

34	Contents	
35	1 Introduction	2
36	2 Publishing	3
37	2.1 Open publications get more citations	3
38	2.2 Open publications get more media coverage	4
39	2.3 Visibility and journal impact factor	5
40	2.4 Rigorous and transparent peer review	6
41	2.5 Publish where you want and archive openly	7
42	2.5.1 Preprints	7
43	2.5.2 Postprints	8
44	2.6 Publish for low-cost or no-cost	9
45	3 Funding	10
46	3.1 Funder mandates on article and data sharing	10
47	3.2 Special funding for open research	11
48	3.2.1 Fellowships, prizes, and travel grants	11
49	3.2.2 Research and development grants	12
50	4 Career advancement	12
51	4.1 Finding collaborators and mentors through sharing	12
52	4.2 Institutional support of open research	14
53	5 Intellectual property	14
54	5.1 Retain your author rights and control reuse	14
55	6 Discussion	15
56	6.1 Open questions about open research	15
57	6.2 Openness as a continuum of practices	16
58	7 Summary	16

59 1 Introduction

60 The last decade has seen a dramatic increase in recognition and adoption of policies to
61 increase access to the academic literature (open access) [1, 2], data sharing (open data) [3–
62 5], and code and software sharing (open source) [5]. These open practices can be grouped
63 under the larger umbrella of open science [6], or to be more inclusive, open research. Many
64 ethical, moral, and scientific justifications exist for researchers to be open [7, 8], including

65 the right of taxpayers to access literature arising from publicly-funded research [9] and the
66 importance of code and data sharing for reproducibility [10–12]. However, these arguments
67 may neither be sufficient nor translate into action for all researchers. Some view open
68 research as professionally detrimental and a risk to their careers. Our goal is to show why
69 open practices do not have to be detrimental and can, in fact, aid researchers in their career
70 development.

71 Herein, we take a researcher-centric approach, with the goal of outlining what we call the
72 ‘open research value proposition’. We discuss how researchers can use open practices to their
73 advantage to gain more citations, media coverage for their research, potential collaborators,
74 job prospects, special research funding, and more. In the process, we debunk common myths
75 surrounding open research, such as poor quality and low impact of open access journals,
76 risks to funding and career advancement, and forfeiture of commercialization opportunities.
77 We have divided the discussion into areas of interest, including publishing, funding, hiring,
78 career advancement, and intellectual property. In sum, we show how practicing open research
79 represents a net positive value for academics.

80 2 Publishing

81 2.1 Open publications get more citations

82 A concern for researchers, especially in the early stages of their career, is building a name
83 for themselves and receiving peer recognition for their work. This is measured in part by
84 article citations. Numerous studies have shown that articles published openly - whether
85 in open access (OA) journals, subscription journals with OA options (hybrid journals), or
86 self-archived in open repositories - tend to receive more citations than articles that are not
87 openly available [13–19].

88 Eysenbach and colleagues reported that articles published in the *Proceedings of the Na-*
89 *tional Academy of Sciences (PNAS)* under their OA option were twice as likely to be cited
90 within 4-10 months and nearly three times as likely 10-16 months after publication than
91 non-OA articles published in the same journal [13]. Hajjem and colleagues studied over 1.3
92 million articles published in 10 different disciplines over a 12-year period and found that
93 OA articles had a 36-172% increase in citations over non-OA articles [14]. Openly archived
94 articles receive a citation advantage regardless of whether archiving is initiated by the author
95 or mandated by an institution or funder, ruling out the idea that author bias in selecting
96 their best papers to archive causes higher citation rates [15]. A 2014 study of the journal
97 *Nature Communications* found that biological sciences, earth sciences, and physics articles
98 published under an OA option were cited more than non-OA articles [16]. These results were
99 confirmed in 2015 in an independent study, which found that over 77% of openly available
100 articles published in early 2012 had received at least one citation, versus less than 69% of

101 non-OA papers [17]. Importantly, downloads for non-OA articles experienced short spikes
102 briefly after publication, while OA articles saw sustained download activity. Perhaps related,
103 in 2014, *Nature Communications* switched from a hybrid publishing model to fully OA.

