

Cooperation and interdependence in global science funding

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Abstract

Investments in research and development are essential for both scientific and economic growth, as well as for the well-being of society¹⁻³. As scientific production becomes increasingly interdependent across nations, it is critical to examine how nations' scientific activities are funded both domestically and internationally⁴. By tracing research grants acknowledged in scholarly publications, our study reveals a shifting duopoly of China and the United States in the global funding landscape, characterized by a contrasting funding pattern. While China has surpassed the United States to become the leading global funder, the United States largely maintains its role as the most influential partner for countries worldwide. Our results also highlight the precariousness of low- and middle-income countries to global funding disruptions. Interruptions in foreign funding significantly influence their research output and induce shifts in their research focus. By revealing the complex interdependence and collaboration between countries in the global scientific enterprise, this work informs future studies investigating the national and global scientific enterprise and how funding leads to both productive cooperation and vulnerable dependencies.

Introduction

Scientific investments are crucial to national scientific competitiveness^{1,5,6}. Cutting-edge scientific research is resource-intensive—requiring facilities, equipment, materials, and labor—making scientific investments a key driver of scientific production⁷. Significant increases in scientific production are often a result of heavy investments in science. For instance, R&D expenditures of China increased at an average rate of 10% per year^{8,9} over the last two decades, with total spending increasing from \$39 billion in 2000 to \$563 billion in 2020¹⁰. This growth

33 made China the second largest R&D spender at the world level, second only to the United States.
34 Whereas China spent about 11% as much as the United states in 2000, this ratio increased to
35 84% in 2020¹⁰. China's investment yielded impressive dividends: while China only accounted
36 for 3.8% of all Web of Science publications two decades ago, it became the largest producer of
37 scientific publications in 2019, surpassing the United States. Although China's publications have
38 long been criticized as having low scientific impact, China also recently exceeded the United
39 States in terms of its numbers of highly-cited publications¹¹, in part due to its increasing
40 scientific production¹².

41 In response to the emergence of China, and to strengthen their economic performance and
42 scientific capacity, the EU and the United States have launched massive contemporary science
43 funding programs^{13,14}. The CHIPS and Science Act is the latest manifestation of the United
44 States' investment in national science, which explicitly aims to reduce dependency on China for
45 critical technologies¹⁵. This direct articulation of *dependency* is yet another indicator of the
46 shifting dominance of global science, which moved from Europe to the United States in the
47 twentieth century and is now steadily moving towards China^{16–18}.

48 The nationalist rhetoric of scientific competitiveness, however, belies the inherently
49 global nature of scientific production, characterized by the increasing prevalence of international
50 collaboration^{19–21}. Scientific articles collaboratively authored by scholars from at least two
51 countries have risen from 14% in 2000²² to nearly a third of all indexed articles in 2020. These
52 collaborations are uneven across the globe, however: international collaboration constitutes 27%
53 of China's output, 43% of the United States', and 68% of the United Kingdom's. These statistics
54 are not just those of dominance: the highest rate of international collaboration is found in

55 countries with fledgling scientific systems: e.g., international co-authorship in Vanuatu, South
56 Sudan, Liberia, Haiti, and Cambodia exceeded 95% in 2020.

57 The heavy reliance on international collaboration in many developing countries is
58 attributed, in part, to the lack of domestic funding opportunities²³. Despite the importance of
59 R&D to scientific development and economic growth, funding for science remains scarce in
60 lower middle-income countries and low-income countries²⁴. For instance, in lower middle-
61 income countries (whose GDP value is already much smaller than high-income countries), less
62 than 0.5% of GDP has been used to fund science; the proportion is even lower (at 0.1%) for low-
63 income countries, while the world average is 1.79%²⁴. The scarcity of domestic funding is a
64 strong driving force for researchers to seek and rely on international collaboration and foreign
65 funding. National scientific performance, therefore, depends not only on domestic R&D
66 investments, but is also influenced by investments made abroad by other countries⁶. The crucial
67 role of *national* scientific funding and the *global* nature of scientific activities raise an important
68 question: to what extent do nations fund domestic science, and to what degree does each country
69 contribute to global science? What are the countries that underpin the global structure of
70 scientific funding?

71 Prior research has explored the funding landscape using data on national R&D spending,
72 investigating national scientific performance through R&D spending and the efficiency of
73 turning that investment into knowledge products^{2-5,7,25,26}. R&D expenditures, however, include a
74 wide range of institutions and activities that go beyond basic scientific research, such as applied
75 research and experimental development²⁷, which accounted for about 73% of R&D expenditures
76 in the United States in 2020²⁸. Furthermore, there is no clear agreement on how R&D
77 expenditures should be defined and collected, which hinders a coherent comparison across

