

1 Gendered male and high-income country authors dominate publication at a One
2 Health research organization

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19 **Abstract**

20 Authorship on academic publications is consequential for researchers in science fields.
21 One’s position in a list of authors is typically used to signal information about author
22 contributions and status, with the first and last author positions regarded as the most prestigious
23 and important for career advancement. Therefore, any inequities that exist in the allocation of
24 authorship (e.g. associated with gender or geography) could affect researchers' career
25 progression. We assessed patterns in authorship at EcoHealth Alliance, a non-profit organization
26 that conducted One Health and conservation research. We compiled a corpus of 451 peer-
27 reviewed journal articles published from 2011-2022, each of which had at least one EcoHealth
28 Alliance-affiliated author, and gathered information on the gender and country affiliation of
29 authors in first and last author positions. Within the corpus, we found that gendered male
30 researchers and researchers with high-income country (HIC) affiliations were often in prestigious
31 author positions. Specifically, we found that gendered male authors represented 60% of first and
32 last authors, 65% of first and last authorships (FLAs), and 91% of highly productive authors
33 (those with ≥ 10 FLAs). Last authorships were particularly male-dominated, with 2.7 times as
34 many last authorships by gendered male authors as by gendered female authors. Our network
35 analysis revealed that gendered male authors were more structurally important to the author
36 network on average and comprised 65% of highly “powerful” authors in the network. HICs were
37 also overrepresented in the corpus, with 72% of FLAs listing an HIC affiliation. Though our
38 analysis was based on articles with at least one EcoHealth Alliance-affiliated author, authorship
39 affiliations in the corpus extended to nearly 250 institutions across 43 countries, suggesting
40 broader applicability of our findings. We conclude by offering recommendations—informed by
41 the patterns observed in our data and based on our personal experiences as researchers—that we

42 believe would help address the gender and geography disparities in authorship patterns we
43 observed.

44 **Introduction**

45 Authorship on academic publications is consequential for researchers in science,
46 technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), as it can bestow prestige, bolster reputations,
47 and influence career trajectories (1). An individual's publication record is a key consideration in
48 hiring, promotion, and tenure decisions (2-4). Greater productivity in the form of authorship has
49 also been linked to obtaining more research funding (5, 6) and higher pay for STEM researchers
50 (7). However, the benefits of publication are not experienced equitably by those who contribute
51 to a manuscript. In the sciences, author position (i.e. one's position in a list of authors on a
52 publication) often signals information about author contributions and status, with the first and
53 last author positions typically (though not universally (8)) regarded as the most prestigious (9,
54 10) and thus particularly important for career advancement (4, 11). Therefore, any inequities that
55 exist in the allocation of authorship separate from actual contribution (e.g. associated with
56 gender or geography) could affect researchers' career progression (12, 13).

57 Though differences exist between STEM fields, women are generally under-represented
58 as authors, in overall number of authorships, and in first and last authorships (14-16). For
59 instance, a global study of scientific output found women accounted for < 30% of authorships
60 and for every article with a female first author, there were nearly two by a male first author (14).
61 Gendered authorship gaps have slowly narrowed but disparities persist (15-17). There is a
62 widening gender gap in the last author position (15), which was likely exacerbated by the
63 COVID-19 pandemic (18). Though it is difficult to determine the mechanisms underlying
64 gendered authorship disparities, suggested explanations include the slower career progression
65 and/or attrition of women in science, an influence of gender in authorship negotiations, and
66 differences in attribution and recognition of women's contributions (15, 17, 19, 20). Notably,

67 authors from low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) are also less likely to be listed as first
68 or last authors on publications compared to authors from high-income countries (HICs) (21-23).
69 Even when research takes place in an LMIC or involves LMIC participants, researchers affiliated
70 with that country are only included as first or last authors about half the time (24-26). As a result,
71 researchers with multiple marginalized identities are especially underrepresented as authors and
72 in prestigious authorships. In a study of all publications by The Nature Conservancy (TNC), one
73 of the world's largest conservation non-profit organizations, women in the Global South
74 represented 3% of all authors while first and last authorships by women in the Global South each
75 comprised < 1% of all authorships (16).

76 Although there have been some efforts from publishers to promote more equitable and
77 transparent recognition of scientific contributions in authorship (e.g. by requiring use of the
78 Contributor Role Taxonomy (CRediT; (27))), it is also important for research organizations
79 (particularly those in HICs) to critically examine their own authorship patterns and practices.
80 Further, by making their findings public, organizations can spur broader study and reflection and
81 contribute to an improved understanding of authorship norms in different scientific fields. Case
82 studies of organizations that are highly influential in their fields are particularly valuable, as their
83 practices may influence behavior of other organizations. The TNC case study above provides one
84 such example and motivated the work we describe below.

85 All authors of this manuscript were formerly employed by EcoHealth Alliance (EHA), a
86 non-profit research organization focused on pandemic prevention and wildlife conservation.
87 Founded in 1971 as Wildlife Preservation Trust International (and later shortened to Wildlife
88 Trust), the organization rebranded as EcoHealth Alliance in 2010 to reflect a transition from a
89 conservation focus to a broader “One Health” agenda (28). One Health is a concept that

90 emphasizes the interconnectedness of animal, human, plant, and environmental health (29), and
91 as a research field, it comprises diverse disciplines (e.g. ecology, biology, infectious disease,
92 veterinary science, environmental science, public health, health policy). Although EHA was
93 headquartered in New York City, most research projects were centered in LMICs (30+
94 countries). These projects were conducted in partnership with local researchers and guided by
95 organizational principles such as collaboration, equity, diversity, and inclusion.

96 At the time this project was initiated (mid-2023), EHA employed ~50 scientific staff and
97 ~10 administrative staff. Despite its modest size, EHA occupied an important role in the One
98 Health and conservation research landscape. Projects at the organization were supported by
99 federal funding (e.g. National Institutes of Health, National Science Foundation, Department of
100 Defense, United States Agency for International Development) as well as grants from the private
101 sector and foundations (e.g. Gates Foundation, Wellcome Trust, Samuel Freeman Charitable
102 Trust). EHA scientists contributed to major scientific discoveries, including identifying viral
103 reservoirs in wildlife and elucidating drivers of disease spillover and emergence, that were
104 published in top-ranked journals such as Nature (30-32), Science (33), The Lancet (34), PNAS
105 (35, 36), The New England Journal of Medicine (37), and Emerging Infectious Diseases (38).
106 EHA also helped shape policy in public health and conservation through the involvement of its
107 scientists with high-level panels and committees convened by organizations including the
108 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services, the
109 International Union for Conservation of Nature, the National Academies of Sciences,
110 Engineering, and Medicine, and the World Organization for Animal Health.

111 Given EHA's role as an HIC-based organization that partnered primarily with LMIC-
112 based organizations, and an internal structure with majority women in early and middle career

113 positions but majority men in leadership positions (authors' personal observations), we felt that
114 EHA provided an excellent opportunity to examine associations between gender, geography, and
115 authorship. As such, we initiated a project to assess authorship patterns within EHA and its
116 broader collaboration network. We hope this project will also motivate other internationally
117 collaborating organizations to review their own authorship patterns. Importantly, we provide the
118 de-identified data and code workflow underlying our analyses to serve as an initial template for
119 such explorations.

