

# 1 The Case For and Against Double-blind Reviews

2

3 12 Dec 2018

4

5 Amelia R. Cox<sup>1</sup> Robert Mongomerie<sup>1</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup> Biology, Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada

8

9 Corresponding Author:

10 Robert Montgomerie, Department of Biology, Queen's University, 116 Barrie St, Kingston,

11 Ontario K7L 3N6, Canada

12 Email address: mont@queensu.ca

## 13 Abstract

14 To date, the majority of authors on scientific publications have been men. While much of this  
15 gender bias can be explained by historic sexism and discrimination, there is concern that women  
16 may still be disadvantaged by the peer review process if reviewers' unconscious biases lead them  
17 to reject publications with female authors more often. One potential solution to this perceived  
18 gender bias in the reviewing process is for journals to adopt double-blind reviews whereby  
19 neither the authors nor the reviewers are aware of each other's identities and genders. To test the  
20 efficacy of double-blind reviews, we assigned gender to every authorship of every paper  
21 published in 5 different journals with different peer review processes (double-blind vs. single  
22 blind) and subject matter (birds vs. behavioral ecology) from 2010-2018 (n = 4865 papers).  
23 While female authorships comprised only 35% of the total, the double-blind journal *Behavioral*  
24 *Ecology* did not have more female authorships than its single-blind counterparts. Interestingly,  
25 the incidence of female authorship is higher at behavioral ecology journals (*Behavioral Ecology*  
26 and *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology*) than in the ornithology journals (*Auk*, *Condor*, *Ibis*),  
27 for papers on all topics as well as those on birds. These analyses suggest that double-blind  
28 review does not currently increase the incidence of female authorship in the journals studied  
29 here. We conclude, at least for these journals, that double-blind review does not benefit female  
30 authors and may, in the long run, be detrimental.

## 31 Introduction

32 For the past 25 years, there has been a welcome flurry of interest in the role and relative success  
33 of women in the process of scientific publication (e.g., Gilbert, Williams & Lundberg, 1994;  
34 Tregenza, 2002; Budden et al., 2008; Cho et al., 2014). The main foci of this research have been  
35 to assess the contributions of women to authorship, editorship, and collaborations, as well as to  
36 determine whether manuscript reviewers might be biased with respect to the gender, nationality,  
37 and reputation of authors. In a global, multidisciplinary, bibliometric analysis of 5.5 million  
38 academic papers published from 2008 to 2012, for example, Larivière et al. (2013) found that

39 women published relatively fewer papers than men, were less likely to be first or last author on  
40 multi-authored papers, and, even when women were in these ‘dominant author’ positions, their  
41 papers were less likely to be cited than when men were first or last author. These various gender  
42 gaps varied by discipline, and author nationality but are echoed in a recent analysis of both  
43 manuscript submissions and published papers in 7 ecology journals (Fox, Ritchey & Paine,  
44 2018). Several studies indicate that this gap has been ameliorating over the most recent decade,  
45 suggesting that changes in society at large, and in the scientific publishing process, in particular,  
46 are proving to be beneficial to female academics.

47  
48 While it is unclear whether—but expected that—gender biases against women will influence  
49 research careers (Larivière et al., 2013), factors that reduce publication rate and quality will  
50 certainly have a negative impact. For that reason, many journals have adopted a double-blind  
51 reviewing policy wherein the reviewers are not revealed to the authors, and anything that might  
52 identify an author is removed from the manuscript before review. While the reasons for adopting  
53 double-blind reviews are laudable, there are some costs (see Discussion) and, to date, there is  
54 largely controversial evidence that such policies are having the desired effect. For instance,  
55 Budden et al. (2008) found that female first authorship was 7.9% higher in *Behavioral Ecology*  
56 after that journal switched from single-blind to double-blind reviews, while five comparable  
57 ecology journals that retained single-blind reviews showed no increase in the incidence of female  
58 authorship. However, others have suggested that different statistical analyses would have been  
59 more appropriate and have shown that the incidence of female authorship has steadily increased  
60 across all journals, regardless of peer review style (Engqvist & Frommen, 2008; Webb, Hara &  
61 Freckleton, 2008).

62  
63 In the present study, we tested the idea that double-blind reviews have influenced the publication  
64 success of female authors. We considered three possible approaches to such a study. First, real  
65 manuscripts submitted to a given journal could be sent to typical reviewers in a paired design  
66 where one reviewer sees the author details, and the other does not (e.g., Tomkins, Zhang &  
67 Heavlin, 2017). Alternatively, author names could be fictitious but readily identifiable as either  
68 male or female, again in a paired design. This may be the most powerful experimental method,  
69 but it requires a considerable contribution from a journal and would need to be run for several  
70 issues or even years to generate a large enough sample for analysis.

