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Woman Authorship in Pre-print Versus Peer-Reviewed Oral Health-Related Publications: A Two-Year Observational Study

Lavanya Rajendran¹, Namita Khandelwal,¹ Jocelyne Feine,² Effie Ioannidou^{1*}

¹Department of Periodontics, University of Connecticut School of Dental Medicine, Farmington, Connecticut, United States of America

²Oral Health and Society, Faculty of Dentistry, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada

* Corresponding author

Email: Ioannidou@uchc.edu

30 **Abstract:**

31 **Objectives:** Women in oral health science face similar societal issues and challenges as those in
32 other STEM careers, and gender disparities continue to exist as evidenced by fewer women
33 represented as first and last authors in scientific publications. Pre-prints may serve as a conduit to
34 immediately disseminating one's work, bypassing the arduous peer review process and its
35 associated inherent biases. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to 1] compare the gender of
36 first and last authors in pre-print versus peer reviewed publications, 2] examine the composition
37 of first and last author pairs as stratified by publication type, and 3] examine the correlation
38 between woman authorship and institutional geographic location and publication metrics
39 stratified by publication type. **Methods:** The keyword "oral health" was used to search for
40 publications in BioRxiv and Pubmed in the years 2018 and 2019. Gender of first and last authors
41 were determined, and its frequency was considered as the primary outcome. Additionally, the
42 geographic location of the author's associated institution and publication metrics measured by
43 Altmetrics score were extracted. Data was descriptively summarized by frequencies and
44 percentages. Chi-square analysis was conducted for categorical variables which included the
45 relationship between gender and publication type as well as gender and region of author's
46 associated institution. Binomial regression analysis was conducted to analyze the relationship
47 between gender and Altmetrics. **Results:** Woman first authors comprised 40.3% of pre-prints
48 and 64.5% of peer reviewed publications [$p < 0.05$]. Woman last authors comprised 31.3% of pre-
49 prints and 61.5% of peer reviewed publications [$p < 0.05$]. When analyzing the relationships
50 between first and last author, the Man-Man pairing represented 47.7% of the pre-print
51 publications and the Woman-Woman pairing comprised a majority of the of the peer review
52 publications at 47.5%. All results were statistically significant with a p-value < 0.05 . No

53 significant correlation was found between region of institution or Altmetrics and gender of first
54 or last authors [$p>0.05$]. **Conclusion:** For the first time in oral health science, it was found that
55 women show higher representation as first and last author positions in peer reviewed
56 publications versus pre-prints.

57 **Introduction:**

58 Women are increasingly entering careers in Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics,
59 and Medicine [STEMM].[1] However, gender disparities continue to exist as evidenced by the
60 low representation of women as first and last authors in scientific publications.[2] Output in the
61 form of research publications in peer reviewed journals is the principal measure of an
62 individual's scientific productivity, creativity and conduit for disseminating evidence, which
63 greatly influence the prominence and future career prospects in these fields for both men and
64 women.[1] Usually, the last author is the principal investigator of the research project and
65 frequently the person, who conceived the research idea and secured extramural funding, while
66 the first author is usually a junior or a trainee in ranking and the person, who conducted most of
67 the experiments and/or assisted in data interpretation.[3]

68 The issues surrounding women's presence in STEMM fields continue to be complex.[1,2] In
69 every step of the scientific publishing process, there has been evidence involving an inherent
70 gender bias.[4,5] The man dominated editorial boards have been found to influence the outcomes
71 of the publication process and ultimately act as a hindrance to women from being published in
72 peer reviewed journals.[2,5] In an effort to control the gender bias, some journals have
73 implemented a double-blind review process by masking both author and reviewer identities to
74 provide a sense of fairness and trust in the peer review process.[2,6] However, others have

75 adopted other forms of peer review including single blind and open reviews.[4] This invites other
76 forms of review bias such as content-based bias, conservatism bias, publication bias, and bias as
77 related to the author based on gender, affiliation, nationality etc.[4] Thus, the impartiality of the
78 peer review process has been widely challenged and may still act as a barrier to women's
79 success.[4]

80 In addition to the intrinsic bias of the editorial process, other studies have highlighted a major
81 obstacle women face as being their structural position; this limits their resources and ultimately,
82 their ability to publish their work to gain notability.[1,7] Given the strong social gender roles
83 imposed on women for centuries, often women are more likely to work as either adjuncts or take
84 on more subordinate roles in research projects, which may be a result of the choices women have
85 to make whether by choice or by obligation.[1] Parenthood plays a major role in the attrition of
86 women from full time STEMM careers. In a longitudinal study conducted by Cech et al, it has
87 been identified that while 43% of new mothers leave full time STEMM employment after their
88 first child, only 23% of new fathers leave their positions.[7] Women are viewed as less valuable,
89 competent, and committed to their work because of the social expectation to care for and devote
90 time to their children.[7] Frequently, working mothers retain part-time positions in STEMM
91 careers, with limited scientific productivity and, consequently, limited opportunities for
92 advancement.[7] Women's productivity may, therefore, be better quantified in the "short term"
93 rather than as "cumulative" over their entire careers, due to the various family and time
94 constraints women face, which force them to temporarily interrupt or permanently withdraw
95 from their positions.[6]

