

1 **Title:**

2 The impact factor fallacy

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15 **Author contributions:**

16 FMP, NC, and SK wrote the manuscript.

17 **Running title:** The impact factor fallacy

18 **Word count abstract:** 135

19 **Word count manuscript (including footnotes):** 4,055

20 **Number of tables:** 1

21 **Number of figures:** 0

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## **Abstract**

23           The use of the journal impact factor (JIF) as a measure for the quality of individual  
24 manuscripts and the merits of scientists has faced significant criticism in recent years. We add to  
25 the current criticism in arguing that such an application of the JIF in policy and decision making  
26 in academia is based on false beliefs and unwarranted inferences. To approach the problem, we  
27 use principles of deductive and inductive reasoning to illustrate the fallacies that are inherent to  
28 using journal based metrics for evaluating the work of scientists. In doing so, we elaborate that if  
29 we judge scientific quality based on the JIF or other journal based metrics we are either guided by  
30 invalid or weak arguments or in fact consider our uncertainty about the quality of the work and  
31 not the quality itself.

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## Introduction

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The journal impact factor (JIF) was initially used to help librarians make decisions about journals (Garfield, 2006). However, during the last decades the usage of the JIF has significantly changed. In deviating from its original purpose it is now widely used to evaluate the quality of individual publications and the work of scientists (Amin & Mabe, 2003; Arnold & Fowler, 2010). Since then, the measure itself has been criticized for various reasons. For example, it is well known that the JIF is an inaccurate estimate for the expected number of citations of an article within a specific journal (Callaway, 2016; Lariviere et al., 2016) and that it is relatively easy to manipulate (McVeigh & Mann, 2009; Tort, Targino, & Amaral, 2012). Nonetheless, the JIF has deeply affected the work of scientists and decision making in academia. Scientists get jobs, tenure, grants, and bonuses based on the impact of the journals they are publishing their manuscripts in, outgrowths' which were critically discussed in many previous reviews, comments and editorials (Casadevall & Fang, 2014; Della Sala & Crawford, 2007; DePellegrin & Johnston, 2015; Lehmann, Jackson, & Lautrup, 2006; Reich, 2013; Seglen, 1997; Simons, 2008; Werner, 2015, and please see Brembs, Button, & Munafò, 2013 for very thorough analyses of the detrimental effects of the JIF). Notably, the JIF has also been explicitly referred to as a tool to decide how to distribute funds across institutions, for example in Germany (German Science Foundation [DFG], 2004), and thereby affects policy making on a much larger scale.

"For the calculation of the performance-based bonus of the unit providing the service (department or clinic) the original publications may be used with the unweighted impact factor of the publication organ, in the sense of a step-wise introduction of quality criteria.

53           Thereby, a first- and last authorship may be considered with one third each and the  
54           remaining third can be distributed across all remaining authors [...]."<sup>1</sup>

55           Besides such explicit usage of the JIF for evaluating scientific excellence, the JIF also  
56           implicitly affects other measures which have been suggested to better approximate the quality of  
57           a scientist's work or of a specific study (e.g. the h-index, Hirsch, 2005 and the Relative Citation  
58           Ratio (RCR), Hutchins, Yuan, Anderson, & Santangelo, 2015). For example, there is some  
59           evidence that the number of citations of an article is influenced by the JIF of the journal where  
60           the article was published, regardless of the quality of the article itself (Brembs et al., 2013;  
61           Callaham, Wears, & Weber, 2002; Cantrill, 2016; Lozano, Larivière, & Gingras, 2012). This  
62           implies that measures that are based on the citations of the individual articles are still influenced  
63           by the JIF of the publication organ. With the many different ways of how the JIF can influence  
64           decision making in academia, it is not surprising that empirical data now demonstrate the JIF to  
65           be one of the most powerful predictors for academic success (Van Dijk, Manor, & Carey,  
66           2014). We could recently show that some scientists may have adapted to these reward principles  
67           in their environment by showing a greater reward signal in the brain's reward structures in the  
68           prospect of an own high impact publication (Paulus, Rademacher, Schäfer, Müller-Pinzler, &  
69           Krach, 2015).

