

1 Exploratory and confirmatory research in the open science era

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15 Abstract:

16 1. Applied ecological research is increasingly inspired by the open science movement.

17 However, new challenges about how we define our science when biodiversity data is  
18 being shared and re-used are not solved. Among these challenges is the risk associated  
19 with blurring the distinction between research that mainly seeks to explore patterns with  
20 no *a-priori* articulated hypotheses (*exploratory research*), and research that explicitly  
21 tests *a-priori* formulated hypotheses (*confirmatory research*).

22 2. A rapid screening of a random selection of the peer-reviewed literature suggests that  
23 neither experimental protocols nor hypothesis-testing *sensu stricto* are common in  
24 applied ecological research. In addition, most experiments are carried out on small  
25 spatial scales, which contrast with current global policy needs and research trends  
26 towards addressing large spatial and temporal scales. This latter trend makes it  
27 unfeasible for policy to rely mainly on insights gained from experimental research.

28 3. To solve fundamental local, regional and global societal challenges, we need both  
29 exploratory and confirmatory research. However, the fundamental role that  
30 confirmatory research testing *a-priori* hypothesis play for establishing causal  
31 relationships need to be reevaluated in applied ecological research.

32 4. A clearer distinction between exploratory and confirmatory research is currently needed,  
33 and could be facilitated by allocating journal sections to different types of research; by  
34 embracing new tools offered by the open science era, such as pre-registration of  
35 hypothesis; by establishing new systems where *post-hoc* hypotheses emerging through  
36 exploration can also be registered for later testing; and by more broad adoption of causal

37 inference methods that foster more structured testing of hypotheses about causal  
38 mechanisms from observational biodiversity data.

39 5. *Synthesis and applications*. To gain the full benefits from the open science era,  
40 researchers, funding bodies and journal editors should explicitly consider approaches  
41 and incentives that encourage openness about methods and approaches, as well as value  
42 the plurality of scientific approaches needed to address questions in applied ecology and  
43 conservation science.

44 **Keywords:** exploratory research; confirmatory research; open science; reproducible research;  
45 science philosophy; causal inference; large-scale assessment

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## 47 1. Rigorous science in applied ecology

48 As a response to the global biodiversity loss, conservation science and applied ecological  
49 research focus on describing patterns of biodiversity change, isolating the factors causing  
50 this change, and ultimately suggesting management solutions (Kareiva & Marvier 2012).  
51 Because biodiversity loss and ecosystem transformations are causing major challenges to  
52 present and future human societies (IPBES 2019), the rigor of the science that underpins  
53 policy and management decisions is decisive to the wellbeing of future generations of  
54 humans and the fate of our planet's biodiversity. Following some high-profile publications  
55 pointing towards a reproducibility crisis in fields such as psychology (Nosek & Collaboration  
56 2015) and social sciences (Camerer *et al.* 2018), there is currently much focus in scholarly  
57 publications on the repeatability and reproducibility of scientific results (see e.g. the news  
58 feature in Nature by Baker 2016). Applied ecological research is not immune to these  
59 challenges, but so far the discussion has not been high on the agenda within this field. One  
60 key aspect of the discussion about scientific rigor (Nosek *et al.* 2018) is a reevaluation of the  
61 distinction between research that mainly seeks to explore patterns in the data (hereafter  
62 *exploratory research*) and research that tests scientific hypotheses that are clearly stated  
63 before the study is conducted (hereafter *confirmatory research*).

64 In the philosophy of science, this distinction has been extensively discussed, and following  
65 the classical paper by Platt (1964) on strong inference the importance of confirmatory  
66 research has been long appreciated. Also within conservation science and applied ecology,  
67 several authors (including Caughley 1994; Betini, Avgar & Fryxell 2017; Sells *et al.* 2018) have  
68 called for more formal use of confirmatory research and application of the strong inference  
69 paradigm (*sensu* Platt 1964). However, a rapid screening of a sample from the applied

70 ecological literature (**Box 1**) suggests that most researchers within the field do not follow the  
71 strong inference paradigm (Platt 1964; Sells *et al.* 2018), nor do they rely on clearly stated *a-*  
72 *priori* hypotheses that are tested with empirical data.

