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1 **Editorial**

2

3 **Field work ethics in biological research**

4

5 **Mark J. Costello**

6 Institute of Marine Science, University of Auckland, P. Bag 92019, Auckland 1142, New Zealand

7 Email m.costello@auckland.ac.nz

8

9 **Karen H. Beard**

10 Department of Wildland Resources and Ecology Center, Utah State University, Logan, UT 84322,
11 U.S.A.

12

13 **Richard T. Corlett**

14 Center for Integrative Conservation, Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden, Chinese Academy
15 of Sciences, Menglun, Mengla, Yunnan 666303, China

16

17 **Graeme Cumming**

18 ARC Centre of Excellence in Coral Reef Studies, James Cook University, Townsville, Australia
19 4811

20

21 **Vincent Devictor**

22 Institut des Sciences de l'Evolution, Université Montpellier, CNRS, IRD, Place Eugène Bataillon,
23 34095 Montpellier Cedex 05, France

24

25 **Rafael Loyola**

26 Conservation Biogeography Lab, Departamento de Ecologia, Universidade Federal de Goiás,
27 Goiânia, Brazil.

28

29 **Bea Maas**

30 Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research, Division of Tropical Ecology and Animal
31 Biodiversity, University of Vienna, Austria

32

33 **Abraham J. Miller-Rushing**

34 U.S. National Park Service, Acadia National Park, Bar Harbor, ME, 04609, USA

35

36 **Robin Pakeman**

37 The James Hutton Institute, Craigiebuckler, Aberdeen, AB15 8QH, UK.

38

39 **Richard B. Primack**

40 Biology Department, Boston University, Boston, MA 02215, U.S.A.

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43 *Biological Conservation* recently rejected a paper because we regarded the killing of thousands of
44 vertebrates in a protected area as unnecessary and inappropriate. The authors had the required
45 approvals from the conservation authorities for this work and argued that alternative non-harmful
46 methods, such as camera-traps and baited video, or capture-release methods, would be too time-
47 consuming and expensive because of the species' low population density. Since then, one of us
48 declined to review another paper also on ethical grounds. This second study similarly used
49 indiscriminate methods to kill hundreds of vertebrates in a protected area. In a third case, a paper
50 was rejected because its capture-release data showed high mortality in vertebrates tagged for the
51 study. These papers intended to demonstrate phenomena already known from other studies in
52 different locations. In our opinion, these studies provided poor justification for harming species
53 where the research simply confirmed a well-known phenomenon (e.g., species abundance increases
54 when they are protected) for another location or species. Although the need to recognize the ethical
55 issues of ecological field work has been highlighted more than once previously (e.g., Farnsworth &
56 Rosovsky 1993, Marsh and Kenchington 2004), it seems they are not being universally addressed.

57
58 We urge scientists to conduct research in ways that are respectful to nature, and minimise harm to
59 species and ecosystems. We discuss some of the ways that government regulations, journal policies,
60 education practices, and individual researcher behaviour can contribute to more environmentally
61 ethical practice. "Ethics" is widely defined as a theory of morality that guides individual and
62 collective behaviour (e.g., Fuchs & Macrina 2005, Jax et al., 2013) but is subject to different
63 interpretations and debate (e.g., Fazey et al., 2005, Wallace & Curzer 2013). We recognise that the
64 damage to biodiversity caused by research is almost always minor in comparison to the widespread
65 and extensive damage caused by other activities, such as logging, farming, fishing, mining, water
66 pollution, ranching, and urbanization. However, scientific methods should minimise disturbance
67 and stress to biodiversity, and any impacts should be explicitly justified.