120

121 **Materials and methods**

122 **Ethical and organizational approval**

123 On June 17, 2023, this study was approved as exempt by the Health Media Lab
124 Institutional Review Board (Protocol #2264). This study was also approved by EHA senior
125 leadership. Data were accessed for research purposes from June 18, 2023 through June 4, 2024.
126 Authors had access to information that could identify individual participants during and after
127 data collection.

128

129 **Data collation and cleaning**

130 We compiled a set of peer-reviewed, EHA-affiliated journal articles published from
131 January 1, 2011 to December 31, 2022 (henceforth, the *corpus*); see Text S1 for details. From
132 this corpus, we developed three related tables of articles, authors, and authorships. Here, we use
133 the term *author* to refer to a unique individual, and *authorship* to refer to an individual's
134 contribution to a specific journal *article*. By contributing to multiple articles, a single author

135 therefore accumulates authorships over their career. We cleaned the authors table by removing
136 duplicates, referring to sources such as ORCID (Open Researcher and Contributor ID),
137 ResearchGate, and Google Scholar profiles to ensure that unique authors were identified as such
138 despite minor differences in name spelling, use of initials, or accents. We also collected
139 information on author gender (see *Gender classification of authors* below). We classified
140 authorships as either first (including sole authorships), middle, or last, and restricted the
141 authorships table to first and last authorships in recognition of the greater contribution and
142 prestige associated with these positions (10). In the case of co-first authorships, we included only
143 the author listed first. All analyses described in this manuscript focus only on first and last
144 authorships (FLAs) and do not include middle authorships.

145 We noted the country listed for each authorship affiliation (hereafter, *authorship*
146 *geography*). If a single authorship listed multiple affiliations, we selected only the first, assuming
147 it represented an organization or location of primary importance to the author. We classified each
148 country as low-income, lower-middle-income, upper-middle-income, or high-income using
149 historical World Bank data ([https://datacatalogfiles.worldbank.org/ddh-](https://datacatalogfiles.worldbank.org/ddh-published/0037712/DR0090754/OGHIST.xlsx)
150 [published/0037712/DR0090754/OGHIST.xlsx](https://datacatalogfiles.worldbank.org/ddh-published/0037712/DR0090754/OGHIST.xlsx)). Because the World Bank classifies incomes
151 annually, we used the most common designation for a country over the period of our dataset. For
152 example, Bangladesh was classified by the World Bank as low-income from 2011-2013 and
153 lower-middle-income from 2014-2022; therefore, we classified it as lower-middle-income.
154 Finally, we assessed whether each article had a geographic focus; that is, the research described
155 in the article required the authors' physical presence in a country (e.g. for fieldwork) or
156 specialized knowledge about a country. If yes, we recorded all focal countries of an article as the

157 *article geography*. If the work described in an article could be performed regardless of location
158 (e.g. a review or model-based article), we classified the article geography as “non-specific”.

159

160 **Gender classification of authors**

161 We employed a two-pronged approach to gather author gender information (for authors
162 with at least one first or last authorship; $n = 498$ authors).

163 **1) Pronouns-based approach.** Self-identified gender data are typically not publicly
164 available. However, there is a growing practice of sharing one’s pronouns (e.g. she/her, he/him,
165 they/them, she/they, they/he) in conversation and online (e.g. professional websites, email
166 signatures) (40, 41). We therefore annotated author data with manually-gathered pronouns (42)
167 to infer gender. To gather author pronouns, we first drew from professional interactions we have
168 had with authors in the corpus (e.g. scientific collaborations, conference attendance, working
169 groups). For authors not known to us, we searched online for publicly available information (e.g.
170 lab websites, interviews, press releases, conference programs) that contained pronouns. Pronouns
171 were recorded as “she/her/hers”, “he/him/his”, “they/them/their” (with the option to select
172 multiple of these) or “unable to find”. We classified authors as *gendered female* if we only found
173 evidence that they used she/her/hers pronouns, as *gendered male* if we only found evidence that
174 they used he/him/his pronouns, and as *gendered nonbinary* if we found evidence they used
175 they/them/their pronouns or any combination of he/she/they pronouns (43). Here, we use
176 *nonbinary* as “an umbrella term for people whose gender identity doesn’t sit comfortably with
177 ‘man’ or ‘woman’” (44). We chose *nonbinary* because the Gender Census 2024 (which surveyed
178 nearly 50,000 participants) found it to be the term that is most preferred (60.4%) by individuals
179 who do not identify as fitting into the male/female binary

180 (<https://www.gendercensus.com/results/2024-worldwide>). We use the terms *gendered male* and
181 *gendered female* to emphasize that these are externally imposed classifications (45), and
182 acknowledge that a person’s gender does not necessarily correspond to the pronouns they use.
183 However, using pronouns as a proxy for gender identity allowed us to include those with
184 nonbinary identities, who are often excluded in similar analyses (16, 46).

185 **2) Name-based approach.** We hypothesized our ability to find author pronouns would
186 be diminished for authors outside the United States, given that sharing pronouns is not a global
187 practice. Therefore, we used the *nomquamgender* python package (45) to assign a probability
188 $p(gf)$ that each author was gendered female. The package uses a “dictionary” of name-gender
189 associations from more than 150 countries to assign a $p(gf)$ value to an individual based on their
190 name. A user can then set a threshold to classify binary gender based on $p(gf)$. We used the
191 default threshold of 0.1, meaning we classified an author as *gendered female* if $p(gf)$ was ≥ 0.90
192 and as *gendered male* if $p(gf)$ was ≤ 0.10 . If $p(gf)$ was between 0.10 and 0.90, we classified an
193 author as *uncertain*. Names that do not occur in the dictionary of name-gender associations
194 cannot be assigned $p(gf)$ values; we classified these names as *undetermined*.

195 We assessed concordance between gender classifications made using the pronouns-based
196 approach versus the name-based approach and made a final gender classification list by merging
197 the results of our two approaches, deferring to gender based on pronouns in cases of
198 disagreement. When we were unable to determine gender by either approach, we classified
199 author gender as *unknown*. We also attempted to collect voluntarily-disclosed demographic
200 information about EHA employees from the organization’s human resources department to serve
201 as a better validation dataset for our two-pronged approach to gender classification, but were
202 unable to obtain this information before EHA closed in 2025. We acknowledge that all methods

203 for classifying author gender are imperfect, and we may have incorrectly classified the gender of
204 some authors. However, our two-pronged approach allowed us to maximize the data available
205 for analysis and include genders beyond the binary. Because gender identity can be a sensitive
206 topic, all gender-related data were stored only in our project database, with access restricted to
207 project personnel. We deposited a de-identified database for public use on Zenodo (39).

208

209 **Analyses of gender, geography, income, and authorship**

210 Analyses were performed in the R statistical environment v 4.4.2 (47). We first calculated
211 the percent of all FLAs across all combinations of author position and gender. We also calculated
212 the number of FLAs associated with each unique author, and explored whether author
213 productivity (here, assessed by the number of FLAs) differed by gender. For highly productive
214 authors (those with ≥ 10 total FLAs), we calculated the percent of their FLAs composed of last
215 authorships.

216 To examine interactions of geography and gender, we compared the number of
217 authorships by gendered male and gendered female authors within each country. We calculated
218 the percent of all FLAs across all combinations of author position and country income and all
219 combinations of author position, gender, and country income.

