

1 *Opinion*

2 ***Temporal instability of evidence base: a threat to policy making?***

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15

16 **Abstract**

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18 A shift towards evidence-based conservation and environmental management over the last
19 two decades has resulted in an increased use of systematic reviews and meta-analyses as
20 tools to combine the existing scientific evidence. However, to guide policy making decisions
21 in conservation and management the conclusions of meta-analyses need to remain stable
22 for at least some years. Alarming, numerous recent studies indicate that the magnitude,
23 statistical significance and even the sign of the effects reported in the literature might
24 change over relatively short time periods. We argue that such rapid temporal changes in
25 cumulative evidence represent a real threat to policy making in conservation and
26 environmental management and call for systematic monitoring of temporal changes in
27 evidence and exploration of their causes.

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29 **Temporal changes in cumulative evidence**

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31 In their seminal paper published in *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 15 years ago, Sutherland
32 et al. [1] called for conservation and environmental management to become evidence-
33 based and proposed that support for decision making in conservation could benefit from the
34 production of **systematic reviews** (see Glossary) including **meta-analyses** of published
35 evidence of effectiveness of interventions [2]. Guidelines for systematic review in
36 conservation and environmental management have been developed soon after [3] and over
37 600 meta-analyses on conservation topics were published to date providing assessment of
38 the effectiveness of different conservation and management strategies [4-6]. However,
39 the conduct of systematic review and meta-analysis provides just a snapshot of the available

40 evidence at a more or less arbitrary point in time whereas scientific evidence is not static
41 and tends to change over time as more research on the topic accumulates [7]. New studies
42 may either strengthen or challenge the conclusions of previous reports. If the above
43 changes in cumulative evidence over time are rapid and of considerable magnitude, the
44 conclusions of meta-analysis will strongly depend on when the review was conducted and
45 the policy-relevant recommendations derived from these reviews will quickly go out of date.

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47 Worryingly, a growing number of studies demonstrates that substantial changes in the
48 magnitude, statistical significance or even sign of the reported effects over time are
49 common in ecology and evolutionary biology [8-13] as well as other disciplines [14-17]. In
50 most cases decreases in the magnitude of the estimated effect are reported over time, a
51 phenomenon which has been dubbed ‘a **decline effect**’ in some fields [18]. As a result, the
52 conclusions of systematic reviews and meta-analyses may go out of date very rapidly as
53 well. For instance, a survey of 100 meta-analyses in medicine showed that clinically
54 important evidence that alters review conclusions about the effectiveness and harms of
55 treatments can accumulate within relatively short time frames, i.e. 2-5 years [19]. While no
56 similar surveys have been conducted in ecology and evolution, meta-analyses in these fields
57 are often performed on topics where results of studies are contradictory, sample sizes are
58 low, and the expected magnitudes of the effects are relatively small [20]. This makes
59 temporal changes in cumulative evidence more likely. The failure of later studies to
60 reproduce the results of the earlier studies exemplifies a broader concern about the
61 reproducibility in science [21].

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63 Despite its obvious scientific and practical importance, temporal changes in evidence base
64 for conservation and environmental management have received little attention so far [7]. In
65 this Opinion piece we review possible causes of such temporal trends, draw attention
66 towards their potential implications for policy making and **evidence-based conservation**,
67 and discuss the methods of detection of temporal changes. We argue that rapid temporal
68 changes in cumulative evidence represent a real threat to policy making in conservation and
69 environmental management and call for systematic exploration of their extent and causes in
70 applied ecology.

71

72 ***Causes of temporal instability of the evidence base***

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74 Temporal changes in reported effects may occur for three main reasons. First, temporal
75 trends may reflect true changes in the magnitude or direction of a biological effect, e.g. due
76 to shifts in the strength and relative importance of the drivers of biodiversity loss [22-24]
77 and to rapid adaptive evolution [25]. A well-known example in medicine is the development
78 of antibiotic resistance which might decrease treatment efficacy over time [26]. Similar
79 adaptive responses may occur in ecological and evolutionary studies as a result of selection
80 pressure imposed by humans directly or indirectly. Examples of such changes include
81 reductions in body size in animals as a result of warming temperatures [27-29] and shifting
82 song frequencies in birds in response to anthropogenic noise [30]. As the above selection
83 pressures increase over time, it is likely that studies published few decades ago would
84 report smaller effects compared to the more recent studies.

