The Open Innovation in Science research field: a collaborative conceptualisation approach

How to cite:

Beck, Susanne; Bergenholtz, Carsten; Bogers, Marcel; Brasseur, Tiare-Maria; Conradsen, Marie Louise; Di Marco, Diletta; Distel, Andreas P.; Dobusch, Leonhard; Dörler, Daniel; Effert, Agnes; Fecher, Benedikt; Filiou, Despoina; Frederiksen, Lars; Gillier, Thomas; Grimpe, Christoph; Gruber, Marc; Haeussler, Carolin; Heigl, Florian; Hoisl, Karin; Hyslop, Katie; Kokshagina, Olga; LaFlamme, Marcel; Lawson, Cornelia; Lifshitz-Assaf, Hila; Lukas, Wolfgang; Nordberg, Markus; Norn, Maria Theresa; Poetz, Marion; Ponti, Marisa; Pruschak, Gernot; Pujol Priego, Laia; Radziwon, Agnieszka; Rafner, Janet; Tucci, Christopher L.; Tuertscher, Philipp; Bjørn Vedel, Jane; Velden, Theresa; Verganti, Roberto; Wareham, Jonathan; Wiggins, Andrea and Mosangzi Xu, Sunny (2022). The Open Innovation in Science research field: a collaborative conceptualisation approach. Industry and Innovation, 29(2) pp. 136–185.

For guidance on citations see FAQs.

© 2020 The Authors

https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

Version: Version of Record

Link(s) to article on publisher’s website:
http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1080/13662716.2020.1792274

Copyright and Moral Rights for the articles on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. For more information on Open Research Online’s data policy on reuse of materials please consult the policies page.
The Open Innovation in Science research field: a collaborative conceptualisation approach

Susanne Beck, Carsten Bergenholtz, Marcel Bogers, Tiare-Maria Brasseur, Marie Louise Conradsen, Diletta Di Marco, Andreas P. Distel, Leonhard Dobusch, Daniel Dörler, Agnes Effert, Benedikt Fecher, Despoina Filiou, Lars Frederiksen, Thomas Gillier, Christoph Grimpe, Marc Gruber, Carolin Haeussler, Florian Heigl, Karin Hoisl, Katie Hyslop, Olga Kokshagina, Marcel LaFlamme, Cornelia Lawson, Hila Lifshitz-Assaf, Wolfgang Lukas, Markus Nordberg, Maria Theresa Norn, Marion Poetz, Marisa Ponti, Gernot Pruschak, Laia Pujol Priego, Agnieszka Radziwon, Janet Rafner, Gergana Romanova, Alexander Ruser, Henry Sauermann, Sonali K. Shah, Jacob F. Sherson, Julia Suess-Reyes, Christopher L. Tucci, Philipp Tuertscher, Jane Bjørn Vedel, Theresa Velden, Roberto Verganti, Jonathan Wareham, Andrea Wiggins & Sunny Mosangzi Xu

To cite this article: Susanne Beck, Carsten Bergenholtz, Marcel Bogers, Tiare-Maria Brasseur, Marie Louise Conradsen, Diletta Di Marco, Andreas P. Distel, Leonhard Dobusch, Daniel Dörler, Agnes Effert, Benedikt Fecher, Despoina Filiou, Lars Frederiksen, Thomas Gillier, Christoph Grimpe, Marc Gruber, Carolin Haeussler, Florian Heigl, Karin Hoisl, Katie Hyslop, Olga Kokshagina, Marcel LaFlamme, Cornelia Lawson, Hila Lifshitz-Assaf, Wolfgang Lukas, Markus Nordberg, Maria Theresa Norn, Marion Poetz, Marisa Ponti, Gernot Pruschak, Laia Pujol Priego, Agnieszka Radziwon, Janet Rafner, Gergana Romanova, Alexander Ruser, Henry Sauermann, Sonali K. Shah, Jacob F. Sherson, Julia Suess-Reyes, Christopher L. Tucci, Philipp Tuertscher, Jane Bjørn Vedel, Theresa Velden, Roberto Verganti, Jonathan Wareham, Andrea Wiggins & Sunny Mosangzi Xu (2020): The Open Innovation in Science research field: a collaborative conceptualisation approach, Industry and Innovation

To link to this article: https://doi.org/10.1080/13662716.2020.1792274

© 2020 The Author(s). Published by Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group

Published online: 04 Aug 2020.

Submit your article to this journal

View related articles
The Open Innovation in Science research field: a collaborative conceptualisation approach

Susanne Beck\textsuperscript{a,b}, Carsten Bergenholtz\textsuperscript{c}, Marcel Bogers\textsuperscript{d,e}, Tiare-Maria Brasseur\textsuperscript{a,b}, Marie Louise Conradsen\textsuperscript{f}, Diletta Di Marco\textsuperscript{g}, Andreas P. Distel\textsuperscript{h}, Leonhard Dobusch\textsuperscript{1}, Daniel Dörler\textsuperscript{1}, Agnes Effert\textsuperscript{i,k}, Benedikt Fecher\textsuperscript{j}, Despoina Filiou\textsuperscript{m}, Lars Frederiksen\textsuperscript{n}, Thomas Gillier\textsuperscript{p}, Christoph Grimpe\textsuperscript{b}, Marc Gruber\textsuperscript{p}, Carolin Haeussler\textsuperscript{q}, Florian Heigl\textsuperscript{r}, Karin Hoisl\textsuperscript{s},a,b, Katie Hyslop\textsuperscript{a}, Olga Kokshagina\textsuperscript{t}, Marcel LaFlamme\textsuperscript{a,b}, Cornelia Lawson\textsuperscript{u}, Hila Lifshitz-Assaf\textsuperscript{v}, Wolfgang Lukas\textsuperscript{w}, Markus Nordberg\textsuperscript{x}, Maria Theresa Norn\textsuperscript{y}, Marion Poetz\textsuperscript{b,a}, Marisa Ponti\textsuperscript{b,}, Gernot Pruschak\textsuperscript{b}, Laia Pujol Prieiro\textsuperscript{b}, Agnieszka Radziwlon\textsuperscript{d,e}, Janet Rafner\textsuperscript{b,}, Gergana Romanova\textsuperscript{d,}, Alexander Ruser\textsuperscript{c}, Henry Sauermann\textsuperscript{dd}, Sonali K. Shah\textsuperscript{ee}, Jacob F. Sherson\textsuperscript{bb}, Julia Suess-Reyes\textsuperscript{a,b}, Christopher L. Tucci\textsuperscript{ff}, Philipp Tuertscher\textsuperscript{gg}, Jane Bjørn Vedel\textsuperscript{hh}, Theresa Velden\textsuperscript{ij}, Roberto Verganti\textsuperscript{jj}, Jonathan Wareham\textsuperscript{a}, Andrea Wiggins\textsuperscript{kk} and Sunny Mosangzi Xu\textsuperscript{ld}

\textsuperscript{a}Open Innovation in Science Center, Ludwig Boltzmann Gesellschaft, Vienna, Austria; \textsuperscript{b}Department of Strategy and Innovation, Copenhagen Business School, Frederiksberg, Denmark; \textsuperscript{c}Department of Management, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark; \textsuperscript{d}Department of Food and Resource Economics, Unit for Innovation, Entrepreneurship, and Management, University of Copenhagen, Frederiksberg C, Denmark; \textsuperscript{e}Haas School of Business, Garwood Center for Corporate Innovation, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA; \textsuperscript{f}The Open Discovery Innovation Network, Dean’s Office, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Aarhus University, Aarhus C, Denmark; \textsuperscript{g}Department of Management, Economics and Industrial Engineering, Politecnico Di Milano, Milano, Italy; \textsuperscript{h}Department of Strategic Management and Entrepreneurship, Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University, Rotterdam, The Netherlands; \textsuperscript{i}Department of Organization and Learning, University of Innsbruck, Innsbruck, Austria; \textsuperscript{j}Institute of Zoology, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria; \textsuperscript{k}Department of Marketing, Vienna University of Economics and Business, Vienna, Austria; \textsuperscript{l}Research Programme “Knowledge & Society, Alexander Von Humboldt Institute for Internet and Society, Berlin, Germany; \textsuperscript{m}Department of Strategy and Marketing, The Open University Business School, Milton Keynes, UK; \textsuperscript{n}Grenoble Ecole de Management, Grenoble, France; \textsuperscript{o}College of Management of Technology, École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL), Lausanne, Switzerland; \textsuperscript{p}Chair of Organisation, Technology Management and Entrepreneurship, University of Passau, Passau, Germany; \textsuperscript{q}Business School, University of Mannheim, Mannheim, Germany; \textsuperscript{r}Graduate School of Business and Law, RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia; \textsuperscript{s}Alliance Manchester Business School, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK; \textsuperscript{t}Stern School of Business, New York University, New York, USA; \textsuperscript{u}Independent Researcher, Graz, Austria; \textsuperscript{v}IdeaSquare, CERN IdeaSquare, CERN, Meyrin, Switzerland; \textsuperscript{w}The Danish Centre for Studies in Research and Research Policy, Department of Political Science, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark; \textsuperscript{x}Department of Applied Information Technology, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, Sweden; \textsuperscript{y}Department of Business Decisions and Analytics, University of Vienna, Wien, Austria; \textsuperscript{z}ESADE Business School, Ramon Llull University, Barcelona, Spain; \textsuperscript{aa}Department of Business Development and Technology, Aarhus University, Herning, Denmark; \textsuperscript{ab}Department of Physics and Astronomy, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark; \textsuperscript{ac}Department of Sociology and Social Work, University of Agder, Kristiansand, Norway; \textsuperscript{ad}POK Pühringer PS Chair in Entrepreneurship, European School of Management and Technology Berlin, Berlin, Germany; \textsuperscript{ae}Gies College of Business, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Champaign, USA; \textsuperscript{af}Department of Management and Entrepreneurship, Imperial College London, Business School Building.

Corresponding Author Susanne Beck \textsuperscript{a} susanne.beck@lbg.ac.at Open Innovation in Science Center, Ludwig Boltzmann Gesellschaft, Vienna 1090, Austria

All authors contributed to either the development of the framework and/or the writing along the lines of this framework, and the critical revision throughout the process. All authors approve the final version to be published. Authors are listed alphabetically. The corresponding author had the coordinating role for this collaborative article.

© 2020 The Author(s). Published by Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.
ABSTRACT
Openness and collaboration in scientific research are attracting increasing attention from scholars and practitioners alike. However, a common understanding of these phenomena is hindered by disciplinary boundaries and disconnected research streams. We link dispersed knowledge on Open Innovation, Open Science, and related concepts such as Responsible Research and Innovation by proposing a unifying Open Innovation in Science (OIS) Research Framework. This framework captures the antecedents, contingencies, and consequences of open and collaborative practices along the entire process of generating and disseminating scientific insights and translating them into innovation. Moreover, it elucidates individual-, team-, organisation-, field-, and society-level factors shaping OIS practices. To conceptualise the framework, we employed a collaborative approach involving 47 scholars from multiple disciplines, highlighting both tensions and commonalities between existing approaches. The OIS Research Framework thus serves as a basis for future research, informs policy discussions, and provides guidance to scientists and practitioners.

KEYWORDS
Open Innovation in Science; openness; collaboration in science; Open Science; interdisciplinary research

1. Introduction

The purpose of scientific research is to produce reliable knowledge and work towards understanding and solving societal, technical, and environmental challenges (Stokes 2011; Bush 1945). As these problems increase in complexity, they demand more creative solutions, highlighting the need for open and collaborative practices that involve non-scientific actors such as citizens, companies, and policymakers, as well as scientists from a range of institutions and disciplinary backgrounds (Jones, Wuchty, and Uzzi 2008; Van Noorden 2015; Ledford 2015).

More efficient and effective ways to foster openness and collaboration in science have long been discussed. Anticipated in early work by critics demanding a more ‘social orientation of science’ (Schroyer 1984, 715), new context-driven modes of knowledge production have developed that are centrally concerned with solving societal problems and are therefore more likely to transgress traditional disciplinary boundaries or distinctions between academic and applied research (Gibbons et al. 1994). Taking stock of these shifts, Dasgupta and David (1994) formulated a ‘new economics of science’, today one of the cornerstones of our understanding of the mechanisms of scientific openness and collaboration. However, changing conditions both within science (e.g. increased competition for permanent positions, increased specialisation, the globalisation of the scientific workforce) and outside of it (e.g. professionalisation of non-scientific actors, calls for public engagement and the democratisation of science, policy-driven agenda setting, global crises such as the COVID-19 outbreak) require a novel approach to thinking about...
the antecedents, contingencies, and consequences of openness and collaboration in science in a more integrated way.

One domain in which these issues are being worked out by researchers and practitioners alike is that of Open Science (OS). OS can be understood as an umbrella term encompassing a variety of assumptions about knowledge production and dissemination (Fecher et al. 2017). The three pillars of OS are accessibility (e.g. open access to publications and research data), transparency (e.g. reproducibility of results, open peer review), and inclusivity (e.g. citizen science) (Vicente-Sáez and Martínez-Fuentes 2018). While the first and most broadly accepted two focus on access to existing scientific outputs and processes, only the third envisions opening up the knowledge production process itself.

Even as members of many scientific communities have promoted public participation in science to varying degrees (Lengwiler 2008; Strasser et al. 2019), the core processes of scientific discovery generally remain closed to outsiders. This feature of scientific knowledge production has received comparatively little attention within the OS research field. However, open and collaborative approaches at earlier stages of the scientific research process are increasingly being discussed, suggesting an evolution and expansion of OS priorities (Beck et al. 2019; Chan et al. 2019; Hossain, Dwivedi, and Rana 2016; Nature editorial 2018; Woelfle, Oliaro, and Todd 2011).

Another domain of research and practice focused on openness and collaboration in knowledge production is that of Open Innovation (OI). Originally discussed in the context of changing research and development strategies at private-sector firms (Chesbrough 2003), OI has since been defined more generally as a distributed innovation process based on purposively managed knowledge flows across organisational and sectoral boundaries using pecuniary or nonpecuniary mechanisms (Bogers et al. 2017). OI entails a paradigm shift towards open and collaborative processes that increasingly displace and compete with producer-driven innovation, through practices that can take place outside (Baldwin and Von Hippel 2011) and between organisational boundaries (Chesbrough and Bogers 2014). OI practices embrace different inbound, outbound, and coupled processes for facilitating knowledge flows across boundaries with the purpose of generating innovations. Such practices include, but are not limited to, co-creating innovation between firms, lead users and user innovation communities, open-source software/hardware development, crowdsourcing and crowdfunding, patenting and licensing, or R&D collaborations (Dahlander and Gann 2010; Grimpe and Kaiser 2010; Jeppesen and Frederiksen 2006; Laursen and Salter 2006; Lilien et al. 2002; Poetz and Schreier 2012; Von Hippel and Von Krogh 2003).

As a complement to the focus on later stages of the scientific research process in OS, OI emphasises processes and logics of exchange in the early and intermediary steps of knowledge production. Of late, OI-influenced researchers have specifically explored these dynamics in the context of science (Beck et al. 2020; Franzoni and Sauermann 2014; Guinan, Boudreau, and Lakhani 2013; Lifshitz-Assaf 2018), extending the linkages between OI and the science context beyond different forms of technology transfer (Chesbrough 2020; Egelie et al. 2019; Perkmann et al. 2013). However, despite potential synergies between the OS and OI approaches, our understanding of open and collaborative practices in the science context and their related antecedents, consequences, and contingencies remains limited and fragmented. In part, this is because activity is scattered across many different domains of research and practice. On the scholarly side, OS and OI
are investigated using different disciplinary lenses, from sociology (e.g. Moore 2018) and economics (e.g. Maniadis and Tufano 2017) to management (e.g. Alexander, Miller, and Fielding 2015) and policy (e.g. Bogers, Chesbrough, and Moedas 2018). On the applied side, various OS or OI initiatives are currently being implemented and facilitated by scientists, firms, policymakers, and funding agencies. However, these initiatives are labelled with a dizzying array of terms such as academic entrepreneurship, citizen science, inter- and transdisciplinary research, public engagement, responsible research and innovation, technology transfer, or third mission activities.

We argue that placing these concepts into relation helps us to form a more comprehensive picture of the various factors shaping open and collaborative practices in science. More specifically, we suggest that bringing together the complementary concepts of Open Science and Open Innovation makes it possible to examine specific exchange relationships and translation services between science and other sectors of society. To better integrate these concepts, we propose the concept of Open Innovation in Science (OIS) as a unifying foundation for advancing our understanding of antecedents, contingencies, and consequences related to applying open and collaborative research practices along the entire process of generating and disseminating new scientific insights and translating them into innovation. We define OIS as a process of purposively enabling, initiating, and managing inbound, outbound, and coupled knowledge flows and (inter/transdisciplinary1) collaboration across organisational and disciplinary boundaries and along all stages of the scientific research process, from the formulation of research questions and the obtainment of funding or development of methods (i.e. conceptualisation) to data collection, data processing, and data analyses (exploration and/or testing) and the dissemination of results through writing, translation into innovation, or other forms of codifying scientific insight (i.e. documentation) (see Figure 1).

To tackle the challenge of mapping this expansive research field, we took a multi-step collaborative approach involving 47 scholars from the social sciences, humanities, and natural sciences. Together, we worked to 1) jointly conceptualise the OIS Research Framework; 2) map relevant literature streams defining the different elements, logics, and interdependencies to be synthesised; and 3) write this article (see Appendix A for an overview of the entire process and a reflection on the benefits and difficulties of using a collaborative approach).

As the principal output of this process, our article contributes to science, policymaking, practice, and society in at least three ways. First, employing an open and collaborative approach allowed us to bridge disciplinary differences in terms of underlying norms, theories, assumptions, methods, and languages. This interdisciplinary approach made it possible to synthesise what dispersed fields within the scientific community already know about open and collaborative research practices. Second, integrating different perspectives provided a more comprehensive picture that identifies robust results but also contradictions, tensions, and inconsistencies across scientific fields. These highlight the need for methodologically diverse inquiry to better understand the antecedents, boundary conditions, and consequences of open and collaborative research. Third, structuring the knowledge about open and collaborative research

---

1While various definitions of inter- and transdisciplinary research refer to different constitutive elements (e.g. on the level of knowledge integration, see Piaget 1972), we refer to interdisciplinary research in terms of crossing boundaries of existing scientific disciplines and transdisciplinary research in terms of crossing the boundaries of the science system to involve actors other than academic scientists such as citizens, companies, and policymakers.
practices that we synthesised in terms of multi-level antecedents and contingencies, as well as outcomes and impacts, provides a common foundation for jointly developing a future research agenda. In particular, the cross-level interdependencies between these constructs promise to yield valuable insights for the pursuit of purposefully opening the scientific research process and for a growing body of scholarship on the science of science (Brown, Deletic, and Wong 2015; Fortunato et al. 2018; Wuchty, Jones, and Uzzi 2007).

In what follows, we introduce the OIS Research Framework and provide an overview of OIS practices (section 2.1.), multi-level antecedents to and contingencies for successfully implementing OIS practices (section 2.2.), and (intermediary) outcomes, as well as scientific and societal impacts of applying OIS practices (section 2.3.). In section 3, we outline major contributions from synthesising cross-disciplinary knowledge about open and collaborative scientific practices. Several areas for future research are then presented in section 4, before conclusions are offered in section 5.

2. Conceptualising the Open Innovation in Science (OIS) research field

To return to the definition provided above, OIS is a process of purposively enabling, initiating, and managing knowledge flows and (inter/transdisciplinary) collaboration across organisational and disciplinary boundaries in scientific research. Thus, the OIS Research Framework comprises three main elements with recurring interrelations (see Figure 1). First, OIS practices occur at all stages of the scientific research process, from the formulation of research questions and the obtainment of funding and the development of methods (i.e. conceptualisation) to data collection, data processing, and data analyses (i.e. exploration and/or testing), as well as the dissemination of results through writing, translation into innovation or other forms of codifying scientific insight (documentation). Second, whether and under which circumstances these OIS practices can be successfully applied is influenced by contingencies and boundary conditions on multiple levels (i.e. individual, research team or group, organisation, discipline or field, and society or policy levels). These factors (considered independently and in combination) influence the application of OIS practices, as well as the outcomes and impacts they generate. We emphasise that it is important to take a balanced view that recognises contingency factors: we do not see openness and collaboration as ends in themselves, but as potentially powerful means for improving the novelty, efficiency, and societal impact of scientific research. However, the effectiveness of these approaches depends on the types of factors noted, such that open and collaborative approaches may not be suitable for every scientific undertaking. Third, OIS-based outcomes can ensue along the entire scientific research process (e.g. proposals, datasets, protocols, code, publications, patents, teaching materials, science-based innovations). These outcomes may have scientific and societal impacts, such as an accelerated response to novel diseases.2 Those impacts also

2For example, consider the role of open and collaborative practices in responding to the COVID-19 pandemic. A groundswell of scientific knowledge-sharing across disciplinary, organisational, and national boundaries allowed for rapid and coordinated progress to be made (Apuzzo and Kirkpatrick 2020). Preprint servers like bioRxiv and medRxiv allowed researchers to report and evaluate findings quickly, while more than thirty scientific publishers agreed to make selected publications openly accessible for the duration of the crisis. And while do-it-yourself efforts to address shortages of medical devices and supplies were stymied at times by a lack of understanding of clinical needs (Zastrow 2020), these efforts to ‘hack the crisis’ also revealed societal reserves of insight and generosity that the science system has yet to fully tap.
include the identification of under-researched scientific and societal problems that are subsequently prioritised, thus feeding back to the starting point of scientific research.

