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The Gender Gap in Scholarly Self-Promotion on Social Media

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Self-promotion in science is ubiquitous but not exercised to the same extent by everyone. It is unclear whether there are gender differences in the frequency of self-promotion or the benefits individuals get from it. Here, we examine gender differences in scholarly self-promotion using 7M Tweet mentions of 539K research papers published in 2018 by 1.3M authors. Our analysis shows that female authors are significantly less likely than male authors to promote their papers, even after controlling for a number of important factors including journal impact, affiliation prestige, author productivity and number of citations, authorship position, number of coauthors, and research topics. The magnitude of the gender gap is more strongly associated with papers' journal impact factor than authors' affiliation prestige, previous productivity, or academic discipline. In particular, male scholars are 60% more likely than

21 comparable female scholars to self-promote papers published in journals with very high im-
22 pact factor, whereas the difference is only 28% for papers in low impact journals. Although
23 women self-promote less often overall, when they do, their papers receive slightly more men-
24 tions on Twitter. Our findings offer the first large-scale evidence for a gender gap in scholarly
25 self-promotion online and show the circumstances under which the gap is most substantial,
26 helping inform policy aimed at mitigating discrepancies in visibility and recognition.

27 **Introduction**

28 Traditional and social media have long played an important role in the dissemination of scientific
29 findings¹⁻³. An emerging line of literature suggests that the online visibility of scholarly papers
30 amplifies their impact beyond academic audiences⁴⁻⁶ and in the academy through citations⁷⁻¹⁰, con-
31 tributing increasingly to novel measures for scholarly evaluation^{11,12}. Social media platforms, such
32 as Twitter, are thus commonly used by scholars across disciplines to discuss ideas and disseminate
33 findings¹³⁻¹⁶. Recent research shows consistent gender inequalities in the online dissemination of
34 scholarly work¹⁷, complementing mounting evidence for disparities in conventional scientific out-
35 comes like citations, funding, and awards¹⁸⁻²⁰. To better understand gender disparities in scholars'
36 online visibility and inform the design of interventions²¹⁻²⁵, we need to focus on self-promotion,
37 a behavior that directly speaks about one's strengths and achievements in professional contexts²⁶.
38 Promoting one's own research papers is a common and intuitive way to increase public attention
39 to one's scholarly accomplishments. Here, we examine whether authors of different genders self-
40 promote their research at different rates on social media and whether they get different returns on
41 these efforts?

42 Publicizing one's own achievements is necessary for professional success in numerous set-
43 tings including job interviews, salary negotiations, and career promotions^{27,28}. Individuals who en-
44 gage in self-promotion are doing so to be perceived as competent, ambitious, and confident which
45 are traits associated with leadership skills^{29,30}. Yet, women face a dilemma in self-promotion that
46 may cause them to advocate for themselves less³¹⁻³³. First, women risk a "backlash effect"^{28,34,35},

47 in which audiences may penalize them for behavior that is incongruous with gender stereotypes or
48 social expectations, such as women are modest and less assertive than men^{36,37}. Indeed, empirical
49 research has shown that women who self-promote can be seen as more arrogant and less likable
50 than self-promoting men in many settings^{38,39}, and are judged to be gender nonconforming^{30,31}. In
51 addition to concerns about backlash, women may also self-promote less due to self-stereotyping in
52 male-dominated domains, where they are under-represented and lack role models⁴⁰⁻⁴³.

53 It is thus of little surprise that women are less likely than men to self-promote on online
54 hiring platforms⁴⁴ and that female entrepreneurs' pitches are favored less by investors^{45,46}. In the
55 scientific domain, men have been found to be more likely than women to cite their papers⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹
56 and present their research as novel and essential⁵⁰. These findings suggest that female scientists
57 may also be more conservative in the statement of their accomplishments than males in online
58 self-promotion. Gender differences in academic self-promotion may be particularly consequential
59 in the early stages of research dissemination, where small initial differences can accumulate into
60 substantial disparities in coverage over time^{51,52}. Further exacerbated by gender differences in
61 media representations that favor men^{53,54}, inequalities in self-promotion might thus have a long-
62 term effect on scholars' visibility and recognition, feeding into the persistent gender gap in science.

63 In this paper, we compiled a multi-disciplinary dataset of 539,345 research papers published
64 in 2018 by 1,335,603 unique authors to examine the rate at which female vs. male scientists pro-
65 mote their research papers on social media. We focused on Twitter, which is the most commonly
66 used platform for online science dissemination, accounting for 92% of all paper mentions on ma-

67 jor social media platform as tracked by Altmetric.com⁵⁵, the most comprehensive service to date
68 for monitoring online posts about research papers. As each author of a paper has the option to
69 promote it, we treated every (paper, author) pair as one of 2,375,419 observations of potential
70 self-promotion cases. To link authors of papers to their Twitter accounts, if available, we designed
71 and validated a heuristic to match author names to Twitter usernames and identify instances when
72 an author mentioned their own paper in a tweet (i.e., they self-promoted). The frequency of self-
73 promotion per paper is shown in [SI Text A](#) and [SI Fig. S1](#).