68 69 **Challenges**

70 71 *Too little regulation, education, and discussion*

72 Many countries have implemented legislation and institutional review processes that require
73 investigators to justify research procedures and use best practices to minimise pain and stress to
74 animals in laboratories and other research (Gillespie 2014). These laws are implemented and
75 enforced differently depending on country, target species, and the focus of the regulating agency or
76 committee. Generally, requirements are focused on vertebrates and sometimes other 'popular
77 species' (e.g. octopus, lobsters), and often do not require researchers to consider the impacts of
78 fieldwork on ecosystems, invertebrates, or non-target species communities (e.g., Fazey et al., 2005).
79 Ethics committees may consider animal manipulation in the laboratory and field, but not the killing
80 of the same animals as part of 'sampling'.

81
82 Some universities also offer courses to conservation students in respectful (or ethical) research
83 practices, and a field of study developing in this area (Minteer and Collins 2005a, b). Nevertheless,
84 some researchers seem to choose more destructive methods without trying alternatives. Thus
85 managers of protected areas sometimes need to press researchers to be more respectful of nature.
86 For example, applications to conduct research in the [Great Barrier Reef Marine Park](#) (Marsh and
87 Kenchington 2004) and other protected areas increasingly require researchers to justify the impact
88 of fieldwork, including disturbance and collecting. However, discussion of unintended
89 consequences and responsible research practices is still relatively rare in the literature and the field.
90 In Acadia National Park in the United States, for example, park managers' return nearly all new
91 applications for research permits for revision because investigators inadequately consider the
92 impacts of their research on species and ecosystems. Based on our personal experiences, we believe
93 this lack of consideration is widespread.

94

95 *Uneven treatment of species*

96 In the examples in our opening paragraph, the vertebrates were marine and freshwater fish. Two of
97 the studies used gill-nets which are notorious for entangling all kinds of species. We wonder if the
98 authorities would have been less likely to have given permission if they were mammals, birds or
99 reptiles (McClanahan 1990). Fish feel stress and may be compared in cognitive and social
100 behaviour to birds in aerial ecosystems (Sneddon 1990). Moreover, should respectful treatment of
101 organisms depend on a species' sentience (Bateson 1991)? For example, what about invertebrates?
102 Octopus and squid exhibit complex behaviours, and likely experience pain and stress. And what
103 about other invertebrates, such as crustaceans, insects and spiders; should they be treated casually?
104 In one past study published in *Biological Conservation*, researchers created fires of different
105 intensities to test their impact on the mortality of soil-nesting bees (Cane and Neff 2011). Such fires
106 are widespread, both deliberate and accidental, and this was the first and only practical way to
107 assess their effects on these important pollinators. In contrast the studies mentioned in the first
108 paragraph had limited novelty and could have been achieved without killing the animals.

109

110 *Impacts on non-target species and ecosystems*

111 Damage to ecosystems—for example, by trampling and removing vegetation, dredging and
112 trawling, and noise and light pollution—is routine outside (and sometimes inside) protected areas.
113 Any harm to species and ecosystems, especially inside protected areas, should be minimised, even
114 if it is not included as a formal part of the process for reviewing research on animals. Impacts on
115 one species may have indirect effects on others due to predator-prey interactions or habitat change
116 (e.g., Leleu et al. 2010). This caution is particularly important in ecosystems that are not stable or
117 are particularly stressed, in cases that may aid the transmission of wildlife diseases (e.g.
118 chytridiomycosis or avian influenza), in areas that local people rely on for subsistence, or in cases
119 where the research could alter local perceptions of the value of species or conservation measures. In
120 particular, researchers should avoid inadvertent transport of species, especially invasive species and
121 disease organisms, by using clean field equipment (Bunting and Coleman 2014). For example, cave
122 explorers or bat ecologists may have inadvertently transported the deadly fungus that causes white-
123 nose syndrome from Europe to the United States on contaminated clothing or equipment (Fenton
124 2012). Many disciplines have established best practices for field work and it is important that these
125 are rigorously observed (e.g., Powell and Proulx 2003, Conour et al. 2006, Phillott et al. 2010,
126 Winker et al. 2010, Buchholz et al. 2011, Donaldson et al. 2013).

