

1                    Researchers preferentially collaborate with  
2                    same-gendered colleagues across the life sciences

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4                    **Abstract**

5                    Evidence suggests that women in academia are hindered by conscious and un-  
6                    conscious biases, and often feel excluded from formal and informal opportunities for  
7                    research collaboration. In addition to ensuring fairness and helping to redress gender  
8                    imbalance in the academic workforce, increasing women’s access to collaboration could  
9                    help scientific progress by drawing on more of the available human capital. Here, we  
10                    test whether researchers preferentially collaborate with same-gendered colleagues, using  
11                    more stringent methods and a larger dataset than in past work. Our results reaffirm that  
12                    researchers preferentially co-publish with colleagues of the same gender, and show that  
13                    this ‘gender homophily’ is slightly stronger today than it was 10 years ago. Contrary  
14                    to our expectations, we found no evidence that homophily is driven mostly by senior  
15                    academics, and no evidence that homophily is stronger in fields where women are in the  
16                    minority. Interestingly, journals with a high impact factor for their discipline tended to  
17                    have comparatively low homophily, as predicted if mixed-gender teams produce better  
18                    research. We discuss some potential causes of gender homophily in science.

19                    **Keywords:** Gender bias, Homophily, Research collaboration, Text mining, Women in  
20                    STEM.

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## 21 Introduction

22 Women are severely underrepresented in many branches of science, technology, engineering,  
23 mathematics, and medicine (STEMM), and face additional challenges and inequities relative  
24 to men [1–5]. On average, women occupy more junior positions [6,7] with lower salaries [8,9],  
25 receive less grant money [10,11], are promoted more slowly [12–15], and are allocated fewer  
26 resources [16] and less research funding [17–19]. Experimental evidence suggests that bias  
27 against women plays a major role in generating these differences [20,21].

28 Writing papers, networking, and collaboration are all instrumental to research productivity  
29 and academic career advancement [22–25], and dozens of studies have tested for gender  
30 differences in these areas [5,26–29]. For example, studies have concluded that women tend to  
31 be less involved in international collaboration [19,28,30–32], collaborate less within their own  
32 university departments [31], have less prestigious collaborations [33], and fewer collaborations  
33 in total [34]. These gender differences in collaboration practice presumably have multiple  
34 causes, which might include implicit and explicit gender bias [20], differential family obligations  
35 [33,35,36], gender differences in confidence or self-esteem [37], concerns relating to sexual  
36 harassment [38], and unequal access to conferences [39] or travel funds [32].

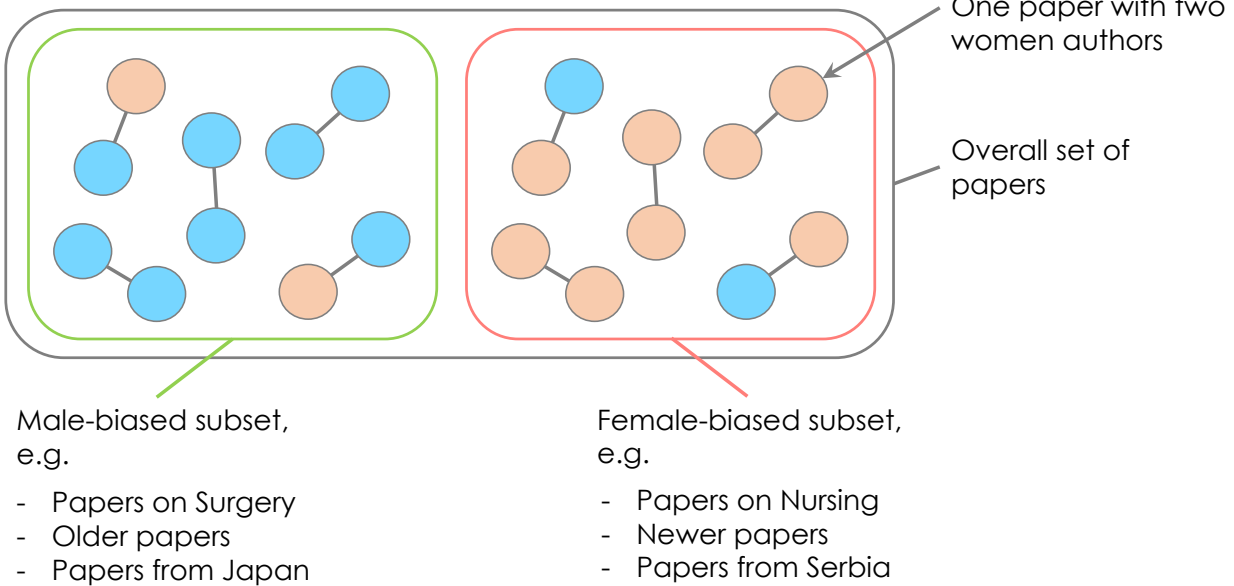
37 A high, steadily increasing proportion of research papers is written by more than one author  
38 [3], making collaboration a key predictor of publication output, and thus of career prospects  
39 [40,41]. Additionally, empirical studies imply that mixed-gender or otherwise diverse teams  
40 produce better outputs on collaborative tasks than less diverse teams [42–48]. For reasons  
41 such as these, multiple studies have examined the author lists of published research articles in  
42 order to test for gender differences in collaboration frequency or pattern. To our knowledge,  
43 most or all such studies imply that men co-publish with men, and women with women, more  
44 often than expected if collaborators assort randomly with respect to gender [49–58]. This  
45 pattern of assortative publishing has often been termed ‘gender homophily’.

46 However, we believe that prior studies of gender homophily were hindered by a largely  
47 unacknowledged statistical issue that we name the Wahlund effect (Figure 1), by analogy  
48 with the conceptually similar Wahlund effect in population genetics [59]. The Wahlund  
49 effect makes it deceptively difficult to infer gender-based preferences simply by counting  
50 the number of same- and mixed-gender coauthorships. Essentially, whenever coauthorship  
51 data are sampled from two or more discrete sets of literature, which vary in the author  
52 gender ratio and which are largely not connected by collaboration, the number of same-  
53 gendered coauthors will be inflated. This can give the impression that authors preferentially  
54 publish with same-gendered colleagues even if no gender preferences exist, or if the true  
55 preference is for opposite-gendered colleagues (‘gender heterophily’). For example, a sample  
56 of literature containing bioinformatics and cell biology papers will probably contain an excess  
57 of mostly-male and mostly-female author lists, simply because researchers usually collaborate  
58 within their own discipline, and because the author gender ratio is more male-biased in  
59 bioinformatics than in cell biology [5].

60 In the present study, we test whether life sciences researchers tend to co-publish with same-  
61 gendered colleagues, while controlling for the Wahlund effect as strictly as possible. We use a

### The Wahlund effect

Illusory preferences for same-gendered collaborators



**Figure 1:** The Wahlund effect can make it appear as if authors prefer to publish with same-gendered colleagues, even if no such preference exists. Here, coloured circles represent male and female authors, and coauthors are linked with lines. Across the whole set of ten papers, there is an apparent excess of same-gender collaborations: there are six same-gender papers and only four mixed-gender papers, which is fewer than the  $10 \times 2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 = 5$  mixed-gender papers expected under the null hypothesis that authors assort randomly with respect to gender. However, within each subset, there is no evidence that authors prefer to publish with same-gendered individuals (if anything, this small dataset suggests gender heterophily). The Wahlund effect will tend to inflate the frequency of same-sex coauthorships whenever the data is composed of two or more disconnected subsets of literature with different author gender ratios; these subsets could be research disciplines, older versus newer papers, or papers from authors in different countries. The example countries and disciplines were selected based on [5].