70           In line with the rising initiatives to prevent the use of the JIF for evaluating the quality of  
71           science (see e.g. the DORA initiative, Alberts, 2013, Cagan, 2013 or the report of the (German

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<sup>1</sup>"Für die Berechnung der LOM [leistungsorientierte Mittel; remark of authors] der jeweiligen leistungserbringenden Einheit (Abteilung bzw. Klinik) kann im Sinne einer stufenweisen Einführung von Qualitätskriterien die Bewertung erfolgter Original-Publikationen unter Verwendung des ungewichteten Impact Faktor der jeweiligen Publikationsorgane (JIF) erfolgen. Dabei können Erst- und Letztautorschaft mit je einem Drittel berücksichtigt werden; das verbleibende Drittel kann auf alle übrigen Autoren verteilt werden [...]" (German Science Foundation [DFG], 2004, p. 15).

72 Council of Science and Humanities [Wissenschaftsrat], 2015), we have considerable doubts that  
73 the arguments in support of using the JIF for measuring scientific excellence are justified. In this  
74 comment we want to look at the problem of using the JIF from a different perspective and  
75 carefully (re)evaluate the arguments for its use as an estimate of scientific quality. Thereby, we  
76 hope to better understand the beliefs about the JIF that influence decisions in academia and the  
77 implications of policies that use the JIF to assess and remunerate scientific quality. Beyond the  
78 specific case of the JIF, this exercise might also help to specify more general misconceptions  
79 when using journal based properties to evaluate science, in order to overcome incentive structures  
80 based on journal based metrics altogether.

### 81 **Deductive fallacy when using the JIF**

82 A basic belief when using the JIF for evaluating the quality of a specific manuscript  
83 seems to be that (1) if a paper is published in a high impact factor journal ( $p$ ) then the paper is of  
84 high quality ( $q$ )<sup>2</sup>. Why would scientists believe this? A straightforward reason is the idea that it is  
85 more difficult to publish in a high impact factor journal because higher standards of research  
86 quality and novelty have to be passed in order to be accepted. The average number of citations of  
87 a journal's articles within in a specific time period signals the average breadth of interest in these  
88 articles during that time period, which can of course be affected by many factors other than  
89 research quality. But as a first approximation, let us suppose that belief (1) is the case. What can  
90 we conclude from it? If we see a paper published in a high impact factor journal, we could then  
91 draw the deductively valid inference of modus ponens (MP: *if  $p$  then  $q$ ,  $p$ , therefore  $q$* )<sup>3</sup> and

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<sup>2</sup> When we speak of "high" and "low" impact in this paper, the arguments we make are independent of whether "high" and "low" refer to the absolute JIF of a journal, or to the JIF relative to a specific research domain.

<sup>3</sup> Here  $p$  and  $q$  stand for arbitrary propositions. For example,  $p$  might stand for "This paper is published in a high impact factor journal" and  $q$  for "This paper is of high quality".

92 conclude that the paper is of high quality. But what if we see a paper published in a low impact  
93 factor journal? Can we draw any conclusions in this case?

94 One aspect of the impact factor fallacy could be operationalized as the tendency to draw  
95 the deductively invalid inference of *denial of the antecedent* (DA: *if p then q, not-p, therefore*  
96 *not-q*). This inference is deductively invalid because it is logically consistent for the premises *if p*  
97 *then q* and *not-p* to be true and yet the conclusion *not-q* to be false. When the premises of an  
98 inference can be true and at the same time the conclusion false, the inference does not preserve  
99 truth when going from premises to conclusion. In order to argue that the conclusion is not false in  
100 a particular case, we would therefore have to go beyond this argument and provide further  
101 information that might increase support for the conclusion.

102 For the more realistic case that the premises and conclusion are uncertain, such that they  
103 can not only be either true or false, but can be held with varying degrees of belief, the inference  
104 of DA is probabilistically invalid (p-invalid) because there are coherent<sup>4</sup> probability assignments  
105 to premises and conclusion for which the probability of the conclusion is lower than the sum of  
106 the probabilities of the premises (Adams, 1998; Over, 2016). Therefore, just like in the binary  
107 case DA does not preserve truth from premises to conclusion, in the probabilistic case DA does  
108 not preserve probability from premises to conclusion, so that it would be warranted to have a high  
109 degree of belief in the premises and yet a very low degree of belief in the conclusion. In order to  
110 justify the conclusion in a particular instantiation of the argument, we would have to bring further  
111 information into the discussion beyond that contained in the premises. Applied to the JIF  
112 example, suppose we assume that if a paper is published in a high impact factor journal, it is of

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<sup>4</sup> Two statements are *coherent* if and only if they respect the axioms of probability theory. For example, these axioms state that if we believe it is 80% likely to rain, then in order for our beliefs to be coherent we should also be willing to believe that it is 20% likely not to rain, otherwise the probabilities involved would not sum up to 1.