In what follows, we discuss each of these elements of the OIS Research Framework, moving from OIS practices (section 2.1.) and antecedents and boundary conditions (section 2.2.) to OIS-based outcomes and impacts (section 2.3.). In presenting a synthesis of available knowledge on open and collaborative research practices across different disciplines in the social sciences, humanities, and natural sciences, we do not claim exhaustiveness, but rather focus on the big picture, identifying interdependencies between elements, as well as tensions and incongruities that point to future research directions.

### 2.1. OIS practices and methods along the entire scientific research and dissemination process

OIS practices can be applied across the entire scientific research process. They may involve a) academic scientists only, or b) actors without formal scientific training, such as citizens, companies, or policymakers, as well as scientific actors working outside of academia\(^3\). In what follows, we use this distinction to offer a taxonomy of OIS practices, their characteristic elements, and examples of how they are used. This overview is not

\(^3\)We distinguish between scientists whose primary place of employment is an academic research organisation (i.e. universities and research institutes) and scientists who are independent or employed at other organisations including government agencies, non-profits, and companies with primarily commercial interests. We specifically do not make this distinction with respect to the value or quality of the scientific knowledge produced. However, we see it as relevant in the context of OIS, as academic and non-academic actors may be influenced by different institutional logics (e.g. importance of scientific publications for career advancement) that influence their decision-making and, in turn, their open and collaborative behaviour (Sauermann and Stephan 2013).
exhaustive and the practices presented may have secondary applications involving other sets of actors, but our aim in this section is to define exemplary categories of OIS practices.

2.1.1. OIS practices involving academic scientists only
OIS practices that exclusively involve academic scientists include collaborations across disciplinary and organisational boundaries (e.g. interdisciplinary, ‘big’, or distributed collaborations), as well as inbound and outbound knowledge flows such as data- and material-sharing and open access publishing.

2.1.1.1. (Inter)disciplinary collaborations. The boundaries of discipline-based research are blurring, with important research questions lying at the intersection of traditional disciplines (Nowotny, Scott, and Gibbons 2006). Interdisciplinary research has been defined as ‘a mode of research by teams or individuals that integrates information, data, techniques, tools, perspectives, concepts, and/or theories from two or more disciplines or bodies of specialised knowledge to advance fundamental understanding or to solve problems whose solutions are beyond the scope of a single discipline or area of research practice’ (National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, and Institute of Medicine 2005, 2). The degree of knowledge integration from source disciplines varies from borrowing and contrasting to integrating and transcending existing bodies of knowledge (Miller 1982). Rafols and Meyer (2010) thus prefer to describe interdisciplinarity in terms of diversity and coherence, highlighting the breadth and novelty of knowledge integration. It can be difficult to establish when interdisciplinarity takes place, as cognitive overlaps make boundaries between and within disciplines difficult to identify. Thus, a more fine-grained classification for levels of interaction, for example from weak to full, may be suitable (Huutoniemi et al. 2010).

2.1.1.2. Shared scientific infrastructure. A special case of interdisciplinary collaboration are large-scale research infrastructures that provide scientists access to highly specialised instrumentation and experimental conditions beyond the reach of most research organisations. Experiments at such facilities require collaboration between permanent scientists and external users (Hallonsten 2016). This can range from short-lived interactions to highly complementary collaborations in which local instrument scientists and visiting scientist-users bring together needed expertise and skills (D’Ippolito and Rüling 2019). In this context, a culture of openness can emerge, with norms governing the allocation of credit for the resulting output. Long-term collaborations also help to advance the development of instruments themselves (Tuertscher, Garud, and Kumaraswamy 2014), facilitating interdisciplinary collaboration between actors who might not otherwise collaborate (Kaplan, Milde, and Cowan 2017). Prominent examples of large-scale or ‘big science’ collaborations include the Manhattan Project, the Human Genome Project, and the Large Hadron Collider experiments at the European Organisation for Nuclear Research (CERN). Such a shared infrastructure can facilitate or even necessitate the application of OIS practices.

Increasingly, virtual and remote labs (formerly known as ‘collaboratories’) also make it possible for scientists who are not physically on site to control instruments and monitor data remotely (Bos et al. 2007; Teasley and Wolinsky 2001). This setup carries advantages
for science education (Heradio et al. 2016; Waldrop 2013) and permits a more efficient use of expensive instruments (Fiholt 2002; Heck et al. 2018; Kraut, Egido, and Galegher 1988). Among space physicists, for example, relaxing the requirement to travel to remote observatory sites has expanded the number of potential participants in research tasks such as data collection. This arrangement has been shown to make participants more diverse in terms of experience and expertise (Fiholt 2002).

2.1.1.3. Data and materials sharing. Another form that (interdisciplinary) scientific collaboration takes is the sharing of intermediate research products. The ability to build on existing knowledge depends on access not only to published findings, but also to underlying data and materials such as cells and cultures used in prior research (e.g. Andreoli-Versbach and Mueller-Langer 2014; Czarnecki, Grimpe, and Pellens 2015; Furman and Stern 2011; Mokyr 2002). Data sharing is thus an essential backstop for the scientific principles of credibility and replication, allowing researchers to build more quickly on prior work and allowing data sharers to achieve more visibility and impact (Beck et al. 2019; Chan et al. 2019; Hossain, Dwivedi, and Rana 2016; Nature editorial 2018; Woelfle, Olliaro, and Todd 2011; Czarnecki, Grimpe, and Pellens 2015; Borgman 2015). There are two primary paths for data sharing: voluntary data sharing via private communication and public repositories (e.g. archives, federated data networks, virtual observatories), and mandatory data disclosure in response to policies by journals (Rouxi and Laakso 2020) and funders (Andreoli-Versbach and Mueller-Langer 2014). Costs for preparing research data to be reused are high, limiting sharing behaviour even among advocates (Fecher et al. 2017; Plantin 2019). These costs, including time to format, annotate, and curate the data, as well as concerns over privacy, ‘scooping’, and misuse, must be balanced against the promised efficiencies of data reuse (Pronk 2019). One way to reduce these costs is by (real-time) storing and sharing of certain kinds of data automatically, without the need for human intervention (Rouder 2016). Another relates to the model of data science as a service (Grossman et al. 2016; Mishra, Schofield, and Bubela 2016), in which scientists upload their data to cloud-based service providers that may also offer some level of processing and analysis. Meanwhile, innovations like the open materials transfer agreement developed by the BioBricks Foundation are providing legal frameworks for research organisations to share biological materials on an open basis.

2.1.1.4. Open publishing. Open flows of knowledge between academic scientists can also be observed at the later stages of the research process, such as the dissemination of research results on an open access basis. Open access is defined as ‘mak[ing] research literature available online without price barriers and without most permission barriers’ (Suber 2012, 8). Distinctions are made between ‘gold’ and ‘green’ routes to open access: the former refers to research outputs that are freely available at the point of publication, while the latter refers to semi-final versions made available by scientists themselves via repositories and preprint servers like arXiv (European Commision 2020). A recent large-scale analysis found that at least 28% of research literature is available via these mechanisms (Piwowar et al. 2018). Meanwhile, sites like SciHub illicitly provide access to even broader swathes of publications (Himmelstein et al. 2018). Key debates around open access hinge on the role of incumbent commercial publishers, with new actors from
library publishers to funders vying to disrupt what has been termed an ‘oligopoly’ (Larivière, Haustein, and Mongeon 2015) with the help of open-source publishing tools and platforms (Maxwell et al. 2019). Concerns over existing quality assurance mechanisms have also given rise to a range of innovations in peer review, from publishing and/or deanonymising review reports to crowdsourcing reviews (Ross-Hellauer 2017).

2.1.2. OIS practices with actors other than academic scientists involved

Academic engagement has been defined as ‘knowledge-related collaboration between academic researchers and non-academic organisations’ (Perkmann et al. 2013). It represents an important way to transfer scientific research beyond academic boundaries and to gain novel insights. In this section, we discuss the role of actors other than academic scientists (e.g. representatives of the public, industry, and politics) in the scientific research process.

2.1.2.1. The general public as co-creator in the scientific research process. Historically, the public understanding of science (Durant, Evans, and Thomas 1989) considered scientists as bearers of knowledge and ‘lay’ citizens as recipients of a scientific education. More recently, a more democratised model has emerged, in which the public is engaged with science in a variety of ways. For example, in medicine, deeper interactions between scientists and patients have increased the motivation of scientists to engage in innovation activities (Llopis and D’Este 2016). Today, members of the public can co-create and disseminate scientific research through practices such as citizen science or crowd science. Although these practices are marked by some particularities (e.g. level and stage of engagement), they have many similar elements (e.g. sourcing external knowledge). Both can be considered promising approaches to organising science in that they increase the scope of problems under investigation and multiply types of potential participants.

While citizen science is not yet defined in a unified way (Eitzel et al. 2017; Heigl et al. 2019), the term is frequently used in reference to the engagement of volunteers (who may not be academics or may be academic scientists in other fields) who collect or analyse data in scientific projects (Silvertown 2009). More generally, crowd science involves ‘scientific research done in an open and collaborative fashion’ (Franzoni and Sauermann 2014, 1). Some studies have categorised citizen and crowd science projects based on the degree of participant involvement (Shirk et al. 2012; Wiggins and Crowston 2011). Most of these frameworks place a co-created approach as the highest level, emphasising the democratisation of science by bridging the gap between academia and the public (Bonney et al. 2009). At this level, the most widely recognised practices are associated with community-based activism (English, Richardson, and Garzón-Galvis 2018). Research questions emerge from community concerns, findings inform government policies, and scientists assist the public with tools to conduct an experiment or collect measurements (English, Richardson, and Garzón-Galvis 2018; Scheliga et al. 2018). New approaches include providing citizen scientists with remote access to laboratory instruments (Heck et al. 2018) and offering co-authorship (Vaish et al. 2017), as well as gamified approaches that attempt to sustain participants’ motivation (Tinati et al. 2017). These strategies promise to catalyse creativity and out-of-the-box thinking, leading to different and potentially more valuable scientific outcomes (Anderson 1994;
Bergen 2009; Tsai 2012). The path towards co-created interactions is particularly challenging for highly mathematically oriented optimisation projects such as Foldit (Cooper et al. 2010) and Quantum Moves 2 (Jensen et al. 2020), which deal with core challenges that are quite disconnected from everyday knowledge. For such computational citizen science projects (Rafner et al. 2019), educational efforts and increased emphasis on the design of the interface may be necessary to create meaningful interactions.

Benefits from citizen science projects are manifold and accrue to academia, the individual (citizen) scientists, and society at large. For example, such projects can generate new domain-specific knowledge and innovations (e.g. Hecker et al. 2018), critical insight into how humans solve problems individually and collectively as compared to machines (Heck et al. 2018), and unique learning opportunities for citizens (Shah and Mody 2014). While citizen science holds promise for human-machine integration, we are just beginning to understand, for example, difficulties arising from designing human-machine systems for serendipitous discovery (Trouille, Lintott, and Fortson 2019).

A particular strength of citizen and crowd science is their potential to draw on larger bases of contributors, expand areas of scientific inquiry, and arrive at results more efficiently. To this end, both citizen science and crowd science may use crowdsourcing techniques to organise scientific projects. Crowdsourcing is defined as ‘the act of outsourcing a task to a “crowd” rather than to a designated “agent” (an organisation, informal or formal team, or individual) such as a contractor, in the form of an open call’ (Afuah and Tucci 2012, 355). Since it can be difficult to know ex ante who is best able to solve problems, broadcasting them to a large and open crowd invites problem-solvers to self-select into participation (Lakhani et al. 2007; Tucci, Afuah, and Viscusi 2018). However, citizen and crowd science are OIS practices that have mostly been used for producing scientific inputs (e.g. collecting or coding data). Dissemination efforts, in contrast, have remained mostly unidirectional, with the exception of science nights or fairs that can be described as interactive science communication events (Bultitude, McDonald, and Custead 2011). Such events can be quite diverse in terms of their duration, location, and organisational backing. Relatedly, if less richly interactional, (micro)blogging platforms like Twitter allow (lay) actors to communicate publicly with scientists about their research findings, thus helping to shape perceptions of the disseminated content (Puschmann 2014).

Increasingly, both citizen and crowd science are moving beyond contributory involvement to become more co-created (Majchrzak and Malhotra 2020). Members of the public are getting involved at the later stages of the scientific research process, such as critically reflecting on the potential consequences of particular research findings and co-developing a suitable dissemination strategy to avoid misunderstandings while initiating informed debates (e.g. Ganna et al. 2019). At the same time, the responsible research and innovation movement has emphasised the involvement of citizens before research projects even begin, through processes of priority setting and anticipatory governance. This approach comes with a responsibility for all involved stakeholders to become mutually responsive and to consider the societal implications of research and innovation activities (e.g. European Commision 2013; Owen, Macnaghten, and Stilgoe 2012).
2.1.2.2. Industry actors as co-creators in the scientific research process. While the commercialisation of scientific knowledge can be undertaken by academic scientists themselves (e.g. through science-based start-ups), much market-oriented knowledge transfer involves partnering with industry actors to co-create and apply scientific research. These OIS practices vary in terms of the level of interaction with existing industry actors. For example, while spinouts and patenting or licencing activities typically require lower levels of engagement, university-industry collaborations can cover the entire spectrum from contributory to co-creative interactions (Perkmann et al. 2013).

The numbers of patents filed and spinout companies formed have become key indicators of university impact on industry and society (D’Este and Perkmann 2011), even though this impact appears to be primarily generated through other, less visible mechanisms such as contract research, consulting, and staff mobility (D’Este and Patel 2007; Perkmann et al. 2013; Perkmann and Walsh 2008). Patenting entails the creation of a legal framework whereby ‘the patented invention can normally only be exploited […] with the authorisation of the owner of the patent’ (World Intellectual Property Organization 2004). Giving such an authorisation to another actor, usually in exchange for money, constitutes a licencing process. There has been a dramatic increase in the number of patents taken out by academic scientists and research organisations (Lissoni et al. 2008). However, the effectiveness of university patenting and licencing as a vehicle for technology transfer is influenced by other, more informal mechanisms such as direct interactions. Openness, seen here as the leakage of knowledge, can also impede patentability because of the novelty requirement embedded in the patenting process (Pépin and Burger-Helmchen 2011).

Spinouts are ‘companies founded by an academic inventor aiming to exploit technological knowledge that originated within a university to develop products or services’ (Bigliardi, Galati, and Verbano 2013). Spinouts are popular among policymakers, due to the belief that they are effective vehicles for advancing the industrial application of scientific knowledge and, simultaneously, creating jobs and growth (e.g. Carayannis et al. 1998; Druilhe and Garnsey 2003; Rasmussen and Wright 2015). Nonetheless, studies show that spinouts are highly prone to failure, have little impact on local or regional economic development (Mustar, Wright, and Clarysse 2008), and grow less than other high-tech companies (Ensley and Hmieseki 2005). As a result, many research organisations have shifted their focus from maximising the number of created spinouts to strengthening potential value creation and emphasising their own role in research dissemination (Jacob, Lundqvist, and Hellmark 2003; Moray and Clarysse 2005; Wright et al. 2006).

Collaborative ties between universities and industry can also take the form of long-term relationships that make use of multiple mechanisms for knowledge exchange. These are usually built on (and reinforce) strong personal and informal relations between individuals (e.g. Cohen, Nelson, and Walsh 2002; Feller and Feldman 2010; Grimpe and Fier 2010). Direct collaboration can stimulate ‘bench-level’ relationships between individual researchers and industry partners, and thus help to foster mutually meaningful exchanges (e.g. in the form of learning or access to in-kind resources) (D’Este and Perkmann 2011). In addition, contract research and consulting can help to build trust among collaborators (Cohen, Nelson, and Walsh 2002; Perkmann and Walsh 2008) and pave the way for new and long-term ventures.
While OIS distinguishes between academic and non-academic scientists on the basis of different ideal-typical institutional logics (e.g. in terms of workplace characteristics, worker characteristics, the nature of the work, and the disclosure of results), there is also substantial variance within academia and industry, respectively (Lam 2010; Sauermann and Stephan 2013). Hence, collaborations among academic or non-academic scientists can be as varies as those between academic and non-academic scientists, highlighting the importance of context and of individual characteristics. Industrial scientists may be similar to academic scientists in terms of their shared understanding of particular scientific topics and norms, but differ with respect to individual-level preferences for factors such as pay, autonomy, or openness (Roach and Sauermann 2010).

There are also significant interdependencies between practices that connect academic scientists to industry, implying that it does not make sense to champion one practice as inherently preferable. Boosting university-industry interaction requires a range of approaches that grow out of underlying personal ties (Feller and Feldman 2010; Olmos-Peñuela, Benneworth, and Castro-Martínez 2016; Perkmann et al. 2015). For instance, commercialisation will often be an outcome of or a follow-on activity to collaboration between academic scientists and industry actors, rather than a stand-alone activity (e.g. Lawson 2013).

2.1.2.3. Policymakers as co-creators in the scientific research process. Besides the public and industry actors, policymakers at various levels of government also collaborate with scientists. Traditionally, the engagement of policymakers in scientific research has been defined by the setting of science and innovation policies. Government institutions directly fund research and are thus inevitably involved in influencing research directions (Gläser and Laudel 2016). In defining research policies, policymakers are charged with interpreting the priorities of a variety of stakeholders in the relevant polity, including citizens, industry actors, other government agencies, and scientists themselves. Although the steering of science along these lines is significant, its impact on research is mediated in various ways. These steering actions are generally either conducted through funding schemes, on which scientists in different fields may depend more or less heavily, or through requirements for educational institutions, which are increasingly managed by professional administrators and have policy agendas of their own (Huisman and Seeber 2019). Of course, scientists themselves also play a role in influencing the form these steering actions take.

Recently, though, the adoption of mission-oriented approaches to science and innovation policy has required policymakers to engage more intensely with scientific research (Borrás and Edler 2014; Kuhlmann and Rip 2018; Mazzucato 2018). Missions have a much more focused scope than the traditional programme areas of research funders. They focus the attention of scientific communities on so-called grand challenges (e.g. plastic-free oceans instead of sustainability). These challenges are not scientific as such, but address societal needs. To be implemented effectively, these policy agendas need to influence and be influenced by a greater variety of stakeholders, including scientists.

Finally, policymakers are becoming active co-creators of scientific research through open and collaborative policymaking practices. Open government data often provides the foundation for these practices, giving a wider range of stakeholders the ability to
assess and build on public-sector initiatives (Attard et al. 2015). A more ambitious step involves setting up policy labs where scientists, policymakers, and other stakeholders collaboratively participate in foresight and scenario-building exercises, thus co-advancing science and innovation. Examples include the IdeaLab in Denmark, Sitra in Finland, Vinnova in Sweden, and the EU Policy Lab of the European Commission.

2.2. Antecedents and boundary conditions for applying OIS practices along the entire scientific research and dissemination process

Whether and when OIS practices can be applied and how they affect the outcomes and impacts of scientific research depends on numerous antecedents (i.e. drivers and barriers) and boundary conditions (i.e. contingencies). These help to determine how best to manage inbound and outbound knowledge flows and (inter-/transdisciplinary) collaboration along the entire process of generating and disseminating scientific research. In this section, we highlight such factors at different levels of analysis: 1) the individual level; 2) the research group or team level; 3) the (research) organisation level; 4) the discipline or field level; and 5) the society or policy level. However, there are also dynamics that cut across the different levels.

2.2.1. Individual-level antecedents and boundary conditions

First, we introduce individual-level antecedents and boundary conditions for applying OIS practices. The individual level comprises all ‘human factors’ related to individual persons, including attitudes, capabilities, skills, and prior experiences. Research has suggested that individual-level factors may be more important than organisation-level characteristics in studying openness and collaboration in science (Perkmann et al. 2013). The rationale for this is that universities can be described as professional bureaucracies (Mintzberg 1993) whose members largely decide which activities to participate in (D’Este and Perkmann 2011). While research and teaching activities are mandatory for most academic scientists, industry- and impact-oriented activities are typically optional and a matter of personal choice (Azagra-Caro 2007; Lee 2000; Thursby and Thursby 2004). Even as these expectations begin to shift, whether scientists are able and willing to apply open and collaborative practices is likely to be influenced directly or indirectly by their individual-level factors.

2.2.1.1. Scientists’ individual background and characteristics. Beyond personal choice, scientists’ education and prior experience appear to influence the application of OIS practices like founding science-based start-ups. For example, company founders with a PhD are more likely to adopt Open Science strategies (Ding 2011). Unsurprisingly, researchers who have entrepreneurial experience are more likely to start a new firm (Abreu and Grinevich 2013; Shane and Khurana 2003). Similarly, researchers with an interdisciplinary career trajectory and work experience in industry are likely to have higher patent productivity (Abreu and Grinevich 2013; Dietz and Bozeman 2005). Scientists are also more likely to have entrepreneurial intentions if they have a more diverse and balanced skill set, but only if they are in contact with entrepreneurial peers (Lazear 2004; Moog et al. 2015). Another characteristic identified as a driver of open and collaborative behaviour is individual-level absorptive capacity – that is, the ability to
recognise, absorb, assimilate, and apply new knowledge (Cohen and Levinthal 1990). However, there may also be selection bias in these findings, with scientists moving to research organisations and contexts that are more welcoming of open and collaborative practices.