96 Since publishing scientific papers in peer reviewed journals is an arduous process, one may
97 bypass the time-consuming peer review and achieve immediate result dissemination by

98 publishing his or her work in pre-print platforms. These platforms have gained popularity
99 because they represent a transparent way to communicate research results, showcase
100 productivity/work and close the time-gap created by delays in the peer review process.[8,9]
101 Since pre-prints are easily accessible, they can propagate results, demonstrate completion of a
102 study and validate productivity especially during times of career transitions, grant applications,
103 or temporary leave of absence.[10] In addition, pre-prints have been frequently viewed as an
104 opportunity to receive input from the scientific community and improve the reporting quality of a
105 study prior to entering the peer-review process.[10] In the name of transparency and knowledge
106 sharing, pre-prints may facilitate scientific openness and allow for immediate knowledge
107 exchange.[10,11]

108 Although studies have investigated the gender gap in several STEMM careers, a study has
109 not been conducted in the field of oral health research comparing representation of woman
110 authorship in peer reviewed journals versus pre-print platforms. This comparison might assist in
111 further understanding the impact that pre-prints have on bridging the gender gap in authorship.
112 Oral health research broadly encompasses a range of diseases and conditions related to the oral
113 cavity and is often conducted by those in dental related fields. Women in dentistry face similar
114 societal issues and challenges as those in other STEMM careers.[12] Although the number of
115 women entering dentistry has been increasing, they continue to represent a small portion of the
116 larger academic population in dentistry.[12–16] The ADEA Comprehensive Faculty Survey
117 conducted in the academic year 2008 - 09 showed that 69% [i.e. 7,445] and 31% [i.e. 3,397] full
118 or part time positions were held by men and women, respectively. Of these 3,397 women, 1,784
119 were full-time, while the 1,571 were part-time [42 were not reported].[17] The trend has been

120 towards a slow increase in representation by women as suggested by a more recent survey in
121 2017-2018, where 63.2% of faculty positions held were men, and 36.8% were women.[18]

122 In addition to the overall low representation of women in academia throughout the years,
123 their trajectory for career advancement and attainment of high-level positions appears low. In a
124 2015 national study of women in academic dentistry conducted by Gadbury-Amyot et al reported
125 that of the 35.6% of the women who responded, 22.9%, 7.3%, 7.1% and 2.5% were in clinical
126 sciences, research, basic science, and behavioral science, respectively.[19] Overall, 92.4% of the
127 respondents reported holding leadership roles at their institutions.[19] Although this data appears
128 to be promising, it is not truly representative of the gender composition in dental academia.
129 Another 22 year observational study, which examined solely women authorship trends, found
130 that their presence as last authors was statistically significant in an upward trend over this time
131 period, which could be suggestive of women beginning to enter higher ranked positions.[13]
132 However, the percentage of women as last authors still remained lower than first authors,
133 indicating women are more likely to hold junior faculty positions. This is further evidenced in
134 another study conducted in 2017, which explored the gender differences in faculty productivity
135 in eight of the most highly funded dental schools.[12] Women were disproportionately
136 represented in assistant professor and professor positions and produced a significantly lower
137 number of last authored publications as well.[12]

138 If publications allow one to gain notability and achieve career advancements, pre-prints may
139 be a more appealing avenue to submit work, as it rids the obstacles of implicit bias and time
140 commitments that women face when submitting to peer reviewed journals. To investigate this,
141 we proposed the following hypothesis and specific aims:

142 **Hypothesis**

143 Given the inherent biases in the peer review process and the constraints and challenges of a
144 work-life balance that women face, we hypothesized that a greater number of women in oral
145 health research appear in first and last author positions in pre-print platforms compared to peer
146 reviewed journals. Therefore, we propose to investigate whether there is a difference in the
147 prevalence of publications authored by women between peer reviewed journals versus pre-print
148 platforms. To accomplish this, we developed the following Specific Aims:

149 **Specific Aims**

- 150 1.) To assess the representation of women as first and last authors in pre-print platforms
151 versus peer reviewed journals.
- 152 2.) To examine the composition of first and last author gender pairs as stratified by
153 publication type.
- 154 3.) To examine the correlation between women authorship position and institutional
155 geographic location and publication Altmetrics stratified by publication type.

