

1 *Review*

2 **Poor hypotheses and research waste in biology: learning from a**
3 **theory crisis in psychology**

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26 **Abstract**

27 While psychologists have extensively discussed a ‘theory crisis’, there has been no
28 debate about such a crisis in biology. However, biologists, especially those working in
29 the fields of ecology and evolution, have long discussed communication failures
30 between theoreticians and empiricists. We argue such failure is one aspect of a theory
31 crisis because misapplied and misunderstood theories lead to poor hypotheses and
32 research waste. We review solutions for a theory crisis, comparing them with
33 methodology-focused solutions proposed for a replication crisis. One neglected
34 solution deserving further attention concerns the systematic mapping of theoretical
35 models. We conclude by discussing how promoting inclusion, diversity, equity, and
36 accessibility (IDEA) in theoretical biology could contribute to ameliorating
37 breakdowns in the theory-empirical cycle in biology.

38

39 **Drivers of research waste: a replication or theory crisis?**

40 *“An approximate answer to the right question is worth a great deal more than a*
41 *precise answer to the wrong question.”* John Tukey

42

43 The social sciences have experienced a replication crisis arising from the low
44 replicabilities of empirical studies, particularly in psychology [1-4]. Consequently,
45 recent rapid reforms have changed how they conduct their research [5, 6] (also see
46 [7]). One particularly noteworthy example is their adoption of pre-registration and
47 registered reports, which can involve pre-commitment of study aims and methods,
48 with the latter involving peer review [8-11]. For example, starting 6 in 2015, more
49 than 130 psychology journals accepted registered reports in 2020 [12] (see also [13]).
50 These innovations can curtail questionable research practices, QRPs, such as selective
51 reporting and HARKing (hypothesizing after results are known); such QRPs are
52 ubiquitous in both social and biological sciences [14-16]. In one example, studies
53 based on pre-registered reports supported the author’s hypotheses only 40% of the
54 time, whereas traditional non-pre-registered studies supported the authors’ hypotheses
55 over 85% [17]. Similar reforms are being adopted in biology, albeit more slowly,
56 especially ecology and evolutionary biology [18-20].

57

58 The replication crisis and QRPs are closely tied to research waste. Research waste
59 occurs in three ways, according to Purger and colleagues [21]. First, scientists finish a
60 project but never publish it or terminate it early, mainly due to negative results
61 (publication bias). Second, scientists publish their results with insufficient reporting of
62 methods (incomplete reporting). Third, the research suffers from poor study design,
63 data collection, or poor analysis, so even if published, results are unreliable and

64 unusable (poor methodological design). Rather surprisingly, Purger and colleagues
65 estimated that research could be as high as 82-89% in ecology. This estimate is very
66 similar to estimate of 85% made by Chalmers and Glasziou for the medical sciences
67 [22] (see also [23-27]). Given these issues are closely tied to replication crises, it is
68 unsurprising that the reforms for the replication crisis focused on rigorous and
69 transparent methodology and reporting practices, including open data and code [2, 28-
70 31].

71
72 A series of articles in psychology have also pointed out a more fundamental problem
73 contributing to insufficient replication and research waste [32-39]. To distinguish it
74 from a ‘replication crisis’, it has been called a ‘theory crisis’ [34-36], wherein
75 researchers frequently test vague and incorrect hypotheses/questions because the
76 theory is often verbal (i.e., informal), so researchers can interpret it more freely (c.f.,
77 high researcher degrees of freedom [40]). Even when written formally as
78 mathematical models, theory is often poorly described, leading to misinterpretation by
79 empiricists and a mismatch between theoretical predictions and empirical hypotheses.
80 This has been called an ‘interpretation crisis’ [32] (see also, ‘generalizability crisis’
81 [38]). As the opening quote from John Tukey suggests, testing a precise hypothesis,
82 derived from a wrong or misinterpreted theory, seems certainly a form of research
83 waste or, at least, research inefficiency. Additional signals of a theory crisis within a
84 field include an overall lack of theories (and theoreticians) or the prevalence of poorly
85 reasoned or vague theories. Yet, the lack of formalization and the prevalence of poor
86 interpretations seem to be a substantial part of the discussion on the theory crisis in
87 psychology (cf. [34-36]). Therefore, we use the term a ‘theory crisis’ to include both:

88 1) a lack of testable, formal theories within a field and 2) misinterpretations of
89 sufficiently developed theories by empirical researchers.

90

91 To our knowledge, theory crises have not been discussed and linked to research waste
92 in biological research (cf. [19]). Yet, there has been much debate about
93 communication gaps and failures between theoreticians and empiricists, especially in
94 ecology and evolutionary biology [41-49] (also see [50]; hereafter, we use ‘theoretical
95 models’ or ‘model’ as a formalized version of ‘theory’, i.e., mathematical or
96 computational models). Such debates indicate a theory crisis (at least within our
97 definition) may have long existed and remains unresolved in biology. For example, in
98 a 2022 paper [45], Servedio reported survey results from theoreticians in ecology and
99 evolution on how their models are used in empirical work. Models were
100 misinterpreted and used incorrectly 19% of the time, while 36% of the time, they were
101 cited in a non-specific manner. That is, the rest of the time (45%), empiricists cited
102 models correctly, relating their work to specific theoretical results. Whether 45% is
103 good or bad, there is much to improve for what both 91% of theoreticians and 80% of
104 empiricists agreed upon – the importance of a tight feedback loop between theoretical
105 and empirical work in biology [49] (see also [41]). Nonetheless, given these statistics,
106 it is worth asking whether biology currently suffers from a theory crisis and if so, how
107 it might be remedied.