62 recently-published dataset describing the gender of 35.5m authors from 9.15m articles indexed  
63 on PubMed [5]. Holman et al. [5] reported large differences in the gender ratio of authors  
64 across research disciplines, journals, countries, and across the years 2002-2016. We therefore  
65 tested for gender homophily while restricting our analysis to particular journals (i.e. research  
66 specialties), time periods, and countries. We quantified gender assortment using a metric  
67 called  $\alpha'$  [60], which is positive when same-gender authors publish together more often than  
68 expected (gender homophily), negative when opposite-gender authors publish together more  
69 often than expected (heterophily), and equal to zero when authors assort randomly with  
70 respect to gender (see Methods).

## 71 Results

### 72 Gender homophily by discipline, time period, and authorship po- 73 sition

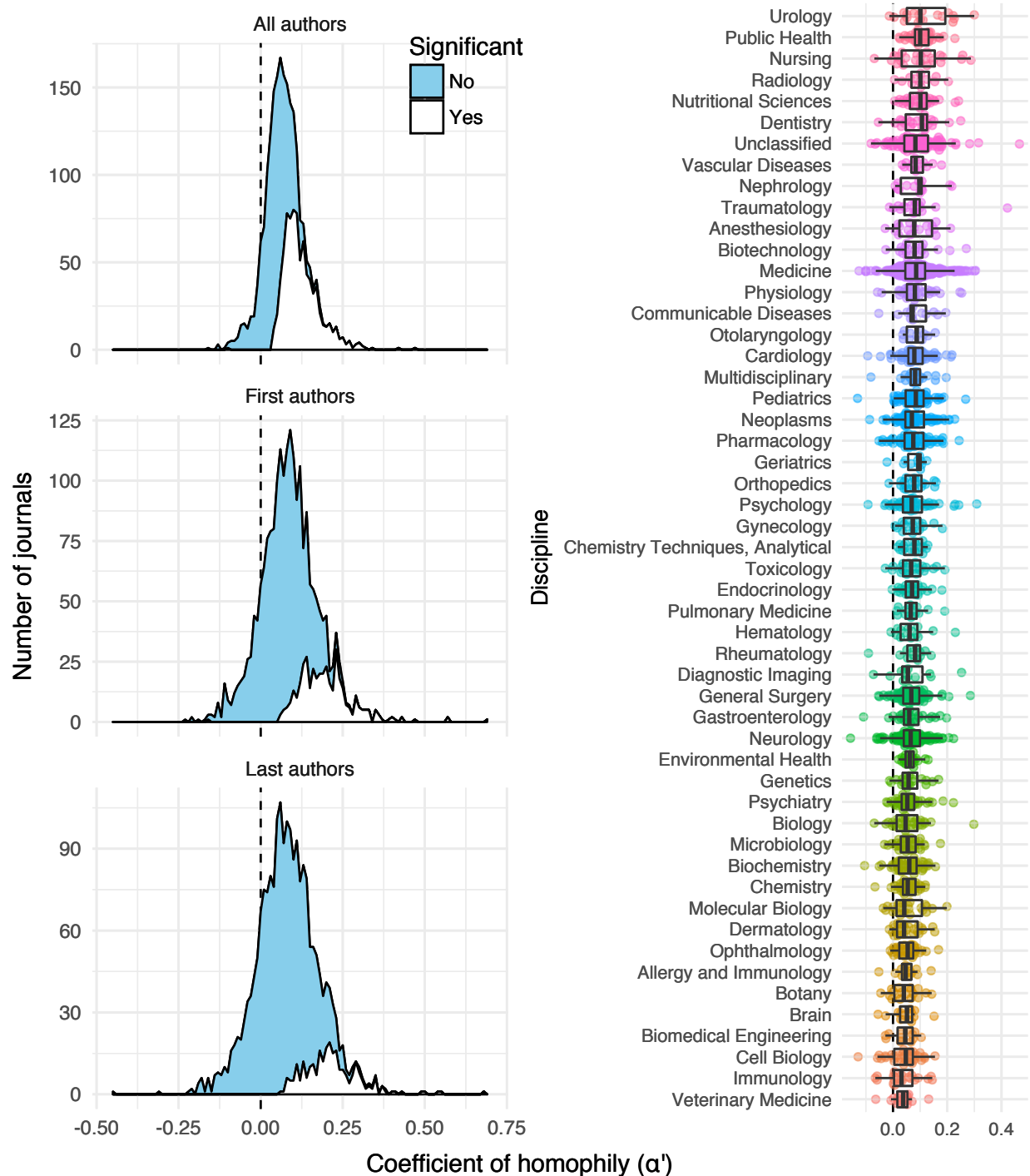
74 Figure 2 shows the distribution of  $\alpha'$  estimates in 2015-2016 across all journals for which we  
75 recovered sufficient data, when  $\alpha'$  was calculated for all authors, first authors only, or last  
76 authors only. Most journals had positive values of  $\alpha'$  (77-92%, depending on time period  
77 and author type; S1 Data), and for many of these the FDR-corrected p-values suggested  
78 that  $\alpha'$  was significantly greater than zero (1469/2077 journals were significant in 2015-16,  
79 and 404/1192 in 2005-6; S1 Data). Only 2/2077 journals had statistically significantly  
80 heterophily (i.e.  $\alpha' < 0$ ) in 2015-16, and 1/1192 in 2005-6 (S2 Table). The remaining 606 or  
81 787 journals (in 2015 and 2005 respectively) had a value of  $\alpha'$  not significantly different from  
82 zero, consistent with the null hypothesis of random assortment with respect to gender. We  
83 also confirmed that the majority of papers had multiple authors, in most journals (S2 Data)  
84 and disciplines (S3 Data, S1 Fig).

85  $\alpha'$  was significantly higher in the literature sample from 2015-16 relative to 2005-6, though  
86 the difference in means was small (S2 Fig; Effect of the fixed factor 'Time period' in a linear  
87 mixed model of the data for all author positions: Cohen's  $d = 0.091 \pm 0.04$ ,  $t_{953} = 2.42$ ,  $p =$   
88  $0.016$ ).

89 When comparing pairs of  $\alpha'$  values estimated for the first and last authors for the same  
90 journals, we found that  $\alpha'$  tended to be higher for first authors than for last authors (S3  
91 Fig; Effect of the fixed factor 'Authorship position' in a linear mixed model: Cohen's  $d =$   
92  $0.065 \pm 0.02$ ,  $t_{2024} = 4.28$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). This suggests that the gender of the first author was  
93 a slightly stronger predictor of the remaining authors' genders than the gender of the last  
94 author, i.e. the opposite of what is predicted if senior scientists are causally responsible for  
95 homophily.

RESULTS

Gender and coauthorship



**Figure 2:** Of the 2116 journals for which we had adequate data in 2015-2016, 825 showed statistically significant evidence of gender homophily (denoted by  $\alpha' > 0$ ), and 1 showed statistically significant evidence of heterophily ( $\alpha' < 0$ ), after false discovery rate correction. The white area shows the number of journals for which homophily was significantly stronger than expected under the null hypothesis (corrected  $p < 0.05$ ), while the blue area shows all the remainder. Patterns were similar whether  $\alpha'$  was calculated for all authors, for first authors only, or for last authors only.

