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<td><strong>Author(s)</strong></td>
<td>Lee, Hopin; Lamb, Sarah E.; Bagg, Matthew K.; Toomey, Elaine; Cashin, Aidan G.; Moseley, G. Lorimer</td>
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Reproducible and replicable pain research: a critical review

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1. INTRODUCTION

Recently, the degree to which scientific publications provides a reliable source of information has come under intense scrutiny. Reports suggest that a substantial amount of published literature is likely to be biased [28], distorted [27,53], and non-reproducible [7,50]. This cuts across basic [10,55], pre-clinical [1,16], and clinical research [4,50]. It has been estimated that non-reproducible preclinical research consumes $28 billion/year (USD) [16] and that 85% of biomedical research resources are wasted on biased research [35].

The response from the scientific and policy community has been to identify common practices that contribute to the problem, and develop methods to counteract them [47]. This matter is very relevant to the pain field [1]. Understanding the causes of non-reproducible and non-replicable research and its ultimate impact on how we prevent and treat pain should assist pain researchers to improve the reproducibility and replicability of their work. The distinction between reproducibility and replicability is presented in Figure 1 and defined elsewhere [51]. This paper aims to: (1) define drivers of non-reproducible and non-replicable research with examples from pain sciences and broader research fields; and (2) provide an overview of potential solutions and practices that could improve reproducibility and replicability of pain research.

2. FACTORS DRIVING NON-REPRODUCIBLE AND NON-REPLICABLE RESEARCH

2.1 Transparency of research reports

Perhaps the biggest barrier to both reproducibility and replicability is a lack of transparency in reporting. Research reports should include complete and accurate documentation of research intent, research processes, research outcomes, and implementation. Opaque reporting practices include not reporting on entire studies [24], selective reporting (or non-
reporting) of study outcomes [19], incomplete reporting of methods or incomplete description of interventions [18,22], and inaccurate or misleading reporting of results and inferences [8,34]. Opaque reporting makes reproducing a study difficult and can make replicating it impossible [26,77].

This lack of transparency appears to be common in the pain field, affecting aspects of study design, intervention, and outcome reporting. For example: of 172 reports of randomised trials evaluating analgesic interventions, only 38% provided sufficient information to replicate a sample size calculation [38]; of 38 exercise trials for patellofemoral pain, none reported complete information about the intervention according to the TIDierR reporting guideline and only 8% reported on intervention fidelity and adherence [23]. Likewise, for outcome reporting, a review of 262 studies showed that reports often lacked important detail about pain intensity assessments, frequency and type of assessments, and pain location [69]. Selective publication of positive trial findings has also been identified as a pertinent issue in the pain field [62].

2.2 Underpowered studies

Underpowered studies have insufficient participants, subjects or data points to make robust estimates of effects. This may result in spurious (false-negative or false-positive) findings [12,42], effects of greater magnitude than the real population effect, and estimates with low precision [10,56]. Across multiple disciplines, primary studies confer less than 50% power to detect true effects [10,13]. In neuroimaging studies, the median power has been estimated to be around 8% [10]; in rheumatoid arthritis studies - 19% [13]. In the psychology literature, recent attempts to replicate findings have shown that, when replication studies are sufficiently powered, the effect size is on average half that of the original study [50]. Presumably the
same problem applies to underpowered studies in our field, a situation probably compounded
by the common absence of sample size calculations in pain research reports [38]. These
issues are of critical importance because underpowered studies may misinform clinical
practice and policy through misrepresentation of effects.

2.3 Researcher degrees of freedom
The term ‘researcher degrees of freedom’ refers to the decisions made by a researcher from
project conception to dissemination, all of which may shift the outcome and impact of the
project, usually towards false positive discoveries [10]. A survey of brain stimulation
researchers suggested that 30% reject outliers without a statistical rationale, 30% exclude
data after looking at the results, and 38% clean data points based on ‘gut feeling’[21].
Common analytical decisions, such as dropping an experimental group from the analysis (e.g.
failing experimental manipulations), have been shown to inflate the nominal 5% chance of a
false positive finding [67]. This problem has been recognised and partly attributed to the
inordinate and longstanding pressure to publish, although we can only speculate on the extent
to which decisions made to improve the chances of interesting findings are wilful [14,15,57].