156 **Methodological Design:**

157 **Experimental Design and Approach**

158 This was an observational bibliometric study. Studies were retrieved from BioRxiv and
159 Pubmed. BioRxiv was selected as the pre-print site as it has steadily shown an increase in the
160 number of publications per month since 2013 covering a wide spectrum of biological and
161 biomedical research manuscripts ranging from animal studies to clinical trials.[8] The search

162 strategy included a single keyword ["oral health"], which was applied in both searches. The
163 search filter applied restrictions to years 2018 and 2019 and English language. The search was
164 first run in BioRxiv. A matching number of articles were then randomly selected from PubMed
165 using the same keywords and filters. A list of numbers was randomly generated using
166 stattrek.com based on the ranking number of articles produced by the search. The abstracts were
167 read to ensure studies were related to oral health.

168 Studies were included only when the author affiliating institution was located in the U.S.
169 Studies were excluded if they were abstracts, letters to the editor, letters to the author and
170 position papers. Publications with authors that contributed equally as first and/or last authors
171 were excluded as well. If the gender of the author was unidentifiable, they were excluded from
172 the final data analysis.

173 **Data extraction**

174 Selection of articles was conducted based on inclusion and exclusion criteria, as outlined
175 above. Titles and abstracts were screened to confirm inclusion. Two authors independently
176 reviewed the included articles and applied the gender assignment rules as described below.
177 Disagreements were resolved after discussion and further research. A standardized data
178 extraction form was used to collect necessary data.

179 Author gender was considered as the primary outcome. Gender was assigned based on
180 probability determined by online search platform Genderize.io. We used a probability cutoff of
181 51% towards gender assignment decision. If the gender was uncertain, efforts were made to
182 identify the author's gender by performing an internet search and/or search of the affiliated
183 institutional website. If the gender was still not able to be identified by the aforementioned

184 methods, it was marked as unidentified and excluded from the final data analysis. Nominal
185 values were assigned to gender [0: Man, 1: Woman]. The collaboration between men and/or
186 women first and last author pairs were analyzed to understand if a certain combination had a
187 higher affinity towards publishing in one platform over the other. First and last author pairs were
188 recorded as nominal variables: 1: Woman-Woman, 2: Woman-Man, 3: Man-Woman, and 4:
189 Man-Man. If the publication was single authored, the author was considered as both first and
190 last author since the project was both developed and executed by one person. Single authored
191 publications were not included in the relationship analysis since they are not representative of
192 co/multiple authorship.

193 The type of publication (pre-print vs. peer reviewed) was considered the independent
194 variable. We additionally considered covariates in the analysis including geographic region and
195 Altmetrics score. All categorical variables were assigned nominal values. Publication type was
196 recorded as follows: 1: Preprint; 2: Peer review. Regional location of the author's affiliated
197 institution was recorded as: 1: Northeast, 2: South, 3: Midwest and 4: West, based on the Census
198 Regions and Divisions of the United States.[20] In an effort to use a publication metric that
199 applies to both pre-print and peer reviewed publications, we selected the Altmetrics score.
200 Altmetrics, was recorded as a continuous variable and was retrieved using the Altmetric platform
201 plug-in on August 4, 2020.

202 **Statistical Analysis**

203 Data was descriptively summarized by frequencies and percentages for categorical variables.
204 Chi-square analysis was conducted for categorical variables which included publication type and
205 gender, and institutional region and gender. The analyses were conducted for first and last

206 authors separately, as well as, for the composition of first and last author pairs. Binomial
207 regression analysis was conducted to analyze the relationship between gender as the dependent
208 categorical variable and Altmetrics as the continuous independent variable. P-values less than
209 5% were deemed to be statistically significant. All the analyses were performed in SPSS Version
210 26.

211 **Results**

212 Of the 2,954 search results for the term “oral health” on bioRxiv posted between January 1, 2018
213 and December 31, 2019, 71 publications met the inclusion criteria. Seventy-one publications
214 were then randomly selected from the 31,012 results from PubMed using the same search term
215 and time period. Four peer review publications were single authored, 2 of which were authored
216 by women and 2 by men. Single authored papers were counted as both first and last author
217 positions. However, they were excluded from the analysis of publication type as first and last
218 author pairs since they were not representative of a collaborative effort. Publications with first or
219 last authors whose gender was unidentifiable were not included in the data analysis. Given that
220 only the first initials were provided for these authors, we were unable to assign gender using the
221 predefined methods. As a result, 4 publications were excluded including 2 pre-prints and 2 peer
222 reviewed publications. Overall, 2.81% of the authors were unidentifiable.

223 Overall, out of the 69 preprints and 69 peer review publications included in the final analysis,
224 women comprised 52.3% of first author position and 46.2% of last author position.