74 We identified female and male authors based on their first names⁵⁶, categorizing 59% of the
75 authors as male and 41% as female (unisex names and ambiguous cases were excluded from the
76 analysis). While name-based binary gender may differ from how authors self-identify, author-
77 declared gender is not available at the scale of our study. However, the gender inference employed
78 here achieved a high level of agreement with male/female labels generated through a manual veri-
79 fication process and also with author self-reported gender labels from a recent journal submission
80 dataset comprising 432,888 physicists. Finally, we collected metadata for all papers and their au-
81 thors from the Microsoft Academic Graph⁵⁷, which enabled us to control for important factors that
82 can affect self-promotion, such as the impact factor of the journal where the paper was published,
83 the ranking of the author's institution, the author's previous productivity quantified by the number
84 of their published papers and citation counts, the research fields associated with the paper, the by-
85 line position of the author, and the total number of co-authors. See Data and Methods for details
86 about gender inference and its validation as well as the collected metadata.

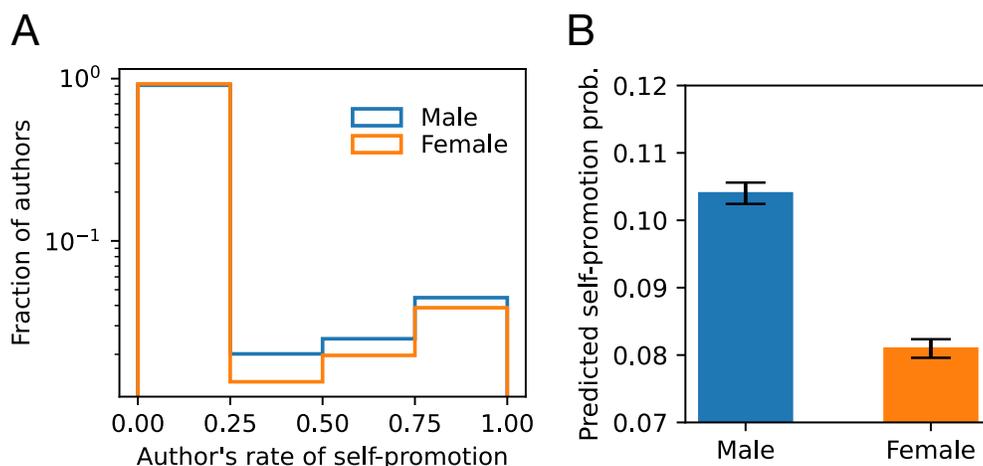


Figure 1: **Self-promotion by author gender.** **A**, Normalized histogram of the self-promotion rate per author, which is calculated as the fraction of an author’s papers they have self-promoted. **B**, Predicted probability of self-promotion by gender after controlling for important confounding factors. Results show that women self-promote less on average than men even after accounting for journal impact, affiliation prestige, author productivity and number of citations, authorship position, number of coauthors, and research topics.

88 To examine whether there is a gender difference in how often authors promote their papers,
 89 we first calculated the overall self-promotion rate of each author, which is the fraction of papers
 90 they have ever promoted. People typically self-promote just once per paper. Fig. 1A shows that
 91 men tend to self-promote more often and there are more men than women who self-promote exten-
 92 sively. This finding also holds when focusing on authors with at least five publications in the data
 93 (SI Fig. S2), which suggests that the high self-promotion rate is not driven by authors with a few
 94 publications. Those with only one publication would have a rate of 100% if they self-promoted.

95 However, what fraction of their papers authors promote on average does not take into account
96 differences in individual papers. To examine more nuanced factors related to self-promotion ten-
97 dencies, we explored whether an author promotes differently each of their papers, and conversely
98 whether a paper is self-promoted distinctly by its authors. Considering all possible (paper, author)
99 instances that could have led to self-promotion had the author been a Twitter user at the time of
100 publication, we found that men account for a substantially larger fraction than women (63.8% vs.
101 36.2%), which reflects a broader gender imbalance in publications and authorship^{18,58}. Impor-
102 tantly, male scholars have an average self-promotion rate that is 21.9% higher than that of females
103 (7.8% vs. 6.4%). This gender gap is universal across different byline positions and academic
104 disciplines (SI Text B and SI Fig. S3).

105 Self-promotion is also likely to be influenced by factors related to impact and prestige. For
106 instance, authors may tend to promote more of their papers published in high-impact journals, as
107 people are more likely to share their higher achievements⁵⁰. We find confirmatory evidence for this
108 tendency in our data (SI Fig. S4A). Research has also revealed a gender imbalance across many
109 prestige-related factors. For instance, women published fewer papers in leading journals^{18,59}, were
110 placed at lower-ranked institutions⁶⁰, and were less likely to achieve tenure status⁶¹.

111 We thus examined the association between author gender and self-promotion using a mixed
112 effects logistic regression model (Data and Methods) that controlled for the random effects of
113 each paper and several factors identified previously as related to visibility¹⁷, including paper's
114 journal impact, affiliation prestige, author's productivity and citations, number of coauthors, and

115 authorship position. We also controlled for research topics, as research fields vary substantially
116 in gender representation in publishing and scholars' presence on Twitter⁶²⁻⁶⁴, which can create an
117 additional variability in self-promotion with regard to gender.