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86 Second, temporal trends in estimated **effect sizes** may occur even when the true effect size
87 remains the same, but the proportion of studies with particular characteristics which
88 influence the magnitude and direction of the effect (known as **moderators** in meta-analysis)
89 changes over time. An example of such **evidence reversal** is discussed in Box 1. If there is
90 significant **heterogeneity** in effect sizes (i.e. not all studies share the same effect) and
91 effects are smaller or larger under particular conditions, any changes in frequency of studies
92 on the above condition over time relative to other conditions may result in corresponding
93 temporal changes in the magnitude of the overall estimated effect (Box 1, [11, 31]). Changes
94 in prevalence of particular research or statistical methods over time may also result in
95 similar effects if such methods differ in the magnitude of the estimated effects that they
96 produce [32, 33]. It is therefore crucial to examine the amount of heterogeneity and its
97 causes in a meta-analysis, particularly as high heterogeneity should be expected in
98 ecological and evolutionary studies [34].

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100 Third, changes in magnitude and significance of the effect size estimates over time may be
101 due to biases. Here, again, the true magnitude of the effect size might not change with time,
102 but the estimate of the effect does. For instance, time lag in the publication of studies with
103 non-significant results may lead to decrease in the cumulative effect over time as the
104 number of studies with weak and non-significant effects increases. Jennions and Møller [9]
105 suggested that such **time-lag bias** against non-significant results is the most probable cause
106 of the observed decrease in estimated effect sizes with time in ecological and evolutionary
107 meta-analyses. However, no studies so far have explored the relative importance of
108 different causes of temporal trends in reported effect sizes in ecology and evolution. On the
109 other hand, **publication bias** may also lead to overestimation of the overall effect. Nuijten et

110 al. [35] showed that if both the original study and its conceptual replication are subject to
111 publication bias, combining the two studies to obtain an overall effect size will result in an
112 overestimation of the population effect size. Biases may also prevent the cumulative effects
113 from reaching statistical significance. For instance, the attractiveness of contradictory
114 findings to researchers and editors may lead to publication of the succession of extreme
115 positive and negative effects, hence hindering the stabilization of the cumulative effect size
116 over time [36, 37]. Heleno [37] argued that the consequences of the “editorial love of
117 controversy” may be particularly severe in conservation-led decisions and might contribute
118 to an underestimation of the impacts of human pressure on the environment. Other biases
119 which may lead to temporal changes in cumulative evidence include bias in choice of study
120 organisms [12] and paradigm shifts [38].

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122 It is important to distinguish between the above causes of temporal changes in reported
123 effects because they determine whether the current conservation or management policy
124 needs to be modified. If true biological effects are changing over time, then actions might
125 need to be taken to re-evaluate conservation status and conservation strategy for the given
126 species or environmental management options might need to be reconsidered. On the
127 other hand, if temporal changes in estimated effect sizes are due to heterogeneity among
128 studies, the sources of this heterogeneity have to be identified to find out under what
129 conditions the proposed management and conservation strategies are effective.

130 Examination of temporal trends in effect sizes is thus a good diagnostic tool for detection of
131 sources of heterogeneity. Finally, testing for presence of biases in a meta-analysis is
132 absolutely essential, although it might be sometimes difficult to distinguish them from true
133 heterogeneity [39].

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135 ***Potential implications of temporal changes in estimated effect sizes***

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137 The magnitude and direction of the mean effect size and the breadth of its confidence
138 interval largely determine the conclusions drawn from a meta-analysis [4]. If the magnitude,
139 statistical significance or the direction of the estimated effect changes over time, any policy
140 recommendations derived from a meta-analysis are likely to change as well. In Box 1 we
141 show how two meta-analyses on the same topic conducted several years apart reached
142 opposite conclusions on effectiveness of the same conservation measure. Such reversals in
143 conclusions of meta-analyses represent an example of evidence reversal, a phenomenon
144 that has only recently become a topic of formal exploration [40]. Reversals of evidence can
145 have significant impacts on evidence-based conservation and environmental management
146 and might necessitate revision of already implemented policies based on recommendations
147 from the previous meta-analysis.