Other studies have suggested a relationship between personality traits (e.g. the Big Five) and certain aspects of or drivers for sharing behaviour such as creativity or information seeking (Batey and Furnham 2006; Heinström 2003; Linek et al. 2017). Moreover, personal characteristics such as gender and age may influence the application of OIS practices. Several studies suggest that older and male researchers are more likely to engage in open and collaborative practices (e.g. Ding and Choi 2011; Link, Siegel, and Bozeman 2017; Tartari and Salter 2015). Possible reasons for this finding include differences in available time, industry experience, risk affinity, career pressure for young scientists, network size, and environmental and institutional support (Abreu and Grinevich 2013; Burns, O’Connor, and Stockmayer 2003; Ding, Murray, and Stuart 2006; Stephan and El-Ganainy 2007). Gender differences in collaboration activity can, however, be tempered by contextual factors, such as the presence of other women in the work environment and institutional support for the careers of female scientists (Tartari and Salter 2015). Elsewhere, it has also been argued that age is inversely related to research productivity and the acceptance of new ideas, with older researchers tending to be less active, more sceptical about patenting, and more closed-minded (Davis, Larsen, and Lotz 2011; Stephan 1996).

Finally, the outsized influence of exceptional individuals needs to be mentioned. According to the so-called Matthew effect (Merton 1968), eminent scientists receive disproportionately greater credit for their work, while lesser-known scientists receive disproportionately lesser credit for similar contributions to science. Eminent scientists are also likely to attract disproportionately greater amounts of resources such as funding, which may give them better opportunities to engage in resource-intensive OIS practices. Research on the ‘star scientist’ effect (Zucker, Darby, and Armstrong 2002) has shown that some scientists exhibit both superior scientific and entrepreneurial performance, thus playing a key role in the advancement and commercialisation of science.

### 2.2.1.2. Scientists’ attitudes, identities, and motivations to share knowledge

Scientists’ attitudes, identities, and motivations, in conjunction with descriptive norms and perceived behavioural control, seem to predict intentions to engage actively with the public (Poliakoff and Webb 2007) and share research data (Kim and Adler 2015) more reliably than institutional factors such as support measures, education, or training (Guerrero, Urbano, and Fayolle 2016). For example, patenting activity has been shown to depend strongly on individual scientists’ perception of the costs and benefits of patenting and, thus, their willingness to disclose inventions (Baldini, Grimaldi, and Sobrero 2007; Bercovitz and Feldman 2008; Haeussler and Colyvas 2011; Lam 2011; Owen-Smith and Powell 2001; Tartari and Breschi 2012).

Commercialisation propensity is influenced by scientists’ belief that knowledge dissemination is a crucial mission for universities (Renault 2006), perceived support from the research organisation (Moutinho et al. 2007), and beliefs about the (positive) personal and professional outcomes of patenting (Owen-Smith and Powell 2001). In this sense, the
conventional assumption that scientists’ research activities are motivated by intrinsic satisfaction and reputational rewards, while their commercial activities are driven by the desire for financial gain, may reflect an oversimplified view of human motivation (Lam 2015). Rather, scientists are driven by a wide variety of motivational factors, including the desires to produce new knowledge, solve a particular problem, and transform their discoveries into societal impact (Bammer 2008; Cohen, Sauermann, and Stephan 2020; Huutoniemi et al. 2010; Lam 2011; Siedlok, Hibbert, and Beech 2014).

The professional identity of academic scientists has been a sustained object of research (e.g. Henkel 2005), and has recently been shown to play a critical role in the ability to adopt and even initiate open and collaborative practices. For example, scientists at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) who perceived themselves as experts in their field experienced a crisis of their identity as heroic innovators and problem-solvers when experimenting with platform-based innovation challenges (Lifshitz-Assaf 2018). While some scientists were sceptical about working with non-experts, others were highly enthusiastic about the resulting breakthroughs. These scientists went through a process of transforming their identity to see themselves as solution-seekers instead of problem-solvers, thereby embracing open approaches. They were also found to have a more interdisciplinary career history, a factor that contributed to their ability to embrace such changes.

Finally, scientists’ motivations play an important role in driving openness and knowledge-sharing. Motivations such as the desire to learn, reciprocity, signalling, or the pursuit of an exciting idea influence sharing behaviour (Lakhani and Wolf 2003). Scientists appear to be willing to share (prepublication) results in exchange for feedback and credit and as a means to attract collaborators (Thursby et al. 2018). They also express a growing willingness to share data, particularly if formal citation is ensured (Tenopir et al. 2020). However, these motivations also differ among scientists from different fields, given that ‘decisions about the openness of materials involve ongoing assessment of value’ (Levin and Leonelli 2017, 289). Indeed, one study suggests that 70% of field variation in disclosure is related to differences in respondents’ beliefs about norms, competition, and commercialisation (Thursby et al. 2018; Haeussler et al. 2014). Particularly in fields with high mutual dependence, such as mathematics and physics, scientists disclose to attract new researchers to the field and to deter others from working on identical problems (Thursby et al. 2018).

2.2.2. Team- and group-level antecedents and boundary conditions

This section outlines some exemplary team- and group-level antecedents (i.e. drivers and barriers) and contingencies for (successfully) applying OIS mechanisms. These factors are grouped in terms of a) team or group composition and roles, and b) peer effects. While we acknowledge disciplinary differences around how social entities comprised of multiple researchers are described and organised (e.g. team, group, lab), we refer to teams as networks of individuals with a shared responsibility for performing interdependent tasks that have definite start and end points (i.e. when goals are achieved). Research groups are a more durable structure characterised by the leadership of a principal investigator, in which the group members’ tasks can be independent from each other and training is often an important function.
2.2.2.1. Team or group composition. Individuals working together to create knowledge may be physically collocated, but they increasingly work in distributed ways and may not meet or interact in person regularly. This has the effect of increasing coordination and communication costs for the team or group (Hoegl, Weinkauf, and Gemuenden 2004). Key advantages of teamwork in science, however, include diversity, division of labour, and knowledge recombination (Bozeman and Youtie 2017; Horwitz and Horwitz 2007; Uzzi et al. 2013). A considerable body of research explores how the composition of a team or group and related factors around roles and role diversity influence open and collaborative behaviour (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2013).

Team diversity seems to facilitate the application of OIS practices in several ways. Assembling people with different organisational roles or backgrounds, and who possess a range of skills, knowledge, and expertise, helps teams unravel complex tasks related to scientific knowledge production (Van Noorden 2015). Similarly, heterogeneous vocabularies, cognitive patterns, and styles can expose individuals to a greater variety of novel ideas and lead to knowledge recombination (Fleming and Sorenson 2004; Gruber, Harhoff, and Hoisl 2013). However, positive effects seem to diminish following an inverse-U shape with increasing cognitive distance (Wuyts et al. 2005). Recent research has set out to differentiate the effects of having individual team members with interdisciplinary backgrounds (intra-personal diversity) or team members who are specialists in different disciplines (inter-personal diversity) (Haeussler and Sauermann 2020).

Beyond the composition of a team or group, team size seems to matter (Curral et al. 2001), although contradictory findings point to unknown contingencies. While large teams have benefits in terms of labour inputs, knowledge diversity, and division of labour (Wuchty, Jones, and Uzzi 2007), they may struggle with becoming too unwieldy to enable effective exchange and engagement (Mote et al. 2016). Others have concluded that large teams tend to develop science and technology incrementally, while small teams tend to be more disruptive (Wu, Wang, and Evans 2019). One contingency that may moderate size effects is the team’s integrative and absorptive capacity, which has been shown to be crucial for knowledge integration (Gruber, MacMillan, and Thompson 2013; Salazar et al. 2012).

Individual scientists’ positions within a more hierarchically structured research group also influence participation in engagement and entrepreneurial activities. For instance, groups’ principal investigators (PI) generally take a lead role in driving collaborations with industry, requiring them to be ‘jacks of all trades’. In taking on the roles of project manager, negotiator, and resource acquirer, as well as that of researcher, PIs develop a set of competences and experiences that allow them to function as boundary spanners between academia and industry (Boehm and Hogan 2014). Yet they are also called upon to care for the careers and well-being of the graduate students and postdocs within their groups, even to the point of refusing discourses of responsible research and innovation in favour of a more localised sense of responsibility (Davies and Horst 2015). Such early-career researchers are increasingly engaging with industry in the context of projects funded through a PI that involve industry collaborators (Lee and Miozzo 2015; Thune 2010). But their structural position means that they also incur professional risks if they push for adopting open practices when a group leader does not favour them (Bahlai et al. 2019).
2.2.2.2. Peer effects. Individuals, the teams or groups they compose, and their performance are highly influenced by the attitudes and behaviours of their peers, as well as by prevailing local norms. These effects may also influence how individual actors perceive and engage with OIS. For example, when deciding to collaborate with industry or engage in patenting activities, academic scientists tend to mimic the behaviour of departmental colleagues at a similar stage in their careers (Moog et al. 2015; Tartari, Perkmann, and Salter 2014) and the prevailing department culture instead of taking their lead from university patenting policies (Bercovitz and Feldman 2008; Kenney and Goe 2004). While the presence of role models can positively affect academic scientists’ propensity to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Huyghe and Knockaert 2015), such effects nevertheless remain variable, in part because individual scientists vary in the degree to which they are influenced by their peers. For example, early-career researchers are more influenced by the collaboration behaviour of peers in their immediate social environment (Tartari, Perkmann, and Salter 2014). Likewise, the industry involvement of younger scientists has been shown to increase with the industry orientation of local peers (Aschhoff and Grimpe 2014). However, this relationship may not hold for all forms of OIS.

2.2.3. Organisational-level antecedents and boundary conditions

Individual scientists and research teams or groups are usually embedded in larger research organisations, from universities and their subunits (i.e. departments) to more experimental multidisciplinary institutes (Mosey, Wright, and Clarysse 2012). Antecedents and boundary conditions at the organisational level can influence the (successful) application of OIS practices. Hence, there are organisational capabilities that influence the ability to adopt open and collaborative practices, such as absorptive capacity (Piezunka and Dahlander 2015), epistemic stance about the innovation process (Fayard, Gkeredakis, and Levina 2016), and frame flexibility (Raffaelli, Glynn, and Tushman 2019). In this section, further exemplary antecedents and contingencies are discussed, such as the infrastructures and incentive systems that foster open and collaborative practices among the scientists these organisations employ.

2.2.3.1. Organisational infrastructure. The infrastructures of research organisations, defined in terms of support services and technical systems that underpin core functions like research and teaching, can both support and hinder OIS activities. Over time, specialised infrastructures have evolved to act as agents in knowledge and technology transfer processes (Geuna and Muscio 2009). In particular, Technology Transfer Offices (TTOs) have attracted a great deal of attention in innovation studies. The TTO’s role is, loosely, that of a boundary spanner or broker between academia and industry, helping academic scientists to understand the needs of industry and providing support for commercialisation activities, partner search and match, management of intellectual property, and new venture development (O’Kane et al. 2015; Siegel, Waldman, and Link 2003). While some studies indicate that TTOs play only a marginal and indirect role in driving academic researchers to enter into new ventures (Clarysse, Tartari, and Salter 2011), others indicate that these offices can promote industry orientation and third mission activities (Huyghe and Knockaert 2015). Researchers have found that TTOs may actually slow down rather than accelerate the transfer process, because they seek to
safeguard the interests of the researchers and to maximise financial returns to the university (Franza, Grant, and Spivey 2012; Link, Siegel, and Bozeman 2017). It appears that the details of how a TTO is implemented matter more than the establishment of the form itself.

Moreover, internal policies and protocols can also be seen as organisational infrastructures intended to foster industry collaboration. For example, university-level patent regulations can signal organisational commitment to patenting activities (Baldini, Grimaldi, and Sobrero 2007). But official policies may also lead to symbolic rather than actual changes to behaviour: researchers may engage in superficial compliance with local policies regarding entrepreneurial behaviour, pretending to live up to expectations without actually reorienting their research (Bercovitz and Feldman 2008). Similarly, mechanisms to support spinout formation do not necessarily strengthen researchers’ incentives to start a company (Fini, Grimaldi, and Sobrero 2009). More successful endeavours centre trust, communication, and the role of intermediaries to facilitate knowledge transfer and resolve barriers such as ambiguity and difficulties with knowledge absorption and application (de Wit-de Vries et al. 2019). One intriguing model initiated by CERN involved setting up business incubation centres in its sponsoring states to support entrepreneurs in taking CERN technologies and know-how to market.

Looking beyond infrastructures for commercialisation, library-managed institutional repositories have become one of the standard tools with which research organisations make it easier for scientists to share outputs. While early predictions of their transformative potential (e.g. Lynch 2003) proved overly optimistic, the passage of open access policies and the adoption of new service models have expanded researcher participation (Dubinsky 2014). More recently, research organisations have also sought to configure physical spaces like FabLabs to empower communities and work towards solving societal problems (Dorland, Clausen, and Jørgensen 2019). However, since these infrastructures are generally cost centres that do not directly produce revenue, their ongoing viability likely depends on a widely perceived alignment with organisational mission.

2.2.3.2. Multi-level incentive structures. Traditional academic reward systems fall short in incentivising the adoption of OIS practices. Academic scientists’ performance evaluation at the organisational level (i.e. for hiring and promotion) is often strongly based on so-called high-impact publications and external grant awards. A narrow focus on these metrics has been shown to hinder scientists’ engagement with open and collaborative practices such as publishing in novel open access outlets or engaging in third mission activities (Alperin et al. 2019; Brembs, Button, and Munafò 2013). Existing incentives also tend to foster individual autonomy through internal and external networking. More collectively oriented incentives may be required to motivate, mobilise, and direct the efforts needed to successfully implement open and collaborative approaches (Breunig, Aas, and Hydle 2014). These include the design of specific incentives for ensuring the reproducibility of results, which could benefit faster dissemination and iteration of scientific findings (Nielsen 2011; Nosek et al. 2015). Incentives for open and collaborative behaviour can take a range of forms. For example, some publications have found that researchers are more likely to share their research data when a badge indicating whether results have been reproduced or replicated is published along with their article (Kidwell et al. 2016), although the evidence here is mixed (Rowhani-Farid, Aldcroft, and Barnett...
Scientists are known to place a value on non-monetary rewards that increase their likelihood of succeeding in academia, and which help to validate their identity and to create societal impact (Beck et al. 2019).

Incentive structures beyond the organisational level also have ramifications for the decisions that research organisations make about investing in openness and collaboration. For instance, while interdisciplinary research has more difficulty attracting external funding (Bromham, Dinnage, and Hua 2016; Banal-Estaño, Macho-Stadler, and Pérez-Castrillo 2019) it also generates more citations (Larivière, Haustein, and Börner 2015) and confers institutional prestige (Torres-Olve et al. 2020), thus involving a high risk/high reward trade-off for both academic scientists and organisations deciding whether to prioritise such research (Fortunato et al. 2018; Leahey, Beckman, and Stanko 2017). National and international rankings of research organisations tend to exert a conservative influence (Hazelkorn 2015; Husemann et al. 2017), focusing narrowly on traditional measures of research productivity – an ethos also known as ‘publish or perish’ (Hazelkorn 2015; Husemann et al. 2017) – and failing to account for other aspects of scientists’ work, such as multidisciplinary engagement, data sharing, and novel forms of collaboration like citizen science. Even so, higher education systems like that in the Netherlands (VSNU et al. 2019) are pivoting towards a model of evaluating both individual scientists and their organisations with a greater diversity of measures, promoting the construction of ‘portfolios of worth’ (Rushforth, Franssen, and de Rijcke 2019) that include different types of scholarly activity. Similarly, guidelines for good scientific practice co-created by a group of Nobel Laureates propose to ‘change the reward system’ so as to promote scholars’ investment in transparency, openness, and accessibility (Lindau Guidelines 2020). These developments illustrate the individual, organisational, and policy-level interdependencies around academic incentive structures, indicating that these are particularly crucial for the successful implementation of OIS practices.

### 2.2.4. Field-level antecedents and boundary conditions

OIS explicitly embraces scientific discipline or field as a level of analysis, that presents domain-specific attributes which may affect OIS practices and outcomes. In this section, exemplary antecedents and contingency factors for these effects are discussed, from a) disciplinary differences in terms of incentives and norms to b) the technologies used in particular fields and, increasingly, across them.

#### 2.2.4.1. Disciplinary differences regarding OIS practices

While scholars have moved away from strongly essentialist approaches to conceptualising disciplines (Trowler 2014), these social formations continue to shape scientists’ ways of working and thinking (Becher and Parry 2005; Leisyte and Dee 2012). This includes their outlook on specific OIS practices, as well as scientific openness and collaboration more generally. Some researchers have investigated the meanings and implications of openness for scholars in particular disciplines (Knöchelmann 2019; Levin and Leonelli 2017). Others have examined the relative likelihood of scientists in different fields to engage in particular practices.

For instance, studies of university-industry collaboration consistently reveal that fields including the applied sciences and parts of the social sciences, such as economics and management studies, are more prone to collaborations with the private sector, patenting, and spinout formation (e.g. Azagra-Caro, Carayol, and Llerena 2006; Bozeman 2000;
Powell, Koput, and Smith-Doerr 1996; Schartinger, Rammer, and Fröhlich 2006). Other field-specific factors that influence the adoption of open and collaborative practices relate to incentive structures (e.g. Leahey, Beckman, and Stanko 2017; Siedlok, Hibbert, and Beech 2014), the extent of collaboration (Lewis, Ross, and Holden 2012), and the opportunity costs of commercialisation (Cohen, Sauermann, and Stephan 2020).

Scholars have long seen the competing claims of their employing research organisations and their various disciplinary communities as one of the central tensions in academic science (e.g. Clark 1987). This dynamic also points to interdependencies between drivers and barriers of openness and collaboration in science at these different levels of analysis. For instance, discipline has been found to be a stronger predictor of faculty support for economic development and knowledge commercialisation efforts than organisational climate – an effect that is, however, moderated by individual ideological convictions (Goldstein, Bergman, and Maier 2013). Findings like this underscore the importance of a multi-level approach.

2.2.4.2. Technologies of openness and collaboration. Scholars of science have paid increasing attention to the role of specialised instruments in the production of scientific knowledge, many of which were developed in and became strongly associated with particular disciplinary communities (e.g. Lenoir and Lecuyer 1997). As interdisciplinary problems and research teams come to the fore, though, previously domain-specific technologies are being adopted by scientists across fields. This diffusion has facilitated the distributed application of OIS practices. For example, the now-widespread availability of 3D printing technology has paved the way for open-source hardware to be used as research equipment (Pearce 2012). The possibility of producing open-source hardware is lowering the bar for conducting experiments that, in the past, would have required the modification of commercially available equipment or expensive customised manufacturing. This proves particularly powerful in developing countries, where it can be difficult to obtain and maintain the high-tech equipment used in modern laboratories. In addition, 3D printing increases the reproducibility of experiments, because identical research equipment that has been validated by other scientists and openly licenced can be produced at different sites (Murillo et al. 2019). These new fabrication technologies have also accelerated the process of scientific and technological development (Wajcman 2015). In the hands of the citizen science and maker movements, these technologies are being incorporated into hackathons and makeathons that lower both the cost and the time needed to innovate (Lifshitz-Assaf, Lebovitz, and Zalmanson 2020).

Software developments have also facilitated the application of open and collaborative practices in science. The advent of dedicated platforms like InnoCentive have made it easier to decompose the scientific and technological development process into component tasks and accordingly, to distribute it among multiple actors and entities (Felin and Zenger 2014; Lakhani, Lifshitz-Assaf, and Tushman 2013). The free and open-source software movement provided inspiration to early calls for Open Science (Willinsky 2005), and today the transparency of open-source code allows the scientific community to cross boundaries around field-specific software packages and converge on common solutions like the software environment R. Another example is REANA, a research data analysis platform created by CERN to enable code and data reuse and reproduction, which has generated interest in disciplines well beyond physics (Pujol and Wareham
2019). However, as certain kinds of scientific research becomes inextricable from the software that supports them, software curation and preservation are becoming essential to secure the integrity of the scholarly record (Chassanoff and Altman 2020).

Moreover, the pervasiveness of everyday technologies and broad participation in social media can facilitate scientific dissemination and engagement with the public (Newman et al. 2012). While popular commercial applications such as Google’s G Suite leave users little control over how to engage with them, purpose-built tools like SciNote (SciNote 2020), developed by ScienceAtHome, emulate elements of the process of scientific argumentation (Fischer et al. 2014) and allow users to collaboratively create, share, and evaluate each other’s ideas. Finally, Wikipedia, the largest open collaborative knowledge effort, which was initially revolutionary and has become an everyday tool, has been an important model for self-organising Open Science communities (Arazy et al. 2016; Faraj, Jarvenpaa, and Majchrzak 2011).

2.2.5. Society and policy-level antecedents and boundary conditions

Developments in society, including but not limited to the policy landscape and the structures of government that underpin it, influence openness and collaboration in science, as the former comprise the context in which other levels of analysis are embedded. Societal issues, legislative measures, and regulatory frameworks may thereby act as antecedents and boundary conditions for OIS practices and outcomes.