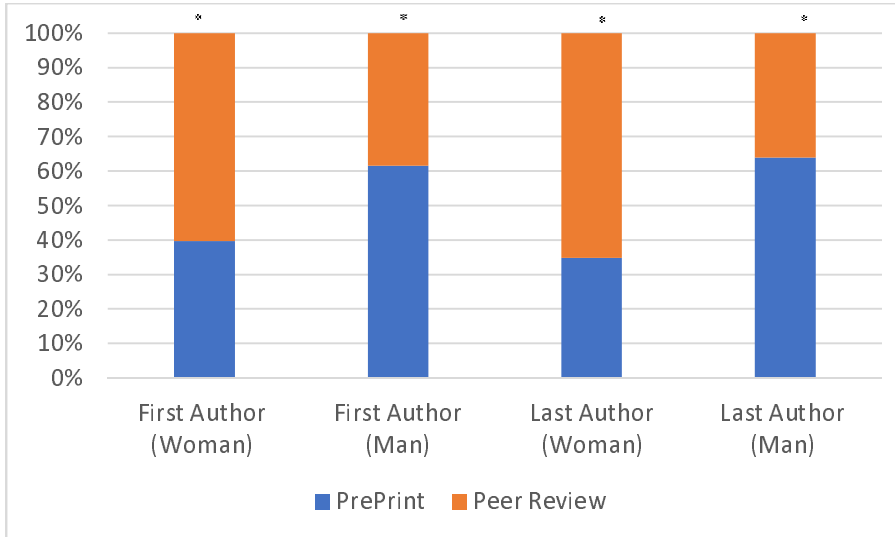
225 **Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Woman and Man Authorship in Pre-Prints versus Peer** 226 **Review Publications**

Pre-Print	Region
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	N	Mean Altmetric Score	Northeast (n)	South (n)	Midwest (n)	West (n)
First Author [Man]	40	7.13	14	11	6	9
First Author [Woman]	29	10.07	9	13	3	4
Last Author [Man]	46	7.4	15	18	7	6
Last Author [Woman]	23	8.89	8	8	2	5
Peer-Review						
	N	Mean Altmetric Score	Northeast (n)	South (n)	Midwest (n)	West (n)
First Author [Man]	25	2.52	6	4	7	8
First Author [Woman]	44	5	13	12	6	13
Last Author [Man]	26	4.98	8	4	6	8
Last Author [Woman]	43	2.65	8	14	8	13

227 Contrary to the hypothesis, a greater percentage of women first and last authors was observed in
 228 peer reviewed journal articles, while men comprised a higher percentage of the respective
 229 authorship positions in pre-prints. Woman first authors comprised 42.0% of preprints and 63.8%
 230 of peer reviewed publications. Woman last authors comprised 33.3% of preprints and 62.3% of
 231 peer review publications (Fig 1).

232 **Figure 1. Gender of First and Last Author in Pre-prints vs Peer-review publications**



233

234 p-value determined using χ^2 test

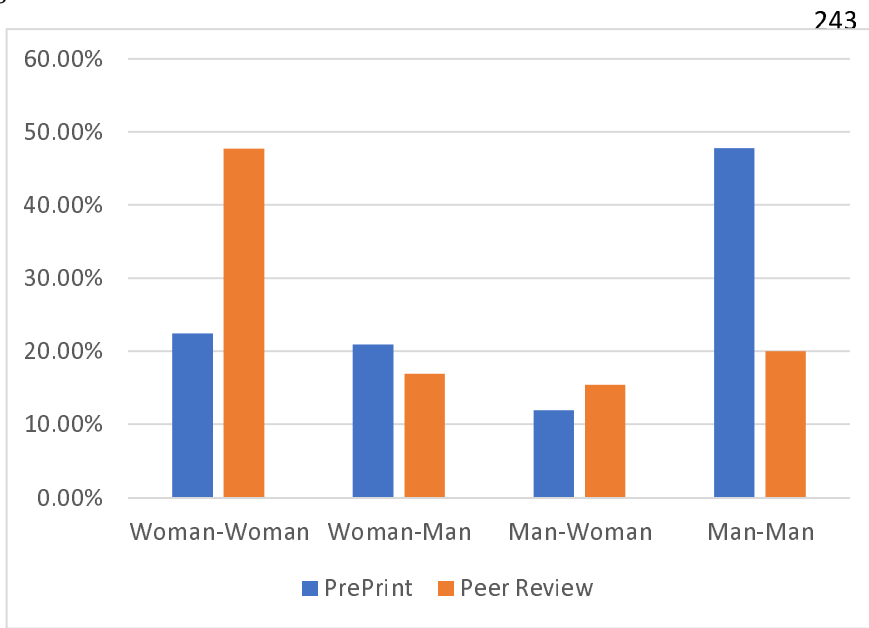
235 *Denotes significant p-value (<0.05)

236

237 Author Gender Pairs: When analyzing the relationships between first and last author pairs, we
238 found that the Man-Man author pairs represented 47.7% of the preprint publications and the
239 Woman-Woman author pairs comprised majority of the of the peer review publications at 47.7%
240 (Fig 2). All results were found to be statistically significant with a p value <0.05.