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149 Moreover, evidence reversals may affect not only the effectiveness of the currently
150 implemented policies and measures, but also the society's and researcher's faith in the
151 approach to assessment of scientific evidence base. For instance, differences in the
152 conclusions between several meta-analyses on the same topic have sometimes led to
153 questioning whether meta-analyses constitute repeatable science [41]. While the results of
154 two meta-analyses can differ for many other reasons (e.g. different inclusion criteria,
155 different statistical models and moderators tested), at present we do not know what
156 proportion of ecological meta-analyses on the same topic arrived to different conclusions
157 because of temporal changes in the estimated effect sizes.

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159 Conversely, a lack of temporal changes in the estimated effect sizes may also convey
160 important policy information when changes in effectiveness over time are expected. For
161 instance, agri-environment schemes (AES) in Europe have been used for ca 25 years and are
162 the biggest conservation expenditure in Europe [42]. National AES programs are revised
163 every 7 years allowing countries to use novel scientific insights and modify their agri-
164 environmental programs to increase their efficiency. However, a meta-analysis by Batáry et
165 al. [42] showed that effectiveness of AES has not changed as a result of the revision of the
166 EU's agri-environmental programmes in 2007. The authors point out that this lack of
167 increase in effectiveness over time is worrying in view of forthcoming reductions in AES
168 budget as it is unlikely that increased effectiveness of the scheme will compensate for the
169 future budget cuts.

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171

172 ***Testing for temporal trends and updating the results of systematic reviews and meta-***
173 ***analyses***

174

175 Several relatively simple and straightforward statistical approaches which allow testing for
176 temporal trends in estimated effect sizes are available (reviewed in [7, 43, 44], and Box 2),
177 but are unfortunately seldom used by ecologists. For instance, only 5% of 322 meta-analyses
178 in plant ecology published between 1996 and 2013 have tested for temporal changes in
179 estimated effects [45]. We argue that such tests have to become a routine part of ecological
180 meta-analyses and one of the important criteria for review quality control evaluation [46].
181 Temporal trends in estimated effects can be detected in a meta-analysis by including

182 publication year as a moderator into **meta-regression** [13, 16] (Figure IIA). A **cumulative**
183 **meta-analysis** (CMA) in which studies are entered into the analysis in chronological order
184 provides another useful tool for detection of changes in cumulative evidence over time [47].
185 As all visual tools, CMA plots might be subject to misinterpretation and should be
186 supplemented by formal statistical methods which should take into account multiple testing
187 inherent in CMA [44]. Therefore, we recommend the use of cumulative meta-analysis in
188 combination with control plots [44](Box 2), which can be plotted using R package qcc [48].

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190 Another class of methods has been developed for sequential clinical trials in medicine where
191 the accumulated evidence is periodically reviewed as the trial progresses with a view of
192 stopping the trial early if required. Applications of these techniques to meta-analysis exist
193 [49-52], but we do not recommend their use (see critique of these approaches in [53, 54]).
194 Furthermore, some ecological meta-analyses assess temporal changes in effect sizes by
195 subdividing studies into groups based on the publication year (e.g. by decades or published
196 before and after year X) and comparing mean effect sizes between the groups [42, 55]. This
197 relatively crude approach ignores likely gradual character of temporal changes and their
198 possible occurrence within as well as between the studied groups, therefore we do not
199 recommend it.

200

201 Use of tests for temporal changes in estimated effect sizes within individual meta-analyses
202 may prove particularly effective if such changes occur mainly early on. For instance, Fanelli
203 et al. [56] have recently shown that declines in magnitude of the effect sizes with
204 publication year in meta-analyses are not linear and there is a strong “first-year” effect, in
205 which the earliest studies are more likely to overestimate the overall effect than all later

206 ones. This effect might occur if early studies are statistically underpowered [57]. As a result,
207 first meta-analyses on the topic based on the first few early primary studies available are
208 particularly likely to overestimate the effect and results of such meta-analyses need to be
209 treated with caution.