104 Literature reviews have demonstrated that the open citation advantage holds across the
105 majority of studies. Swan and colleagues found 27 studies reporting an advantage and only
106 4 studies reporting no advantage or a disadvantage of publishing openly, with the percent
107 increase in citations for OA articles ranging from -5-580% [18]. Wagner and colleagues
108 found 39 studies reporting an open citation advantage, with a percent increase ranging from
109 25-250%, and only 7 studies which found no advantage or attributed it to confounding
110 factors [19]. The Scholarly Publishing and Academic Resources Coalition (SPARC) Europe
111 maintains a database of citation studies (sparceurope.org/oaca/). Of 70 studies registered as
112 of October 2015, 46 (66%) found an OA citation advantage, 17 (24%) found no advantage,
113 and 10% were inconclusive.

114 The open citation advantage holds for more than just articles. A study of 85 cancer
115 clinical trial articles by Piwowar and colleagues found that those who published their data
116 openly experienced a 69% average increase in citations over articles without shared data
117 [20]. These results were confirmed and extended by Piwowar and Vision, who looked at over
118 10,000 articles published in 2001-2009 [21]. They found an overall 9% increase in citations
119 for studies sharing their data, with increases of up to 48% depending on the subset of
120 articles examined and the year of publication. Similar results have recently been reported
121 for astrophysics data [22]. Studies which openly publish their code are also more likely to
122 be cited than those that do not [23].

123 2.2 Open publications get more media coverage

124 One way for researchers to gain visibility is for their publications to be shared on social media
125 and covered by mainstream media outlets. There is evidence that publishing articles openly
126 and sharing data can help researchers get noticed. A study of over 2,000 articles published
127 in *Nature Communications* showed that those published openly received nearly double the
128 number of unique tweeters and Mendeley readers than subscription articles [24, 25]. A similar
129 study of over 1,700 *Nature Communications* articles found that OA articles received 2.5-4.4
130 times the number of page views as subscription articles, and show maintained growth of
131 article views over a longer period [17]. The same study found that OA articles also garnered
132 more social media attention via Twitter and Facebook than non-OA articles.

133 Encouraging examples, albeit outliers, exist showing the extent of impact open publish-
134 ing can have on media attention for researchers. In 2014, Lacovara and colleagues pub-
135 lished their new dinosaur discovery in the OA journal *Scientific Reports* [26], shared their
136 data as supplemental information, and posted 3D images to figshare [27]. The article was
137 subsequently covered in over 75 media outlets, including the BBC, National Geographic,
138 the Los Angeles Times, and more. As of October 2015, the 3D images on figshare had

139 been viewed over 29,000 times, scoring in the top 5% of outputs tracked by Altmetric
140 (www.altmetric.com/details/2653335). Similarly, in September of 2015, Berger and col-
141 leagues published their discovery of a purportedly new species of ancestral human in the OA
142 journal *eLife* [28], and made scans of the bones openly available through *MorphoSource* [29].
143 The research was covered by news outlets all over the world, and the lead paper already has
144 6 citations according to Google Scholar.

145 There is evidence that news coverage confers a citation advantage. For example, a 1991
146 controlled study found that articles covered by the New York Times received up to 73% more
147 citations than those not covered [30]. A 2003 study confirmed the results of Phillips et al.
148 [30], reporting higher citation rates for articles covered by the media [31]. We refer readers
149 to a blog post by Matt Shipman, which alerted us to these studies and has a good discussion
150 of their continued relevance, despite their older publication dates [32].

151 2.3 Visibility and journal impact factor

152 As Sydney Brenner wrote in 1995, “...*what matters absolutely is the scientific content of a*
153 *paper and...nothing will substitute for either knowing it or reading it*” [33]. Unfortunately,
154 in a job market flooded with applicants, academic institutions are increasingly relying on
155 proxy metrics, like journal impact factor (IF), to quickly evaluate researchers’ work. The
156 IF is a flawed metric that does not indicate scientific quality of individual articles [34–37].
157 However, until institutions cease using IF in evaluations, researchers will understandably be
158 concerned about the IF of the journals in which they publish. Researchers are also aware of
159 the associated visibility and prestige that often comes from publishing in high-IF journals
160 like *Nature* or *Science*. Importantly, concerns about the visibility and prestige associated
161 with IF do not prevent researchers from publishing openly.

162 The IFs of indexed OA journals are steadily approaching those of subscription journals
163 [38]. Examples of OA journals in the biological and medical sciences with moderate to high
164 IFs, including some from high-profile publishers such as Nature Publishing Group, Public
165 Library of Science (PLOS), and BioMed Central, are listed in Table 1. In the 2012 Journal
166 Citation Report, over 1,000 (13%) of the journals listed with IFs were OA [39]. Of these OA
167 journals, 39 had IFs over 5.0 and 9 had IFs over 10.0. Some OA journals ranked in the top
168 10 for their discipline. Although in several fields subscription journal IFs were statistically
169 higher than OA journal IFs, in select fields the difference was small. In multidisciplinary
170 journals, rank normalized IF was higher in OA than subscription journals [39]. Data show
171 that moving to an open publishing model may even help some journals increase their IF
172 [40, 41]. The Cofactor Journal Selector Tool (cofactorscience.com/journal-selector) allows
173 authors to search for OA journals with an IF.

