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REVIEW

Methods in Ecology and Evolution BRITISH ECOLOGICAL SOCIETY

A practical guide to question formation, systematic searching and study screening for literature reviews in ecology and evolution

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Abstract

1. Well-conducted systematic reviews are invaluable for synthesising research findings. The conclusions of a review depend on how the research question was formulated, how relevant studies were found and how studies were selected for synthesis.
2. Here, we present a practical guide for ecologists and evolutionary biologists on formulating a question for a systematic review, and finding a representative sample of research findings.
3. We explain the steps involved using a worked example and practical training exercises. Throughout this guide we share tricks of the trade, included rules of thumb and software that we have found useful.
4. We hope our paper helps demystify the systematic search process and encourages more researchers to adopt a systematic and reproducible approach when searching the literature.

KEYWORDS

Boolean, meta-analysis, narrative review, screening, systematic review, systematic search

1 | INTRODUCTION

The goal of a systematic review is to provide valid summary of primary research findings through a pre-planned and explicit procedure (Moher et al., 2015). Research findings can be summarised in different ways, including meta-analyses, narrative reviews or evidence maps. Regardless of the methods of synthesis, all systematic reviews need to find an unbiased sample of available evidence to accurately reflect the state of our knowledge on a topic. Therefore, all systematic reviews follow planned and logical steps to gather and select research findings (Figure 1).

1.1 | Practical pitfalls of a systematic search

Although the steps of a systematic search (Figure 1) may seem straightforward, they are often difficult to execute for two broad reasons. First, there are many decisions to make that could affect the outcome of the review (e.g. how broad should the review question and inclusion criteria be, and which literature sources to use?). Second, systematic review methods are iterative (Booth et al., 2012). Rather than steps proceeding linearly, previous steps are often returned to and revised (e.g. the review question might need to be narrowed after an initial search returns too many results). Before committing to a particular review question or search method, therefore, we recommend extensively piloting methods for searching and screening (Figure 2).

Shinichi Nakagawa and Malgorzata Lagisz contributed equally as the last authors.

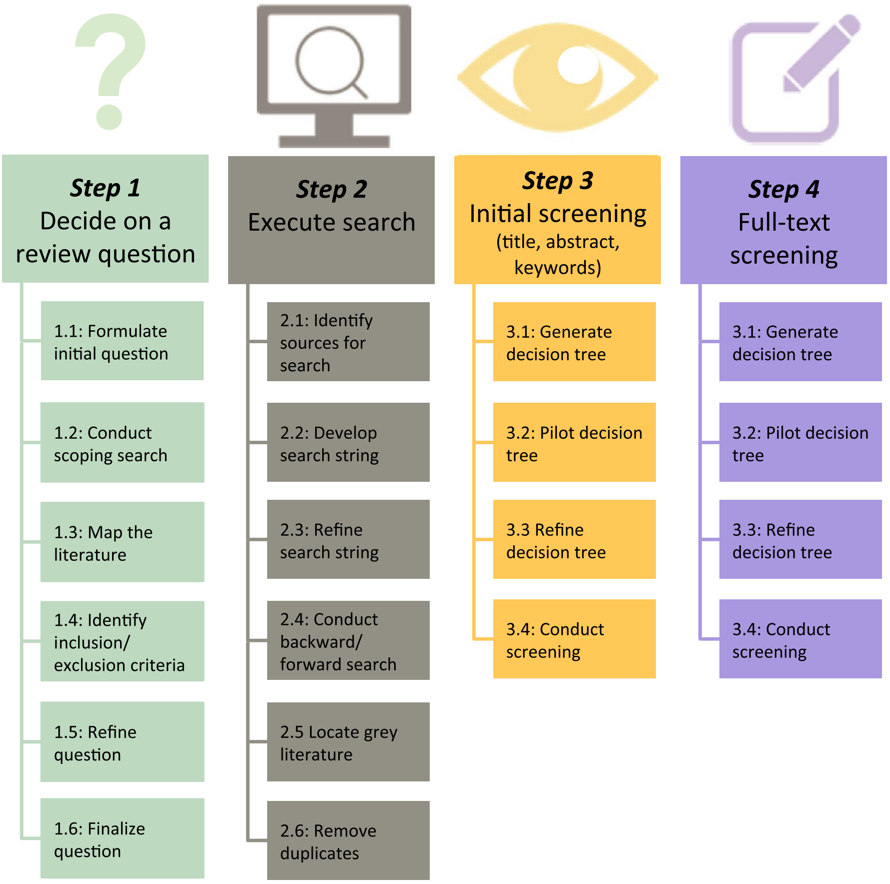


FIGURE 1 Summary of the typical steps in a systematic search

1.2 | Aim and structure of this paper

We aim to provide a practical guide on conducting systematic searches for beginners, and include practical exercises in the Supporting Information. Because question formulation and study screening are integral to the methods of a systematic search (Figure 2), we provide detailed guidance for each of these steps. Within each step, to demonstrate our guidance, we include a worked example from evolutionary biology (from a Stage-1-accepted registered meta-analysis on the 'terminal investment hypothesis').

2 | DECIDING ON A REVIEW QUESTION

A well-formulated question informs subsequent steps of the search process. The question should be sufficiently general to address the topic of interest, but not so broad that the search becomes impractical. Deciding on the appropriate question involves six sub-steps: (a) formulating the initial question, (b) conducting a scoping search, (c) mapping the literature, (d) identifying the inclusion criteria, (e) refining the question and (f) finalising the question.

2.1 | Formulating the initial question

We might begin with a broad topic, before narrowing it down (e.g. to specific taxa or study designs). For example, trade-offs between reproduction and survival can be narrowed to paternal effort and survival in birds (Santos & Nakagawa, 2012) or comparing seed production between annual and perennial plants (Vico et al., 2016). Alternatively, if too few studies are available to address a specific research question, the scope might be expanded. Often, the question will undergo multiple rounds of broadening and narrowing. For review topics that have applied implications it is important to solicit the input of stakeholders at this stage (Haddaway et al., 2017).

2.2 | Scoping search

The purpose of a scoping search is to familiarise oneself with a particular topic, determine whether there is sufficient primary research to conduct a review and identify existing reviews (Khan et al., 2011; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Scoping searches gather a small set of the most relevant articles, and can help identify experts on the topic for consultation. Recent narrative reviews are very useful for estimating the amount of research available and identifying landmark empirical studies. The minimum number of studies needed depends on the