118 Based on the fitted model (see the regression coefficients in [SI Table S1](#)), we estimated the
119 adjusted probability of self-promotion for both genders by setting all other variables at their median
120 values across all observations. Fig. 1B shows that, a typical female author has an 8.1% chance of
121 self-promoting her research, while the same quantity for a comparable male author is 10.4%, which
122 is 28% higher than for females. This disparity also exists among female vs. male authors of the
123 same paper, as our model accounts for the random effect of each paper.

124 **Heterogeneity in Gender Disparities in Self-Promotion**

125 To examine disparities across research fields, we fitted a separate mixed effects logistic regression
126 model for each of the four broad disciplines of social, life, health, and physical sciences. Note
127 that we still controlled for the fine-grained subject areas when fitting a model for each discipline.
128 Fig. 2A shows the predicted probability of self-promotion for men and women in each broad
129 discipline. The female coefficient in each regression model is significantly negative ([SI Table](#)
130 [S2](#)), and the predicted mean self-promotion probability is higher for men than women across the
131 board (Fig. 2A). However, there is variation in the typical self-promotion rate across disciplines.
132 Although social scientists are on average about three times as likely to promote their research as
133 scientists in the other three fields (0.21 vs. 0.07), the absolute gender disparity is universally similar

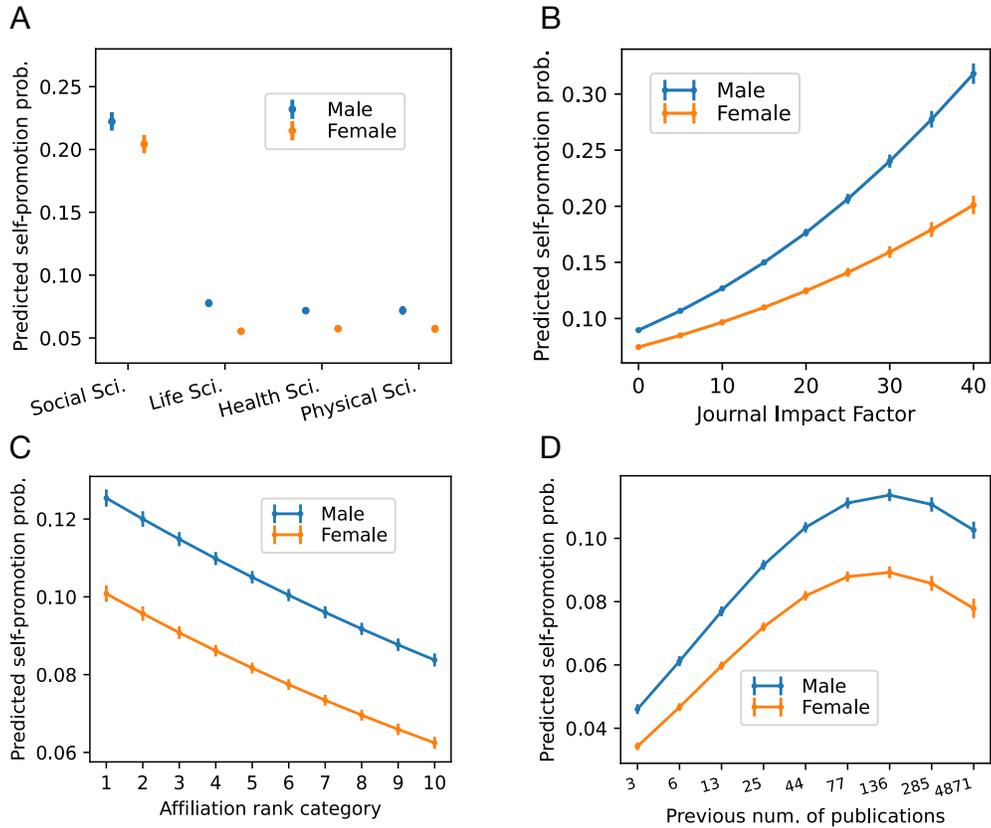


Figure 2: Predicted probability of self-promotion by gender. **A**, Variation across four broad disciplines. While the gender gap in predicted self-promotion probability is of similar magnitude across four fields, social scientists have a high average self-promotion probability regardless of gender, which leads to the smallest relative gender gap between the two groups. **B-D**, Self-promotion as a function of journal impact, affiliation prestige, and author productivity. Journal impact factor (**B**) is provided by the Web of Science. We categorized (decided) in the regression author’s affiliation rank (**C**, a smaller bin indicates a higher rank category) and authors’ previous number of publications (**D**, a smaller bin indicates a less productive category). Error bars indicate 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals.

134 across disciplines, suggesting that men are self-promoting more often than women in science in
135 general. However, the higher overall rate of self-promotion also makes the relative gender gap in
136 the social sciences the smallest (10% vs. 40% in the other three disciplines), indicating that both
137 male and female scholars in this field are more active in promoting their research compared to
138 other disciplines.

139 To explore how different factors affect the magnitude of gender disparities in self-promotion,
140 we included in the model a separate interaction term between gender and journal impact, affiliation
141 prestige, and author productivity (see raw gender differences in [SI Fig. S4](#)), and calculated the
142 predicted probability of self-promotion for both genders as we did in Fig. 1B.

