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1 **Linking science with media and policy: the case of academics in Flanders, Belgium**

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12 **Abstract**

13 There is a growing expectation for academics to *go public*, that is to actively engage with the
14 media and supply policy advice for decision-makers. Data showing these interactions are
15 scarce. By linking data from FRIS, BelgaPress and Overton, this study reveals a first snapshot
16 of academics' media mentions and policy citations for all active academics from Dutch-
17 speaking universities in Belgium. Explorative analysis reveals distinct sector differences, with
18 academics from Social sciences, Medical and Health sciences being most visible. A small
19 minority of mostly male academics featured very often in media as media figures, contrasted
20 by much more discrete *policy pillars* whose publications got cited often, but featured hardly in
21 traditional media.

22 Keywords: scientometrics; science-media interface; science-policy interface; Overton; societal
23 impact

24 1 Introduction

25 Scholars, research institutes and universities are now expected to create more than just scientific
26 insights. Apart from producing and circulating knowledge, scientific actors must increasingly
27 pursue societal impacts too. Requests like these express an ongoing need to disseminate
28 scientific knowledge or make it more accessible (Joubert & Weingart, 2019). Simultaneously,
29 there is an expectation for context-specific and feasible policy advice and practitioner
30 recommendations wherever possible (Bandola-Gill, 2019; Boswell & Smith, 2017). Nowadays,
31 the responsibility of the research sector extends beyond *creating* sound knowledge to also
32 include its *popularization* and its *application*. The increase in the number of assessment
33 instruments aiming to capture these extra-academic benefits of research – such as the UK’s
34 *Research Excellence Framework* (REF), *Excellence in Research Australia* (ERA) or the Dutch
35 *Standard Evaluation Protocol* (SEP) – demonstrates how past decades have witnessed
36 institutionalizations of these formerly facultative demands (Kassab, 2019; Smit & Hessels,
37 2021). Regardless of whether the underlying idea is to legitimise or scrutinize public spending
38 on research activities (Watermeyer & Chubb, 2018), growing numbers of academics must now
39 consistently document and describe proofs of *societal impact* their work generates (Kassab,
40 2019; Smit & Hessels, 2021). Obviously, this is never a neutral process of objectively showing
41 beneficial effects. Since most assessment instruments rely on self-reporting, impact is more
42 often postulated than proved (Niederkrotenthaler et al., 2011; Watermeyer & Chubb, 2018).
43 And while constructing *impact cases* is clearly a team effort, one exceptional scientist often
44 spearheads the narrative (Dunlop, 2018). Hence, current systems encourage universities to
45 prioritize stories of *heroic scientists* – usually male professors – transcending the confines of

46 academia (Dunlop, 2018). Therefore, existing operationalizations of societal impact in research
47 evaluation are often premised on individualistic conceptions of science's extra-academic
48 benefits.

49 Additionally, existing studies highlight assumptions about certain impact pathways' efficacy
50 that remain unsupported by empirical data. Periodical evaluations by national research
51 administrations (e.g. REF; SEP – see Kassab (2019), Smit and Hessels (2021)) and studies into
52 academics' perceptions of their extra-scientific impact (e.g. Valinciute (2020), Fecher and
53 Hebing (2021)) testify to the scientific communities' widespread conviction that the capacity to
54 influence policymakers and governance actors relies on a sufficient degree of visibility in non-
55 academic media. That is to say, there appears to be an assumption that the ongoing expectation
56 to publicly share research findings is not just *commensurable* with the demand to weigh on
57 policy, but also deems popularization as a *prerequisite* for effectively translating science into
58 governance. However, this is not to suggest that popularization would *automatically* result in
59 successful translation. The idea that popular recognition is a condition for policy attention was
60 already central to Rae Goodell's (1977) conception of the *visible scientists* that emerged in the
61 late 1970s. Nevertheless, the expectation to somehow influence policymakers is not the only
62 reason scientists would lend their expertise to the public debate either, as there are intrinsic and
63 institutional motivations for academics to seek interactions with journalists and other
64 gatekeepers of popular attention (Dunwoody et al., 2009). When academics engage with
65 popular media, their motivations include enhancing public scientific knowledge (Miller, 2001),
66 providing context and nuance to news stories (Weigold, 2001) or seeking recognition as an
67 individual (Dunwoody et al., 2009). The idea of eventual policy impact has clearly become a
68 key narrative in science communication and popularization in the context of societal impact
69 evaluation in research governance.

70 Nevertheless, empirical evidence of this presumed relation continues to lack (Fahy, 2017). As
71 Weingart (2022, p. 292) points out: “Hardly anything is known about the intended effects of
72 this [media] attention on the decisions of policymakers and administrators in government
73 bureaucracies except for the plausible assumption that attention is also the standard currency in
74 the political arena.” To no small degree, this relates to the limited data available about scientists’
75 mark on non-scholarly media and policy documents. Indeed, studies have long surveyed
76 academics about their *interaction* with journalists (Dunwoody et al., 2009; Fecher & Hebing,
77 2021; Valinciute, 2020), without being able to complement those reports with large scale data
78 on the actual *presence* of scientists in news media. However, advances in data collection and
79 availability allow experiments with alternative indicators to explore science popularization,
80 policy impacts and their interlinkages. As *traditional* proxies for science performance are being
81 evaluated, new objects *outside* science in the strict sense are being explored from which impact
82 of science on society could appear (Bornmann, 2013). Such *heterogenous couplings* (Costas et
83 al., 2020) document interactions between science and society, but require investigations to
84 explore their characteristics, uses and potential biases. The foregoing discussion raises
85 prominent questions about how academics are mentioned in non-scholarly media and cited by
86 policy. Approaching them as heterogenous couplings (Costas et al., 2020) can produce a first
87 snapshot of the heterogeneity in the societal dissemination and institutional application of
88 academic knowledge. This allows an exploration of academic profiles (e.g. seniority; discipline;
89 gender) present in media and policy documents, revealing potential interlinkages between them.

