database is its breadth, synthesizing
461 evidence for a large number of questions (interventions). Since the first Conservation Evidence
462 synthesis began in 2010, we have reviewed over 1,800 interventions (Sutherland et al., 2018)
463 for 15 subjects. The aim is to synthesize the evidence for the effects of all interventions, for all
464 taxa and all habitats, everywhere in the world.

465 Clearly there is a trade-off between breadth and depth of the database, so we cannot
466 claim to have captured all of the available evidence for each intervention. The assumption is
467 that users benefit from a synthesis of the evidence in the sources we search, as long as that is
468 based on an unbiased sample of the available evidence, and users understand that the evidence
469 base might be incomplete. A similar assumption implicitly, or explicitly, supports the use of
470 other forms of rapid evidence assessment (e.g. Collins et al., 2015). As we have already included

471 studies from over 280 journals and grey literature sources in the database, we think we have
472 captured a substantial proportion of the relevant literature. We reduce publication and
473 geographic biases by searching grey and non-English literature.

474 We acknowledge that even if all the available journals and grey literature were screened
475 in multiple languages, a substantial amount of conservation-relevant knowledge would not be
476 captured and a knowledge-accessibility barrier remains. Many reports remain as internal
477 documents and are not publicly accessible. Moreover, some data on the effects of conservation
478 interventions are not formally reported and remains as case experience in minds and
479 notebooks. Although it may be possible to include case experience in the Conservation
480 Evidence database, for example through the use of interviews, it can be difficult to capture in a
481 systematic fashion and is likely subject to behavioral, social and cognitive biases that can be
482 difficult for third parties to assess. As such, we have decided not to include it in the database at
483 present. Still, such experiential and tacit knowledge should be used to complement the
484 Conservation Evidence database when making conservation decisions (Section 3.3).

485

Suggested barriers between conservation research and practice/policy	Example references	How the Conservation Evidence database helps to overcome or lower this barrier
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<p>Research produces fragmented information that often does not address questions or problems relevant to conservation practice/policy.</p>	<p>McNie, 2007; Roux et al., 2006; Knight et al., 2008 ; Bainbridge, 2014; Gossa et al., 2015; Rose et al., 2018</p>	<p>Practitioners/policy-makers suggest interventions to be included in the database. Interventions with little evidence are highlighted for researchers. Thus, the database can act as a source of inspiration for practice/policy-relevant research. The database includes practice/policy-relevant research e.g. published in the journal <i>Conservation Evidence</i> or reports from conservation organizations.</p>
<p>Practitioners/policy-makers need answers more quickly than they can be produced by research, or even reviews of existing research.</p>	<p>Bainbridge, 2014; Gossa et al., 2015</p>	<p>Database is created proactively, reviewing the evidence for all interventions before a specific request from practitioners/policy-makers. Evidence synthesis prioritizes breadth of interventions covered over depth of review for each intervention to provide some synthesized evidence for all interventions, rather than detailed synthesis for few interventions.</p>

<p>Locating and accessing relevant primary literature is often too time-consuming (due to the large volume of published literature, including much that is not relevant to practitioners/policy-makers)</p>	<p>Pullin and Knight, 2005; Gossa et al., 2015; Westgate et al., 2018</p>	<p>Database can be queried using search terms or with various filters (subjects, countries, threats, actions). Evidence within each subject is organized in a consistent way (interventions grouped under threat and action categories).</p>
<p>Even when primary literature is located, reading papers can be time consuming, as much research is not streamlined for practitioners/policy-makers.</p>	<p>Pullin and Knight, 2005; Bainbridge, 2014; Westgate et al., 2018</p>	<p>Database contains short, summaries (usually <200 words) of each study, plus key messages to guide users through the summary paragraphs.</p>
<p>Much of the primary literature is technical and difficult to interpret for non-specialists. Research is often not communicated effectively for non-scientists.</p>	<p>Pullin and Knight, 2005; Roux et al., 2006; Bainbridge, 2014; Rose et al., 2018</p>	<p>Content of database is in plain English, avoiding jargon where possible (and explaining it otherwise).</p>
<p>Primary literature may be in a foreign language.</p>	<p>Arlettaz et al., 2010; Gossa et al., 2015</p>	<p>Summaries are written in English, even for primary articles not in English. We appreciate this introduces language barriers for users for whom English is a foreign language.</p>