## 96 Variance in homophily between disciplines

97 Figure 2 illustrates the variance in journal homophily values ( $\alpha'$ ) across scientific disciplines.  
98 All disciplines had positive mean  $\alpha'$ , although homophily appeared somewhat stronger in  
99 some disciplines than others (e.g. mean  $\alpha'$  was  $0.12 \pm 0.02$  for Urology journals and  $0.03 \pm 0.01$   
100 for Veterinary Medicine journals; Figure 2, S4 Data). However, there was no formal evidence  
101 for consistent differences in  $\alpha'$  between disciplines: the random factor ‘Discipline’ explained  
102 around 1% of the variance in  $\alpha'$  in the two linear mixed models described in the previous  
103 section (see Figure 2 and mixed models in Online Supplementary Material). Thus, the  
104 processes responsible for producing positive  $\alpha'$  values appear to be similarly strong in all the  
105 disciplines we examined.

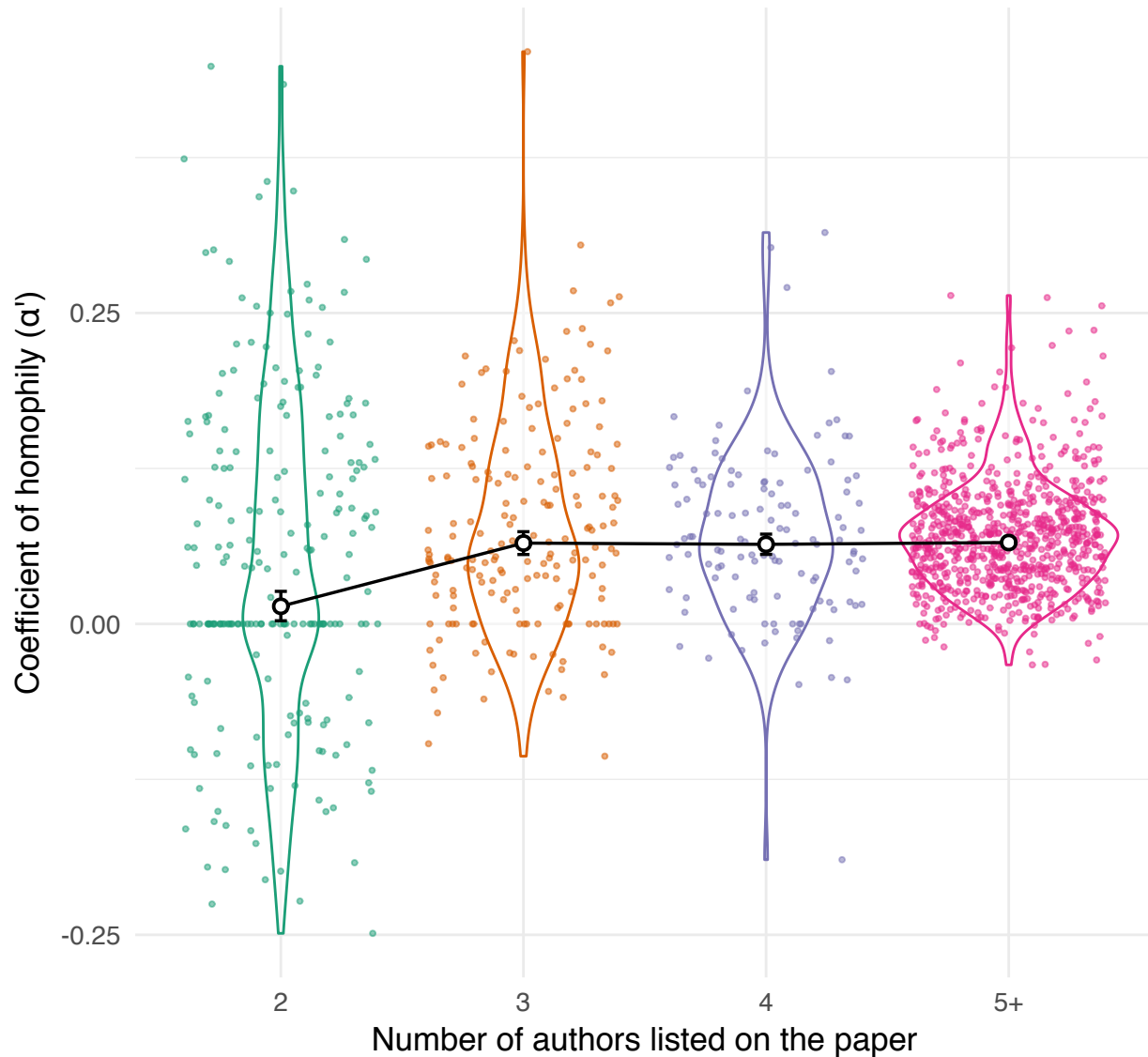
106 There was no indication that journals publishing on a wide range of topics have higher  $\alpha'$   
107 values than more specialised journals, due to the Wahlund effect. For example, the journal  
108 category ‘Multidisciplinary’ – which includes journals like *PLoS ONE*, *Nature*, *Science*, and  
109 *PNAS* – did not have notably elevated  $\alpha'$  (Figure 2). This result suggests that our estimates of  
110 homophily, and estimates from some earlier studies, are not notably inflated by the presence  
111 of disparate research topics (with variable author gender ratios) being published within  
112 individual journals.

## 113 Relationship between gender homophily and number of authors

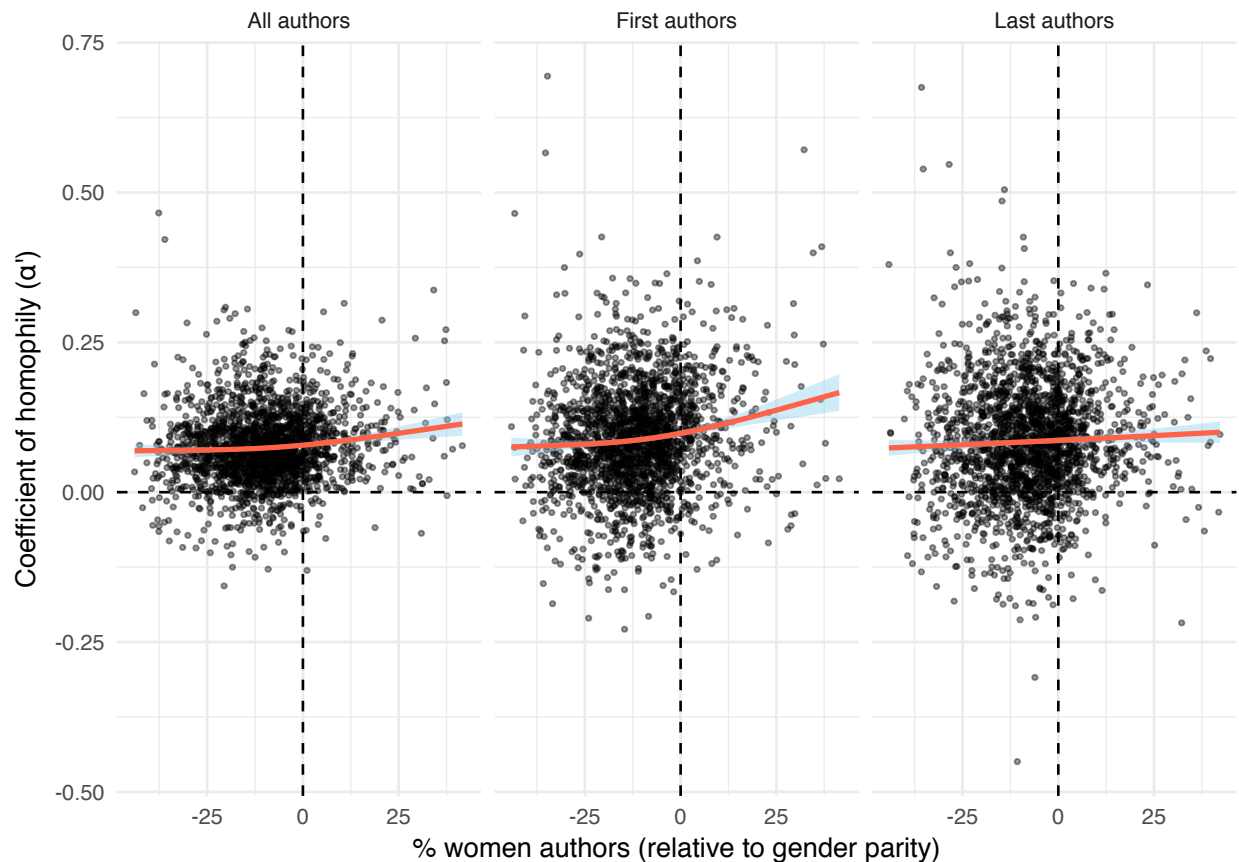
114 Papers with two authors had significantly lower (but still positive)  $\alpha'$  values relative to papers  
115 with more than two authors, on average (Figure 3; statistical results in Online Supplementary  
116 Material). Papers with 3, 4 or 5+ authors had essentially identical average  $\alpha'$  values. The  
117 variance in  $\alpha'$  across journals was also a little higher for 2-authors papers compared to the  
118 remainder (Figure 3), though part of this variance is due to the reduced sample size (in terms  
119 of number of authors) for the 2-author papers.