90 In the first place this requires a dependable overview of scientists. The case of Flanders is
91 interesting because data on academics are freely available via the FRIS portal (*Flanders*
92 *Research Information Space*, 2024). Additionally, it needs an extensive and navigable news
93 media database. Here, the Belgian database BelgaPress (*BelgaPress*, 2024) provides detailed

94 data on the visibility of these academics in the media. Popular media exceed the written press
95 off course, but we chose to focus on news media articles because it allows substantial amounts
96 of data to be analysed relatively easily. And since 2019, the Overton database offers the
97 possibility to investigate which academics worldwide can be found in policy documents,
98 including those found in FRIS. The aim in this paper is therefore to explore the characteristics
99 of Flemish academics in media and policy documents. The extent to which academics do or do
100 not appear in popular media has not been explicitly examined to date, including its reliance on
101 sectors and disciplines, as well as the role of individual researchers' characteristics. Moreover,
102 it is far from certain that this form of visibility necessarily translates into policy impact.

103 2 Methods

104 2.1 Data collection

105 We scraped regional opensource data portal FRIS for all researchers active at one of five Dutch-
106 speaking universities in Belgium in 2019, and logged their current (research group,
107 departmental or faculty) affiliation(s), their starting year and total number of scientific
108 publications (*Flanders Research Information Space*, 2024). Research performing organisations
109 must periodically transfer information from their CRIS systems to this regional database
110 (Neyens & Vancauwenbergh, 2021), ensuring dependable data quality. To focus primarily on
111 research profiles, academics working for administrative units were omitted. This produced a
112 database of 30226 individuals. Based on current affiliation, data were enriched with codes on
113 sector and discipline, using the *Flemish Research Discipline Standard* (Vancauwenbergh &
114 Poelmans, 2019) as a guideline. Next, data were gender-coded manually (reduced to female,
115 male, undefined). Gender-neutral names were coded after individual validation. Finally,

116 seniority levels were added manually, based on publicly available information on institutional
117 websites or social media profiles.

118 For data on news media mentions, we used the online BelgaPress database (*BelgaPress*, 2024).
119 Belgian news agency *Belga* collects all articles published in Belgian newspapers and magazines
120 daily, and its database allows exact search functions over a selected timeframe. As our dataset
121 consisted of Dutch-speaking academics in Belgium, we only selected newspapers and
122 magazines published in Dutch. More details and methodological arguments for this approach,
123 alongside partial results from a pilot study have been reported elsewhere (Jonker et al., 2022).
124 A strength of BelgaPress is its accurate search functions over a selected timeframe; a weakness
125 is that specialised science magazines like EOS or *Wetenschap in Beeld* are omitted. Data were
126 gathered from 1/01/2019 to 31/12/2019, as 2020 and further years would likely be atypical due
127 to the covid-19 pandemic which is beyond the scope of the present study. We queried all full
128 names of researchers and noted the amount of written press attention for each individual,
129 excluding namesakes and removing duplicates. We chose to exclude researchers who appeared
130 in non-academic capacities, such as those with a political mandate (n = 47), those in the full-
131 time function of a non-academic organisation, institution or company (n = 22), and a rest
132 category of journalists, lawyers, athletes, or celebrities (n = 12). Rectors¹ (n = 5) were also
133 excluded because of their special mandate.

134 For data on policy document citations, we used the data portal Overton.io (*Overton*, 2024). A
135 strength is its global, comprehensive coverage of policy documents in a broad sense, including
136 (government) reports, clinical guidelines, legal documents, white papers and parliamentary
137 transcripts (*Overton*, 2024). Overton's main weakness is its tendency to disproportionately

¹ Head of a university.

138 focus on relatively recent policy documents in English, primarily sourced from the
139 United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Japan, Germany, France, and Australia (see
140 Szomszor and Adie (2022)). Additionally, a substantial portion of the database consists of policy
141 documents from international governmental organizations (IGOs) such as the
142 World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Educational,
143 Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank, and the European Union
144 (Szomszor & Adie, 2022).

145 In June 2021 we downloaded lists of all affiliated authors and their citations in worldwide
146 policy-related documents for each Dutch-speaking university (and affiliated university hospital)
147 in Belgium. We then deleted and merged duplicates, removed wrong affiliations and namesakes.
148 The documented citation delay in policy-related documents in Overton (see: Fang et al., 2020;
149 Szomszor & Adie, 2022) motivated our choice to compare a total number of policy citations in
150 2021 to media mentions in 2019, as to leave sufficient time for accumulation of policy
151 document citations to occur.

