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# Towards computational reproducibility: researcher perspectives on the use and sharing of software

Yasmin Alnoamany <sup>Corresp., 1</sup>, John A. Borghi <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> University of California, Berkeley, United States

<sup>2</sup> California Digital Library

Corresponding Author: Yasmin Alnoamany  
Email address: yasminal@berkeley.edu

Research software, which includes both the source code and executables used as part of the research process, presents a significant challenge for efforts aimed at ensuring reproducibility. In order to inform such efforts, we conducted a survey to better understand the characteristics of research software as well as how it is created, used, and shared by researchers. Based on the responses of 215 participants, representing a range of research disciplines, we found that researchers create, use, and share software in a wide variety of forms for a wide variety of purposes, including data collection, data analysis, data visualization, data cleaning and organization, and automation. More participants indicated that they use open source software than commercial software. While a relatively small number of programming languages (e.g. Python, R, JavaScript, C++, Matlab) are used by a large number, there is a long tail of languages used by relatively few. Between group comparisons revealed that significantly more participants from computer science write source code and create executables than participants from other disciplines. Group comparisons related to knowledge of best practices related to software creation or sharing were not significant. While many participants indicated that they draw a distinction between the sharing and preservation of software, related practices and perceptions were often not aligned with those of the broader scholarly communications community.

# 1 Towards Computational Reproducibility: 2 Researcher Perspectives on the Use and 3 Sharing of Software

4 Yasmin AlNoamany<sup>1</sup> and John A. Borghi<sup>2</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup>University of California, Berkeley

6 <sup>2</sup>California Digital Library

7 Corresponding author:

8 Yasmin AlNoamany<sup>1</sup>

9 Email address: yasminal@berkeley.edu

## 10 ABSTRACT

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12 process, presents a significant challenge for efforts aimed at ensuring reproducibility. In order to inform  
13 such efforts, we conducted a survey to better understand the characteristics of research software as  
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20 tail of languages used by relatively few. Between group comparisons revealed that significantly more  
21 participants from computer science write source code and create executables than participants from  
22 other disciplines. Group comparisons related to knowledge of best practices related to software creation  
23 or sharing were not significant. While many participants indicated that they draw a distinction between  
24 the sharing and preservation of software, related practices and perceptions were often not aligned with  
25 those of the broader scholarly communications community.

## 26 1 INTRODUCTION

27 Research software is a important consideration when addressing concerns related to reproducibility (Hong  
28 (2011); Hong (2014); Stodden et al. (2014); Goble (2014)). Effective management and sharing of software  
29 saves time, increases transparency, and advances science (Prlić and Procter (2012)). At present, there are  
30 several converging efforts to ensure that software is positioned as a “first class” research object that is  
31 maintained, assessed, and cited in a similar fashion as scholarly publications (e.g. NIH (2016); Katz et al.  
32 (2013); Ram et al. (2017); Crouch et al. (2013)). However, while there is a burgeoning literature exploring  
33 the actives of researchers in relation to materials like data (Tenopir et al. (2015); Tenopir et al. (2015);  
34 Monteith et al. (2014); Kim and Stanton (2016)), those related to software have received less attention.  
35 Specifically, we have been unable to find a study that thoroughly examines how researchers use, share and  
36 value their software.

37 In this paper we report the results of a survey designed to capture researcher practices and perceptions  
38 related to software. Survey questions addressed a variety of topics including:

- 39 1. What are the characteristics of research software?
- 40 2. How do researchers use software?
- 41 3. To what extent do current practices related to software align with those related to reproducibility?
- 42 4. How do researchers share software?

## 43 5. How do researchers preserve software?

44 After filtering, 215 researchers participated in our survey. Overall, our results demonstrate that  
45 researchers create software using a wide variety of programming languages, use software for a wide  
46 variety of purposes, have adopted some- but not all- practices recommended to address reproducibility,  
47 often share software outside of traditional scholarly communication channels, and generally do not  
48 actively preserve their software. Participants from computer science reported that they write source code  
49 and create executables significantly more than participants from other disciplines. However, other group  
50 comparisons largely did not reach statistical significance.

51 In the following sections, we provide a more detailed description of our findings. We start with  
52 an overview of the related literature (Section 2) then a description of our survey instrument and the  
53 demographic characteristics of our participants (Section 3; Section 4). In section 5, we describe our  
54 findings related to the characteristics of research software and its usage. Responses to questions involving  
55 reproducibility-related practices are detailed in Section 6. Section 7 outlines the responses to questions  
56 related to software sharing and preservation. We discuss the implications of our findings in Section 8.  
57 Finally, Section 9 contains a discussion of future work.

## 58 2 RELATED WORK

59 While there is an emerging body of research examining researcher practices, perceptions, and priorities  
60 for products like data (Fecher et al. (2015); Kratz and Strasser (2015); Tenopir et al. (2011); Tenopir  
61 et al. (2015)), work related to software has generally focused on how it is found, adopted, and credited  
62 (Howison and Bullard (2015b); Hucka and Graham (2016); Joppa et al. (2013)). For example, research  
63 examining the re-use of software demonstrates that the most common difficulty for users looking for  
64 software is a lack of documentation and that finding software is a difficult task even within technology  
65 companies (Sadowski et al. (2015)). However, as software is increasingly central to the research process  
66 (Borgman et al. (2012)), understanding its characteristics, its use, and the related practices and perceptions  
67 of researchers is an essential component of addressing reproducibility.

68 The term “reproducibility” has been applied to a variety of efforts aimed at addressing the misalignment  
69 between good research practices, including those emphasizing transparency and methodological rigor,  
70 and the academic reward system, which generally emphasizes the publication of novel and positive  
71 results (Nosek et al. (2012); Munafò et al. (2017)). Attempts to provide a cohesive lexicon for describing  
72 reproducibility-related activities are described elsewhere (Goodman et al. (2016)) but *computational*  
73 *reproducibility* generally refers to the description and sharing of software tools and data in such a  
74 manner as to enable their use and evaluation by others (Stodden et al. (2013)). Efforts aimed at fostering  
75 computational reproducibility are often focused on the sharing of source code but may also include the  
76 establishment of best practice guidelines related to how software tools are described, cited, and licensed  
77 (e.g. Stodden et al. (2016)).