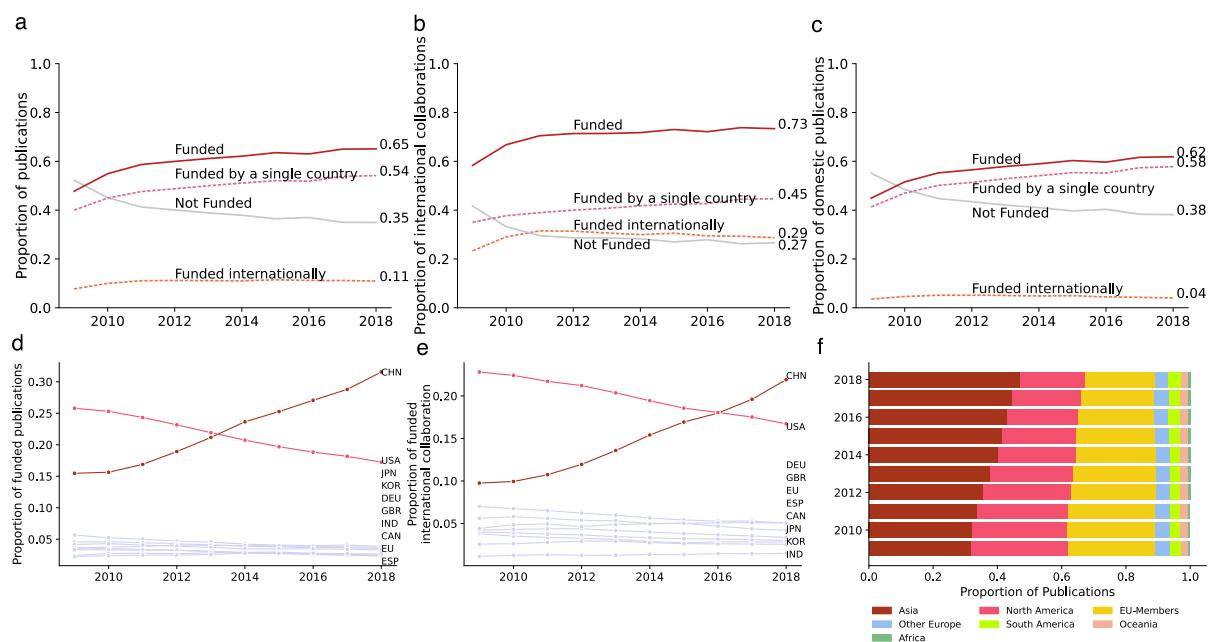
78 countries²⁴. Most importantly, data on R&D expenditures does not allow for the measurement of
79 how scientific investments flow across international collaboration networks and affect both
80 national and global scientific production and topical profiles.

81 This paper investigates how countries fund national and international research by
82 tracking research grants disclosed in the acknowledgement sections of scholarly publications.
83 While several scholars examined funding acknowledgement data prior to the inclusion in Web of
84 Science^{29,30}, it was the advent of indexing of both acknowledgement data and affiliations that
85 made large-scale global analyses possible³¹ and led to an increase in such studies³² with strong
86 implications for science policy³³. Funding acknowledgement analyses were applied to both
87 localized contexts, such as exploring the concentration of funding in nanotechnology^{34,35} and the
88 relationship between funding and innovation in robotics³⁶, as well as several large-scale analyses
89 examining the relationship between funding and scientific impact^{37–40}. Although there are some
90 limitations to these data, validation studies have confirmed the global reliability of the data^{35,37,41}.
91 Building upon these studies, we examine publications and funding associated with each country,
92 and quantify how countries support domestic science, cooperate, and rely upon each other for
93 scientific funding as well as countries' vulnerability to shifts and turmoil within the global
94 funding landscape.

95 **Results**

96 The percentage of publications with funding acknowledgements has steadily increased from
97 47.7% to 65.1% during the 2009–2018 period (Fig. 1a; see Supplementary Information for
98 robustness analysis). That is, most contemporary articles indexed in Web of Science
99 acknowledge external funding. Given the rise in international collaboration during this same
100 period^{42,43}, and increased investments in multi-country infrastructures (e.g., the Large Hadron

101 Collider)⁴⁴, one might expect that we would observe a concomitant rise in internationally co-
 102 funded articles. This, however, is not the case: only about 10% of publications acknowledge
 103 funding from multiple countries and the proportion has remained relatively stable over the last
 104 five years (Fig. 1a). The same holds true in internationally coauthored publications: while 73%
 105 receive funding, the plurality of internationally coauthored articles (44% of total international
 106 collaboration in 2018) report funding from a single country (Fig. 1b). Compared to funding in
 107 internationally co-authored research, funding is less likely in domestic science: only about 61%
 108 of domestic publications report funding and 57% of domestic publications report funding from a
 109 single country in 2018 (Fig. 1c).



110

111 **Figure 1 Global scientific funding is increasingly dominated by a duopoly structure consisting of China and the United States.**
 112 (a) Scientific publications are increasingly funded over the past ten years. By comparing the incidence of papers funded
 113 domestically and internationally, we see that most publications are still funded by a single country. The share of publications that
 114 are funded by multiple countries remains relatively stable. (b) Same analysis with internationally coauthored publications. (c)
 115 Same analysis with domestically authored publications. (d) Proportion of publications that are funded by the top 10 funders. EU
 116 refers to the funding organizations that are operated by European Union. (e) Proportion of internationally-coauthored
 117 publications that are funded by the top 10 funders. (f) Global share of the funded publications that are contributed by countries
 118 across continents from 2009 to 2018 respectively. EU-Members include the funding organizations that are operated by European
 119 Union as well as the funding organizations belong to EU-member countries.