## 120 Relationship between gender homophily and gender ratio

121 We next tested whether researchers are more or less likely to publish with same-gendered  
122 colleagues in strongly gender-biased disciplines (e.g. Surgery or Nursing), relative to disciplines  
123 with a comparatively gender-balanced workforce (e.g. Psychiatry). We found a positive, non-  
124 linear relationship between the overall gender ratio of all authors publishing in a particular  
125 journal [5], and the estimated value of  $\alpha'$  for all authors and for first authors (Figure 4).  
126 Journals with a balanced or female-biased author gender ratio tended to have higher  $\alpha'$  than  
127 journals with a male-biased author gender ratio (GAM smooth terms  $p < 0.001$ ; Online  
128 Supplementary Material). The relationship was not statistically significant when  $\alpha'$  was  
129 calculated for last authors (GAM,  $p = 0.142$ ), though the trend appeared similar (Figure 4).



**Figure 3:** The coefficient of homophily ( $\alpha'$ ) was slightly less positive when calculated for two-author papers only, relative to papers with longer author lists. The individual points, whose distribution is summarised by the violin plots, correspond to individual journals. The larger white points show the mean for each group (and its 95% CIs), as calculated by a Bayesian meta-regression model accounting for repeated measures of  $\alpha'$  within journals, as well as the precision with which  $\alpha'$  was estimated.

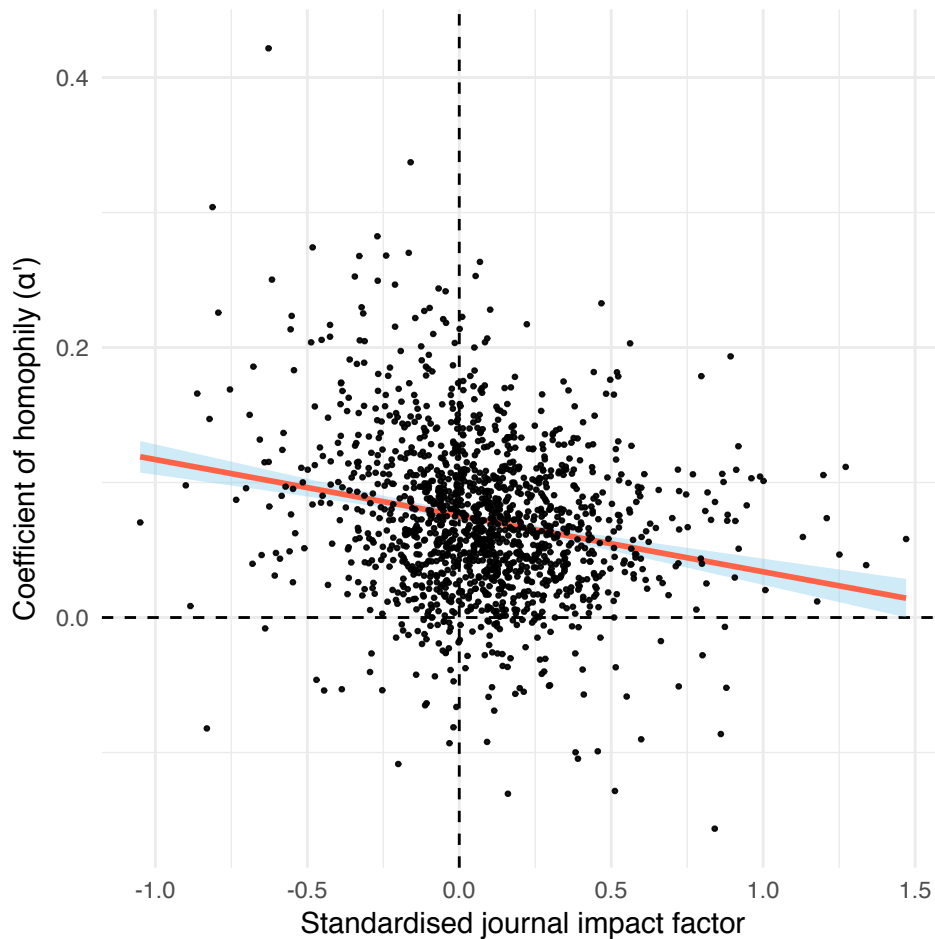


**Figure 4:** There is a weakly positive, non-linear relationship between the gender ratio of authors publishing in a journal, and the coefficient of homophily ( $\alpha'$ ). Specifically, journals with 50% women authors or higher tended to have more same-sex coauthorships than did journals with predominantly men authors. This relationship held whether  $\alpha'$  was calculated for all authors, first authors only, or last authors only. A negative value on the x-axis denotes an excess of men authors, a positive value denotes an excess of women authors, and zero denotes gender parity. The lines were fitted using generalised additive models with the smoothing parameter  $k$  set to 3.



130 **Relationship between journal impact factor and gender homophily**

131 We observed a noisy but statistically significant linear relationship between standardised  
132 journal impact factor and  $\alpha'$ , such that journals with a high impact factor for their discipline  
133 had weaker gender homophily than did journals with a low impact factor for their discipline  
134 (Figure 5; linear regression:  $R^2 = 0.043$ ,  $t_{1415} = -8.0$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). The slope of the regression  
135 was  $-0.012 \pm 0.0015$ , indicating that increasing the discipline-standardised impact factor by  
136 one standard deviation is associated with a reduction in  $\alpha'$  of 0.012.



**Figure 5:** Journal impact factor (expressed relative to the average for the discipline) is negatively correlated with  $\alpha'$ . The relationship is noisy ( $R^2 = 0.043$ ), but the results suggest that journals with strong homophily tend to have lower impact factors than journals with weak homophily in the same discipline.