Scholars have found evidence of constellations of social institutions and cultural values that facilitate or block openness in science (e.g. Godin and Gingras 2000; Sovacool 2010). Such analyses increasingly begin not from essentialist assumptions about national character, but from a political economy perspective that emphasises power and contingency (Tyfield et al. 2017). For example, the centrality of non-commercial open access publishing in Latin America can be explained, in part, by the historical lack of market penetration by commercial publishers in the region (Becerril-García et al. 2019). One contemporary issue that has gained widespread attention is that of public trust in science, although its relationship to openness and collaboration is complex. While the latter are often presented as remedies for a crisis of trust in science, low trust can also deter social actors from participating in the very forms of public engagement that are meant to enlist their support (e.g. Dawson 2018). This effect may be further compounded by what social scientists have framed as the active and strategic production of ignorance (Proctor and Schiebinger 2008).

Against the backdrop of these developments, policymakers have emphasised the need for closer ties between science and society (Conceição et al. 2020), at once legitimising the application of open and collaborative methods and embracing a logic of accountability that has exposed researchers to disabling cultures of audit (Shore 2008). For example, funding schemes have seen a shift from more flexible recurrent block funding towards project funding mechanisms that are associated with greater precarity for early-career researchers and, arguably, less innovative research (Franssen et al. 2018). This reflects a broader change in relations of authority over the governance of research priorities, as the increasing exogeneity, formalisation, and substantive nature of governance mechanisms – as well as the strength and extent of their enforcement – have reshuffled the relative authority of different social groups over the evaluation of research (Whitley 2011).
Other policy changes that have affected OIS practices include an emphasis on the transfer of university research to industry as a means of unlocking economic growth (e.g. Berman 2011; Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff 2000; Shane 2004). Perhaps the best-known legislative vehicle for this agenda was the Bayh-Dole Act, adopted in the United States in 1980. Before the Act’s passage, inventions resulting from federal research funding were assigned to the federal government; after its passage, though, universities were permitted to retain ownership of an invention and, in the event of its commercialisation, the associated revenues (Stevens 2004). The consequences of this legislation included an increase in patenting and licencing activities at elite universities as well as at universities that were previously inactive in the area of knowledge transfer, while raising concerns about a shift away from basic research towards applied questions (Mowery et al. 2001). Parallel legislation adopted in Europe proved to be less effective. The main reasons were found to be lack of adequate internal support mechanisms, the often embryonic nature of technology transfer offices, and the absence of patenting incentives (Grimaldi et al. 2011). Thus, vesting ownership of inventions in universities is no longer considered optimal. Indeed, there is renewed interest in revisiting the system of ‘professor’s privilege’ that these reforms were intended to replace (e.g. Ejermo and Toivanen 2018).

In Europe, there have also been calls for the development of a European-level research space, within which distinct rules of knowledge production, legitimacy, and use can be negotiated (Wedlin and Nedeva 2015). For example, to increase the reusability of research data that has been shared via repositories or other open mechanisms, leaders at the 2016 G20 Summit signed a document supporting the adoption of the ‘FAIR Guiding Principles of Scientific Data Management and Stewardship’ (Wilkinson et al. 2016), which were later formally endorsed by the European Commission. Political support for making research data across Europe findable, accessible, interoperable, and reusable (FAIR) was thus translated into technical specifications for metadata, approaches to identification and indexing, protocols for access, and appropriate attributes for identifying provenance. Further efforts to support data sharing and reuse include the European Open Science Cloud, an ambitious effort to connect national-level infrastructures in an effort to harmonise data management according to FAIR principles, and the COVID-19 Data Platform, launched in April 2020 to bring together relevant datasets and accelerate research responding to the coronavirus pandemic.

Another set of society-level factors affecting the application of OIS practices relates to what are considered valid reasons for limiting openness and collaboration. Here, too, the case of research data is instructive, as expectations for accessibility are now widely cast in terms of the dictum ‘as open as possible and as closed as necessary’. Permissible reasons for not sharing data have been taken to include privacy concerns reflected in regulations like the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), security considerations, and protection for commercial or industrial exploitation. Issues of social justice also demand to be considered as boundary conditions, as with the growing movement for indigenous data sovereignty (Kukutai and Taylor 2016). In these cases, research suggests that mediated revelation to selected actors via trusted intermediary organisations can help to mitigate the risks of complete openness (e.g. Perkmann and Schildt 2015).
2.3. OIS-based outcomes along the entire scientific research and dissemination process and potential scientific and societal impacts

This section focuses on the outcomes, as well as the scientific and societal impacts, of open and collaborative practices along the entire process of generating and disseminating scientific research. Outcomes, here, are not restricted to finished products; they include intellectual or material products and activities at earlier stages of the research process as well as tacit outcomes that are harder to codify. Scientific and societal impacts refer to the consequences of the knowledge produced through the application of open and collaborative practices, as it is taken up, in the science system and in other sectors of society, respectively.

2.3.1. (Intermediary) outcomes of OIS practices along the entire scientific research and dissemination process

The outcomes of applying OIS practices can be located in traditional scientific outputs such as peer-reviewed publications, as well as in a range of other knowledge objects not previously considered research outputs in their own right. The growing prevalence of open and collaborative practices thus exposes the limits of traditional scientometrics, with its focus on citation counts and networks (Mingers and Leydesdorff 2015). Defining and tracking these new outputs, assessing their quality, and allowing their creators to capture value from them, pose significant challenges (Beck et al. 2019; Bornmann 2013). While efforts to track and codify more diverse scientific activities are underway (e.g. pre-registration platforms, peer review crediting schemes like Publons), open and collaborative practices are rarely, if ever, rewarded. Likewise, when relational outcomes are considered, they are often limited to training and sustaining narrow research communities rather than encompassing the formation of dialogic relationships across disciplines and sectors of society (Phillips 2011).

Outcomes of OIS practices can be seen prior to the initiation of any particular research project, with the involvement of citizens and other stakeholders in priority setting (e.g. Manafo et al. 2018). Such processes can result in modified funding calls, evaluation guidelines, or, in rare cases, even a decision not to pursue a given line of inquiry: consider the bans at various levels of governance on human cloning research, some of which were informed by processes of public consultation. These outcomes, in turn, can feed into the composition of diverse research teams and the co-development of research proposals that, in both substance and format, differ from those initiated by scientists alone (Williams et al. 2010). Even as elements of research design like the selection of methods can be considered outcomes of collaboration, open lab notebooks and platforms like protocols.io also facilitate the sharing of research instruments and tacit knowledge about their use. Depending on the project, this might include technical artefacts like code or fully functioning tools that others can adopt for their own purposes. Beyond the sharing of data, open and collaborative practices at earlier stages of the research process can then result in the iterative development of ‘thinking infrastructures’ (Bowker et al. 2019).

Outcomes of open and collaborative practices at the later stages of the research process can closely resemble those of research that does not apply OIS practices. For instance, a scientist could write a standard article for a traditional journal and then arrange to have it published open access, gaining a citation advantage in the process
(Evans and Reimer 2009). Other familiar outputs at this stage include patent applications and various types of one-way science communication (Davies 2008). But documentation and dissemination of research findings can also take more innovative forms, as with interactive digital scholarship in the humanities and social sciences that is starting to challenge the dominance of outputs like the article or monograph even as it draws researchers into new kinds of collaboration (Nowviskie 2011). Inviting collaborators to define relevant outputs for their communities can reduce the need for a subsequent process of research translation, even as it places demands on scientists to master new genres. In some cases, scientists may also take an active role in transforming research findings into product, service, or social innovations, whether in their role as an employee of a research organisation or by taking up a new role outside of the academic science system (e.g. Fritsch and Krabel 2012). These activities can also be understood as outcomes of openness and collaboration in science.

2.3.2. Scientific and societal impact of OIS practices along the entire scientific research and dissemination process

Efforts to open scientific research processes are not an end in themselves, but an important means of producing more impactful scientific research. Thus, as outcomes of OIS practices ensue along the entire research and dissemination process, they can create scientific and societal impacts along the way. We distinguish impacts from outcomes or outputs, understood as concrete intellectual or material products and activities, by highlighting both planned and unforeseen consequences of the uptake of these products and activities within the science system or in other sectors of society (Penfield et al. 2014).

2.3.2.1. Scientific impact. While OIS may influence the science system and its stakeholders in a number of ways, here we highlight impacts associated with increased novelty, reliability, and efficiency in scientific practices. Research has shown that novel combinations of knowledge from diverse sets of actors can lead to more impactful ideas (Uzzi et al. 2013). Thus, one type of impact related to the application of open and collaborative practices in science is catalysing novelty. As we have seen, boundary-crossing inputs at the early stages of the research process can help to identify new and relevant scientific problems (Beck et al. 2020; Sauermann et al. 2020). Breakthroughs during the exploration and testing phases of scientific research have been linked to the application of OIS practices in a variety of scientific fields, including heliophysics (Lifshitz-Assaf 2018), radiation therapy (Mak et al. 2019), and bioinformatics (Blasco et al. 2019). Open and collaborative dissemination practices have also been tied to increased novelty, as with the uptake of scientific knowledge from sources like Wikipedia into original research agendas (Thompson and Hanley 2018).

Another type of impact stemming from the application of OIS practices relates to the reliability of scientific knowledge. The sharing of research data and protocols has led some fields to diagnose and begin responding to a so-called replication crisis (Open Science Collaboration 2015). Even in fields where replication may not be valued or possible, parallel logics of transparency and reflexivity are being articulated in terms of local cultures of evidence (e.g. Elman, Kapiszewski, and Lupia 2018).
Yet we should not assume that the impacts of applying open and collaborative practices in science are unambiguously positive. For instance, the practice of pre-registering hypotheses and/or research designs stands to increase reliability by distinguishing between tested and retroactive predictions (known as ‘p-hacking’ when used to cherry-pick statistically significant effects) that may gloss over negative results (Nosek et al. 2018; Yamada 2018). However, research on innovation contests shows that making ideas public at an early stage risks generating many similar ideas and stifling creativity (Wooten and Ulrich 2015). Likewise, increased team sizes may promote novelty through knowledge recombination, but ‘too collaborative behaviours’ may also distort team dynamics leading to citation farming and other forms of research misconduct (Seeber et al. 2019; Walsh, Lee, and Tang 2019). In the realm of scientific publishing, the article processing charge (APC) model of open access has opened the door to so-called predatory journals, which imitate legitimate titles but fail to provide a thorough review process. Researchers may unwittingly submit to journals like these without verifying their reputability or even do so strategically in pursuit of an easy publication (Dobusch and Heimstädt 2019; Sorokowski et al. 2017). Negative impacts like these are not necessarily inherent to openness and collaboration, but reflect interdependencies with other aspects of the science system that demand to be addressed.

In sum, while open and collaborative practices in science can impose constraints and introduce distortions, the disruptions that these practices involve can also foster creativity and renewal from the inside (Frankenhuis and Nettle 2018). In the short term, these developments may well be more time- and resource-intensive. But in the long run, they promise efficiencies in terms of reducing unnecessary duplication and allowing scientists to address new problems by ‘standing on the shoulders of a taller giant’ (Arza and Fressoli 2017, 465). Thus, gaining a better understanding of mechanisms that facilitate openness and collaboration in science can optimise the application of OIS practices, unlocking these system-level efficiencies and clearing a path for more impactful research.

### 2.3.2.2. Societal impact.

Outcomes of OIS practices along the entire research process can also create societal impact, often understood in terms of social, cultural, environmental, and economic returns (Bornmann 2013). Scholarship on the societal impact of science has traditionally focused on economic impact, and evidence does suggest that open access to research findings and data can lead to savings in labour and transaction costs, as well as enable new products, services, and collaborations (Fell 2019). For example, open and collaborative practices of scientists have allowed drug development companies to become more profitable by avoiding parallel investments (Altshuler et al. 2010; Chaguturu 2014; Priego, Pujol, and Wareham 2019) and identify new market opportunities (Gruber, MacMillan, and Thompson 2008; Rothaermel and Boeker 2008). Defining the needs of prospective customers is a major step in the commercialisation of any new technology, and a given technology may meet customer needs in multiple domains but generate greater value in one or another (Bresnahan and Trajtenberg 1995). Open and collaborative practices can thus help academic entrepreneurs to understand the opportunity landscape by sourcing information from external actors, including crowds (Gruber, MacMillan, and Thompson 2013). This search for solutions has been compared to searching on a ‘rugged’ landscape (Kauffman and Levin 1987; Levinthal 1997), in that members of a crowd will be situated across the entire spectrum of search.
space and therefore have access to distant knowledge not held by the initiating actor (Afuah and Tucci 2012). Thus, economic impacts can result from both inbound and outbound processes of knowledge transfer in the context of OIS.

Recent work on societal impact has emphasised the previously underestimated contributions of the social sciences and humanities (Muhonen, Benneworth, and Olmos-Peñuela 2020) and the need to account for not only positive, but also negative impacts of developments in science (Derrick et al. 2018). For example, the creation of new markets in connection with Open Science may allow ‘platform capitalists’ to capture value from scientific knowledge without creating significant value for the science system (Mirowski 2018), a circumstance which highlights the importance of suitable appropriation strategies. A renewed interest in non-economic forms of societal impact and in valid indicators of these impacts (e.g. Tahamtan and Bornmann 2020) can also be seen. Familiar forms include scientific policy advice that leads to changes in policies or administrative practices (Kropp and Wagner 2010). Distinctive forms of impact linked to the application of open and collaborative practices include the identification of relevant societal problems as priorities for scientific research through methods like crowdsourcing (e.g. Beck et al. 2020; Lifshitz-Assaf 2018). Here, research is guided towards socially relevant problems, while the legitimacy of the scientific enterprise and public accountability are reinforced in the form of a ‘new social contract’ for science (Simon et al. 2019). Likewise, hybrid forums of experts and citizens can contribute to ‘the democratization of democracy’ (Callon, Lascoumes, and Barthe 2009, 225) by bringing together different forms of knowledge needed to identify and prioritise societal problems.

The impact of engaging the public in science was long understood in terms of helping citizens develop a better understanding of scientific practices (Trumbull et al. 2000) and achieving greater scientific literacy (Miller 1998). Yet the dominance of this framing has since been called into question (e.g. Stilgoe, Lock, and Wilsdon 2014). Recent work on ‘extreme’ or co-created citizen science still confirms this educational dimension of citizen participation (English, Richardson, and Garzón-Galvis 2018; Suess-Reyes et al. 2020). But more dialogic and deliberative forms of involvement, as emphasised in the responsible research and innovation movement, may also heighten impact by positioning citizens as active participants in the production of knowledge rather than passive consumers of it, allowing research to become more responsive and adaptive to grand challenges (e.g. European Commision 2013; Sauermann et al. 2020).

As mentioned above, however, assessing the societal impact of research and innovation is a tricky exercise marked by challenges that include causality, attribution, national borders, and time delays (Nightingale and Scott 2007; Bornmann 2013). The application of OIS practices may further exacerbate these challenges. For example, when reviewing research proposals in terms of societal impact, it is difficult to find reviewers with the capacity to evaluate at different stages and from different perspectives (Holbrook 2005). More generally, the (scientific) outputs of an expanded set of stakeholders can have a multitude of effects that can scarcely be captured by a single assessment mechanism (Molas-Gallart and Tang 2011).
3. Discussion and contributions

As the result of synthesising cross-boundary knowledge about open and collaborative practices in science, this article and the OIS Research Framework are poised to make at least three significant contributions. First, by taking an interdisciplinary, collaborative approach (see Appendix A for a detailed description), we bridge disciplinary differences in terms of underlying norms, theories, assumptions, methods, and languages. While open and collaborative practices are discussed in multiple scientific fields, an overall understanding of antecedents, contingencies, and consequences has been missing, in part due to these very real differences. Adding to the science of science literature (Brown, Deletic, and Wong 2015; Dasgupta and David 1994; Fortunato et al. 2018; Jones, Wuchty, and Uzzi 2008; Van Noorden 2015; Wuchty, Jones, and Uzzi 2007), we argue that a more complete understanding of the available knowledge is needed to manage processes of openness and collaboration in science. The co-creative approach we took to gathering and structuring this knowledge, which granted all participants equal decision rights, made it possible to aggregate knowledge of the scientific community about open and collaborative research practices, so as to avoid redundancies in future scientific efforts and to build a solid foundation for an ambitious research agenda. Our collaborative approach will hopefully inspire future interdisciplinary endeavours.

Second, this article and the framework it advances not only bridge disciplinary differences, but also highlight them in order to surface tensions and incongruities. For example, while economics might emphasise the role of incentives in shaping behaviour, sociology might focus on norms and institutional constraints. In doing so, each discipline relies on different assumptions about individual agency and social influence. Our framework poses questions about the conditions under which one or another perspective has more explanatory power, as well as how they could be aligned and integrated. Similar dynamics are at work with the methodological differences between disciplines, whose effects were observable when we considered the relative proportion and weight of descriptive studies, correlational quantitative work, field experiments, and other approaches in informing our framework. We argue that all of these methods have the potential to drive future research activities, perhaps especially through their integration. For example, heavily quantitative fields such as economics could benefit from richer qualitative understanding, while qualitative traditions could be enriched by the larger-scale insights and opportunities for causal identification that quantitative approaches can provide. Beyond disciplinary differences as such, involving natural scientists and other practitioners in the process of conceptualising the framework and writing this article also brought their unique experiential knowledge into discussions, even as they reported benefiting from the ‘outsider’ perspective of social scientists.

Third, by providing a comprehensive view of different aspects of OIS and structuring it in terms of practices, multi-level antecedents and boundary conditions, as well as outcomes and impacts, our framework suggests specific connections and interdependencies. For example, while some attention has been given to individual-level drivers of open and collaborative behaviours, these drivers need to be seen in the broader context of the organisation and even field level (e.g. Cohen, Sauermann, and Stephan 2020, which shows that motives for commercialisation and their impact differ systematically across fields). Future research should examine the interdependencies between different levels of
4. Future research on Open Innovation in Science (OIS)

Mapping the contemporary state of knowledge across the OIS research landscape inevitably leads to the identification of gaps that future research may seek to address in advancing our understanding of the antecedents, contingencies, and consequences of open and collaborative practices in science. In this section, we highlight research gaps that directly relate to and evolve out of the OIS Research Framework, structuring them in terms of 1) OIS practices, 2) antecedents and contingencies, and 3) outcomes and impacts.

Regarding OIS practices themselves, many of those involving both academic and non-academic stakeholders have been described above. However, these practices are each grounded in particular networks of stakeholders, institutional logics, and conventional domains of application. Drawing connections between them as instances of purposively managed knowledge flows across boundaries both challenges prior assumptions and carries new potential. Future research must therefore begin to uncover synergies and complementarities between these practices as they function within the scientific environment. For example, the use of crowdsourcing could take on a new civic aspect if used to identify new research problems in conjunction with the practice of priority setting for mission-driven research (for an early experiment in this, see Beck et al. 2020).

Given the long time horizon for many scientific projects, interaction with collaborators may require more intense and longer-term engagement compared, for example, to the usually shorter cycle of innovation processes. This emphasises the need to better understand the time scales and rhythms of interaction between stakeholders for different OIS practices (Delvenne and Macq 2019). Conflicting goals may also complicate potential synergies between different OIS practices and stakeholders, as firms require appropriation and patenting while scientists may prefer openness of data and results (Vedel and Irwin 2017). To this end, the development of a multi-dimensional measurement scale of OIS practices, which captures the intensity of effort when applying certain practices alone or in combination, may be beneficial. This would allow future studies...
to assess the benefits and costs of applying OIS practices in new contexts more holistically or applying multiple practices simultaneously.

Future research also needs to advance our understanding of the multi-level antecedents and contingencies of OIS practices that influence the occurrence and success of open and collaborative practices in science. At the individual level, as discussed above, capabilities such as creativity have been found to influence open and collaborative behaviour, but less is known about how to build such capabilities at an early career stage or even during childhood (e.g. as a form of individual-level absorptive capacity). Further micro-level research is still needed to develop a more complete understanding of capabilities, attitudes, values, characteristics, and motivations around different OIS practices, as well as the interplay of those elements with each other and with contextual factors. Micro-level antecedents and contingencies for the public to engage in science, in particular, need to be further investigated. For example, research shows that motivations for participating in a citizen science project include learning new things, concern for others, self-improvement, social motivation, and expected benefits for future careers (West and Pateman 2016; Tinati et al. 2017). However, these motivations can vary depending on the intensity and maturity of a citizen’s involvement, in conjunction with other factors like professionalism (Füller et al. 2017). The complex relationships between motivation, willingness, and capabilities clearly have effects not only for citizen science, but for any OIS practice that relies on actors from outside of academia. This highlights the importance of understanding self-selection into these roles so as to ensure fit with evolving task requirements.

On an organisational level, future research should assess how organisational design factors such as structures, processes, norms, and ownership models can support or hinder acceptance and successful application of OIS practices. This might involve creating spaces and incentives within organisations that allow scientists to experiment with OIS practices while reducing associated monetary, time, and career-related costs. These experiments, crucially, may involve piloting novel organisational forms beyond the received structures of departments, research centres, and the like. Such institutional changes should be aligned with policy-level efforts to encourage, monitor, and manage open and collaborative research practices while mitigating emerging risks (e.g. openly sharing research data while ensuring participants’ data protection rights). In addition, technological advancements require ongoing attention to identify the potential for new research technologies like artificial intelligence and their implementation for OIS practices. For example, as discussed above, pioneering advances can already be observed in the area of computational citizen science, as well as in the creation of hybrid Open Science processes combining experts, crowds, and AI (Kittur et al. 2019).