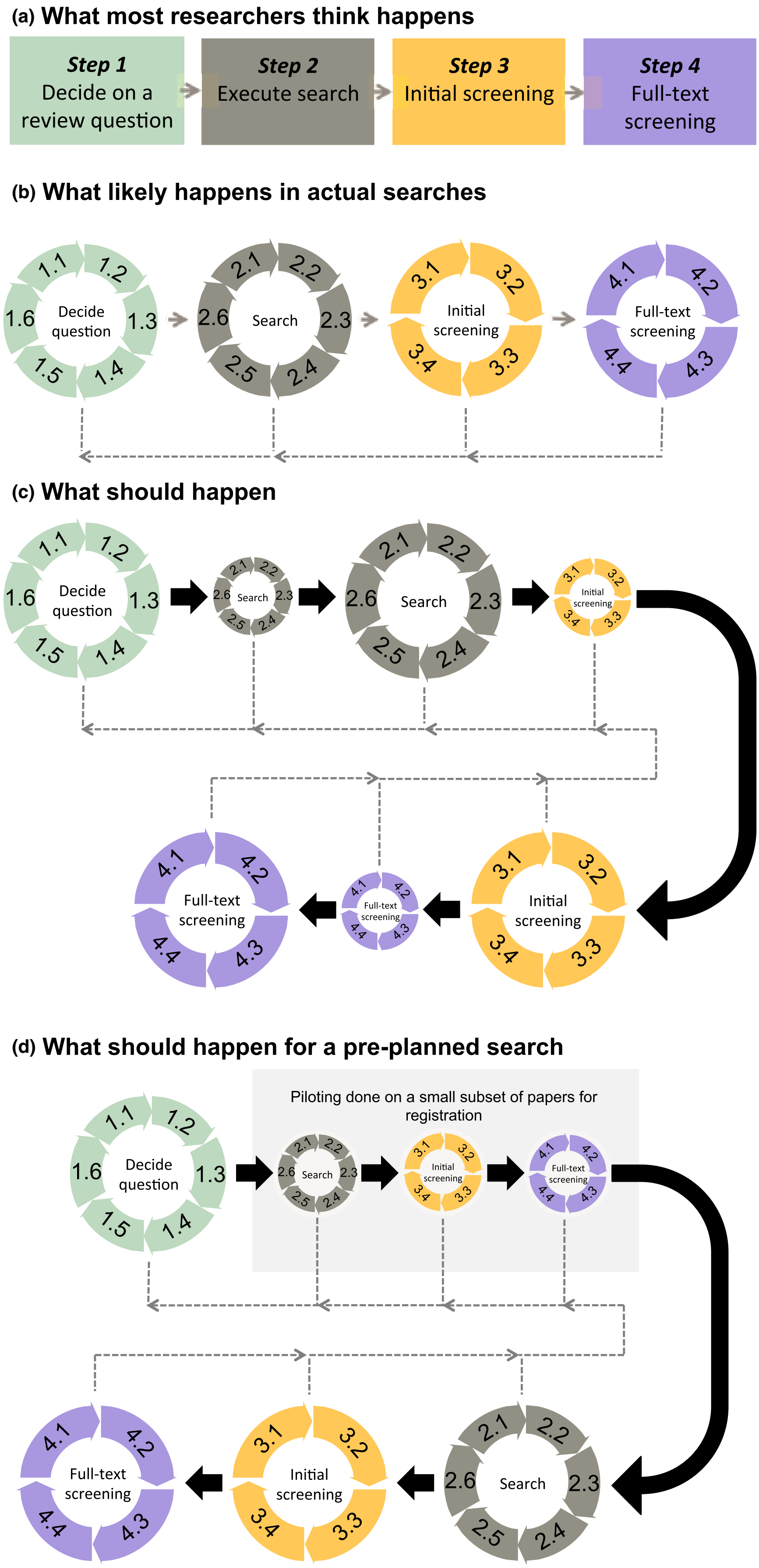


FIGURE 2 The search and screening process: What researchers want to happen (a), what likely happens instead (b) and how this could be avoided (c, d). Sub-steps are folded into a circle in (b–d) to illustrate that the sub-steps themselves can be iterative. The dotted arrows point backwards to illustrate revisiting earlier steps, if needed. Smaller circles represent pilot tests. Registered systematic reviews, especially registered meta-analyses, usually require pilot-testing before registration and the conduct of the actual search (d)

scope of the question, types of systematic review and practical considerations such as PhD deadlines.

Scoping searches can be done using online reference platforms like Web of Science or Scopus, or even search engines such as Google Scholar. Google Scholar orders search results based on their potential relevance to the search terms, which can be useful for locating articles quickly. But Google Scholar is subject to drawbacks that make it unsuitable as the main source of the actual literature search (Gusenbauer & Haddaway, 2020; see section below on Grey Literature).

2.3 | Map out the literature

Literature mapping is a useful tool for using articles identified in scoping searches to understand the wider literature (Cobo et al., 2011; Zupic & Čater, 2015). For example, you could organise author keywords into categories or generate word clouds from the titles and abstracts to identify important terms. Doing so helps to reveal clusters of theoretical frameworks, typical research approaches and commonly used populations (e.g. taxa, locations) that could be the focus of the review.

2.4 | Identify the question

Once familiar with the literature, you can specify your research question using the PICO/PECO framework (Richardson et al., 1995), which identifies four components in a research question: Population, Intervention/Exposure, Comparator and Outcome. The framework was formulated originally for clinical experiments. Therefore, not all of its components are applicable to all studies in ecology and evolution. For instance, in correlational studies, where researchers are interested in whether A is correlated with B, only the population and the outcome (whether a correlation or prevalence is assessed) are relevant (i.e. PO). If a meta-analysis is intended as part of the systematic review, the PICO/PECO framework can help identify suitable effect sizes (e.g. Hedges' g and response ratio for PICO/PECO and Fisher's Zr for PO).

2.5 | Refine the question, identify inclusion criteria and finalise question

Questions can be refined by adjusting individual PICO/PECO components. Refining a question might be necessary to fit the systematic review into a funding deadline, or for theoretical reasons. For instance, researchers might want to focus only on experimental studies to establish causal relationships (e.g. Roberts et al., 2004). A clear question framework translates easily into inclusion/exclusion criteria for which studies will be included in the research synthesis. A question might require multiple rounds of refining before being finalised. Before we dive into finding and screening studies, let us introduce the worked example.

3 | THE TERMINAL INVESTMENT HYPOTHESIS: DECIDING ON THE REVIEW QUESTION

This worked example is based on a Stage-1-accepted registered report at the journal *BMC Biology* (therefore, in this worked example, 'we' refers to the registered report authors: Y.Z.F., R.E.O., S.N. and M.L.). The terminal investment hypothesis states that when individuals perceive a sufficiently intense survival threat, they might increase current reproduction to make the most of their remaining reproductive potential (Clutton-Brock, 1984; Duffield et al., 2017; Fisher, 1930, see Figure 3 for theoretical background).

3.1 | Scoping search

The general question is whether individuals perceiving a survival threat invest more in reproduction. To refine our review question, we used a scoping search to understand how researchers typically investigate the terminal investment hypothesis empirically. We entered '*terminal investment*' *review* into Google Scholar (the quotation marks are used for phrases). We found a number of narrative reviews on the topic. The first five pages of the search results also revealed a substantial number of empirical studies testing the hypothesis.

3.2 | Map out the literature

We took 16 of the empirical studies that we found (listed in Table S1) to map out the literature by organising author keywords into major categories (Figure 4a). We also generated a word cloud from their titles and abstracts (Figure 4b) using the R package WORDCLOUD (Fellows, 2018). Figure 4 shows that studies investigated numerous reproductive investment variables (e.g. egg size, male pre- and post-copulatory traits, parental care, mating effort, behavioural displays). Words such as 'immune' and 'infection' were common in titles and abstracts, pointing to a common experimental approach: using an immune challenge as a survival threat.