108

109 Therefore, our aims are four-fold. First, we investigate communication breakdown
110 between theoreticians and empiricists through the lens of a theory crisis to illustrate
111 how such breakdowns could contribute to both research waste and a replication crisis.
112 Next, we review proposed solutions for the theory crisis, including theory-empirical

113 communication failures from the social and biological sciences. We then highlight a
114 critical gap in a scientific cycle — the lack of systematic mapping of models —
115 which, when addressed, can facilitate communication between theoreticians and
116 empiricists. Finally, we shift our focus to two issues: the low numbers of pure
117 theoreticians in biology and their diversity with respect to identity, geography, and
118 academic training. We describe two solutions to ameliorate both problems, which
119 could help not only create diverse science teams between theoreticians and empiricists
120 but also turn more people into theoreticians and liaisons between the two groups.

121

122 **Theory before replication: questionable research practices and** 123 **research waste in relation to theory**

124 As alluded to above, a replication crisis is often attributed to methodological or
125 reporting shortcomings concerning data collection and analysis. In contrast, a theory
126 crisis is due to misunderstanding, miscommunication, or misapplication of theory
127 (i.e., epistemic failure rather than methodological) [35, 36]. Like many other fields,
128 including psychology, biology heavily relies on inferential statistics, especially null
129 hypothesis significance testing, NHST [51, 52]. In doing so, researchers often derive
130 their hypotheses or predictions from existing theory (i.e., an alternative hypothesis
131 within the framework of NHST). Then, they statistically operationalize their
132 hypothesis, using, for example, independent t -tests or generalized linear mixed-effects
133 models to reject the null or accept the alternative.

134

135 In psychology, several authors have recently pointed out that this statistical translation
136 is problematic because many theories and hypotheses are verbal, so interpretations of
137 the theories can become unconstrained or subjective and, therefore, ungeneralizable

138 [32, 34-38]. In biology, such translation issues can certainly happen or even be
139 prevalent based on our experience. Yet, many theories have mathematical or
140 computational formalizations, i.e. models that provide *directional* or *quantitative*
141 *predictions*, thanks to a long tradition of theoretical biology (especially in ecology and
142 evolution, e.g., [43]). Then, the main issue in biology appears to be that empiricists
143 often misinterpret or misapply theory [45].

144

145 A case study of this is the so-called ‘modern coexistence theory’ (MCT) [5, 53, 54],
146 which, as pointed out by Terry and Armitage [55], is less a predictive, testable theory
147 but rather an analytical framework for partitioning growth rates into various
148 coexistence-promoting mechanisms. The theory itself presents few quantitative
149 predictions but rather offers a useful analytical method for concentrating many
150 informal verbal hypotheses concerning ecological coexistence under a simple, formal
151 umbrella. Empirical users of this theory are therefore free from the burden of directly
152 confronting any theoretical predictions with data yet can also claim the status of
153 carrying out ‘theoretically motivated’ research. As a result, many empirical papers
154 using the MCT framework lack quantitative or even directional hypotheses
155 concerning the effects of some factor on species coexistence, potentially reducing
156 replicability (though this has yet to be quantified). Arguably, the major prediction
157 made by MCT concerning the outsized roles of spatial and temporal environmental
158 variation on species coexistence is probably the most mathematically difficult part of
159 the theory for empiricists to understand and test.

160

161 Such barriers are not unique to MCT but occur in all fields where training in the
162 writing and interpretation of formal theory is not a central theme in the scientific

163 curriculum [47]. Mathematical barriers can instead drive biologists toward imprecise
164 or vague verbal theories – which is the main cause of the theory crisis in psychology
165 [35, 36]. Even among empiricists fluent in mathematics, theoretical models are often
166 deliberately oversimplified for the sake of clarity and analytical tractability, meaning
167 that further development and analysis of context-dependent expansions of a
168 theoretical paper’s results may be required to yield a useful, testable hypothesis. This,
169 of course, requires at least a cursory understanding of the natural histories and
170 physicochemical factors determining the behavior of one’s chosen study system.

171

172 Turning now to evolutionary biology, an interesting example concerns the ‘extrinsic
173 mortality hypothesis’, proposed in 1957 by G. C. Williams [56]. In his verbal theory,
174 Williams argued that high extrinsic mortality rates should select for increased rates of
175 growth, reproduction, and aging and, therefore, a shorter maximum lifespan. This
176 verbal theory inspired a large number of empirical studies (reviewed in [57]; see also
177 [58-62]). However, a more formal analysis of these predictions has subsequently
178 predicted that under alternative, biologically reasonable assumptions, extrinsic
179 mortality can both increase or decrease the rate of aging, while extrinsic mortality and
180 aging can be disassociated (summarized in [63]). Therefore, it is important to review
181 relevant mathematical models and understand which set of assumptions is most
182 relevant to one’s study system.