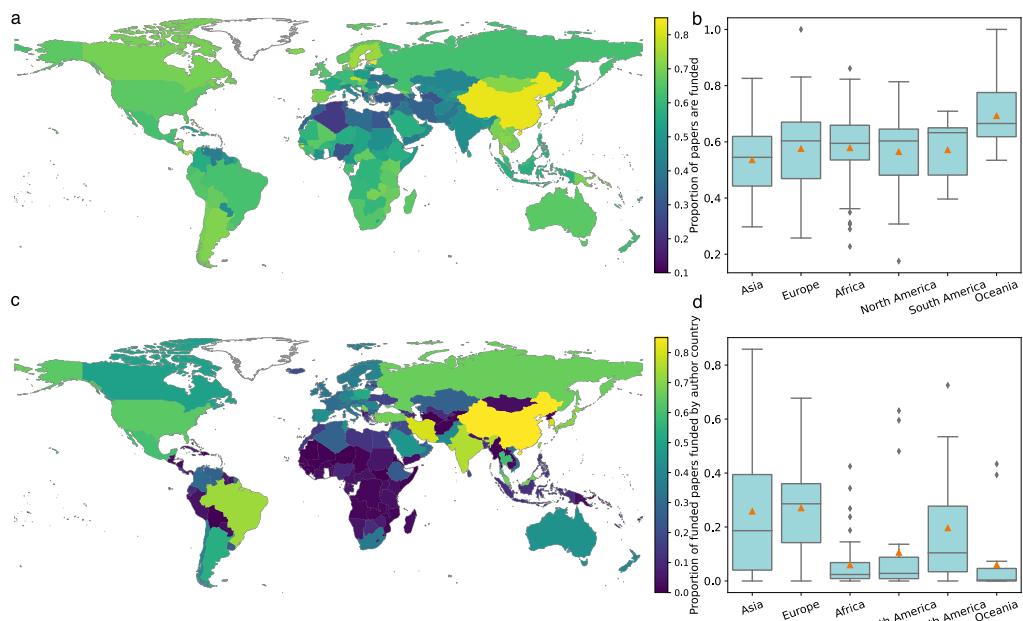
120 To identify the major funders in research funding at the country level, we measure the
121 proportion of publications that explicitly acknowledge funding from a specific country (see
122 Methods). The results reveal a clear duopoly of the United States and China, with a shifting
123 dominance from the United States to China in recent years. The US was the dominant funder in
124 2009 when it was acknowledged in 25% of all funded publications, compared with 15% for
125 China (Fig 1d). In 2014, China surpassed the United States and became the largest funder and,
126 by 2018, more than 30% of funded publications acknowledged funding support from China,
127 compared with 17% from the United States. Other Asian and European countries constitute the
128 top ten largest acknowledged funders worldwide (constituting more than 70% of all funded
129 publications); however, they each fund a relatively small percentage of publications and remain
130 firmly behind China and the United States. The observed patterns remain robust to variations in
131 the fidelity of extracting funding data, both temporally and across different countries (see
132 Supplementary Information).

133 We further investigate the subset of internationally co-authored publications. China has
134 experienced a significant increase in funding internationally co-authored publications and
135 surpassed the United States in 2017 (see Fig. 1e). Asia and North America collectively account
136 for more than 60% of funded internationally co-authored publications, primarily driven by China
137 and the United States. The proportion of funded publications supported by these two countries
138 increased from 41% in 2009 to 49% in 2018. Africa, South America, and Oceania collectively
139 account for about 10% of all funded papers; this percentage is stable throughout the period
140 studied. Overall, the global pattern is characterized by a rapid growth of Asia, a rapid decline of
141 North America, and a slow decline of Europe (see Fig. 1f).

142 To better understand how each country is supporting its domestic research activities, we
143 define and measure *funding intensity*, which is defined as the proportion of papers, from a
144 country, that explicitly acknowledge funding support (see Methods). Funding intensity varies
145 across countries: for instance, only around 20% of publications in Algeria are associated with
146 funding while the corresponding proportion is 82% in China (see Fig. 2a). However, contrary to
147 the previous research^{45,46}, we find that funding intensity across continents remain relatively
148 similar (see Fig. 2b). On average, funding intensity across continents ranges from 53% to 69%,
149 with Asia having the lowest funding intensity and Oceania countries having the highest funding
150 intensity. Scientific publications in the other continents are funded at a comparable level (see
151 Fig. 2b).

152 We further classified publications based on the author country and funding country to
153 investigate the funding portfolio of countries (see Methods). Although scientific publications in
154 regions such as Africa and Oceania are funded at the similar level of Western countries, domestic
155 institutions fund relatively fewer scientific publications in Africa and Oceania, compared to
156 funding institutions abroad (see Fig. 2c-d; Fig. S4). Of the funded publications, only around 5%
157 of African and Oceania publications are funded exclusively by the authorship countries, which
158 contrasts with the approximately 28% seen in Asia and Europe (see Fig. 2c-d). China stands out
159 as the country with the highest internal funding: among all the funded Chinese publications, 85%
160 of them are exclusively funded by Chinese institutions (see Fig. 2c, Table S1). A similar pattern
161 has been shown in previous articles that publications with Chinese affiliations have higher rate of
162 funding acknowledgement and are associated with higher number of grants^{47,48}. In contrast,

163 among all the funded publications that are authored by researchers from the United States, only
164 63% of them are exclusively funded by US institutions (see Figure 2d, Table S1).