210

211 In addition to testing for temporal trends within meta-analyses, updating existing meta-
212 analyses can also be an effective tool in early detection of evidence reversal. Useful
213 guidelines on when and how to update systematic reviews have been recently published by
214 the Cochrane panel [58]. In order to enable such an update, the transparency of methods
215 used in the published ecological meta-analyses needs to improve. For instance, the
216 database on which previous meta-analysis has been based need to be available as well as
217 the detailed literature search strategy. Unfortunately, the majority of published ecological
218 meta-analyses do not fulfil these criteria [45]. Another problem is that publication of meta-
219 analyses and any subsequent updates can take many months, which means that by the time
220 of publication these reviews are already out of date. Shojania et al. [19] proposed that when
221 the process of submission and rejection from other journals has resulted in the passage of
222 more than one year from the date of the previous search, authors should update the search
223 before resubmission. Another approach to narrowing the time gap between evidence and
224 practice and to reducing the evidence reversal impact is to conduct living systematic
225 reviews, online summaries updated as new research becomes available [59]. This approach,
226 however, similarly to cumulative meta-analysis, might inflate the rate of false-positive
227 findings due to repeated testing. Therefore, previously discussed methods or the Bayesian
228 approach discussed in Elliott et al. [52] should be used for monitoring accumulating
229 evidence while reducing the probability of false positives.

230

231 ***Concluding Remarks and Future Perspectives***

232

233 We believe that more widespread application of methods for monitoring of temporal
234 changes in reported effects (Box 2) and for updating meta-analyses will facilitate
235 conclusions on sufficiency of evidence for policy making and timely detection of evidence
236 reversal. Moreover, analysis of causes of temporal changes in cumulative evidence will
237 reveal whether these changes require adjustment in previously accepted management
238 policies. Ultimately this will allow saving of time and resources in the development of
239 management strategies thus making conservation action more effective.

240

241 **Box 1. An example of evidence reversal in conservation biology**

242

243 Two meta-analyses on effects of predator removal on bird population provide a good
244 example of how heterogeneity in effect size can lead to evidence reversal and change the
245 conclusions and practical recommendations. The first meta-analysis by Coté and Sutherland
246 [60] showed that predator removal significantly increases postbreeding population sizes (i.e.
247 autumn densities) of the target bird species, but does not significantly affect breeding
248 population sizes (Fig. 1). Coté and Sutherland concluded therefore that predator removal
249 fulfils the goal of game management (enhancing harvestable postbreeding populations) but
250 is of less use for conservation management (increasing bird breeding population sizes).
251 However, a more recent meta-analysis on the same topic by Smith et al. [61] arrived at the
252 opposite conclusion, showing that the predator removal effect on breeding population
253 numbers is statistically significant, but the effect of predator removal on postbreeding
254 populations is no longer significant (Fig. 1). Smith et al. concluded therefore that predator
255 removal is an effective strategy for the conservation of bird populations, but not for game
256 management. Hence, two meta-analyses on the same topic conducted 13 years apart
257 reached opposite conclusions on the effectiveness of the assessed conservation measures.
258 In this particular case the difference in the results of the two meta-analyses was not due to
259 changes in true biological effects but due to heterogeneity. Smith et al. have revealed that
260 predator removal was effective in increasing postbreeding bird populations on mainland,
261 but not on islands. Since the proportion of studies conducted on islands increased with time
262 and was higher in meta-analysis by Smith et al. than in the earlier meta-analysis on the same
263 topic by Coté and Sutherland, the magnitude of the overall effect estimate of predator
264 removal on postbreeding populations was much smaller in the former meta-analysis. This

265 example shows the importance of updating the results of previous meta-analyses as new
266 studies on the topic are published as well as the importance of examining the sources of
267 variation in effect sizes and drawing inference from studies conducted under similar
268 ecological conditions.

269

270 **Box 2. Methods of detection of temporal changes in reported effects**

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272 The simplest way to visualize a potential temporal trend in a meta-analytic dataset is by
273 plotting effect sizes from individual primary studies against their publication years (Fig. IIA).