241

242 **Figure 2. First and Last Author Pairs in Pre-Print vs Peer Review publications**



262 p-value determined using χ^2 test

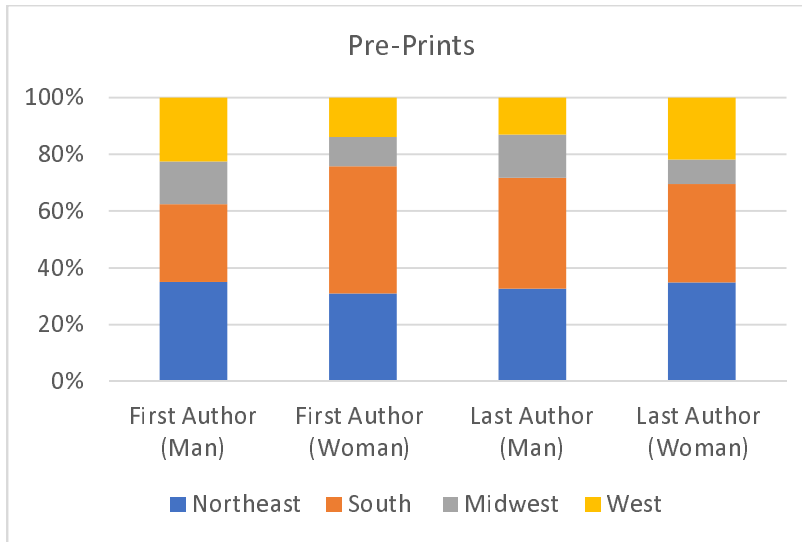
263 *Denotes significant p-value (<0.05)

264

265 Author distribution per geographic location: When analyzing the distribution of first and last
266 author based on geographic location of the affiliated institution, pre-prints appeared to be more
267 common in the Northeast and South, whereas peer review publications were more prevalent in
268 the Northeast and West. The distribution based on gender varied and no significant correlation
269 was found between geographic location of the author's institution and gender of either first or
270 last author ($p > 0.05$) (Fig 3).

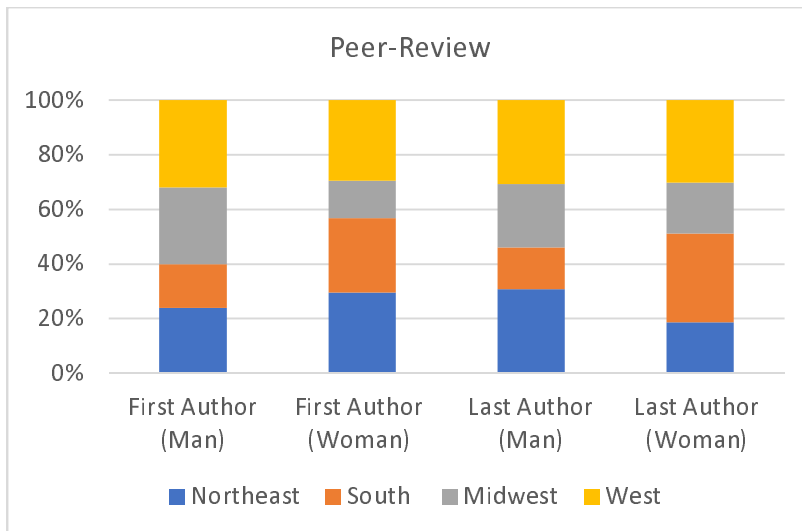
271 **Figure 3. Regional Distribution of Woman and Man First and Last Author**

272 a.)



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274 b.)



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276

277 Publication Impact based on Altmetric score: Preprint publications with women first authors had
278 a higher mean Altmetric score than preprints with men first authors (10.07 ± 15.86 vs 7.13 ± 7.78 ,
279 respectively). Peer reviewed publications with woman first and last authors also had a higher
280 mean Altmetric score than men (5.00 ± 9.93 , 4.98 ± 9.7 versus 2.52 ± 4.02 , 2.65) respectively (Fig
281 4). However, no significant correlation was found between Altmetrics and gender of first or last
282 authors ($p > 0.05$).