## 137 Analysis accounting for differences in author gender ratio between 138 countries

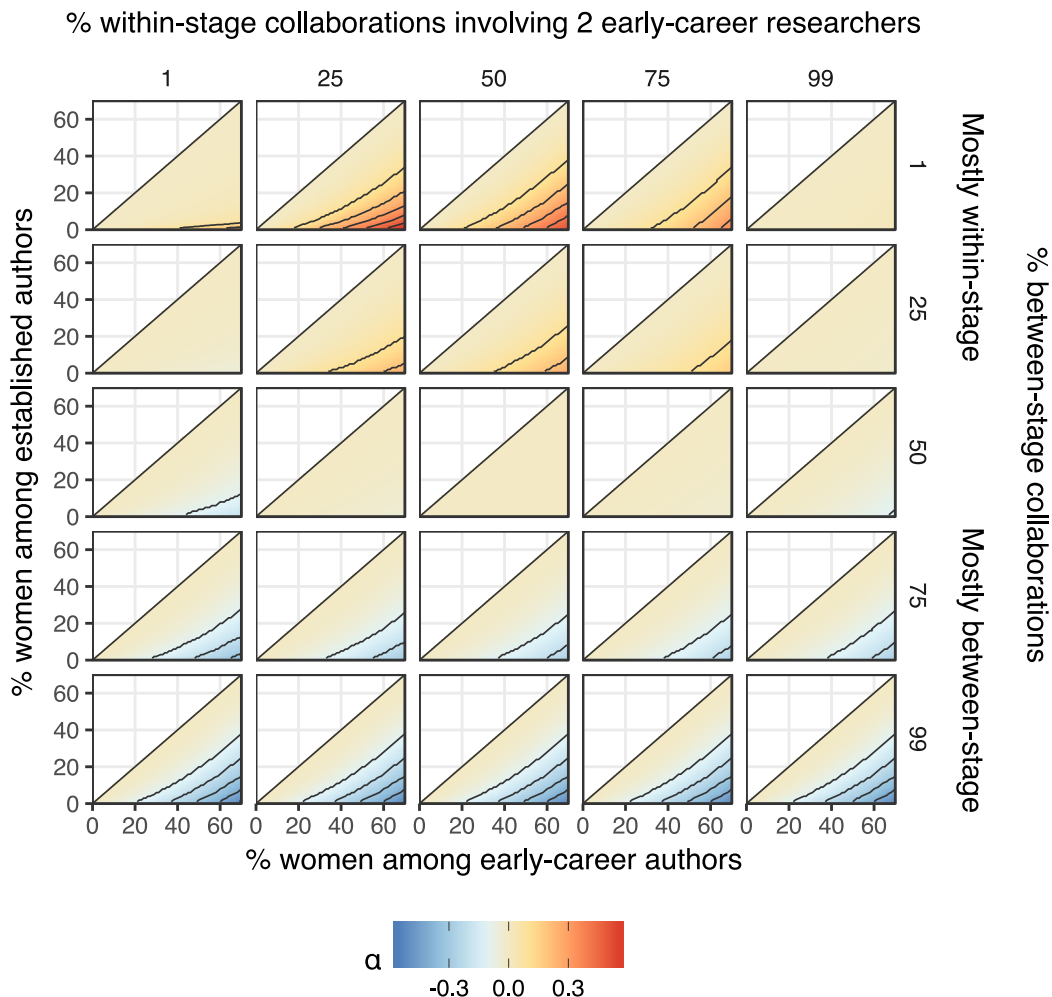
139 When we restricted the analysis by country, we observed statistically significant homophily for  
140 72 of the 325 journal-country combinations tested (64 unique journals and 18 unique countries),  
141 and no significant heterophily (S4-S5 Fig). Additionally, the values of  $\alpha'$  calculated for each  
142 journal-country combination were only very slightly lower than the  $\alpha'$  values calculated for  
143 the journal as a whole (i.e. when pooling papers from different countries, as was done to make  
144 Figure 2): on average, the difference in  $\alpha'$  was only 0.002 (S6 Fig). These results suggest  
145 that our findings of widespread homophily in the main analysis were not driven solely by a  
146 Wahlund effect resulting from gender differences between countries.

## 147 Theoretical expectations for $\alpha$ when the gender ratio differs be- 148 tween career stages

149 As shown in Figure 6, we predict that  $\alpha$  is expected to be non-zero, even if collaborators  
150 are randomly selected with respect to gender, provided that there is a gender gap between  
151 career stages. The extent to which  $\alpha$  deviates from zero depends on the relative frequencies of  
152 collaboration within and between career stages. When  $>50\%$  of collaborations were between  
153 early and established researchers, we expect gender heterophily ( $\alpha < 0$ ). Conversely, when  
154  $>50\%$  of collaborations occurred within career stages, we expect gender homophily ( $\alpha > 0$ ).  
155 In a few parameter spaces (shown in red; Figure 6),  $\alpha$  was quite high, and overlapped with  
156 the values that we estimated (Figure 2).

157 Despite this overlap, Figure 6 suggests that our main conclusions (and those of other studies  
158 of gender homophily) are probably robust to this career stage issue. We only expect strongly  
159 positive  $\alpha$  when A) the gender ratio is highly skewed across career stages (e.g. a 5-fold  
160 difference), and B) collaborations between early and established researchers are very rare  
161 (e.g.  $<10\%$  of the total). Both of these conditions are untrue for most fields: the gender gap  
162 across career stages is generally less pronounced [1,5], and it is very common for early-career  
163 researchers to co-publish with an established mentor [61]. However, one can get  $\alpha > 0$  for  
164 realistic combinations of parameters, e.g. a moderate shortage of women in senior positions  
165 coupled with a moderate excess of within-career stage collaboration, suggesting this effect  
166 might contribute to some of the observed homophily (in this and previous studies).

167 Lastly, we note that if there is a gender gap between career stages and coauthorships between  
168 early-career and established researchers comprise  $>50\%$  of the total, then the baseline  
169 expectation for  $\alpha$  is actually less than zero (blue areas in Figure 6). Therefore, our results  
170 might under-estimate the extent to which researchers preferentially select same-gendered  
171 collaborators in some cases.



**Figure 6:** When there is a difference in gender ratio between early-career and established researchers, and collaboration is non-random with respect to career stage, the null expectation for  $\alpha$  deviates from zero. An excess of collaborations between career stages gives the appearance of gender heterophily (lower rows, blue areas), while an excess of within-career stage collaborations produced apparent gender homophily (upper rows, red areas). However, the conditions required for strong gender homophily are quite restrictive, making it unlikely that this issue explains all of the homophily observed in Figure 2. Contour lines denote increments of 0.1.

## 172 Discussion

173 We found evidence that researchers preferentially publish with same-gendered coauthors, even  
174 after implementing stringent controls for Wahlund effects (Figure 1). Our study therefore  
175 reaffirms earlier studies' conclusions [49–57,62] and establishes their generality across the life  
176 sciences. Relatively few journals had  $\alpha'$  values below zero, and almost no journals showed  
177 statistically significant gender heterophily after controlling for multiple testing. The excess of  
178 same-gender coauthorships was quite large: many journals had  $\alpha' > 0.1$ , indicating that the  
179 gender ratio of men's and women's coauthors differs by  $>10\%$  in absolute terms. In relative  
180 terms, our findings are even more striking: for example, if men have 20% female coauthors  
181 and women have 30% (i.e.  $\alpha' = 0.1$  in a field with a typical gender ratio [5]), then women  
182 publish with women 50% more often than men do.