73 Here, we discuss how both exploratory and confirmatory research is needed in applied  
74 ecological research, and how both scientists, journal editors and funders should assist in the  
75 task of extracting the maximum value from different scientific approaches without blurring  
76 the distinction between exploration and confirmation.

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## 78 1.1 A mature research community should value both exploration and 79 confirmation

80 One consequence of the “Open Science” movement (Nosek *et al.* 2015) is the focus on open  
81 sharing of research data (Wilkinson *et al.* 2016). Increasing accessibility to data allows  
82 researchers to apply an ever-widening range of models to data for exploratory science. This  
83 contrast with the pleas for more widespread adoption of confirmatory research, where  
84 hypotheses are described *a-priori* and then carefully tested based on empirical data  
85 collected specifically for that purpose (Caughley 1994; Houlahan *et al.* 2017). We agree with  
86 the plea for more formal testing of scientific hypotheses in applied ecological research, but  
87 would also like to highlight the fundamental role that descriptive studies documenting the  
88 state of local or global biodiversity, or the natural history of species has for conservation  
89 science (Beissinger & Peery 2007; Pereira *et al.* 2013). Exploratory research could also  
90 generate new hypothesis that could formally be tested later. Moreover, a movement  
91 towards more planetary scale assessments, such as those carried out by the  
92 Intergovernmental Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES), makes it unfeasible

93 for policy to rely mainly on insights gained from experimental research (Mazor *et al.* 2018;  
94 Box 1). Our rapid screening of the literature indeed suggests that large-scale studies often  
95 have a large impact, at least if measured through citation rates (**Box 1**).

96 Nevertheless, to avoid an ever-growing list of un-tested hypothesis emerging from  
97 exploratory research, we must also reevaluate the fundamental (but different) role that  
98 hypothesis-testing and prediction play in applied ecological research (Houlahan *et al.* 2017).  
99 Only by testing *a-priori* articulated hypothesis can we robustly retain or reject the potential  
100 of a scientific hypothesis to describe natural phenomena. Unfortunately, researchers do not  
101 always follow this approach, and surveys have revealed a number of questionable research  
102 practices (Ioannidis *et al.* 2014; Fraser *et al.* 2018). Such practices include “*Harking*”  
103 (Hypothesis After Results Are Known), where ad-hoc postdictions are presented as if they  
104 were already planned before the study was conducted, and “*p-hacking*” where researchers  
105 carelessly search for significant associations in the data (and often present them as if they  
106 were from *a-priori* hypotheses). Recent surveys suggest that they might be common also  
107 among ecologists and evolutionary biologists (Fraser *et al.* 2018). Without more frequent use  
108 of true hypothesis-testing, we risk that confirmation bias will result in overly self-confident  
109 ‘storytelling’ (Sells *et al.* 2018). Basing management actions on such research may lead to  
110 costly mis-management.

111

## 112 1.2 Novel ways to test ecological theories

113 Our brief survey of the literature (**Box 1**) (see also Betini, Avgar & Fryxell 2017; Sells *et al.*  
114 2018) suggests that most research does not conform to strict hypothesis-testing. However,  
115 in the open science era, there are ample possibilities to increase the use and impact of

116 confirmatory research, by more widely embracing new tools, methods, and increased data  
117 availability.

118 Strict experiments in applied ecology (**Box 1**) are generally conducted at small spatial scales  
119 (although there are some notable exceptions, e.g. Krebs, Boutin & Boonstra 1995; Wiik *et al.*  
120 2019). This contrasts the fact that many ecological and policy processes operate at far larger  
121 scales (Estes *et al.* 2018). Better utilization of large-scale unreplicated natural experiments  
122 could improve understanding of causal relationships in ecological systems (Barley &  
123 Meeuwig 2017), especially the impacts of rare and extreme events (e.g. Gaillard *et al.* 2003).  
124 Such natural experiments provide researchers with the opportunity for a real-world test of a  
125 hypothesis, and can be seen as “conceptual” replications where different systems and  
126 approaches are used to test the same theory. A complementary approach is to integrate  
127 findings from small-scale manipulative experiments into analysis of large scale observational  
128 data (Kotta *et al.* 2019). Such integration will necessitate closer collaboration between  
129 ecologists working at different spatial scales, and between experimentalists and modellers  
130 (Heuschele *et al.* 2017). The increased availability of hierarchical statistical models that  
131 integrate data from disparate sources has high potential to facilitate such an integration  
132 (Isaac *et al.* 2019). In the new era of open science, large amounts of data from both field  
133 surveys and experiments are now becoming available, widening the range of opportunities  
134 for data integration.