71  
72 Second, real or fake manuscripts can be assigned randomly to multiple readers to assess the  
73 effects of different author-gender combinations on perceived quality (e.g., Borsuk et al., 2009;  
74 Knobloch-Westerwick, Glynn & Huge, 2013; Okike et al., 2016). This method is excellent with  
75 respect to experimental design as so many potentially confounding factors can be controlled but  
76 it requires a fairly large number of willing and knowledgeable readers. Typical reviewers are  
77 unlikely to be willing to devote time to such an experiment, so this sort of study usually employs  
78 student readers. As a result, the subject matter in the papers used in such experiments is often

79 kept fairly general, and the results may not reflect the responses of expert reviewers to field-  
80 specific manuscripts.

81  
82 Third, a study can assess the differences between papers published in journals with and  
83 without—or in the same journal before and after (e.g., Budden et al., 2008)—it adopts double-  
84 blind reviews. This method has the advantage of involving large numbers of readily accessible  
85 papers, and, at least for comparisons between journals, can reveal trends over a period of years.  
86 The disadvantages are that submission and acceptance rates cannot be assessed, and different  
87 journals, even in the same field, might attract a different proportion of male and female authors,  
88 or submissions from different geographic regions, or with a different taxonomic or subject focus.  
89 Despite these limitations, we adopted this approach in the present study and attempted to control  
90 for differences between journals by comparing journals that we felt were very likely to attract the  
91 same authors and manuscripts, and by comparing publications that had the same taxonomic focus  
92 (birds) within those journals.

## 93 Methods

### 94 Data collection

95 We began this study to assess the potential advantages of two ornithological journals adopting a  
96 double-blind reviewing policy, *The Auk* (hereafter AUK) and *The Condor* (CONDOR), both now  
97 published by the American Ornithological Society. To do that, we compared recent publications  
98 (2010-2018) in those two journals to papers published in *Behavioral Ecology* (BE), a journal  
99 with double-blind reviews (since 2001) but similar journal impact factors (2017 IF = 2.44, 2.72,  
100 and 3.35, respectively). Only ~30% of the papers in BE in our dataset were about birds, so we  
101 also compared papers in BE with those in *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* (BES), a single-  
102 blind journal with a similar audience and citation rate (2017 IF = 2.47) to BE. Because BE and  
103 BES had substantially more international authors than AUK and CONDOR, we added *The Ibis*  
104 (IBIS) to our analysis to see if author nationality might be important. IBIS uses single-blind  
105 reviews and is published by the British Ornithologists' Union (2017 IF = 2.23).

106  
107 For the 5445 papers published between 2010 and 2018 in those 5 journals, we assigned a gender  
108 to each authorship, noting the first and last authorships of each paper. We defined 'authorship' as  
109 each author on each paper; many authors publish multiple papers per year and thus account for  
110 multiple authorships. We assigned gender based solely on the perceived genders of first names  
111 rather than searching the internet for more information. Thus, we assumed that a reviewer would  
112 determine gender based on first names and would not have any additional information. For  
113 unfamiliar names, we used [www.gpeters.com/names/baby-names](http://www.gpeters.com/names/baby-names) to identify gender, requiring  
114 one gender to be >2x as likely as the other, otherwise, we scored it as ambiguous. For some  
115 papers authorships could not be assigned a gender because (i) only first initials were listed, (ii)  
116 the order of given and surnames was unclear (e.g., Asian names), or (iii) names were not  
117 consistently gendered (e.g., Robin which is only 1.53 times more likely to be male). In all, 580  
118 papers with at least one authorship of ambiguous gender were excluded from all analyses,

119 resulting in 4865 papers for the analyses presented here. Each paper was also scored as being  
120 about birds or other topics.  
121

## 122 Statistical analysis

123 We tested for gender biases in published papers, comparing journals and testing whether patterns  
124 changed over the 9 years in our sample. For all papers, we assessed the odds of having any  
125 female authorships in a paper and the proportion of authorships that were female. For single-  
126 author papers, we assessed the odds that the authorship was female. For multi-author papers, we  
127 assessed the odds of having a female authorship in the first or last position.  
128

129 For each response variable, we performed a binomial logistic regression testing for associations  
130 between female authorships and journal, year, and their interaction. When testing for whether  
131 there were any female authorships on papers, we included the total number of authorships to  
132 account for the increase in female authorships as total authorships increases.  
133

134 To test whether research collaborations lead by women had higher proportions of women  
135 involved as coauthors than collaborations lead by men, we looked for associations the proportion  
136 of female-authorships before the last authorship (i.e. collaborators) and the assumed gender of  
137 the last authorship, controlling for the journal, year, and their interaction.  
138

139 We conducted all analyses using data from papers on all topics, as well as focusing only on  
140 papers about birds (see Table 1 for sample sizes). The vast majority of papers had <7 authors  
141 (95-96%; Fig. S1), so we also conducted analyses excluding all papers with >6 authorships.  
142 Including papers with long author lists did not affect the results (see Statistical Supplement S1  
143 and S2).  
144