165

166 **Figure 2 Scientific funding intensity across countries. Although, on average, countries across continents have marginal**
167 **difference in funding intensity, countries differ in terms of the reliance on domestic and external funding.** (a) The funding
168 **intensity of countries. To emphasize the variations across countries, the color bar threshold is set at 0.85. Three countries have a**
169 **funding intensity larger than 0.85. They are Crimea, Niue and Sao Tome & Principe. (b) The distribution of funding intensity of**
170 **countries across continents. In the box plot, the box is drawn from the first quartile to the third quartile of the distribution. The**
171 **vertical line represents the median value of the distribution. The lower whisker extends from the box to the smallest non-outlier**
172 **value within 1.5 times the interquartile range below the first quartile. The upper whisker extends from the box to the largest**
173 **non-outlier value within 1.5 times the interquartile range above third quartile. The yellow triangle labels the mean value within**
174 **each group. (c) The proportion of each country's funded publications that are exclusively funded by the country. China is the only**
175 **country where around 85% of funded publications are exclusively funded by Chinese funding institutions. (d) The distribution of**
176 **proportion of funded publications that are exclusively funded by the country itself across continents.**

177 International collaboration is crucial for creating synergies by combining available
178 equipment, talents, and resources. However, an increased reliance on international collaboration
179 may result in a country depending on foreign resources, and thereby compromising its autonomy.
180 To estimate a country's reliance on foreign funding, we construct various counterfactual
181 scenarios assuming different levels of indispensability for foreign funding in research activities.
182 First, we imagine a simplistic counterfactual scenario where countries are completely cut off
183 from receiving international funding and publications that involve *any* international funding

184 would be eliminated by the withdrawal of international funding, assuming that every
185 acknowledged funding plays a non-negligible role in research activity (see Methods). Under this
186 scenario, we estimate dependence by calculating the proportion of publications that acknowledge
187 at least one international funding instance.

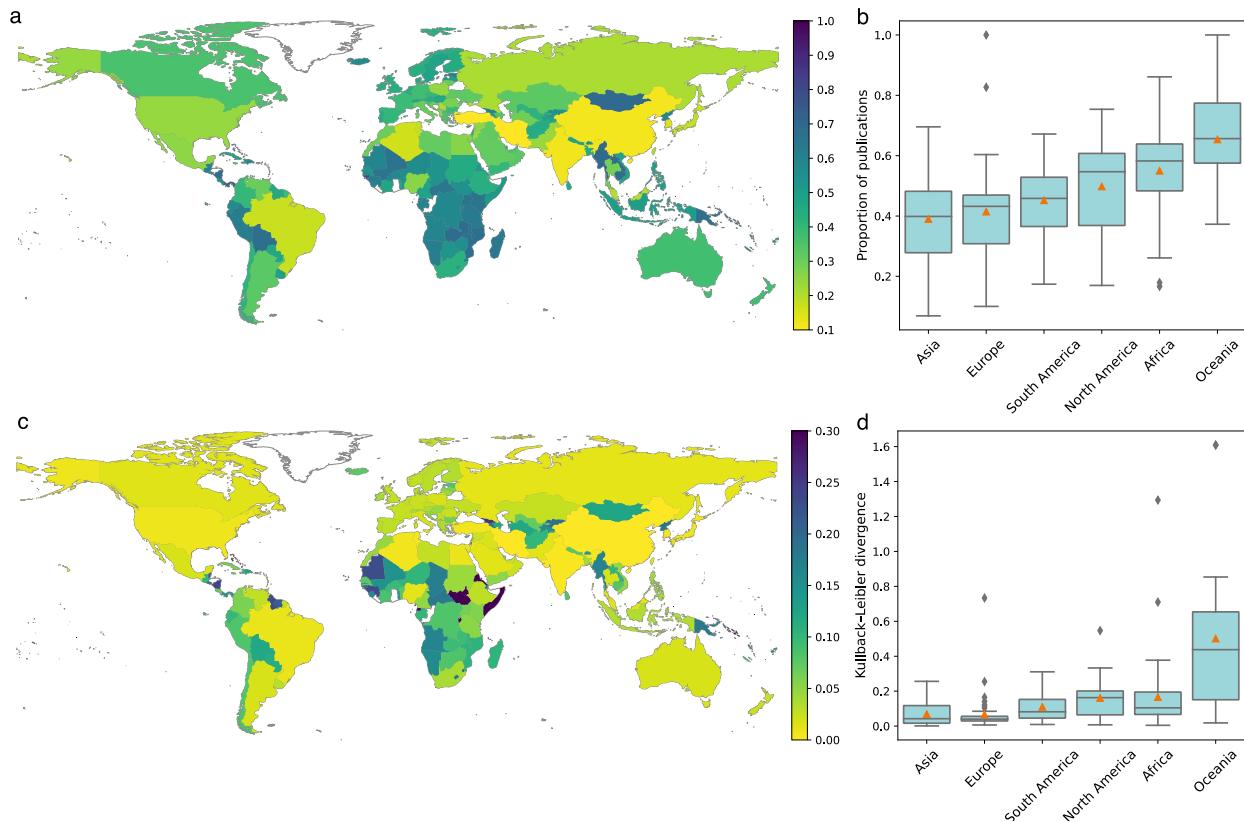
188 The results show that China and many other Asian countries, as one may expect from
189 their heavy domestic investment, exhibit the least usage of and reliance on international funding.
190 For instance, the proportion of internationally funded publications for China, India, Japan, and
191 South Korea is 11%, 11%, 17%, and 14%, respectively (Fig. 3a). This suggests that the massive
192 investments made by China and India in their domestic science as well as their relative
193 reluctance to internationally collaborate makes them more resilient to changes in international
194 research funding. In contrast, Western countries demonstrate a higher degree of international
195 collaboration and exhibit a more pronounced reliance on international funding (Fig. 3a). For
196 example, 24% of publications by United States and 41% of publications by EU-member
197 countries, on average, would be affected in this counterfactual scenario (Fig. 3b). The
198 corresponding proportion drops slightly to 38% if EU-funding organizations are treated as
199 domestic funding organizations for EU-member countries. Low-income countries, however, are
200 the most dependent on international funding. Despite variations at the country level, we observe
201 that the scientific publications by countries in Africa and Oceania heavily depend on
202 international funding. In these regions, more than half of publications would experience an
203 impact if all international funding were to be removed (Fig. 3b).