Our observations were corroborated by a recent review by Duffield et al. (2017), which identified over 50 primary research papers on the topic. The studies tested a wide range of reproductive investment variables. Most of them applied immune challenges as a survival threat. Importantly, we did not find any published quantitative reviews or meta-analyses, pointing to a gap in the literature.

3.3 | Identify question

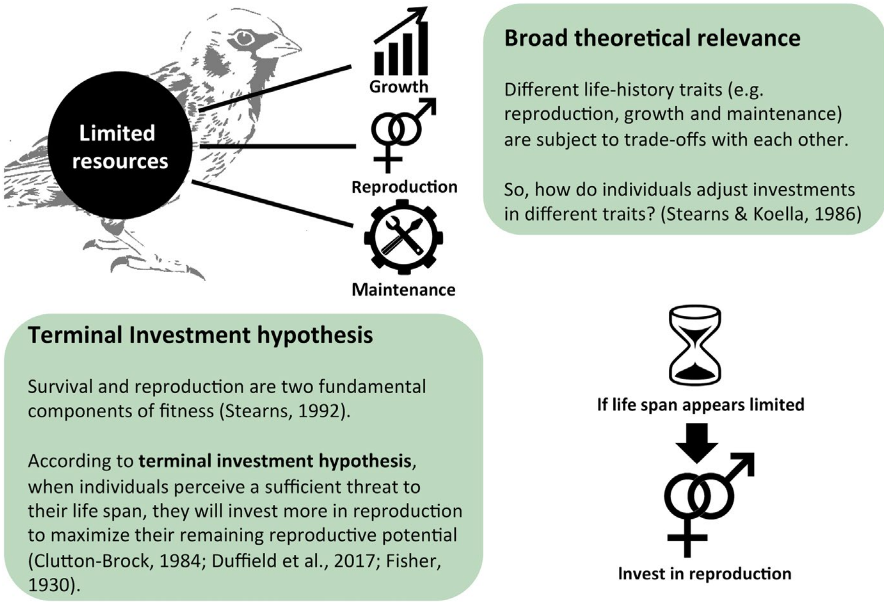
The review by Duffield et al. (2017), together with the 16 empirical studies that we identified, assured us that there was sufficient primary research for a meta-analysis. Therefore, we decided to conduct a systematic review and meta-analysis on whether an immune survival challenge increases reproductive investment. Our question fit within the PICO framework, as follows:

Population: Any species
Intervention: Immune challenge
Comparator: No challenge
Outcome: Reproductive investment measures

3.4 | Refine question, identify exclusion/inclusion criteria and finalise question

We used our scoping search results to refine our question. From Figure 4, and the review by Duffield et al. (2017), we saw most studies were done on animal or insect species. Furthermore, plants have very different life histories and immune systems compared to the

FIGURE 3 Theoretical background of the terminal investment hypothesis



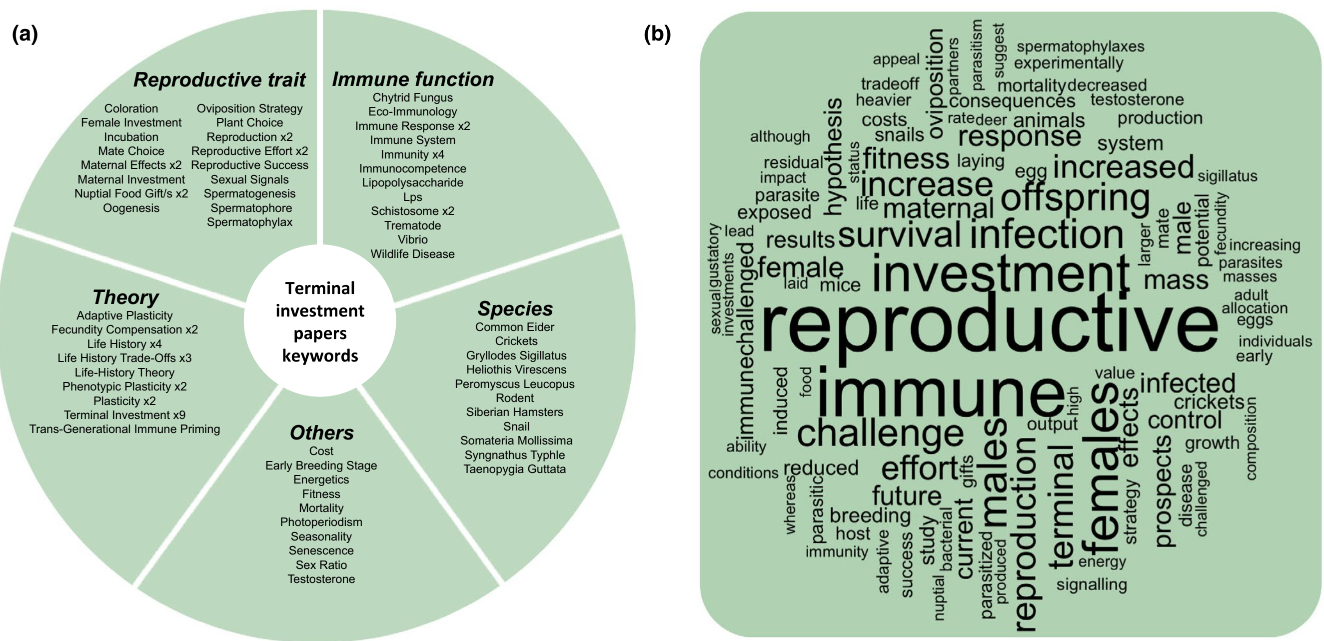


FIGURE 4 Scoping of the initial set of relevant papers on the terminal investment hypothesis: (a) article keywords organised into categories and (b) word cloud of titles and abstracts

animals. So, we decided to limit our **P**opulation to multicellular non-plant species. We also saw that the immune challenges included both live pathogens and non-pathogenic (non-live) substrates. However, live pathogens can sometimes alter host life-history traits, including reproductive ones, which may confound our results. Therefore, we limited our **I**ntervention to non-pathogenic immune challenges. To be able to establish causal link, we decided to include only experimental studies that used an immune challenge as a manipulation, and not quasi-experiments comparing individuals that were already parasitised versus those that were not. Our finalised PICO components were:

***P**opulation: multicellular non-plant species*
***I**ntervention: experimental immune challenge using non-pathogenic substrates*
***C**omparison/Control group: unchallenged group of animals, otherwise in the same state*
***O**utcome: any reproduction-related traits*

3.5 | Try it yourself!

Try exercises 1 'Formulating the question for a meta-analysis' and 2 'Deciding on inclusion criteria' in the Supporting Information.

4 | EXECUTING THE SEARCH

Searches should capture as many relevant studies as possible while reducing the number of irrelevant ones. To achieve this goal, there are six sub-steps to consider: (a) identifying the most appropriate literature sources, (b) generating the search string for database/platform searches, (c) refining the search string, (d) supplementing the database search by examining the reference lists and citing articles of relevant studies and reviews (also known as backward and forward searches), (e) searching for grey literature and (f) removing duplicates.

