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

1

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

3

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7

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

10

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

12

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15

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17

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

39

40 **Abstract**

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

59 **Background**

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

70

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

76

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

86

87

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

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

98

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

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

124

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

133

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

143

144

## 145 **Objectives**

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

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

156

157

## 158 **8 problems, 8 solutions**

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

165

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

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

182

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

193

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

202

203

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

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

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

216

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

226

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

236

237

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

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



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

253

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

267

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

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

277

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

290

291

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

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

305

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

320

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

327

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

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

340

341

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

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

360

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

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

369

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

381

382

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

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

397

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

403

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

423

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

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

440

441

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

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

455

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

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

464

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

475

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

483

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



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

498

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

512

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

520

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

527

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

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

538

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

544

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

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

554

555

### 556 **Advice for more rigorous reviews**

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

561

---

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

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

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

613

614

## 615 **Conclusions**

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

622

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

637

638

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640 The authors declare they have no competing interests.

641

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645

## 646 **Author contributions**

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

650

## 651 **Figure legends**

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

654

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