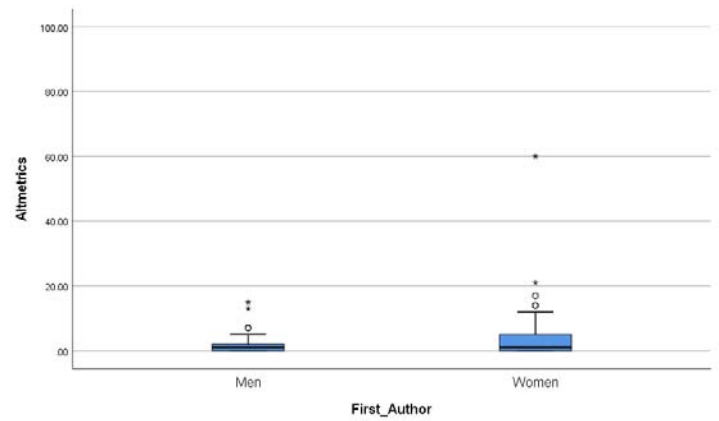
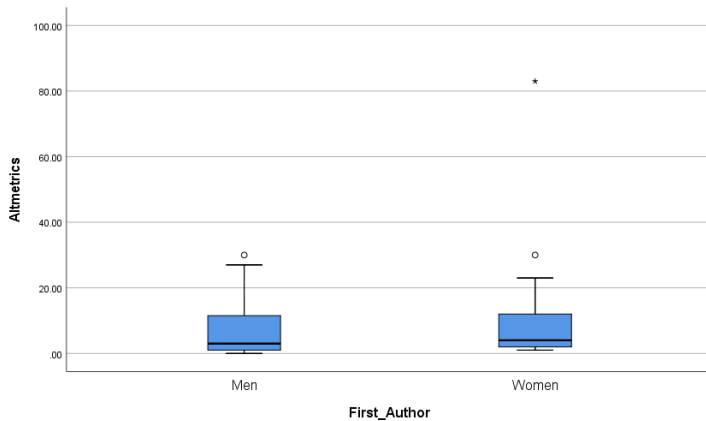
283 **Table 4. Altmetric Scores of First and Last Authors in Pre-Print versus Peer Reviewed**
 284 **Publications**

Pre-Print		
	Altmetrics Score \pm SD [Range]	P Value
First Author [Man]	7.13 \pm 7.78 [0.0-30.0]	0.333
First Author [Woman]	10.07 \pm 15.86 [1.0-83.0]	
Last Author [Man]	8.89 \pm 13.485 [1.0-83.0]	0.603
Last Author [Woman]	7.4 \pm 7.75 [0.0-30.0]	
Peer Review		
	Altmetrics Score \pm SD [Range]	P Value
First Author [Man]	2.52 \pm 4.02 [0.0-15.0]	0.259
First Author [Woman]	5.00 \pm 9.93 [0.0-60.0]	
Last Author [Man]	2.65 \pm 5.2 [0.0-21.0]	0.291
Last Author [Woman]	4.98 \pm 9.71 [0.0-60.0]	

285 **Figure 4. Altmetric Scores of First and Last Authors in Pre-Prints and Peer Reviewed**
 286 **Publications**

287 a.)

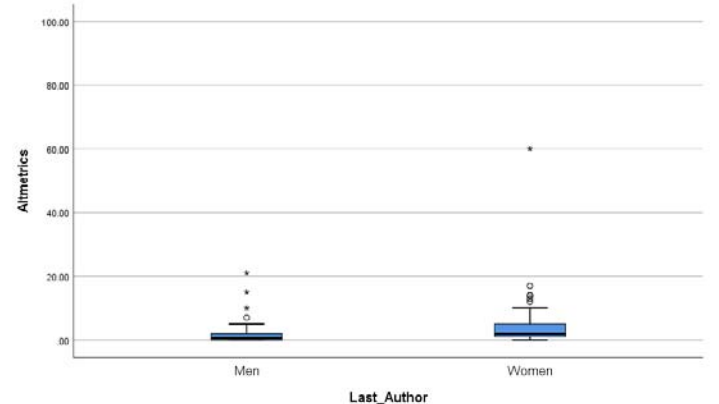
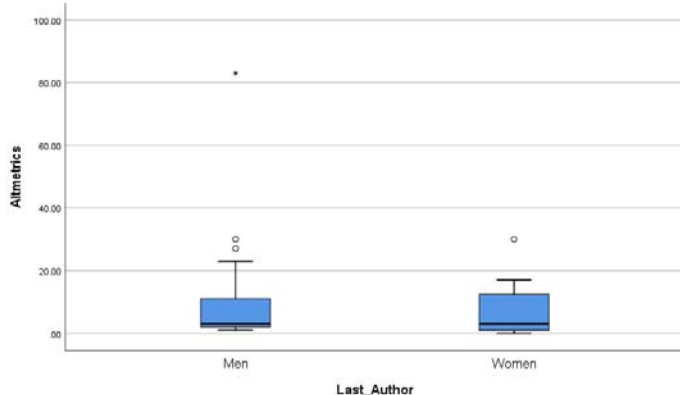
c.)



289

290 b.)

d.)



292
293 a,b.) Altmetric Scores of First and Last Authors in Pre-Prints; c,d.) Altmetric Scores of First and
294 Last Authors in Peer Reviewed Publications

295 ○ Represents mild outlier

296 ★ Represents extreme outlier

297

298 An interesting secondary observation from this study was the frequency of pre-print publications
299 that were also published in a peer-reviewed journals. Following the pre-print stage, 70.4% of the
300 71 preprint publications, were published in peer review journals.