78 Because of the costs of irreproducibility, there have been numerous calls urging researchers to more  
79 thoroughly describe and share their software (Barnes (2010); Ince et al. (2012); Joppa et al. (2013);  
80 Morin et al. (2012a)). Such calls are increasingly backed by mandates from funding agencies. For  
81 example, the Wellcome Trust now expects that grant recipients make available “any original software  
82 that is required to view datasets or to replicate analyses” (Wellcome (2017)). In parallel, a myriad of  
83 guidelines, tools, and organizations have emerged to help researchers address issues related to their  
84 software. Software-related best practices have been outlined for both individuals working in specific  
85 research disciplines (Eglen et al. (2017); Marwick (2017)) and for the research community in general  
86 (e.g. Piccolo and Frampton (2016); Sandve et al. (2013); Jimenez et al. (2017)). Literate programming  
87 tools such as Jupyter notebooks (Perez and Granger (2007)) allow researchers to combine data, code,  
88 comments, and outputs (e.g., figures and tables) in a human-readable fashion, while packaging and  
89 containerization platforms such as ReproZip (Chirigati et al. (2013)) and Docker (Boettiger (2015)) enable  
90 the tracking, bundling, and sharing of all of the software libraries and dependencies associated with  
91 a research project. Through their integration with Github (<https://github.com/>), services like  
92 Figshare (<https://figshare.com/>) and Zenodo (<https://zenodo.org/>) allow researchers  
93 to deposit, archive, and receive persistent identifiers for their software. Training researchers to better  
94 develop, use, and maintain software tools is the primary focus of community organizations including  
95 The Carpentries (Wilson (2006); Teal et al. (2015)) and the Software Sustainability Institute (Crouch

96 et al. (2013)) while scholarly communications-focused organizations such as Force11 have published  
97 guidelines for describing and citing software (Smith et al. (2016)).

98 As is evident in the above description, reproducibility-related efforts involving software often, but not  
99 always, overlap with those related to data. However, software presents a number of unique challenges  
100 compared to data and other research products. Even defining the bounds of the term “software” is  
101 challenging. For example, the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) defines software as  
102 “Computer programs and associated data that may be dynamically written or modified during execution.”  
103 (Kissel et al. (2011)), a definition that is as recursive as it is potentially confusing for researchers without a  
104 background in computer science or software development. Software involves highly interdependent source  
105 and binary components that are sensitive to changes in operating environment and are difficult to track  
106 (Thain et al. (2015)). Evaluating the validity and reliability of software often requires inspecting source  
107 code, which is not possible when proprietary licenses are applied (Morin et al. (2012b); Stodden (2009)).  
108 Even when source code is technically available, important information about versions, parameters, and  
109 runtime environments is often missing from the scholarly record (Howison and Bullard (2015b); Pan et al.  
110 (2016); Stodden et al. (2013)). Seemingly small alterations, even for well described and openly available  
111 software tools, can lead to significant effects on analytical outputs (McCarthy et al. (2014)), a problem  
112 exacerbated by the fact that researchers often have minimal formal training in software development  
113 practices (Hannay et al. (2009); Joppa et al. (2013); Prabhu et al. (2011)). The iterative and collaborative  
114 nature of software development also means that it does not fit easily within existing academic incentive  
115 structures (Hafer and Kirkpatrick (2009); Howison and Herbsleb (2011); Howison and Herbsleb (2013)).

116 Research software is a growing concern for research service providers, including those affiliated with  
117 academic institutions. Often through workshops facilitated by The Carpentries, many have begun to  
118 provide guidance and training to researchers looking to create and use software tools. Services related  
119 to the preservation of software have also been explored by some academic libraries (e.g. Rios (2016)).  
120 However, these activities remain relatively nascent and it is presently unclear what a mature set of  
121 services related to research software and computational reproducibility might look like. By identifying  
122 the characteristics of research software, its uses, and elucidating the related practices and perceptions of  
123 researchers, we hope to establish a benchmark that can be applied to inform the development of such  
124 services in the future.

## 125 **3 METHODS**

126 In order to understand researcher practices and perceptions related to software and computational repro-  
127 ducibility, we designed and disseminated an online survey via the Qualtrics platform ([www.qualtrics.com](http://www.qualtrics.com)).  
128 The survey was advertised through blog posts, social media, and research-related email lists and  
129 listservs. Because the survey was distributed using different communication channels, we could not  
130 calculate the response rate. In Section 4, we detail the demographics of the survey’s participants.

131 All study materials and procedures were approved by the University of California Berkeley Committee  
132 for Protection of Human Subjects and Office for the Protection of Human Subjects (protocol ID 2016-  
133 11-9358). The full text of the survey can be found in the supplementary materials. Before beginning  
134 the survey, participants were required to read and give their informed consent to participate. After  
135 reading the informed consent form (see survey), participants indicated their consent by checking a  
136 box. Information from participants who did not check this box was removed from all subsequent  
137 analyses. An anonymized version of our survey results (AlNoamany and Borghi (2018a)) as well  
138 as the code we used for its analysis (AlNoamany and Borghi (2018b)) are also available on Github  
139 (<https://github.com/yasmina85/swcuration>).

### 140 **3.1 Survey Design**

141 The survey was developed to capture a broad range of information about how researchers use, share, and  
142 value their software. The final survey instrument consisted of 56 questions (53 multiple choices, 3 open  
143 response), divided into four sections. In order, the sections focused on:

- 144 1. Demographics: Included questions related the participant’s research discipline, role, degree, age,  
145 institution, and funding sources (7 questions)
- 146 2. Characteristics of research software: Included questions related to how the participants use software  
147 and the characteristics of their software (17 questions).

148 3. Software sharing practices: Included questions related to how participants make their software  
 149 available to others (18 questions).

150 4. How researchers assign value to software (14 questions).

151 Because only sections 2 and 3 addressed topics related to computational reproducibility, this paper  
 152 is focused on responses to questions in the first three questions. Future work will further delineate how  
 153 researchers value software.

154 We hypothesized that study participants would come to our survey with different levels of knowledge  
 155 about software development practices and terminology. Therefore, we included a brief list of definitions in  
 156 our survey for terms like “source code”, “executable”, and “open source software” that participants could  
 157 refer back to at any time. Participants were not required to answer every question in order to proceed  
 158 through the survey.

### 159 3.2 Filtering and Exclusion Criteria

160 We collected 330 responses to an online survey of software usage and sharing practices and perceptions  
 161 from late January to early April of 2017. We excluded participants who started the survey but did not  
 162 answer questions beyond the demographic section to have 215 unique responses. Though the majority of  
 163 our participants indicated that they were from academia (Table 1), we did not exclude any participant  
 164 due to institution type because of the possibility that participants could be affiliated with an academic  
 165 or research program while conducting work in another sector. Institution names and disciplines were  
 166 canonicalized (e.g. UCB and uc berkeley were mapped to UC Berkeley).