135 Given our reliance on observational data, more insight into causal processes could be gained  
136 by more widely applying novel statistical methods that seek to strengthen a causality  
137 inference from observational data (Law *et al.* 2017). Causal inference approaches force  
138 researchers to think more deeply about the direct and indirect relationships of variables in

139 their study systems (Ferraro, Sanchirico & Smith 2019). These approaches include controlling  
140 for confounding factors by matching (to control observable confounders) and use of panel  
141 data and synthetic controls to control for unobservable confounders, as well as instrumental  
142 variables to eliminate unobservable confounders (reviewed by Law *et al.* 2017). Time-series  
143 observational data are particularly useful because they are unidirectional - cause must  
144 precede effect (Dornelas *et al.* 2013) and approaches such as convergent cross mapping are  
145 designed to test for causal effects (Sugihara *et al.* 2012).

146 Insights into causality should not be seen as a “one-off” test, and an accumulation of  
147 knowledge through replication is fundamental for a robust knowledge base. Triangulation -  
148 whereby several approaches are formally applied to the same problem - is therefore useful  
149 for assessing the reliability of causal claims (Munafò & Smith 2018). In general, a wider  
150 adoption of systematic reviews and other structured evidence synthesis methods would  
151 allow more robust assessment of the evidence base (Pullin & Stewart 2006). In the open  
152 science era, evidence synthesis can increasingly be based on open data rather than on  
153 published effect sizes (Culina *et al.* 2018).

154

### 155 1.3 Journals, editors, and reviewers should assist in the change

156 Journal editors play an important role in facilitating scientific rigor of the studies that  
157 underpin real-life management decisions. This could further strengthened by creating new  
158 incentives for more honest and open reporting from the research process. We acknowledge  
159 that many of these processes are already starting to happen across the ecosystem of  
160 journals.



161 Pre-registration of research hypothesis has been advocated (Nosek *et al.* 2018), partly to  
162 distinguish between exploration and confirmation research. In the open science era, studies  
163 are increasingly based on pre-existing data, including data that have been previously  
164 analysed and with results published in scientific journals. This should not discourage *a priori*  
165 hypothesis development and pre-registration (Nosek *et al.* 2018). Journal editors should  
166 increasingly facilitate this shift by applying a model where authors declare their study design  
167 and identify at which stage in the process they developed their hypothesis (e.g. before or  
168 after data collection, before or after results were known). This could include a link to the  
169 pre-registered hypothesis (e.g. hosted on Open Science Framework ([www.osf.io](http://www.osf.io))), and  
170 potentially an associated “open science badge” (Kidwell *et al.* 2016) as a sign of an open  
171 research practice.

172 We also encourage journal editors to more actively encourage fair valuation of empirical  
173 case studies that mainly describe and document the state and trend of biodiversity. To  
174 accommodate this, more journals could explicitly allocate different sections to different  
175 types of studies (exploratory, methods, confirmatory/hypothesis testing etc.). This will make  
176 the publication process more transparent and facilitate more honest reporting of how the  
177 study was performed, potentially reducing the incentives for *Harking*.

178 Finally, we propose (as a counterpart to pre-registration of hypotheses) a model where  
179 hypotheses arising from exploratory research could also be registered so that they are readily  
180 available for testing in subsequent studies. Given the rise of global databases and  
181 repositories, such a model could make it feasible to track hypotheses to their source, and  
182 fair attribution of credit to those that originally proposed the hypothesis. It would also

183 provide a clearer link between exploratory (hypothesis generating) and confirmatory  
184 (hypothesis testing) research.