183

184 Given these examples, we suggest that a theory crisis can lead to three types of
185 questionable research practices, QRPs (see Figure 1). These three ‘new’ extensions of
186 QRPs are counterparts to well-known issues of empirical studies: HARKing
187 (hypothesizing after results are known), *p*-hacking (or ‘data dredging’), and cherry-

188 picking (of results to report). The first we will call ‘H-BUTing’ (/hei-tʃ-but-ing/) or
189 ‘Hypothesizing Before Understanding Theory’. H-BUTing happens because a theory
190 is not formalized, or even if it is formalized, it is difficult to understand. H-BUTing is
191 also called ‘premature hypothesis testing’ [37]. It is premature because researchers
192 either do not understand a theory itself or they do not understand if their study
193 systems are suitable for testing the theory. We call the second QRP hypothesis
194 hacking or *h*-hacking, where liberal interpretations and translations of theory or
195 models will lead to hypotheses that fit researchers’ beliefs prior to studies or too
196 vague (i.e., qualitative and nondirectional) hypotheses more likely to return
197 significant results. Generating surprising (highly unrealistic) hypotheses can be a part
198 of *h*-hacking because supporting a surprising hypothesis can lead to a high-profile
199 journal publication (cf. [64]; see also [65]). The third is hypothesis cherry-picking
200 (termed by Krämer [32]), where researchers deliberately ignore alternative,
201 theoretically valid hypotheses that do not support their initial beliefs or most favorable
202 interpretation of their results.

203

204 Similarly, we can add ‘poor conceptual design’ alongside poor methodological
205 design, publication bias, and incomplete reporting as the primary contributors to
206 research waste. Epistemological issues (e.g., conceptual issues) are upstream of
207 methodological issues (Figure 1). Therefore, solving downstream issues, such as
208 incomplete reporting, does not fix upstream issues, such as improper use of theory.
209 More specifically, poor conceptualization can compromise the internal validity of a
210 study, for example, via inappropriate experimental design or measurement (for
211 difficulties in measuring theoretical constraints, see [66]). At the same time, it can
212 also threaten external validity (generalizability), for example, through the biases in the

213 selection of study systems, as certain theory is more easily tested in particular
214 organisms or locations [38] (see also, “Western, Educated, Industrial, Rich, and
215 Democracies”, WEIRD [1, 67] and “Social background, Trappability, Rearing history,
216 Acclimation and habituation, Natural changes in responsiveness, Genetic make-up,
217 and Experience”, STRANGE [68]). Therefore, addressing a theory crisis may be more
218 important than easing a replication crisis.

219

220 **Proposed solutions: more development, education, and collaboration**

221 Proposed solutions can be grouped into three kinds. First, researchers can do more
222 work to understand and operationalize theory before conducting a study with
223 hypothesis testing (also referred to as a ‘confirmatory’ study). Scheel and colleagues
224 argue that premature hypothesis testing is rampant in psychology, but researchers
225 should conduct more non-confirmatory studies (sometimes referred to as
226 ‘exploratory’ or ‘discovery-oriented’ studies; [36], cf. [37]). Non-confirmatory studies
227 can resolve issues of H-BUTing (hypothesizing before understanding theory) because
228 they will identify whether and when a model is relevant to their biological system by
229 understanding model assumptions and parameter space (e.g., a model assuming
230 semelparous organisms without non-overlapping generations) [37]. A non-
231 confirmatory exploration is often warranted before embarking on confirmatory work,
232 especially at the start of post-graduate research programs. An alternative approach
233 that we find to be valuable is to reproduce the results of a theoretical study on our
234 own (typically on a computer). Once this is accomplished, the models can be further
235 modified and played with to more thoroughly understand its scope and assumptions.

236

237 Second, universities can offer undergraduate and postgraduate courses on how to
238 understand theoretical and mathematical/computational models and, more broadly, the
239 role of theory in the scientific process — thereby promoting the training of pure
240 theoreticians and theoretically proficient empiricists (i.e., liaisons). Some
241 psychologists have shared their experiences on the effectiveness of such courses [33,
242 39] (see also [41]). For example, Borsboom, and van der Maas teach a ‘theory
243 construction’ course where, in addition to lectures on the methodology, students
244 create computer simulation models which can explain a phenomenon well but also see
245 a model is limited as it creates non-sensical values under some settings [33]. We agree
246 that such a hands-on course would be eye-opening and useful training. In the
247 biological sciences, however, theoreticians are almost always a minority group who
248 teach courses that a minority of students attend, and often at levels more advanced
249 than the average biosciences student is proficient. Thus, although education is
250 important and effective, it cannot break the status quo of early separation between
251 theoreticians (who often arrive at biology with math or physics degrees) and
252 empiricists (who tend to avoid most math and physics classes beyond prerequisites).
253 This is also because understanding math takes time, and interventions should start
254 much earlier than university education. Furthermore, we have noticed a trend in the
255 fields of ecology and evolution wherein advertisements for pure theoreticians seem to
256 be declining, whereas appointments in ‘quantitative biology’ are on the rise. We
257 speculate that this may reflect a more general growing trend of interest in the more
258 lucrative fields of data science and bioinformatics, which compete with the theoretical
259 sciences over a shared pool of students. Nevertheless, online education and
260 technologies can overcome the shortage of theoreticians (more discussed later).
261

262 Thirdly, theoreticians and empiricists can collaborate more. Recently, Ou and
263 colleagues have described how theoreticians can write more accessible papers by
264 being mindful of what parts of their analyses are the most difficult for empiricists to
265 understand [42]. Likewise, Grainger and colleagues have produced an excellent guide
266 for empiricists with tips on understanding and testing formal theory [41]. Notably,
267 these two papers largely overlap in their author lists, which comprise a mixture of
268 empiricists, theoreticians, and liaisons in ecology and evolutionary biology. Though
269 the primary means by which theoreticians and empiricists interact is indirectly
270 through citation of one another's publications, direct collaboration might be a more
271 effective means for reducing barriers in understanding, though the relative scarcity of
272 theoreticians in most biological fields can limit such direct interactions. Interestingly,
273 a group of psychologists have successfully attempted an exercise called the 'Many
274 Modelers Hackathon' where a few theoreticians worked with many empiricists to
275 formalize verbal theories during a 3-hour workshop [69]. This Many Modelers event
276 was successfully run as part of a 2021 conference for the Society for the Improvement
277 of Psychological Science (SIPS) – a model for the Society for Open, Reliable, and
278 Transparent Ecology and Evolutionary Biology (SORTEE). A Many-Modelers
279 Hackathon holds tremendous potential in ecology and evolution, and our field has a
280 long history of formalizing theories and designing complex experiments in which they
281 are tested (more on the potential of this type of hackathon later).