145 For all analyses, we used a generalized linear model with binomial error and logit link function.  
146 Results are calculated as odds ratios (OR) then converted to percentages for ease of presentation  
147 (see Statistical Supplements for details). For all summary statistics, 95%CL are presented in  
148 square brackets. We report likelihood ratio chi-squares (LR  $\chi^2$ ) for the variable of interest, testing  
149 the significance of removing that term from the model. To compare journals, we used Tukey  
150 posthoc tests on model results.  
151

152 All analyses were conducted in R version 3.5.1 (R Core Team 2018). R scripts, analysis output,  
153 and raw data are deposited at Open Science Framework.  
154

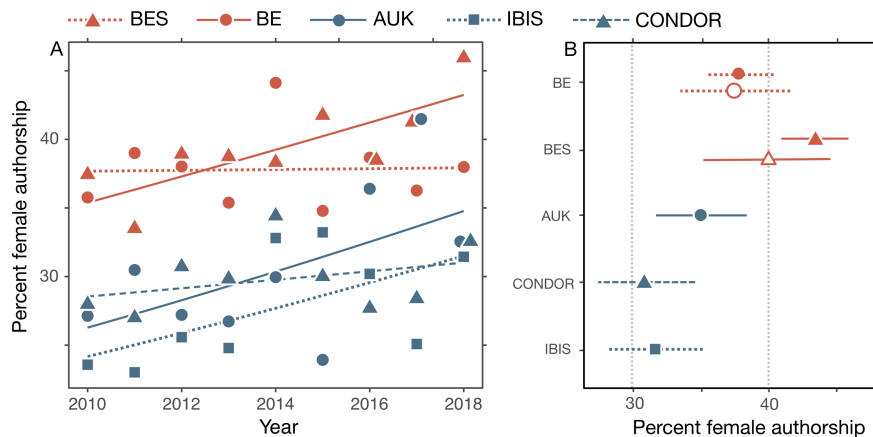
## 155 Results

### 156 Any female authorships

157 As expected, the odds of a paper having at least one female authorship increased with the total  
158 number of authors on the paper (Table 2, Fig. S2). The odds of a paper having at least one female  
159 authorship increased from 2010-2018 in AUK, CONDOR, IBIS, and BES but not at the double-  
160 blind BE (Fig. S3A), although the differences in slope are not significant (year\*journal  
161 interaction, Table 2). As of 2018, BES has a higher percentage of papers with at least one female  
162 authorship (82% [78, 86]) than any other journal (BE 75% [70, 79], AUK 73% [66, 79],  
163 CONDOR 73% [65, 80], IBIS 72% [65, 79]) (Fig. S3C). The patterns were similar for papers  
164 specifically about birds (Table 2, Fig. S3B-C).  
165

### 166 Percentage of female authorships per issue

167 Across all papers ( $n = 4865$ ) and years ( $n = 9$ ), there were fewer female (mean 35%) than male  
168 (mean 65%) authorships (Fig. 1A), and this was true in almost every issue of all journals ( $n =$   
169 254 of 264 issues in 5 journals). Although the percentage of female authorships increased overall  
170 from 2010 to 2018, that rate differed significantly among journals (year \* journal; Table 2; Fig.  
171 1A). The percentage of female authorship in BES, AUK and IBIS increased significantly from  
172 2010 to 2018 (per year by 4.3% [2.0, 6.6], 5.3% [2.0, 8.7], and 4.6% [1.0, 8.4], respectively).  
173 However, this was not the case for BE (0.1% [-2.1, 2.4]) or CONDOR (1.4% [-2.0, 4.9]).  
174 Across all years BE and BES had a higher percentage of female authorships than any of the  
175 ornithology journals, and currently (2018) these differences are significant (Tukey posthoc tests,  
176  $p < 0.05$ ; see Statistical Supplement 1), except for the difference between BE and AUK (Fig.  
177 1B).



**Figure 1: All female authorships in 5 journals from 2010 to 2018.**

(A) Female authorships as the percent of total authorships on all topics, with binomial trendlines. (B) Percentage of female authorship in 2018 ( $\pm 95\%$  CI) for each journal as well as for bird papers in BE and BES (open symbols). Percentages were calculated as marginal means of the models shown in Table 2. Papers with ambiguous authorships are not included. See Table 1 for sample sizes.

178  
179  
180

181 For papers about birds, the 2010-18 trends were similar to those for all papers (Fig. S4), but the  
182 rate of increase did not differ significantly across journals (year\*journal interaction, Table 2).  
183 For papers published in 2018 only the differences between BES and both CONDOR and IBIS  
184 were significant (Tukey posthoc tests,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 1B).  
185