220 We used a linear model to explore if author position, country income, and year were
221 correlated with the annual percent of authorships by gendered female authors. Explanatory
222 variables for the model included an interaction between year and author position, an interaction
223 between country income and author position, and main effects of year, author position, and
224 country income. Based on previous work exploring authorship trends over time in ecology and
225 related fields (15, 17, 48), we expected that the percent of authorships by gendered female

226 authors would increase over time, but the rate of increase would be lower for last authorships.
227 Last authorships are often reserved for senior scientists (e.g. principal investigators), and
228 promotion to this senior role typically takes years. Based on preliminary visual exploration of the
229 data, we also expected the relationship between author position and the percent of authorships by
230 gendered female authors to differ for countries of different income. Due to limited authorship
231 data for low-income, lower-middle-income, and upper-middle-income countries in our dataset
232 (see Results), we collapsed these three categories into one and treated country income as a binary
233 variable in the model (high-income versus low- and middle-income). We treated year as
234 continuous and author position as binary (first/last). We inspected model diagnostic plots to
235 check that assumptions underlying linear regression were met.

236 For research taking place outside of the United States (where EHA was headquartered),
237 we explored the association between the geographic focus of an article and the geographic
238 affiliations of the first and last authors. We did this to assess how often locally-based researchers
239 received credit in the form of prestigious FLAs for their critical roles in these research projects.
240 We first restricted the table of articles to exclude those with a “non-specific” article geography
241 and those with an article geography that included the United States. We then calculated how
242 often authorship geography "matched" article geography for the i) first author position only, ii)
243 the last author position only, iii) either author position, and iv) both author positions. If multiple
244 countries were listed for article geography (e.g. because fieldwork took place in several
245 locations), we counted a match if the authorship geography was the same as any of those
246 countries. To understand if authorship practices changed over time, we then repeated these
247 calculations for two time periods: 2011-2016, and 2017-2022.

248

249 **Network analyses to examine gender and author centrality**

250 Network analyses are commonly used to reveal structural aspects of social relationships,
251 and centrality measures are designed to identify individuals within a network who are important
252 to its structure (49). In the context of co-authorship networks, these individuals tend to be senior
253 researchers or highly-cited individuals (50). To examine collaborations between authors, we
254 calculated centrality measures for the network of all FLAs in the corpus. In this analysis, articles
255 and authors represent two components of a bipartite graph, where authors are linked by co-
256 authorship on an article. Because we were interested in connections between authors, we re-
257 projected the bipartite graph such that it contained weighted edges between authors (nodes)
258 based on their co-authorships. We then used the author network to explore the relationship
259 between gender and two measures of centrality: *betweenness centrality* and *harmonic centrality*.

260 Betweenness centrality measures the number of shortest paths on which a node resides
261 (51), where the shortest path is the walk between two nodes that requires traversing the least
262 number of edges. A node with high betweenness centrality is structurally important to the graph.
263 In our analysis, authors with high betweenness centrality likely represent people in positions of
264 “power” within the network (e.g. principal investigators, those who control resources). Harmonic
265 centrality measures the degree of a node (i.e. number of connections to other nodes) and its
266 neighbors, up to a certain distance (52). The higher the degree of a node and its neighbors, the
267 higher the harmonic centrality—with the important caveat that the influence of neighbors decays
268 with distance and is not inflated for unconnected subcomponents of the graph (49). This provides
269 information about how connected nodes and their neighbors are to the rest of the graph. In our
270 analysis, an author with high harmonic centrality is collaborating with many people who are also
271 collaborating with many people.

272 We calculated betweenness centrality and harmonic centrality for each author using the
273 *igraph* R package (53, 54). We also calculated mean betweenness centrality and mean harmonic
274 centrality for each gender group, as well as 95% high density confidence intervals (HDCIs) for
275 each measure. We calculated 95th percentile values for betweenness centrality and harmonic
276 centrality and used these as cutoffs to tally the number of highly powerful and highly
277 collaborative authors according to gender. Finally, we created two depictions of the authorship
278 network using node color to represent author gender and node size to represent each centrality
279 measure.

280

281 **Results**

282 **Dataset summary**

283 Filtering the EHA research outputs catalog to peer-reviewed journal articles published
284 from January 1, 2011 to December 31, 2022 resulted in a corpus of 451 articles. Articles in the
285 corpus were most commonly published in PLOS ONE ($n = 40$) and EcoHealth ($n = 38$), followed
286 by Viruses ($n = 11$), mBio ($n = 9$), PNAS ($n = 8$), and Transboundary and Emerging Diseases (n
287 $= 8$). We identified 898 FLAs associated with those 451 articles, which were linked to 498
288 unique authors, 249 institutions, and 43 countries.

289

290 **Gender composition of authors and authorships**

291 After combining the results of our two gender classification approaches (see Text S2 and
292 Table S1 for a comparison of the approaches), prioritizing gender inferred using pronouns in
293 cases of dataset disagreement, we ultimately classified 297 authors (59.6%) as gendered male,

294 186 (37.3%) as gendered female, 1 (0.2%) as gendered nonbinary, and 14 (2.8%) as unknown
295 gender. Of all FLAs, 584 (65.0%) were by gendered male authors, 295 (32.9%) were by
296 gendered female authors, 1 (0.1%) was by a gendered nonbinary author, and 18 (2.0%) were by
297 authors of unknown gender. Our gender classification process was least successful for
298 authorships listing an affiliation with China, with 16 out of 44 authorships for this country
299 classified as unknown gender. Given that only one author was classified as gendered nonbinary,
300 we included that author in figures (except where noted) but did not attempt to draw any
301 conclusions about authorship patterns in regard to gendered nonbinary authors.

302 For both the first and last author positions, there were more authorships by gendered male
303 authors than by gendered female authors (first-male: 29.3% of all FLAs, first-female: 19.5%,
304 last-male: 35.7%, last-female: 13.4%; Fig. S1). Nearly three-quarters of all authors (73.7%) had
305 just one authorship each (226 gendered male authors and 141 gendered female authors) (Fig. 1).
306 There was only one gendered female author with ≥ 10 total FLAs, while there were ten gendered
307 male authors with 10 - 44 total FLAs each. Collectively, those ten gendered male authors
308 accounted for 187 (20.8%) of all FLAs in the corpus (Fig. 1). Last authorships made up >65% of
309 FLAs for eight of the eleven most productive authors (Table S2).

310

311 **Fig. 1 Total first and last authorships associated with unique authors.** Gendered female ($n =$
312 186) and gendered male ($n = 297$) authors are displayed in the top and bottom panels
313 respectively. Authors classified as gendered nonbinary ($n = 1$) or unknown gender ($n = 14$) are
314 not displayed. Note that the y-axis is on a square-root scale.

315

316 **Intersections of gender, country income, and author position**

317 A total of 43 countries (high-income: $n = 19$, upper-middle-income: $n = 8$, lower-middle-
318 income: $n = 13$, low-income: $n = 3$) were represented in authorship affiliations (Fig. S2). Most
319 authorships listed an affiliation with the United States (49.1%), Bangladesh (12.1%), Australia
320 (9.2%), China (4.9%), or the United Kingdom (4.2%), together comprising 79.5% of all FLAs.
321 Within each of these five countries, there were more authorships by gendered male authors than
322 authors of any other gender (Fig. S3). Most FLAs had an HIC affiliation (71.5%), while other
323 income groups were less well represented (upper-middle: 12.0%, lower-middle: 15.1%, low:
324 1.3%; Fig. S4).