4.1 | Identify literature sources

There are many search methods to identify relevant studies, each with their own strengths and weaknesses, including: database searches; web searches; citation-based searches; and expert-based searches (including asking experts, and searching publication histories). At present, online databases of published papers provide the greatest coverage of research findings and, therefore, represent the primary resource in most systematic reviews. Web of Science and Scopus are commonly used in ecology and evolution, although other databases might be more relevant depending on the topic (see Gusenbauer & Haddaway, 2020 for list of potential databases), and not all researchers have institutional access to these tools. Note that some 'databases' are actually platforms for access to a collection of databases. For example, Web of Science is a platform providing access to Web of Science Core Collection and over 10 other databases. Different institutions may have subscriptions to only a subset of databases. Therefore, when using such platforms, you should check or consult with a librarian in order to select the relevant databases, which can help reduce the number of irrelevant results.

You should gather publications from multiple (at least two) databases because overlaps between published databases can range from around 50% to as low as 11% (Bar-Ilan, 2018; Mongeon & Paul-Hus, 2016). For researchers who have limited access to the required databases, they might need to collaborate with others who do have access or supplement their search using other search methods.

4.2 | Develop search string for database/platform searches

To generate an effective search string, researchers need to understand the 'language' of Boolean and other search operators (e.g. wildcards). Boolean search combines multiple search terms and phrases (Figure 5; Hjørland, 2014), thus increasing the efficiency and reproducibility of searches. Search results are based on the contents of the database records. If search terms are being used in different contexts, the records found may not necessarily be relevant to the topic of interest. For example, searching for 'sexual selection' on Web of Science reveals results from not just evolutionary biology-related fields, but also others like education and music.

An effective search, therefore, involves identifying words and phrases, and their synonyms, that are present in database records of relevant papers ('inclusion terms'), or are present in irrelevant records that happened to be captured by our inclusion terms ('exclusion terms'). Inclusion terms are usually linked to theory, or one of the PICO components (the target population, the manipulation, the outcome, etc.). You can also identify them from the literature mapping results (Figure 4) and by using topic-modelling tools such as the R packages SCIMEETR (Rivest, 2016) and REVTOOLS (Westgate, 2019). Emerging developments in automated search string generators look very promising (e.g. Grames et al., 2019). However, such technology is still in the early stages of development. More data are required to determine the wider applicability to ecology and evolution, where terminology may be inconsistent across taxa and experimental designs. Thus, we caution against blind reliance on these tools.

4.3 | Refine search string

Search strings are refined through pilot screening, and measuring the percentage of relevant records (i.e. the hit rate or precision), the percentage of known relevant records that are not found in the search (i.e. the miss rate), and the total number of records retrieved. We recommend running a pilot screening on a random sub-sample of resulting records to estimate the hit rate. Based on our experience, a random selection of 100 records is a reasonable number for

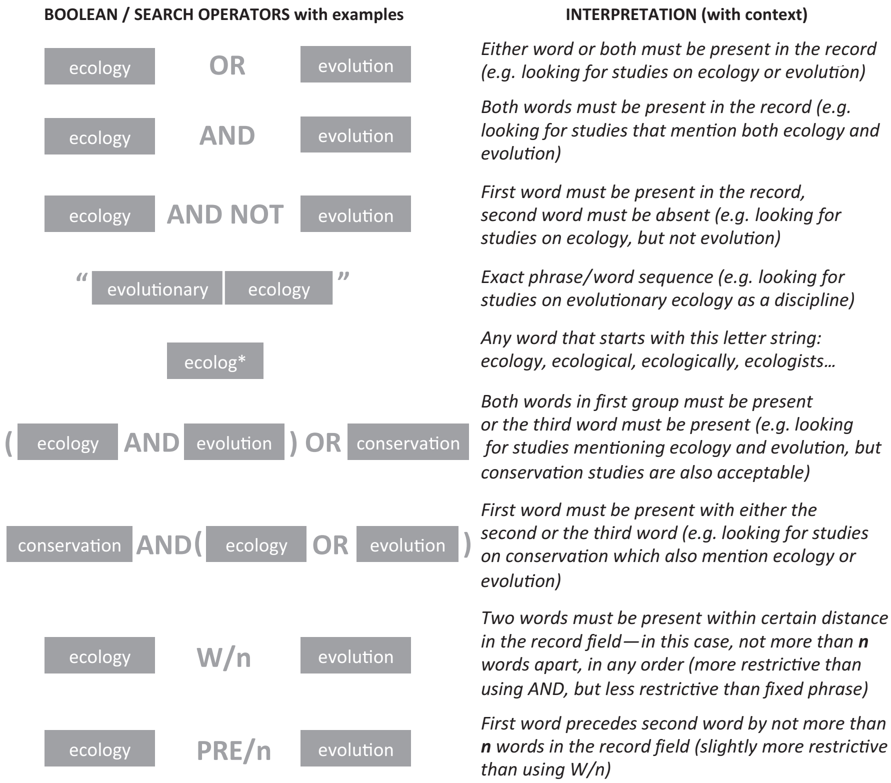


FIGURE 5 Basic Boolean operators, wildcards and phrases used in database searches (Scopus convention). Realistic examples of their use ‘in action’ is presented in Figure 6. Note that, in advanced searches, round brackets allow easy and clear hierarchical nesting of multiple search elements. W/n and PRE/n are called ‘proximity operators’. A note of caution: when using the AND NOT operator, check the list of excluded papers to ensure that you do not accidentally exclude relevant papers due to double negatives (e.g. using ‘AND NOT vertebrates’ in order to focus on invertebrates might lead us to exclude papers that mentioned ‘non vertebrates’)

this purpose. We try to aim for a hit rate of at least 10%, but this is not always possible (e.g. for narrow inclusion criteria). The miss rate should be minimised, and can be measured by comparing the search record against a core set of relevant papers (e.g. from your scoping search or from a previous review) to see if the search captures the majority of the set. The search can be iteratively refined by adding inclusion terms from missed studies, or exclusion terms from irrelevant studies.

The recommended total number of records retrieved depends on a number of factors, including the topic of review, time available and the amount of help from collaborators and research assistants. Between 1,000 and 3,000 records might be a reasonable starting target for many questions, as long as pilot searches reasonably indicate that most of the relevant records can be retrieved. Our first author (Y.Z.F.) once screened through >100,000 abstracts and titles to find only 122 papers for one of his meta-analyses (Foo et al., 2017). We do not advise anybody to take this incredibly tedious approach.

4.4 | Backward and forward search

Relevant published studies that are missed in main database searches can often be found with citation-based searches. After identifying pertinent reviews and landmark papers during the scoping search, you can use database records (again, Scopus and Web of Science are useful, but not the only ones; see also citationchaser (Haddaway et al., 2021) for an R package to conduct backward/forward searches) to download the reference lists of these papers (a backwards search) and their citing papers (a forward search). Forward searches are especially useful when reviewing empirical evidence for a specific hypothesis, because nearly all relevant studies cite the seminal paper which formulated that hypothesis. To minimise duplicates from multiple backward or forward searches, you can add multiple reference and citing article lists into a custom list on search platforms such as Web of Science, which will automatically remove the duplicates before you export the finalised list.