143 Publishing in top-tier journals can boost authors' confidence and therefore may reduce the
144 gender disparity in self-promotion, leading to authors of both genders becoming more active in
145 sharing the research. In contrast, past research shows that high-achieving women can elicit more
146 pushback for their success as they violate gender expectations⁶⁵. This may cause female scholars
147 to self-promote their high-impact papers less. These competing hypotheses raise the question
148 whether journal impact decreases or increases the gender disparity in self-promotion rate.

149 Fig. 2B shows that authors of both genders are more likely to share research published in
150 higher impact than less prestigious venues. However, this effect is less pronounced for females,
151 resulting in an even larger gender disparity in case of papers published in top-tier venues. Con-
152 sidering papers published in journals with impact factor 40, male scholars are 60% more likely to
153 self-promote than female scholars (0.32 vs. 0.20), whereas for low-tier publications (impact factor

154 below 5), the same probability is only 28% higher for men than for women (0.09 vs. 0.07).

155 Fig. 2C shows that authors affiliated with prestigious institutions self-promote much more
156 often than those from lower-ranked affiliations. Specifically, authors from the highest prestige
157 decile are about 50% more likely to self-promote than those from the lowest-tier affiliations. How-
158 ever, this effect applies nearly equally to both genders, resulting in a similar size of gender gap in
159 self-promotion probabilities across the institution hierarchy: regardless of affiliation ranks, men's
160 self-promotion probability is, on average, 2.5 percentage points higher than women's.

161 As shown in Fig. 2D, there is a quadratic relationship between author's research experience
162 and the likelihood of self-promotion. Throughout a scholar's career, their self-promotion probabili-
163 ty increases up to the mid-career stage, after which the probability starts to decrease. Mid-career
164 scholars are much more likely to self-promote than early- and late-career scholars. This pattern
165 is similar for both genders. One possible reason is that junior researchers spend most of the time
166 conducting research to build their portfolio, while the task of marketing papers is often taken on
167 by more senior scholars^{66,67}. However, as senior authors further make progress in their careers and
168 become more established, they have less time and incentives to self-promote. The largest gender
169 disparity occurs among mid-career authors, where both male and female scholars are at the peak
170 of their self-promotion probabilities (0.114 vs. 0.088).

171 These results suggest that there are well-defined and contrasting gender patterns in self-
172 promotion on Twitter, with men and women adopting slightly different tactics in sharing their own
173 research. Specifically, men are much more active in self-promotion than women when they are in

174 the mid-career stage and publish in high-impact journals. The findings illustrate the subtle nature
175 of gender differences in scholarly self-advertising on social media and provide new insights into
176 the gender inequities in scientists' online visibility and success.

177 **Are There Disparities in the Return on Self-Promotion?**

178 Self-promotional tweets are expected to attract attention to one's paper. However, we know little
179 about the effect of self-promotion on a paper's overall popularity and whether there is a gender
180 difference in the return associated with self-promotion. We set out to measure these effects.

181 To model the right-skewed distribution of a paper's popularity quantified by the total number
182 of tweets, we fitted a negative binomial regression model⁶⁸ to this dependent variable. In our data,
183 female scholars' papers received less attention than male scholars' papers (average total number
184 of tweets: 16.8 vs. 18.2; $p < 0.001$), which is consistent with previous findings¹⁷. To examine
185 how self-promotion impacts the total number of tweet mentions of a paper differently for men and
186 women, we included in the model an interaction term between author gender and self-promotion.
187 The control variables in this analysis are defined similarly as in modeling the probability of self-
188 promotion (Data and Methods).

189 As shown in Table 1, self-promotion can indeed significantly increase a paper's total number
190 of tweet mentions. Surprisingly, women are slightly advantaged in receiving online attention for
191 their papers (the "Female" coefficient is positive and significant), after controlling for important
192 confounding factors that are associated with attention. Moreover, although women self-promote

Table 1: Coefficients of all variables in a negative binomial regression model that predicts the total number of tweets for each (author, paper) observation. Subject area controls are omitted here for space consideration. See full regression table in [SI Table S5](#). Significance levels: *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, and * $p < 0.05$.

Female	0.015 ***
Self promotion = True	1.569 ***
Female x (Self promotion = True)	0.038 ***
First position	0.009 *
Middle position	0.270 ***
Solo author	-0.196 ***
Author pub. count category	-0.077 ***
Affiliation rank category	-0.024 ***
Affiliation location = International	-0.102 ***
Number of authors	0.0001***
Journal impact	0.093 ***
Author log citations	0.055 ***
Constant	1.675 ***

193 less often than men, when they do, they get on average more overall attention to their papers (the
194 small but positive coefficient for the interaction term). The model's adjusted prediction of a paper's
195 total number of tweets reveals that, without self-promotion, females' higher popularity over males
196 is very limited on average (the predicted total number of tweets: 7.84 vs. 7.73). However, with
197 self-promotion, women have a 5.4% higher popularity than men (the predicted total number of
198 tweets: 39.13 vs. 37.13).