204 However, the assumption that every funding grant plays an indispensable role in research
205 activity overlooks the possibility that additional funding can be leveraged in the absence of
206 others. Therefore, we consider a more stringent counterfactual scenario wherein countries are cut

207 off from receiving foreign funding and only publications *exclusively funded* by foreign sources
208 are influenced. This scenario assumes that only publications that are less likely to leverage the
209 other funding sources would be influenced (see Methods). This scenario does not drastically
210 change the pattern we saw, although European countries show stronger resilience to funding
211 disruption, suggesting that internationally-funded research by European countries tend to be
212 *collaborative*—rather than relying on foreign funding, they tend to draw resources from both the
213 domestic and international sources (see Fig. 3 and Fig. S4-5). By contrast, African and Oceanian
214 countries still exhibit strong reliance, indicating that their current scientific output is much more
215 reliant on international funding (see Fig. S5).

216 A country's reliance on external funding also means that their research portfolio—*what*
217 they publish—can be largely influenced by the priorities of other countries. A high reliance on
218 external funding may limit the ability of the country to control its own research agenda⁴. As one
219 might expect from the previous results, China and other Asian countries experience the lowest
220 topical profile change (see Fig. 3c-d) in the exclusion of papers with foreign funding. The United
221 States is also among the ten countries least affected by funding removal. A similar pattern holds
222 for many European countries. Although about 40% of publications are linked to international
223 funding for EU-member countries, their research profiles are marginally influenced even if we
224 remove the publications that are internationally funded (see Fig. 3c-d). The most significant
225 influence is observed in Oceanian and some African countries; the topic distribution of research
226 publications produced with international funding is distinct from those that are not associated
227 with international funding. This finding resonates with the concept of “parachute science” in
228 global research, highlighting that the research priorities of developing countries are frequently
229 overlooked in international collaborations with researchers from developed countries⁴⁹. This

230 marginalization is attributed to the power asymmetry in international collaboration, with source
 231 of funding serving as a significant factor contributing to this imbalance⁴.



232
 233 **Figure 3 The impact of removing internationally funded publications. Asian countries experience the least lost while African**
 234 **countries as well as Oceania countries suffer the largest lost.** (a) The proportion of publications influenced in each country
 235 following the removal of international funding (b) The proportion of publications influenced in each region following the removal
 236 of international funding. In the box plot, the box is drawn from the first quartile to the third quartile of the distribution. The
 237 vertical line represents the median value of the distribution. The lower whisker extends from the box to the smallest non-outlier
 238 value within 1.5 times the interquartile range below the first quartile. The upper whisker extends from the box to the largest
 239 non-outlier value within 1.5 times the interquartile range above the third quartile. The yellow triangle labels the mean value within
 240 each group. (c) The difference between actual research profile and the counterfactual research profile. The difference is
 241 measured by the Kullback-Leibler divergence. Large KL-divergence value represents the counterfactual research profile is distant
 242 from the actual research profile and vice versa. To highlight the difference among countries, we set the threshold of the
 243 maximum value to 0.3. There are 23 countries have KL-value large than 0.3. (d) the profile change of countries by continents.