325 For authorships with an HIC affiliation, there was an interplay between gender and author
326 position (Fig. 2). Specifically, there were more first authorships than last authorships (15.9%
327 versus 9.4% of all FLAs) by gendered female authors, while there were more last than first
328 authorships (26.7% versus 19.2% of all FLAs) by gendered male authors. The data on
329 authorships with an upper-middle-income, lower-middle-income, or low-income country
330 affiliation were too limited to determine if differences by gender and author position were
331 meaningful (Fig. 2).

332

333 **Fig. 2 Percent of all first and last authorships ($n = 898$) separated by country income.**

334 Colors indicate author gender and shading indicates author position. A total of 43 countries were
335 represented in first and last authorship affiliations (high-income: $n = 19$, upper-middle-income: n
336 = 8, lower-middle-income: $n = 13$, low-income: $n = 3$).

337

338 **Gender composition of authorships over time**

339 The percent of first authorships by gendered female authors fluctuated from year to year,
340 displaying no clear trend over time (Fig. 3A). The percent of first authorships by gendered
341 female authors never dipped below 25% nor reached above 50% over the 12-year timespan of
342 our dataset. In contrast, there appeared to be a positive trend over time for last authorships by
343 gendered female authors (Fig. 3A). In 2011, there were zero last authorships by gendered female
344 authors. This value jumped to 14.3% in 2012, remained fairly constant through 2015, and
345 jumped again to 39.3% in 2016. There was a subsequent monotonic decline to 17.9% by 2020.
346 The percent of last authorships jumped to a maximum of 43.9% in 2021, then decreased to
347 25.0% in 2022.

348

349 **Fig. 3 Observed and model-predicted gendered female authorship.** (A) Observed percent of
350 authorships by gendered female authors over time, separated by author position. First authorships
351 by gendered female authors/Total first authorships (2011–2022): 5/16, 9/21, 11/29, 7/27, 20/41,
352 8/30, 16/39, 19/39, 23/47, 21/56, 24/66, 12/40. Last authorships by gendered female
353 authors/Total last authorships (2011–2022): 0/16, 3/21, 4/29, 4/27, 7/40, 11/28, 15/39, 14/38,
354 13/47, 10/56, 29/66, 10/40. (B) Model-predicted percent of authorships by gendered female
355 authors, separated by author position and country income.

356

357 A linear model explaining the percent of authorships by gendered female authors found
358 that the interaction between year and author position was not statistically significant ($\beta = 1.45$,
359 $SE = 1.11$, $P = 0.20$; Table S3). The main effect of year was positive, indicating an overall
360 increase in authorships by gendered female authors, though this was also not statistically

361 significant ($\beta = 0.85$, $SE = 0.76$, $P = 0.27$). There was a significant interaction between author
362 position and country income ($\beta = -23.45$, $SE = 7.49$, $P = 0.0032$), meaning the relationship
363 between author position (first or last) and the percent of authorships by gendered female authors
364 in an author position depended on country income. For HICs, predicted authorships by gendered
365 female authors were greater for first authorships (44.3%, 95% confidence interval: 36.8-51.7)
366 compared to last authorships (24.6%, 95% CI: 17.1-32.1; Fig. 3B). However, for LMICs, the
367 predicted first (18.74%, 95% CI: 11.3-26.2) and last (22.5%, 95% CI: 14.7-30.4) authorships by
368 gendered female authors were similar. Accounting for the number of variables, the model
369 explained 41% of the variance in the outcome variable.

370

371 **Alignment of authorship geography and article geography**

372 We found that 280 articles (62.1% of all articles in the corpus) were geographically
373 focused on one or more non-US countries (e.g. where field or laboratory work was performed or
374 specialized knowledge of a country was required). About two-thirds of the time (63.9%,
375 179/280), either the first or last authorship geography matched the article geography (Table S4).
376 First authorship geography matched article geography 53.6% of the time, whereas last authorship
377 geography matched article geography 47.1% of the time. Both first and last authorships matched
378 the article geography 36.7% of the time. When first authorship geography did not match article
379 geography, the first authors listed a United States or other HIC affiliation 96% of the time;
380 upper-middle-income country affiliations were rarely listed (4%). Similarly, when last authorship
381 geography did not match article geography, the last author listed a United States or other HIC
382 affiliation 97% of the time; upper-middle-income (1%) or lower-middle-income (2%) country
383 affiliations were rarely listed. Though there were more articles published in the second half of

384 the dataset (2011-2016: 95 articles; 2017-2022: 185 articles), the rates of authorship-geography
385 matches stayed nearly constant over time (Table S4). There were 142 articles (31.5%) with a
386 non-specific article geography and 29 articles (6.4%) with an article geography that included the
387 United States.

388

389 **Characteristics of the author network**

390 We created two author network depictions to show relationships between author gender
391 and our two centrality measures of interest (Fig. 4). The mean betweenness centrality of the
392 gendered male author group was almost double that of the gendered female author group (129.21
393 versus 64.84; Table S5), indicating that on average, gendered male authors were more
394 structurally important to the network. There were nearly twice as many gendered male authors in
395 positions of “power” in the network (betweenness centrality ≥ 317 , the 95th percentile)
396 compared to gendered female authors (17 versus 9). In contrast, the two author groups had
397 similar mean harmonic centrality (gendered male: 11.51, gendered female: 11.25; Table S5),
398 indicating similar levels of connection or collaboration. There were 12 gendered female authors,
399 15 gendered male authors, and one gendered nonbinary author who were highly collaborative
400 (harmonic centrality ≥ 43.1 , the 95th percentile).

401

402 **Fig. 4 Depictions of the author network by two measures of centrality.** In both panels, node
403 (author) color indicates gender. (A) Network with node size representing betweenness centrality,
404 which conveys information about the structural importance of an individual to the overall
405 network. (B) Network with node size representing harmonic centrality, which conveys
406 information about how connected an individual is to the rest of the graph.

407

408 **Discussion**

409 We analyzed authorship patterns within the extended publication network of EcoHealth
410 Alliance, a United States-based organization that conducted One Health and conservation
411 research. Within our corpus of 451 peer-reviewed journal articles, we found that gendered male
412 authors were dominant in multiple aspects: they represented ~60% of all authors, 65% of all
413 FLAs, and 91% of highly productive authors. The last author position was particularly male-
414 dominated, with 2.66 times as many last authorships by gendered male authors as by gendered
415 female authors. Gendered male authors were more structurally important to the author network
416 on average and comprised 65% of highly “powerful” authors in the network. HICs were also
417 overrepresented, with ~72% of FLAs listing an HIC affiliation.

418 We focused our analyses on first and last authorships because these are typically
419 perceived as prestigious in STEM fields (9, 10). In the ecological and environmental sciences
420 (major constituent fields within One Health), the first author is commonly viewed as taking the
421 lead role in study conceptualization, data collection and analysis, and manuscript writing,
422 whereas the last author is often viewed as the “senior” author whose work or role made the study
423 possible (55-58). Our finding of more first than last authorships for gendered female authors (a
424 pattern which has been previously observed in ecology and conservation; (16, 48, 59)), but the

425 reverse pattern for gendered male authors, suggests gendered female authors were more likely to
426 lead papers whereas gendered male authors were more likely to lead research groups. This is
427 supported by our finding that the most productive authors in our dataset (i.e. those with ≥ 10 total
428 FLAs) were nearly all gendered male (10/11), with last authorships comprising a large
429 percentage of their FLAs. Leading a publication as a first author is a time-consuming endeavor
430 requiring intensive analysis and writing; therefore, the overrepresentation of gendered female
431 authors in this role may result in decreased overall productivity. In contrast, research supervisors
432 or principal investigators can accumulate last authorships on their team members' publications
433 for comparatively less effort per publication (e.g. general oversight and manuscript editing). It is
434 important to note that the overall authorship pattern we observed (more first than last authorships
435 for gendered female authors, but more last than first authorships for gendered male authors) was
436 driven primarily by authorships with HIC affiliations.