199 To test the robustness of this finding, we ran three additional tests. (1) We checked that
200 the result is consistent when fitting the same model to the subject sample from our data that are
201 involved in self-promotion. For this test, we considered only (paper, author) pairs that contain
202 self-promotion, dropped the interaction term between author gender and self-promotion, and ad-
203 ditionally controlled for the author's follower count on Twitter (SI Table S6). (2) As our model
204 treats each (paper, author) pair as the unit of analysis, a paper's total number of tweets might be
205 affected by the self-promotion benefit from all coauthors. To better measure the gender effect in
206 the presence of teams, we fitted a separate model to solo-authored papers (dropping controls for
207 the number of authors and authorship position) and obtained similar results (SI Table S7). (3) We
208 tested that the finding is also robust when defining self-promotion as posting about the paper at
209 least once within one day after paper publication. This analysis suggests that the gender difference
210 in return even applies to timely self-promotion behaviors (SI Table S8).

211 In summary, our analyses point to the surprising finding that women have a slight advantage
212 over men in the return on self-promotion of research papers on social media. However, establishing

213 a causal relationship between self-promotion and online visibility requires further experimental
214 investigations. This finding suggests that a key component to closing the gender gap in visibility
215 on social media is enabling that female scholars can self-promote more.

216 **Discussion**

217 Our analysis based on 1.3M authors and 7M tweet mentions of their published research papers
218 shows that scholarly self-promotion on social media is highly dependent on gender. Female schol-
219 ars are significantly less likely to advertise their papers on Twitter than their male colleagues. This
220 association persists even after controlling for a number of important factors, including journal im-
221 pact, affiliation prestige and location, author productivity and citations, authorship position, and
222 research areas. The disparity also occurs in different types of self-promotion, including *original*
223 *tweets* and *retweets* (SI Fig. S5; see details about distinguishing between the two types of self-
224 promotion in Data and Methods).

225 Our model does not control for authors' presence on Twitter. Thus, a lack of self-promotion
226 could be due to an author who has a Twitter account but chooses not to (re)tweet about their paper,
227 or an author who is not on Twitter at all. While these are two different situations, they are both
228 cases where the author does not engage in and benefit from self-promotion on the platform. The
229 observed gender gap in self-promotion is unlikely to be explained by women's under-representation
230 on Twitter, as past research shows that female academics are at least as likely as men to be on this
231 social media site⁶². As a robustness check, we obtained consistent results (SI Table S3) when

232 restricting the analysis to the subset of authors who have self-promoted at least once in our data
233 (therefore have a Twitter account). Note that this subset of the data also contains (author, paper)
234 pairs that did not self-promote since not all authors self-promote all their papers.

235 Regardless of gender, we find that self-promotion behavior varies substantially across dis-
236 ciplines, affiliations, journal impact, and author productivity. Social scientists self-promote much
237 more often than scholars from life, physical, and health sciences. In general, scholars are much
238 more likely to self-promote when they publish papers in top-tier journals, are affiliated with pres-
239 tigious institutions, and are at their mid-career stages.

240 The gender disparity is the largest for papers published in top-tier journals, suggesting that
241 while publishing in high-impact journals increases the willingness to self-promote for both gen-
242 ders, this effect is stronger for male authors. The same effect can be interpreted as men are more
243 sensitive to associating their names with papers published in lower-tier journals and women are
244 held back in promoting their top-tier papers. However, the gender gap is more or less stable across
245 disciplines, affiliation ranks, and author productivity.

246 We further find that, while all authors receive higher social media attention when they self-
247 promote their papers, this increase in popularity is somewhat higher for female than male scholars.
248 These results hold even when we consider mentions of the paper by scientists only or non-scientists
249 only (SI Tables S9-S10). This differential return on self-promotion might be due to different lan-
250 guage styles used by men and women⁶⁹. A preliminary sentiment analysis of the textual content
251 involved in self-promotion shows that women use more positive language when sharing their re-

252 search than men, whereas men are more neutral in their language than women (SI Text C and SI
253 Fig. S6). If positive content attracts more engagement on Twitter, this may lead to women receiving
254 more online attention for their self-promoted papers. Regardless of the underlying mechanisms,
255 the finding that female scholars are at least as effective as male scholars in attracting attention on
256 Twitter to their self-promoted papers suggests that enabling female scholars to be more active in
257 self-promotion (or male scholars less) may be one solution for reducing gender disparities in schol-
258 ars' online success¹⁷. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether and how a systematic shift in women's
259 self-promotion frequency would change subsequent attention to their papers.

260 The gender difference in self-promotion is consistent with gender gaps observed offline,
261 such as gaps in self-citation⁴⁷ and research presentation⁵⁰. This universality in female scientists'
262 lower tendency to self-promote points to persistent factors preventing them from doing so. It is
263 critical that future research unpacks these because small differences in the initial stage of research
264 dissemination may grow into large disparities in scholars' ultimate visibility across different online
265 platforms and recognition via citations and awards.