152 2.2 Descriptives

153 The dataset used for this study had the following characteristics (see Table 1). Regarding media,
154 2451 of 30226 (8.1%) of active academics appeared once or more in the written press of 2019.
155 Those academics who did appear in the media in 2019 did so with 5.6 (SD = 16.8) mentions on
156 average. Compared to sector proportions at Flemish universities, academics from Social
157 sciences (22.6% of university personnel vs 31.5% in the media) and Humanities and the Arts
158 (10.2% vs 14.1%) were overrepresented in the written press of 2019, whereas academics
159 working in Engineering and Technology (18.9% vs 9.7%) and Natural sciences (14.5% vs
160 10.3%) were underrepresented. Male academics (6.6 mentions (SD = 19.6) appeared on
161 average twice as often in the written press than their female colleagues (3.3 mentions, SD = 5.2).

162 Almost two thirds (66.5%) of academics mentioned in the media were professors or emeriti.
163 Predocs received slightly more media attention than postdocs in absolute numbers, but slightly
164 less on average (2.6 mentions, SD = 4.0 vs 3.4 mentions, SD = 7.9). Almost half (47.5%) of
165 academics mentioned in the media had produced a total of 51 publications or more. More than
166 half (57.6%) of academics mentioned in the media had 11 or more years of experience in the
167 academic system.

168 Table 1. Descriptive characteristics of active academics from FRIS, with sample mentioned in
169 media (> 0) and sample cited in policy (> 0).

Variables	NFRIS2019		n _{media}				n _{policy}			
	N	%	n	%	M	SD	n	%	M	SD
Sector ^a										
NATU	4369	14.5	252	10.3	3.4	4.8	677	12.4	13.7	28.7
ENGI	5723	18.9	238	9.7	3.6	7.5	662	12.1	7.9	14.6
MEDI	7991	26.4	660	26.9	5.4	14.2	2230	40.9	13.0	32.3
AGRI	1231	4.1	70	2.9	2.9	2.5	241	4.4	20.7	38.1
SOCI	6829	22.6	772	31.5	7.4	20.9	1483	27.2	13.6	38.2
HUMA	3096	10.2	345	14.1	6.3	23.7	116	2.1	4.4	6.8
Other	987	3.3	114	4.7	3.3	4.4	43	0.8	3.1	4.6
Academic age										
< 1	–	–	37	1.5	2.6	4.2	34	0.6	3.2	3.7
1 – 5	–	–	446	18.2	2.8	4.4	795	17.6	3.9	6.3
6 – 10	–	–	558	22.8	3.4	5.1	1282	23.5	6.5	12.2
11 – 20	–	–	830	33.9	6.0	17.0	2209	40.5	13.5	29.8
21 – 50	–	–	575	23.5	9.6	26.7	1122	20.6	24.4	52.1
51 +	–	–	5	0.2	9.8	14.9	10	0.2	45.9	90.4
Gender										
Female	12404	41.0	729	29.7	3.3	5.2	2040	37.4	8.7	19.4
Male	16415	54.3	1722	70.3	6.6	19.6	3412	62.6	15.1	37.4
Undefined	1406	4.7	0	–	–	–	0	–	–	–
Seniority										
Predoc ^b	–	–	474	19.3	2.6	4.0	821	15.1	3.2	5.1
Postdoc	–	–	344	14.0	3.4	7.9	1167	21.4	6.0	10.1
Professor ^c	–	–	1496	61.0	6.9	20.3	3088	56.6	16.4	37.4
Emeritus	–	–	134	5.5	7.8	15.6	354	6.5	25.4	50.7
Undefined	–	–	3	0.1	2.7	2.1	22	0.4	4.9	6.8
Total publications (FRIS)										
0	9532	31.5	110	4.5	–	–	0	–	–	–
1 – 5	7798	25.8	253	10.3	–	–	390	7.2	–	–
6 – 10	2927	9.7	168	6.9	–	–	403	7.4	–	–
11 – 20	2759	9.1	263	10.7	–	–	651	11.9	–	–
21 – 50	3277	10.8	493	20.1	–	–	1330	24.4	–	–
51 – 100	1969	6.5	486	19.8	–	–	1173	21.5	–	–
100 +	1964	6.5	678	27.7	–	–	1505	27.6	–	–
Total										
Total	30226	100	2451	100	5.6	16.8	5452	100	12.7	32.0

170 Note ^a. Natural sciences (NATU), Engineering and Technology (ENGI),
171 Medical and Health sciences (MEDI), Agricultural and Veterinary sciences (AGRI),
172 Social sciences (SOC), Humanities and the Arts (HUMA), based on Vancauwenbergh and Poelmans
173 (2019). ^b Includes medical doctors (MD). ^c Includes guest professors.

174 Regarding policy documents, 5452 of 30226 (18.0%) academics' publications got cited at least
175 once according to Overton, with 12.7 (SD = 32.0) citations on average. Compared to sector
176 proportions at Flemish universities, academics from Medical and Health sciences (26.4% of
177 university personnel vs 40.9% in cited in policy) and Social sciences (22.6% vs 27.2%) were
178 overrepresented in policy documents. Academics from Engineering and Technology (18.9% vs
179 12.1%) and Humanities and the Arts (10.2% vs 2.1%) were underrepresented in policy
180 documents. Publications of male academics (15.1 citations (SD = 37.4)) got cited on average
181 almost twice as often in policy-related documents than publications of their female colleagues
182 (8.7 citations, SD = 19.4). Almost two thirds (63.1%) of academics cited in policy documents
183 were professors or emeriti. As seniority increases to professorship, the proportion of academics
184 cited in policy documents increases. Almost half (49.1%) of academics had produced a total of
185 51 publications or more. Almost two thirds (61.3%) of academics cited in policy documents
186 had 11 or more years of experience in the academic system.