**Table 1.** Demographic breakdown for study participants.

<b>Discipline</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Institution</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Computer Science	39	18.3%	Academic: Research Focused	164	77.0%
Biology	29	13.6%	Academic: Teaching Focused	22	10.3%
Psychology	28	13.1%	Government	13	6.1%
Engineering	13	6.1%	Nonprofit	7	3.3%
Interdisciplinary Programs	12	5.6%	Academic: Medical School	3	1.4%
Mathematics	12	5.6%	Commercial	2	0.9%
Physics	12	5.6%	Other	2	0.9%
Earth Science	9	4.2%			
Library Sciences	9	4.2%	<b>Role</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Social Sciences	9	4.2%	Graduate Student	67	31.5%
others	41	19.20%	Postdoc	38	17.8%
<b>Highest degree</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	Research Faculty	35	16.4%
Doctorate	110	51.9%	Staff	29	13.6%
Masters	72	34.0%	Principal Investigator	25	11.7%
Bachelors	26	12.3%	Research Assistant	10	4.7%
High school	3	1.4%	Undergraduate Student	2	0.9%
Professional degree	1	0.5%	Research	1	0.5%
			Other	6	2.8%

## 167 4 PARTICIPANT DEMOGRAPHICS

168 We asked participants about their age, professional degrees, professional title (or role) and institutional  
 169 affiliation, institution type, and the sources of funding. The majority of these questions were multiple  
 170 choice with an option for open response upon selecting “Other”.

171 The mean and median age of our participants were 35.8 and 33 years old, respectively. Reflecting  
 172 the ubiquity of software within the research enterprise, participants were drawn from a wide variety of  
 173 research disciplines, institution types, and roles. As shown in Table 1, the disciplines most represented  
 174 in our sample were computer science, biology, and psychology. The majority of our participants were  
 175 drawn from 129 different research-focused academic institutions (including 12% out of 215 researchers  
 176 from UC Berkeley). Table 1 also shows that participants had a range of degrees and roles, with the most  
 177 common being doctorate (51.9%,  $N = 215$ ) and graduate student (31.5%,  $N = 215$ ), respectively. In terms  
 178 of funding, the most common responses were the National Science Foundation (NSF) (16.7%,  $N = 215$ )  
 179 and the National Institutes of Health (7.0%,  $N = 215$ ).

## 5 CHARACTERISTICS AND USE OF RESEARCH SOFTWARE

Before diving deeper into how researchers use their software, we wanted to identify its characteristics. In this section, we describe responses to questions related to the creation and use of source code and executables.

### 5.1 Source Code and Executables

We asked participants about the generation and use of source code and executables (i.e. Do you write source code?, Do you use source code written by others?, Do you create executables?, Do you use executables created by others?). We found that 84.2% out of 215 responding participants write source code and 89.8% out of 215 use source code written by others while 53.7% out of 214 create executables and 80.4% use executables written by others.

Figure 1 shows that participants from computer science were significantly more likely to write source code [ $\chi^2(2, N = 215) = 8.93, p < 0.05$ ], create executables [ $\chi^2(2, N = 214) = 22.67, p < 0.00001$ ], and use executables created by others [ $\chi^2(2, N = 214) = 6.66, p < 0.05$ ] than participants from other disciplines. Comparisons related to the use of others' source code did not reach statistical significance [ $\chi^2(2, N = 215) = 1.21, p = 0.55$ ].

We also asked participants about the type of software they use (i.e. Do you use commercial software in the course of your research? Do you use open source software in the course of your research?). As shown in Figure 2 more participants indicated that they use open source software (94.9%,  $N = 214$ ) than commercial software (72.8%,  $N = 214$ ).

### 5.2 Programming Languages

In order to quantify the breadth of programming languages used in a research setting, we asked participants about the languages they use when writing their own code. Table 2 shows the top ten languages, which together account for 86.4% of languages selected. The top used languages in our sample were Python, R, Javascript, C++, Matlab, Java, C, PHP, and Perl. Python and R were the most used languages, selected by 64.0% and 57.0% of participants of respectively. For the most part, these results are in line with previous findings from Hucka and Garaham (Hucka and Graham (2016)) and also match those of a recent study from Stack Overflow (Inc. (2016)). In total, 52 different languages were chosen, with the most common responses outside of the top ten being Ruby, C#, ASP, SAS, XML, XQuery, and Julia. Quantitatively measuring the use programming languages in academic research is difficult due to the variability of reporting practices (Howison and Bullard (2015a)), but our results are largely in line the rapid ascent of R and Python as tools for data science.

**Table 2.** The top 10 programming languages used by the researchers in our sample. A total of 214 participants answered this question. Together these languages represent 86.4% of the languages selected. Note that participants could choose more than one language.

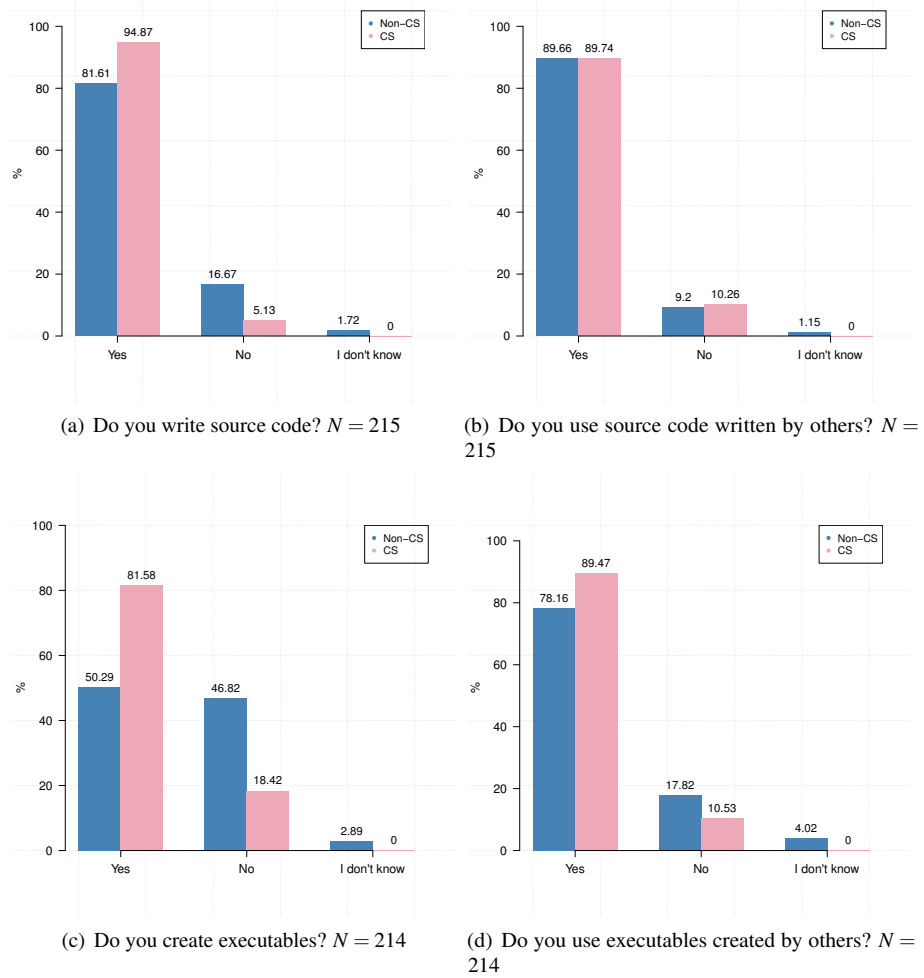
Language	Python	R	SQL	Javascript	C++	Matlab	Java	C	PHP	PERL
Selection	137	122	60	57	54	45	35	25	25	21
Percentage	64.0%	57.0%	28.0%	26.6%	25.2%	21.0%	16.4%	11.7%	11.7%	9.8%