## 185 2. Outlook

186 We should value the complimentary and important contributions of both exploratory and  
187 confirmatory studies, but be much clearer about the differences between them. In the open  
188 science era (Nosek *et al.* 2015), where more and more research is based on pre-existing (and  
189 often open) data, and where large-scale studies are needed to address key conservation  
190 policy challenges, a simple plea to follow the strong inference paradigm (Platt 1964) might  
191 not be sufficient. However, current incentives that promote the presentation of studies that  
192 are, by design and conduct, exploratory as if they were confirmatory is a disservice to  
193 scientific progress and a delay in solving real-world problems. The open science era has  
194 already radically improved the reproducibility of research; however, we argue that a cultural  
195 shift, involving researchers, journals, and funding bodies, is still needed towards full  
196 transparency and valuation of the plurality of research methods.

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203

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206 additional files are available at <https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/W3S49> (Nilsen, Bowler &  
207 Linnell 2020b).

208

209 **Authors contributions:** EBN conceived the idea for this work, after discussions with DB and  
210 JDCL. EBN and DB performed the literature survey for Box 1. EBN were responsible for  
211 writing the manuscript, with inputs from JDCL and DB. All authors edited and approved the  
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## 350 Box 1: Hypotheses and experiments in applied ecology

351 To gain a rapid insight into the current state of affairs in the scientific literature in applied  
352 ecology, we randomly sampled 159 papers published in eight journals covering conservation  
353 biology, applied ecology and wildlife management. We only included studies from terrestrial  
354 ecology, that were data-driven (i.e. not reviews or pure simulation studies), that presented  
355 the results from at least one statistical test, that presented original data or data from  
356 literature surveys, and focused on aspects of applied ecology relevant for biodiversity  
357 management and conservation. Based on these studies we assessed how often i) one or  
358 more clearly stated hypotheses were presented in the introduction, ii) multiple competing  
359 hypothesis were presented, and, iii) how often strict experimental designs were applied. In  
360 addition, we extracted the number of citations registered by Web of Science. A more  
361 comprehensive description of the inclusion criteria and data extraction procedures can be  
362 found in **Appendix S1** in the Supporting Information.

363 Based on our sample of research papers, it seems that clearly stating a research hypothesis  
364 in the introduction is surprisingly rare in the literature (**Fig 1a**). Overall, only about 19% of  
365 the studies presented clear hypotheses, whereas about 26% presented what we term  
366 “implied hypotheses” or “partly”, where the hypothesis could be inferred from the text but  
367 was not presented clearly. After removing articles mainly focusing on methods development,  
368 the corresponding proportions were 23% (explicit hypotheses) and 28% (implicit  
369 hypotheses), respectively. Presenting multiple competing hypothesis, as described in the  
370 original presentation of the strong inference paradigm (Platt 1964) is even rarer, and only  
371 visible in 2 of the studies we reviewed.

372 Another hallmark of science is the use of well planned, randomized and replicated  
373 experimental manipulation to test for causal relationships (Platt 1964; Caughley 1994).  
374 Based on our review, however, the use of full experimental designs are rare, and only 12% of  
375 the studies we reviewed were based on randomized controlled experimental designs. In  
376 addition, 15% of the studies in our sample included Before-After-Control-Impact (BACI) or  
377 Quasi-experimental protocols. The majority of the randomized controlled experiments were  
378 performed on a local spatial scale (**Fig 1b**), although a few studies presented landscape scale

379 experiments. In our sample, local scale studies in general received less attention in the  
380 literature compared to studies spanning larges spatial scales when measured in terms of  
381 citation rates (**Fig 1b**).