Table 1: Examples of OA journals with moderate to high impact factors

Publisher	Journal	2014 IF
American Society for Microbiology	mBio	6.8
BioMed Central	BMC Biology	8.0
BioMed Central	BMC Medicine	7.2
BioMed Central	Genome Biology	10.8
BioMed Central	Genome Medicine	5.8
BMJ Publishing Group	The BMJ	17.4
Cell Press/Elsevier	Cell Reports	8.3
eLife Science Publications	eLife	9.3
Nature Publishing Group	Nature Communications	11.5
Nature Publishing Group	Scientific Reports	5.6
Public Library of Science	PLOS Genetics	7.5
Public Library of Science	PLOS Medicine	14.4
Public Library of Science	PLOS ONE	3.2
Public Library of Science	PLOS Pathogens	7.6
Royal Society Publishing	Open Biology	5.8

2.4 Rigorous and transparent peer review

One of the most pervasive myths is that OA journals have poor or non-existent peer review. This leads many to believe that OA journals are low quality and causes researchers to be concerned that publishing in these venues will be considered less prestigious in academic evaluations. To our knowledge, there has not been any controlled study to date comparing peer review in OA versus subscription journals. Studies used by some to argue the weakness of peer review at OA journals, such as the John Bohannon ‘sting’ paper [42], have been widely criticized in the academic community for poor methodology [43, 44]. In fact, Bohannon himself admitted, “*Some open-access journals that have been criticized for poor quality control provided the most rigorous peer review of all.*” He cites *PLOS ONE* as an example, saying it was the only journal to raise ethical concerns with his submitted work.

Subscription journals have not been immune to problems with peer review. In 2014, the publishers Springer and IEEE retracted over 100 published fake articles from several subscription journals [45, 46]. Also in 2014, poor editorial practices at one SAGE journal opened the door to peer review fraud that eventually led 60 articles to be retracted [47, 48]. Problems with peer review thus clearly exist, but these problems are not exclusive to OA journals. Importantly, unlike most subscription journals, some OA journals have open and transparent peer review processes. Journals such as *PeerJ*, *F1000Research*, Royal Society’s *Open Science*, BioMed Central’s *GigaScience*, all the journals in BMC’s medical series, and

193 MDPI's *Life* offer authors the option to publish the full peer review history alongside their
194 articles and offer reviewers the opportunity to sign their reviews. Studies have shown that
195 open peer review can produce reviews of higher quality, including better substantiated claims
196 and more constructive criticisms, compared to closed review [49, 50]. Over time, we expect
197 that open peer review will help dispel the myth of poor peer review at OA journals, as
198 researchers read reviews and confirm that the process is rigorous. Authors can also use open
199 reviews to demonstrate to academic committees the rigorousness of the peer review process
200 in venues where they publish, and highlight reviewer comments on the importance of their
201 work.

202 **2.5 Publish where you want and archive openly**

203 Some researchers, especially those from certain disciplines, may not see publishing in OA
204 journals as a viable option, and may wish instead to publish in specific subscription jour-
205 nals seen as prestigious in their field. Importantly, there are several ways to share work
206 while still publishing in subscription journals. According to the SHERPA/RoMEO database
207 (www.sherpa.ac.uk/romeo/; accessed October 2015), 78% of indexed publishers allow some
208 form of article archiving, whether preprints, postprints, or both.

209 **2.5.1 Preprints**

210 Authors may provide open access to their papers by posting them as preprints prior to formal
211 peer review and journal publication. Several archival preprint servers exist covering differ-
212 ent subject areas, including arXiv (physics, mathematics, computer science, quantitative
213 biology, quantitative finance, statistics), bioRxiv (biology), and PeerJ Preprints (biological
214 and medical sciences). Additional open repositories, such as CogPrints (psychology, neuro-
215 science, linguistics, and other fields related to cognition), figshare (all disciplines), GitHub
216 (all disciplines), and Social Sciences Research Network (cognitive sciences, economics, hu-
217 manities, law, and more), are not exclusively preprint servers but also serve this function.
218 Importantly, preprints are generally not considered prior publication and hence do not vi-
219 olate the so-called “Ingelfinger rule” [51] against double publication. Many journals allow
220 posting of preprints prior to or during the review process, including *Science*, *Nature*, and
221 *PNAS*, as well as most OA journals. Journal policies regarding preprints can be checked
222 via SHERPA/RoMEO (www.sherpa.ac.uk/romeo/). Of the over 2,166 publishers included
223 in their database, 44% explicitly allow preprint posting.