On a policy level, regulations and guidelines need to be developed and aligned with activities at other levels to sustainably govern OIS practices. These might include research funding schemes that require the application of OIS or the widespread adoption of intellectual property mechanisms such as Creative Commons licences. Evaluation of these measures also should not take place in isolation, but in the context of a policy mix promoting a range of approaches to research (Cocos and Lepori 2020).

In terms of OIS-related outcomes and impacts, advocates of OIS often assume that OIS practices will have uniformly beneficial effects in scientific, economic, social, and even ethical terms. However, a more critical evaluation of OIS practices has yet to be undertaken, both theoretically and empirically. The former approach might draw on an
often overlooked tradition of critical innovation studies (Godin and Vinck 2017), as well as recent efforts to problematise or assess the limits of scientific openness (Hartley et al. 2018) and collaboration (Oliver, Kothari, and Mays 2019). The latter raises the question of how to measure the outcomes and impacts of OIS as currently conceptualised; for instance, what should serve as key performance indicators for its scientific and societal impacts or for value captured as a result of its application? The framework put forward in this article presents many touchpoints for future research to connect with the creative and often critical work on research metrics and indicators (e.g. de Rijcke et al. 2016). To this end, mid- and long-term consequences for applying OIS practices – both positive and negative – need to be tracked and elaborated further for individual scientists, research teams or groups, and research organisations. Finally, while OIS practices hold the potential to contribute to a more balanced distribution of capacities for engaging in collaborative knowledge production processes (e.g. reducing some of the structural disadvantages faced by the Global South), more research is needed to determine whether OIS can live up to this promise.

In summary, the synthesis of existing knowledge about open and collaborative practices in science from many disciplines, schools of thought, and methods marks out a large research field that demands attention to the cross-cutting interdependencies of the overarching constructs, as well as to specific practices, antecedents, boundary conditions, and consequences.

5. Conclusion

In this article, we propose the concept of Open Innovation in Science (OIS) as a unifying foundation for advancing our understanding of antecedents, contingencies, and consequences related to applying open and collaborative practices along the entire process of generating and disseminating new scientific insights and translating them into innovation. While we believe that synthesising insights from multiple disciplines about openness and collaboration is a valuable first step in designing and managing efficient and effective processes for producing and disseminating scientific knowledge today, much remains to be done. By mapping the existing literature and offering a clear conceptualisation of the OIS research field, we hope to stimulate fruitful discussions, debates, and scientific efforts to tackle the gaps we have identified. Unleashing the power of open and collaborative practices may allow us to produce more novel and impactful scientific knowledge for the world, to meet the challenges of our time and, in doing so, to better serve the purposes of science.

Acknowledgments

This project was funded by the Austrian National Foundation for Research, Technology and Development, grant for Open Innovation in Science.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.
ORCID

Susanne Beck http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2448-6194
Marcel Bogers http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7942-3561
Andreas P. Distel http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7876-0323
Leonard Dobusch http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5448-4683
Daniel Dörler http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2056-4084
Agnes Effert http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3562-7191
Despoina Filiou http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5521-0310
Lars Frederiksen http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3579-3437
Thomas Gillier http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5797-3634
Carolin Haeussler http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3505-010X
Florian Heigl http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0883-4908
Karim Hoisl http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2113-5794
Marcel LaFlamme http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7489-4233
Markus Nordberg http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5187-9340
Agnieszka Radziwon http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8491-6590
Gergana Romanova http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0524-7059
Henry Sauermann http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1340-0199
Christopher L. Tucci http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8733-9530
Philipp Tuertscher http://orcid.org/0000-0001-8906-936X
Jane Bjørn Vedel http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1894-8401
Andrea Wiggins http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4082-4138
Sunny Mosangzi Xu http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3432-7592

References

Abreu, M., and V. Grinevich. 2013. “The Nature of Academic Entrepreneurship in the UK: Widening the Focus on Entrepreneurial Activities.” Research Policy 42 (2): 40822. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2012.10.005.

Afauh, A., and C. L. Tucci. 2012. “Crowdsourcing as a Solution to Distant Search.” Academy of Management Review 37 (3): 355–375. doi:10.5465/amr.2010.0146.

Alexander, A. T., K. Miller, and S. Fielding. 2015. “Open for Business: Universities, Entrepreneurial Academics and Open Innovation.” International Journal of Innovation Management 19 (6): 1–20. doi:10.1142/S1363919615400137.

Alperin, J. P., C. M. Nieves, L. A. Schimanski, G. E. Fischman, M. T. Niles, and E. C. McKiernan. 2019. “Meta-Research: How Significant are the Public Dimensions of Faculty Work in Review, Promotion and Tenure Documents?” Elife 8: e42254. doi:10.7554/elife.42254.

Altshuler, J. S., E. Balogh, A. D. Barker, S. L. Eck, S. H. Friend, G. S. Ginsburg, R. S. Herbst, S. J. Nass, C. M. Streeter, and J. A. Wagner. 2010. “Opening up to Precompetitive Collaboration.” Science Translational Medicine 2 (52): 52cm26. doi:10.1126/scitranslmed.3001515.

Anderson, J. V. 1994. “Creativity and Play: A Systematic Approach to Managing Innovation.” Business Horizons 37 (2): 80–85. doi:10.1016/0007-6813(94)90037-X.

Andreoli-Versbach, P., and F. Mueller-Langer. 2014. “Open Access to Data: An Ideal Professed but Not Practised.” Research Policy 43 (9): 1621–1633. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2014.04.008.

Apuzzo, M., and D. D. Kirkpatrick. 2020. “Covid-19 Changed How the World Does Science, Together.” New York Times.

Arazy, O., J. Daxenberger, H. Lifshitz-Assaf, O. Nov, and I. Gurevych. 2016. “Turbulent Stability of Emergent Roles: The Dualistic Nature of Self-organizing Knowledge Coproduction.” Information Systems Research 27 (4): 792–812. doi:10.1287/isre.2016.0647.

Arza, V., and M. Fressoli. 2017. “Systematizing Benefits of Open Science Practices.” Information Services & Use 37 (4): 463–474. doi:10.3233/ISU-170861.
Aschhoff, B., and C. Grimpe. 2014. “Contemporaneous Peer Effects, Career Age and the Industry Involvement of Academics in Biotechnology.” Research Policy 43 (2): 367–381. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2013.11.002.

Attard, J., F. Orlandi, S. Scerri, and S. Auer. 2015. “A Systematic Review of Open Government Data Initiatives.” Government Information Quarterly 32 (4): 399418. doi:10.1016/j.giq.2015.07.006.

Azagra-Caro, J. M. 2007. “What Type of Faculty Member Interacts with What Type of Firm? Some Reasons for the Delocalisation of University–industry Interaction.” Technovation 27 (11): 704–715. doi:10.1016/j.technovation.2007.05.003.

Azagra-Caro, J. M., N. Carayol, and P. Llerena. 2006. “Patent Production at a European Research University: Exploratory Evidence at the Laboratory Level.” Journal of Technology Transfer 31 (2): 257–268. doi:10.1007/s10961-005-6110-3.

Bahlai, C., S. J. Bartlett, K. R. Burgio, A. M. V. Fournier, C. N. Keiser, T. Poisot, and K. S. Whitney. 2019. “Open Science Isn’t Always Open to All Scientists.” American Scientist 107 (2): 78–82. doi:10.1511/2019.107.2.78.

Baldini, R., G. Grimaldi, and M. Sobrero. 2007. “To Patent or Not to Patent? A Survey of Italian Inventors on Motivations, Incentives, and Obstacles to University Patenting.” Scientometrics 70 (2): 333–354. doi:10.1007/s11192-007-0206-5.

Baldwin, C., and E. Von Hippel. 2011. “Modeling a Paradigm Shift: From Producer Innovation to User and Open Collaborative Innovation.” Organization Science 22 (6): 1399–1417. doi:10.1287/orsc.1100.0618.

Bammer, G. 2008. “Enhancing Research Collaborations: Three Key Management Challenges.” Research Policy 37 (5): 875–887. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2008.03.004.

Banal-Estañol, A., I. Macho-Stadler, and D. Pérez-Castrillo. 2019. “Evaluation in Research Funding Agencies: Are Structurally Diverse Teams Biased Against?” Research Policy 48 (7): 1823–1840. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2019.04.008.

Batey, M., and A. Furnham. 2006. “Creativity, Intelligence, and Personality: A Critical Review of the Scattered Literature.” Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs 132 (4): 355–429. doi:10.3200/MONO.132.4.355-430.

Becerril-García, A., E. Aguado-López, K. Batthyány, R. Melero, F. Beigel, G. V. Cuartas, G. Banzato, C. Rozemblum, C. A. García, and O. Gallardo. 2019. AmelíCA: A Community-driven Sustainable Framework for Open Knowledge in Latin America and the Global South. Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México; CLACSO; Universidad Nacional de La Plata; Universidad de Antioquia.

Becher, T., and S. Parry. 2005. “The Endurance of the Disciplines.” In Governing Knowledge, edited by I. Bleiklie and M. Henkel, 133–144. Dordrecht: Springer.

Beck, S., M. Mahdad, K. Beukel, and M. Poetz. 2019. “The Value of Scientific Knowledge Dissemination for Scientists—A Value Capture Perspective.” Publications 7 (3): 54. doi:10.3390/publications7030054.

Beck, S., T.-M. Brasseur, M. Poetz, and H. Sauermann. 2020. “What Is the Problem? Crowdsourcing Research Questions in Science.” SSRN. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3598181

Bercovitz, J., and M. Feldman. 2008. “Academic Entrepreneurs: Organizational Change at the Individual Level.” Organization Science 19 (1): 69–89. doi:10.1287/orsc.1070.0295.

Bergen, D. 2009. “Play as the Learning Medium for Future Scientists, Mathematicians, and Engineers.” American Journal of Play 1 (4): 413–428.

Berman, E. P. 2011. Creating the Market University: How Academic Science Became an Economic Engine. New York, USA: Princeton University Press.

Bigliardi, B., F. Galati, and C. Verbano. 2013. “Evaluating Performance of University Spin-off Companies: Lessons from Italy.” Journal of Technology Management & Innovation 8 (2): 178–188. doi:10.4067/S0718-27242013000200015.

Blasco, A., M. G. Endres, R. A. Sergeev, A. Jonche, N. J. Maximilian Macaluso, R. Narayan, T. Natoli, J. H. Paik, B. Briney, and W. Chunlei. 2019. “Advancing Computational Biology and Bioinformatics Research through Open Innovation Competitions.” PloS One 14 (9): e0222165. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0222165.
Boehm, D. N., and T. Hogan. 2014. “A Jack of All Trades’: The Role of PIs in the Establishment and Management of Collaborative Networks in Scientific Knowledge Commercialisation.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 39 (1): 134–149. doi:10.1007/s10961-012-9273-8.

Bogers, M., A.-K. Zobel, A. Afuah, E. Almirall, S. Brunswicker, L. Dahlander, L. Frederiksen, A. Gawer, M. Gruber, and S. Haeligler. 2017. “The Open Innovation Research Landscape: Established Perspectives and Emerging Themes across Different Levels of Analysis.” *Industry and Innovation* 24 (1): 8–40. doi:10.1080/13662716.2016.1240068.

Bogers, M., H. Chesbrough, and C. Moedas. 2018. “Open Innovation: Research, Practices, and Policies.” *California Management Review* 60 (2): 5–16. doi:10.1177/0008125617745086.

Bonnery, R., H. Ballard, R. Jordan, E. McCallie, T. Phillips, J. Shirk, and C. C. Wilderman. 2009. *Public Participation in Scientific Research: Defining the Field and Assessing Its Potential for Informal Science Education*. A CAISE Inquiry Group Report. Washington, DC.

Borgman, C. L. 2015. *Big Data, Little Data, No Data: Scholarship in the Networked World*. Cambridge, USA: MIT press.

Bornmann, L. 2013. “What Is Societal Impact of Research and How Can It Be Assessed? A Literature Survey.” *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology* 64 (2): 217–233. doi:10.1002/asi.22803.

Borrás, S., and J. Edler. 2014. *The Governance of Socio-technical Systems: Explaining Change*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Bos, N., A. Zimmerman, J. Olson, J. Yew, J. Yerke, E. Dahl, and G. Olson. 2007. “From Shared Databases to Communities of Practice: A Taxonomy of Collaboratories.” *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication* 12 (2): 652–672. doi:10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00343.x.

Bowker, G. C., J. Elyachar, M. Kornberger, A. Mennicken, P. Miller, J. R. Nucho, and N. Pollock. 2019. “Introduction to Thinking Infrastructures.” In *Thinking Infrastructures*, edited by M. Kornberger, G. C. Bowker, J. Elyachar, A. Mennicken, P. Miller, J. R. Nucho, and N. Pollock, 1–13, Wagon Lane, Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Bozeman, B. 2000. “Technology Transfer and Public Policy: A Review of Research and Theory.” *Research Policy* 29 (4–5): 627–655. doi:10.1016/S0048-7333(99)00093-1.

Bozeman, B., and J. Youtie. 2017. *The Strength in Numbers: The New Science of Team Science*. New York, USA: Princeton University Press.

Bremsb, B., K. Button, and M. Munafò. 2013. “Deep Impact: Unintended Consequences of Journal Rank.” *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 7 (291): 1–12. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2013.00291.

Bresnahan, T. F., and M. Trajtenberg. 1995. “General Purpose Technologies’ Engines of Growth?” *Journal of Econometrics* 65 (1): 83–108. doi:10.1016/0304-4076(94)01598-T.

Breunig, K. J., T. H. Aas, and K. M. Hydle. 2014. “Incentives and Performance Measures for Open Innovation Practices.” *Measuring Business Excellence* 18 (1): 45–54. doi:10.1018/SMBE.10.2013.0049.

Bromham, L., R. Dinnage, and X. Hua. 2016. “Interdisciplinary Research Has Consistently Lower Funding Success.” *Nature* 534 (7609): 684–687. doi:10.1038/nature18315.

Brown, R. R., A. Deletic, and T. H. F. Wong. 2015. “Interdisciplinarity: How to Catalyse Collaboration.” *Nature* 525 (7569): 315. doi:10.1038/525315a.

Bultitude, K., D. McDonald, and S. Custead. 2011. “The Rise and Rise of Science Festivals: An International Review of Organised Events to Celebrate Science.” *International Journal of Science Education, Part B* 1 (2): 165–188. doi:10.1080/21548455.2011.588851.

Burns, T. W., D. J. O’Connor, and S. M. Stockmayer. 2003. “Science Communication: A Contemporary Definition.” *Public Understanding of Science* 12 (2): 183–202. doi:10.1177/09636625030120004.

Bush, V. 1945. *Science, the Endless Frontier: a Report to the President on a Program for Postwar Scientific Research*. Washington, DC: Office of Scientific Research and Development.

Callon, M., P. Lascoumes, and Y. Barthe. 2009. *Acting in an Uncertain World*. Cambridge, USA: MIT press.

Carayannis, E. G., E. M. Rogers, K. Kurihara, and M. M. Allbritton. 1998. “High-technology Spin-offs from Government R&D Laboratories and Research Universities.” *Technovation* 18 (1): 1–11. doi:10.1016/S0166-4972(97)00101-6.
Chaguturu, R. 2014. *Collaborative Innovation in Drug Discovery: Strategies for Public and Private Partnerships.* Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Chan, L., A. Okune, R. Hillyer, A. Posada, and D. Albornoz. 2019. *Contextualizing Openness: Situating Open Science.* Ottawa, Canada: University of Ottawa Press.

Chassanoff, A., and M. Altman. 2020. “Curation as “Interoperability with the Future”: Preserving Scholarly Research Software in Academic Libraries.” *Journal of the Association for Information Science and Technology* 71 (3): 325–337. doi:10.1002/asi.24244.

Chesbrough, H., and M. Bogers. 2014. “Explicating Open Innovation: Clarifying an Emerging Paradigm for Understanding Innovation.” In *New Frontiers in Open Innovation*, edited by H. Chesbrough, W. Vanhaverbeke, and J. West, 3–28. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chesbrough, H. 2020. *Open Innovation Results: Going beyond the Hype and Getting down to Business.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chesbrough, H. W. 2003. *Open Innovation: The New Imperative for Creating and Profiting from Technology.* Boston, USA: Harvard Business Press.

Clark, B. R. 1987. *The Academic Life: Small Worlds, Different Worlds.* A Carnegie Foundation Special Report. New York, USA: Prinincton University Press.

Clarysse, B., V. Tartari, and A. Salter. 2011. “The Impact of Entrepreneurial Capacity, Experience and Organizational Support on Academic Entrepreneurship.” *Research Policy* 40 (8): 1084–1093. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2011.05.010.

Cocos, M., and B. Lepori. 2020. “What We Know about Research Policy Mix.” *Science and Public Policy* 47 (2): 235–245. doi:10.1093/scipol/scz061.

Cohen, W. M., and D. A. Levinthal. 1990. “Absorptive Capacity: A New Perspective on Learning and Innovation.” *Administrative Science Quarterly* 35 (1): 128–152. doi:10.2307/2393553.

Cohen, W. M., H. Sauermann, and P. Stephan. 2020. “Not in the Job Description: The Commercial Activities of Academic Scientists and Engineers.” *Management Science* in press. doi:10.1287/mnsc.2019.3535.

Cohen, W. M., R. R. Nelson, and J. P. Walsh. 2002. “Links and Impacts: The Influence of Public Research on Industrial R&D.” *Management Science* 48 (1): 1–23. doi:10.1287/mnsc.48.1.1.14273.

Conceiçao, C. P., P. Ávila, A. R. Coelho, and A. F. Costa. 2020. “European Action Plans for Science–Society Relations: Changing Buzzwords, Changing the Agenda.” *Minerva* 58 (1): 1–24. doi:10.1007/s11024-019-09380-7.

Cooper, S., F. Khatib, A. Treuille, J. Barbero, J. Lee, M. Beenen, A. Leaver-Fay, D. Baker, and Z. Popović. 2010. “Predicting Protein Structures with a Multiplayer Online Game.” *Nature* 466 (7307): 756–760. doi:10.1038/nature09304.

Curral, L. A., R. H. Forrester, J. F. Dawson, and M. A. West. 2001. “It’s What You Do and the Way That You Do It: Team Task, Team Size, and Innovation-related Group Processes.” *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 10 (2): 187–204. doi:10.1080/13594320143000627.

Czarnitzki, D., C. Grimpe, and M. Pellens. 2015. “Access to Research Inputs: Open Science versus the Entrepreneurial University.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 40 (6): 1050–1063. doi:10.1007/s10961-015-9392-0.

D’Este, P., and M. Perkmann. 2011. “Why Do Academics Engage with Industry? the Entrepreneurial University and Individual Motivations.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 36 (3): 316–339. doi:10.1007/s10961-010-9153-z.

D’Este, P., and P. Patel. 2007. “University–industry Linkages in the UK: What are the Factors Underlying the Variety of Interactions with Industry?” *Research Policy* 36 (9): 1295–1313. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2007.05.002.

D’Ippolito, B., and C.-C. Rüling. 2019. “Research Collaboration in Large Scale Research Infrastructures: Collaboration Types and Policy Implications.” *Research Policy* 48 (5): 1282–1296. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2019.01.011.

Dahlander, L., and D. M. Gann. 2010. “How Open Is Innovation?” *Research Policy* 39 (6): 699–709. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2010.01.013.
Dasgupta, P., and P. A. David. 1994. “Toward a New Economics of Science.” Research Policy 23 (5): 487–521. doi:10.1016/0048-7333(94)01002-1.

Davies, S. R. 2008. “Constructing Communication: Talking to Scientists about Talking to the Public.” Science Communication 29 (4): 413–434. doi:10.1177/1075540808316222.

Davies, S. R., and M. Horst. 2015. “Crafting the Group: Care in Research Management.” Social Studies of Science 45 (3): 371–393. doi:10.1177/0306312715585820.

Davis, L., M. T. Larsen, and P. Lotz. 2011. “Scientists’ Perspectives Concerning the Effects of University Patenting on the Conduct of Academic Research in the Life Sciences.” Journal of Technology Transfer 36 (1): 14–37. doi:10.1007/s10961-009-9142-2.

Dawson, E. 2018. “Reimagining Publics and (Non) Participation: Exploring Exclusion from Science Communication through the Experiences of Low-income, Minority Ethnic Groups.” Public Understanding of Science 27 (7): 772–786. doi:10.1177/0963662517750072.

de Rijcke, S., P. F. Wouters, A. D. Rushforth, T. P. Franssen, and B. Hammarfelt. 2016. “Evaluation Practices and Effects of Indicator Use—a Literature Review.” Research Evaluation 25 (2): 161–169. doi:10.1093/reseval/rv038.

de Wit-de Vries, E., W. A. Dolfsma, H. J. van der Windt, and M. P. Gerkema. 2019. “Knowledge Transfer in University–industry Research Partnerships: A Review.” Journal of Technology Transfer 44 (4): 1236–1255. doi:10.1007/s10961-018-9660-x.

Delvenne, P., and H. Macq. 2019. “Breaking Bad with the Participatory Turn? Accelerating Time and Intensifying Value in Participatory Experiments.” Science as Culture 29 (2): 245–268. doi:10.1080/09505431.2019.1668369.