We also inquired about collaborative code development and the extent to which the same programming languages are used within a lab or a research group. Though 53.3% of participants indicated that they write code collaboratively, we were surprised to see that only 33.0% indicated that everyone in the lab used the same language(s).

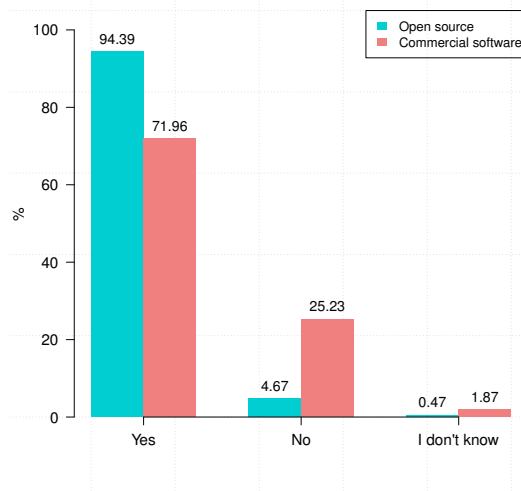
### 5.3 Use of Research Software

Previous scholarship (e.g. Borgman et al. (2012)) has indicated that researchers use software for a wide variety of purposes. To examine the purposes of research software, we asked participants about how they use their code or software (Figure 1). This question allowed them to choose multiple answers from a suggested list or input other answers.

Figure 3(a) shows that our participants use software primarily to analyze data, visualize data, clean and organize data, automate their work, and collect data. A total of 104 participants (55.7% out of 212 participants) responded that they use software for all five. "Other" responses included running simulations, building models, researching algorithms, testing methods, writing compilers, and sharing and publishing

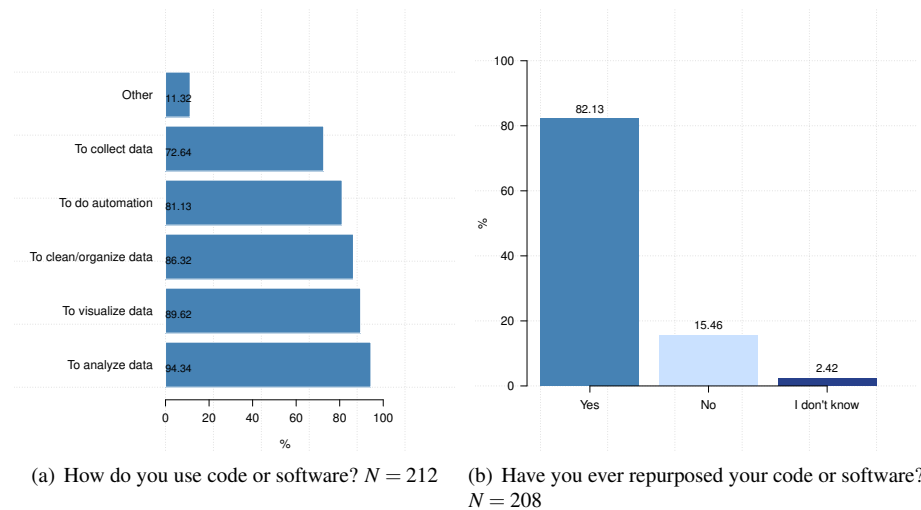


**Figure 1.** Significantly more participants from computer science stated that they write source code, create executables, and use executables created by others than participants from other disciplines.



**Figure 2.** The use of open source software versus commercial software.  $N = 214$ .





**Figure 3.** The purpose of using research software. Note that the first question could be answered with more than one choice.

224 data. We also asked if researchers repurpose their code (i.e. using it for a project other than the one for  
 225 which it was originally created) and found that 82% out of 208 participants indicated that they do that.

226 We investigated how researchers collaborate on code writing within their research labs (Figure 4) (e.g.  
 227 “Do you write code collaboratively (i.e. with another person or multiple people)?”, “Does everyone in  
 228 your lab or research group write code using the same programming language(s)?”) We found that 49.8%  
 229 ( $N = 200$ ) of researchers write code collaboratively (Figure 4(a)), while only 30% ( $N = 201$ ) use the  
 230 same coding language in their research labs (Figure 4(b)).

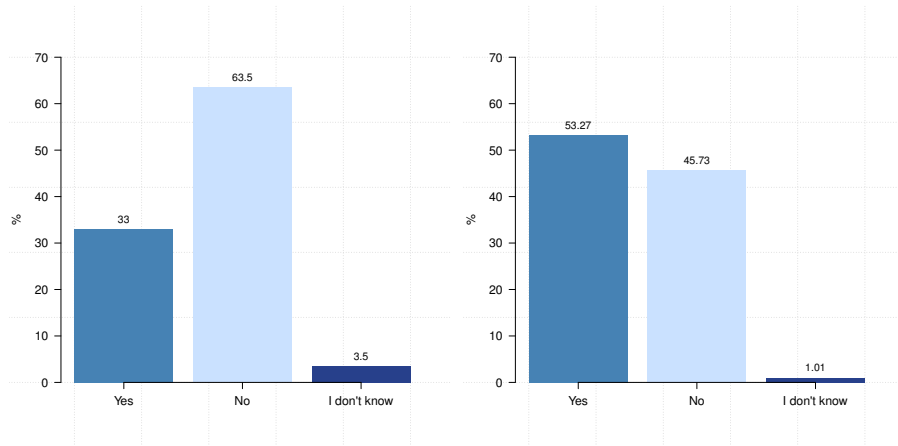
231 Previous studies on the reuse of research software have focused mainly on licensing, review of code,  
 232 and user awareness (Joppa et al. (2013); Morin et al. (2012a)). Reinforcing the need to establish best  
 233 practices (or good enough practices - e.g. Wilson et al. (2017) akin to those related to the management of  
 234 research data, 79.8% of our participants ( $N = 208$ ) indicated that they repurpose their code.