4.5 | Grey literature

Grey literature refers to unpublished research (e.g. dissertations, conference abstracts, preprints or unpublished datasets), or those published outside of traditional academic publishing (e.g. governmental reports; see Supporting Information for more information). The inclusion of grey literature is necessary if publication bias exists in the published literature (Auger, 1998; McAuley et al., 2000). Indeed, recent studies show that the inclusion of grey literature can significantly change the conclusions of a meta-analysis (e.g. Sánchez-Tójar et al., 2018). Although grey literature can be found in major platforms such as Web of Science, or subject-specific databases, in the form of meeting abstracts, conference proceedings or theses, it is usually more fruitful to source them from dedicated resources. At present, the major sources of quality grey literature available for ecology and evolution are PhD and Masters theses. PhD and Masters theses are located on platforms such as ProQuest Dissertation & Theses Global (covering over 3,100 institutions in over 100 countries), EBSCOhost Open Dissertations (dominated by English-speaking countries) and OpenGrey (European), which have

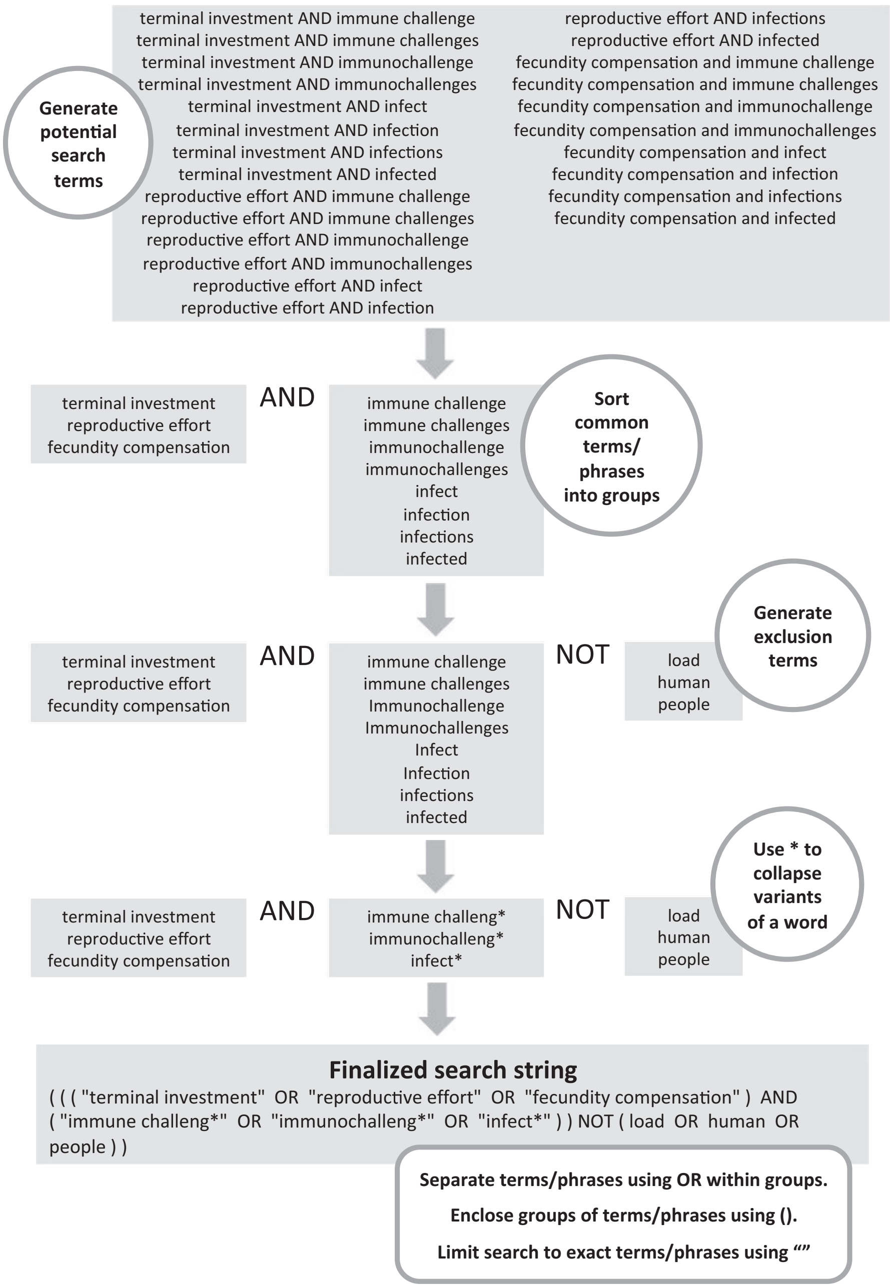


FIGURE 6 Generating the initial search string for the terminal investment hypothesis example. In circles/rounded rectangle we present descriptions of our main actions; grey rectangles contain actual keywords and search strings. We expected relevant research to mention words or phrases linked to reproductive investment and immune function. Thus, we generated a list of individual search strings containing both categories (e.g. reproductive effort and immune challenge). We also generated a third list of potential exclusion terms. For instance, we limited our meta-analysis to non-human species; therefore, we aimed to exclude records that mention words such as ‘human’ and ‘people’. Within each group of terms, we collapsed variants of the same word using the wildcard *. Lastly, we converted the set of terms into a complete Boolean string using OR, AND, NOT, () and ‘’

similar Boolean search functionality as Web of Science and Scopus. Google Scholar indexes grey literature too, but they are mixed together with published articles. Google Scholar also has limited Boolean search functionality. Given these shortcomings, researchers should use Google Scholar as a supplementary rather than as the main search platform (Gusenbauer & Haddaway, 2020). With the increasing popularity of preprints and online data repositories (e.g. bioRxiv, EcoEvoRxiv, Figshare), valuable grey literature might also be found in repositories soon. In cases where the review is focusing on a relatively narrow area, it is also possible to email all/majority of researchers working in this area (it helps if they already assembled into mailing list or some specialised society) to request for unpublished data.

4.6 | Removing duplicates

There are two general ‘duplicate scenarios’. First, different search methods can return the same papers. These duplicates can be removed with reference managers, literature-screening tools such as Rayyan (Ouzzani et al., 2016), or R packages that use simple matching or fuzzy logic (Westgate, 2019). None of these methods are fail-safe and all require user checks. Second, sister publications can duplicate a dataset (e.g. the same work presented in a thesis and a published article). In such cases, you need to manually deduplicate these studies by carefully examining full-texts of similar papers from the same group of authors and decide on rules for preferencing sources of information (e.g. choose the one with larger sample size or more transparent reporting).

5 | THE TERMINAL INVESTMENT HYPOTHESIS: SEARCHING

5.1 | Identify sources and generate search terms

We chose Scopus and Web of Science as our main sources for published literature. Figure 6 presents the process for generating our initial search string.

5.2 | Refine search terms

We tested our initial search string on Web of Science (details in Supporting Information). As shown in Figure 7, the search string underwent multiple rounds of editing and pilot screening until we arrived at our final search string.