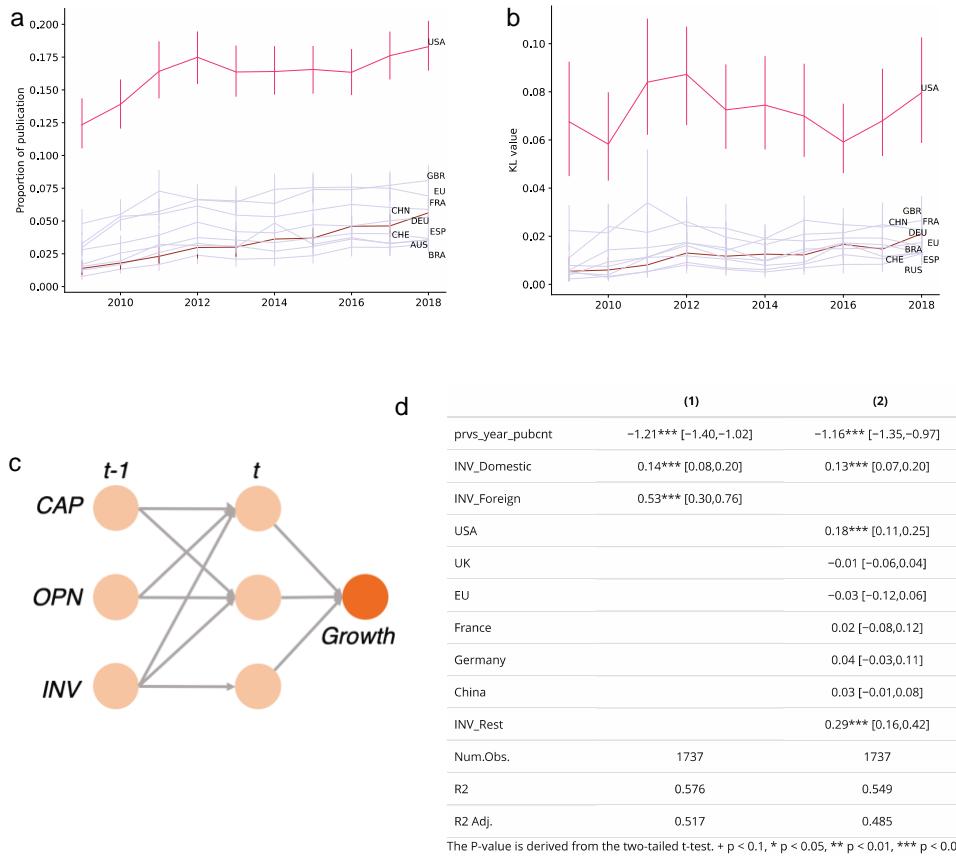
244 We then switch perspective from the “receiver” to “funder” by estimating the impact of
 245 each country on others. We measure how much perturbation a specific country can cause to
 246 others if it stops participating international funding activity, by using the same two extremes
 247 used above (see Methods). First, we count the proportion of publications that have at least one
 248 funding acknowledgement from a focal country. The results show that the United States is the

249 most influential country in terms of global funding (see Fig. 4a-b). On average, in 2009, around
250 12% of publications in each country would be impacted if the United States ceased funding
251 research that involves scientists from other countries. Due to the increasing international
252 collaboration, this figure rose to 17.5% in 2018. EU funding organizations, UK, France, and
253 Germany also have substantial influence over the research activities of other countries. However,
254 the corresponding percentages have consistently remained below 10%. Our results also indicate
255 EU funding organizations play a vital role in the UK's research system: around 10% of British
256 publications would be influenced if EU funding organizations were no longer providing funding
257 to the UK. China, even with its rapid rise in quantity, has limited influence on other countries
258 from this point of view, as other countries would only experience a marginal influence (of
259 slightly more than 5%, on average) if China stopped funding internationally (see Fig. 4a). The
260 influence of countries remains similar when measuring from the ability of altering countries'
261 research profile; countries experience the largest extent of profile change when the United States
262 withdraws from international funding (see Fig. 4b).

263 Considering the simple counterfactual scenario where a publication would have been
264 affected only if it is exclusively funded by the focal country, we then count the proportion of
265 publications of each country that are exclusively funded by the focal country (Methods). This
266 exercise shows a consistent trend: the United States demonstrates the most substantial impact on
267 the scientific production of other countries, influencing approximately 8% of publications on
268 average in each country. By contrast, the remaining major funders influence less than 3% of
269 publications in each country (Fig. S6).

270 Yet, our counterfactual scenarios assumes a direct relationship between funding and
271 publications that overlooks the complexity in scientific production. National research production

272 is simultaneously influenced by various factors, including the country's existing scientific
273 capacity^{50,51}, overall investment^{50–52}, and the broad scientific environment^{50–52}. Moreover, the
274 elasticity of production to domestic or international funding may exhibit a range of possible
275 values. To tackle this gap with our data, we further employ a fixed effects panel regression
276 model to examine the influence of funding from major scientific funders while accounting for
277 other relevant factors (Methods and Fig. 4c). Specifically, we investigate whether the inflow of
278 scientific investment from major funders can predict the scientific growth in countries. The
279 regression results affirm the crucial role of foreign scientific funding in national scientific
280 production, with funding from the United States demonstrating the most significant influence on
281 the growth of scientific production in other countries. As illustrated in model 1 in Figure 4d,
282 foreign scientific funding significantly predicts publication growth rate of countries, surpassing
283 the magnitude associated with domestic funding. This result resonates with our finding that, on
284 average, most countries outside of the existing circle of scientific powerhouses exhibit
285 substantial dependence on external funding (Fig. S4). More specifically, funding from the United
286 States plays a pivotal role, with a 10% rise in the funding from the United States is associated
287 with a 2% increase in the publication growth rate (Fig. 4d). In contrast, funding from China does
288 not significantly predict publication growth of other countries (Fig. 4d).