235 In an open response question, we asked participants to describe, in their own words, how they use  
 236 their software and code. Here, again, participants indicated that they use software for a wide variety of  
 237 purposes. One participant summed the relationship between software and their research succinctly as “I  
 238 use software for stimulus presentation, data acquisition, and data analysis and visualization - basically  
 239 my entire research is run via computers (and thus code).” Similarly, another participant described the  
 240 application of software within the field of computer science: “As a computer scientist, almost every aspect  
 241 of my research from grant proposal to collecting data to analyzing data to writing up my results involves  
 242 software. I write software. I use software my collaborators or students write as well as open source and  
 243 commercial software.

## 244 6 REPRODUCIBILITY-RELATED PRACTICES

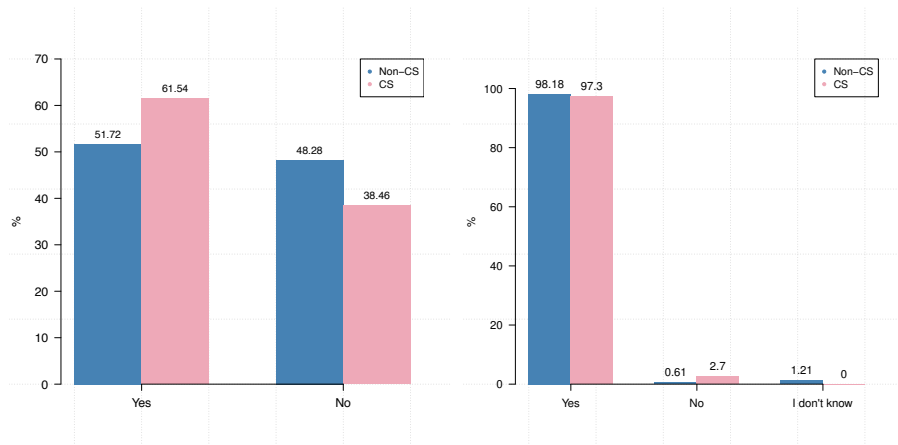
245 To understand how the practices of our participants align with those related to computational reproducibil-  
 246 ity, we asked a number of questions about adding comments to source code, generating documentation,  
 247 communicating information about dependencies, and using “notebook” applications such as Jupyter. We  
 248 also asked about awareness of coding conventions and best practices. The results of these questions are  
 249 shown in Figure 5.

250 In line with previous research (Hannay et al. (2009); Joppa et al. (2013); Prabhu et al. (2011)),  
 251 only 53.4% ( $N = 215$ ) of our participants indicated that they have received formal training in coding  
 252 conventions or best practices. At the same time, we found that many actually employ practices that are  
 253 commonly cited for establishing computational reproducibility. For example, when asked “Do you include  
 254 comments in your code?” and “When you share your code or software, do you provide information  
 255 about dependencies?” the majority of participants (98.0%,  $N = 204$ , 72.2%,  $N = 169$ ) indicated that they  
 256 include comments and provide information about dependencies, respectively. However, substantially

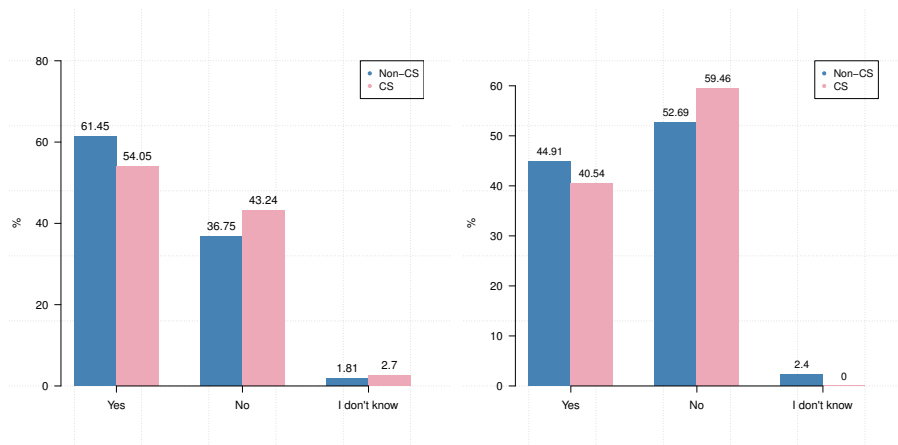


(a) Does everyone in your lab or research group write code using the same programming language(s)?  $N = 201$  (b) Do you write code collaboratively?  $N = 200$

**Figure 4.** Consistency of programming languages within research groups.

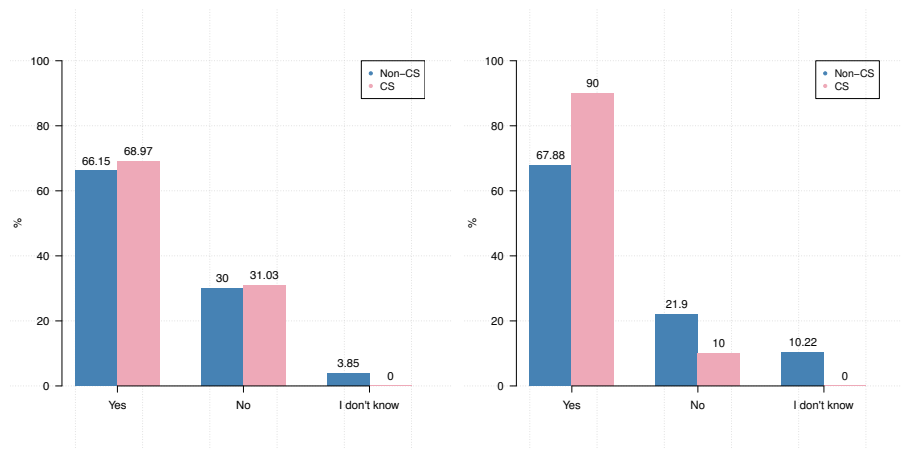


(a) Have you received training in coding conventions or best practices?  $N = 215$ . (b) Do you include comments in your code?  $N = 204$ .