266 Although our observational study does not uncover the reasons behind the observed gen-
267 der differences in the rate of self-promotion, several of our analyses point to a process that likely
268 involves multiple mechanisms proposed in the literature, laying the foundations for further work
269 in this space. An estimated 85% of women and girls globally have experienced some form of
270 online harassment and abuse⁷⁰. Harassment is most common on social media sites with 61% of
271 women considering it a major problem⁷¹. Female scholars and graduate students, especially those

272 who are also racial minorities, are prone to be exposed to negative events including defamatory
273 statements, stalking, and misogynistic and gender-oriented attacks^{72–75}. Such attacks and abuse
274 can substantially discourage self-promotion by female scholars, particularly up-and-coming re-
275 searchers. In online science dissemination, women may be more conservative in self-promotion
276 due to fear of backlash^{28,35} and self-stereotyping⁴⁰. In support of this, we find that the gender
277 gap in self-promotion is smaller in the form of retweeting others’ tweets that promote one’s work
278 than in the form of tweeting on their own (SI Fig. S5), likely because the former case reduces
279 the exposure associated with self-promotion. Furthermore, women are not self-promoting their
280 high-impact research as much as men do, possibly out of fear of getting more backlash for ad-
281 vertising their higher achievements^{34,65}. Other mechanisms may also play an effect, such as that
282 women might be more likely to adopt a modest self-presentation style than men³⁶. In support
283 of this, we analyzed the language used in self-promotion. We found that men more often use
284 “novel”, “excellent”, “remarkable”, and “unprecedented” than women, whereas women more of-
285 ten use “amazing”, “creative”, “supportive”, and “inspiring” when promoting their research (SI
286 Text C and SI Fig. S7). Examining these mechanisms is a fruitful avenue for future research.

287 Our study is not without limitations. First, our analysis focused on papers published in
288 2018, which might not generalize to other time periods if gender representation and usage of the
289 platform changed over time. Second, we limited our study to a single social media platform,
290 Twitter. Although it is the largest platform based on mentions of scientific papers, it would be
291 interesting to extend the investigation to other social media sites. Third, we used name-based
292 inferred gender as a proxy of authors’ gender identity. Although our validation shows that there

293 is a high degree of agreement between the predicted attribute and manually verified or even self-
294 reported gender, the inferred identity and the true identity may differ in some cases. This issue
295 might be more severe for authors with East Asian names because many of them are gender neutral.
296 Our main results about self-promotion are similar for authors with non-East Asian names (SI Table
297 S4). Moreover, we are lacking accurate ways to identify non-binary genders^{76,77} and make claims
298 about their self-promotion rates. Fourth, our study requires matching authors to Twitter users. We
299 addressed this problem using a name-based matching algorithm. Although our validation shows
300 that our matching process achieves a very high accuracy, the algorithm is not without any errors.
301 Future work can develop more sophisticated methods to address this issue.

302 Our study offers novel insights into scholars' self-promotion behaviors on social media in
303 general and based on scientists' gender, enriching our understanding of the broader gender in-
304 equity in scientists' online visibility. Our findings have policy implications for online science dis-
305 semination. For instance, to restore gender parity in scholars' online visibility, institutions could
306 allocate resources, provide training, dedicated time, and support in case of online harassment to
307 facilitate more self-promotion by female scholars. This effort should be especially rewarding since
308 women's self-promotion is associated with a significant increase in the online visibility of their
309 work, providing younger generations with successful role models.

310 **Data and Methods**

311 **Altmetric database** Our data are based on the most complete record of research papers' online
312 mentions, maintained by Altmetric.com⁵⁵. This service has been tracking the online mentions of
313 research outputs since 2011 in different platforms including news media and social media such
314 as Twitter and Facebook. We accessed the database (referred to as "Altmetric" hereafter) on Oct
315 8, 2019. Altmetric matches the online attention to papers based on their unique identifiers, such
316 as the Digital Object Identifier (DOI), PubMed ID, and arXiv ID. Utilizing these identifiers, it
317 also collapses the attention for different versions of each paper into a single unique record⁷⁸. This
318 ensures that the data contains the complete mentions of each paper.

319 We focused on all 1,218,710 research papers (before dropping observations with missing
320 values for all control variables) published in 2018 in the database. We obtained all their mentions
321 in the largest platform, Twitter, which consists of about 74% of all mentions (posts) and 92% of all
322 social media mentions in the entire database⁷⁹.

323 Due to Altmetric's data license agreement with Twitter, the dataset contains only the tweet
324 ID for each tweet. We thus collected all tweets using the Twitter API. Due to account deletion or
325 changes in the privacy settings by some Twitter users, we successfully retrieved about 90% of all
326 tweets. The Altmetric data also provides metadata for each paper, such as the DOI, publication
327 year, publication venue, research topics. The disciplinary catalog uses 26 Scopus Subject Areas,
328 which belong to 4 broad disciplines including Social Sciences, Life Sciences, Physical Sciences,
329 and Health Sciences⁸⁰. The classification was performed by in-house experts based on the aim and

330 scope of the content a journal publishes⁸⁰.