5.3 | Backward and forward search

Through our scoping search, we found the following references for our backward and forward searches: four qualitative reviews

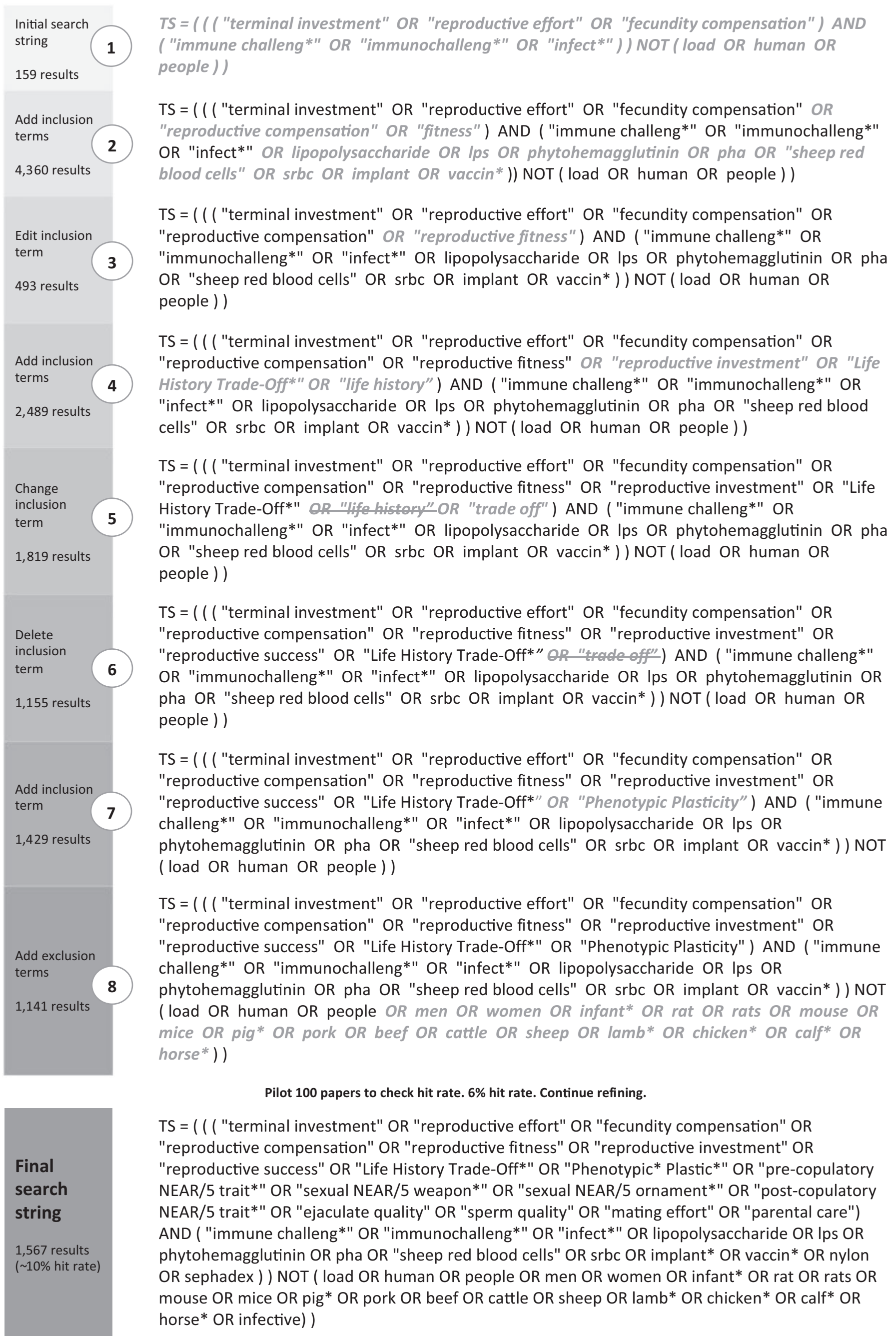


FIGURE 7 Process of refining the search string in the terminal investment hypothesis example using Web of Science search platform. The changes made at each stage are presented in taupe, bold, italic font. The search string underwent multiple rounds of editing until the total number of found records stabilised around 1,000. We then ran a pilot screening with 100 randomly selected records. The hit rate (number of relevant records) was low (6%). Therefore, we continued refining the search string until we arrived at our final search string with 1,567 records and ~10% hit rate, while retrieving 10 of our 16 scoping search papers (Table S1). When an actual search was executed several months later, it produced 1,605 records (see Figure 8 for the PRISMA diagram illustrating our search process and results). The same search string produced 1,478 records on Scopus (Table S2)

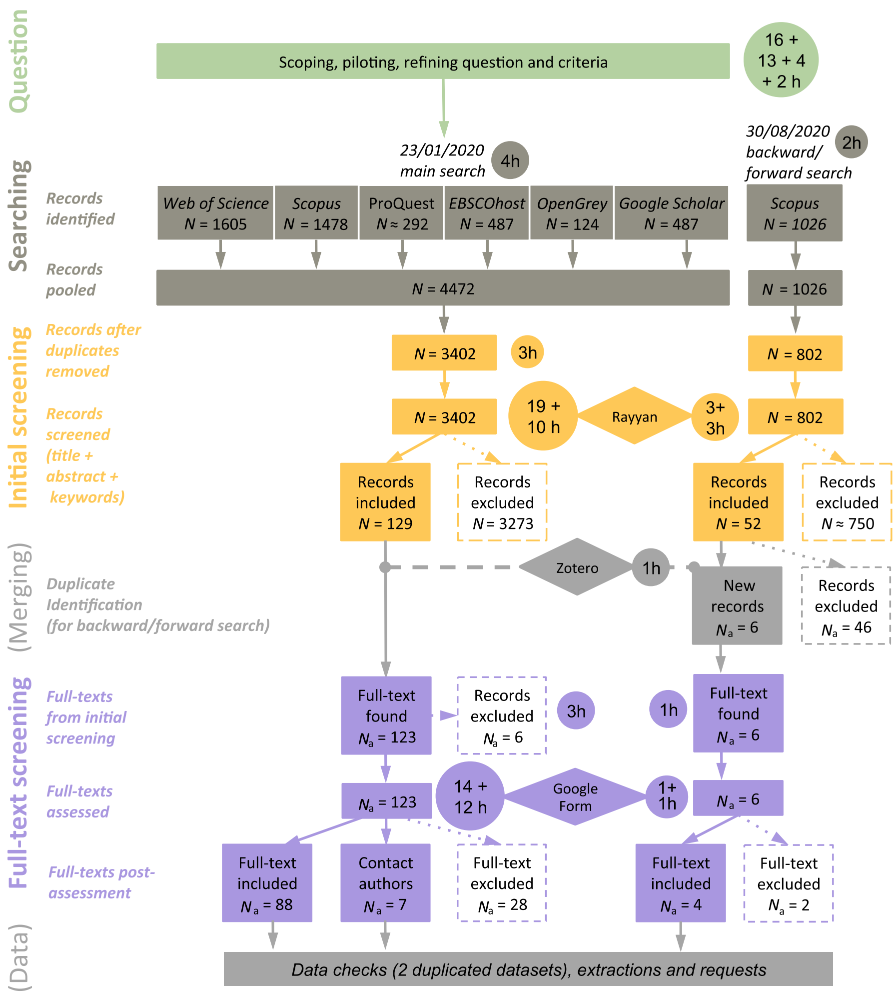


FIGURE 8 Modified PRISMA diagram featuring the results and time taken by each step of the terminal investment example's search process. For each step, filled rectangles represent the search records included. The unfilled rectangles with dotted outlines represent records that were excluded. The circles represent the amount of time taken. Note that we only added the time during which we were actively executing the steps and not time in between, such as breaks. Therefore, the time between start and end of each step is likely to be longer. Also, the time reported here covers only up to the full-text screening stage. It does not include time taken for data extraction (e.g. in meta-analyses), which can take a substantial amount of time. The diamonds are the applications that we used to execute the steps

(Clutton-Brock, 1984; Duffield et al., 2017; Fischer et al., 2009; Javoiš, 2013) and the landmark paper that first used an immune challenge to test the effect of a survival challenge on reproductive investment (Bonneaud et al., 2004).