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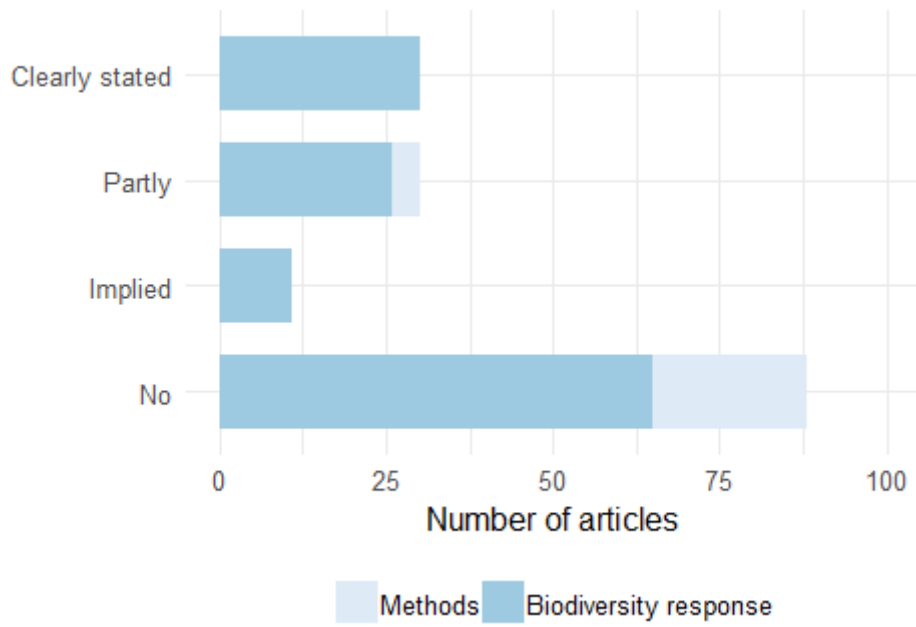
384 Figure Legends

385 **Figure 1.** In **a)** the proportion of articles that reported clear hypotheses, implied or partly indicated  
386 hypotheses that were tested, and articles that did not present hypotheses. In **b)** the proportion of  
387 articles that used experimental, quasi-experimental/BACI or no experimental designs are matched  
388 with the corresponding spatial scales of the studies. The size of the circles indicates the number of  
389 studies. The colour key indicates citation rates (mean annual number of citations since the year of  
390 publication).

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392 Figures

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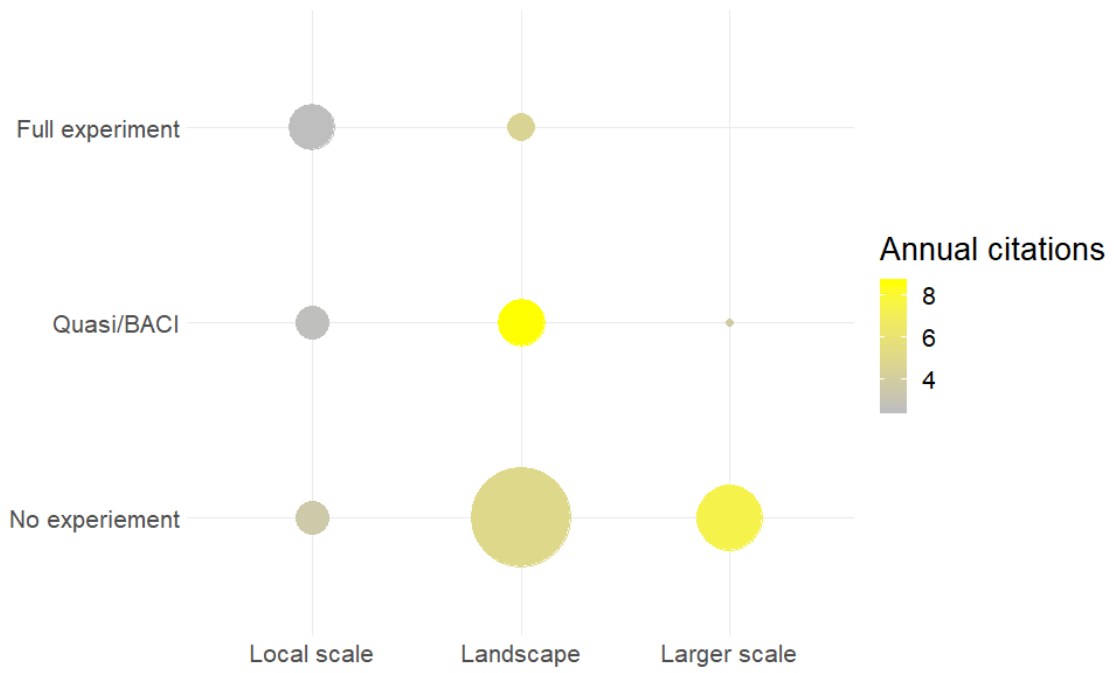
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395 **Fig 1a**

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400 **Fig 1b**

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