224 Preprints can be indexed in Google Scholar and cited in the literature, thus allowing
225 authors to accrue citations while the paper is still in review. In one extreme case, one of the
226 authors of this paper (CTB) published a preprint that has now received over 50 citations in
227 3 years [52]. Furthermore, this preprint was acknowledged in NIH grant reviews. Depending
228 on the field, preprints can establish scientific priority. In fields such as physics, astronomy,

229 and mathematics, preprints have evolved to become an integral part of the research and
230 publication workflow [53–55]. Researchers have also argued for increased use of preprints in
231 biology [56].

232 Studies posted as preprints prior to formal publication tend to receive more citations
233 that those published only in traditional journals [55, 57, 58]. For example, a study by
234 Gentil-Beccot and colleagues found that physics preprints posted on arXiv not only accumu-
235 lated more citations due to their early availability, but continued to benefit from a citation
236 advantage for months to years after publication [55]. The authors conclude,

237 *“There is an immense advantage for individual authors, and for the discipline as*
238 *a whole, in free and immediate circulation of ideas, resulting in a faster scientific*
239 *discourse.”*

240 Unfortunately, because of the slow adoption of preprints in the biological and medical
241 sciences, few if any studies have been conducted to examine citation advantage conferred
242 by preprints in these fields. However, the rapidly growing number of submissions to the
243 quantitative biology section of arXiv, as well as to dedicated biology preprint servers such
244 as bioRxiv, should make such studies feasible.

245 2.5.2 Postprints

246 Authors can also archive articles on open platforms after publication in traditional journals
247 (postprints). SHERPA/RoMEO allows authors to check postprint posting policies of journals
248 from over 2,166 publishers. Of the publishers currently included in the database, 72% allow
249 authors to archive postprints. Some publishers only allow archiving of an author’s submitted
250 manuscript, while others allow the final accepted or publisher-formatted version to be posted.
251 Of notable example is *Science*, which allows authors to immediately post the accepted version
252 of their manuscript on their website, and post to larger repositories like PubMed Central six
253 months after publication. The journal *Nature* also allows archiving of the accepted article
254 in open repositories six months after publication.

255 If the journal in which authors choose to publish does not formally support self-archiving,
256 authors can submit an author addendum that allows them to retain rights to post a copy
257 of their article in an open repository. The Scholarly Publishing and Academic Resources
258 Coalition (SPARC) provides a template addendum, as well as information on author rights
259 (www.sparc.arl.org/resources/authors/addendum). The Scholar’s Copyright Addendum En-
260 gine helps authors generate a customized addendum that can be sent to publishers
261 (scholars.sciencecommons.org). Not all publishers will accept author addenda, but some are
262 willing to negotiate the terms of their publishing agreements.

2.6 Publish for low-cost or no-cost

Researchers frequently cite high costs, primarily in the form of article processing charges (APCs), as a barrier to publishing in OA journals. While some publishers – subscription as well as OA – do charge steep fees, many others charge nothing at all. In a 2014 study of 1,357 OA journals, 71% did not request any APCs [59]. Eigenfactor.org maintains a list of hundreds of no-fee OA journals across fields (www.eigenfactor.org/openaccess/fullfree.php). Notable examples of OA journals which do not currently¹ charge authors to publish include *eLife*, Royal Society’s *Open Science*, and all those published by Open Library of Humanities.

In addition, many OA journals charge minimal fees. At *PeerJ*, for example, a one-time fee of \$99 allows an author to publish one article per year for life, subject to peer review. Most Pensoft OA journals charge only €10-20 (~\$11-22 USD) per page, while a select few are free. F1000Research has an APC of \$150 for articles up to 1000 words, and \$500 for articles between 1000 and 2500 words. SAGE Open charges \$395 per article. Ubiquity Press OA journals charge an average APC of \$500, with their open data and software journals charging £100 (~\$150 USD). Cogent’s OA journals all function on a flexible payment model, with authors paying only what they are able based on their financial resources. Importantly, most OA journals do not charge any additional fees for submission or color figures. These charges as levied by many subscription publishers can easily add up to hundreds, or even thousands, of dollars (e.g. in Elsevier’s *Neuron* the first color figure is \$1000 while each additional one is \$275). Thus, publishing in OA journals need not be any more expensive than publishing in traditional journals, and in some cases, may cost less.