5.4 | Grey literature

We searched for grey literature using ProQuest Dissertation & Theses Global, EBSCOhost Open Dissertations, Google Scholar and OpenGrey (search details in Table S2). We found 292 records in ProQuest and 487 in EBSCOhost. For Google Scholar, we only screened the top 50 relevant results from each year (487 records in total). OpenGrey search produced 124 records for screening.

5.5 | Removing duplicates

We deduplicated the records from the database searches using a free reference manager Zotero (note that some records contained errors, so the numbers do not exactly match the sum of the found references). We manually removed empty or nonsense records and used automatic deduplication in Zotero, followed by a visual check of records sorted by title. Next, we exported records into the online screening software Rayyan (described below), whose deduplication algorithm found another 13 duplicates, resulting in 3,402 unique records for screening.

We deduplicated the backward and forward search records in Scopus itself, by consolidating the records into a single automatically deduplicated list before exporting. We collected a total of 1,026 records, which resulted in 802 unique records for screening.

5.6 | Try it yourself!

Conduct your own literature search with exercise 4 ‘Performing searches for relevant literature’ in the Supporting Information.

6 | INITIAL AND FULL-TEXT SCREENING

Screening typically contains two stages. First, initial screening excludes obviously irrelevant studies based on their titles, abstracts and keywords. Second, articles that are deemed potentially relevant or unclear during initial screening undergo full-text screening to confirm the list of studies that meet all inclusion criteria. Both screening stages involve: (a) generating decision trees, (b) piloting the decision trees, (c) refining the decision trees and (d) conducting the screening.

6.1 | Generating decision trees

Decision trees help researchers screen records consistently and efficiently. For example, the third question in Figure 9a allows one to exclude records on irrelevant populations without the need to go through the rest of the questions. Full-text screening trees tend to contain more questions (Figure 9b). Not only do researchers have to double-check the inclusion criteria from the initial screening, but also assess additional criteria that can only be judged from the full text. For example, whether or not the research contains data required for a meta-analysis.

6.2 | Pilot and refine decision trees

Pilot screening, training and discussions increase screening accuracy. We strongly recommend two researchers conduct pilot screening on random selections of records (at least 100 for initial and 10 for full-text screening) to ensure screening methods have at least an 80% agreement rate. Taking notes and discussing ambiguous or conflicting decisions can help refine decision trees to increase agreement rates. We recognise that having multiple people screen all records is not feasible for some projects (e.g. PhD students with limited support), but asking for help with the pilot screening is still important for increasing the objectivity of single-screened projects.

6.3 | Executing screening

Reference managers are not designed for managing and tracking screening decisions. For initial screening, there are a number of

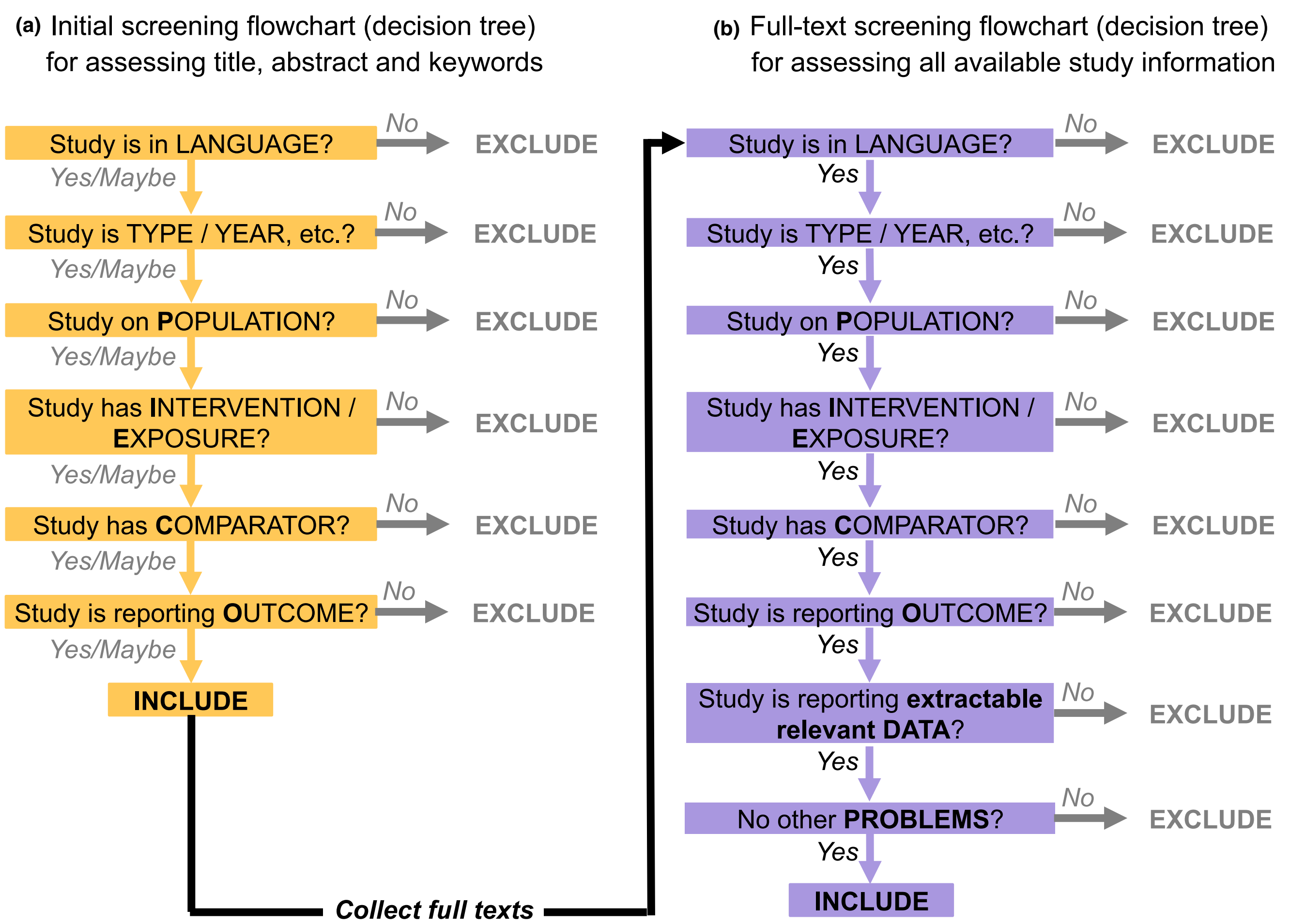


FIGURE 9 Abstract examples of initial (a) and full-text screening (b) decision trees. The two types differ in two ways. First, full-text screening typically contains more questions than initial screening. Second, in initial screening, records that are unclear (the 'Maybes') are retained for full-text screening, whereas in full-text screening unclear records are mostly discarded, except for those published in recent years, which are kept until authors are contacted to verify the details of the study

specialised screening tools (see Kohl et al., 2018 for an overview). One of them is Rayyan (Ouzzani et al., 2016), which has multiple advantages, including being free and online (facilitates collaborations), allowing multiple blinded (parallel) screeners, record filtering and allowing highlighting of screener-chosen keywords using different colours (green for inclusion and red for exclusion), for easier visual scanning of the records.