2.4 The wider context
There are inherent personal and institutional incentives that propagate the fundamental
problems identified above [14] – we are sympathetic to the cultural forces at play [45,46].
Smaldino and McElreath (2016) showed that current academic incentives, such as being
rewarded for large publication volume, high citation rates, and grant success, increase the risk
of poor research methodology [68]. They posit a Darwinian perspective: that there is ‘natural
variation’ in the quality of research practices, and that in a competitive environment - the
practices and habits that lead to reward (publication, grant success, tenure, promotion, grants,
prestige) are selected and passed from advisors to trainees, and across peers [68]. The ‘surviving’ practices may lead to high output volume – itself associated with high rates of false-positive discoveries [28,67] - but not necessarily to approximating the truth. These pressures clearly affect our community [46] and contend that the field can benefit from improving standards for transparency.

3. POTENTIAL SOLUTIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

3.1 Pre-registration

Pre-registration is the practice of making a public, time-stamped record of the research plan, before data collection commences [9,40]. Pre-registration provides a strong incentive to plan and execute best scientific practice and protects against selective reporting, p-hacking, and spin [47,74]. It allows the consumer of the research to know, for example, when a study intended to test multiple (exploratory) hypotheses, yet reported only the favourable result; or intended to explore a single hypothesis using several model specifications, yet only reported the model that yielded a favourable result. Pre-registration does not necessarily prevent all threats to validity, however it does stimulate transparency by encouraging researchers to explain deviations in the research process.

Pre-registration is considered standard practice for randomised controlled trials and systematic reviews. Seven of the 10 leading journals in our field specify that pre-registration is required for clinical trials; one encourages it for systematic reviews, and none require nor encourage it for observational or experimental studies (Table 1). This shows that pre-registration is not considered standard practice for systematic reviews, observational studies and pre-clinical studies in our field. Given the advantages of pre-registration observed in clinical trials [2,3], it is possible that the benefits may outweigh those costs. However, to do
so is not without substantial challenges that will require innovative solutions. Mogil and Macleod (2017) have proposed a model whereby exploratory studies deposited in preprint servers are followed up by a ‘preclinical trial’ with higher standards of rigour [41]. It would seem timely that we determine the value and impact of such approaches.

Outside our field, incentives are already in place to expand pre-registration practices beyond clinical trials and systematic reviews. For example, the Centre for Open Science introduced a US$1M funding incentive that rewards investigators for publishing research that was pre-registered via the Open Science Framework. Our leading institutions, for example the International Association for the Study of Pain, could take a leadership role here. For example, pre-registration could be weighted in the evaluation of abstracts submitted to conferences, in the consideration of scholarship, prize and grant applicants. Similar incentives could be proposed by pain journals, for example: including a question about pre-registration on manuscript submission platforms, and encouraging the use of pre-registration facilities such as the Open Science Framework. Unfortunately, passive implementation of pre-registration facilities has shown limited effect in reducing discrepancies between pre-registration and published reports [70]. Active monitoring by investigators and peer reviewers might be required to ensure that discrepancies are minimised, or at least, transparently reported. This could be achieved at manuscript level by a requirement to include the subheading ‘deviations from protocol’ or similar in the methods section.

Anecdotally, some researchers are reluctant to pre-register their research for fear of having their ideas scooped. However, pre-registration can remain hidden from public view for a pre-determined embargo period, which protects researchers from scooping (and from being accused of scooping), because it provides irrefutable evidence of the time a project was
started. Some might also suggest that pre-registration will penalise discovery and stifle innovation. We do not think this is necessarily the case - plans can change for important and innocent reasons; such as a serendipitous finding, a loss of funding or poor recruitment. Pre-registration merely obliges the researcher to report the reason for the change; it is not a punitive measure.

### 3.2 Registered reports

Registered reports provide similar information to pre-registration documents but are also peer reviewed based on method. They offer ‘in-principle’ acceptance at first peer review, and if the second peer review (at study completion) verifies that the study complied with the registered report and the interpretation is valid, the paper is accepted [11,49]. Registered reports are an advance on pre-registration because they mandate publication irrespective of the results, which reduces the risk of selective publication [49]. Registered reports and pre-registration do not impede exploratory research, but they facilitate the distinction between exploratory and confirmatory research up front by giving researchers the opportunity to declare the nature of the work [49].