For OA journals that do charge APCs, fee waivers are often available. Policies vary by publisher, but frequently include automatic full waivers for authors from low-income countries, and partial waivers for those in lower-middle-income countries. Researchers in any country can also request a partial or full waiver if they do not have sufficient resources. Some publishers, such as BioMed Central, F1000Research, Hindawi, and PeerJ, have membership programs through which institutions pay part or all of the APC for affiliated authors. Some institutions also have discretionary funds for OA publication fees. Increasingly, funders are providing OA publishing funds, or allowing researchers to write these funds into their grants. PLOS maintains a searchable list of both institutions and funders that support OA publication costs, organized by country (www.plos.org/publications/publication-fees/open-access-funds/).

If none of the above options work, researchers can make their work available without paying fees by self-archiving preprints or postprints. As discussed in section 2.5, most subscription journals allow authors to openly archive some version of their manuscript, either immediately or following an embargo period. Archiving is free on a variety of platforms, including arXiv, bioRxiv, figshare, institutional repositories, or personal websites. Self-

¹Both *eLife* and *Open Science* have said they will likely charge an APC in the future, though no dates for the change in fees have been publicly announced.

300 archiving can thus be an extremely cost-effective method of making one's research openly
301 available.

302 **3 Funding**

303 **3.1 Funder mandates on article and data sharing**

304 For academics in many fields, securing funding is essential to career development and success
305 of their research program. Increasingly, funders are not only preferring but mandating open
306 research. The United States National Institutes of Health (NIH) has been a leader in this
307 respect. In 2008, the NIH implemented a public access policy, requiring that all articles
308 arising from NIH-funded projects be deposited in the National Library of Medicine's open
309 repository PubMed Central within one year of publication. NIH also currently requires that
310 projects receiving \$500K or more per year in direct costs include a data management plan
311 that specifies how researchers will share their data. In 2016, NIH's data sharing policy will
312 be extended to all grants, regardless of funding level. The policy reads in part,

313 *“NIH expects the timely release and sharing of data to be no later than the ac-*
314 *ceptance for publication of the main findings from the final dataset.” [60]*

315 Since 2011, the United States National Science Foundation (NSF) has also had sharing
316 policies in place stating,

317 *“Investigators are expected to share with other researchers...the primary data,*
318 *samples, physical collections and other supporting materials created or gathered*
319 *in the course of work under NSF grants.” [61]*

320 All NSF investigators are required to submit a data management plan, specifying data avail-
321 ability. In 2015, in response to the White House Office of Science and Technology (OSTP)
322 Memo on *Increasing Access to the Results of Federally Funded Scientific Research* [62], the
323 NSF announced their new public access initiative. Starting in January of 2016, NSF will
324 require articles from funded projects to be deposited in an open repository within one year
325 of publication. Other U.S. government agencies, such as the Centers for Disease Control
326 and Prevention (CDC), the Department of Defense (DoD), and the Food and Drug Ad-
327 ministration (FDA), have announced similar plans to implement article and data sharing
328 requirements in response to the OSTP memo. A crowd-sourced effort has collected informa-
329 tion on these agency policies [63] and continues to be updated (bit.ly/FedOASummary).

330 Researchers can check article and data sharing policies of specific funders through
331 SHERPA/JULIET (www.sherpa.ac.uk/juliet/). As of October 2015, a search for U.S. fun-
332 ders retrieves 14 public and private funders requiring open publishing or archiving of articles,
333 including the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, NASA, and the World Bank. In the U.K.,

334 over 70 funders have article sharing policies, including the Wellcome Trust and all seven
335 councils comprising Research Councils UK. Internationally, the number of open access poli-
336 cies has been steadily increasing over the last decade (see roarmap.eprints.org/ for data). A
337 smaller but growing number of funders have data archiving requirements. Thus, researchers
338 funded by a wide variety of sources will soon be not just encouraged but required to engage
339 in open practices to receive and retain funding. Those already engaging in these practices
340 will likely have a competitive advantage.