183 An important limitation of our study is that we cannot reliably determine the cause(s) of  
184 the observed excess of same-gender coauthorships. As well as the obvious interpretation –  
185 conscious or unconscious selection of same-gender collaborators by men, women, or both – our  
186 results could be partly explained by uncontrolled Wahlund effects. However, we suspect the  
187 contribution of these to be minor, for four reasons: we found positive  $\alpha'$  after controlling for  
188 three obvious sources of Wahlund effect; there was no inflation of  $\alpha'$  in highly multidisciplinary  
189 journals; restricting the data by country yielded similar estimates of  $\alpha'$ ; and we showed that  
190 differences in gender ratio between career stages are unlikely to fully explain our results. On  
191 balance, we believe the data suggest that it is likely that some researchers do preferentially  
192 select same-gendered collaborators, although the frequency and strength of this preference is  
193 difficult to ascertain.

194 We hypothesised that disciplines with a strongly skewed gender ratio might show the strongest  
195 gender homophily, e.g. because being in the minority might increase motivation to seek out  
196 same-gendered colleagues. Contrary to this hypothesis, we found no evidence that gender  
197 homophily is restricted to particular disciplines:  $\alpha'$  was similarly high across the board  
198 (Figure 2). Interestingly, gender homophily was weakest for journals with a male-biased  
199 author gender ratio, and strongest in journals with a female-biased author gender ratio. This  
200 may suggest that men are more likely to preferentially seek out male collaborators in fields  
201 where men are a minority, relative to the homophily displayed by women in fields where  
202 women are a minority. However, this latter result is only tentatively supported since our  
203 sample contains few journals in which most authors are women (Figure 4).

204 We also found that gender homophily was marginally stronger in 2015-2016 relative to  
205 2005-2006. Although this trend might reflect a change in the gender preferences of researchers  
206 seeking collaborators, there are alternative (and perhaps more likely) explanations. For exam-  
207 ple, this trend might result from the increasing number of women working in senior positions  
208 in STEMM over the past decade [63–65]. As shown in Figure 6, if enough coauthorships are  
209 between junior and senior researchers, a large gender gap between career stages can give the  
210 appearance of heterophily. As this gender gap between career stages lessens, the observed  
211 values of  $\alpha'$  may increase.

212 Regarding our finding of weaker homophily among 2-author papers, we suspect that many

213 2-author teams comprise a student/postdoc and a senior staff member, making these teams  
214 especially likely to be mixed-gender, due to the elevated gender gap among senior researchers  
215 [1,5]. Assuming this interpretation is correct, this result suggests that our reported  $\alpha'$  values  
216 may underestimate the strength of peoples' preferences for same-gendered collaborators;  
217 essentially, women seeking a senior collaborator could be constrained to work mostly with  
218 men, meaning that people's ideal and realised gender preferences would be mismatched.  
219 On a related note, Ghiasi et al. [51] argue that women in engineering are "compliant [in  
220 reproducing] male-dominated scientific structures" because they do not collaborate often  
221 enough with other women (their Figure 7 suggests that coauthorships between women are  
222 30% more frequent than expected under random assortment). By contrast, we feel that it is  
223 not helpful to recommend that women collaborate primarily with other women, e.g. because  
224 this constrains women's options and may be counter-productive (particularly in fields like  
225 engineering, where 90% of professors are men [1]). Instead, we suggest that researchers of  
226 both genders can help to close the gender gap in STEMM. In the context of collaboration,  
227 one way to do this is to undertake self-examination to ensure that one is not inadvertently  
228 overlooking or excluding female potential students and colleagues. One should also take  
229 care to treat male and female collaborators equally, e.g. in terms of training and mentoring,  
230 allocation of work, and how one frames or promotes the collaboration (e.g. in conference  
231 presentations or on a website); evidence suggests that unconscious bias causes people to  
232 undervalue women's research achievements [20], and possibly to assign menial or under-valued  
233 tasks to women and more prestigious tasks to men [61].

234 Our study begs two questions: what causes gender homophily in science, and are our results  
235 cause for concern? These questions are closely related. For example, some of the homophily  
236 we observed might be caused by women seeking to avoid harassment or sexism from men  
237 [38], which would clearly be concerning. Additionally, Sheltzer and Smith [66] concluded that  
238 'elite' male academics (defined as recipients of major honours) have a higher proportion of  
239 male students and postdocs than non-elite male academics. This finding could contribute to  
240 the homophily we observed, and is cause for concern since Sheltzer and Smith [66]'s results  
241 might reflect discrimination against women during hiring [20], or avoidance by women of  
242 elite research groups (e.g. due to gender differences in confidence, or a perception that some  
243 groups are sexist). We also found a little evidence that gender homophily is detrimental to  
244 research quality, in that high-impact journals tended to have weaker homophily. Assuming  
245 that papers published in high-impact journals are of higher average quality [67], our results  
246 provide non-experimental support for the hypothesis that mixed-gender teams produce better  
247 research than single-gender teams [42–48]. Another issue is that if many collaborations are  
248 between established researchers, there will be an excess of male-male collaborations in fields  
249 where women in senior positions are rare; some of the observed homophily might therefore  
250 reflect the elevated gender gap among senior researchers.

251 On the other hand, homophily might have more benign causes. Collaboration is often most  
252 enjoyable and productive when working with like-minded people, who might be same-gendered  
253 more often than not. We also suppose that some people consciously choose to preferentially  
254 collaborate with women in order to help close the gender gap in the workforce; this would  
255 create homophily if women do this more than men. In support of this interpretation, women  
256 appear more likely than men to promote the work of female colleagues by inviting them to

257 give talks [68,69]. Given that many collaborative research projects unfortunately involve  
258 a gendered division of labour [61], working with a same-gendered colleague may provide  
259 exposure to new parts of the research process, and (especially for the minority gender) a  
260 welcome change of pace.

## 261 Methods

### 262 The dataset

263 We used the dataset of PubMed author lists from Holman et al. [5]. Briefly, that dataset  
264 was created by downloading every article indexed on PubMed and attempting to infer each  
265 author's gender from their given name. Each journal was assigned to one of 107 scientific  
266 disciplines, using PubMed's journal categorisations in the interests of objectivity. Because  
267 the present study focuses on co-authorship, all single-author papers were discarded. We also  
268 discarded all papers for which we could not determine the gender of every author with  $\geq 95\%$   
269 certainty, in order to simplify the statistical analysis. To mitigate Wahlund effects caused by  
270 variation in the gender ratio of researchers over time (see below), we also discarded all papers  
271 except those that were published either 0-1 or 10-11 years before the PubMed data were  
272 collected (i.e. 20<sup>th</sup> August 2016). Lastly, we excluded journals with fewer than 50 suitable  
273 papers. Detailed sample size information is given in S1 Table.

### 274 Calculating $\alpha$ , the coefficient of homophily

275 Following Bergstrom et al. [60], we defined the coefficient of homophily as  $\alpha = p - q$ , where  
276  $p$  is the probability that a randomly-chosen co-author of a *male* author is a man and  $q$  is the  
277 probability that a randomly-chosen co-author of a *female* author is a man. Like the Wahlund  
278 effect,  $\alpha$  is borrowed from population genetics; for a set of 2-author papers, it is equivalent to  
279 Wright's coefficient of inbreeding [70]. Mathematical work illustrates that  $\alpha$  is closely related  
280 to alternative network-based methods for quantifying homophily [71].

281 To estimate  $\alpha$  for a particular subset of the scientific literature, we estimated  $p$  as the average  
282 proportion of men's co-authors who are men (averaged across all papers with at least one  
283 man author), and  $q$  as the average proportion of women's co-authors who are men (averaged  
284 across all papers with at least one woman author). To estimate the 95% confidence intervals  
285 on  $\alpha$  for a given set of  $n$  papers, we sampled  $n$  papers with replacement 1000 times, estimated  
286  $\alpha$  on each sample, and recorded the 95% quantiles of the resulting 1000 estimates.