437 The interaction between country income and author position was also an important
438 explanatory variable in our linear model explaining the percent of authorships by gendered
439 female authors. For HICs, there was a striking disconnect in the model-predicted percent of first
440 authorships (~44%) versus last authorships (~25%) by gendered female authors (Fig. 3B). This
441 could represent a lack of career advancement for gendered female authors, who may publish
442 primarily first authorships as early or mid-career researchers but rarely become senior
443 researchers with a shift to publishing primarily last authorships.

444 Our network analysis showed gendered male authors were disproportionately represented
445 in structurally important positions based on betweenness centrality scores. However, gendered
446 male and gendered female authors were similarly collaborative: there were similar numbers of
447 gendered male and gendered female authors in the top 5th percentile of harmonic centrality

448 scores, and average harmonic centrality scores for the two gender groups were nearly identical.
449 Together, these results reveal gendered female authors were just as collaborative as their
450 gendered male peers, but it was gendered male authors who were more likely to be in positions
451 of power (i.e. those who control or distribute resources like funding).

452 Though EHA primarily conducted research in LMICs and aimed to engage local partners,
453 credit in the form of prestigious first and last authorships went to authors affiliated with the
454 United States or another HIC over half of the time. When we examined articles that were
455 geographically focused outside the United States—representing an opportunity for local
456 leadership—first and last authorship geography each matched the article geography about half
457 the time. In ~36% of articles, neither the first nor the last authorship geography matched the
458 article geography. These findings echo previous studies showing when research takes place in or
459 involves participants from an LMIC, researchers affiliated with that country are only included as
460 first or last authors about half the time (24-26). One reason for this disparity could be the
461 devaluation of certain steps in the scientific process (e.g. project implementation, data collection)
462 that are usually conducted by LMIC researchers in comparison to others typically conducted by
463 HIC researchers (e.g. drafting a manuscript, acquiring research funding) (60). Concerns about the
464 potential for editorial bias, where journals may favor well-known authors or those from English-
465 speaking countries, might also lead LMIC researchers to cede first or last authorship to HIC
466 collaborators to increase the chance an article will be accepted for publication (60). Authors from
467 HICs may prioritize first or last authorships if they believe this will improve their chances of
468 securing future research funding (6).

469

470 **Conclusion**

471 Within our corpus, we found that gendered male researchers and researchers with HIC
472 affiliations were often in prestigious author positions. Though our analysis was based on articles
473 with at least one EHA-affiliated author, authorship affiliations in the corpus extended to nearly
474 250 institutions across 43 countries, demonstrating the broad scope of EHA’s partnerships. Our
475 findings align with a case study of The Nature Conservancy, which found that men represented
476 58% of author and 68% of authorships on TNC publications, and that nearly 90% of authors
477 were located in the Global North (16). Similarly, a study of authorship in the field of infectious
478 disease dynamics showed that men were overrepresented as first and last authors compared to the
479 global STEM workforce and global population, and that most last authors were located in the
480 Global North (61). Neither our study, nor the two mentioned above, used a research
481 methodology that could determine how and why author order was assigned (e.g. interviews,
482 surveys, review of documents that describe authorship determination); future work of this nature
483 would be valuable. However, we offer recommendations—informed by the patterns observed in
484 our data and based on our personal experiences as researchers—that we believe would help
485 address the gender and geography disparities in authorship we observed.

486 Scientists at organizations in HICs should not impose their own authorship norms when
487 collaborating with peers from LMICs and should familiarize themselves with the norms of their
488 collaborators. We recommend having early and ongoing conversations about authorship
489 practices and expectations with the entire research team and capturing the outcome of those
490 conversations as part of a formal document (e.g. a data management plan). Data collection
491 practices can assist in measuring researchers’ contributions by documenting who conducted
492 particular tasks. Following project completion, adopting a consensus-based decision making

493 process and considering the different types of labor involved in a project, who performed that
494 labor, and the “social location” of each author may be useful strategies for determining
495 authorship status and order (62). Attribution schemes like the CRediT taxonomy (27) can also
496 help assess author contributions to a manuscript and are increasingly required by journals.
497 Scientists should consider consulting academic support staff like research librarians who may
498 have a broader perspective on author ordering practices and strategies for equitable
499 acknowledgement.

500 We recommend organizations monitor the career progression and attrition of their
501 researchers, particularly those with marginalized identities. Further, we encourage organizations
502 to critically evaluate how leadership structure (including who is allowed or encouraged to be a
503 principal investigator) can impact scientists’ publication records. To avoid powerful individuals
504 gaining undue benefit from their structural position (e.g. principal investigators automatically
505 having last authorship on papers generated within their lab groups), organizations could develop
506 guidelines around author order recognizing the different types of contributions scientists make
507 (63). Furthermore, organizations should ensure proper resources are dedicated to
508 communicating, accessing, and applying these tools, including providing training via research
509 support staff, supplying institutional tools that integrate the guidelines like DMPTool
510 (<https://dmptool.org>), and making the guidelines easily discoverable via web search. For HIC-
511 LMIC collaborations, these organization-level authorship guidelines should explicitly encourage
512 inclusion of authors from LMICs in first and last author positions (64). Organizations in HICs
513 may need to re-envision performance evaluation and promotion as a more holistic process that
514 values research quality and also considers criteria such as the demonstrable use of equitable
515 collaboration practices (65).

516 Finally, as gatekeepers at different points in the project life cycle, funders and publishers
517 ultimately control what research is conducted, how it is conducted, and how findings are
518 distributed. As such, they should take an active role in requiring researchers to reflect on and
519 acknowledge contributions from all collaborators (66). For example, the journal *BMJ Global*
520 *Health* requires authors to provide a structured reflexivity statement (64) when submitting
521 manuscripts involving HIC-LMIC collaborations. In 2021, PLOS implemented an Inclusivity in
522 Global Research policy across all its journals asking researchers to, when relevant, complete a
523 questionnaire that “outlines ethical, cultural, and scientific considerations specific to inclusivity
524 in global research” ([https://theplosblog.plos.org/2021/09/announcing-a-new-plos-policy-on-](https://theplosblog.plos.org/2021/09/announcing-a-new-plos-policy-on-inclusion-in-global-research/)
525 [inclusion-in-global-research/](https://theplosblog.plos.org/2021/09/announcing-a-new-plos-policy-on-inclusion-in-global-research/)). With the proliferation of digital object identifiers (DOIs), it is
526 easier than ever for publishers to connect journal articles to other research artifacts. As such,
527 publishers could require authors to include a DOI that links an article to a data management plan
528 or other research artifact describing how authorship order was assigned. This would allow
529 journal editors and peer-reviewers to compare alignment between proposed and actual authorship
530 order. When evaluating a project proposal, funders should require equitable allocation of
531 intellectual property and scholarly recognition between HIC and LMIC researchers. Funders
532 should also account for structural biases that may have shaped applicants’ publication records
533 when evaluating researchers’ capacity to conduct a project. Taken together, these actions by
534 funders and publishers would create top-down pressure on researchers and organizations to
535 improve equity in how research is conducted and published.