(c) Do you generate documentation for your code?  $N = 205$ . (d) Do you write code using a notebook?  $N = 206$ .

**Figure 5.** Reproducibility practices in research.



(a) When you share your code or software, do you share it alongside related files (e.g. datasets)?  $N = 161$ .  
 (b) When you share your code or software, do you provide information about dependencies?  $N = 169$ .

**Figure 6.** CS researchers tend to provide information about dependencies more than other disciplines.

257 fewer indicated that they employ other practices such as generating documentation (60.0%,  $N = 205$ ).  
 258 While electronic lab notebooks have been cited as a tool for ensuring reproducibility (Kluyver et al.  
 259 (2016)), only 43.6% ( $N = 206$ ) of our participants indicated that they use them to write code.

260 Comparisons of responses by discipline (e.g. computer science versus others) or location (e.g. UC  
 261 Berkeley versus others) were insignificant even, surprisingly, on questions related to training [discipline:  
 262  $\chi^2(1, N = 215) = 1.58, p = 0.21$ , location:  $\chi^2(2, N = 215) = 0.00, p = 1.00$ ] (Figure 5). The lone  
 263 exception was in providing information about dependencies. Significantly more respondents from  
 264 computer science reported that they include information about dependencies when they share their code  
 265 than participants from other disciplines [ $\chi^2(2, N = 169) = 17.755, p < 0.001$ ].

## 266 7 SHARING AND PRESERVATION OF THE RESEARCH SOFTWARE

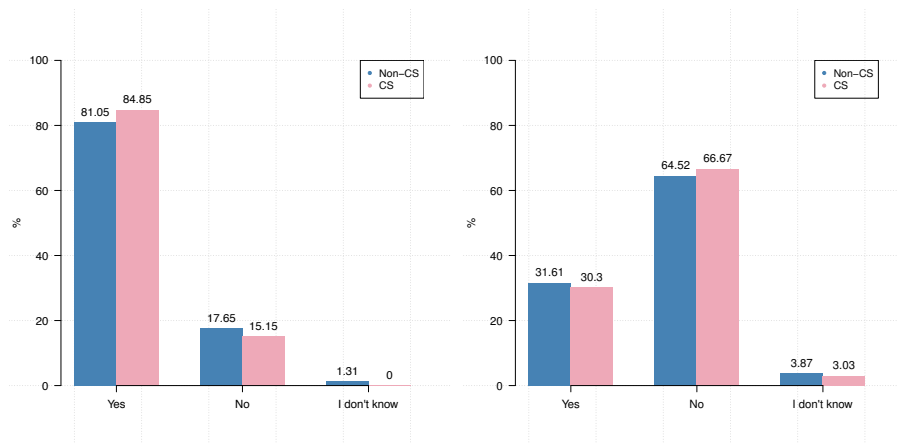
267 Making materials available for others to evaluate, use, and build upon is an essential component of  
 268 ensuring reproducibility. Much of the previous work examining the sharing of research software has  
 269 focused on the degree to which software is cited and described irregularly in the scholarly literature  
 270 (Howison and Bullard (2015a); Smith et al. (2016)) and the relationship between code sharing and research  
 271 impact (Vandewalle (2012)). In order to gain a greater understanding of how sharing practices relate to  
 272 reproducibility, we asked our participants a variety of questions about how they share, find, and preserve  
 273 software.

### 274 7.1 Sharing Research Software

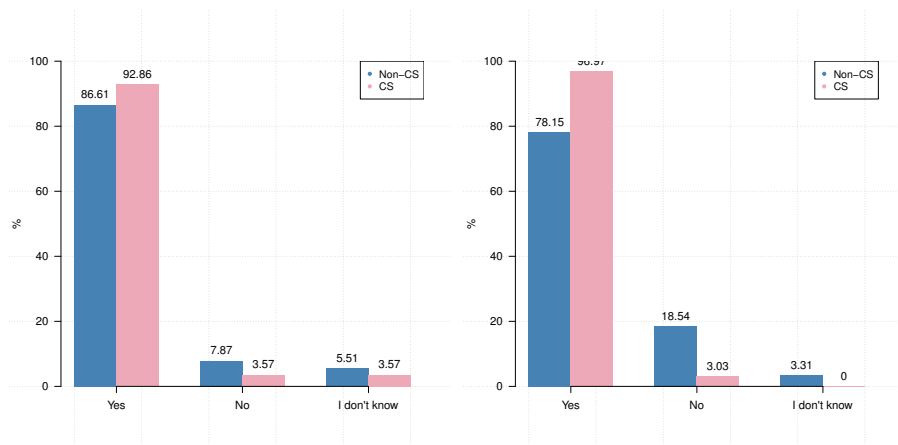
#### 275 *Sharing Practices*

276 While only half (50.5%,  $N = 198$ ) of our participants indicated that they were aware of related community  
 277 standards in their field or discipline, the majority indicated that they share software as part of the research  
 278 process (computer science: 84.9%, other disciplines: 81.1% for  $N = 187$ ) (Figure 7). Of 189 participants,  
 279 31% indicated that there were reasons their software could not be shared (Figure 7(b)). The most  
 280 commonly cited restrictions on sharing were the inclusion of sensitive data, intellectual property concerns,  
 281 and the time needed to prepare code for sharing. Comparisons between computer science and other  
 282 disciplines on the sharing of code were not statistically significant [ $\chi^2(2, N = 187) = 1.5842, p > 0.4529$ ].

283 We also checked if participants share new versions of their code and found that 81% ( $N = 156$ )  
 284 do so using a version control system. A group comparison related to the sharing of new versions was  
 285 not statistically significant [CS vs non-CS:  $\chi^2(2, N = 156) = 2.2, p > 0.05$ ] (Figure 7(c)), however  
 286 significantly more participants from computer science indicated that they share their codes via a version  
 287 control system than those from other disciplines [ $\chi^2(2, N = 185) = 16.4, p < 0.05$ ] (Figure 7(d)).