287 As well as calculating  $\alpha$  for all authors, we calculated  $\alpha$  for first or last authors only.  $\alpha$   
288 was again defined as  $p - q$ , but this time  $p$  was estimated as the average proportion of male  
289 co-authors on papers with a male first (or last) author, and  $q$  was estimated as the average  
290 proportion of male co-authors on papers with female first (or last) authors. We did not  
291 calculate  $\alpha$  for other authorship positions (e.g. second or third authors) because this would

292 necessitate culling the dataset to include only papers with a sufficiently long author list,  
293 complicating interpretation of the results.

294 We also calculated  $\alpha$  for papers with 2, 3, 4 or  $\geq 5$  authors, for all journals that had at least  
295 50 suitable papers from 2015-2016 with the specified author list length.

296 Our test assumes that the expected value of  $\alpha$  is zero if authors randomly assort, but for  
297 small datasets this assumption is not always true (as pointed out by Carl Bergstrom in a  
298 blog post, [http://www.eigenfactor.org/gender/assortativity/note\\_to\\_eisen.rtf](http://www.eigenfactor.org/gender/assortativity/note_to_eisen.rtf)). To borrow  
299 Prof. Bergstrom's example, consider a small research specialty comprising just two men and  
300 two women researchers, who have together produced six two-author papers: one in each of  
301 the six possible two-author combinations. For these six papers,  $\alpha = -\frac{1}{3}$ , even though same-  
302 and opposite-gendered coauthors were selected in equal proportion to their frequency in the  
303 pool of possible collaborators.

304 To control for the fact that the null expectation for  $\alpha$  is not zero for small datasets, we  
305 devised an adjusted version of the coefficient of homophily, which we term  $\alpha'$ . Every time  
306 we calculated  $\alpha$  for a set of papers, we also determined the expected value of  $\alpha$  under the  
307 null hypothesis that authors assort randomly with respect to gender. This was accomplished  
308 by randomly permuting authors across papers 1000 times, recalculating  $\alpha$ , and taking the  
309 median. We then calculated  $\alpha'$  by subtracting the null expectation for  $\alpha$  from the observed  
310 value. We also used the null-simulated  $\alpha$  values to calculate a two-tailed p-value for the  
311 observed value of  $\alpha$ ; the p-value was defined as the proportion of null simulations for which  
312  $|\alpha_{null}| > |\alpha_{obs}|$ . We applied false discovery rate (FDR) correction to each set of p-values to  
313 account for multiple testing [72].

314 As expected,  $\alpha'$  was usually almost identical to  $\alpha$  (S7 Fig), but  $\alpha$  was downwardly biased  
315 relative to  $\alpha'$  for small datasets (S8 Fig). Additionally, the correlation between  $\alpha'$  and sample  
316 size was negligible ( $R^2 < 0.01$ ), suggesting that our calculation of  $\alpha'$  effectively removed the  
317 dependence of  $\alpha$  on sample size. We therefore used  $\alpha'$  in all analyses.

## 318 **Minimising the Wahlund effect: research discipline and time period**

319 To minimise bias in  $\alpha'$  due to the Wahlund effect, we restricted each set of papers to a single  
320 research specialty to the greatest extent allowed by our data. Specifically, we only calculated  
321  $\alpha'$  for individual journals, since papers from the same journal typically focus on closely related  
322 topics. Although some journals, e.g. *PLoS ONE*, publish research from diverse disciplines  
323 with very different author gender ratios [5], calculating  $\alpha'$  for these highly multidisciplinary  
324 journals is still useful as a contrast. The difference in  $\alpha'$  between highly multidisciplinary  
325 and more specialised journals, e.g. *PLoS ONE* versus *PLoS Computational Biology*, gives an  
326 estimate of the extent to which multidisciplinary inflates  $\alpha'$ .

327 As well as varying between disciplines, the gender ratio of authors has changed markedly over  
328 time [5]. Because the gender ratio was more male-biased in the past,  $\alpha'$  would be inflated if  
329 we calculated it for a sample of papers published over a long enough time frame. To minimise  
330 this effect, we only sampled papers from two one-year periods (namely 2005-6 and 2015-16).

331 The median change per year in % (fe)male authors across journals is below 0.5% [5], and so  
332 restricting our dataset to a single year should prevent temporal changes in gender ratio from  
333 noticeably affecting our estimates of  $\alpha'$ .

### 334 **Minimising the Wahlund effect: author country of affiliation**

335 A Wahlund effect could arise even if one calculates  $\alpha'$  for a single discipline and time period,  
336 because of variation in the gender ratio of researchers from different countries. For example,  
337 Holman et al. [5] showed that PubMed-indexed authors based in Serbia are more than twice  
338 as likely to be women as are authors based in Japan. Therefore, a dataset containing a mix  
339 of papers from teams of authors based in these two countries would contain an excess of  
340 same-sex coauthorships, even if collaboration were random with respect to gender within  
341 each country.

342 To address this issue, we also analysed every combination of journal and author country of  
343 affiliation for which we had enough data (i.e. 50 or more papers published in 2015-16). For  
344 simplicity, we restricted the dataset to only include papers for which Holman et al. [5] had  
345 identified the country of affiliation for all authors on the paper, and all authors shared the  
346 same country of affiliation. Restricting the dataset in this fashion produced enough data to  
347 measure  $\alpha'$  for 325 combinations of journal and country (median: 70 papers and 273 authors  
348 per combination).

### 349 **Calculating standardised journal impact factor**

350 We obtained the 3-year impact factor for each journal from Clarivate Analytics. To account  
351 for large differences in impact factor between disciplines, we took the the residuals from a  
352 model with  $\text{Log}_{10}$  impact factor as the response and the research discipline of the journal as a  
353 random effect. Thus, journals with a positive standardised impact factor have a higher mean  
354 number of citations than the average for journals in their discipline. We then used Spearman  
355 rank correlation to test whether  $\alpha'$  was correlated with impact factor across journals.

### 356 **Statistical analysis**

357 Previous authors [66,73] have hypothesised that senior scientists preferentially recruit staff  
358 and students of the same gender, and/or that junior researchers preferentially select same-  
359 gendered mentors. In the majority of PubMed-indexed disciplines, authorship conventions  
360 mean that the first-listed author is often an early-career researcher, while the author listed  
361 last is more likely to be a senior researcher leading a research team [74]. Assuming that senior  
362 researchers are the main drivers of homophily and that there are enough papers with three  
363 or more authors, we predict that the last author's gender will be the strongest predictor of  
364 the remaining authors' genders (i.e. the gender of the last author will be more salient than  
365 that of the first author, or any other authorship position). This is because the first author's



366 gender would simply be an imperfect correlate of the true causal effect, while the last author's  
367 gender would be the causal effect itself.

368 To test whether  $\alpha'$  for last authors tends to be higher than  $\alpha'$  for first authors for any given  
369 dataset, we used a linear mixed model implemented in the `lme4` and `lmerTest` packages for  
370 R, with *authorship position* (first or last) as a fixed factor, and *journal* and *research discipline*  
371 as crossed random effects. The response variable was  $\alpha'$ , and we weighted each observation  
372 by the inverse of the standard error from our estimate of  $\alpha'$ , meaning that more accurate  
373 measurements of  $\alpha'$  had more influence on the results. We used a similar model to test for a  
374 difference in  $\alpha'$  between the 2005-6 and the 2015-16 datasets, with two differences: we fit year  
375 range as a two-level fixed factor (instead of authorship position), and we used  $\alpha'$  estimated  
376 for all authors (not first/last authors) as the response variable.