341 **3.2 Special funding for open research**

342 **3.2.1 Fellowships, prizes, and travel grants**

343 A number of organizations offer fellowships and travel grants for researchers to receive train-
344 ing and develop open projects. Other organizations offer prizes to those promoting open
345 practices. While we realize some of the following funds may be transitory, they serve as
346 examples of the types of awards for which researchers can qualify when they share they
347 work. There has been an increase in such funds in recent years, and we expect this trend to
348 continue.

- 349 **1. Shuttleworth Foundation Fellowship Program:** includes funding for researchers
350 and entrepreneurs working openly in a variety of fields and on diverse problems ([shut-
351 tleworthfoundation.org/fellows/](http://shuttleworthfoundation.org/fellows/))

352 *“we are looking for social innovators who are open at heart...The only true
353 way is not a project plan but a champion”*

- 354 **2. Mozilla Fellowship for Science:** targeted at researchers interested in open data and
355 open source (www.mozillascience.org/fellows)

356 *“...fellows will receive training and support from Mozilla to hone their skills
357 around open source and data sharing. They will also craft code, curriculum
358 and other learning resources that help their local communities learn open data
359 practices”*

- 360 **3. Leamer-Rosenthal Prizes for Open Social Science:** rewards social scientists
361 whose research and/or educational practices encourage transparency and reproducibil-
362 ity through sharing of data and methods; separate prizes for early-career researchers
363 and established faculty (www.bitss.org/prizes/leamer-rosenthal-prizes/)

364 *“Transparency is integral to the validity of social science research – especially
365 when this research informs policy and affects the lives of millions around the
366 world”*

- 367 4. **OpenCon Travel Scholarship:** provides funds for students and early-career re-
368 searchers to attend OpenCon, and receive education in open practices as well as adv-
369 cacy training (www.opencon2015.org)

370 *“Empowering the next generation to advance open access, open education,*
371 *and open data”*

372 3.2.2 Research and development grants

- 373 1. **Shuttleworth Foundation Fellowship Program:** in addition to providing funding
374 for fellows, Shuttleworth also provides project funding through the fellowship mecha-
375 nism (shuttleworthfoundation.org/fellows/)

376 *“Our number one ask is that openness be at the core of your idea and/or its*
377 *implementation. Openness is not an add on. It is a fundamental approach*
378 *to both participation and intellectual property”*

- 379 2. **Open Science Prize:** collaborative effort by the Wellcome Trust, NIH, and Howard
380 Hughes Medical Institute to fund open work (www.openscienceprize.org/)

381 *“The Prize provides funding to encourage and support the prototyping and*
382 *development of services, tools or platforms that enable open content...to be*
383 *discovered, accessed and re-used in ways that will advance discovery and*
384 *spark innovation.”*

385 4 Career advancement

386 4.1 Finding collaborators and mentors through sharing

387 As the world’s scientific knowledge grows and the problems we must solve become more com-
388 plex and multifaceted, no one academic can know or do it all. Researchers must be increas-
389 ingly willing to establish interdisciplinary collaborations to advance their projects. However,
390 identifying and connecting with potential collaborators is not trivial. To our knowledge, they
391 have been no formal studies on how open practices affect collaborative projects. However, a
392 few anecdotal examples, though not conclusive, serve to illustrate how sharing articles, code,
393 data, and more can attract potential collaborators and mentors.

394 An excellent example was communicated to us by Dorothy Bishop, a professor at Oxford
395 University. In 2011, after not finding a journal home for her methodological paper, she posted
396 the full article to her blog [64]. She was subsequently contacted by researcher Maximilien
397 Chaumon from the Berlin School of Mind and Brain, who expanded on Bishop’s methods

398 and developed a plug-in. Chaumon drafted a manuscript on the work, to which Bishop
399 contributed, and they published the work this year in *Journal of Neuroscience Methods* [65].

400 In September 2015, academics involved with the newly-established Advancing Research
401 Communication & Scholarship (ARCS) conference and the open access publishing platform
402 The Winnower co-organized a competition to showcase and reward researchers' open schol-
403 arship success stories [66].

404 One notable example from the series was written by Juan Pablo Alperin, a professor
405 at Simon Fraser University [67]. In his prior work for a medical journal, Alperin used
406 the open source software Open Journal Systems (OJS) from the Public Knowledge Project
407 (PKP) (pkp.sfu.ca/ojs/). While developing software for the journal, he built on OJS and
408 contributed plug-ins back to PKP. When he was ready to leave his job at the journal, he
409 contacted PKP director John Willinsky and offered to finish up some plug-ins that were in
410 development if they could give him a short contract. Willinsky agreed, and said he also
411 needed someone to run open access/OJS workshops in Latin America as part of a research
412 project. Alperin accepted the job and spent several years traveling around Latin America
413 giving workshops and conducting a survey on behalf of PKP, subsequently analyzing and
414 writing up the results. He went on to do a PhD at Stanford under Willinsky's direction.
415 As Alperin describes, his contributions to an open source project were thus responsible for
416 launching his academic career.