Although programs such as Rayyan can be also used for full-text screening, questionnaire programs provide good and more flexible options. Questionnaire forms can provide summaries of exclusion reasons for reporting purposes. They also allow us to begin collecting preliminary information about the papers. There is a practical limit to the number of full texts that a small group of researchers can screen in a reasonable time. In our experience, around 3,000 papers are manageable for a single screener. Downloading full texts for screening can be time-consuming, especially if done one paper at a time. Some reference managers can facilitate this process by auto-downloading full-text files from a string of DOIs (e.g. Zotero with a plug-in).

After the full-text screening, researchers might need to contact authors for additional information that was missing or unclear from the authors' report. Typically, you are more likely to get a response for research that was made available within the last 5 years. Even then, you might not obtain a response for various reasons, including authors no longer having access to old datasets, out-dated contact information or intention to retain priority over the requested data for future publications. We suggest sending an initial email (ccing the senior author of your team) that clearly explains the context of the planned review, identify members of the review team, the data required and the deadline for data provision. A reminder email can be sent 2 weeks later, after which the study can be excluded if no response is received by a specified deadline. We provide example templates in the Supporting Information for the request and reminder emails.

7 | THE TERMINAL INVESTMENT HYPOTHESIS: INITIAL AND FULL-TEXT SCREENING

7.1 | Generating and piloting decision tree

We created the initial and full-text screening decision trees based on our inclusion/exclusion criteria. Two authors pilot-tested the initial

FIGURE 10 Refined initial (a) and full-text screening (b) decision trees for the terminal investment hypothesis meta-analysis example

screening decision tree with 100 randomly selected records from our search, and the agreement rate was high (92%). After resolving conflicting decisions, the hit rate was 10%. The same two authors also piloted the full-text screening decision tree using 10 randomly selected records from the list that was included after the initial pilot screening, with an agreement rate of 95%. Figure 10 presents the finalised decision trees.

7.2 | Executing screening

Two authors independently conducted the initial screening within Rayyan (Ouzzani et al., 2016). Thirty-five conflicting decisions (agreement rate of 98.9%) were discussed and resolved. We performed initial screening for the database search entries and the backward/forward search entries separately, and removed duplicated records before full-text screening. Then, the same screeners assessed 129 full texts independently using a Google form (see Supporting Information), with an average agreement rate of 85.4%. After discussion, 99 full texts were included (of these, seven were flagged as requiring additional information from original authors). Finally, a manual check of the list revealed that two of the included theses were sister publications of published papers and were therefore excluded, resulting in 97 unique studies tentatively included for data extraction for meta-analysis.

7.3 | Try it yourself!

Create decision trees and conduct some initial screening with exercises 3 'Making decision trees for the literature screening' and 5 'Screening the literature' in the Supporting Information.

FIGURE 11 Summary of tips and tricks to conducting a systematic search

8 | DISCUSSION

We presented a practical guide on conducting systematic searches for ecologists and evolutionary biologists, focusing on practical recommendations for beginners. In Figure 11, we have compiled a list of the tips and tricks covered in this paper. Although we provided concrete numbers for some sub-steps, these are just 'rules of thumb', not prescriptive benchmarks. For those seeking more detailed guidance on the methods of systematic searches, there is a large collection of resources available, including free-access online library guides, published articles (e.g. Bartels, 2013; Gusenbauer & Haddaway, 2020; see also https://vortal.htai.org/?q=sure-info for a set of resources), handbooks on systematic reviews (e.g. Koricheva et al., 2013), resources from prominent systematic review networks and consortiums (Campbell Collaboration, Cochrane, and Collaboration for Environmental Evidence), and personal assistance from information specialists/librarians. Authors can also check the quality of their searches using appraisal tools such as PRISMA Eco-Evo (O'Dea et al., in press), AMSTAR (Shea et al., 2017) and CEESAT (Woodcock et al., 2014).

8.1 | Registration

Recent papers have highlighted a lack of reproducibility in the reporting and results of meta-analyses across fields (Davies et al., 2020; Jones & DuVal, 2019; Koricheva & Gurevitch, 2014; Lakens et al., 2017). The reason could partially be attributable to the lack of adherence to reporting standards (e.g. PRISMA; Moher, Shamseer, et al., 2015). As part of the credibility revolution, there is a growing emphasis on registering one's study (Nosek et al., 2018; Parker et al., 2019). There are three main formats currently available: pre-registration (no requirements on the level of detail), registered reports (with peer review of introduction and methods for publication in journals before the research is conducted) and published protocols (similar to registered reports, except that the protocol is published separately from the final review, e.g. see Cochrane systematic reviews). A number of journals many ecologists and evolutionary biologists will be familiar with publish registered reports, including *eLife*, *BMC Biology*, *PLoS Biology*, *Ecology and Evolution*, *Conservation Biology* and *Ecological Solutions and Evidence*, and the journals *Environmental Evidence* and *Systematic Reviews* publish protocols of systematic reviews and maps.

The terminal investment meta-analysis example reported in this paper is a Stage-1-accepted registered report at *BMC Biology*. It is one of the first meta-analytic registered reports in the field of ecology and evolution. Having produced this registered report, we have four recommendations on the preparation of pre-registrations or registered reports. First, be as explicit as possible about all the steps (listed in Figure 1). Second, pilot test wherever possible to verify proposed steps and report them accordingly (e.g. question scope, search strings, decision trees). Third, some decisions have to be made after collecting the papers. Therefore, there may be more than one possible path to take. In such cases, note down all the possible forking paths of decisions in the methods. Finally, document the review steps obsessively, especially information required by reporting standards (e.g. PRISMA).

8.2 | Concluding remarks

A systematic search is typically associated more with systematic reviews and meta-analyses than with other forms of reviews, such as narrative reviews or opinion articles. However, reviews, regardless of type, can accurately reflect the state of understanding of a field only when they are based on a representative set of papers. Therefore, we advocate that all reviews should be conducted systematically. Furthermore, we believe that a systematic search approach can be extremely useful to primary researchers too. Primary researchers can use this approach, or at least some of the principles we described, to accurately inform their introduction and discussion sections. Overall, we hope this paper will encourage more researchers, both synthesists and primary researchers, to adopt a systematic and reproducible approach when searching the literature.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

None of the authors have any competing interests.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.Z.F., M.L., S.N. and R.E.O. conceptualised the paper; Y.Z.F. drafted the manuscript; M.L. drafted the Supporting Information. All authors provided critical revisions and approved the manuscript for submission.

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No datasets were generated for this paper.

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