282

283 **A gap in the scientific cycle and a proposed solution: systematic** 284 **mapping of theoretical models**

285 In Figure 2, we illustrate a scientific cycle where researchers seek to understand a
286 phenomenon and develop a theory via two pathways: empirical research and

287 theoretical development. The last three decades have seen a revolution in empirical
288 research with a rise in research synthesis, especially meta-analysis [70, 71]. Meta-
289 analyses (often a part of systematic reviews) have gradually been superseding
290 traditional narrative reviews because meta-analyses can bring about many unique
291 benefits, which are impossible with narrative reviews [72]. For example, meta-
292 analyses, embedded in a systematic review, can provide an unbiased synthesis,
293 compared to potentially biased experts' opinions, concerning trends in the literature.
294 Meta-analyses as a quantitative synthesis can more objectively identify general
295 patterns and knowledge gaps, explain inconsistencies among empirical studies, and
296 generate ideas that can fledge into theories [73].

297

298 Unlike empirical meta-analyses, the synthesis of theory is primarily narrative rather
299 than systematic, representing a gap in the scientific cycle (Fig. 2) [74] (cf. [75]).
300 While it is unclear how a quantitative synthesis of theoretical literature might be
301 carried out, a systematic qualitative synthesis is still possible. Such syntheses might
302 encompass a systematic review or a systematic map (sometimes, known as a scoping
303 review; see [76, 77]). Although often confused, systematic reviews and maps have
304 different objectives [78, 79]. The former answers a specific question, often relating to
305 "What works?" (e.g., does an intervention have an effect?), but the latter addresses a
306 more general question, such as "What has already been studied and where do gaps
307 remain?" [80]. Therefore, a systematic map is a structured collection of studies, more
308 relevant to qualitatively summarizing models. Systematic maps can find general
309 patterns and knowledge gaps in a related collection of models. Further, such a map of
310 models can also identify gaps in empirical observations, for example, by examining
311 how parameter values in theoretical models are defined (e.g., whether they are based

312 on results of empirical studies or simply best guesses that require further empirical
313 validation). Although their number is limited and often (mis-)labelled as a systematic
314 review, systematic maps of models seem to exist in medicine and biology.

315

316 One noteworthy systematic map has been made for the field of life history theory.

317 Many empiricists have tested hypotheses concerning covariation between life history
318 traits such as growth rate and age of reproduction with behavioral and physiological
319 traits, theorized to arise from trade-offs between investment in current and future
320 reproduction, known as ‘pace-of-life syndromes’ [81]. Thus, Mathot and Frankenhuis
321 (an empiricist-theoretician duo) attempted to map theoretical models on this topic, but
322 they only identified two unique models [82]. More importantly, however, these
323 models both present ways in which covariances could arise between life history and
324 other traits without the current-future-reproduction trade-offs; that is, many previous
325 empirical studies may have presented data supporting a hypothesis that did not have
326 full theoretical support to begin with, possibly committing H-BUTing and hypothesis
327 cherry picking (Figure 1).

328

329 This example may give the impression that such mapping activities are futile, as
330 theoretical papers are rare for most questions in biology. But this is topic-dependent.

331 A systematic map of theory relating to antimicrobial resistance, for example,
332 identified 273 studies of mathematical models made at the population level [83] (see
333 also [84]); this map elucidated theoretical gaps, such as the scarcity of models on
334 transmission between humans and animals and the consideration of environmental
335 factors. Similarly, another systematic map collated 698 studies of agent-based models
336 of infectious disease transmission published from 2006 to 2015 [85]. Recently, Achter

337 and colleagues have published an opinion article promoting systematic maps (and
338 reviews) of agent-based models so that new models do not ‘re-invent the wheel’ but
339 rather build upon previous models in environmental sciences [74]. They argue that
340 such a systematic map can lead to further refinement and the development of a theory.
341 We concur and join their call for systematic maps of mathematical and computational
342 models. Importantly, systematically mapping models could guard against hypothesis
343 cherry-picking and *h*-hacking (Figure 1). This is because a map gives a
344 comprehensive catalog of current theoretical models, which can direct the
345 development of a set of testable hypotheses, hopefully reducing the incidence of
346 cherry-picking hypotheses or liberal interpretations of theories.