113 high quality, and then encounter a paper that is published in a low impact factor journal. From  
114 this alone it is not justified to conclude that the paper we encountered is not of high quality. In  
115 order to draw such a conclusion we would require more information.

116 Denial of the antecedent (DA) is of course not the only inference one can draw on the  
117 basis of the conditional belief that if a paper is published in a high impact factor journal, then it is  
118 of high quality. A similar, deductively valid inference results if we add a further premise to DA:  
119 "If a paper is not published in a high impact factor journal, then it is not of high quality". One can  
120 combine this new conditional premise with the conditional premise that we already had: "If a  
121 paper is published in a high impact factor journal, then it is of high quality", to obtain the  
122 following biconditional premise: "A paper is published in a high impact factor journal if and only  
123 if it is of high quality". From this biconditional premise (or equivalently from the two conditional  
124 premises) together with the premise that a specific paper was not published in a high impact  
125 factor journal, one can indeed validly conclude that the paper is not of high quality. However, this  
126 inference will only be useful if one believes the biconditional premise to a non-negligible degree  
127 in the first place. If the biconditional premise is implausible, then any deductively valid  
128 conclusion based on it will also tend to be implausible, precisely because it follows logically  
129 from an implausible starting assumption. Considering that most scientists are likely to agree that  
130 it is not only implausible but false that a paper is of high quality if and only if it is published in a  
131 high impact factor journal, the fact that the inference from this biconditional is valid has no use  
132 for practical purposes.

### 133 **Inductive fallacies when using the JIF**

134 One could argue that deduction, and with it logical validity, has little impact on actual  
135 reasoning and decision making outside of the mathematics classroom, and that therefore the  
136 inferences we should be looking at when analysing the use of the JIF in the practice of science

137 should rather be inductive (Baratgin & Politzer, 2016; Chater, Oaksford, Hahn, & Heit, 2011;  
138 Evans, 2002; Oaksford & Hahn, 2007).

139 An inductive inference that might describe well the use of the impact factor is the  
140 informal fallacy of the *argument from ignorance* (or its Latin equivalent "ad ignorantiam"). This  
141 argument tries to justify a conclusion by pointing out that there is no evidence against it. Typical  
142 examples could be "No side effects were found for this treatment in clinical trials. Therefore this  
143 treatment is safe" or "No one has proven that ghosts do not exist. Therefore ghosts exist" (Hahn  
144 & Oaksford, 2007; Oaksford & Hahn, 2004, 2007). In the case of the JIF, if a paper comes from a  
145 high impact journal this can be seen as a sign suggesting it is an excellent piece of work. But as  
146 we saw above in the discussion of DA, this does not imply that if the paper was published in a  
147 low impact factor journal this is a sign suggesting that the quality of the paper is low. A more  
148 precise description of the situation would be that a low impact factor journal lacks the sign of  
149 high quality that a high JIF provides. If a paper is published in a low impact journal then we have  
150 less information about its quality, rather than having information suggesting that its quality is  
151 low. It is an argument from ignorance to use the absence of impact factor based evidence for high  
152 quality to conclude that a paper is of low quality.

153 However, the argument from ignorance is not always a bad argument (Hahn & Oaksford,  
154 2007, 2012). Its strength depends on how informative the lack of information about something  
155 being the case is in the situation at hand. Suppose we search a book in a library catalogue and do  
156 not find it. In this case it is reasonable to use the lack of information about the book in the  
157 catalogue to conclude that the book is not in the library. Similarly, if we look at a train timetable  
158 and do not see a particular town listed, it is reasonable to conclude that the train does not stop in  
159 that town. However, suppose we are planning a party and have invited the whole department, in  
160 the hope that a particular person we are attracted to will attend. In this case a lack of information

161 indicating that the person will come does not warrant the conclusion that the person will not  
162 come. Catalogues and timetables are fairly closed environments in which we can expect all  
163 relevant information to be stated explicitly. But environments like those of social interactions or  
164 research endeavours are typically more open, so that the absence of information about something  
165 being the case simply does not warrant us to conclude that it is not the case. A consequence for  
166 the JIF would be that low impact publications do not signal low research quality, but rather  
167 uncertainty about the quality and the need to gather more information in order to be able to  
168 determine research quality.