Derrick, G. E., R. Faria, P. Benneworth, D. Budtz-Petersen, and G. Sivertsen. 2018. “Towards Characterising Negative Impact: Introducing Grimpact.” Paper presented at the 23rd International Conference on Science and Technology Indicators (STI 2018), Leiden, Netherlands.

Dietz, J. S., and B. Bozeman. 2005. “Academic Careers, Patents, and Productivity: Industry Experience as Scientific and Technical Human Capital.” Research Policy 34 (3): 349–367. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2005.01.008.

Ding, W., and E. Choi. 2011. “Divergent Paths to Commercial Science: A Comparison of Scientists’ Founding and Advising Activities.” Research Policy 40 (1): 69–80. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2010.09.011.

Ding, W. W. 2011. “The Impact of Founders’ Professional-education Background on the Adoption of Open Science by For-profit Biotechnology Firms.” Management Science 57 (2): 257–273. doi:10.1287/mnsc.1100.1278.

Ding, W. W., F. Murray, and T. E. Stuart. 2006. “Gender Differences in Patenting in the Academic Life Sciences.” Science 313 (5787): 665–667. doi:10.1126/science.1124832.

Dobusch, L., and M. Heimstädt. 2019. “Predatory Publishing in Management Research: A Call for Open Peer Review.” Management Learning 50 (5): 607–619. doi:10.1177/1350507619878820.

Dorland, J., C. Clausen, and M. S. Jørgensen. 2019. “Space Configurations for Empowering University-community Interactions.” Science and Public Policy 46 (5): 689–701. doi:10.1093/scipol/scz022.

Druiilhe, C., and E. Garnsey. 2003. “Do Academic Spin-off Companies Differ and Does It Matter?” Paper presented at the Proceedings of the International Entrepreneurship and New Venture Creation Conference, Durham, UK.

Dubinsky, E. 2014. “A Current Snapshot of Institutional Repositories: Growth Rate, Disciplinary Content and Faculty Contributions.” Journal of Librarianship & Scholarly Communication 2 (3): eP1167. doi:10.7710/2162-3309.1167.

Durant, J. R., G. A. Evans, and G. P. Thomas. 1989. “The Public Understanding of Science.” Nature 340 (6228): 11–14. doi:10.1038/340011a0.

Egelie, K. J., H. T. Lie, C. Grimpe, and S. Roger. 2019. “Access and Openness in Biotechnology Research Collaborations between Universities and Industry.” Nature Biotechnology 37 (12): 1413–1419. doi:10.1038/s41587-019-0324-7.
Eitzel, M., J. Cappadonna, C. Santos-Lang, R. Duerr, S. E. West, A. Virapongse, C. Kyba, A. Bowser, C. Cooper, and A. Sforzi. 2017. “Citizen Science Terminology Matters: Exploring Key Terms.” *Citizen Science: Theory and Practice* 2 (1): 1–20.

Ejeremo, O., and H. Toivainen. 2018. “University Invention and the Abolishment of the Professor’s Privilege in Finland.” *Research Policy* 47 (4): 814–825. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2018.03.001.

Elman, C., D. Kapieszewski, and A. Lupia. 2018. “Transparent Social Inquiry: Implications for Political Science.” *Annual Review of Political Science* 21 (1): 29–47. doi:10.1146/annurev-polisci-091515-025429.

English, P. B., M. J. Richardson, and C. Garzón-Galvis. 2018. “From Crowdsourcing to Extreme Citizen Science: Participatory Research for Environmental Health.” *Annual Review of Public Health* 39 (1): 335–350. doi:10.1146/annurev-publhealth-040617-013702.

Ensley, M. D., and K. M. Hmieleski. 2005. “A Comparative Study of New Venture Top Management Team Composition, Dynamics and Performance between University-based and Independent Start-ups.” *Research Policy* 34 (7): 1091–1105. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2005.05.008.

Etzkowitz, H., and L. Leydesdorff. 2000. “The Dynamics of Innovation: From National Systems and “Mode 2” to a Tri Helix of University–industry–government Relations.” *Research Policy* 29 (2): 109–123. doi:10.1016/s0048-7333(99)00055-4.

European Commission. 2013. *Options for Strengthening Responsible Research and Innovation*. Luxemburg: Publications Office of the European Union.

European Commission. “Trends for Open Access to Publications.” *European Commission*. Accessed 20 June 2020. https://ec.europa.eu/info/research-and-innovation/strategy/goals-research-and-innovation-policy/open-science/open-science-monitor/trends-open-accesspublications_en

Evans, J. A., and J. Reimer. 2009. “Open Access and Global Participation in Science.” *Science* 323 (5917): 1025. doi:10.1126/science.1154562.

Faraj, S., S. L. Jarvenpaa, and A. Majchrzak. 2011. “Knowledge Collaboration in Online Communities.” *Organization Science* 22 (5): 1224–1239. doi:10.1287/orsci.1100.0614.

Fayard, A.-L., E. Gkeredakis, and N. Levina. 2016. “Framing Innovation Opportunities while Staying Committed to an Organizational Epistemic Stance.” *Information Systems Research* 27 (2): 302–323. doi:10.1287/isre.2016.0623.

Fecher, B., S. Friesike, M. Hebing, and S. Linek. 2017. “A Reputation Economy: How Individual Reward Considerations Trump Systemic Arguments for Open Access to Data.” *Palgrave Communications* 3 (1): 1–10. doi:10.1057/palcomms.2017.51.

Felin, T., and T. R. Zenger. 2014. “Closed or Open Innovation? Problem Solving and the Governance Choice.” *Research Policy* 43 (5): 914–925. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2013.09.006.

Fell, M. J. 2019. “The Economic Impacts of Open Science: A Rapid Evidence Assessment.” *Publications* 7 (3): 46–76. doi:10.3390/publications7030046.

Feller, I., and M. Feldman. 2010. “The Commercialization of Academic Patents: Black Boxes, Pipelines, and Rubik’s Cubes.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 35 (6): 597–616. doi:10.1007/s10961-009-9123-5.

Finholt, T. A. 2002. “Collaboratories.” *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology* 36 (1): 73–107. doi:10.1002/aris.1440360103.

Fini, R., R. Grimaldi, and M. Sobrero. 2009. “Factors Fostering Academics to Start up New Ventures: An Assessment of Italian Founders’ Incentives.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 34 (4): 380–402. doi:10.1007/s10961-008-9093-z.

Fischer, F., I. Kollar, S. Ufer, B. Sodian, H. Hussmann, R. Pekrun, B. Neuhaus, B. Dorner, S. Pankofer, and M. Fischer. 2014. “Scientific Reasoning and Argumentation: Advancing an Interdisciplinary Research Agenda in Education.” *Frontline Learning Research* 2 (3): 28–45.

Fleming, L., and O. Sorenson. 2004. “Science as a Map in Technological Search.” *Strategic Management Journal* 25 (8–9): 909–928. doi:10.1002/smj.384.

Fortunato, S., C. T. Bergstrom, K. Börner, J. A. Evans, D. Helbing, S. Milojević, A. M. Petersen, F. Radicchi, R. Sinatra, and B. Uzzi. 2018. “Science of Science.” *Science* 359 (6379): eaao0185. doi:10.1126/science.aao0185.

Frankenhuis, W. E., and D. Nettle. 2018. “Open Science Is Liberating and Can Foster Creativity.” *Perspectives on Psychological Science* 13 (4): 439–447. doi:10.1177/1745691618767878.
Franssen, T., W. Scholten, L. K. Hessels, and S. de Rijcke. 2018. “The Drawbacks of Project Funding for Epistemic Innovation: Comparing Institutional Affordances and Constraints of Different Types of Research Funding.” Minerva 56 (1): 11–33. doi:10.1007/s11024-017-9338-9.

Franza, R. M., K. P. Grant, and W. A. Spivey. 2012. “Technology Transfer Contracts between R&D Labs and Commercial Partners: Choose Your Words Wisely.” Journal of Technology Transfer 37 (4): 577–587. doi:10.1007/s10961-010-9191-6.

Franzoni, C., and H. Sauermann. 2014. “Crowd Science: The Organization of Scientific Research in Open Collaborative Projects.” Research Policy 43 (1): 1–20. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2013.07.005.

Fritsch, M., and S. Krabel. 2012. “Ready to Leave the Ivory Tower?: Academic Scientists’ Appeal to Work in the Private Sector.” Journal of Technology Transfer 37 (3): 271–296. doi:10.1007/s10961-010-9174-7.

Füller, J., K. Hutter, J. Hautz, and K. Matzler. 2017. “The Role of Professionalism in Innovation Contest Communities.” Long Range Planning 50 (2): 243–259. doi:10.1016/j.lrp.2015.12.017.

Furman, J. L., and S. Stern. 2011. “Climbing Atop the Shoulders of Giants: The Impact of Institutions on Cumulative Research.” American Economic Review 101 (5): 1933–1963. doi:10.1257/aer.101.5.1933.

Ganna, A., K. J. H. Verweij, M. G. Nivard, R. Maier, R. Wedow, A. S. Busch, A. Abdellouei, S. Guo, J. F. Sathirapongsasuti, and P. Lichtenstein. 2019. “Large-scale GWAS Reveals Insights into the Genetic Architecture of Same-sex Sexual Behavior.” Science 365 (6456): eaat7693. doi:10.1126/science.aat7693.

Geuna, A., and A. Muscio. 2009. “The Governance of University Knowledge Transfer: A Critical Review of the Literature.” Minerva 47 (1): 93–114. doi:10.1007/s11024-009-9118-2.

Gibbons, M., C. Limoges, H. Nowotny, S. Schwartzmann, P. Scott, and M. Trow. 1994. The New Production of Knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies. London: Sage.

Gläser, J., and G. Laudel. 2016. “Governing Science: How Science Policy Shapes Research Content.” European Journal of sociology/Archives Européennes De Sociologie 57 (1): 117–168. doi:10.1705/S0003975616000047.

Godin, B., and D. Vinck. 2017. Critical Studies of Innovation: Alternative Approaches to the Pro-innovation Bias. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Godin, B., and Y. Gingras. 2000. “What Is Scientific and Technological Culture and How Is It Measured? A Multidimensional Model.” Public Understanding of Science 9 (1): 43–58. doi:10.1088/0963-6625/9/1/303.

Goldstein, H., E. M. Bergman, and G. Maier. 2013. “University Mission Creep? Comparing EU and US Faculty Views of University Involvement in Regional Economic Development and Commercialization.” Annals of Regional Science 50 (2): 453–477. doi:10.1007/s00168-012-0513-5.

Grimaldi, R., M. Kenney, D. S. Siegel, and M. Wright. 2011. “30 Years after Bayh-Dole: Reassessing Academic Entrepreneurship.” Research Policy 40 (8): 104557. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2011.04.005.

Grimpe, C., and H. Fier. 2010. “Informal University Technology Transfer: A Comparison between the United States and Germany.” Research Policy Transfer 35 (6): 637–650. doi:10.1007/s10961-009-9140-4.

Grimpe, C., and U. Kaiser. 2010. “Balancing Internal and External Knowledge Acquisition: The Gains and Pains from R&D Outsourcing.” Journal of Management Studies 47 (8): 1483–1509. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2010.00946.x.

Grossman, R. L., A. Heath, M. Murphy, M. Patterson, and W. Wells. 2016. “A Case for Data Commons: Toward Data Science as A Service.” Computing in Science & Engineering 18 (5): 10–20. doi:10.1109/MCSE.2016.92.

Gruber, M., D. Harhoff, and K. Hoisl. 2013. “Knowledge Recombination across Technological Boundaries: Scientists Vs. Engineers.” Management Science 59 (4): 83751. doi:10.1287/mnsc.1120.1572.
Gruber, M. I. C. MacMillan, and J. D. Thompson. 2008. “Look before You Leap: Market Opportunity Identification in Emerging Technology Firms.” *Management Science* 54 (9): 1652–1665. doi:10.1287/mnsc.1080.0877.

Gruber, M., I. C. MacMillan, and J. D. Thompson. 2013. “Escaping the Prior Knowledge Corridor: What Shapes the Number and Variety of Market Opportunities Identified before Market Entry of Technology Start-ups?” *Organization Science* 24 (1): 280–300. doi:10.1287/orsc.1110.0721.

Guerrero, M., D. Urbano, and A. Fayolle. 2016. “Entrepreneurial Activity and Regional Competitiveness: Evidence from European Entrepreneurial Universities.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 41 (1): 105–131. doi:10.1007/s10961-014-9377-4.

Guinan, E., K. J. Boudreau, and K. R. Lakhani. 2013. “Experiments in Open Innovation at Harvard Medical School: What Happens When an Elite Academic Institution Starts to Rethink How Research Gets Done?” *MIT Sloan Management Review* 54 (3): 45.

Hackett, E. J. 2005. “Essential Tensions: Identity, Control, and Risk in Research.” *Social Studies of Science* 35 (5): 787–826. doi:10.1177/0306312705056045.

Haeussler, C., and H. Sauermann. 2020. “Division of Labor in Collaborative Knowledge Production: The Role of Team Size and Interdisciplinarity.” *Research Policy* 49 (6): 103987. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2020.103987.

Haeussler, C., and J. A. Colyvas. 2011. “Breaking the Ivory Tower: Academic Entrepreneurship in the Life Sciences in UK and Germany.” *Research Policy* 40 (1): 4154. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2010.09.012.

Haeussler, C., L. Jiang, J. Thursby, and M. Thursby. 2014. “Specific and General Information Sharing among Competing Academic Researchers.” *Research Policy* 43 (3): 465–475. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2013.08.017.

Hallonsten, O. 2016. “Use and Productivity of Contemporary, Multidisciplinary Big Science.” *Research Evaluation* 25 (4): 486–495.

Hartley, S., S. Raman, A. Smith, and B. Nerlich. 2018. *Science and the Politics of Openness: Here Be Monsters*. Manchester, UK: Manchester University Press.

Hazelkorn, E. 2015. *Rankings and the Reshaping of Higher Education: The Battle for World-class Excellence*. 2nd ed. Hampshire, UK: Palgrave MacMillan.

Heck, R., O. Vuculescu, J. J. Sørensen, J. Zoller, M. G. Andreasen, M. G. Bason, P. Ejlertsen, O. Eliasson, P. Haikka, and J. S. Laustsen. 2018. “Remote Optimization of an Ultracold Atoms Experiment by Experts and Citizen Scientists.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 115 (48): E11231–E7. doi:10.1073/pnas.1716869115.

Heigl, F., B. Kieslinger, K. T. Paul, J. Uhlik, and D. Daniel. 2019. “Opinion: Toward an International Definition of Citizen Science.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 116 (17): 8089–8092. doi:10.1073/pnas.1903393116.

Heinström, J. 2003. “Five Personality Dimensions and Their Influence on Information Behaviour.” *Information Research* 9 (1): 1–24.

Henkel, M. 2005. “Academic Identity and Autonomy in a Changing Policy Environment.” *Higher Education* 49 (1–2): 155–176. doi:10.1007/s10734-004-2919-1.

Heradio, R., L. De La Torre, D. Galan, F. J. Cabrerizo, E. Herrera-Viedma, and S. Dormido. 2016. “Virtual and Remote Labs in Education: A Bibliometric Analysis.” *Computers & Education* 98 (6): 14–38. doi:10.1016/j.compedu.2016.03.010.

Himmelstein, D. S., A. R. Romero, J. G. Levernier, T. A. Munro, S. R. McLaughlin, B. G. Tzovaras, and C. S. Greene. 2018. “Sci-Hub Provides Access to Nearly All Scholarly Literature.” *eLife* 7: e32822. doi:10.7554/eLife.32822.

Hoegl, M., K. Weinkauf, and H. G. Gemuenden. 2004. “Inter team Coordination, Project Commitment, and Teamwork in Multiteam R&D Projects: A Longitudinal Study.” *Organization Science* 15 (1): 38–55. doi:10.1287/orsc.1030.0053.

Hollbrook, J. B. 2005. “Assessing the Science–society Relation: The Case of the US National Science Foundation’s Second Merit Review Criterion.” *Technology in Society* 27 (4): 437–451. doi:10.1016/j.techsoc.2005.08.001.
Horwitz, S. K., and I. B. Horwitz. 2007. “The Effects of Team Diversity on Team Outcomes: A Meta-analytic Review of Team Demography.” *Journal of Management* 33 (6): 987–1015. doi:10.1177/0149206307308587.

Hossain, M. A., Y. K. Dwivedi, and N. P. Rana. 2016. “State-of-the-art in Open Data Research: Insights from Existing Literature and a Research Agenda.” *Journal of Organizational Computing and Electronic Commerce* 26 (1–2): 14–40. doi:10.1080/10919392.2015.1124007.

Huisman, J., and M. Seeber. 2019. “Higher Education Developments and the Effects on Science.” In *Handbook on Science and Public Policy*, edited by D. Simon, S. Kuhlmann, J. Stamm, and W. Canzler. Gent, pp. 227-242, Belgium: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Husemann, M., R. Rogers, S. Meyer, and J. C. Habel. 2017. “‘Publicationism’ and Scientists’ Satisfaction Depend on Gender, Career Stage and the Wider Academic System.” *Palgrave Communications* 3 (1): 1–10.

Huutoniemi, K., J. T. Klein, H. Bruun, and J. Hukkanen. 2010. “Analyzing Interdisciplinarity: Typology and Indicators.” *Research Policy* 39 (1): 7988. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2009.09.011.

Huysge, A., and M. Knockaert. 2015. “The Influence of Organizational Culture and Climate on Entrepreneurial Intentions among Research Scientists.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 40 (1): 138–160. doi:10.1007/s10961-014-9333-3.

Jacob, M., M. Lundqvist, and H. Hellmark. 2003. “Entrepreneurial Transformations in the Swedish University System: The Case of Chalmers University of Technology.” *Research Policy* 32 (9): 1555–1568. doi:10.1016/S0048-7333(03)00024-6.

Jensen, J., H. Mohr, M. Gajdacz, S. Z. Ahmed, J. H. Czarkowski, C. Weidner, J. Rafner, J. J. Sorensen, K. Melmer, and J. F. Sherson. 2020. “Crowdsourcing Human Common Sense for Quantum Control.” arXiv Preprint arXiv:2004.03296. https://arxiv.org/pdf/2004.03296.pdf

Jeppesen, L. B., and L. Frederiksen. 2006. “Why Do Users Contribute to Firm-hosted User Communities? the Case of Computer-controlled Music Instruments.” *Organization Science* 17 (1): 45–63. doi:10.1287/orsc.1050.0156.

Jones, B. F., S. Wuchty, and B. Uzzi. 2008. “Multi-university Research Teams: Shifting Impact, Geography, and Stratification in Science.” *Science* 322 (5905): 125962. doi:10.1126/science.1158357.

Kaplan, S., J. Milde, and R. S. Cowan. 2017. “Symbiotic Practices in Boundary Spanning: Bridging the Cognitive and Political Divides in Interdisciplinary Research.” *Academy of Management Journal* 60 (4): 1387–1414. doi:10.5465/amj.2015.0809.

Kauffman, S., and S. Levin. 1987. “Towards a General Theory of Adaptive Walks on Rugged Landscapes.” *Journal of Theoretical Biology* 128 (1): 11–45. doi:10.1016/S0022-5193(87)80029-2.

Kenney, M., and W. R. Goe. 2004. “The Role of Social Embeddedness in Professorial Entrepreneurship: A Comparison of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science at UC Berkeley and Stanford.” *Research Policy* 33 (5): 691–707. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2003.11.001.

Kidwell, M. C., L. B. Lazarević, E. Baranski, T. E. Hardwicke, S. Piechowski, L.-S. Falkenberg, C. Kennett, A. Slowik, C. Sonnleitner, and C. Hess-Holden. 2016. “Badges to Acknowledge Open Practices: A Simple, Low-cost, Effective Method for Increasing Transparency.” *PLoS Biology* 14 (5): e1002456. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1002456.

Kim, Y., and M. Adler. 2015. “Social Scientists’ Data Sharing Behaviors: Investigating the Roles of Individual Motivations, Institutional Pressures, and Data Repositories.” *International Journal of Information Management* 35 (4): 408–418. doi:10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2015.04.007.

Kittur, A., L. Yu, T. Hope, J. Chan, H. Lifshitz-Assaf, K. Gilon, F. Ng, R. E. Kraut, and D. Shahaf. 2019. “Scaling up Analogical Innovation with Crowds and AI.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 116 (6): 1870–1877. doi:10.1073/pnas.1807185116.

Knöchelmann, M. 2019. “Open Science in the Humanities, Or: Open Humanities?” *Publications* 7 (4): 65–82. doi:10.3390/publications7040065.

Kraut, R., C. Egido, and J. Galegher. 1988. “Patterns of Contact and Communication in Scientific Research Collaboration.” Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 1988 ACM conference on Computer-supported cooperative work, Portland Oregon USA.
Kropp, C., and J. Wagner. 2010. “Knowledge on Stage: Scientific Policy Advice.” Science, Technology & Human Values 35 (6): 812–838. doi:10.1177/0162243909357912.

Kuhllmann, S., and A. Rip. 2018. “Next-generation Innovation Policy and Grand Challenges.” Science and Public Policy 45 (4): 448–454. doi:10.1093/scipol/scy011.