347

348 Notably, bibliometric analysis (e.g., analysis of articles’ citation impacts and
349 connections to other articles via citations and collaborations) exists for models of
350 antibiotic resistance [86] in addition to the systematic map mentioned above [83].
351 Some of us (SN and ML) have recently proposed a new way of synthesizing
352 literature, named ‘research weaving’, which combines systematic mapping and
353 bibliometrics [80]. As outlined above, systematic mapping summarizes the current
354 state of knowledge and evidence, identifying areas with research gaps and clusters
355 (i.e., an abundance of research papers). As a complementary approach, bibliometrics
356 enables researchers to see how pieces of evidence are connected. Such analysis can
357 reveal the structure and development of a field and how influential particular works
358 have been (research weaving examples, see [87, 88]). Therefore, a research weaving
359 of theoretical models holds much potential, for example, for collaboration work
360 between theoreticians and empiricists because both can contribute to such an activity

361 (cf. [74]) and can lead to the synthesis of both theoretical and empirical results
362 (Figure 2).

363

364 Furthermore, some bibliometric analyses (i.e., geographic and collaboration-network
365 analyses) can reveal the lack of inclusion, diversity, equity, and access (IDEA; more
366 often referred to as EDI or DEI) in a field of study. Therefore, this aspect can
367 potentially be harnessed to identify the areas of biology and dimensions of IDEA that
368 might benefit from targeted collaboration outside the historical trends in the field.

369 Next, we posit a hypothesis that achieving IDEA could help ameliorate a theory crisis
370 regarding the shortage of good theories (and theoreticians) and misinterpretations and
371 misapplications of theories.

372

373 **Ideas to create a tight theory-empirical feedback loop by achieving**
374 **IDEA: inclusion, diversity, equity, and access**

375 Several articles have pointed out the shortfall of IDEA in the theoretical biology
376 community [41, 89, 90]. Evidence suggests theoreticians are an impactful and
377 privileged group that lacks diversity (e.g., [91]). Yet the lack of diversity may be due
378 to the number of people in the community being much smaller than that of empiricists
379 (see [92]). Therefore, increasing the pool of theoreticians with IDEA goals in mind
380 could ameliorate both the theory crisis and the lack of diversity. Of relevance, in
381 recent years, many academic societies in biology have put forward statements and
382 created special committees for IDEA so that they encourage historically under-
383 represented and marginalized groups of people not only to join societies but also to
384 represent societies in leadership roles, with some noticeable success (cf. [93]).

385

386 Ecology and evolution have large, old, and influential societies such as the Ecological
387 Society of America, the British Ecological Society, the Society for the Study of
388 Evolution, the Society for Molecular Biology and Evolution, and the European
389 Society for Evolutionary Biology. We believe that these societies should make one of
390 their missions to facilitate the training of more theoreticians, especially those from
391 historically under-represented groups (e.g., women [94] and the Global South [95]).
392 Theoretical work is not only impactful, but it also provides mathematical and
393 computational skills that are highly transferable. Theoretical work also facilitates a
394 potentially flexible and family-friendly lifestyle compared to empirical work, as a pen
395 and paper or a laptop can be enough to get the work done. Therefore, theoretical work
396 can help break down academic inequity by allowing researchers to remain at or return
397 to their home institutions that may not be able to financially support large lab or field-
398 based research programs. At the same time, addressing the scarcity of theoreticians is
399 an urgent issue because researchers now regularly collect and analyze massive,
400 complex datasets with only a small pool of theories to generate *a priori* hypotheses
401 (living in a data-rich-theory-poor world, e.g., [96]). Such an overabundance of data
402 should make us re-think the importance of theory and theoreticians, especially
403 because the cycle of theory construction and empirical work (Figure 2) has repeatedly
404 been proven effective and efficient. Therefore, a theory crisis can entail another
405 meaning that is more pressing in the future – the extreme shortage of theories and
406 theoreticians. But how could we kill two birds – addressing the theory crisis and
407 IDEA – with one stone? We outline two paths forward, building upon the proposed
408 solutions above.
409

410 One approach is to encourage societies to create free training videos on how to
411 understand and build theoretical models (e.g., on a YouTube channel). A potential
412 model for a video series has been created by Richard McElrath, a mathematical-
413 theoretician-turned-Bayesian-statistical-modeler. His YouTube channel lists a 20-
414 free-video series based on his book “Statistical Rethinking”, with which he attempts
415 to democratize the knowledge of Bayesian statistics and causal inference for
416 biologists [97]. Further, distributed remote seminar series on theoretical biology can
417 also attract a large viewership, as demonstrated by the International Initiative for
418 Theoretical Ecology’s online live series and YouTube archive
419 (<https://iite.info/seminar/>).

420

421 Another inspirational example of remote education comes from a non-profit, *e-*
422 *Education*. Founded by Atsuyoshi Saisho, the company has revolutionized high
423 school education in Bangladesh – where the shortage of teachers has been a serious
424 issue – through its use of video instruction. Based on his experience of video
425 education provided in an extracurricular school in Japan, he created a lecture series
426 featuring the most charismatic teachers in Bangladesh. Saisho believed such video
427 education was best because one could stop and repeat lectures until understanding was
428 demonstrably achieved, and students could work at their own pace through video
429 lectures by the best teachers in the country [98]. This program became an instant
430 sensation when, upon the initial introduction of these video materials, including
431 mathematics, 18 rural students passed exams to enter universities, such as the
432 University of Dhaka (the country’s best tertiary institution). These students came from
433 a Bangladeshi village where only one person had ever previously attended university

434 – the local media touted it as “a miracle of Haimchar village”. The program has now
435 spread to 14 countries across 5 continents (<https://eedu.jp/>).