127

128 *Invasive species control*

129 Conservation researchers and managers often kill species (vertebrates, plants and invertebrates) in
130 studies and management actions related to the control of invasive species. This may be essential to
131 prevent the extinction of native species in some circumstances. However, due diligence is required
132 to ensure that non-target species are not affected and the methods follow ethical standards (Tuttle et
133 al. 2008, Eason et al. 2011). Invasive species control should also consider public opinion, because
134 this acceptance can contribute to the success of control programmes and public impressions of
135 scientific ethics (Bremner and Park 2007).

136

137 *Collecting*

138 The collection of specimens, particularly of rare species, can also generate debate (Filardi 2015),
139 because it may contribute to their decline (Minteer et al. 2014). Large-scale collecting methods,
140 such as fogging tree canopies or netting in marine waters, may produce specimens of scientific
141 value, but they often kill other organisms in the process (Costello et al. 2016). If researchers must
142 collect specimens to address clear and compelling questions, such sampling should be justified.
143 Generally, experienced researchers realise the cost of processing large samples of invertebrates is
144 prohibitive and limit sampling such that impacts on species abundance is minimal. The spatial
145 impact of research should also be considered. For example, lights and underwater acoustics may

146 disturb animals at a distance, and impact non-target species in ways as yet unknown (e.g., Verlaan
147 2007).

148
149 *Relationships to hunters and hunting*

150 In some cases, particularly those relating to game species (e.g., antelope, gamebirds), hunting laws
151 are less restrictive than university ethics committees. Locally hunted animals represent a potential
152 resource from which researchers can obtain additional data. For example, avian influenza research
153 has often relied on local hunters to obtain samples from hard-to-catch waterbirds (e.g., Gaidet et al.
154 2007, Ip et al. 2008). In some countries, such as South Africa, it is relatively easy to obtain a
155 hunting permit to shoot ducks and relatively complicated to obtain permission from state agencies
156 to catch, sample, and release live birds. While we have no ethical objection *per se* to the collection
157 of additional data from already-hunted animals, it is important that research should not stimulate
158 additional hunting; that researchers favour non-fatal sampling approaches wherever possible; and
159 that researchers do what they can to reduce or limit the transfer of capture technologies (e.g., novel
160 trap designs or passing on damaged mist-nets) to local communities.

161
162 *Public visibility and the potential to block good research*

163 In many countries the public is increasingly concerned about the humane treatment of animals.
164 Recent stories regarding the killing of Cecil the lion in Zimbabwe, and the killing of Harambe, a
165 gorilla in a U.S. zoo, highlight this concern. If this concern expands to research practices, it could
166 undermine support for scientific research and conservation. At the same time, we must be prepared
167 to justify destructive research techniques when they are necessary and not let research that could
168 greatly benefit conservation go undone when trade-offs between benefits and harm are reasonable.

169
170 **Solutions**

171 *Use low-impact methods*

172 Whenever possible, researchers should use well established methods that have negligible impact on
173 species and ecosystems, such as observation, mark-release-recapture, collecting faeces and hair, and
174 noting animal tracks and signs. New technologies that have minimal impacts, such as camera-traps
175 (Meek et al. 2014), tags and sensors (Cooke et al. 2013), satellites (Andréfouët et al. 2008), drones
176 (Vas et al. 2015), and environmental DNA (eDNA) (e.g. Russello et al. 2015, Thomsen and
177 Willerslev 2015) are becoming easier to use and more cost-effective all the time (Costello et al.
178 2016). They can often be more effective at characterizing biodiversity and many aspects of ecology
179 than destructive sampling techniques. There are also organisations that will fund researchers,
180 particularly in the developing world, who want to use these newer low-impact techniques; e.g. the
181 [Conservation Leaders Programme](#). When research necessitates impacts on biodiversity, these
182 impacts must be justified and kept to a minimum (Verlaan 2007, Parris et al. 2010). A useful rule is
183 that any impacts on species and their habitats should persist for as short a time as possible (Cuthill
184 1991).