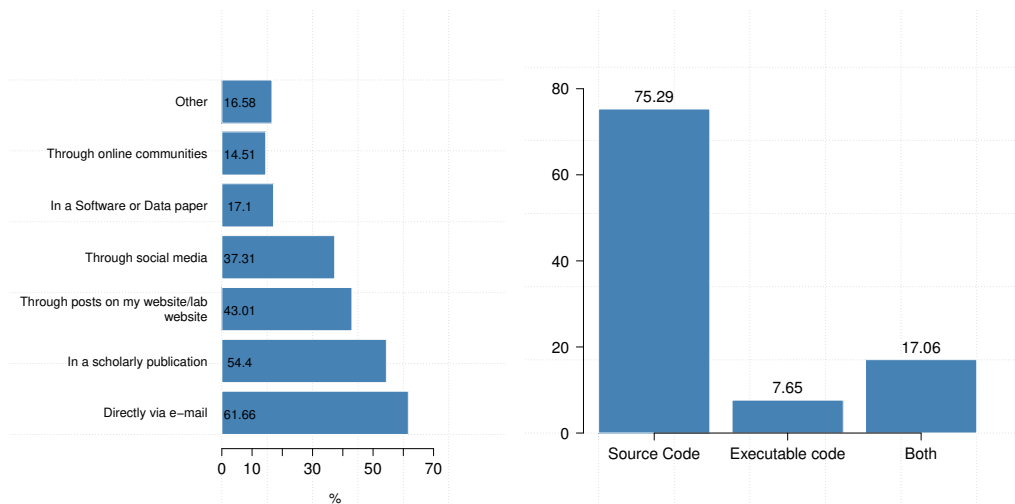


(a) Do you share the code or software created as part of your research?  $N = 187$ .  
 (b) Is there any reason your code or software could not be shared?  $N = 189$ .



(c) If you make a change to your code, do you share a new version?  $N = 156$ .  
 (d) Do you use a version control system (e.g. Git, SVN)?  $N = 185$ .

**Figure 7.** Practices of code sharing.



(a) How do you tell people about the code or software you've shared?  $N = 165$ . (b) In what format do you typically share your code?  $N = 175$ .

**Figure 8.** Methods and formats for sharing software. Note that both of these questions could be answered with more than one response.

### Sharing Format and Platform

We asked our participants about how they share their code and found that 75.3% of 175 participants share their software in the form of source code, 7.6% share executables only, and 17.1% share both formats (Figure 8). As shown in Figure 8(a), participants indicated that they share their software through a variety of channels, with the most common being e-mail. The figure shows that 73.94% of the time our participants make their code available through direct communication and 50% make their code available through social media platforms. The participants who indicated that they use methods other than those listed in our survey generally responded that they do so using platforms such as Github or the Open Science Framework. A few researchers mentioned that they save their code along with the dataset in their institutional repository, while others indicated that they publicize their code via conferences.

## 7.2 Preserving Research Software

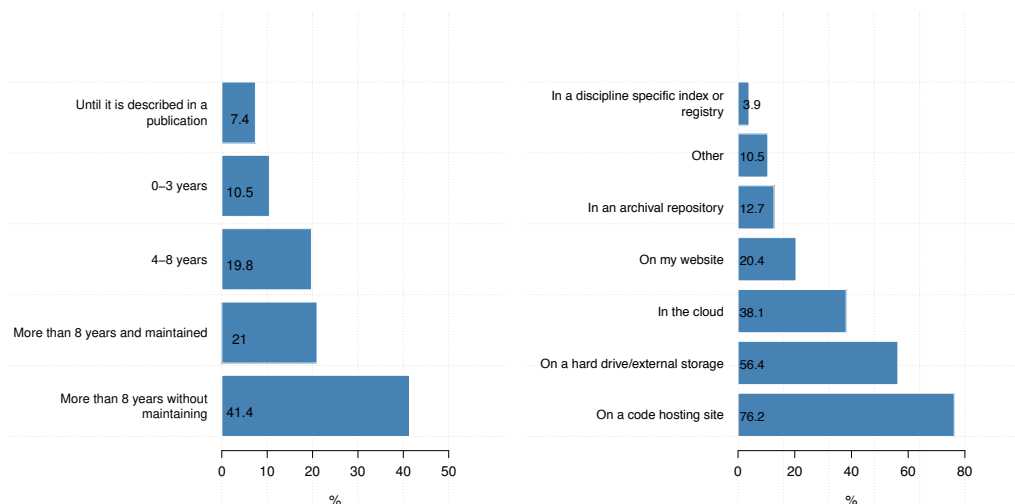
We asked variety of questions about preserving research software (i.e. Do you take any steps to ensure that your code or software is preserved over the long term?, How long do you typically save your code or software?, and Where do you save your code or software so that it is preserved over the long term?). While research software is a building block for ensuring the reproducibility, 39.9% of participants ( $N = 183$ ) do not prepare their code for long-term preservation.

### How long do you typically save your code or software?

Figure 9(a) shows that the majority of our participants (40.4% out of 162) preserve their code for more than eight years, but generally not in a way that maintains its use. In contrast, 7.4% ( $N = 162$ ) of participants keep their codes until it is described in a publication, poster, or presentation. We found 10.5% out of 162 researchers tend to keep their codes 3 years or less and 19.8% tend to keep their codes 4-8 year. Only 21.0% out of 162 researchers tend to keep their codes for 8 years or more with maintaining their codes for future access and use.

### Where do you save your code or software so that it is preserved over the long term?

In terms of where our participants preserve their code, Figure 9(b) shows that 76.2% of the time participants use code hosting sites such as Github. About 56.4% of the time, researchers use hard drives or external storage to preserve their codes and 38.1% of the time they preserve their codes by putting them on the cloud. Only 12.7% of our participants indicated that they use archival repositories (e.g. figshare). The participants who entered "other" responses mentioned that they use a backup system of their lab, organization archive (e.g., University server), their own PC, language package registry (CRAN, PyPi or similar), Internal SVN repository, or project specific websites.



(a) How long do you typically save your code or software? (b) Where do you save your code or software so that it is preserved over the long term?  $N = 162$ .  $N = 182$ .

**Figure 9.** 76.2% of researchers use Github for preserving their codes. Note that the second question could be answered with more than one choice.