436

437 A second strategy is for societies to include hackathon-like activities in their
438 conference schedules. More specifically, they could organize Many-Modeler-like
439 hackathons where theoreticians and empiricists interface to formalize theories or
440 create testable hypotheses, as discussed above [69]. It is important to note that people
441 may believe that computer programming skills are a prerequisite for participation in a
442 hackathon, but the term is now widely used for any event that is structured around
443 team-based creative problem-solving. For example, any event with the goal of
444 developing new guidelines, policies, or solutions to academic, environmental, or
445 societal issues can be called a hackathon (this is the definition the Society for the
446 Improvement of Psychological Science, SIPS, uses). A good example of such a non-
447 programming hackathon is assembling 100 ecology and evolution journal editors to
448 develop shared guidelines for accepting registered reports (which SN co-organized
449 previously; outcomes including [99-101]). Along with hackathons, a new style of
450 conferences could add ‘unstructured discussion’ events where participants are
451 prompted to discuss or debate ideas and issues without any pre-specified task to
452 achieve (contrasting to a hackathon). The IDEA benefits of hackathons and
453 unconferences include opportunities to work with a diverse group, including senior
454 and junior colleagues. These new conference activities have been embraced by several
455 learned societies such as the Society for the Improvement of Psychological Science
456 (SIPS), the Society for Open, Reliable, and Transparent Ecology and Evolutionary
457 Biology (SORTEE), and the Association for Interdisciplinary Meta-science and Open

458 Science (AIMOS) with successful outcomes such as publications and new
459 interdisciplinary collaborations.
460
461 For example, we (SN and ML) have organized several hackathons and unconferences
462 at SORTEE annual online meetings; one of the activities has already resulted in a
463 publication [102] (other examples of SORTEE conference publications; [103-105]).
464 This publication introduces the idea of ‘MeRIT’ (Methods Reporting with Initials for
465 Transparency) – how to acknowledge the methodological contributions of authors in
466 more detail (www.merit.help), complementing widely adopted CRediT (Contributor
467 Roles Taxonomy; [106]). We created MeRIT to facilitate team science where
468 providing appropriate credits to each team member can become an issue [107, 108].
469 What ecology and evolutionary biology now need is a diverse team science with
470 theoreticians and empiricists – and Many Modeler hackathons can kickstart such
471 teams. Of course, this kind of team is needed for a systematic mapping of theoretical
472 models, as introduced above.

473

474 **Less waste and more IDEA for the future of biology**

475 Here, by reviewing articles both in psychology and biology, we have described how
476 biology is also potentially prone to a theory crisis, which contributes to replication
477 crises and research waste. We have also looked at current and potential solutions,
478 notably, systematic mapping of theoretical models, to help resolve the theory crisis
479 (Figure 3). Despite past attempts to fix theory-empirical communication breakdowns,
480 dramatic success has yet to be achieved in creating a tight feedback loop between
481 theory and experimentation (cf. [41]). We contend that pursuing IDEA can, at least
482 partially, ameliorate such breakdowns and presented two concrete ideas – engaging

483 educational videos and many-modeler-like-hackathon events at conferences – that
484 academic societies are encouraged to act upon. We encourage you and your scientific
485 community to generate more ideas and action them to improve both theory-empirical
486 communication and IDEA. Finally, we eagerly anticipate a future where research
487 waste is a relic of the past and diverse team science prevails and tackles both big
488 questions in ecology and evolution and pressing ecological and environmental issues
489 human beings have been and will be facing. We believe that biology will get there if
490 biologists can replicate “a miracle of Haimchar village” again and again.

491

492

493 **Declarations**

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504 SN and ML are founding members of SORTEE (Society for Open, Reliable,
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506 **Author contributions**