536 Though EcoHealth Alliance has closed since the initiation of this project, we hope our
537 results will inspire changes in international research collaborations and authorship practices at
538 similar organizations. Studies like ours can reveal previously unrecognized authorship patterns

539 within an organization. By providing the code and detailed methodology to produce our findings,
540 we offer a reproducible template for other organizations to assess their own authorship patterns.
541 If more organizations conduct similar case studies, it could enable the research community to
542 draw broader conclusions about authorship dynamics across domains.

543

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549

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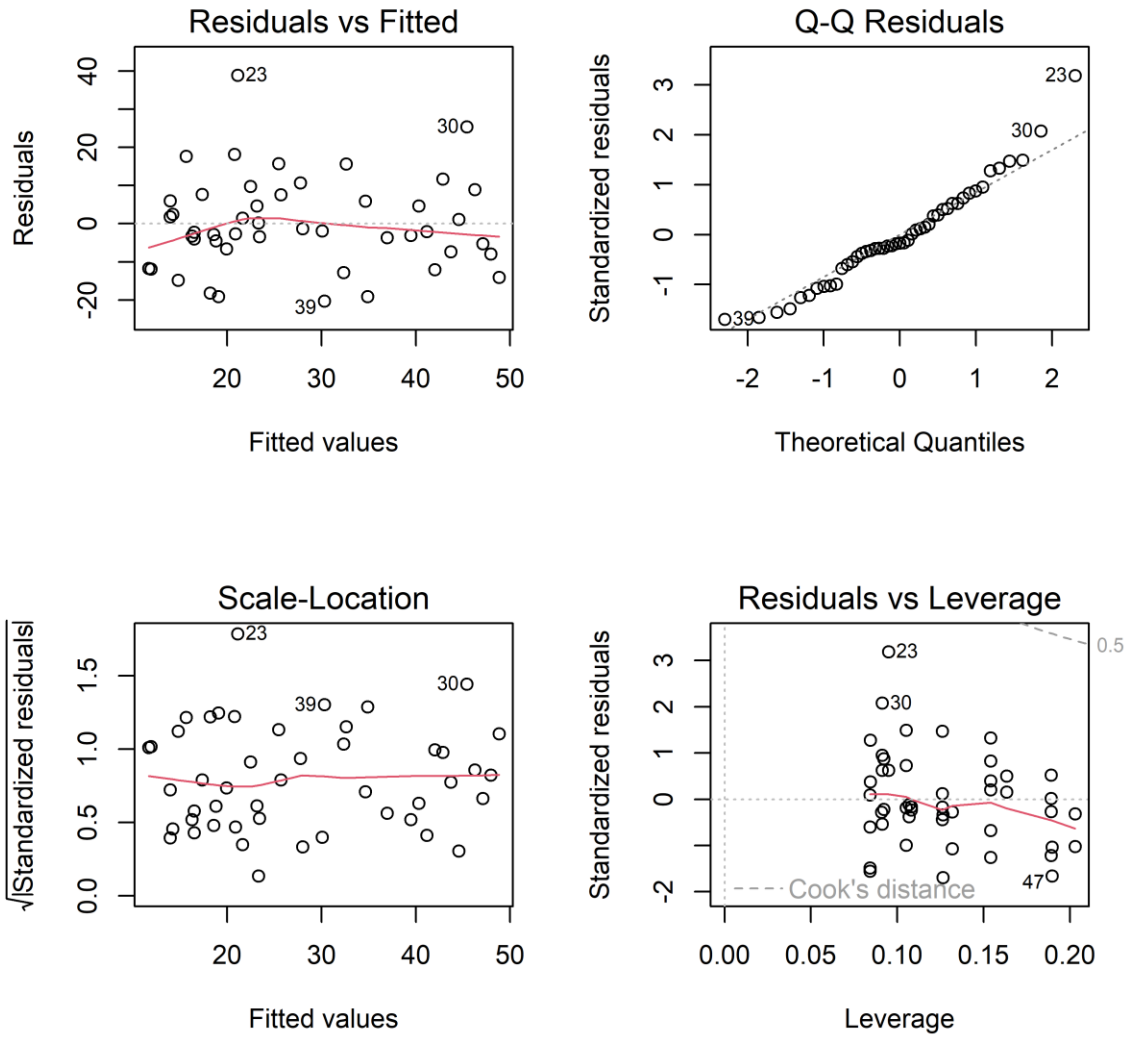
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- 716

717 **Supporting Information**

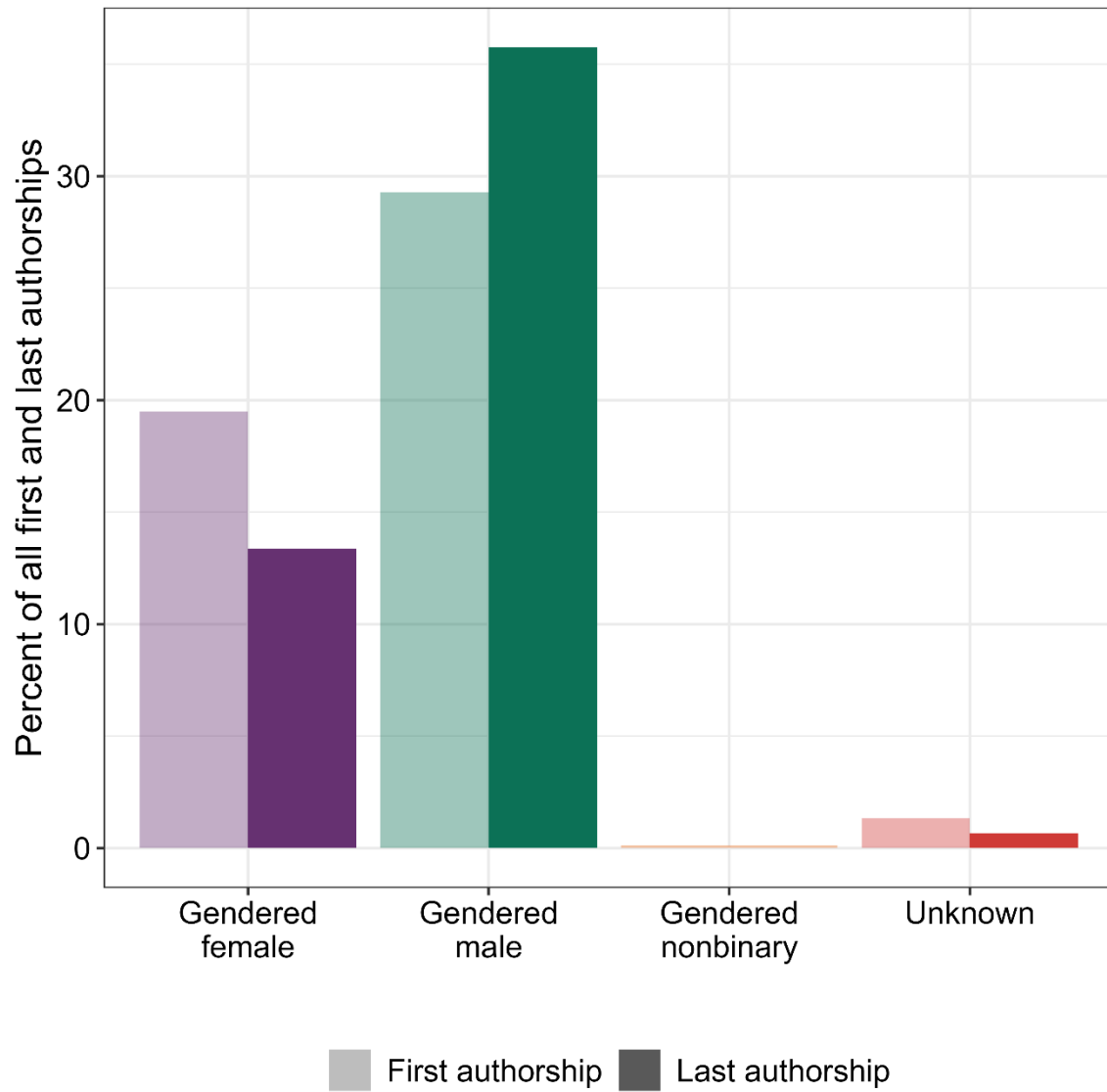
718 **Fig. S1. Model diagnostic plots.**