187 To find factors determining media visibility (n = 2451) and cited research in policy documents
188 (n = 5452), two negative binomial regressions were run. We chose to work with these models
189 even though both media and policy counts were characterised by major yet meaningful outliers,
190 incrementally removing the outliers would almost completely erode both variables. Both
191 predictions were based on data on research sector, gender (0 = male; 1 = female), academic age
192 and total number of scientific publications, as provided by FRIS.

193 3 Results

194 The first negative binomial regression for media (see Table 2) was found to be significant
195 (Likelihood Ratio $\chi^2 = 704.327(12)$, $p < .001$). For every extra scientific publication
196 published, the probability of getting mentioned once a year in the media is 0.04% ($p = .078$).
197 For every added year of experience in the academic system, the probability of getting mentioned
198 once a year in the media is 0.3% ($p < .001$). Professors' probability of being mentioned once a
199 year in the written press is 71.7% ($p < .001$) with emeriti as a reference group, significantly
200 more compared to postdocs (1.276 ($p = .069$)) and predocs (1.133 ($p = .368$)). For male
201 academics, there is a predicted increase of 59.2% ($p < .001$) in yearly media mentions with
202 female academics as a reference category. Compared to academics from HUMA, academics
203 from other sectors appeared significantly less in the media, apart from academics from
204 SOCI (1.103; $p = .171$).

205 Table 2. Negative binomial regression model for media mentions (dependent), sectors, gender,
206 experience and publications (n = 2451).

	Exp(β)	95% CI	
		Lower	Upper
Intercept	1.724***	1.274	2.333
Sector			
Other	.710**	.557	.907
NATU	.552***	.459	.666
ENGI	.506***	.417	.613
MEDI	.780**	.672	.906
AGRI	.457***	.336	.621
SOCI	1.103	.959	1.270
HUMA	1	–	–
Experience			
Academic age	1.032***	1.026	1.038
Gender			
Male	1.592***	1.436	1.766
Female	1	–	–
Publications			
Total publications	1.000	1.000	1.001
Seniority			
Predoc	1.133	.861	1.486
Postdoc	1.276	.966	1.659
Professor	1.717***	1.376	2.127
Emeritus	1	–	–

207 Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Deviance = 2632.728. $df = 2435$. AIC = 13087.940.

208 The second negative binomial regression for policy (see Table 3) was found to be significant
209 (Likelihood Ratio $\chi^2 = 3436.974(12)$, $p < .001$). For every extra scientific publication
210 published, the probability of getting cited once in policy documents is 0.5% ($p < .001$). For
211 every added year of experience in the academic system, the probability of getting cited once in
212 policy documents is 3.1% ($p < .001$). Professors' predicted policy citations is decreased with
213 7.0% ($p = .242$) with emeriti as a reference group, more compared to postdocs (.716 ($p < .001$))
214 and predocs (.456 ($p < .001$)). For male academics, there is a predicted increase of 12.1%
215 ($p < .001$) in policy citations compared to female academics. Compared to academics from

216 HUMA, academics from other sectors were cited significantly more in policy documents,
 217 especially academics from AGRI (3.329; $p < .001$) and SOCI (3.332; $p < .001$).

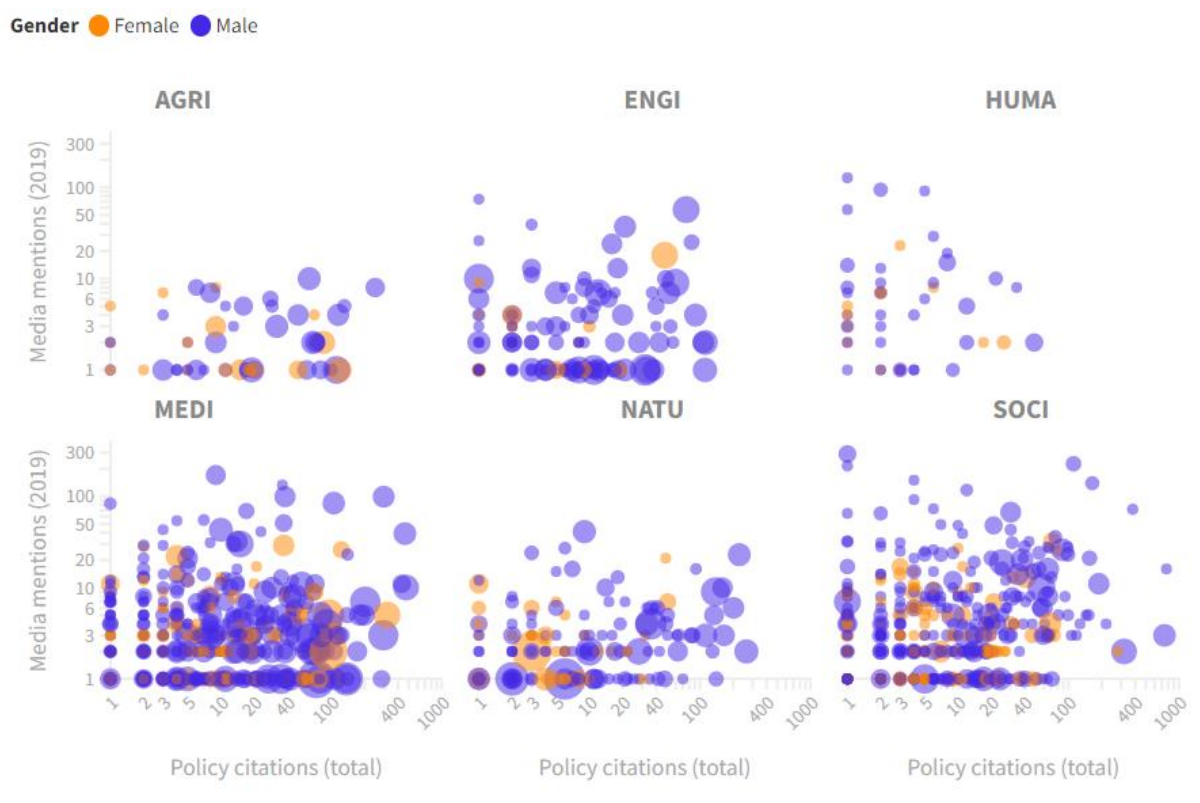
218 Table 3. Negative binomial regression model for policy citations (dependent), sectors, gender,
 219 experience and publications (n = 5452).