507 Conceptualization: All

508 Visualization: ML

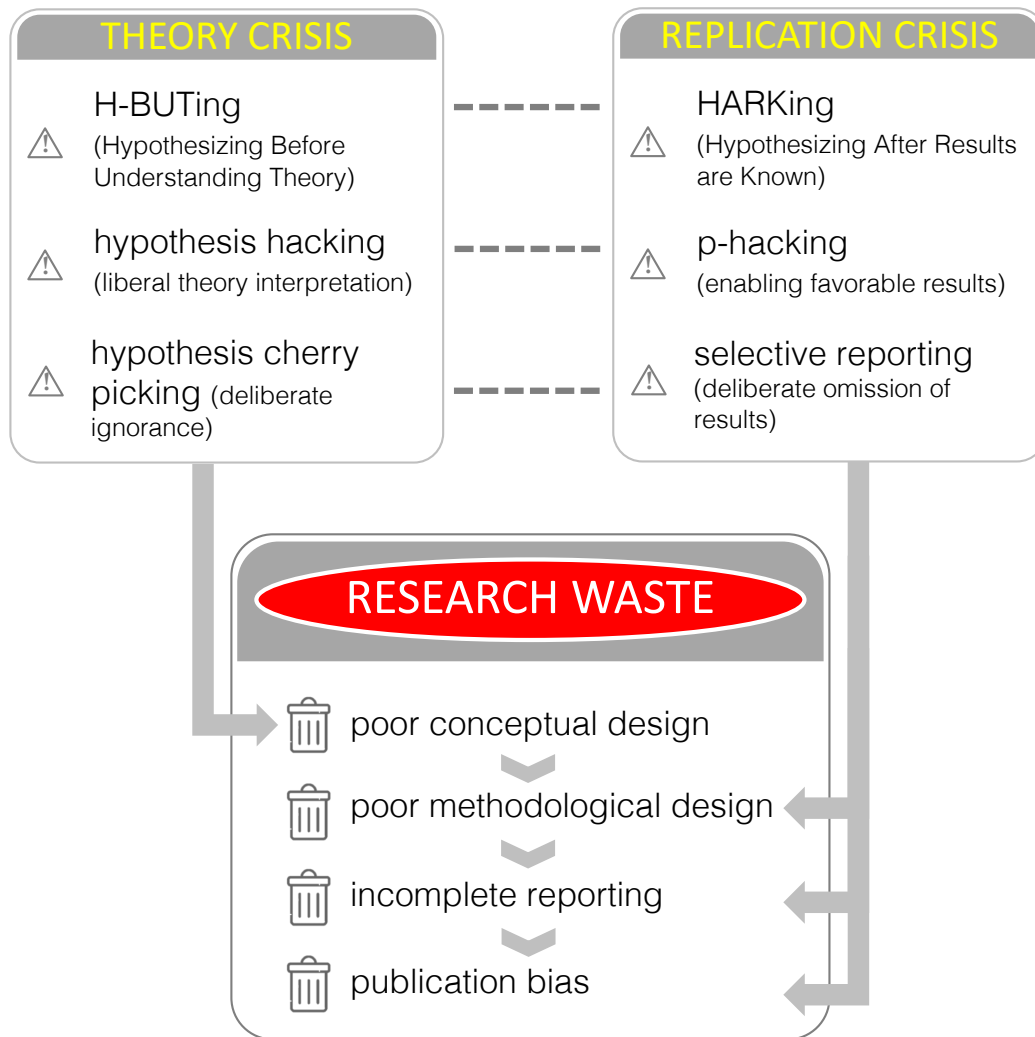
509 Writing the first draft: SN

510 Writing – review & editing: All

511

512 **Figures**

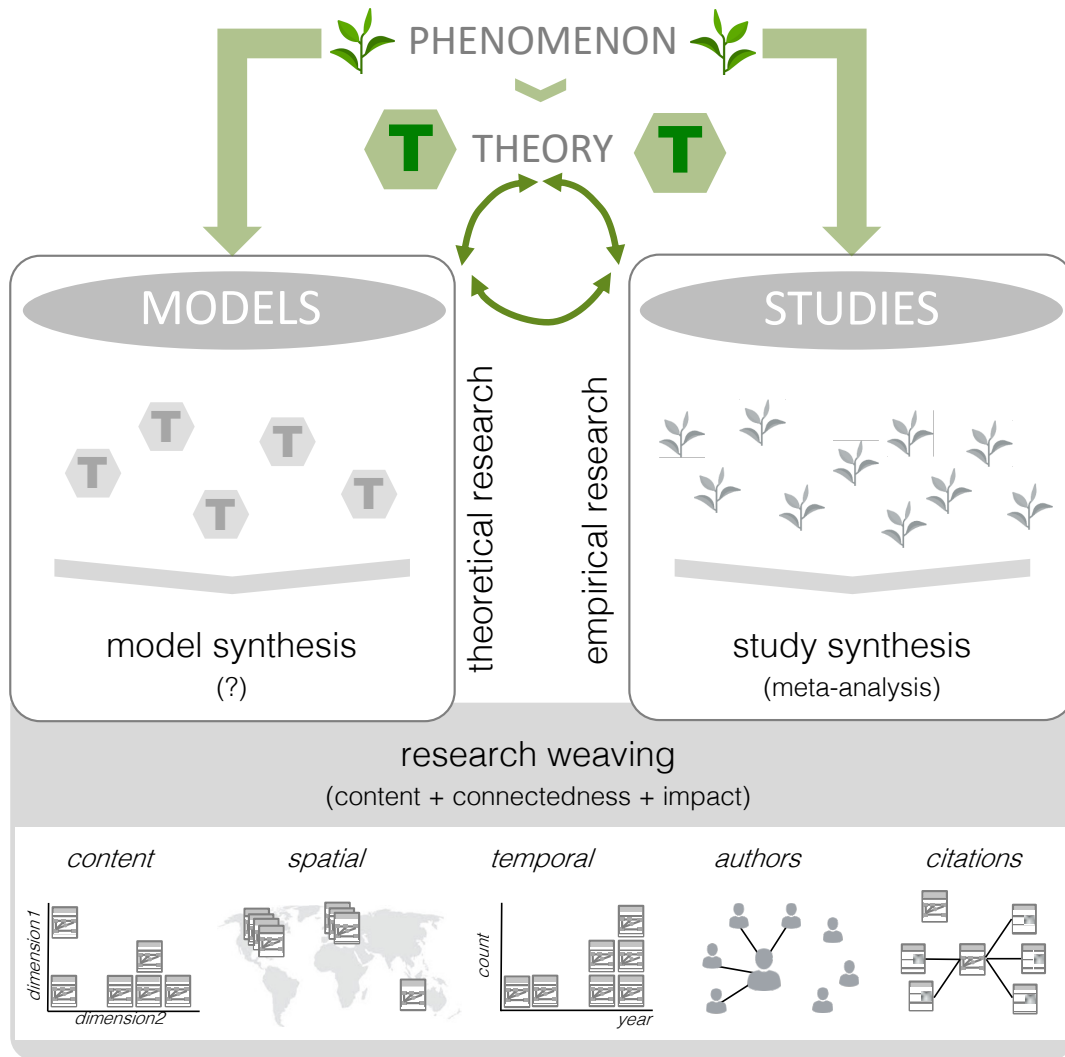
513 **Figure 1.**



514

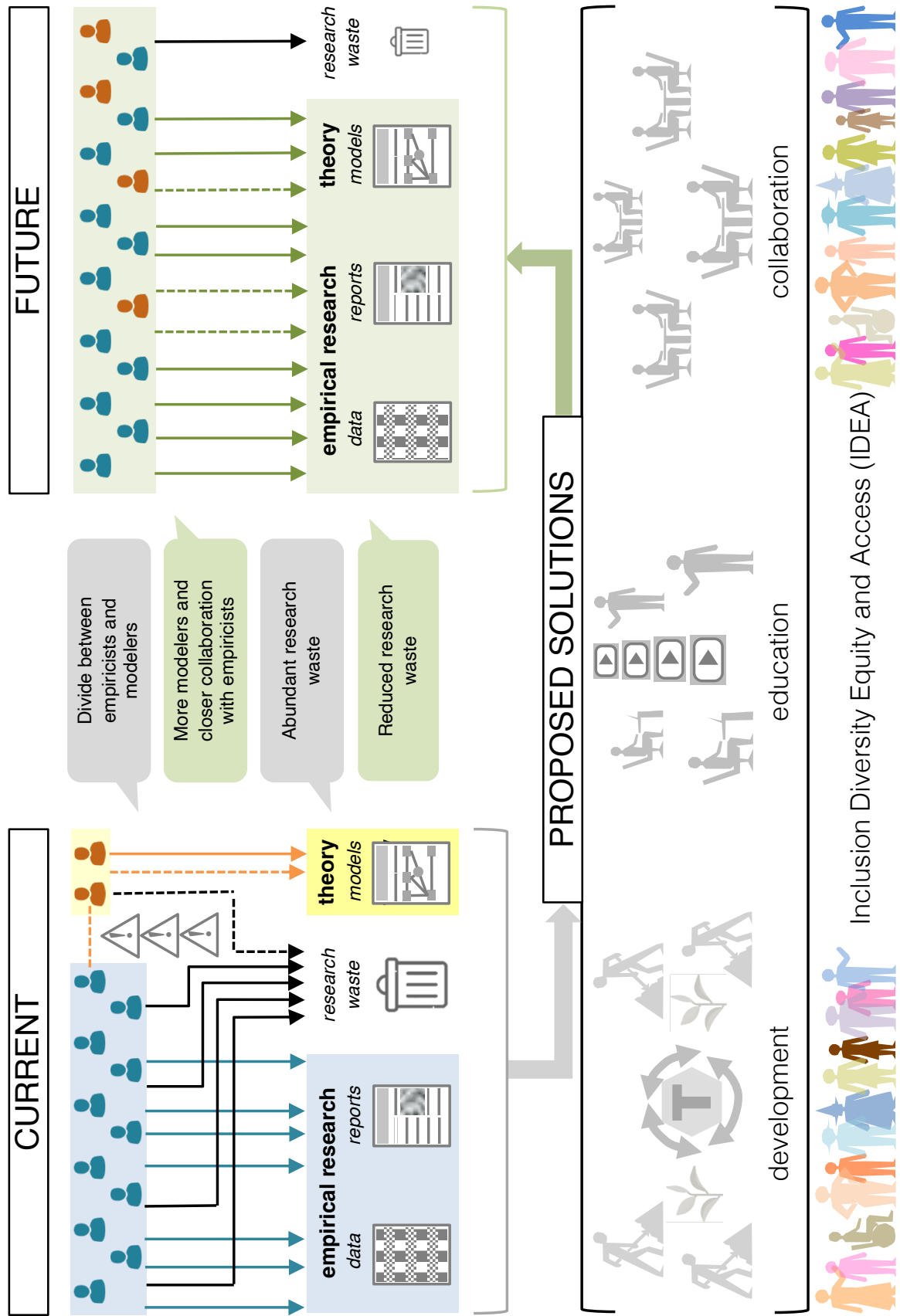
515 **Fig. 1.** Questionable research practices, QRPs, arising from a theory crisis (via
516 epistemological issues) and replication crisis (via methodological issues) and how
517 they relate to research waste. QRPs concerning the theory crisis relate to poor
518 conceptual design, which comes upstream of the other 3 items of research waste
519 related to QRPs resulting from a replication crisis. Note that selective reporting and
520 incomplete reporting may sound similar, but the former indicates deliberate selection
521 of positive results while the latter represents the lack of culture in providing all the
522 results and associated outcomes, including associated data and code.

523 **Figure 2.**



524

525 **Fig. 2.** A depiction of a scientific cycle. Researchers seek to understand a
526 phenomenon and develop a theory while engaging with theoretical research or
527 empirical research. While meta-analysis has revolutionized empirical synthesis, the
528 synthesis of theories (models) is primarily narrative. Research weaving (systematic
529 mapping and bibliometrics) could help not only synthesize theoretical models but also
530 summarize both types of research on a topic.



533 **Fig. 3.** The current and future of empirical and theoretical research. Currently, due to
534 miscommunications between theoreticians (minority) and empiricists (majority),
535 resulting in research waste. Via the proposed solutions, development, education and
536 collaboration, the future research community will have more theoreticians working
537 with empiricists, especially if learned societies can embrace the theory crisis and
538 promote the integration of theoretical and empirical work through IDEA. Solid lines
539 represent no direct collaborations, while dotted lines indicate direct collaborations
540 (the upper panels). While research waste may be an unavoidable part of the scientific
541 process, more research efficacy can be attainable.

542

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