719

720 **Fig. S2. Percent of all first and last authorships ($n = 898$) separated by author gender and**
721 **author position.**

722



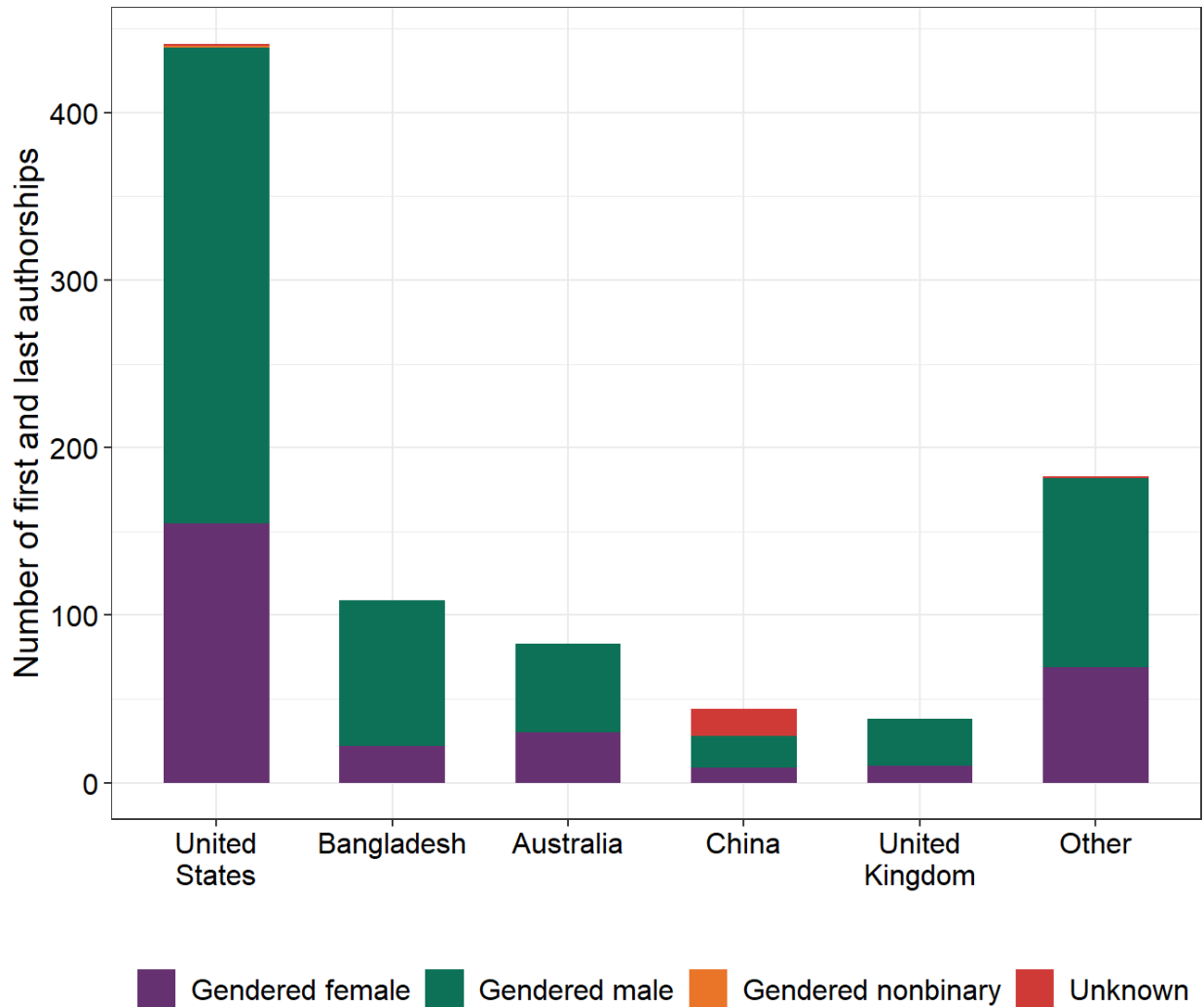
723

728 **Fig. S4. Number of first and last authorships ($n = 898$) by country affiliation and gender.**

729 Data for the five countries with the most first and last authorships are displayed individually,

730 while data for the remaining countries ($n = 37$) are grouped into “Other”.