	Exp(β)	95% CI	
		Lower	Upper
Intercept	1.866***	1.438	2.422
Sector			
Other	.895	.600	1.335
NATU	2.662***	2.132	3.323
ENGI	1.414**	1.130	1.769
MEDI	2.378***	1.924	2.940
AGRI	3.329***	2.604	4.257
SOCI	3.332***	2.693	4.124
HUMA	1	–	–
Experience			
Academic age	1.031***	1.027	1.035
Gender			
Male	1.121***	1.054	1.194
Female	1	–	–
Publications			
Total publications	1.005***	1.004	1.005
Seniority			
Predoc	.456***	.391	.533
Postdoc	.716***	.621	.826
Professor	.930	.824	1.050
Emeritus	1	–	–

220 Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Deviance = 6393.632. df = 5416. AIC = 35494.582.

221 Results show highly skewed distributions for both media mentions and policy citations (see
 222 Figure 1), with the outliers being predominantly male academics in SOCI and MEDI (and
 223 HUMA for media). Only a handful of male academics from SOCI and MEDI accomplished
 224 both high media mentions and policy citations. The data show that most academics either
 225 appeared more frequently in the media and were less cited in policy documents, or were cited
 226 more in policy documents and appeared less in the media.

227 Results also reveal that media mentions and policy citations clearly vary by academic sector.
228 This is clearly illustrated by academics from AGRI, who were clearly cited in policy documents
229 but barely attracted media attention. Moreover, the policy citations model predicts a strong
230 significant effect (3.320; $p < .001$) for academics active in this relatively small sector (4.1% in
231 Flanders; Table 1). In contrast, HUMA academics were visible mainly in the media, but their
232 publications were scarcely cited in policy documents. Academics active in ENGI and NATU
233 sectors were present in media and policy, but to a much lesser extent compared to other sectors.
234 Figure 1. Flemish academics' media mentions and policy citations by academic sector
235 (logarithmic scale), coloured by gender. One dot stands for one academic visible in at least
236 media or policy ($n = 6605$). Dot size stands for total publications. Chart created with [Flourish](#).



237
238 As visibility clearly varies by academic sector, Spearman's correlations were calculated
239 between total scientific publications, media mentions and policy citations per sector (see

240 Table 4). Positive correlations between publications and policy citations seem significantly
 241 stronger compared to publications and media mentions (see Figure S2 in Supplementary
 242 materials). Academics who had published more, saw their research being moderately more cited
 243 in policy documents, with the relatively strongest correlations for academics from
 244 MEDI ($\rho = .548(2412)$, $p < .001$) and AGRI ($\rho = .561(257)$, $p < .001$). The relationship
 245 between publishing more and receiving popular media attention appears to be positive as well
 246 for academics in different sectors (see Figure S1 in Supplementary materials), but much weaker.
 247 The weaker and non-significant correlations for academics working in NATU ($\rho = .087(781)$,
 248 $p = .014$), ENGI ($\rho = .040(773)$, $p = .269$) and HUMA ($\rho = .090(413)$, $p = .067$) show no
 249 overall tendency to either increase or decrease for the total amount of publications. Finally, the
 250 relationship between media mentions and policy citations shows to be rather negative for most
 251 sectors. Hence, media mentions (policy citations) tend to decrease as policy citations (media
 252 mentions) rise.

253 Table 4. Spearman's correlations between publications, media mentions and policy citations
 254 per sector.

Sector	ρ Publications media	ρ Publications policy	ρ Media policy
NATU (n = 783)	.087	.355***	-.146***
ENGI (n = 775)	.040	.432***	-.212***
MEDI (n = 2415)	.120***	.548***	-.057**
AGRI (n = 259)	.190**	.561***	.009
SOCI (n = 1806)	.159***	.405***	-.180***
HUMA (n = 415)	.090	.263***	-.340***
Other (n = 152)	-.216**	.532***	-.640***
Total (n = 6605)	.042***	.455***	-.237***

255 Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

256 4 Discussion

257 This study produces a first snapshot of academics' media presence and policy impact in the case
 258 for Flemish academics, based on FRIS data. It is a first attempt to collect media mentions and

259 policy citations for academics at the scale of universities. The question here is who appears in
260 the written press, who gets cited in policy documents, and what the extent is to which media
261 attention leads to policy impact. Several factors at micro and macro level interact here, that
262 explain the variance in both proxies for visibility. This study points to the importance of
263 following results for discussion: 1) the limited presence of researchers in both proxies of
264 visibility, 2) how both proxies are characterised by outliers with hardly any overlap, 3) the
265 embeddedness of visibility in distinct sectors, and 4) the role of individual researchers.