331 **Microsoft Academic Graph** We used the Microsoft Academic Graph (MAG) database^{57,81} (ac-
332 cessed on June 01, 2019) to retrieve other metadata for each paper based on the DOI. We obtained
333 essential author information for each paper including author name, author affiliation, affiliation lo-
334 cation, affiliation rank. We also counted author’s previous number of citations and publications up
335 to the publication year of each paper, which reflects author’s previous productivity when deciding
336 whether to self-promote or not, assuming authors tend to self-promote soon after the publication
337 of a paper. MAG leverages data mining and artificial intelligence techniques to address author
338 conflation and disambiguation, which ensures that the author’s number of publications is counted
339 accurately^{57,82}. A paper can have multiple authors and we track whether each of them posted about
340 the paper on Twitter. We, therefore, used each (paper, author) pair as an observation in the analysis.
341 In our final dataset, after dropping missing values for all control variables, there were 2,380,098
342 observations for 539,848 papers, which were mentioned in about 7 million tweets.

343 **Gender prediction** We used Ford’s algorithm⁵⁶ to infer the gender of a author based on their
344 first name. The algorithm returns, for a given name, one of 4 categories: Female, Male, Unisex,
345 Unknown. A name is predicted as “Female” (“male”) if it is used for women (men) at least twice
346 as frequently as for men (women), based on data from national statistics institutes⁸³. Otherwise,
347 the name is labeled as “Unisex” (gender-neutral). If the name is not found in the database, it is
348 labeled as “Unknown”. The percentage of observations for Male, Female, Unknown, and Unisex
349 is 49%, 28%, 17%, 6%, respectively. In the final dataset, we excluded “Unknown” and “Unisex”

350 categories (we obtained consistent results when including the two categories). We used “Male” as
351 the reference category in the regressions.

352 **Validation with manually verified gender**

353 We evaluated the performance of this algorithm based on a random sample of 100 authors in our
354 data, for which we manually labelled their gender. In the labeling process, the author gender
355 was determined based on their pronouns and profile pictures displayed on their personal websites,
356 institutional directories, and Wikipedia pages found via a Google search of author names. We used
357 the author’s affiliation to disambiguate multiple authors with the same name. If the gender could
358 not be verified, it was labeled as “Unknown”. There were 19 females, 57 males, and 24 authors
359 with unknown gender in the labelled sample. Based on the set of 76 authors with confirmed
360 gender, the algorithm achieved an accuracy of $F1_m = 0.91$ and $F1_f = 0.88$. A different algorithm,
361 the Genderize API^{50,84–86}, produced a similar result.

362 **Validation with author self-reported gender**

363 We also validated the accuracy of the gender prediction using author self-identified gender labels
364 in the data provided by IOP Publishing (<https://iopublishing.org/>), which is an aca-
365 demic publishing company specialized in the field of physics.

366 Each author has self-reported their gender and country of residence such as China, India,

367 U.S., Canada, Australia, etc. In our evaluation, we focused on authors with self-reported gender
368 as either male or female, and whose names were predicted as either male or female, as our actual
369 analysis was focused on authors with distinctly predicted gender labels. There are 432,888 authors
370 submitting to 62 journals in this data. Here we list authors from China as a separate group because
371 Chinese names typically do not encode clear gender signal when written in English characters⁸⁷.
372 For instance, we found that the vast majority of names (475 such names in total) with both male
373 and female as self-reported gender are from China. The prediction accuracy for Chinese names is
374 lower than non-Chinese names, and the overall F1 score is close to 0.9 (SI Table S11). However,
375 this is likely an underestimation because China accounts for a much larger fraction of the papers
376 in the IOP data than in the Altmetric data.

377 **Robustness check on non-East Asian names**

378 Since the gender prediction is typically less accurate for East Asian names⁸⁸, we repeated our
379 analysis by excluding observations whose author names were predicted to be East Asian ethnicities
380 using the Ethnea API⁸⁹. For a specific name, *Ethnea* assigns the ethnicity probabilities based on
381 matched authors in the PubMed database. In the case of two or more predicted ethnicities, we took
382 the one with the highest probability. *Ethnea* predicts 26 individual ethnicities. We categorized
383 7 of them as East Asian, including *Chinese*, *Indonesian*, *Japanese*, *Korean*, *Mongolian*, *Thai*,
384 *Vietnamese*. We obtained consistent results on the subset of the data (2M observations) with non-
385 East Asian names (SI Table S4).

386 **Detecting self-promotion among a paper’s tweet mentions** Each paper has a list of tweets that
387 mention the paper, with each tweet containing the twitter handle and the screen name of the
388 user (referred to as “tweet names” hereafter). We defined self-promotion as the author posting
389 a tweet sharing the unique identifier of their paper⁷⁸, such as the DOI, PubMedID, arXiv ID, etc.
390 Self-promotion on Twitter comes in different forms, which can manifest in the type of the tweet
391 that shares the research, including (i) an original tweet, or (ii) a retweet. The two types of self-
392 promotion differ in how direct the promotion is: the original-tweet-based promotion comes from
393 the authors themselves whereas the retweet-based promotion originates from others (e.g., an au-
394 thor A retweets a tweet from others sharing A’s paper). Self-promotion in the form of posting an
395 original tweet potentially indicates a stronger intention to advertise one’s paper than that based on
396 a retweet, which is more indirect in the nature of promotion.

397 We constructed a binary dependent variable indicating whether the author self-promoted the
398 paper or not, based on both retweets and original tweets. We determined if an author was among
399 the users who tweeted the paper using string matching between names.