## 186 First-authorships

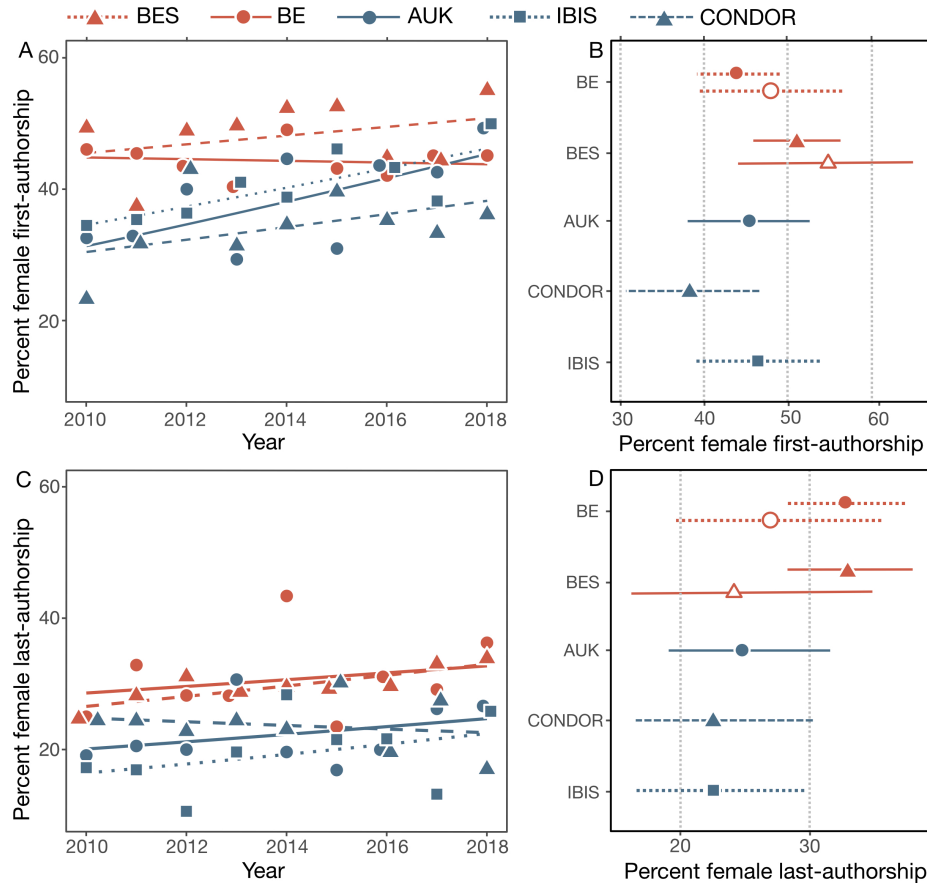
187 From 2010 to 2018, female first-authorships per year increased in all single-blind journals (BES  
188 2.7% [-1.4, 7.2], AUK 7.8% [1.4, 14.6], CONDOR 4.4% [-2.3, 11.7], IBIS 6.3% [-0.5, 13.5])  
189 but not in BE (-0.5% [-4.6, 3.8]), the only double blind journal in our study (Fig. 2A). These  
190 differences in the rate of change are not significant (year \* journal, Table 2). In 2018, BES had  
191 the highest percentage of papers with female first-authorship (Fig. 2B), although all journals  
192 actually had higher (or comparable in the case of CONDOR) rates of female first authorship than  
193 the overall 2010-2018 percentage of female authorship in these journals (35%). BES had the  
194 highest percentage of female first-authorships in 7 of 9 years. Results were similar for bird-  
195 specific papers (Table 2, Fig. 2B, Fig. S5A).

## 196 Last-authorships

197 The percentage of female last-authorships was generally stable or increasing slightly between  
198 2010 and 2018 (per year, BE 2.4% [-2.1, 7.2], BES 3.9% [-0.9, 8.7], AUK 3.4% [-3.6, 11.0],  
199 CONDOR -1.5% [-8.7, 6.1], IBIS 5.0% [-3.2, 14.0]; Fig. 2C). Differences in the rate of increase  
200 across journals were not significant (journal\*year, Table 2). In all journals, the percentage of  
201 female last-authorships was lower than for than female first-authorships, with IBIS having the  
202 lowest proportion of female last-authorships in 5 of the 9 years.  
203

204 These differences between the behavioral ecology and ornithology journals seem to be driven by  
205 papers about non-bird taxa. Considering only papers about birds, last-authorships did not vary  
206 significantly among journals or years in our sample (Table 2, Fig. S5B).  
207

208 In contrast to first-authorships, by 2018 all journals had lower percentages of female last-  
209 authorships than the overall percentage of female authorship (35%) in these journals (Fig. 2D).  
210 By 2018, all journals had comparable percentages of female last-authorships on bird papers  
211 (22%-27%) but the percentages of female last-authorships were higher in the behavioral ecology  
212 journals.  
213



**Figure 2: Female first- and last-authorships in 5 journals from 2010 to 2018.**

Female first- and last-authorships calculated as the percent of total first- or last-authorships in multi-authored papers (A, C). Percentage of female first- and last-authorships in 2018 (B, D) for each journal as well as for bird papers in BE and BES (open symbols). Percentages were calculated as marginal means of the models shown in Table 2. Papers with ambiguous authorships are not included. See Table 1 for sample sizes.