185
186 *Improve regulations, policies, and behaviour*

187 In cases where impacts may be uncertain, the precautionary principle should apply (Crozier and
188 Schulte-Hostedde 2015). Marsh and Kenchington (2004) proposed that research institutions
189 broaden their animal use committees to include environmental effects, and that scientific societies
190 develop specialist codes of practice for their members. Accordingly, ethical guidelines and
191 requirements should take into account impacts on hitherto underrepresented species groups and
192 ecosystems in order to improve the public perception of their importance and biological sampling
193 methods. In addition, the development and strengthening of collaborations between different
194 disciplines and institutions may help to improve ethical guidelines in and enhance efforts to
195 minimize harm to wildlife (e.g., Cattet 2013, Crozier and Schulte-Hostedde 2015). It is possible that
196 new methods developed in one field could be applied to another so as to reduce the impacts of
197 research. It might also be relevant to employ veterinary professionals in specific cases (Deem et al.

198 2001). Thus, especially in protected areas, it could be justified to restrict research until less harmful
199 methods are available, and recognise that for now, some things may remain unknown.

200
201 It is essential that the results and data from research be made publicly available following best
202 practice (Costello and Wieczorek 2014). If not, the research has limited capacity to benefit the
203 science and conservation management because the knowledge gained will be restricted to the
204 researchers. In considering papers for publication, journals should require authors to conform to
205 particular codes of respectful or ethical research, and agencies with responsibilities for protected
206 areas and species should have committees to review proposals before issuing field research permits
207 (Marsh and Eros 1999). Researchers should document and be ready and willing to justify why they
208 choose particular research methods, especially when those methods might harm species,
209 ecosystems, or people. We support these recommendations while recognising the reality that their
210 implementation will take time and may not cover every organisation, protected area, and situation.

211 212 *Consider carefully your field sampling in conservation science*

213 We recommend that conservation scientists consider at least the following questions when
214 conducting fieldwork, in addition to meeting legal requirements for permits and avoiding public
215 disclosure of sensitive threatened species locations (Table 1). We assume the investigators have
216 carefully considered whether the research is necessary, and if the ends justify the means.

- 217 1. Will any animals or plants be harmed by the research?
- 218 2. If so, are there less invasive or harmful methods to carry out the research and collect the
219 necessary data?
- 220 3. How long and over what area will the impacts of the research persist?

221
222 Researchers should set the highest standards, especially when working within protected areas and
223 areas that contain threatened species. For our part, as editors of *Biological Conservation*, we will
224 continue to question researchers and reject papers that do not meet reasonable standards of practice,
225 as per our journal policies (Table 1). We expect the authors who publish in our journal to set
226 examples of best practice for field research.

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- 340
- 341
- 342

343 Table 1. A checklist of ten considerations for respectful conduct during biological field sampling.

344

345

346

347 BEFORE

348

349 1. Justify any potential adverse impacts of the research in terms of advancing scientific
350 understanding;

351 2. Comply with the spirit of institutional and national regulations regarding research and
352 responsible care and use of animals, collecting samples and specimens, and working in
353 protected areas;

354 3. Apply the precautionary principle in assessing potential impact of the research on species
355 and their habitats. This includes inadvertent transport of pests, pathogens and introduced
356 species;

357

358 DURING

359

360 4. Avoid killing animals and plants, especially species of conservation concern and species in
361 protected areas;

362 5. Minimise disturbance to wildlife and habitats. Ensure that accidentally captured animals will
363 be carefully and immediately released alive;

364 6. Minimise stress to animals that are sampled or handled;

365

366 AFTER

367

368 7. Remove research equipment and materials from study sites;

369 8. Maximise future benefits of research by archiving samples for future research and
370 educational use;

371 9. Promptly report information that responsible authorities should know, such as, pollution,
372 and rare and invasive species observations;

373 10. Publish findings and data in publicly accessible permanent archives for use in future
374 research, education and management.

375

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