301 **Discussion**

302 This bibliometric study compared woman representation as first or last authors between pre-
303 print and peer reviewed publications and found that there is a greater frequency of woman
304 authors in peer reviewed publications than pre-prints. It was hypothesized that because of the
305 protracted editorial process and associated inherent biases, that women may have embraced the
306 pre-print process to disseminate their work relatively quickly. Indeed, the median time from
307 submission to acceptance has been approximately 100 days, while journals with higher impact
308 factors have review times of 150 days.[21] The time from acceptance to publication has dropped
309 due to improvements in technology to just under 25 days.[21] The entire process on average
310 could take about 4 months but journal shopping, revisions, and resubmissions could add wait
311 time and make the process much longer.[21] Despite these potential publication delays, women
312 were seen at a higher prevalence in peer reviewed publications in the present study.

313 A possible explanation for these results could be that women, who tend to be more risk
314 averse, may be more reluctant than men to publish on a platform that has only begun to gain
315 recognition and acceptance in the recent years, especially in the biological science and medical
316 fields.[11,22] In studies that have evaluated gender risk differences in various domains such as

317 health, recreation, social etc., women were less inclined towards risk taking due to their
318 perceived risk of negative outcomes.[22] Gender differences in risk aversion can be extrapolated
319 to academia and is likely a consequence of socially constructed publications tactics.[23]
320 Decisions about where to submit, how often and whether to resubmit a rejected paper has been
321 influenced by interactions in social networks and collaborative relationships which vary by
322 gender.[23] In a survey study conducted by Djupe et al[23] in the political sciences, it was found
323 that women were more likely than men to submit their work to a journal most likely to accept it,
324 whereas men were more likely to initially submit to a top tier journal. This may be suggestive of
325 young men scholars receiving more praise and encouragement to boost submission frequency,
326 while they may feel more tolerable to the disappointing effects of rejection.[23,24] On the other
327 hand, women being the minority in most STEMM fields, face higher expectations and have been
328 more likely to underestimate their quality of work.[25] This has been shown in economic
329 research, where women generally publish better written research and improved writing skills
330 when compared to men.[25]

331 Although there is not a risk of rejection *per se* in pre-print publications, the potential negative
332 feedback and perception of one's work prior to a formal editorial process could deter women
333 from submitting to pre-print platforms. If women tend to be more risk averse, conscientious, and
334 critical of their work, the supposed associated challenges of pre-prints may prevent them from
335 publishing on these websites; however, many of these supposed challenges have been mitigated.
336 For example, there is the assumption that one may run into the risk of having his or her ideas
337 "scooped" prior to publication.[26] However, this is unlikely as pre-print servers time stamp
338 submissions and provide a digital object identifier (DOI), which establishes ownership of an
339 idea.[11] Additional hesitation could exist based on the way other scientists will evaluate or view

340 one's work.[10] Although published pre-prints are checked for scientific validity, the concern
341 remains that substandard work may be distributed, since they have not gone through an official
342 peer review process, instilling skepticism.[26] However, when comparing the quality of articles
343 published in bioRxiv and PubMed using a reporting quality questionnaire, a minimal difference
344 of 5% was detected, favoring peer reviewed articles.[27] When pre-prints were compared to their
345 own peer reviewed versions, a 4.7% percent difference was found.[27] In addition, as of March
346 2017, the NIH enabled investigators to use pre-print drafts in grant proposals to speed the
347 distribution and improve the rigor of one's work.[28] The marginal differences seen between
348 pre-prints and peer reviewed versions and inclusion of pre-prints as citable sources has supported
349 the idea that pre-prints should be considered scientifically valid contributions. [27,28]

350 In addition to the aforementioned challenges, structural support has been said to be lacking
351 for pre-prints, as institutions and granting agencies do not have a way to objectively evaluate the
352 pre-prints.[10] Some journals accept the pre-print manuscripts, whereas others may not find them
353 compatible as they may be considered prior publications.[10] Double publication is prohibited by
354 virtually all journals, which may instill doubt in those who plan to distribute their work on pre-
355 print servers.[29] However, a recent study assessed the pre-print policies of 100 top-ranked
356 clinical journals. 86% of journals allowed pre-prints, 13% of journals evaluated pre-prints and
357 accepted or rejected on a case-by-case basis and only 1% prohibited pre-prints completely. [30]
358 Although apprehension may still exist, the increased acceptance of pre-prints in all facets could
359 encourage more women in oral health research to promote their work on pre-print websites,
360 bridging the gender gap observed in this study.