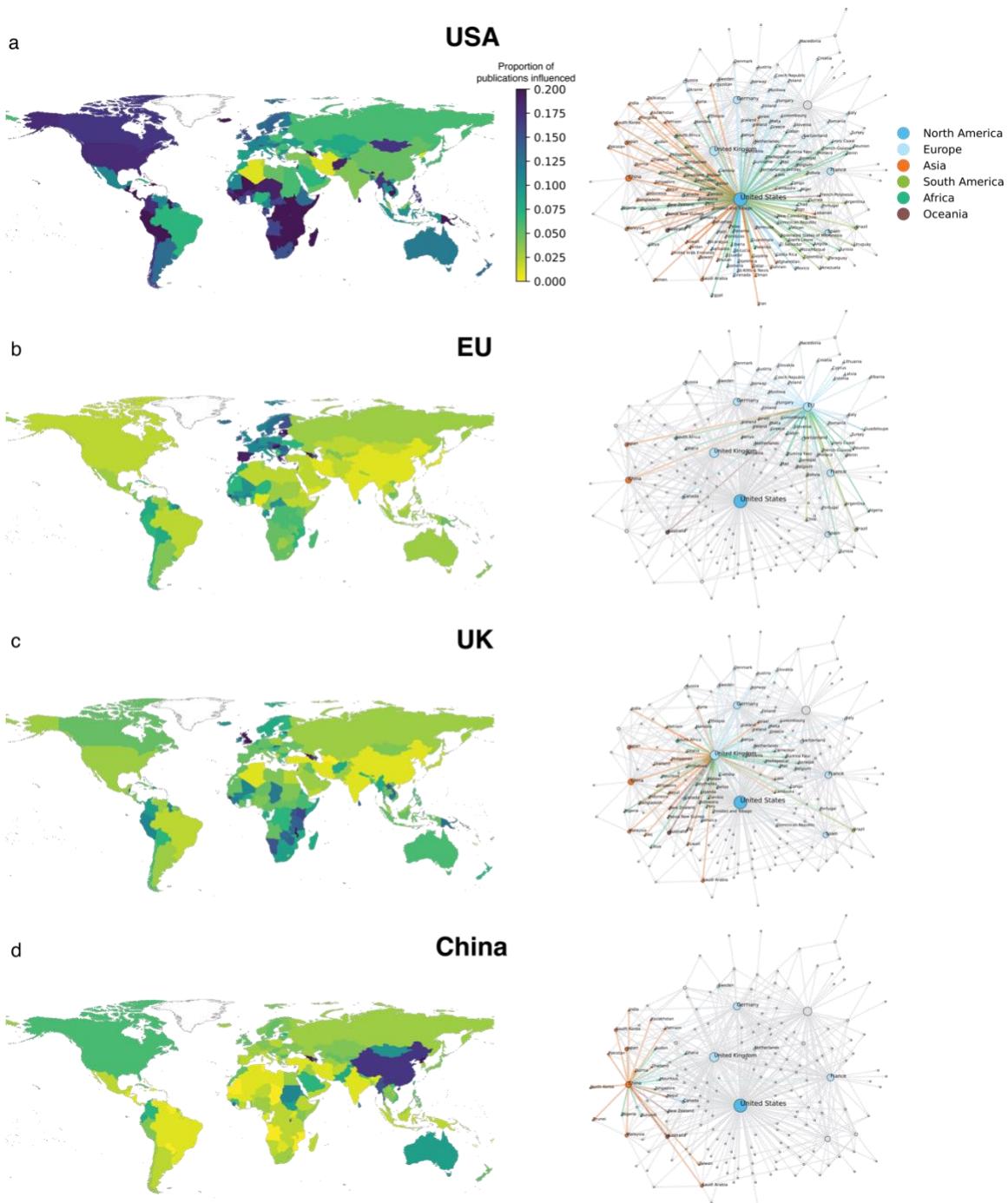


289

290 **Figure 4 The United States has the largest impact on other countries.** (a) The average proportion of publications influenced
 291 when internationally funded publications by the focal country are removed. To compare the impact of the United States, with
 292 China, the United States, and China are highlighted. The line shows the mean value of each country. Error bars represent the
 293 95% confidence interval of the mean drawn from bootstrapping. (b) The KL-divergence value of research profile of countries
 294 when the internationally funded publications by the focal country are removed. (c) The causal diagram on which our regression
 295 models are built. Here, CAP_t stands for the scientific capacity of the country at time t , OPN_t represents the extend of
 296 international scientific cooperation at time t , INV_t represents scientific investment at time t , and $Growth_t$ represents
 297 publication growth during time t . (d) Results from the fix-effects regression models.