214

215

216

217

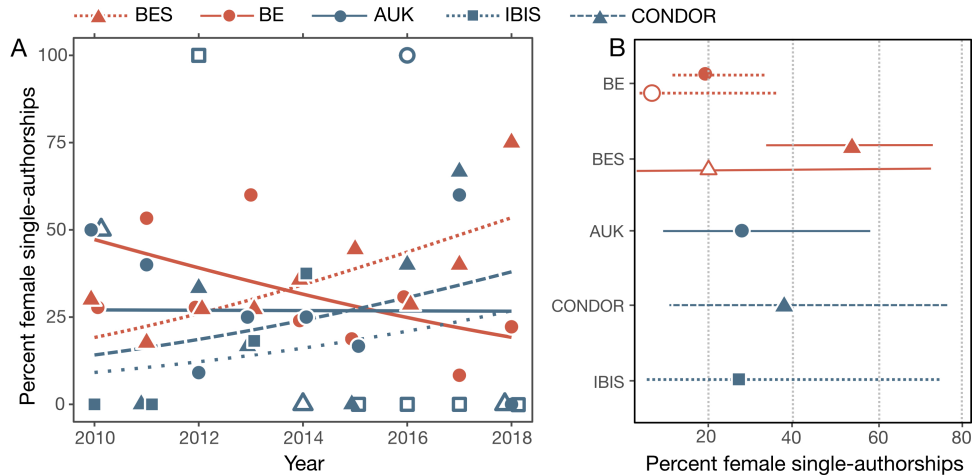
218

## 219 Single-authorship papers

220 The percentage of single-authored papers that had female authorship changed across years in all  
 221 journals, but the rate of change varied significantly (year\*journal, Table 2). While the double-  
 222 blind-reviewing BE initially had the most female single-authorships, that percentage declined  
 223 significantly from 2010 to 2018 (−15% per year [−26, −3]), while every single-blind journal  
 224 increased (BES 21% [2, 46], CONDOR 18% [−19, 78], IBIS 17% [−22, 77]) or remained  
 225 constant (AUK 0% [−24, 31]; Fig. 3).

226

227 In contrast, for papers about birds, there was no significant variation in the percentage of single-  
 228 authored papers having a female authorship across journals or years (Table 2, Fig. S6).



**Figure 3: Female single-authorships in 5 journals from 2010 to 2018.**

(A) Percentages of single-authored papers that had female authorships in each journal, with binomial trendlines. Open shapes for years with <3 single-authorship papers. (B) Percentage of female single-authorship papers in 2018 for each journal as well as for bird papers in BE and BES (open symbols). Percentages were calculated as marginal means of the models shown in Table 2. Papers with ambiguous authorships are not included. See Table 1 for sample sizes.

229

230

231

232

233

## 234 Authorships of collaboration leaders

235 For papers on all topics, if the last author (assumed to be the collaboration lead) was female  
 236 rather than male, the proportion of other female authorships on that paper increased significantly  
 237 (Table 2) by 44% [33, 56]. For bird papers alone, the proportion of other female authorships (i.e.,  
 238 collaborators) significantly increased 41% [26, 58] if the last-authorship was female (Table 2).

## 239 Discussion

240 Our analyses show that, from 2010-2018, the journal *Behavioral Ecology* (BE) which mandates a  
 241 double-blind peer review did not have higher rates female authorship than the subject-  
 242 comparable *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* (BES), with single-blind review. Instead, we  
 243 found a general increase in the frequency of female authorship across all journals, except for  
 244 single author papers, where female authorship actually decreased in the double-blind journal  
 245 while increasing in the single-blind journals. Although we found fewer female (mean 35%) than  
 246 male (mean 65%) authorships, only 22.8% % of 1990-2011 papers on JSTOR about ecology and  
 247 evolution were written by women, suggesting that these rates reflect the gender ratios of the  
 248 field, rather than a publishing bias. Overall, we find no evidence that double-blind peer review  
 249 increases the incidence of female authorship. With female authorships increasing over the most  
 250 recent decade in these journals, there appears to be no longer a gender bias in publication that  
 251 can be attributed to the reviewing process.

252



253 The three ornithology journals had lower rates of female authorship than the more taxon-general  
254 behavioral ecology journals (BE and BES). This discrepancy does not seem to be a bias in the  
255 field of ornithology resulting from different gender ratios among ornithological authors or from a  
256 reviewer bias among ornithologists as the pattern holds even with bird papers published in the  
257 behavioral ecology journals (Fig. S3-S6). Moreover, the lower rates of female authorship in the  
258 bird journals are not likely to be due to differences in the nationalities of authorship, as IBIS, BE,  
259 and BES all publish many papers by authors outside North America. Instead, we suggest that  
260 lower rates of female authorship in the ornithology journals may be a result of women being less  
261 likely to submit to these taxon-specific ornithology journals, for some as yet unknown reason. As  
262 women in other fields tend to have broader research programs and specialize less often (Leahey,  
263 2006), journals with more general readership might be more appealing to female scientists than  
264 the specialized ornithology journals. Alternatively, BE and BES were both founded relatively  
265 recently (1990 and 1976 respectively) with both men and women on the editorial boards and  
266 have always aimed for gender parity. In sharp contrast, the ornithology journals were all founded  
267 by small groups of men in the mid-to-late 1800s, and never had female editors-in-chief (0/19 for  
268 AUK, 0/14 for CONDOR, though the newly-appointed EIC is a woman). This awareness of  
269 potential bias may well have benefited the gender ratios of authors in BE and BES. For example,  
270 conference organizers achieve gender parity when they explicitly consider gender when inviting  
271 speakers, while those who do not do this tend to under-invite women, relative to the proportion  
272 of female society members (Débarre, Rode & Ugelvig, 2018).