377 The relationship between the gender ratio of authors publishing in a journal and its  $\alpha'$  value  
378 appeared nonlinear (see Results). We therefore fit a generalised additive model with thin  
379 plate regression spline smoothing, implemented using the `mgcv` package for R.

380 To model the relationship between  $\alpha'$  and the number of authors on the paper, we used a  
381 meta-regression model implemented in the R package `brms` [75]. The model incorporated the  
382 standard error associated with each estimate of  $\alpha'$ , had author number as a fixed effect, and  
383 journal as a random intercept (to control for repeated measures of each journal). We also fit  
384 a random slope of author number within journal, thereby allowing the response to author  
385 number to vary between journals. We used the default (weak) priors. The full output of this  
386 model can be viewed in the Online Supplementary Material.

## 387 **Theoretical expectations for $\alpha$ when the gender ratio differs be-** 388 **tween career stages**

389 In many STEMM subjects, the gender ratio is more skewed among established researchers  
390 relative to early-career researchers [1,5]. We hypothesised that this skew could potentially  
391 create both Wahlund effects and 'reverse' Wahlund effects. For example, imagine that the  
392 majority of collaborations are between students and professors, and that the gender ratio  
393 differs between career stages: we will then see an excess of mixed-gender coauthorships  
394 (heterophily,  $\alpha < 0$ ), even if gender has no direct, causal effect. Similarly, a hypothetical  
395 field in which students work only with students, and professors with professors, would have  
396 apparent gender homophily ( $\alpha > 0$ ).

397 We can think of no tractable method of controlling for this issue using our dataset, which  
398 contains no information on career stage. Therefore, we instead decided to derive the theoretical  
399 expectations for  $\alpha$  when there is a difference in gender ratio across career stages, in order to  
400 determine if and how this effect should alter our inferences. For simplicity, our calculations  
401 assume there are only two career stages, though we intuit that the general conclusions would  
402 also apply to a multi-tier career ladder. Under the null model that gender has no causal  
403 effect on collaboration, we calculated  $\alpha$  for various combinations of the four free parameters,  
404 i.e. the gender ratios for early- and late-career researchers, and the relative frequency of

405 collaborations between early-early, early-late, and late-late collaborations. We then used  
406 the theoretical expectations for  $\alpha$  to qualify our main conclusions (see Results). The Online  
407 Supplementary Material gives annotated R code used to derive the theoretical expectations.

## 408 Data availability and reproducibility

409 The Online Supplementary Material contains R scripts used to produce all results, figures  
410 and tables; it can be viewed online at <https://lukeholman.github.io/genderHomophily/>. The  
411 input data from Holman et al. [5] is archived at <https://osf.io/bt9ya/>.

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## 584 Supporting information

### 585 Supplementary figures

586 S1 Fig. Plot showing the percentage of papers that have 1, 2, 3, 4, or  $\geq 5$  authors for each  
587 discipline in the dataset of Holman et al. (2018). This information can also be found in S3  
588 Data.

589 S2 Fig. Histogram showing the distribution of differences in  $\alpha'$  between the 2015-16 and  
590 2005-6 samples, where positive numbers indicate an increase in  $\alpha'$  with time. The mean is  
591 slightly positive (i.e. 0.004), indicating a mild increase in average  $\alpha'$  with time.

592 S3 Fig. Histogram showing the difference between  $\alpha'$  calculated for first and last authors.  
593 Positive values mean that  $\alpha'$  was higher when calculated for first authors, and negative values  
594 mean  $\alpha'$  was higher when calculated for last authors. The mean is very slightly higher than  
595 zero, indicating that  $\alpha'$  tends to be higher for first authors.

596 S4 Fig. Histogram of  $\alpha'$  for 325 unique combinations of journal and country, using data  
597 from August 2015 - August 2016. The white areas denote combinations for which  $\alpha'$  differs  
598 significantly from zero ( $p < 0.05$ , following false discovery rate correction).

599 S5 Fig. Plot showing the 68 combinations of journal and author country of affiliation for  
600 which  $\alpha'$  is significantly higher than expected.

601 S6 Fig. Histogram showing the estimated degree to which  $\alpha'$  is inflated by inter-country  
602 differences in author gender ratio, across the 285 journals for which we had adequate data  
603 after restricting the analysis by country. The average inflation in  $\alpha'$  is negligible, suggesting  
604 that Wahlund effects resulting from inter-country differences have a negligible effect on our  
605 estimates of gender homophily.

606 S7 Fig. There is a very strong correlation between the values of  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha'$  calculated for each  
607 journal, though in a handful of cases the difference is considerable. The deviation between  $\alpha$   
608 and  $\alpha'$  is greatest for journals for which there is a small sample size (see S8 Fig).

609 S8 Fig. For journals for which we recovered a small number of papers ( $< 100$ ), the unadjusted  
610 metric  $\alpha$  was downwardly biased. This fits our expectations: because authors cannot be their  
611 own co-authors, small datasets will tend to produce negative estimates of  $\alpha$  even if authors  
612 assort randomly with respect to gender (see main text). This suggests that  $\alpha'$  is a more  
613 useful measure of homophily and heterophily, especially for small samples.

### 614 Supplementary tables

615 S1 Table. Sample sizes for the two datasets, which comprise papers published in the timeframes  
616 August 2005 - August 2006, and August 2015 - August 2016.

617 S2 Table. Number of journals showing statistically significant homophily or heterophily, in  
618 two one-year periods. The significance threshold was  $p < 0.05$ , and p-values were adjusted



619 using Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate correction. Note that the power of our test is  
620 lower for the 2005-2006 data because fewer papers were recovered per journal: thus, it is not  
621 meaningful to compare the % significant journals (i.e. 11% vs 24%) between the two time  
622 periods.

## 623 **Supplementary datasets**

624 S1 Data: This spreadsheet shows the  $\alpha$  values calculated for each journal, in the 2005 and  
625 2015 samples, and for each type of author (all authors, first authors, and last authors). The  
626 tables gives the impact factor of each journal, the sample size,  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha'$  and their 95% CIs,  
627 and the p-value from a 2-tailed test evaluating the null hypothesis that  $\alpha$  is zero (both raw  
628 and FDR-corrected p-values are shown).

629 S2 Data: This file gives the number and percentage of paper that have 1, 2, 3, 4, or  $\geq 5$   
630 authors for each *journal* in the dataset of Holman et al. (2018) *PLoS Biology*. Note that the  
631 sample sizes include papers for which the gender of one or more authors was not determined  
632 by Holman et al.

633 S3 Data: This file gives the number and percentage of paper that have 1, 2, 3, 4, or  $\geq 5$   
634 authors for each *discipline* in the dataset of Holman et al. (2018) *PLoS Biology*. Note that the  
635 sample sizes include papers for which the gender of one or more authors was not determined  
636 by Holman et al.

637 S4 Data. The table shows the distribution of the  $\alpha'$  values across journals, split by the  
638 research discipline. The gender ratio column shows the percentage of women authors in the  
639 sample used to calculate  $\alpha'$ , across all authorship positions. In the last two columns, the  
640 numbers outside parentheses give the number of journals that deviate statistically significantly  
641 from zero, while the numbers inside parentheses give the number that remain significant after  
642 false discovery rate correction.