266 4.1 Going public: breaking a norm of invisibility?

267 While there is a widespread emphasis on science communication to the public by universities,
268 research institutes and policymakers (Joubert & Weingart, 2019), the data presented in this
269 study show that only a minority of researchers go public. Less than one fifth (18.0%; cf. Table
270 1) of academics' publications were cited in policy documents, and only a small minority (8.1%;
271 cf. Table 1) of researchers appear in domestic written news media. As even less academics
272 succeed at solidifying a habitual presence in newspaper reporting, the results of this study
273 seemingly confirm previous observations regarding the preference given to heroic scientists
274 (Cairney & Oliver, 2018; Dunlop, 2018); an excellent scientist + demonstrable impact = good
275 PR for the institution, increasing the public understanding of science in the process. This study
276 highlights not a widespread practice of visibility, but rather a widespread phenomenon of
277 invisibility. At first glance, these results might suggest that the invisibility of many reinforces
278 the heroism of a few – at the expense of the invisibility of many others – indicating *winner*s and
279 *losers* in the context of an *attention economy* (Franck, 1999). However, this assumes that
280 everyone aims to gain visibility. An alternative explanation is that many scientists simply do
281 not want to go public and thus exclude themselves from this practice. Both explanations involve
282 different considerations: 1) if scientists go public, the whereabouts of the Matthew's effects

283 (Merton, 1968) come into question, and 2) in a scenario where invisibility is common, the
284 reason behind scientists not actively pursuing visibility become apparent.

285 Perhaps not every academic is eager to seek publicity with new findings and insights, regardless
286 of the policy efforts to encourage them to do so. Indeed, popular science communication to a
287 wide, *lay* audience deviates from an implicit norm in the scientific community, as Weingart
288 (2022) argues. Communicating science in the narrow sense – where reporting to peers forms
289 the bedrock of the system – differs from science communication in the broad sense, where
290 scientists (should) address the public directly. In the first case, a degree of due process and peer
291 review is involved, whereas this mechanism is skipped when science communication is
292 practiced in the broader sense (Bucchi, 1996). Hence, not all scientists feel equipped to
293 participate in this fundamentally different form of communication (Weingart, 2022). In a
294 general sense, the results of this exploratory analyses give empirical credibility to the suggestion
295 that hesitancy among scientists to seek publicity outside of the scholarly environment is more
296 widespread than often assumed. This, in turn, troubles the considerable emphasis policymakers
297 and research administrators have continued to place on science communication and
298 popularisation since the turn of the century (Miller, 2001). On an institutional level, the
299 expansion of science’s publics is fuelled by a logic of PR, where “the task is no longer to merely
300 inform the public via press releases about new advances in research but to forge a brand of the
301 university, to create an institutional identity through PR in order to convince policymakers of
302 its unique value.” (Weingart, 2022, p. 292). This *medialisation of science* highlights a conflict,
303 Weingart (2022) argues: because of its paradoxical nature, a meticulous logic of
304 *organized scepticism* to produce solid knowledge (*truth*) meets a more flashing logic of
305 *looks good (news)* to gain trust of stakeholders (Gioia & Corley, 2002). The clashing of media
306 logic with scientific logic (see Grafström et al. (2022, pp. 4-5) for a detailed overview) is

307 important to explain resistance or scepticism amongst researchers to engage with the media
308 (Peters, 2012); this is illustrated in this study by a small minority of only 8.1% of active
309 researchers who actively engage with the media, while a majority of 91.9% remained silent in
310 the written press.

311 Regarding policy citations, the results show a higher prevalence compared to the written press;
312 with almost one fifth (18.0%) of researchers getting cited at least once in policy documents.
313 With the relationship being quite weak between prominence in popular media and policy
314 citations, it seems that gaining media visibility works under a distinct set of principles than
315 achieving policy impact. When it comes to policy impact, citations to scientific publications are
316 a passive and bibliometric pursuit. On the other hand, obtaining media attention necessitates a
317 more active and deliberate approach towards engaging with journalists, and a willingness to
318 answer ad hoc questions not necessarily related to one's own expertise.

319 4.2 From media visibility to policy use: media stars or policy pillars?

320 Results from this study show that coupling high media prominence with high policy impact is
321 very exceptional: only a few academics (out of 30226 active ones) were able to combine a
322 relatively high media visibility with a relatively high number of publications cited by
323 policymakers. One medical professor for instance, was appointed by the government as
324 chairperson of scientific committees responsible for several disease outbreaks in the past. He
325 gained public visibility due to his (controversial) opinion pieces and tweets on a wide variety
326 of topics. Another case is a professor in the social sciences, who writes two-weekly columns
327 about economic issues. A third case is a mediagenic professor in the social sciences with a
328 specific communication talent of turning things that everyone already knows into refreshing
329 new insights.