273  
274 In our dataset, 11% of papers had at least one authorship whose gender we could not be certain  
275 of from their first name alone. Manuscript reviewers, however, often have prior knowledge of an  
276 author's gender, particularly amongst those with established careers and particularly in small  
277 fields such as ornithology. Reviewers may also look up unfamiliar authors to get a sense of who  
278 they are reviewing. We did not categorize the genders of ambiguous authors by using other  
279 criteria but as they represent only 11% of our sample of papers, they are unlikely to influence our  
280 findings.

281  
282 While double-blind reviewing does not appear to have influenced any gender bias in publication  
283 success over the past decade in the journals that we surveyed, gender bias in academia is still a  
284 serious concern. Indeed, only ~25% of last authorships were female, in stark contrast to the 60%  
285 female undergraduate population (Eddy, Brownell & Wenderoth, 2014). This disparity between  
286 gender ratios in incoming undergraduates and tenured professors is commonly attributed to  
287 lingering effects of historical inequality. However, the disparity is larger than that predicted by  
288 that factor alone, with women less likely than men to pursue academic careers following  
289 graduate school (Shaw & Stanton, 2012). In part, this may be due to unconscious biases within  
290 academia. When asked to evaluate an application for lab manager, science faculty rated male  
291 applicants as more competent and hireable than a female applicant with an identical record, and  
292 men were offered higher starting salaries and more mentorship opportunities (Moss-racusin et

293 al., 2012). Female scientists also tend to have fewer large, international collaborations—which  
294 are more likely to result in high impact papers—than men (Abramo, D’Angelo & Murgia, 2013;  
295 Campbell et al., 2013; Uhly, Visser & Zippel, 2017). Such a bias faced by women in their day-  
296 to-day academic life may discourage women from remaining in academia.

## 297 The Case For

298 Although we find no evidence that a double-blind reviewing process currently improves gender  
299 equity in publishing in the journals that we surveyed, that does not mean that double-blind  
300 reviewing is not worthwhile. Rather, double-blind reviewing may reduce the incidence of  
301 nepotism and both institutional and geographic biases. If either these factors are thought to  
302 influence the acceptance of manuscripts in the journals that we studied, they should be studied in  
303 those journals specifically, in a recent sample of journal volumes.

304  
305 There is evidence, for example, that authors familiar to reviewers, either through a personal  
306 connection or prominence in the field, are more likely to have their papers or grants accepted  
307 than unfamiliar authors (Sandstrom & Hallsten, 2008; Okike et al., 2016). In Sweden, success  
308 rates for medical grants were ~15% higher when the grant committee members were personally  
309 affiliated with the applicant (Sandstrom & Hallsten, 2008). Similarly, work by authors from  
310 prestigious universities and institutions was more likely to be successful than that of their  
311 unknown counterparts (Ross et al., 2006; Okike et al., 2016). Presumably, well-known authors  
312 from prestigious universities arrived at this level of prominence by being exceptionally good  
313 researchers and submit high-quality work. If this was the case, these authors would have high  
314 acceptance rates, whether their name and affiliations were attached to their submissions or not.  
315 However, when personal identifiers were removed, their success rates dropped 10-15% (Ross et  
316 al., 2006; Okike et al., 2016), again suggesting a strong bias in favor of the well-known.

317  
318 There is also evidence from other general surveys that there are often strong geographic biases  
319 with authors from the USA, Canada, and the UK being substantially more likely to have their  
320 work accepted for publication than authors from other countries (Link, 1998; Tregenza, 2002;  
321 Ross et al., 2006; Primack & Marrs, 2008; Primack et al., 2009). Furthermore, only 2-4% of  
322 Indian and Chinese papers submitted to Biological Conservation were accepted from 2004-2007  
323 (Primack & Marrs, 2008). As this apparent bias may be due the disadvantage of being a non-  
324 native English speaker submitting to an English journal (Tregenza, 2002; Ross et al., 2006),  
325 double-blind review may not increase acceptance rates substantially. Nonetheless, acceptance  
326 rates vary dramatically between non-English countries (Primack & Marrs, 2008), suggesting  
327 possible geographic biases which may be corrected via double-blind review.