169         Two further inductive inferences that might be relevant in accounting for the use of the  
170 JIF are the informal fallacies of the *argument from authority* (also called by the Latin name "*ad*  
171 *verecundiam*"), and of the *ad hominem argument* (Bhatia & Oaksford, 2015; Hahn & Hornikx,  
172 2016). The argument from authority tries to justify a conclusion by pointing out that some expert  
173 or authority endorses the conclusion. Typical examples could be "Scientist x says that the  
174 treatment is safe. Therefore the treatment is safe", "My parents say that Santa Claus exists.  
175 Therefore Santa Claus exists" or "My peers say that clothing item x is great. Therefore clothing  
176 item x is great". In the case of the JIF, a high impact factor of a journal would play the role of an  
177 authority for the quality of the papers within it.

178         In contrast, the *ad hominem argument* tries to justify the rejection of a conclusion by  
179 pointing to personal attributes of a person that endorses it. Typical examples could be "The new  
180 treatment was developed by a person with no formal degree in the subject. Therefore the  
181 treatment is not safe", or "A person without a driver's license says "don't drink alcohol while  
182 driving". Therefore, it is false that you should not drink alcohol while driving". In the case of the  
183 JIF, a low impact factor would be used to give a journal a reputation of low quality, and this low  
184 quality reputation would then be transferred to the papers within it.



209 Not only because the mean number of citations of the papers in a journal is an indicator of the  
210 average breadth of interest in these papers during the first years after publication, which is not the  
211 same as research quality (e. g. a high quality paper may have low citation rates because it is  
212 addressed to a small, highly specialised audience, or because its significance is only realised five  
213 years after publication; and a paper may have high citation rates because of highly consequential  
214 flaws within it). But more specifically, it is often not warranted because the inference from a  
215 metric defined at the journal level to the features of an individual paper within that journal  
216 involves an ecological fallacy.

### 217 **Ecological fallacy when using the JIF**

218 Finally, the evaluation of manuscripts based on the JIF bears an ecological fallacy. When  
219 comparing group level data, such as the average citations of journals, it is difficult up to  
220 impossible to infer the likelihood of the outcome for comparisons on the individual level, such as  
221 citations of manuscripts. In fact, it is relatively easy to think of examples where the likelihood to  
222 find a manuscript with more than twelve citations per year in a lower impact journal exceeds the  
223 likelihood of finding such manuscript in a higher impact journal. This type of ecological fallacy  
224 occurs when the distribution of citations is heavily and differentially skewed within each higher  
225 level unit, i.e. the journals. This is typically the case when it comes to citation rates of journals  
226 (see e.g. Lariviere et al., 2016). Accordingly, a journal with a JIF of twelve might contain few  
227 manuscripts that were cited several hundred times in the previous two years, but many others that  
228 were not cited at all during the same period. Such a citation pattern would result in a heavily  
229 skewed distribution of citations per article, while another journal with a JIF of ten might have a  
230 normally distributed citation rate of articles for the same time period. Without further knowledge  
231 of the distribution of citations within the journals in a given year (i.e. information at the  
232 individual level) concluding that a manuscript in the journal with a higher JIF is of better quality

233 (or of broader interest) involves an ecological fallacy, because it is possible that the likelihood of  
234 finding a manuscript with more citations in the lower impact journal is in fact similar or even  
235 higher.

### 236 **Concluding remarks**

237 With this comment, we hope to have highlighted some misconceptions in the beliefs and  
238 arguments involved in using journal based metrics, and specifically the JIF, for evaluating the  
239 work of scientists. While some of the thoughts described here are introduced to illustrate the most  
240 controversial arguments, others better approximate the reality of decision making in academia. In  
241 this exercise, it is surprising to see many political and academic institutions as well as scientists  
242 having believed for so long that they are evaluating the "quality of science" while they are keen  
243 to provide weak arguments, draw invalid conclusions, or weigh their lack of information and  
244 uncertainty about the subject when using the JIF.