<p>Financial barriers can be prohibitive (journal articles are often hidden behind paywalls, which can be too expensive for conservation practitioners/policy-makers; books can also be too expensive).</p>	<p>Arlettaz et al., 2010; Gossa et al., 2015</p>	<p>Database and related outputs are free to access.</p>
<p>Practitioners/policy-makers do not trust that the research, or synthesis, is credible.</p>	<p>Bainbridge, 2014</p>	<p>Summary paragraphs include key information (e.g. study design, raw data, major reported caveats) to allow users to make some judgement about study quality (internal validity). Methods used to produce synthesis are reported alongside the database.</p>
<p>The uptake of evidence is often undermined by socio-political agendas, whereby practitioners/policy makers tend to accept information—or disinformation—that confirms pre-existing worldviews but be critical of evidence in conflict.</p>	<p>Hameleers et al. 2019; Ecker et al 2019.</p>	<p>A small contribution: the Conservation Evidence database serves as an independent fact-checking resource to help debunk disproven or unfounded claims.</p>

486

487 The Conservation Evidence database aims to present scientific information in a format relevant

488 to practitioners and policy-makers who often struggle with the technical language, statistical

489 analyses and length of scientific articles (Pullin and Knight 2005)—including systematic reviews
490 (Tricco *et al.* 2016). The database uses short paragraphs in plain English. The content is also
491 edited/reviewed by practitioners and policy-makers who sit on the synthesis advisory boards. In
492 addition, interventions are tagged (grouped) according to the IUCN universal classification
493 schemes of threats and actions (Salafsky *et al.*, 2008), which were developed with input from
494 practitioners and therefore reflect their thought processes.

495 The database breaks down some language barriers by summarizing some articles
496 originally published in languages other than English, making them more accessible to English
497 speakers (and at least all in a common language). We take opportunities to translate syntheses
498 into alternative languages where possible (e.g. Hebrew for bee conservation), and have
499 incorporated Google Translate into our website for “on the fly” translation. We appreciate that
500 we still have work to do to break down language barriers for non-English-speaking users of the
501 Conservation Evidence database.

502 In many cases, the knowledge transfer barriers in the research-implementation space
503 arise upstream of evidence synthesis: there are often no (or few) scientific studies relevant to
504 practitioners or policy-makers. For example, scientists may focus on global analyses, complex
505 statistics and studies that push the boundaries of fundamental scientific knowledge to generate
506 publications with a high academic impact—but which are of little use to practitioners and
507 policy-makers (McNie, 2007; Hulme, 2011; Braunisch *et al.*, 2012). To overcome this barrier,
508 practitioners and policy-makers contribute to shaping the interventions included in the
509 Conservation Evidence database. Furthermore, the database highlights knowledge gaps (i.e.

510 which interventions are supported by no, little or low quality evidence) and clusters (e.g. in
511 certain locations or habitat types). Thus, researchers can see which questions are of interest to
512 practitioners and policy-makers, and which are lacking evidence-based answers. Being able to
513 demonstrate a knowledge gap for a practice- or policy-relevant question may help researchers
514 justify research funding.

515 There may also be psychological barriers limiting the flow of information between
516 research, practice and policy. For example, if institutionalized methods and relationships do not
517 currently involve interactions between research and practice, a certain degree of activation
518 energy will be needed to change habits (van Kerkhoff and Lebel, 2015). Further, scientific
519 evidence is often discounted when it challenges people's pre-existing values or worldviews,
520 especially when they are strongly connected to defined social identities (Roux et al., 2006;
521 Newell et al., 2014). Related to this, there is a growing availability of highly visible and
522 accessible, but often unreliable, information—especially on social media—which can “crowd
523 out” reliable sources of evidence (Ladle et al., 2005). Whilst many solutions to these problems
524 are largely outside of the scope of the Conservation Evidence project (e.g. detecting and
525 removing disinformation on social media platforms), we suggest that the Conservation
526 Evidence database may indirectly help to combat the spread of disinformation by increasing the
527 accessibility and visibility of verifiable research evidence (see also Section 3.4 on Evidence
528 Champions) and may help to reduce the impact of politically motivated disinformation by
529 providing an open, objective, independent fact-checking resource for practitioners (Ecker, et al.,
530 2019; Hameleers and van der Meer, 2019).