274 In order to statistically test the above relationship, publication year can be used as a
275 moderator in a meta-regression model [13, 16, 62]. Alternatively, cumulative meta-analysis
276 (CMA) where studies are added to the analysis in chronological order and meta-analytic

277 means are cumulatively calculated over the years can be used to visually detect temporal
278 trends (Fig. IIB, [47]). Finally, methods of statistical quality control such as **Xbar charts** and

279 **CUSUM charts** can be used to detect possible outliers and trends over time in meta-analysis

280 [44, 63]. Xbar charts are based on detecting outlying observations under normality. The

281 control limits on Xbar charts are usually plotted at 3 standard deviations, corresponding to a

282 significance level of $\alpha = 0.0027$. The CUSUM charts plot the cumulative sums of the

283 deviations of the sample values from a target value. The chart is restricted from falling

284 below zero, and often two one-sided CUSUM charts (for positive and negative deviations)

285 are plotted simultaneously.

286

287 We demonstrate the application of four different methods for detection of temporal trends

288 in effect sizes on Figure II using a subset from the meta-analysis by Batáry et al. [64] on

289 effects of agri-environment schemes on biodiversity as an example. A bubble plot (Fig. IIA)

290 shows decrease in effect sizes with publication year, particularly between 1995 and 2005.

291 The cumulative meta-analysis plot (Fig. IIB) demonstrates similar trend with initial increase

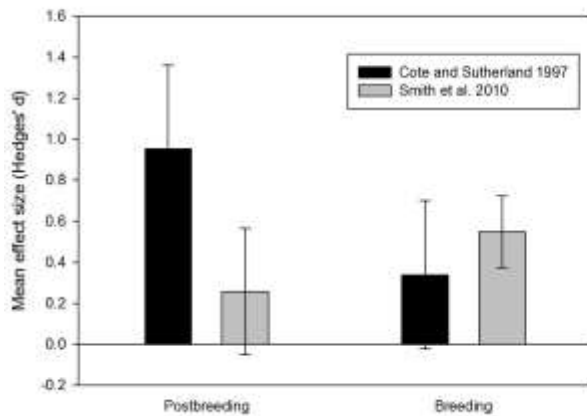
292 of the effect until the fourth study was added to the analysis and the subsequent decrease

293 in the magnitude of the effect. The cumulative effect size becomes significantly different

294 from 0 at study 6, and even more so at study 7, but then the effect declines as more studies
295 are added to the analysis. In this example, the effect size reached at study 7 ($d = 1.165$) is
296 monitored over time. The Xbar chart (Fig. IIC) shows one high outlier (study 4), two low
297 outliers (studies 11 and 14) and one significant run rule violation (a series of more than 7
298 negative deviations from the target value), suggesting a shift in the process mean. CUSUM
299 chart (Fig. IID) shows that while the cumulative effects were significantly above 1.165 at
300 studies 4 and 5, the cumulative results are significantly below this value for the last 4
301 studies, indicating a decrease in the mean effect size.

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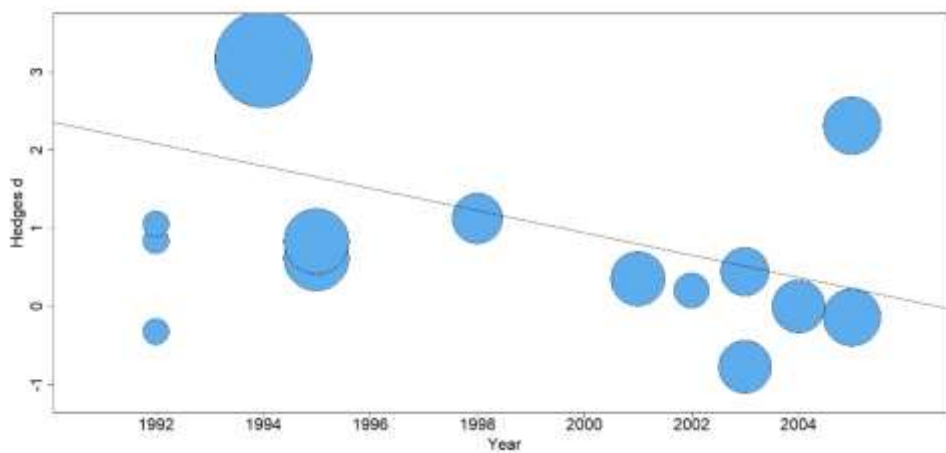
303 **Figures:**