Kukutai, T., and J. Taylor. 2016. Indigenous Data Sovereignty: Toward an Agenda. Vol. 38. Australia: Anu Press.

Lakhani, K. R., H. Lifshitz-Assaf, and M. L. Tushman. 2013. “Open Innovation and Organizational Boundaries: Task Decomposition, Knowledge Distribution and the Locus of Innovation.” In Handbook of Economic Organization, edited by A. Grandori, pp. 355-382. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Lakhani, K. R., L. B. Jeppesen, P. A. Lohse, and J. A. Panetta. 2007. The Value of Openness in Scientific Problem Solving. Division of Research, Boston, USA: Harvard Business School.

Lakhani, K. R., and R. G. Wolf. 2003. “Why Hackers Do What They Do: Understanding Motivation and Effort in Free/open Source Software Projects.” SSRN. https://ssrn.com/abstract=443040

Lam, A. 2010. “From ‘Ivy Tower Traditionalists’ to ‘Entrepreneurial scientists’? Academic Scientists in Fuzzy University—industry Boundaries.” Social Studies of Science 40 (2): 307–340. doi:10.1177/0306312709349963.

Lam, A. 2011. “What Motivates Academic Scientists to Engage in Research Commercialization: ‘Gold’, ‘Ribbon’ or ‘Puzzle’?” Research Policy 40 (10): 1354–1368. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2011.09.002.

Lam, A. 2015. “Academic Scientists and Knowledge Commercialization: Self-determination and Diverse Motivations.” In Isabell M. Welpe, Jutta Wollersheim, Stefanie Ringelhan, Margit Osterloh (Eds.), Incentives and Performance, 173–187. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Larivière, V., S. Haustein, and K. Börner. 2015. “Long-distance Interdisciplinarity Leads to Higher Scientific Impact.” PloS One 10 (3): e0122565. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0122565.

Larivière, V., S. Haustein, and P. Mongeon. 2015. “The Oligopoly of Academic Publishers in the Digital Era.” PloS One 10 (6): e0127502. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0127502.

Laursen, K., and A. Salter. 2006. “Open for Innovation: The Role of Openness in Explaining Innovation Performance among UK Manufacturing Firms.” Strategic Management Journal 27 (2): 131–150. doi:10.1002/smj.507.

Lawson, C. 2013. “Academic Patenting: The Importance of Industry Support.” Journal of Technology Transfer 38 (4): 509–535. doi:10.1007/s10961-012-9266-7.

Lazear, E. P. 2004. “Balanced Skills and Entrepreneurship.” American Economic Review 94 (2): 208–211. doi:10.1257/0002888041301425.

Leahy, E., C. M. Beckman, and T. L. Stanko. 2017. “Prominent but Less Productive: The Impact of Interdisciplinarity on Scientists’ Research.” Administrative Science Quarterly 62 (1): 105–139. doi:10.1177/0001839216665364.

Ledford, H. 2015. “How to Solve the World’s Biggest Problems.” Nature 525 (7569): 308–311. doi:10.1038/525308a.

Lee, H.-F., and M. Miozzo. 2015. “How Does Working on University–industry Collaborative Projects Affect Science and Engineering Doctorates’ Careers? Evidence from a UK Research-based University.” Journal of Technology Transfer 40 (2): 293317.

Lee, Y. S. 2000. “The Sustainability of University–industry Research Collaboration: An Empirical Assessment.” Journal of Technology Transfer 25 (2): 111–133. doi:10.1023/A:1007895322042.

Leisyte, L., and J. R. Dee. 2012. “Understanding Academic Work in a Changing Institutional Environment.” In Higher Education: Handbook of Theory and Research, edited by J. Smart and M. Paulsen, 123–206. Dordrecht: Springer.

Lengwiler, M. 2008. “Participatory Approaches in Science and Technology: Historical Origins and Current Practices in Critical Perspective.” Science, Technology & Human Values 33 (2): 186–200. doi:10.1177/0162243907311262.
Lenoir, T., and C. Lecuyer. 1997. “Instrument Makers and Discipline Builders: The Case of NMR.” In *Instituting Science: The Cultural Production of Scientific Disciplines*, edited by T. Lenoir, 239–294. Stanford, USA: Standford University Press.

Levin, N., and S. Leonelli. 2017. “How Does One “Open” Science? Questions of Value in Biological Research.” *Science, Technology, & Human Values* 42 (2): 280–305. doi:10.1177/0162243916672071.

Levinthal, D. A. 1997. “Adaptation on Rugged Landscapes.” *Management Science* 43 (7): 934–950. doi:10.1287/mnsc.43.7.934.

Lewis, J. M., S. Ross, and T. Holden. 2012. “The How and Why of Academic Collaboration: Disciplinary Differences and Policy Implications.” *Higher Education* 64 (5): 693–708. doi:10.1007/s10734-012-9521-8.

Lifshitz-Assaf, H. 2018. “Dismantling Knowledge Boundaries at NASA: The Critical Role of Professional Identity in Open Innovation.” *Administrative Science Quarterly* 63 (4): 746–782. doi:10.1177/0001839217747876.

Lifshitz-Assaf, H., S. Lebovitz, and L. Zalmanson. 2020. “Minimal and Adaptive Coordination: How Hackathons’ Projects Accelerate Innovation without Killing It.” *Academy of Management Journal* in press. doi:10.5465/amj.2017.0712.

Lilien, G. L., P. D. Morrison, K. Searls, M. Sonnack, and E. von Hippel. 2002. “Performance Assessment of the Lead User Idea-generation Process for New Product Development.” *Management Science* 48 (8): 1042–1059. doi:10.1287/mnsc.48.8.1042.171.

Lindau Guidelines. 2020. “Guideline Goals.” Accessed 19 June 2020. http://www.lindauguidelines.org/goals.html

Linek, S. B., B. Fecher, S. Friesike, and M. Hebing. 2017. “Data Sharing as Social Dilemma: Influence of the Researcher’s Personality.” *PloS One* 12 (8): e0183216. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0183216.

Link, A. N., D. S. Siegel, and B. Bozeman. 2017. “An Empirical Analysis of the Propensity of Academics to Engage in Formal University Technology Transfer.” In *Universities and the Entrepreneurial Ecosystem*, edited by D. B. Audretsch and A. N. Link, 641–655. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Lissoni, F., P. Llerena, M. McKelvey, and B. Sanditov. 2008. “Academic Patenting in Europe: New Evidence from the KEINS Database.” *Research Evaluation* 17 (2): 87–102. doi:10.3152/095820208X287171.

Llopis, O., and P. D’Este. 2016. “Beneficiary Contact and Innovation: The Relation between Contact with Patients and Medical Innovation under Different Institutional Logics.” *Research Policy* 45 (8): 1512–1523. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2016.03.004.

Lynch, C. A. 2003. “Institutional Repositories: Essential Infrastructure for Scholarship in the Digital Age.” *Portal: Libraries and the Academy* 3 (2): 327–336. doi:10.1353/pla.2003.0039.

Majchrzak, A., and A. Malhotra. 2020. *Unleashing the Crowd: Collaborative Solutions to Wicked Business and Societal Problems*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer Nature.

Mak, R. H., M. G. Endres, J. H. Paik, R. A. Sergeev, H. Aerts, C. L. Williams, K. R. Lakhani, and E. C. Guinan. 2019. “Use of Crowd Innovation to Develop an Artificial Intelligence–based Solution for Radiation Therapy Targeting.” *JAMA Oncology* 5 (5): 654–661. doi:10.1001/jamaoncol.2019.0159.

Manafò, E., L. Petermann, V. Vandall-Walker, and P. Mason-Lai. 2018. “Patient and Public Engagement in Priority Setting: A Systematic Rapid Review of the Literature.” *PloS One* 13 (3): e0193579. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0193579.

Maniadis, Z., and F. Tufano. 2017. “The Research Reproducibility Crisis and Economics of Science.” *The Economic Journal* 127 (605): F200–F8. doi:10.1111/ecoj.12526.

Maxwell, J. W., E. Hanson, L. Desai, C. Tiampo, K. O’Donnell, A. Ketheeswaran, M. Sun, E. Walter, and E. Michelle. 2019. Mind the Gap: A Landscape Analysis of Open Source Publishing Tools and Platforms. Cambridge: MIT Press. https://doi.org/10.21428/6bc8b38c.2e2f6c3f.

Mazzucato, M. 2018. “Mission-oriented Innovation Policies: Challenges and Opportunities.” *Industrial and Corporate Change* 27 (5): 803–815. doi:10.1093/icc/dty034.
Merton, R. K. 1968. “The Matthew Effect in Science.” Science 159 (3810): 56–63. doi:10.1126/science.159.3810.56.

Miller, J. D. 1998. “The Measurement of Civic Scientific Literacy.” Public Understanding of Science 7 (3): 203–224. doi:10.1088/0963-6625/7/3/001.

Miller, R. C. 1982. “Varieties of Interdisciplinary Approaches in the Social Sciences: A 1981 Overview.” Issues in Interdisciplinary Studies 1 (1): 1–37.

Mingers, J., and L. Leydesdorff. 2015. “A Review of Theory and Practice in Scientometrics.” European Journal of Operational Research 246 (1): 1–19. doi:10.1016/j.ejor.2015.04.002.

Mintzberg, H. 1993. Structure in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations. USA: Prentice-Hall.

Mirowski, P. 2018. “The Future (S) of Open Science.” Social Studies of Science 48 (2): 171–203. doi:10.1177/0306312718772086.

Mishra, A., P. N. Schofield, and T. M. Bubela. 2016. “Sustaining Large-scale Infrastructure to Promote Pre-competitive Biomedical Research: Lessons from Mouse Genomics.” New Biotechnology 33 (2): 280–294. doi:10.1016/j.nbt.2015.10.002.

Mokyr, J. 2002. The Gifts of Athena: Historical Origins of the Knowledge Economy. USA: Princeton University Press.

Molas-Gallart, J., and P. Tang. 2011. “Tracing ‘Productive Interactions’ to Identify Social Impacts: An Example from the Social Sciences.” Research Evaluation 20 (3): 219–226. doi:10.3152/095820211X12941371876706.

Moog, P., A. Werner, S. Houweling, and U. Backes-Gellner. 2015. “The Impact of Skills, Working Time Allocation and Peer Effects on the Entrepreneurial Intentions of Scientists.” Journal of Technology Transfer 40 (3): 493–511. doi:10.1007/s10961-014-9347-x.

Moore, S. 2018. “Towards a Sociology of Institutional Transparency: Openness, Deception and the Problem of Public Trust.” Sociology 52 (2): 416–430. doi:10.1177/0038038516686530.

Moray, N., and B. Clarysse. 2005. “Institutional Change and Resource Endowments to Science-based Entrepreneurial Firms.” Research Policy 34 (7): 1010–1027. doi:10.1016/j.resp.2005.05.016.

Mosey, S., M. Wright, and B. Clarysse. 2012. “Transforming Traditional University Structures for the Knowledge Economy through Multidisciplinary Institutes.” Cambridge Journal of Economics 36 (3): 587–607. doi:10.1093/cje/bes008.

Mote, J., G. Jordan, J. Hage, W. Hadden, and A. Clark. 2016. “Too Big to Innovate? Exploring Organizational Size and Innovation Processes in Scientific Research.” Science and Public Policy 43 (3): 332–337. doi:10.1093/scipol/scv045.

Moutinho, P., S. Figueiredo, M. Fontes, and M. M. Godinho. 2007. “Do Individual Factors Matter? A Survey of Scientists’ Patenting in Portuguese Public Research Organisations.” Scientometrics 70 (2): 355–377. doi:10.1007/s11192-007-0207-4.

Mowery, D. C., R. R. Nelson, B. N. Sampat, and A. A. Ziedonis. 2001. “The Growth of Patenting and Licensing by US Universities: An Assessment of the Effects of the Bayh–Dole Act of 1980.” Research Policy 30 (1): 99–119. doi:10.1016/S0048-7333(99)00010-6.

Muhonen, R., P. Benneworth, and J. Olmos-Peñauela. 2020. “From Productive Interactions to Impact Pathways: Understanding the Key Dimensions in Developing SSH Research Societal Impact.” Research Evaluation 29 (1): 34–47.

Murillo, L., R. Felipe, K. Pietari, L. P. Priego, J. Wareham, and A. Katz. 2019. Open Hardware Licences: Parallels and Contrasts: Open Science Monitor Case Study. Brussels, Belgium: European Commission.

Mustar, P., M. Wright, and B. Clarysse. 2008. “University Spin-off Firms: Lessons from Ten Years of Experience in Europe.” Science and Public Policy 35 (2): 67–80. doi:10.3152/030234208X282862.

National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, and Institute of Medicine. 2005. Facilitating Interdisciplinary Research. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Nature editorial. 2018. “The Best Research Is Produced When Researchers and Communities Work Together.” Nature 562 (7). doi:10.1038/s41586-018-0369-7.
Newman, G., A. Wiggins, A. Crall, E. Graham, S. Newman, and K. Crowston. 2012. “The Future of Citizen Science: Emerging Technologies and Shifting Paradigms.” *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* 10 (6): 298–304. doi:10.1890/110294.

Nielsen, M. 2011. *Reinventing Discovery: How Online Tools are Transforming Science*. Princeton, NJ and Oxford: Princeton University Press.

Nightingale, P., and A. Scott. 2007. “Peer Review and the Relevance Gap: Ten Suggestions for Policy-makers.” *Science and Public Policy* 34 (8): 543–553. doi:10.3152/030234207X254396.

Nosek, B. A., C. R. Ebersole, A. C. DeHaven, and D. T. Mellor. 2018. “The Preregistration Revolution.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 115 (11): 2600–2606. doi:10.1073/pnas.1708274114.

Nosek, B. A., G. Alter, G. C. Banks, D. Borsboom, S. D. Bowman, S. Brecker, S. Buck, C. D. Chambers, G. Chin, and G. Christensen. 2015. “Promoting an Open Research Culture.” *Science* 348 (6242): 1422–1425. doi:10.1126/science.aab2374.

Nowotny, H., P. Scott, and M. Gibbons. 2006. “Re-thinking Science: Mode 2 in Societal Context.” In *Knowledge Creation, Diffusion, and Use in Innovation Networks and Knowledge Clusters. A Comparative Systems Approach across the United States, Europe and Asia*, edited by E. G. Carayannis and D. F. J. Campbell, 39–51. London: Praeger Publishers.

Nowviskie, B. 2011. “Where Credit Is Due: Preconditions for the Evaluation of Collaborative Digital Scholarship.” *Profession* 2011 (1): 169–181. doi:10.1632/prof.2011.2011.1.169.

O’Kane, C., V. Mangematin, W. Geoghegan, and C. Fitzgerald. 2015. “University Technology Transfer Offices: The Search for Identity to Build Legitimacy.” *Research Policy* 44 (2): 421–437. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2014.08.003.

Oliver, K., A. Kothisi, and N. Mays. 2019. “The Dark Side of Coproduction: Do the Costs Outweigh the Benefits for Health Research?” *Health Research Policy and Systems* 17 (33): 1–10. doi:10.1186/s12961-019-0432-3.

Olmos-Penuellea, J., P. Benneworth, and E. Castro-Martínez. 2016. “Does It Take Two to Tango? Factors Related to the Ease of Societal Uptake of Scientific Knowledge.” *Science and Public Policy* 43 (6): 751–762.

Open Science Collaboration. 2015. “Estimating the Reproducibility of Psychological Science.” *Science* 349 (6251): aac4716. doi:10.1126/science.aac4716.

Owen, R., P. Macnaghten, and J. Stilgoe. 2012. “Responsible Research and Innovation: From Science in Society to Science for Society, with Society.” *Science and Public Policy* 39 (6): 751–760. doi:10.1093/scipol/scs093.

Owen-Smith, J., and W. W. Powell. 2001. “To Patent or Not: Faculty Decisions and Institutional Success at Technology Transfer.” *Journal of Technology Transfer* 26 (12): 99–114. doi:10.1023/A:1007892413701.

Pearce, J. M. 2012. “Building Research Equipment with Free, Open-source Hardware.” *Science* 337 (6100): 1303–1304. doi:10.1126/science.1228183.

Penfield, T., M. J. Baker, R. Scoble, and M. C. Wykes. 2014. “Assessment, Evaluations, and Definitions of Research Impact: A Review.” *Research Evaluation* 23 (1): 21–32. doi:10.1093/reseval/rvt021.

Pénin, J., and T. Burger-Helmchen. 2011. “Crowdsourcing of Inventive Activities: Definition and Limits.” *International Journal of Innovation and Sustainable Development* 5 (2): 246–263. doi:10.1504/IJISD.2011.043068.

Perkmann, M., and H. Schildt. 2015. “Open Data Partnerships between Firms and Universities: The Role of Boundary Organizations.” *Research Policy* 44 (5): 1133–1143. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2014.12.006.

Perkmann, M., and K. Walsh. 2008. “Engaging the Scholar: Three Types of Academic Consulting and Their Impact on Universities and Industry.” *Research Policy* 37 (10): 1884–1891. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2008.07.009.

Perkmann, M., R. Fini, J.-M. Ross, A. Salter, C. Silvestri, and V. Tartari. 2015. “Accounting for Universities’ Impact: Using Augmented Data to Measure Academic Engagement and
Commercialization by Academic Scientists.” Research Evaluation 24 (4): 380–391. doi:10.1093/reseval/rv020.
Perkmann, M., V. Tartari, M. McKelvey, E. Autio, A. Broström, P. D’Este, R. Fini, A. Geuna, R. Grimaldi, and A. Hughes. 2013. “Academic Engagement and Commercialisation: A Review of the Literature on University–industry Relations.” Research Policy 42 (2): 423–442. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2012.09.007.
Phillips, L. 2011. The Promise of Dialogue: The Dialogic Turn in the Production and Communication of Knowledge. Vol. 12. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing.
Piaget, J. 1972. “The Epistemology of Interdisciplinary Relationships.” In Interdisciplinarity: Problems of Teaching and Research in Universities, edited by L. Apostel, G. Berger, A. Briggs, and G. Michaud, 127–139. Paris: OECD.
Piezunka, H., and L. Dahlander. 2015. “Distant Search, Narrow Attention: How Crowding Alternates Organizations’ Filtering of Suggestions in Crowdsourcing.” Academy of Management Journal 58 (3): 856–880. doi:10.5465/amj.2012.0458.
Piwowar, H., J. Priem, V. Larivière, J. P. Alperin, L. Matthias, B. Norlander, A. Farley, J. West, and S. Haustein. 2018. “The State of OA: A Large-scale Analysis of the Prevalence and Impact of Open Access Articles.” Peerj 6 (2): e4375. doi:10.7717/peerj.4375.
Plantin, J.-C. 2019. “Data Cleaners for Pristine Datasets: Visibility and Invisibility of Data Processors in Social Science.” Science, Technology, & Human Values 44 (1): 52–73. doi:10.1177/0162243918781268.
Poetz, M. K., and M. Schreier. 2012. “The Value of Crowdsourcing: Can Users Really Compete with Professionals in Generating New Product Ideas?” Journal of Product Innovation Management 29 (2): 245–256. doi:10.1111/j.1540-5885.2011.00893.x.
Poljakoff, E., and T. L. Webb. 2007. “What Factors Predict Scientists’ Intentions to Participate in Public Engagement of Science Activities?” Science Communication 29 (2): 242–263. doi:10.1177/1075547007308009.
Powell, W. W., K. W. Koput, and L. Smith-Doerr. 1996. “Interorganizational Collaboration and the Locus of Innovation: Networks of Learning in Biotechnology.” Administrative Science Quarterly 41 (1): 116–145. doi:10.2307/2393988.
Priefo, P., L. Pujol, and J. D. Wareham. 2019. “Open Targets: Pre-competitive Collaborative Research in Life Sciences.” Academy of Management Proceedings 79 (1): 11674. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2019.11674abstract.
Proctor, R. N., and L. Schiebinger. 2008. Agnotology: The Making and Unmaking of Ignorance. Stanford, USA: Stanford University Press.
Pronk, T. E. 2019. “The Time Efficiency Gain in Sharing and Reuse of Research Data.” Data Science Journal 18 (1): 1–8. doi:10.5334/dsj-2019-010.
Pujol, L., and J. Wareham. 2019. REANA: Reproducible Research Data Analysis Platform. Open Science Monitor Case Study Directorate-General for Research and Innovation. Brussels: European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/research_and_innovation/reana.pdf
Puschmann, C. 2014. “(Micro) Blogging Science? Notes on Potentials and Constraints of New Forms of Scholarly Communication.” In Opening Science: The Evolving Guide on How the Internet Is Changing Research, Collaboration and Scholarly Publishing, edited by S. Bartling and S. Friesike, 89–106. Germany: SpringerOpen.
Raffaelli, R., M. A. Glynn, and M. Tushman. 2019. “Frame Flexibility: The Role of Cognitive and Emotional Framing in Innovation Adoption by Incumbent Firms.” Strategic Management Journal 40 (7): 1013–1039. doi:10.1002/smj.3011.
Rahner, J., Z. Grujić, C. Bach, J. A. Barentzen, B. Gervang, R. Jia, S. Leinweber, M. Misztal, and J. Sherson. 2019. “Geometry of Turbulent Dissipation and the Navier-Stokes Regularity Problem, 1-9.” arXiv Preprint. arXiv:1909.10408. https://arxiv.org/pdf/1909.10408.pdf.
Rafols, I., and M. Meyer. 2010. “Diversity and Network Coherence as Indicators of Interdisciplinarity: Case Studies in Bionanoscience.” Scientometrics 82 (2): 263–287. doi:10.1007/s11192-009-0041-y.
Rasmussen, E., and M. Wright. 2015. “How Can Universities Facilitate Academic Spinoffs? an Entrepreneurial Competency Perspective.” Journal of Technology Transfer 40 (5): 782–799. doi:10.1007/s10961-014-9386-3.