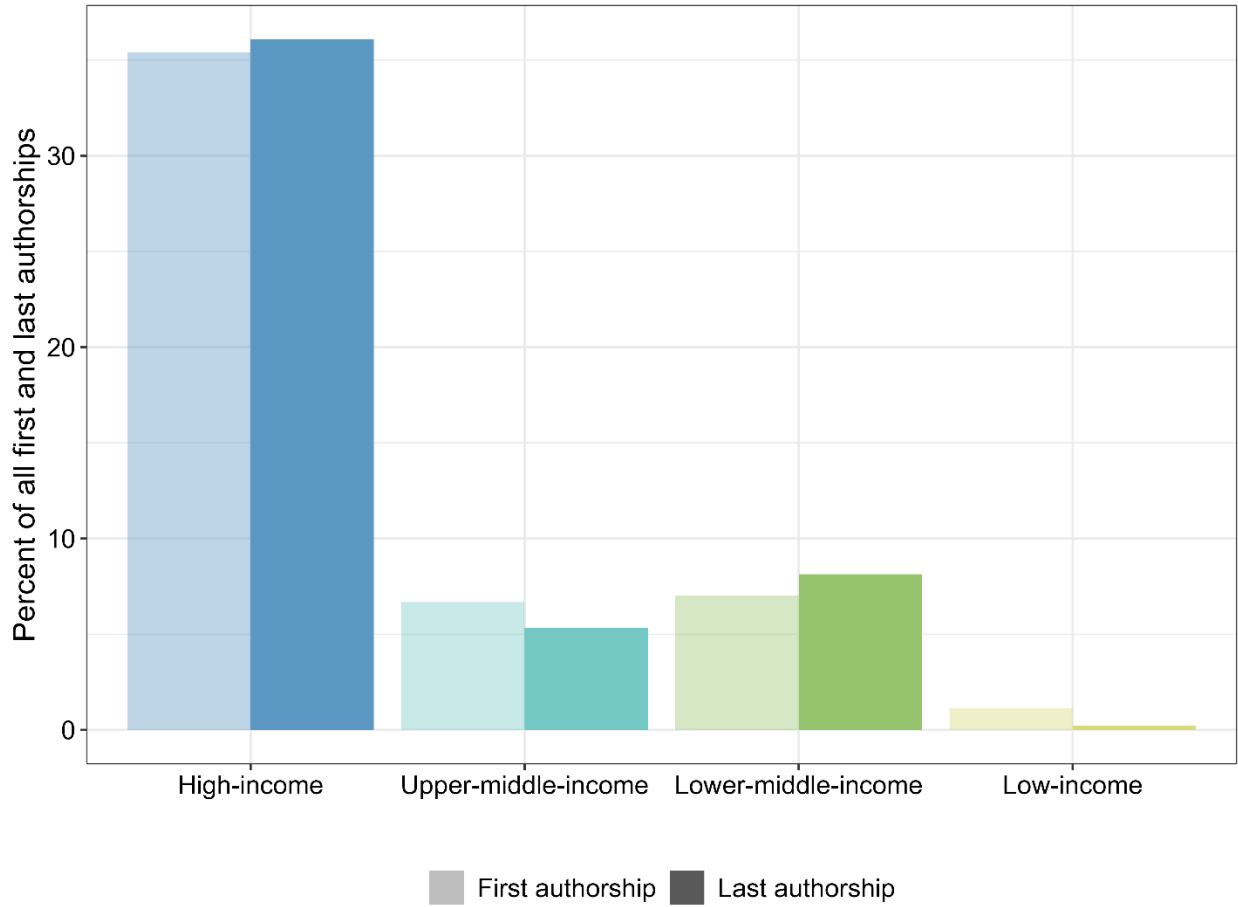
731



732

733 Fig. S5. Percent of all first and last authorships ($n = 898$) separated by country income and
734 author position.

735



736

737 **Table S1. Comparison of a pronouns-based approach and a name-based approach to**
 738 **classify author genders.** See *Gender classification of authors* in the main text for details of how
 739 authors were classified using each approach.

740

		Gender classification based on name			
		<i>gendered female</i>	<i>gendered male</i>	<i>uncertain</i>	<i>undetermined</i>
Gender classification based on pronouns	<i>gendered female</i>	151	3	20	7
	<i>gendered male</i>	3	244	24	9
	<i>gendered nonbinary</i>	0	1	0	0
	<i>undetermined</i>	5	17	12	2

741

742 **Table S2. Last authorships as a percentage of all first and last authorships (FLAs) for the**
743 **most productive authors in the dataset (i.e. ≥ 10 FLAs).**

744

Total FLAs	Author gender	Last authorships/total FLAs (%)
44	Gendered male	88.6
30	Gendered male	43.3
22	Gendered male	68.2
18	Gendered male	77.8
15	Gendered male	53.3
14	Gendered male	92.9
12	Gendered female	100
12	Gendered male	100
11	Gendered male	18.2
11	Gendered male	72.7
10	Gendered male	70

745

746 **Table S3. Model coefficients for a linear model to examine effects of author position,**
 747 **country income, and year on the percent of authorships by gendered female authors.** The
 748 “Year” variable was centered around 2011 to improve coefficient interpretability. *P* values <
 749 0.05 are bolded.
 750

Variable	Estimate	SE	t	<i>P</i>
Intercept	13.97	5.57	2.51	0.016
Year	0.85	0.76	1.12	0.27
Author position(Last)	-4.35	8.33	-0.52	0.60
Country income(High)	25.51	5.23	4.87	1.7e-5
Year : Author position(Last)	1.45	1.11	1.31	0.20
Author position(Last) : Country income(High)	-23.45	7.49	-3.13	0.0032

751

752 **Table S4. Matches between authorship geography (i.e. country affiliation) and article**
753 **geography (i.e. the geographic focus of a study, excluding the United States).** A “match”
754 occurred when the authorship geography was the same as any of the countries contained in the
755 article geography. Values are provided for the whole timespan of the data (2011-2022) as well as
756 broken down into two time periods (2011-2016 and 2017-2022) to explore potential changes in
757 authorship over time. Denominator sizes are sometimes different because not all articles had a
758 last authorship (i.e. sole-authored articles, which were counted as first authorships).

759

Time period	First authorship match	Last authorship match	Either match	Both match
2011-2022	150/280 (53.6%)	131/278 (47.1%)	179/280 (63.9%)	102/278 (36.7%)
2011-2016	51/95 (53.7%)	43/94 (45.7%)	61/95 (64.2%)	33/94 (35.1%)
2017-2022	99/185 (53.5%)	88/184 (47.8%)	118/185 (63.8%)	69/184 (37.5%)

760

761 **Table S5. A summary of two measures of network centrality (betweenness centrality and**
 762 **harmonic centrality) calculated for authors separated by gender. HDCI = high density**
 763 **confidence interval.**

764

Gender	Group size	Mean betweenness centrality	Betweenness centrality 95% HDCI	Mean harmonic centrality	Harmonic centrality 95% HDCI
Gendered female	186	64.84	0-190.6	11.25	0.65-43.12
Gendered male	297	129.21	0-317.0	11.51	0.83-43.12
Gendered nonbinary	1	0	–	43.12	--
Unknown	14	0.21	0-2.0	3.95	1.00-28.51

765

766 **Text S1. Creation of the corpus**

767 Prior to initiating this study, EHA developed a catalog of research outputs associated with the
768 organization for use in tracking internal metrics. Research outputs consisted mainly of scientific
769 journal articles, but also included materials such as conference abstracts, book chapters, datasets,
770 reports, and preprints. Research outputs and associated authorship records were imported into
771 this catalog via an OpenAlex API query using the *openalex* R package (1, 2) , when the
772 authorship institution attribute for at least one author contained the Research Organization
773 Registry (<https://ror.org/>) identifier for EHA. Records were processed digitally to keep pertinent
774 fields, identify potential duplicates, and store them in an Airtable (<https://airtable.com/>) database.
775 Each research output was associated with metadata including title, publication date, author
776 names, and author affiliations (i.e. organization and country).

777 For this study, we exported a copy of EHA’s research outputs catalog to a separate
778 Airtable database, accessible only to project personnel. We filtered the dataset to peer-reviewed
779 journal articles published from January 1, 2011 to December 31, 2022. We chose the start date to
780 align with the shift in the organization’s name and research focus. We note that “gray” and
781 “white” literature (e.g. graduate theses, government reports, policy documents, technical reports)
782 also represent important research outputs and require substantial time and effort to produce.
783 However, we focused on peer-reviewed literature following past work (3)] and because gray and
784 white literature may have different authorship norms. Records were manually reviewed and
785 cleaned to ensure accuracy. Henceforth, we refer to this set of peer-reviewed, EHA-affiliated
786 journal articles as the *corpus*.

787

788 **Text S1 References**

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798 **Text S2. Comparison of two approaches to classify author gender**

799 Using the pronouns-based approach, we classified 280 authors (56.2%) as gendered male, 181
800 (36.3%) as gendered female, and 1 (0.2%) as gendered nonbinary. We were unable to find
801 pronouns for 36 authors (7.2%). Of the 462 authors whose pronouns were identified, publicly
802 available online information was the source for 323 (69.9%), while professional interactions
803 were the source for the remaining 139 (30.1%). Using the name-based approach, we classified
804 265 authors (53.2%) as gendered male, 159 (31.9%) as gendered female, 56 (11.2%) as
805 uncertain, and 18 (3.6%) as undetermined. Agreement between the two gender classification
806 approaches was generally high (Table S1); out of 498 authors, both approaches classified 151
807 authors as gendered female and 244 authors as gendered male. There were four cases where an
808 author was gendered female or gendered nonbinary based on pronouns but gendered male based
809 on name, and three cases where an author was gendered male based on pronouns but gendered
810 female based on name.

811