328  
329 One common criticism of double-blind review, particularly in small fields of study, is that  
330 reviewers can identify authors from the study system or location. One study, however, found that  
331 even though reviewers, especially experts in the field, attempt to guess the authors of

332 manuscripts that they are reviewing, they are wrong 74-90% of the time (Goues et al., 2017). In  
333 ornithology, in particular, and behavioral ecology, in general, we would expect reviewers to have  
334 a higher success rate as study organisms, study sites and methods of analysis are often strongly  
335 associated with particular authors throughout their careers.

## 336 The Case Against

337 For the five journals that we surveyed, the most obvious reason to avoid double-blind reviewing  
338 is that that procedure does not influence the publication rate of women scientists—and may even  
339 be detrimental (Fig. 1-3). Our analyses of two very comparable journals (BE and BES) suggest  
340 that publications by women are currently less likely to appear in the double-blind-reviewing BE.  
341 There is no obvious reason for this difference and it may simply reflect a preference for women  
342 to submit manuscripts to the journal that does not have double-blind reviews (BES). Thus any  
343 costs involved in double-blind reviewing do not seem to produce any positive benefits to female  
344 scientists submitting their papers to BE.

345  
346 Several previous studies have outlined three obvious arguments against double blind reviews.  
347 First, the process of preparing a manuscript for double blind review is time-consuming if done  
348 well. Time spent removing authors' names, and any telling details of study location, study  
349 species, references, acknowledgments, and funding, might be more profitably be spent checking  
350 statistical details, improving graph quality, or preparing data and statistical code for an online  
351 repository, all of which might be more beneficial than double blind reviews. Second, the double-  
352 blind reviewing process requires some additional editorial time if done well, checking submitted  
353 manuscripts thoroughly and corresponding with authors who have not met the journal's  
354 requirements. This is an additional burden that might discourage authors or increase the costs of  
355 journal editing.

356  
357 Finally, double-blind reviewing deprives potential reviewers of useful information when  
358 deciding whether to accept a request to review. Scientists might also be reluctant to provide  
359 additional reviews to papers that they have rejected with prejudice from a different journal, or by  
360 authors whose work they do not trust and would not be willing to review if the authors were  
361 revealed. Analogous to one of the core principles of Bayesian statistics, informative prior  
362 knowledge might well benefit the reviewing process.

363  
364 We also wonder whether authors might derive some intangible and long-term benefits when  
365 reviewers know who they are. As scientists become more experienced and prominent in their  
366 field, they are likely to do more reviews, and those reviews often constitute an increasing  
367 proportion of the papers that experienced scientists read thoroughly. For many reviewers,  
368 knowledge about the quality, creativity, and relevance of research (and the researchers) is  
369 acquired in large measure from the reviewing process. Double blind reviewing thus deprives  
370 authors of that potentially important source of information. We have not seen this issue

371 mentioned in previous studies of gender bias and double blind reviewing, and suggest it might be  
372 worth further investigation, as difficult as it might be to quantify.

## 373 Recommendations

374 In our experience, journal editorial boards have strong opinions about the value of double-blind  
375 reviewing, but we hope that our analyses might help to inform those opinions. Because we are  
376 behavioral ecologists, we would advocate a cost-benefit approach to decision making. If the goal  
377 is simply to maximize what we have characterized as the benefits to double blind review, then, of  
378 course, double blind is likely to be the best course of action, unless it actually discourages author  
379 submissions. But if the goal is to maximize the net benefits, then the decision is not so clear, and  
380 some thoughtful analysis of the costs might prove informative.

## 381 Acknowledgements

382 We thank the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada and Queen's  
383 University for funding; Fran Bonier for useful discussion; and xxx for comments on the  
384 manuscript.