417 Another essay in the series was written by researcher Kevin Moerman [68]. During his
418 first postdoc at the Academic Medical Centre in Amsterdam, Moerman started informally
419 sharing MATLAB codes he had written. Sharing and keeping track of versions quickly
420 became difficult, so he eventually posted the codes on GitHub. He assigned a citable DOI to
421 the codes and created a website for the toolbox he now calls GIBBON (www.gibboncode.org).
422 He shared the codes internationally, leading to collaborations with institutions such as Trinity
423 College Dublin and MIT. He hosted free workshops on the toolbox to attract more users. His
424 collaborations with Trinity College and MIT have since grown, leading to the supervision of
425 PhD students, publications, and a job offer to join MIT as a postdoc this November. The
426 GIBBON toolbox currently has over 50 downloads per month, and users continue to contact
427 Moerman with questions, often leading to further collaborations.

428 At the close of the competition in October, 13 stories had been submitted by researchers,
429 recounting a variety of successes. Bastian Greshake described how he became the "Mark
430 Zuckerberg of open source genetics" by launching a platform for sharing genetic data [69].
431 Amber Thomas wrote about how her passion for making science accessible led her to launch
432 a company dedicated to helping scientists explain their work in simple terms [70]. Shreejoy
433 Tripathy explained how open science helped him "fall back in love with neuroscience", and
434 led to speaking invitations and collaborative projects [71]. All the essays are openly available
435 through The Winnower (thewinnower.com/keywords/arcs2015).

4.2 Institutional support of open research

There is still a lot of progress to be made in improving how we evaluate academics. However, there are indications that institutions are gradually moving away from flawed journal-level metrics and towards article-level and alternative metrics that recognize open practices in hiring, promotion, and tenure decisions.

In 2013, the American Society for Cell Biology, along with a group of diverse stakeholders in academia, released the San Francisco Declaration on Research Assessment (SF-DORA) (www.ascb.org/dora/). The declaration outlines “*the need to eliminate the use of journal-based metrics, such as Journal Impact Factors, in funding, appointment, and promotion considerations*” and “*assess research on its own merits*”. Additional recommendations for institutions include recognizing data and software as valuable research products. As of October 2015, over 12,000 individuals and nearly 600 institutions have signed SF-DORA in support of the recommendations.

Several institutions have passed resolutions explicitly recognizing open practices in promotion and tenure evaluations. In 2010, the Virginia Commonwealth University Faculty Senate passed a resolution stating,

“VCU Promotion and tenure committees should recognize that publication and editorial effort in open access, peer-reviewed journals or re-publication of peer-reviewed articles in an open access repository offers added value and greater public good than scholarship made only available in expensive journal publications” [72].

In 2012, academics and administrators at the University of North Texas published the Denton Declaration: An Open Data Manifesto stating,

“The academy should adapt existing frameworks for tenure and promotion, and merit-based incentives to account for alternative forms of publication and research output including data papers, public data sets, and digital products. Value inheres in data as a standalone research output” [73]

The declaration has been signed by academics from all over the world.

In 2014, Harvard’s School of Engineering and Applied Sciences launched a pilot program to encourage faculty to archive their articles in the university’s open repository as part of the promotion and tenure process [74].

5 Intellectual property

5.1 Retain your author rights and control reuse

Contrary to popular belief, practicing open research does not mean forfeiting intellectual property rights over one’s work. In fact, authors publishing in OA journals may retain more

470 rights than those publishing in subscription journals, which often require authors to sign
471 over their copyright. OA articles are typically published under Creative Commons licenses,
472 which function within the legal framework of copyright law. Under the licenses, authors
473 retain copyright but grant specific reuse rights to users. All CC licenses (with the exception
474 of the public domain license, CC0) require attribution, which allows authors to receive credit
475 for their work and accumulate citations. Licensors can specify that attribution include not
476 just the name of the author(s) but also links back to the original work. If terms of the
477 license are violated by a user, the licensor can take legal action. There are several legal
478 precedents upholding CC licenses, including: (1) Adam Curry v. Audax Publishing [75, 76];
479 (2) Sociedad General de Autores y Editores (SGAE) v. Ricardo Andrés Utrera Fernández
480 [77, 78]; and (3) Gerlach v. Deutsche Volksunion (DVU) [79]. Thus, through open licensing,
481 researchers retain control over how their work is read, shared, and used by others.