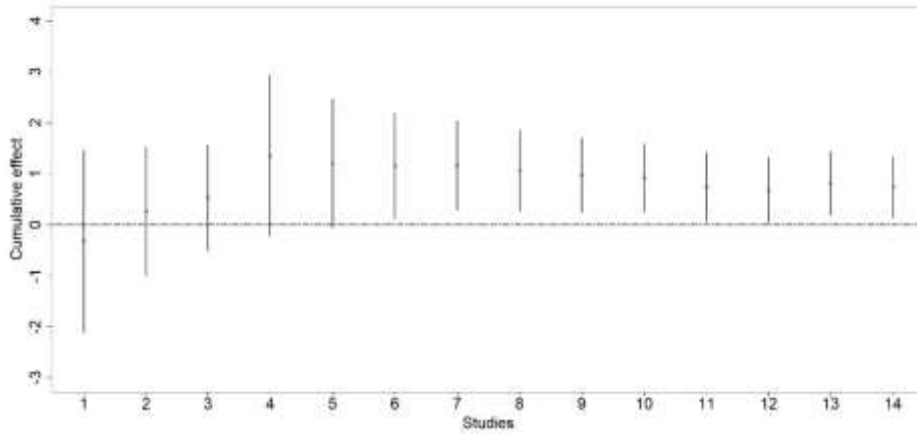
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305 **Fig. 1. Differences in estimates of the effects of predator removal on postbreeding and**
306 **breeding population size of birds** (data from meta-analyses by Côté and Sutherland [60]
307 and Smith et al. [61]). Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals; mean effects are not
308 significantly different from 0 if confidence intervals include 0. Number of studies included in
309 the analysis: 13 and 51 for breeding population size estimates and 10 and 19 for
310 postbreeding population size estimates in Côté and Sutherland and Smith et al.,
311 respectively.

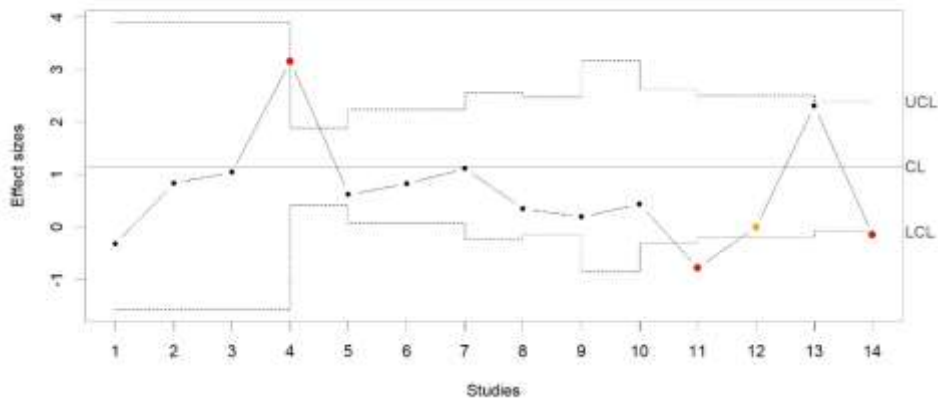
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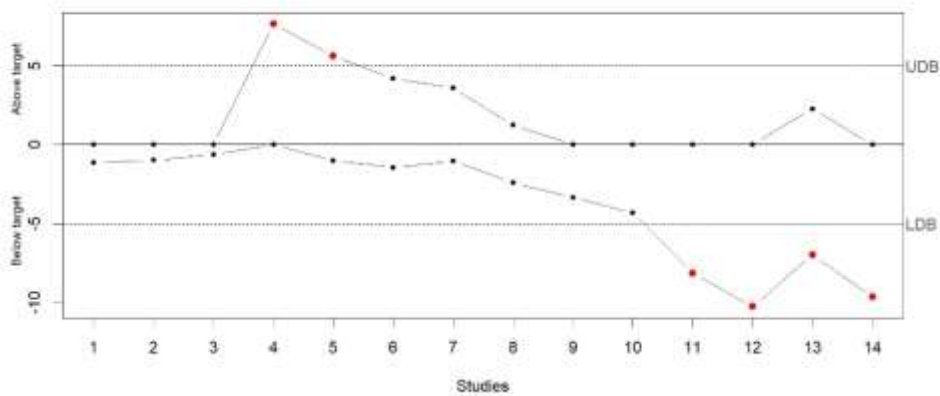
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318 **Fig. II. Illustration of four different methods of exploration of temporal trends in reported**