330 This study highlights it is more common for researchers to distinguish themselves either in
331 terms of their media presence or in terms of their policy recognition. On the media side, the
332 results of this study point to the well-known figure of the *public intellectual* or *celebrity*
333 *scientist*. Previous studies demonstrated that these are most likely older (Greenwood & Riordan,
334 2001) male academics (Fahy & Lewenstein, 2021), that often rank among a scientific elite
335 (Boltanski & Malidier, 1970; Dudo, 2012; Jensen et al., 2008; Peters, 2013). They have an
336 accessible communication style (Goodell, 1977), and habitually comment on topics beyond
337 their area of expertise in the strict sense (Bucchi & Trench, 2016). This can attract criticism
338 from their peers (Fahy & Lewenstein, 2021), breaking a technocratic norm of *stick to what you*
339 *know*. Of course, a highly visible scientist is not necessarily a celebrity (Bucchi, 2014). Some
340 highly visible scientists (temporarily) rise to prominence because their expertise matches a hot
341 topic but who do not choose to become celebrities. These should be distinguished from those
342 who have a capacity to use (or exploit) media logic to draw media attention to themselves (van
343 Krieken, 2018), engage in self-promotional activities on social media (Duffy & Pooley, 2017;
344 Hall, 2014), blur their professional and private lives (Fahy & Lewenstein, 2021), and manage
345 media attention for strategic purposes (Bucchi, 2014; Fahy & Lewenstein, 2021; Olesk, 2021;
346 Peters, 2013). Closer investigation of these media stars in this study, shows that these high
347 media mentions were anchored in columns, where academics were given the space to produce
348 opinions on a weekly basis on potentially any topic. Although it is noteworthy to mention that
349 the results of this study do not point to public intellectuals active in NATU, ENGI and AGRI, it
350 would be misleading to assume that public intellectuals are restricted by disciplinary
351 boundaries, as they by definition transcend these boundaries and are able to translate their
352 expertise to potentially any topic (Jensen et al., 2008).

353 On the policy side, a much more discreet policy expert reveals itself. These *policy pillars*,
354 mostly from MEDI, are highly cited in policy documents, with two economics professors – both
355 in the top 5% of economists worldwide (*Top 10% Authors (Last 10 Years Publications)*, as of
356 *May 2023, 2024*) – forming distinct outliers. These academics may not leak intimate details
357 about their private life into the press but influence policies *behind the scenes*. One of them, for
358 example, founded a research institute on policy-oriented research and socio-economic
359 development of regions, the other has been an advisor for many international institutions and
360 governments. This is one possible explanation, though it remains unclear what strategies,
361 practices or policies have fostered closer links between these academics and policymaking.
362 Concluding, researchers' characteristics – especially regarding those who are featured the media
363 frequently – are important, but there are also other factors that determine the extent to which
364 researchers receive or do not receive the attention of media and policy, not in the least sector
365 and disciplinary differences.

366 4.3 Sector differences: some sectors offer easier pathways to visibility

367 Although going public might not be embedded in the scientific community (Weingart, 2022),
368 this study highlights how certain sectors offer easier pathways to visibility. More dominant
369 sectors can be distinguished for more discrete disciplines here: while academics from SOCI,
370 MEDI and HUMA appear relatively more in the media, this appears to be much less clear for
371 academics from AGRI and ENGI. In turn, academics' publications from AGRI, SOCI and
372 MEDI are relatively more reflected in policy, while publications from HUMA are hardly cited
373 in policy documents. An explanation may lay in the existence of distinct logics, where the
374 science-media interface has different norms and rules than the science-policy interface.
375 Researchers whose studies focus on certain themes that often appear in news cycles (like
376 economics or politics) or are core competences of certain policy domains (such as agricultural

377 sciences or medical sciences (see: Fang et al. (2020); (Szomszor & Adie, 2022)) are by
378 definition more likely to gain visibility in one of the two domains. This illustrates that there is
379 great variation in policy sensitivity across sectors and institutions (Li et al., 2022). Overlap is
380 certainly possible but nevertheless seems rare. In addition, there are other elements that may or
381 may not give certain individuals a structural advantage compared to other colleagues.

382 4.4 The role of the researcher: who are the established experts?

383 Apart from the disciplinary discrepancies that characterise media attention and policy citations,
384 this study also highlights how individual characteristics can decide whether academics can step
385 out of anonymity. Experience (seniority) plays a crucial role in this (Boltanski & Maldivier,
386 1970; Greenwood & Riordan, 2001; Jensen et al., 2008). The relatively low explanatory power
387 of publications – especially in the case of media mentions – lies in the fact that this study
388 compares all academics, more specifically across academic ages and experiences. Hence, the
389 fact that only a minority of academics in Flanders is visible in media and policy is largely
390 explained by the relatively large presence of academics who have barely published, as more
391 than half (57.5% cf. Table 1) of academics in the dataset have published 5 publications or less.
392 At the very beginning of their career, academics will hardly have any output and will obviously
393 be less visible to journalists and policymakers, while established experts are clearly favoured
394 in media and are naturally more citable in policy documents, as there is more expertise to call
395 on and more material to cite. As experience and expertise grows, an increase in publications
396 will most probably have the strongest effect on visibility in the beginning of the career, while
397 the effect flattens out at astronomic numbers of publications.