531 In an attempt to normalize use of the Conservation Evidence database, and reduce the
532 psychological barrier of using a new tool, the database is integrated into an increasing number
533 of practitioner-focused resources and decision-support software tools. It complements existing
534 information on the websites of the IUCN Red List (<https://www.iucnredlist.org>), the National
535 Biodiversity Network (<https://nbn.org.uk>), the British Trust for Ornithology
536 (<https://www.bto.org>), and the UNEP-Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian
537 Migratory Waterbirds (<https://www.unep-aewa.org/>). The database is embedded in the
538 Conservation Management System software ([https://www.software4conservation.com/cmsi-
539 software](https://www.software4conservation.com/cmsi-
539 software)) used by Natural England and 10 other organizations to plan land management. The
540 Cool Farm Tool (<https://coolfarmtool.org/>) is used by major grocery retailers to help farmers
541 choose practices that reduce greenhouse gas emissions and, through the integration of the
542 Conservation Evidence database, could be beneficial for biodiversity.

543 Unfortunately, we currently have limited data about the effectiveness of Conservation
544 Evidence at breaking down barriers. Empirical evidence that the database can improve the
545 effectiveness of conservation when used is limited to one study. Walsh et al. (2014)
546 demonstrated that information synthesized by Conservation Evidence (on the effectiveness of
547 various interventions to control predators for bird conservation) changed practitioners' stated
548 choices of management in favor of more effective interventions, and away from interventions
549 that were likely to be ineffective or even harmful. Data on whether the Conservation Evidence
550 database increases the effectiveness of conservation in practice are difficult to collect, but we
551 are seeking research funding to do so (and encourage others to take up the challenge too).

552 We do know that the website is well used: it received an average of 29,000 page views
553 per month between January and May 2019, by an average of 11,700 visitors per month from
554 over 220 countries and overseas territories. About 25% of visitors have used the website more
555 than once. Copies of *What Works in Conservation* have been read online or downloaded almost
556 39,000 times as of June 2019.

557 Evidence Champions (see section 3.4) and others have provided feedback that the
558 database has helped their decision-making. For the AEWA (Agreement on the Conservation of
559 African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds) Secretariat, “it was a very helpful source, as we could
560 use it as a good reference and depending on the case also as a source for good examples on the
561 ground.” The Rufford Foundation, who ask grant applicants to reference Conservation Evidence
562 in their applications, said, “I think that it has been valuable as a way of encouraging those
563 designing projects to look further afield to see if techniques they plan to use have been tried
564 before and, if yes, with what result. All of this has certainly helped our reviewers. Overall,
565 Conservation Evidence has... greatly improved the quality of the applications we receive.”

566 The Conservation Evidence database has been recognized in the political sphere. An
567 example from the Conservation Evidence database, publicized by Sutherland and Wordley
568 (2017), was used by Lord John Krebs to ask the UK government to ensure the government's 25
569 year environment plan would be evidence-based. The database has also been referred to in
570 multiple policy briefs and government documents, such as Defra’s *Consultation on the National*
571 *Pollinator Strategy* (2014), The Scottish Government’s *Consultation on the Scotland Rural*

572 *Development Programme (SRDP) 2014–2020, and The New Zealand Government’s*
573 *Improvements to Biodiversity Assets Systems and Processes (2014).*

574

575 **3.3. Other tools in the Conservation Evidence toolbox that help overcome the**
576 **barriers in research-implementation spaces**

577

578 The database is a core part of the wider Conservation Evidence project, which contains
579 other tools to help overcome barriers between conservation researchers, practitioners and
580 policy-makers. We briefly discuss these here.

581 The journal *Conservation Evidence* publishes research, monitoring results, and case
582 studies on the effects of conservation interventions. There is no requirement for novelty,
583 complex statistical analyses, or technical discussions. It is designed specifically to encourage
584 practitioners to submit their quantitative data and make them accessible to all. By converting
585 unpublished reports, internal documents and data from field notebooks into open access
586 publications, this journal helps overcome the knowledge-accessibility barrier discussed above
587 (Section 3.2). Providing an outlet for sharing robust, conservation-relevant primary research
588 could also encourage greater collaboration between researchers and practitioners.