As of November 2017, the Centre for Open Science indicated that 80 journals across all scientific disciplines accepted registered reports [73]. Some of these journals, for example *Cortex* [11], *Behavioural Neuroscience* [60], *BMC Medicine* [73], *BMC Biology* [60], are relevant to the pain field and publish pain-related research (e.g. [29,58]). At the time of writing, no mainstay pain journals offered publication of registered reports (Table 1). This seems to present an excellent opportunity to move our field forward.

### 3.3 Sharing code, data, and reproducible workflow
Sharing data and statistical code advances transparency by enabling external scrutiny.

Modern statistical software such as SPSS [IBM Corp: Armonk, NY, USA], SAS [SAS Institute Inc: Cary, NC, USA], STATA [StataCorp LLC: College Station, TX, USA], MATLAB [The Mathworks Inc: Natic, MA, USA], and R [R Foundation for Statistical Computing: Vienna, Austria] allow researchers to save the code document that was used to analyse the data. These code documents, along with links to de-identified data sets, are being shared via journal websites, and some journals are now recommending this practice [20]. To fully enable reproducibility [52], researchers may need to also provide accompanying scripts that describe how the code was applied to the data. This has become possible via “literate programming” [52], which allows the investigator to combine data, code, output, and the narrative text into a single reproducible document [54]. Modern tools that can produce these documents include knitr (R Markdown) [76] and Jupyter Notebooks [33].

The value and ethical obligations of sharing raw data is well accepted by funders, journals, researchers, and consumers [32,71]. Accordingly, the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors (ICMJE) recently mandated the inclusion of data sharing agreement statements within clinical trials reports submitted to ICMJE journals [72]. Pain researchers could adhere to this practice by clearly stating in their protocols whether, with whom and how, de-identified data will be made available. At present, there is no mandate for pre-clinical and observational studies, and it remains uncommon practice [36,37]. The FAIR principles for data sharing might help pain researchers share data that are findable, accessible, interoperable, and re-usable [75]. Although these steps would bring clear benefits, they would also require safeguarding of patient and participant privacy [5,71] and bring other challenges, the solutions to which are not currently obvious.
Although some may be reluctant to embrace data sharing until all risks are averted, there is already movement towards data-sharing. Meetings such as the Data Sharing Summit have gathered and attempted to reconcile the views of representative group leaders [61], and more recently, funders such as the Wellcome Trust, The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, Cancer Research UK and the UK Medical Research Council have engaged with ClinicalStudyDataRequest.com to streamline data sharing mechanisms [65]. New journal outlets for data [63] and novel approaches to data authorship [6] have been advocated to incentivise data sharing. However, until funders and academic organisations acknowledge these practices with credit, the pursuit to open data could remain stagnant. In our field, five of the 10 leading journals engage with data sharing. Two of these journals require, and the other 3 encourage data sharing statements in the manuscript. Four of the 10 leading journals encourage sharing code but none mandate it (Table 1).

3.4 Reporting guidelines

Reporting guidelines advise on the minimum information that is required for a transparent account of research methods and findings. These guidelines usually involve a checklist, flow diagram or set of instructions that relate to a specific type of research [43]. Adherence to reporting guidelines can prevent study details from being misrepresented when they are used in systematic reviews, clinical practice and policy. It also reduces the likelihood of research waste, and increases the utility and likely implementation of research findings [66]. As of November 2017, the Enhancing the QUAlity and Transparency Of health Research (EQUATOR) network [66] maintains a searchable database of 386 reporting guidelines. Researchers can consult the EQUATOR network for relevant guidelines and use the decision aid (https://www.penelope.ai/equator-wizard) to select appropriate guidelines for major study types [64].
Recent evidence suggests that active implementation of these guidelines may be needed, beyond the near-standard endorsement from ICMJE journals, to ensure sufficient reporting. Hopewell et al. [25] have shown that active implementation of the CONSORT for Abstracts reporting guideline (i.e. by emailing authors to revise the submitted abstracts according to the guidelines, or changes made by journal editors during peer review) was associated with a 53% improvement in reporting quality. Although promising, it is not yet known whether these findings generalise across other reporting guidelines. It will be important to gauge the effect of the recent pain-specific supplement to the Consolidated Standard of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) statement [17] and the ARRIVE guidelines [59]. In our field, four of the 10 leading journals require the submission of core reporting guidelines such as the CONSORT statement, and three encourage their use (Table 1).

4. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

We have suggested several strategies by which the pain field can continue to strive towards greater transparency in scientific practice and indeed, take a leadership role. We used evidence generated within the pain field and meta-research from general disciplines to highlight the causes and consequences of non-reproducible and non-replicable research. Our snapshot of current policies of pain journals (Table 1) should not be interpreted to reflect the overall quality of the journals, but as a platform from which to engage with the challenges researchers face and to guide future changes in journal policy for better transparency – as reflected by Keefe et al. [30]. Indeed, the overall prevalence and implications of research transparency within the pain field remains to be determined. As such, meta-research, bibliographic studies, and original research to identify specific practices and cultures that
impose threats to reproducible and replicable pain science would seem warranted. There is also a need to evaluate the impact of recommended practices on outcomes that gauge reproducibility and biases. Robust findings from such studies could inform strategies to modify pain researchers’ behaviours and change journal policies and funding rules.

That academic-reward and publishing systems that incentivise scientific practice need to change has been well recognised and changes can be made at all levels; as funders, journals, reviewers, researchers, and consumers [47]. Some are relatively straightforward changes, for example journals educating readers on the pertinent issues, ‘badging’ papers with optimal transparency [31], publishing registered reports, and mandating pre-registration for all study designs. Other strategies include individual signatories to the Peer Reviewer’s Openness Initiative [44] declining to review papers that do not meet minimum standards of transparency at time of submission; special calls for replication papers, or funding for large-scale replication studies in the pain field. Recognition of these practices within institutions and funding schemes would send a clear message that transparent scientific practice is worthwhile and not counter-productive to career prospects [39]. Finally, we contend that pain journals should sign the Transparency and Openness Promotion (TOP) Guidelines [48] - a set of standards intended to assist journals steward transparent scientific practices. Currently, only three of the 10 leading pain journals are TOP signatories.

5. Summary

That much research may be biased, distorted or untrue has clear implications for the pain field. There are profound ethical and economic reasons for pursuing research practices that promote reproducibility and replicability of pain studies. A cultural shift toward openness and transparency in science is well underway but is not without its challenges. We suspect that
collaboration between pain researchers, journals, funders and institutions will be required to generate, adopt, and promote open science principles, and thereby accelerate progress in our field. In so doing, we can only improve outcomes for people in pain.
CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

**Figure 1. Distinguishing reproducibility and replicability**

Each panel depicts the requirements for reproducibility (left) and replicability (right). Blue boxes represent study components that do not change in the process of reproducing/replicating the original study. Red boxes represent study components that change in the process of reproducing/replicating the original study. Reproducing a study involves independent researchers analysing the same data and getting the same result. Replicating a study involves independent researchers collecting new data, analysing it and getting the same result. Thus, reproducibility is necessary but not sufficient for replication. Figure adapted from Patil et al. (2017) [51].
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<td>Required*</td>
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This table represents the current level of engagement with minimum transparency research standards as suggested by The Transparency and Openness Promotion (TOP) Committee (ref Nosek et al 2016). Journals were selected by identifying top 10 pain journals ranked by impact factor - Web of Science, InCites Journal Citation Reports (Clarivate Analytics) – 2016 Journal Citation Reports. Snapshot of the author guidelines and journal policies were taken on 09/02/2018, and data were extracted by two independent reviewers.

* Not mentioned in author guidelines but taken from Keefe et al. 2018 Pain.
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<th>REPLICABILITY</th>
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Study 2 has successfully **reproduced** Study 1 if the estimates from both studies are consistent.

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Study 2 has successfully **replicated** Study 1 if the estimates from both studies are consistent.