Renault, C. S. 2006. “Academic Capitalism and University Incentives for Faculty Entrepreneurship.” Journal of Technology Transfer 31 (2): 227–239. doi:10.1007/s10961-005-6108-x.

Roach, M., and H. Sauerermann. 2010. “A Taste for Science? PhD Scientists’ Academic Orientation and Self-selection into Research Careers in Industry.” Research Policy 39 (3): 422–434. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2010.01.004.

Ross-Hellauer, T. 2017. “What Is Open Peer Review? A Systematic Review.” F1000Research 6 (588): 1–37. doi:10.12688/f1000research.11369.1.

Rothaermel, F. T., and W. Boeker. 2008. “Old Technology Meets New Technology: Complementarities, Similarities, and Alliance Formation.” Strategic Management Journal 29 (1): 47–77. doi:10.1002/smj.634.

Rowhani-Farid, A., A. Aldcroft, and A. G. Barnett. 2020. “Did Awarding Badges Increase Data Sharing in BMJ Open? A Randomized Controlled Trial.” Royal Society Open Science 7 (3): 191818. doi:10.1098/rsos.191818.

Rushforth, A., T. Franssen, and S. de Rijcke. 2019. “Portfolios of Worth: Capitalizing on Basic and Clinical Problems in Biomedical Research Groups.” Science, Technology, & Human Values 44 (2): 209–236. doi:10.1177/0162243918786431.

Salazar, M. R., T. K. Lant, S. M. Fiore, and E. Salas. 2012. “Facilitating Innovation in Diverse Science Teams through Integrative Capacity.” Small Group Research 43 (5): 527–558. doi:10.1177/1046496412453622.

Sauerermann, H., K. Vohland, V. Antoniou, B. Balázs, C. Göbel, K. Karatzas, P. Mooney, J. Perelló, M. Ponti, and R. Samson. 2020. “Citizen Science and Sustainability Transitions.” Research Policy 49 (5): 103978. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2020.103978.

Sauerermann, H., and P. Stephan. 2013. “Conflicting Logics? A Multidimensional View of Industrial and Academic Science.” Organization Science 24 (3): 889–909. doi:10.1287/orsci.1120.0769.

Schartinger, D., C. Rammer, and J. Fröhlich. 2006. “Knowledge Interactions between Universities and Industry in Austria: Sectoral Patterns and Determinants.” In Innovation, Networks, and Knowledge Spillovers, edited by M. M. Fischer, 13566. Berlin: Springer.

Scheliga, K., S. Friesike, C. Puschmann, and B. Fecher. 2018. “Setting up Crowd Science Projects.” Public Understanding of Science 27 (5): 515–534. doi:10.1177/0963662516678514.

Schroyer, T. 1984. “On Finalization in Science.” Theory and Society 13 (5): 715–723. doi:10.1007/BF00160915.

SciNote. Accessed 19 June 2020. https://www.scienceathome.org/education/scinote-researchtool/

Seeber, M., M. Cattaneo, M. Meoli, and P. Malighetti. 2019. “Self-citations as Strategic Response to the Use of Metrics for Career Decisions.” Research Policy 48 (2): 478–491. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2017.12.004.

Shah, S. K., and C. C. M. Mody. 2014. Creating a Context for Entrepreneurship: Examining How Users’ Technological and Organizational Innovations Set, Governing Knowledge Commons. New York, USA: Oxford University Press.

Shane, S., and R. Khurana. 2003. “Bringing Individuals Back In: The Effects of Career Experience on New Firm Founding.” Industrial and Corporate Change 12 (3): 519–543. doi:10.1093/icc/12.3.519.

Shane, S. A. 2004. Academic Entrepreneurship: University Spinoffs and Wealth Creation. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
Shirk, J. L., H. L. Ballard, C. C. Wilderman, T. Phillips, A. Wiggins, R. Jordan, E. McCallie, et al. 2012. “Public Participation in Scientific Research: A Framework for Deliberate Design.” Ecology & Society 17 (2): 207–227. doi:10.5751/ES-04705-170229.

Shore, C. 2008. “Audit Culture and Illiberal Governance: Universities and the Politics of Accountability.” Anthropological Theory 8 (3): 278–298. doi:10.1177/1463496608093815.

Siedlok, F., P. Hibbert, and N. Beech. 2014. “Learning Practices and Interpretative Modes in Collaborative Contexts.” Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Conference, Philadelphia, USA.

Siegel, D. S., D. Waldman, and A. Link. 2003. “Assessing the Impact of Organizational Practices on the Relative Productivity of University Technology Transfer Offices: An Exploratory Study.” Research Policy 32 (1): 27–48. doi:10.1016/S0048-7333(01)00196-2.

Silvertown, J. 2009. “A New Dawn for Citizen Science.” Trends in Ecology & Evolution 24 (9): 467–471. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2009.03.017.

Simon, D., S. Kuhlmann, J. Stamm, and W. Canzler. 2019. “Introduction: Science and Public Policy - Relations in Flux.” In Handbook on Science and Public Policy, edited by D. Simon, S. Kuhlmann, J. Stamm, and W. Canzler, 1-10. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Somech, A., and A. Drach-Zahavy. 2013. “Translating Team Creativity to Innovation Implementation: The Role of Team Composition and Climate for Innovation.” Journal of Management 39 (3): 684–708. doi:10.1177/0149206310394187.

Sorokowski, P., E. Kulczycki, A. Sorokowska, and K. Pisanski. 2017. “Predatory Journals Recruit Fake Editor.” Nature News 543 (7646): 481. doi:10.1038/543481a.

Sovacool, B. K. 2010. “The Importance of Open and Closed Styles of Energy Research.” Social Studies of Science 40 (6): 903–930. doi:10.1177/0306321010373842.

Stephan, P. E. 1996. “The Economics of Science.” Journal of Economic Literature 34 (3): 1199–1235.

Stephan, P. E., and A. El-Ganainy. 2007. “The Entrepreneurial Puzzle: Explaining the Gender Gap.” Journal of Technology Transfer 32 (5): 475–487. doi:10.1007/s10961-007-9033-3.

Stevens, A. J. 2004. “The Enactment of Bayh–Dole.” Journal of Technology Transfer 29 (1): 93–99. doi:10.1023/B:JOTT.0000011183.40867.52.

Stilgoe, J., S. J. Lock, and J. Wilsdon. 2014. “Why Should We Promote Public Engagement with Science?” Public Understanding of Science 23 (1): 4–15. doi:10.1177/0963662513518154.

Stokes, D. E. 2011. Pasteur’s Quadrant: Basic Science and Technological Innovation. Washington, D.C., USA: Brookings Institution Press.

Strasser, B., J. Baudry, D. Mahr, G. Sanchez, and E. Tancoigne. 2019. ““Citizen Science”? Rethinking Science and Public Participation.” Science & Technology Studies 32 (2): 52–76.

Suber, P. 2012. Open Access. Cambridge, USA: MIT Press.

Suess-Reyes, J., K. Hyslop, S. Beck, and M. Poetz. 2020. “May the Force Be with Them: Exploring Strategies to Overcome Challenges of Co-Created Citizen Science.” Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Conference, Vancouver.

Tahamtan, I., and L. Bornmann. 2020. “Altmetrics and Societal Impact Measurements: Match or Mismatch? A Literature Review.” El profesional de la información (EPI) 29 (1): 1–29.

Tartari, V., and A. Salter. 2015. “The Engagement Gap: Exploring Gender Differences in University–Industry Collaboration Activities.” Research Policy 44 (6): 1176–1191. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2015.01.014.

Tartari, V., M. Perkmann, and A. Salter. 2014. “In Good Company: The Influence of Peers on Industry Engagement by Academic Scientists.” Research Policy 43 (7): 1189–1203. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2014.02.003.

Tartari, V., and S. Breschi. 2012. “Set Them Free: Scientists’ Evaluations of the Benefits and Costs of University–Industry Research Collaboration.” Industrial and Corporate Change 21 (5): 1117–1147. doi:10.1093/icc/dts004.

Teasley, S., and S. Wolinsky. 2001. “Scientific Collaborations at a Distance.” Science 292 (5525): 2254–2255. doi:10.1126/science.1061619.

Tenopir, C., N. M. Rice, S. Allard, L. Baird, J. Borycz, L. Christian, B. Grant, R. Olendorf, and R. J. Sandusky. 2020. “Data Sharing, Management, Use, and Reuse: Practices and
Perceptions of Scientists Worldwide.” *PloS One* 15 (3): e0229003. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0229003.

Thompson, N., and D. Hanley. 2018. “Science Is Shaped by Wikipedia: Evidence from a Randomized Control Trial.” Paper presented at the DRUID Annual Conference, Copenhagen, Denmark.

Thune, T. 2010. “The Training of “Triple Helix Workers”? Doctoral Students in University–Industry–government Collaborations.” *Minerva* 48 (4): 463–483. doi:10.1007/s11024-010-9158-7.

Thursby, J. G., C. Haeussler, M. C. Thursby, and L. Jiang. 2018. “Prepublication Disclosure of Scientific Results: Norms, Competition, and Commercial Orientation.” *Science Advances* 4 (5): eaar2133. doi:10.1126/sciadv.aar2133.

Thursby, J. G., and M. C. Thursby. 2004. “Are Faculty Critical? Their Role in University–Industry Licensing.” *Contemporary Economic Policy* 22 (2): 162–178. doi:10.1093/cep/byh012.

Tinati, R., M. Luczak-Roesch, E. Simperl, and W. Hall. 2017. “An Investigation of Player Motivations in Eyewire, a Gamified Citizen Science Project.” *Computers in Human Behavior* 73: 527–540. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2016.12.074.

Torres-Olave, B., A. M. Brown, L. F. Carrera, and C. Ballinas. 2020. “Not Waving but Striving: Research Collaboration in the Context of Stratification, Segmentation, and the Quest for Prestige.” *Journal of Higher Education* 91 (2): 275–299. doi:10.1080/00221546.2019.1631074.

Trouille, L., C. J. Lintott, and L. F. Fortson. 2019. “Citizen Science Frontiers: Efficiency, Engagement, and Serendipitous Discovery with Human-machine Systems.” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 116 (6): 1902–1909. doi:10.1073/pnas.1807190116.

Trowler, P. 2014. “Depicting and Researching Disciplines: Strong and Moderate Essentialist Approaches.” *Studies in Higher Education* 39 (10): 1720–1731. doi:10.1080/03075079.2013.801431.

Trumbull, D. J., R. Bonney, D. Bascom, and A. Cabral. 2000. “Thinking Scientifically during Participation in a Citizen-science Project.” *Science Education* 84 (2): 265–275. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-237X(200003)84:2<265::AID-SECE7>3.0.CO;2-5.

Tsai, K. C. 2012. “Play, Imagination, and Creativity: A Brief Literature Review.” *Journal of Education and Learning* 1 (2): 15–20. doi:10.5539/jel.v1n2p15.

Tucci, C. L., A. Afuah, and G. Viscusi. 2018. *Creating and Capturing Value through Crowdsourcing*. New York, USA: Oxford University Press.

Tuertscher, P., R. Garud, and A. Karunaratne. 2014. “Justification and Interlaced Knowledge at ATLAS, CERN.” *Organization Science* 25 (6): 1579–1608. doi:10.1287/orsc.2013.0894.

Tyfield, D., R. Lave, S. Randall, and C. Thorpe. 2017. *The Routledge Handbook of the Political Economy of Science*. Abingdon, UK: Taylor & Francis.

Uzzi, B., S. Mukherjee, M. Stringer, and B. Jones. 2013. “Atypical Combinations and Scientific Impact.” *Science* 342 (6157): 468–472. doi:10.1126/science.1240474.

Vaish, R., S. S. Gaikwad, G. Kovacs, A. Veit, R. Krishna, I. A. Ibarra, C. Simiou, M. Wilber, S. Belongie, and S. Goel. 2017. “Crowd Research: Open and Scalable University Laboratories.” Proceedings of the 30th Annual ACM Symposium on User Interface Software and Technology, Québec City, Canada.

Van Noorden, R. 2015. “Interdisciplinary Research by the Numbers.” *Nature* 525 (7569): 306–307. doi:10.1038/525306a.

Vedel, J. B., and A. Irwin. 2017. “‘This Is What We Got, What Would You Like?’: Aligning and Unaligning Academic-industry Relations.” *Social Studies of Science* 47 (3): 417–438. doi:10.1177/0306312716689346.

Vicente-Sáez, R., and C. Martinez-Fuentes. 2018. “Open Science Now: A Systematic Literature Review for an Integrated Definition.” *Journal of Business Research* 88 (7): 428–436. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.12.043.
Von Hippel, E., and G. Von Krogh. 2003. “Open Source Software and the “Privatecollective” Innovation Model: Issues for Organization Science.” Organization Science 14 (2): 209–223. doi:10.1287/orsc.14.2.209.14992.

VSNU, NFU, KNAW, NWO, and ZonMw. 2019. “Room for Everyone’s Talent: Towards a New Balance in the Recognition and Rewards of Academics.” https://www.nwo.nl/binaries/content/documents/nwo-en/common/documentation/application/nwo/policy/position-paper-2018-recognitionand-rewards/9±recognition±and±rewards±position±paper.pdf

Wajcman, J. 2015. Pressed for Time: The Acceleration of Life in Digital Capitalism. Chicago, USA: University of Chicago Press.

Waldrop, M. M. 2013. “Education Online: The Virtual Lab.” Nature News 499 (7458): 268–270. doi:10.1038/499268a.

Walsh, J. P., Y.-N. Lee, and L. Tang. 2019. “Pathogenic Organization in Science: Division of Labor and Retractions.” Research Policy 48 (2): 444–461. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2018.09.004.

Wedlin, L., and M. Nedeva. 2015. Toward European Science: Dynamics and Policy of an Evolving European Research Space. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

West, S. E., and R. M. Pateman. 2016. “Recruiting and Retaining Participants in Citizen Science: What Can Be Learned from the Volunteering Literature?” Citizen Science: Theory and Practice 1 (2): 1–10.

Whitley, R. 2011. “Changing Governance and Authority Relations in the Public Sciences.” Minerva 49 (4): 359–385. doi:10.1007/s11024-011-9182-2.

Wiggins, A., and K. Crowston. 2011. “From Conservation to Crowdsourcing: A Typology of Citizen Science.” Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 44th Hawaii International Conference on Systems Sciences (HICSS), Hawaii.

Wilkinson, M. D., M. Dumontier, I. J. Aalbersberg, G. Appleton, M. Axton, A. Baak, N. Blomberg, J.-W. Boiten, L. B. da Silva Santos, and P. E. Bourne. 2016. “The FAIR Guiding Principles for Scientific Data Management and Stewardship.” Scientific Data 3: 160018. doi:10.1038/sdata.2016.18.

Williams, K. J., J. M. Cooks, M. May, J. Peranteau, E. Reifsnider, and M. A. Hargraves. 2010. “Walk Together Children with No Wasted Steps: Community-academic Partnering for Equal Power in NIH Proposal Development.” Progress in Community Health Partnerships: Research, Education, and Action 4 (4): 263–277. doi:10.1353/cpr.2010.0013.

Willinsky, J. 2005. “The Unacknowledged Convergence of Open Source, Open Access, and Open Science.” First Monday 10 (8). doi:10.5210/fm.v10i8.1265.

Woelflé, M., P. Olliaro, and M. H. Todd. 2011. “Open Science Is a Research Accelerator.” Nature Chemistry 3 (10): 745–748. doi:10.1038/nchem.1149.

Wooten, J. O., and K. T. Ulrich. 2015. “The Impact of Visibility in Innovation Tournaments: Evidence from Field Experiments.” SSRN. https://ssrn.com/abstract=2214952

World Intellectual Property Organization. 2004. WIPO Intellectual Property Handbook: Policy, Law and Use. Vol. 489. Geneva, Switzerland: WIPO.

Wright, M., A. Lockett, B. Clarysse, and M. Binks. 2006. “University Spin-out Companies and Venture Capital.” Research Policy 35 (4): 481–501. doi:10.1016/j.respol.2006.01.005.

Wu, L., D. Wang, and J. A. Evans. 2019. “Large Teams Develop and Small Teams Disrupt Science and Technology.” Nature 566 (7744): 378–382. doi:10.1038/s41586-019-09491-9.

Wuchty, S., B. F. Jones, and B. Uzzi. 2007. “The Increasing Dominance of Teams in Production of Knowledge.” Science 316 (5827): 1036–1039. doi:10.1126/science.1136099.

Wuyts, S., M. G. Colombo, S. Dutta, and B. Nooteboom. 2005. “Empirical Tests of Optimal Cognitive Distance.” Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization 58 (2): 277–302. doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2004.03.019.

Yamada, Y. 2018. “How to Crack Pre-registration: Toward Transparent and Open Science.” Frontiers in Psychology 9 (1831): 1–3. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01831.

Zastrow, M. 2020. “Open Science Takes on the Coronavirus Pandemic.” Nature 581 (7806): 10910. doi:10.1038/d41586-020-01246-3.
Appendix A

The collaborative conceptualisation approach and reflections

We took a collaborative approach to the entire process of conceptualising the OIS Research Framework and writing this article (see Table A). In particular, instead of presenting collaborators with a fixed framework from the beginning, we chose to co-create the framework from scratch in a collaborative two-day workshop at the first Open Innovation in Science Conference in 2019. During the co-creation process, we aimed to share decision rights equally among all participants, discussing the structure and elements of the scientific research process, topics to include, as well as the order, levels of analysis, and interdependencies. The role of the special issue guest editors was to facilitate and structure the collaboration rather than to intervene and delineate the path ahead.

This process did not come without challenges. Synthesising the broad range of different arguments without compromising on the content required several additional steps that were not planned in the beginning, but were necessary to define a common ground reflecting all perspectives. Thus, instead of beginning with the text of the article itself, we asked the co-authors to first collect the literature for the different boxes and arrows of the OIS Research Framework in nine tables (resulting in more than 200 entries). In doing so, we were able to identify similarities and differences before initiating the writing process. This also helped to surface some enriching discussions as we structured an outline of the article. Another challenge was time management. We would advise those planning future collaborative endeavours to keep the schedule flexible while informing all collaborators about changes and realistic time horizons for each task. This is particularly true for the later stages (i.e. steps 16–19 in Table A), during which individual contributions needed to be collected and integrated.

Table A: Overview of the collaborative conceptualisation process.

| Task | Step Description | Duration |
|------|------------------|----------|
| **Stage 1: Collaborative conceptualisation at the first OIS Research Conference in 2019** | 1. Presentation of a simple process model defining OIS | 2 days |
| | 2. Individual reflection on missing or misplaced elements in the initial model | |
| | 3. Random assignment of participants into groups to refine initial model | |
| | 4. Group presentations of modified frameworks | |
| | 5. Joint discussion of the resulting modifications until preliminary consensus was reached | |
| | 6. Appointment of main coordinator to organise and structure the collaborative process | |
| **Stage 2: Collaborative outlining and writing of the article** | 7. Organising team (OT) refines OIS Research Framework by considering all materials, notes, and discussions from the conference | 1 week |
| | 8. Refined framework is shared online with collaborators, who are invited to discuss | |
| | 9. OT incorporates the comments on the framework and resolves disagreements among co-authors. Based on the comments, the next steps for the collaborative writing process are designed. | 6 weeks |

(Continued)

---

4(see https://ois.lbg.ac.at/en/research/ois-conference-2019)

5This article is part of a special issue of Industry & Innovation entitled ‘Open Innovation in Science.’ The guest editors are Susanne Beck, Christoph Grimpe, Marion Poetz, and Henry Sauermann.

Zucker, L. G., M. R. Darby, and J. S. Armstrong. 2002. “Commercializing Knowledge: University Science, Knowledge Capture, and Firm Performance in Biotechnology.” Management Science 48 (1): 138–153. doi:10.1287/mnsc.48.1.138.14274.
Despite these challenges, we consider our collaborative approach to be well-suited to this undertaking for three reasons. First, scholars participating in this project have unique approaches towards and experiences with openness and collaboration in science, which allowed us to avoid overstating generalisability or misaligning potentially incompatible concepts. Given our diversity, we sought to align and balance the different literature streams rather than imposing one dominant logic. Second, different scientific fields across the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences have different norms regarding the intensity and scope of different types of open and collaborative practices. These divergences informed the entire process, from conceptualising the framework to identifying the literature informing the antecedents, contingencies, outcomes, and impacts of OIS practices, to writing this article. The open and constructive attitude of the co-authors made it possible to identify and resolve conflicting (often tacit) assumptions. Third, we consider this unifying framework as a starting point for future joint research endeavours. Thus, we are relying on a strong network of scholars to apply, nurture, and further develop the OIS Research Framework. We hope that this article provokes rich discussions on open and collaborative practices in science and attracts new members of an emerging scientific community. Anyone interested in applying such an approach or learning more about it is welcome to contact the corresponding author for more information.