319 We asked participants to define *sharing* and *preserving* in their own words. Their responses generally  
 320 indicated that they make a distinction between the two concepts. For example, one participant stated  
 321 succinctly, “sharing is making code available to others, in a readily usable form. Preserving is ensuring  
 322 to the extent practical that the code will be usable as far into the future as possible.” However, several  
 323 responses indicated that participants did not necessarily regard preservation as an active process that  
 324 continues even after the conclusion of a particular project (e.g. “sharing means giving access to my code  
 325 to someone else. Preserving means placing my code somewhere where it can remain and I will not delete  
 326 it to save room or lose it when I switch computers or suffer a hard drive failure.”. In contrast, other  
 327 responses indicated that participants were aware that preservation is important for reuse purpose and had a  
 328 knowledge of preservation tools. For example, one researcher defined preserving software as, “branching  
 329 so that code remains compatible with different versions of overarching libraries (in my case) or with  
 330 new coding standards and compilers”. and another stated “Preserving should be done via a system like  
 331 LOCKSS that ensures that provides for redundancy. Sharing can be done via the web, but must include a  
 332 license so that recipients know about their rights.”

## 333 8 DISCUSSION

334 Scholars throughout the humanities and sciences depend on software for a wide variety of purposes,  
 335 including the collection, analysis, and visualization of data (Borgman et al. (2012); Hey et al. (2009)).  
 336 Though ubiquitous, software presents significant challenges to efforts aimed at ensuring reproducibility.  
 337 Our results demonstrate that researchers not only create and use software in a wide variety of forms and  
 338 for a wide variety of purposes, but also that their software-related practices are often not completely in  
 339 line with those associated with reproducibility. In particular, our results demonstrate that, while scholars  
 340 often save their software for long periods of time, many do not actively preserve or maintain it. This  
 341 perspective is perhaps best encapsulated by one of our participants who, when completing our open  
 342 response question about the definition of sharing and preserving software, wrote “Sharing means making  
 343 it publicly available on Github. Preserving means leaving it on GitHub”. We share this anecdote not  
 344 to criticize our participants or their practices, but to illustrate the outstanding need for support services  
 345 related to software.

346 In the broader scholarly communications space, there are several prominent frameworks that relate to  
 347 the reproducibility of scholarly outputs. As part of an effort to advance data as a “first class” research  
 348 product, the FAIR (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable) guidelines provide a measurable  
 349 set of principles related to the management and sharing of research data (Wilkinson et al. (2016)).

350 The FAIR principles are general enough that they can, with some modification, also be applied to  
351 software (Jimenez et al. (2017)). At the level of scholarly publications, the TOP (Transparency and  
352 Openness Promotion) guidelines (Nosek et al. (2015)) addresses citation standards and the availability of  
353 research materials including data and software. A supplement to TOP, the Reproducibility Enhancement  
354 Principles (REP) (Stodden et al. (2016)) specifically targets disclosure issues related to computation  
355 and software. However, our results support previous work indicating that software still mostly exists  
356 outside the reputation economy of science (Howison and Herbsleb (2011)) which indicates that a more  
357 education-based approach, that provides guidance about software before the publication stage is necessary.

358 The majority of our participants indicated that view code or software as “first class” research product,  
359 that should be assessed, valued, and shared in the same way as a journal article. However, our results  
360 also indicate that there remains a significant gap between this perception and actual practice. The fact  
361 that our participants indicated that they create and use software in a wide variety of forms and for a wide  
362 variety of purposes demonstrates the significant technical challenges inherent in ensuring computational  
363 reproducibility. In contrast, the lack of active preservation and tendency to share software outside  
364 traditional (and measurable) scholarly communications channels displayed by our sample demonstrates  
365 the social and behavioral challenges. A significant difficulty in ensuring computational reproducibility is  
366 that researchers oftentimes do not treat their software as a “first class” research product. These findings  
367 reinforce the need for programs to train researchers on how to maintain their code in the active phase of  
368 their research.

369 At present, there are a number of initiatives focused on addressing the preservation and reproducibility  
370 of software. In the United States, the Software Preservation Network (SPN) (Meyerson et al. (2017))  
371 represents an effort to coordinate efforts to ensure the long-term access to software. The focus of SPN is  
372 generally on cultural heritage software rather than research software, but their work delineating issues  
373 related to metadata, governance, and technical infrastructure has substantial overlap with what is required  
374 for research software. In the United Kingdom, the Software Sustainability Institute trains researchers  
375 on how to develop better software and make better use of the supporting infrastructure (Crouch et al.  
376 (2013)). Befitting the necessity of training and preservation indicated by our study, a similar effort, the  
377 US Software Sustainability Initiative was recently awarded funding by the National Science Foundation  
378 (NSF Award #1743188). While it is likely not possible for academic institutions to offer support services  
379 that cover the broad range of programming languages and applications described in our survey results,  
380 collaborating with such groups to create guidance and best practice recommendations may a feasible first  
381 step in engaging with researchers about their software and code in the same manner as many research  
382 data management (RDM) initiatives now engage with them about their data.

383 While research stakeholders including academic institutions, publishers, and funders have an interest  
384 in tackling issues of computational reproducibility in order to ensure the integrity of the research process,  
385 our results demonstrate the complexity of doing so. One participant summed up why their code could not  
386 be made re-usable: “Most of my coding is project specific and not reusable between projects because the  
387 datasets I encounter are very variable. I typically only generate packages for tasks such as getting data  
388 from a database (e.g., PubMed) and keeping RMarkdown templates in an orderly way.”

## 389 **9 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

390 In this paper, we introduced the results of surveying researchers across different institution on software  
391 usage, sharing, and preservation. We also checked the practices used to manage software for ensuring  
392 the reproducibility and integrity of the scientific research. Our results point to several interesting trends  
393 including the widespread writing of source code and use of source code written by others, the variety  
394 of programming languages used and the lack of consistency even within the same lab or research  
395 group, the use of open source software over commercial software, and the adoption of some practices  
396 assure computational reproducibility, such as adding comments and documentation to code, but not others,  
397 specifically the general lack of active preservation. The findings of this paper inform ongoing conversations  
398 about research software and reproducibility on the current practices around research software. This will  
399 help service providers to deliver the right tools and systems that help researchers to manage their code  
400 and help in ensuring the integrity of the reproducibility in the scholarly ecosystem.

401 The present study was designed to capture a broad picture of how researchers use and share their  
402 software. For this reason, we were not able to provide a particularly granular picture of how individual  
403 practices relate to reproducible science outcomes. For example, while the majority of our participants

404 responded that they include comments in their source code and generate documentation for their software,  
405 we were not able to make any judgment about whether or not the contents of these comments and  
406 documentation are sufficient to ensure reproducibility. Follow up research is needed in order to gain a  
407 more nuanced understanding of how processes related to the creation and use of research software relate  
408 to reproducibility. However, despite these limitations, our results indicate several potential directions for  
409 future library services centered on helping researchers create, use, and share their software and assure  
410 computational reproducibility.

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