245 From an economic perspective, however, it might in fact be a successful strategy to  
246 minimize the uncertainty about the quality of the evaluated work, person, or institution by relying  
247 on the JIF, and it might also be better to have a weak argument than to have no argument.  
248 Evaluating the quality of a scientist's work surely is a time-consuming process and it takes much  
249 more effort than simply comparing impact factors. Accordingly, deans, commissions, or  
250 institutions which might not have the resources for an actual assessment of "scientific excellence"  
251 have reasons to rely on the JIF. However, it should be clear that those decisions are not based on  
252 the *quality* of the scientific contribution per se but, optimistically, somehow integrate the  
253 *availability of information* about the quality. This distinction makes an important difference for  
254 communicating and justifying decisions in academia. As an illustrative example, one can  
255 compare the situation of deciding that a candidate does not deserve tenure because one thinks that  
256 the quality of the work was not good enough, to deciding that a candidate does not deserve tenure

257 because one lacks information and is uncertain whether the quality of the work was good enough.  
258 While persons and institutions usually *communicate* as if they were following the first argument,  
259 their *justification* most often implies the latter if they base their decisions on journal based  
260 metrics.

261 The JIF is arguably the most popular journal based metric of our times, but it has already  
262 been subject to severe criticism in the past (Brembs et al., 2013; Della Sala & Crawford, 2007;  
263 DePellegrin & Johnston, 2015; Lehmann et al., 2006; Reich, 2013; Seglen, 1997; Simons, 2008;  
264 Werner, 2015). As a result, it seems that (some) individuals and institutions within the scientific  
265 community are ready to shake off the JIF at some point in the nearer future (Alberts, 2013;  
266 Cagan, 2013; Callaway, 2016). We want to point out that the problems described here apply in  
267 one way or another to any journal based assessment. If journals would drop out of the ‘impact  
268 factor game’ (PLoS Medicine Editorial, 2006) publications in some journals might still be  
269 regarded as more valuable than in others. It is difficult to quantify those influences, but having a  
270 publication in one of the ‘golden club’ journals (Reich, 2013) could simply replace the metric of  
271 the JIF with another, more implicit qualitative measure for distinguishing prestigious from less  
272 prestigious journals. Thereby, the fallacies and problems described above would continue to  
273 govern decision making in academia as long as we base them on any kind of journal based  
274 assessment and the rank of publication organs.

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## Acknowledgments

278 We would like to thank Inês Mares and Mike Oaksford for helpful comments and  
279 discussion on an earlier draft of this manuscript.

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## Tables

*Table 1.* The deductive and inductive fallacies discussed in this paper.

Name	Form	Plausible Example	Implausible Example	Journal Impact Factor Example
<b>Deductive fallacy</b>				
Denial of the antecedent	<i>If p then q. Not-p. Therefore not-q.</i>	If the glass falls down then it breaks. The glass does not fall down. Therefore, the glass does not break.	If you carry an umbrella then you stay dry. You do not carry an umbrella. Therefore, you do not stay dry.	If a paper is published in a high impact factor journal, then it is of high quality. This paper is not published in a high impact factor journal. Therefore, this paper is not of high quality.
<b>Inductive fallacies</b>				
Argument from ignorance	<i>It is not known that p is true (false). Therefore p is false (true).</i>	The book is not listed in the library catalogue. Therefore, the book is not in the library.	No one has proven that ghosts do not exist. Therefore, ghosts exist.	This paper does not have the quality sign of having been published in a high impact factor journal. Therefore, this paper is not of high quality.
Argument from authority	<i>This expert says that p is true. Therefore p is true.</i>	Medical experts say that this treatment is safe. Therefore, this treatment is safe.	My parents say that Santa Claus exists. Therefore, Santa Claus exists.	This paper does not have the authority backing of having been published in a high impact factor journal. Therefore, this paper is not of high quality.
Ad hominem argument	<i>This untrustworthy person says that p is true. Therefore p is false.</i>	A person without training says that this treatment is safe. Therefore, this treatment is not safe.	A person without a driver's license says "don't drink alcohol while driving". Therefore, it is false that you should not drink alcohol while driving.	This paper was published in a journal with low quality reputation due to a low impact factor. Therefore, this paper is not of high quality.