400 There is no perfect method to match author names with tweet names because scholars can
401 use any string as their handle or screen name on Twitter. We thus adopted a simple “containment-
402 matching” approach that searched the author name in tweet names—if either the first name or the
403 last name string was contained in the user handle or screen name (lowercased), we considered the
404 user to be the author of the paper. In case of multiple matches, we used the one with the highest
405 fuzzy matching score⁹⁰.

406 We validated this method using a random sample of 100 papers (each with at least one tweet
407 mentioning it) with manual verification. Due to having multiple authors per paper, there were 521
408 (paper, author) pairs in the manual labelling process. For each observation, we verified the author
409 against all tweets of the paper to check if the author was among the tweet users. This method
410 achieved an initial F1 score of 0.85 (precision: 0.77 and recall: 0.95).

411 We refined this method through an iterative process by experimenting with various new
412 heuristics to address false predictions and evaluating its performance based on an independent
413 manual verification process at each iteration. In the final version, we used “containment-matching”
414 only if the tweet names are single-token string and the author’s first name (or last name) had at least
415 4 characters; otherwise, we used “token-matching”, i.e., the first name or the last name should be
416 matched to the tokens of tweet names (split by space or underscore). This final heuristic achieved
417 an out-of-sample precision of 0.95 and a recall of 1.00 (F1 score: 0.97).

418 **Modelling the likelihood of self-promotion** We used a mixed effects logistic regression model⁹¹
419 to estimate the probability that an author self-promoted a paper on Twitter as a function of their
420 gender, while controlling for the following fixed and random effects variables:

421 • *Journal impact factor*: Papers published in high impact journals may be more likely to be
422 shared by their authors. We obtained the journal impact factor from The Web of Science
423 (2018 version).

424 • *Rank of authors’ affiliation*: Authors from prestigious institutions may be more likely to

425 self-promote. We thus considered the rank of their affiliations provided in the MAG. When
426 an author has multiple affiliations in a paper, we used the one with the highest rank. The
427 rank value is log-transformed in the MAG. We therefore categorized the rank values into ten
428 equally-sized bins (a smaller bin indicates a higher rank category).

429 • *Authors' number of publications prior to 2018*: Authors' career stage and previous research
430 experience can influence their likelihood of self-promoting. To measure this factor, we
431 counted each author's total number of publications before 2018, using all papers indexed
432 in MAG. We also categorized this numerical variable into ten equally-sized bins due to the
433 non-linearity of this variable, and to reduce noise and outliers.

434 • *Authors' number of citations prior to 2018*: Authors' citation counts can impact both their
435 likelihood of self-promotion and the return associated with self-promotion. We counted each
436 author's total number of citations before 2018 using the MAG data. We log-transformed this
437 highly skewed variable to make it more interpretable in the model.

438 • *Number of authors*: We counted the number of authors in each paper. Having more coauthors
439 in a paper could potentially impact an author's likelihood of self-promoting the paper on their
440 own.

441 • *Byline position*: Different authors often play different roles in multi-author projects. For
442 example, authors who play a supportive role in the project may self-promote less frequently.
443 This variation is often captured by the authorship position in the paper. We thus controlled
444 for the position of an author with four categories: (1) first position, (2) middle position, (3)

445 last position, (4) solo author. The last position was used as the reference category in the
446 regression.

447 • *Affiliation location*: We inferred the country of the author’s institution using the latitude and
448 longitude information in the MAG. There were two categories: (1) U.S., (2) international.
449 We used “U.S.” affiliation as the baseline to control for the fact that Twitter is a U.S. social
450 media platform that is more likely to be adopted by authors based in the U.S. Note that 4679
451 observations with unknown affiliation location information were excluded in the analysis.
452 When an author had multiple affiliations with at least one located in the U.S., we classified
453 them as “U.S.” In the regression, we treated “U.S.” as the reference category.

454 • *Research fields*: Not all scholars employ Twitter as a channel to share their research, and
455 scientists’ representation on Twitter varies across disciplines⁶³. To control for field-specific
456 effects, we used the 26 Scopus Subject Areas. Each subject area was treated as a fixed
457 variable in the regression, whose value was coded as 1 if the paper was assigned that subject
458 (0 otherwise). Note that a paper can belong to multiple subject areas.

459 • *Paper random effects*: Individual papers have different degrees of newsworthiness (e.g.,
460 biomedical papers have much more online coverage than papers from other disciplines⁹²).
461 Different papers may vary in the likelihood of being shared on social media by their authors.
462 Gender representation online also varies across disciplines¹⁷. To capture such paper-level
463 variations, we added random effects for each paper in the model.

464 Since there was a quadratic relationship between author productivity and self-promotion rate

465 in the data (SI Fig. S4), we included a second order polynomial term for author productivity in the
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680 **Competing Interests** The authors declare no competing interests.

681 **Additional Information** Supplemental material is available for this paper.

682 **Data availability** The Altmetric data can be accessed free of charge by researchers from [https://](https://www.altmetric.com/research-access/)
683 www.altmetric.com/research-access/. The Microsoft Academic Graph is publicly available at
684 <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/microsoft-academic-graph/>
685 or <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/open-academic-graph/>.
686 A public repository of our data will be available at <https://doi.org/xyz/m9.figshare.xyz>.

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