398 However, it is not those who have published the most in the academic system who emerge from
399 this study as *impact heroes* (Dunlop, 2018). Publishing more scientific output has a slightly
400 stronger effect citation counts in policy documents (see Table 3) than getting media attention

401 (Table 2). The link between publishing more and getting more cited in policy documents is
402 evidently much more direct, while media interactions are likely explained by other factors, such
403 as personality characteristics (Fahy, 2017; Goodell, 1977), time availability (Peters, 2008;
404 Valinciute, 2020), willingness (Besley et al., 2019), topicality, controversy and successful
405 interactions with journalists in the past (Bond & Hubner, 2022; Jensen et al., 2008). It is
406 therefore not strange to assume that journalists are not that interested in the latest publication
407 rather than the opinion of a seasoned academic with known expertise on current affairs topics.

408 Furthermore, the fact that fewer women were found in both media and policy documents and
409 female public intellectuals are absent in these results could have several explanations. A recent
410 study of German professors (Puttmann et al., 2022) has highlighted how the risk of publicity is
411 perceived to be higher for female academics, where (online) hostility may be more severe.
412 Moreover, Puttmann et al. (2022) found a similar result for younger researchers. If women are
413 younger than men in the same segment of their academic careers, are less present in certain
414 academic sectors (most notably STEM) due to gender expectations, their share declines as
415 academic hierarchy rises (cf. the *leaky pipeline* (Clark Blickenstaff, 2006)). As media seem to
416 favour well-known established experts and men are profiled as experts more frequently (Niemi
417 & Pitkanen, 2017), structural factors then cause fewer female academics to be covered in the
418 media. Here another a case of the Matthew effect (Bucchi, 2014) emerges, where the unknown
419 (female) experts remain unknown with journalists, while already visible (male) experts become
420 more popular with the wider public every year.

421 Regardless of gender, a *junior effect* can be noticed: with almost a fifth (19.0%; cf. Table 1)
422 media coverage of junior researchers, they clearly stand out to journalists even though they
423 have little experience. This raises questions about distinctive approaches in the supervision of
424 research: do supervisors function as a gatekeeper and opt to attend to queries by journalists

425 themselves (as coordinator of the research) or pass it on to junior research in question with the
426 hands-on research expertise appropriate for the topic at hand.

427 These findings are also relevant in the context of research evaluation. At least part of the push
428 away from traditional bibliometric indicators is driven by the need for a more holistic view of
429 scientific excellence (Sivertsen & Meijer, 2020; Smit & Hessels, 2021), where science
430 communication through mainstream media is habitually suggested as a proxy for societal
431 impact (Fecher & Hebing, 2021; Kassab, 2019). If the growing belief that science should be
432 *open, public* and *impactful* is to be rewarded in some way, it raises the question of how to deal
433 with these structural effects when certain subjects, disciplines and sectors structurally offer
434 easier pathways to visibility. If the promise of alternative indicators is increased inclusion in
435 research evaluation, then simply counting media mentions and policy citations is not a desirable
436 strategy, as this broadening of indicators will be biased and would paradoxically replicate
437 existing inequalities in academia.

438 4.5 Limitations

439 This paper has several limitations. Firstly, the information in FRIS depends on universities
440 supplying their data in current research information systems (CRIS). This means that the list of
441 active researchers in 2019 is likely not exhaustive. In 49 cases, no scientific publications were
442 supplied even though this was expected due to the existence of policy citations. These cases
443 were queried in Web of Science to supply the total number of scientific publications. The
444 question also arises to what extent FRIS publications are consistent to large databases such as
445 Web of Science or Scopus. In 736 cases, the start date had to be corrected as it was earlier than
446 expected. These cases were corrected with date of first publication.

447 Secondly, due to the relative high media concentration in Flanders (Hendrickx & Ranaivoson,
448 2019), some newspaper articles had the exact same content even though the newspaper was
449 different. Because of the duopoly in the newspaper market in Flanders, content within the same
450 press house is often recycled. Therefore, not every media mention is an equally *substantial*
451 mention (see: Jonker et al. (2022)); this means that high media profiles are likely to be slightly
452 inflated. Additionally, 2019 was an election year, with increased demand for social science
453 expertise.

454 Thirdly, Overton states in their search engine that its underlying database OpenAlex is missing
455 around 20% of author affiliations, especially for researchers that do not use persistent
456 identifiers, and research before 2009 becomes harder to find. Another important implication of
457 is how Overton tends to index policy documents, and which documents it entails in terms of
458 publication year, source type and source region (see: Szomszor and Adie (2022) for a detailed
459 analysis on various aspects of the database). We used name matching to link FRIS academics
460 to authors cited, where small errors cannot be avoided entirely. These factors mean that the
461 proportion of Flemish academics cited in Overton is likely to be slightly higher. A more general
462 limitation is that a policy document citing a publication is only one aspect of the broader concept
463 of attention of policymakers for scientific studies. Lastly, further research can look at how
464 policy documents cite (which) academic publications, as this might differ from academic citing
465 behaviour. Further research could also look at the content of media – and policy documents.

466 **Data availability**

467 Data from FRIS is open-sourced and can be found [here](#). An anonymized and limited dataset is
468 available [here](#) (Jonker & Derom, 2024). [BelgaPress](#) and [Overton](#) are commercial databases that
469 provided access to their platforms. The authors did not use unaggregated BelgaPress and

470 Overton data. Enquiries about the raw unaggregated data should be directed to the proprietary
471 owners of BelgaPress and Overton.

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476 **Author contributions**

477 Conceptualization: HJ, FV; Formal Analysis: HJ. Investigation: HJ. Methodology: HJ.
478 Supervision: FV. Visualization: HJ. Writing – original draft: HJ, FV. Writing – review & editing:
479 HJ, FV.

480 **Competing interest**

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