589 Since 2017 we have worked with a group of designated Evidence Champions. These are
590 organizations committed to using evidence (particularly the Conservation Evidence database)
591 when planning, funding, or publishing practical conservation actions, and/or testing a certain
592 number of interventions each year and publishing the results. These techniques are intended to
593 address some of the psychological barriers to the use of evidence (Section 3.2) by making a

594 balanced assessment of evidence a routine and expected part of conservation planning.
595 Evidence Champions are supported through training in evidence interpretation and generation
596 techniques.

597 We also run more general workshops to explain what the Conservation Evidence
598 database is and how it can be used, or how practitioners can best carry out research to feed
599 into the database. Again, these can help to reduce behavioral or psychological barriers to the
600 use or production of conservation-relevant evidence.

601

602 **3.4. Conservation in practice: other factors and actors in research-** 603 **implementation spaces**

604 The Conservation Evidence database is built within the collaborative spaces occupied by
605 conservation researchers, practitioners and policy-makers. When the database is used to make
606 practical or policy conservation decisions, other actors (e.g. NGOs, governments, landowners,
607 farmers, indigenous communities, activists), issues (e.g. spiritual and cultural values, financial
608 resources, political), and information (e.g. the basic biology, distribution and status of species
609 and habitats, the presence and degree of threats, local knowledge and practical experience) are
610 introduced to these arenas (Roux et al., 2006; Toomey et al., 2017; Evans et al., 2018).

611 Conservation decisions are not made based on scientific evidence alone; socially acceptable
612 decisions must balance the needs of nature and people. In particular, the quantitative data
613 from the Conservation Evidence database will need to be combined with qualitative data, for
614 example derived from interviews or focus groups, to capture relevant tacit knowledge and

615 values and ultimately design effective conservation strategies (Roux et al., 2006; Sutherland et
616 al. 2018).

617 Similarly, the Conservation Evidence database cannot tell practitioners or policy-makers
618 when or how to intervene. This decision will be influenced by site-specific issues and
619 information mentioned above, as well as assessments of the focal site’s history and desired
620 future for all stakeholders. We recognize the potential that a list of interventions—some
621 assessed as beneficial to species or habitats—might encourage unnecessary active intervention.
622 In some cases, particularly in relatively intact sites, interventions may not be required to reach
623 a desired state and might do more harm than good to biodiversity. Thus, we caution against
624 assuming that intervening is always better than not intervening. To this end, we also include
625 some passive interventions in our syntheses (e.g. ‘Allow shrubland to regenerate without active
626 management) to highlight that doing nothing is a management option to consider.

627 **3.5. Conclusion and Recommendations**

628 The Conservation Evidence database is assembled through a systematic, repeatable
629 process, with input from conservation researchers, practitioners and policy-makers. It is a
630 powerful and pragmatic tool to improve the use of scientific evidence by practitioners and
631 policy-makers, and encourage new research that is guided by practice and policy needs. The
632 database aims to complement existing evidence synthesis methods, and is complemented by
633 other tools within the Conservation Evidence toolbox, helping to create interactive spaces
634 where researchers, practitioners and other key stakeholders can collaboratively pursue
635 evidence-based conservation.

636 Several concrete recommendations arise from our work building the Conservation
637 Evidence database and this article reflecting on the methods used to build it. Conservation
638 researchers, practitioners and policy-makers should consult the database when making
639 conservation decisions, to ensure those decisions are informed by evidence alongside expert
640 opinion, experience, local knowledge and values. Second, conservation intervention projects
641 should be monitored and the results published, whether or not successful and/or novel, in
642 order to strengthen the evidence base. Third, conservationists should engage with the
643 Conservation Evidence project, offer constructive feedback and help us to make the database
644 as useful as possible for you. Finally, the database should, and will, be constantly growing and
645 evolving as it incorporates new evidence, methodological improvements and technological
646 developments.

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804 Figure 1. An overview of the methods used to build the Conservation Evidence database

805 (discipline-wide literature searches and subject-wide evidence synthesis), and how a range of

806 end users are incorporated into the construction process. *Rectangles* represent processes, and

807 *rhomboids* represent outputs. *Numbers* indicate section of text where item is explained.

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810 Table 1: Some barriers that inhibit interaction between research and practice/policy, and how

811 the Conservation Evidence database helps to overcome or lower these barriers.