361 When analyzing the gender pairs of first and last author, an overall pattern of gender
362 homophily was apparent as evidenced in previous studies in STEMM fields.[23,31,32] A study

363 by Holman et al [31] found that researchers tend to work with same gendered colleagues across
364 disciplines in the life sciences, which included dentistry. There are several speculated reasons as
365 to why men tend to collaborate with men and women with other women.[23,31] There may be
366 exclusivity amongst established researchers, specifically in male dominated specialties, resulting
367 in male homophily.[31] Women may be more likely to promote other women in order to close
368 the gender gap and, as a result, work together.[31] Gender homophily could also merely be a
369 result of working more closely with those that are like-minded or have a similar work
370 ethic.[31,33] Collaborative efforts in research have been shown to increase productivity and
371 gender patterns related to this have been investigated.[23,33] In the same survey study
372 previously mentioned by Djupe et al, [23] it was found that co-authorship amongst men in the
373 political sciences has shown greater benefits in number of submissions and publications when
374 compared with collaboration between women. In this study, however, the investment return of
375 woman-woman co-authorship appeared to be greater than the co-authorship between men in peer
376 reviewed publications, whereas the opposite held true for pre-prints.

377 Geographic location has been studied on a global scale in relation to the gender gap in
378 STEMM fields and specifically in the dental field.[34] It has been shown that there are
379 significant differences in the number of women in dental research in various countries.[34]
380 Therefore, it was decided to look at women authorship based on regional location and observe
381 any differences within the U.S. itself. Certain regions of the United States have a greater
382 concentration of dental institutions and, therefore, it was thought that regional differences may
383 influence the number of publishers. However, the gender of the first and last author did not
384 significantly correlate with the region of the associated institution in this study. Many of the oral

385 health related publications were performed by researchers that were not associated with a dental
386 institution which may account for this finding.

387 It was interesting to find that during the time of data collection, 70.4% of pre-print articles
388 included in this study had already been published in peer reviewed journals. Our finding is in
389 agreement with Abdill et al, who similarly found that two thirds of all preprints in bioRxiv were
390 published in peer reviewed journals[35]. Additional evidence confirms that releasing a pre-print
391 on bioRxiv was associated with a 49% higher Altmetric Attention Score and 36% more citations
392 than articles without a pre-print.[36] Although the Altmetric score is a rudimentary measurement
393 and does not quantify the article's true scientific impact as compared to the traditionally used
394 citation systems, it does demonstrate the increased recognition of a publication.[36] A positive
395 correlation was also found between the number of downloads of the pre-print and the impact
396 factor of the journal it was subsequently published in.[35] In this study, women's Altmetric
397 scores in both pre-prints and peer review publications, although not statistically significant, were
398 higher on average when compared to men's. While not a measure of quality, it appears that pre-
399 prints have the potential to create more traction and notability of publications, which could have
400 a positive impact on women's future career success.

401 There are a number of strengths of this bibliometric study. It is the first, to our knowledge, to
402 look at gender differences between pre-print and peer reviewed publications as related to oral
403 health research. A standardized key word was used to search for publications in both platforms
404 and the number of articles were matched to allow for equivalent groups. In addition, the articles
405 were randomly selected from the PubMed database which controlled for selection bias. Lastly, to
406 control gender identification bias, a software [Genderize.io] was used with a priori probability
407 cutoff, which has an inaccuracy rate just below 15%. [37]

408 There are also limitations that exist within this study that must be considered. One may argue
409 that pre-prints have not gained enough popularity as they are relatively new.[26,38] Pre-prints
410 have gained traction in the recent years and certain fields have a higher propensity towards
411 publishing on pre-print websites such as physics, mathematics, computer science, finance,
412 economics and engineering.[11] However, medical and biological disciplines have been slow to
413 adopt pre-print practices.[11] Launched in 2013, BioRxiv and later, MedRxiv [2019] have been
414 dedicated to biological sciences and clinical research with steadily increased submissions in the
415 recent years.[11,26,38] This study only examined publications in a limited timeframe, which
416 does not provide a comprehensive view of the pre-print trend in oral health. Therefore, future
417 studies and longer-term studies will be warranted as a stronger pre-print interest develops in the
418 biological science, medical, and dental related fields.[11] The 71 papers selected from PubMed
419 may not be truly representative of the gender distribution in oral health research as this was a
420 very small proportion of the total search results. In addition, since this study is not journal
421 specific, data on the time the article was in peer review and the number of submitted articles
422 related to women's productivity were not collected. Therefore, the greater frequency of women
423 in first and last authorship in peer review publications should be interpreted with caution.

424 It is also important to note that the Altmetric scores are constantly changing as articles
425 continue to gain recognition and popularity amongst the public, and therefore, may have
426 increased in value.[36] The pre-print count that has gone to peer review may also be
427 underestimated, as BioRxiv may not have detected this within its internal system during the time
428 of data collection, so more may have been published in peer reviewed journals since then.[36]

429

430 **Conclusions**

431 Within the limitations of the study, it was found that women represent a higher percentage of
432 first and last author positions in peer review versus pre-print publications in oral health research.
433 Although not representative of a large sample, this study demonstrated women's increased
434 productivity in the traditional sense from 2018-2019. As pre-prints continue to gain acceptance it
435 could encourage women to showcase their work sooner, increasing research output, which may
436 have a continued positive impact on bridging the gender gap in this field.

437

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