## 385 References

- 386 Abramo G, D'Angelo CA, Murgia G. 2013. Gender differences in research  
387 collaboration. *Journal of Informetrics* 7:811–822. DOI: 10.1016/j.joi.2013.07.002.
- 388 Borsuk RM, Aarssen LW, Budden AE, Koricheva J, Leimu R, Tregenza T, Lortie CJ. 2009. To  
389 name or not to name: the effect of changing author gender on peer review. *BioScience*  
390 59:985–989. DOI: 10.1525/bio.2009.59.11.10.
- 391 Budden AE, Tregenza T, Aarssen LW, Koricheva J, Leimu R, Lortie CJ. 2008. Double-blind  
392 review favours increased representation of female authors. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*  
393 23:4–6. DOI: 10.1016/j.tree.2007.07.008.
- 394 Campbell LG, Mehtani S, Dozier ME, Rinehart J. 2013. Gender-heterogeneous working groups  
395 produce higher quality science. *PLoS ONE* 8:1–6. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0079147.
- 396 Cho AH, Johnson SA, Schuman CE, Adler JM, Gonzalez O, Graves SJ, Huebner JR, Marchant  
397 DB, Rifai SW, Skinner I, Bruna EM. 2014. Women are underrepresented on the editorial  
398 boards of journals in environmental biology and natural resource management. *PeerJ*  
399 2:e542. DOI: 10.7717/peerj.542.
- 400 Débarre F, Rode NO, Ugelvig L V. 2018. Gender equity at scientific events. *Evolution Letters*  
401 2:148–158. DOI: 10.1002/evl3.49.
- 402 Eddy SL, Brownell SE, Wenderoth MP. 2014. Gender gaps in achievement and participation in  
403 multiple introductory biology classrooms. *CBE—Life Sciences Education* 13:478–492. DOI:  
404 10.1187/cbe.13-10-0204.
- 405 Engqvist L, Frommen JG. 2008. Double-blind peer review and gender publication bias. *Animal*  
406 *Behaviour* 76:e1–e2. DOI: 10.1016/j.anbehav.2008.05.023.
- 407 Fox CW, Ritchey JP, Paine CET. 2018. Patterns of authorship in ecology and evolution: First,  
408 last, and corresponding authorship vary with gender and geography. *Ecology and*  
409 *Evolution*:in press. DOI: 10.1002/ece3.4584.
- 410 Gilbert JR, Williams ES, Lundberg GD. 1994. Is there gender bias in JAMA's peer review  
411 process? *Journal of the American Medical Association* 272:139–142. DOI:  
412 10.1001/jama.1994.03520020065018.
- 413 Goues C Le, Brun Y, Apel S, Berger E, Kurshid S, Smaragdakis Y. 2017. Effectiveness of  
414 anonymization in double-blind review. *arXiv preprint*:arXiv:1709.01609.
- 415 Knobloch-Westerwick S, Glynn CJ, Hufe M. 2013. The Matilda effect in science  
416 communication: an experiment on gender bias in publication quality perceptions and  
417 collaboration interest. *Science Communication* 35:603–625. DOI:  
418 10.1177/1075547012472684.
- 419 Larivière V, Ni C, Gingras Y, Cronin B, Sugimoto CR. 2013. Bibliometrics: global gender  
420 disparities in science. *Nature* 504:211–213. DOI: 10.1038/504211a.
- 421 Leahey E. 2006. Gender differences in productivity: Research specialization as a missing link.  
422 *Gender and Society* 20:754–780. DOI: 10.1177/0891243206293030.
- 423 Link AM. 1998. US and non-US submissions. *JAMA* 280:246. DOI: 10.1001/jama.280.3.246.
- 424 Moss-racusin CA, Dovidio JF, Brescoll VL, Graham MJ, Handelsman J. 2012. Science faculty's  
425 subtle gender biases favor male students. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*  
426 109:16474–16479. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1211286109.
- 427 Okike K, Hug KT, Kocker MS, Leopold SS. 2016. Single-blind vs double-blind peer review in  
428 the setting of author prestige. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 316:1315–1316.  
429 DOI: 10.1001/jama.2016.11014.

- 430 Primack RB, Ellwood E, Miller-rushing AJ, Marrs R, Mulligan A. 2009. Do gender, nationality,  
431 or academic age affect review decisions? An analysis of submissions to the journal  
432 Biological Conservation. *Biological Conservation* 142:2415–2418. DOI:  
433 10.1016/j.biocon.2009.06.021.
- 434 Primack RB, Marrs R. 2008. Bias in the review process. *Biological Conservation* 141:2919–  
435 2920. DOI: 10.1016/j.biocon.2008.09.016.
- 436 Ross JS, Gross CP, Desai MM, Hong Y, Grant AO, Daniels SR, Hachinski VC, Gibbons RJ,  
437 Gardner TJ, Krumholz HM. 2006. Effect of blinded peer review on abstract acceptance.  
438 *JAMA* 295:1675. DOI: 10.1001/jama.295.14.1675.
- 439 Sandstrom U, Hallsten M. 2008. Persistent nepotism in peer-review. *Scientometrics* 74:175–189.  
440 DOI: 10.1007/s11192-008-0211-3.
- 441 Shaw AK, Stanton DE. 2012. Leaks in the pipeline: separating demographic inertia from  
442 ongoing gender differences in academia. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 279:3736–  
443 3741. DOI: 10.1098/rspb.2012.0822.
- 444 Tomkins A, Zhang M, Heavlin WD. 2017. Reviewer bias in single- versus double-blind peer  
445 review. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 114:12708–12713. DOI:  
446 10.1073/pnas.1707323114.
- 447 Tregenza T. 2002. Gender bias in the refereeing process? *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*  
448 17:349–350. DOI: 10.1016/S0169-5347(02)02545-4.
- 449 Uhly KM, Visser LM, Zippel KS. 2017. Gendered patterns in international research  
450 collaborations in academia. *Studies in Higher Education* 42:760–782. DOI:  
451 10.1080/03075079.2015.1072151.
- 452 Webb TJ, Hara BO, Freckleton RP. 2008. Does double-blind review benefit female authors?  
453 *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 23:2006–2008. DOI: 10.1016/j.tree.2008.04.004.