482 6 Discussion

483 6.1 Open questions about open research

484 While published studies assessing the benefits of open research have increased in recent years,
485 they are many more studies waiting to be done. Some of these studies would involve simply
486 expanding on our knowledge in given areas. For example, while there is published evidence
487 of the citation advantage conferred by sharing data and code, we are aware of only three
488 studies on the former and just one on the latter. The studies on open data citation advantage
489 by Piwowar and colleagues [20, 21] looked at cancer and gene microarray data. Does the
490 citation advantage hold for other types of data? Do data sharing practices (e.g. format
491 and organization of the data) affect whether data sets are cited or reused? Are data more
492 likely to be cited if shared in a general or subject-specific repository? Additional studies
493 of the citation advantage and visibility of open research products in various fields would be
494 beneficial.

495 Other questions have yet to be asked in formal studies. For example, while open advocates
496 often cite reproducibility as one of the benefits of data or code sharing, we are not aware
497 of any studies systematically looking at whether studies with shared data or code are more
498 reproducible than studies in the same field without available data. A recent study organized
499 by the Center for Open Science and led by one of the current authors (BN) attempted to
500 replicate 100 findings in the psychological sciences [80]. While only 36% of those replications
501 had significant results, it was the sharing of information, protocols, and data between authors
502 of the original studies and the replication teams that allowed experiments to be reproduced
503 faithfully. Further analysis of the openly available data (osf.io/ezcuj/wiki/home/) from the
504 replication studies may allow researchers to discover why the results were not the same in
505 several cases. This reproducibility project marks an important milestone in the quantitative

506 study of the reproducibility problem and the possible ways in which open science can help.
507 However, more research across multiple fields is needed.

508 In the section on openness and collaborative research opportunities, we presented only
509 anecdotal evidence since we could find no published data on the subject. While it would
510 be hard to quantify and compare across researchers the number of collaborative oppor-
511 tunities directly arising from open practices versus not, one could examine whether open
512 collaborative projects such as OpenWorm (www.openworm.org/) or Open Source Malaria
513 (opensourcemalaria.org/) have higher citation counts or reproducibility than similar closed
514 projects.

515 6.2 Openness as a continuum of practices

516 While there are clear definitions and best practices for open access [81], open data [82, 83],
517 and open source [84], we as advocates must be careful not to take an ‘all-or-nothing’ approach.
518 We should recognize that not all researchers are comfortable with the same level of sharing
519 and appreciate the variety of ways researchers can be open with their work. Openness can
520 be thus defined by a continuum of practices, starting perhaps at the most basic level with
521 openly self-archiving manuscripts and reaching perhaps the highest level with openly sharing
522 research protocols and data in real time.

523 As researchers share their work and see the benefits, they will likely become increasingly
524 comfortable with sharing and willing to experiment with new open practices. Encouraging
525 these incremental steps should therefore lead to a gradual culture change from closed to open
526 research. Training of researchers early in their careers is fundamental. We recommend that
527 all graduate programs require students to take a course on scientific publishing. In addition
528 to basic writing methodologies and proper citation practices, such a course could include
529 information on author rights and open access publishing. Institutions and funders running
530 grant workshops should incorporate skills training on how to self-archive articles and data
531 to meet mandate requirements. Importantly, education and training must be integrated as
532 much as possible into regular curricular and workshop activities - e.g. data sharing as part of
533 training on meeting grant requirements, rather than a separate course - so as not to increase
534 the time burden on researchers.

535 7 Summary

536 The evidence that openly sharing articles, code, and data is beneficial for researchers is
537 strong and building. Each year, more studies are published showing the open citation ad-
538 vantage; more funders announce policies encouraging, mandating, or specifically financing
539 open research; and more employers are recognizing open practices in academic evaluations.
540 In addition, a growing number of tools are making the process of sharing research outputs

541 easier, faster, and more cost-effective. In his 2012 book *Open Access* [7], Peter Suber summed
542 it up best:

543 “*[OA] increases a work’s visibility, retrievability, audience, usage, and citations,*
544 *which all convert to career building. For publishing scholars, it would be a bargain*
545 *even if it were costly, difficult, and time-consuming. But...it’s not costly, not*
546 *difficult, and not time-consuming.*” (pg. 16)

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