319 **effects.** We used a subset from the meta-analysis by Batáry et al. [64] representing 14

320 simple studies assessing the effects of agri-environment management on biodiversity in simple

321 landscapes within croplands and published before 2006. Effect sizes are standardized mean
322 differences (Hedges' d) between biodiversity measures in extensively and intensively
323 managed fields. **A:** a bubble plot showing the results of meta-regression with publication
324 year as a moderator. Effect sizes are weighted by their precision; larger bubbles indicate
325 more precise estimates and smaller bubbles less precise. **B:** cumulative meta-analysis
326 showing changes in cumulative mean effect size and the 95% confidence interval as more
327 recent studies are added in the analysis. **C.** Xbar chart. Horizontal central line on Xbar chart
328 corresponds to the combined effect size of the first seven studies ($d= 1.165$). **D.** CUSUM
329 chart. Control limits (dashed lines) are at $\pm 3SD$, out-of-control values are in red, run test
330 violations (a series of consecutive deviations from the expected value which are of the same
331 sign) are in orange.

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Glossary

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Cumulative meta-analysis: a type of meta-analysis in which effect sizes from individual studies are entered into the analysis sequentially, one study at the time, based on some predetermined order (most commonly chronological); the mean effect size and confidence intervals are recalculated at each step.

CUSUM chart: a cumulative sum (CUSUM) chart is a type of control chart used to monitor changes in the process mean. It plots the cumulative sum of deviations of the sample values from a target value.

Decline effect: decrease in support for scientific claims over time as original studies are repeated.

Effect size: a quantitative measure of the magnitude of study outcome that puts all responses across studies in a meta-analysis on the same scale. It provides a “common currency” for comparisons of the results across studies. Metrics of effect size most commonly used in ecology include standardized mean differences, response ratios and correlation coefficients.

Evidence-based conservation: conservation management actions and policy making based on systematic assessment (e.g. systematic review and meta-analysis) of existing scientific evidence of current effectiveness of different management interventions.

358 **Evidence reversal:** occurs when an existing claim is tested and the original evidence is
359 contradicted by new evidence.

360

361 **Heterogeneity:** the variation in the effect size estimates among studies.

362

363 **Meta-analysis:** a set of statistical methods for combining magnitudes of the effects across
364 different data sets addressing the same research question.

365

366 **Meta-regression:** an extension of basic meta-analysis model in which *moderators* are used
367 to explain between-study variation in effect sizes (heterogeneity).

368

369 **Moderator:** a variable (continuous or categorical) which is used in meta-regression to
370 explain between-study variation in effect sizes.

371

372 **Publication bias:** influence of magnitude, direction, and/or statistical significance of
373 research findings on the probability of a study to be published.

374

375 **Systematic review:** the type of research synthesis on a precisely defined topic using
376 systematic and explicit methods to identify, select, critically appraise, and analyse relevant
377 research. Systematic review may or may not include *meta-analysis* of the data.

378

379 **Time-lag bias:** influence of study results on the time it takes to complete and publish a
380 study; often refers to delayed publication of non-significant results.

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382 **Xbar (\bar{X}) chart:** a type of control chart that is used to monitor the means of successive
383 samples based on detecting outlying observations under normality. The control limits on
384 Xbar charts are usually plotted at 3 standard deviations, corresponding to a significance
385 level of $\alpha = 0.0027$.

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