298 To reveal a more nuanced difference of the impact of funding from major funders, we
 299 further investigate the *sphere of influence* of the United States, EU, UK, and China. The first
 300 three countries and regions are chosen because withdrawing funding from them results in an
 301 influence on more than 5% of publications across countries, and China is included for
 302 comparison (Methods). The results reveal that removing funding from the United States causes a
 303 substantial influence globally, with the most salient influence observed in African countries and
 304 Latin American countries (Fig. 5a). Meanwhile, the United States is considered as the most

305 important funding source by the largest number of countries (Fig. 5a). In contrast, funding
306 organizations from the European Union and from the UK exert influence primarily within
307 Europe, with the impact of UK funding extending to certain African countries and Asian
308 countries with colonial ties, such as India and Malaysia (Fig. 5b-c). Despite China being the
309 largest funder to global science, its impact on global scale remains marginal, and only a select
310 few Asian countries, such as Singapore, Japan, and Vietnam, consider it the most significant
311 source of funding (Fig. 5d).



312

313 **Figure 5. Scientific funding from the United States has exerted a significant influence on countries worldwide, whereas**
 314 **China's influence is primarily concentrated in Asian nations. (a)-(d) Exemplars illustrate the distribution of influence from four**
 315 **major scientific funders. The proportion of influenced publications is calculated as the percentage of publications in each country**
 316 **acknowledging funding from the specified focal funders. The backbone networks illustrate significant funding partnerships**
 317 **between countries, with coloring applied only to countries receiving a substantial portion of their funding from the focal country.**
 318 **Node color corresponds to the six continents.**

319 **Discussion**

320 National scientific development hinges on the availability of scientific investments^{53,54}.
321 However, constrained by limitations and heterogeneity of R&D expenditures data, it has
322 remained challenging to describe the global scientific funding landscape . Using funding
323 acknowledgements disclosed in scientific publications indexed in the Web of Science, our study
324 provides a global-scale analysis of funding structures behind national scientific activity, and
325 interconnections between countries through scientific funding.

326 We find that the rise of China's scientific system has led to a US-China duopoly in the
327 global scientific funding structure, with a relative decline in the US. Our results reaffirm the
328 observation that researchers in developing countries are under-funded by domestic
329 institutions^{4,45}, leading to an overreliance on foreign funding. Our analyses suggest that
330 developing countries would lose a large fraction of publications and experience a larger
331 alteration of their research profile if international funding is removed. Even with the rapid rise of
332 China in global stage, the United States maintains the largest influence on the other countries.

333 Our results demonstrate that nations are deeply embedded in an interconnected global
334 scientific system where they are heavily reliant on each other. Even when controlling for relevant
335 factors, foreign scientific investment continues to demonstrate a significant association with the
336 national publication growth rate. These dependencies, however, are highly asymmetrical, which
337 creates a discrepancy in where science is done and where scientists and investments are from⁵⁶,
338 as well as in leadership roles on scientific teams⁵⁷. “Parachute science”⁵⁸ or “helicopter
339 research”⁵⁹ is the practice whereby scholars, typically from countries with higher scientific
340 capacity, carry out research abroad with little involvement or engagement from the local
341 community. These practices are often the result of colonial relationships, and perpetuate the
342 assumption that rich countries have a right to study and utilize the environment of less resourced

343 nations⁶⁰. To achieve sustainable global development, it is crucial for major scientific nations to
344 recognize their influence on scientific development of other, particularly less-advanced,
345 countries⁶¹.

346 Our results call attention to the issue of dependence on foreign funding in low-income
347 countries and the potential consequences and threats it poses to future scientific development.
348 Funding underlying global science is linked with the deeper and sustained inequality in global
349 scientific structure⁶². The power asymmetries enforced by scientific funding from high-income
350 countries to developing countries inevitably lead to overlook the research agenda in low-income
351 countries⁶³. For example, investment from the US National Institutes of Health in South Africa
352 far exceeds national investment in health research⁶⁴, which allows a foreign entity to effectively
353 set the research agenda for the country. Our research reinforces the strong influence of developed
354 nations on the topic space and research profile of developing countries. Therefore, partnerships
355 should also seek to improve capacity building and build joint funding opportunities⁶⁵, to lessen
356 asymmetrical global dependencies⁶⁶. To build a productive and sustainable scientific system in
357 developing countries, funders in high-income countries and potential local funders in low-
358 income countries should work collectively to shape a new framework to better fund science.

359 **Data and Methods**

360 **Publication data**

361 Publication data is drawn from Clarivate Analytics' Web of Science (WoS) database hosted and
362 managed by the *Observatoire des Sciences et des Technologies* at *Université du Québec à*
363 *Montréal*. Publications are associated with countries using the institutional addresses listed by
364 authors on their papers. Disciplinary classification of publications is based on the National
365 Science Foundation field and subfield classification of journals, which categorizes each paper

366 published in a given journal into a discipline and a specialty⁶⁷. The classification was further
367 complemented by an in-house classification for the Arts and Humanities⁶⁸. The resulting
368 classification scheme contains 143 specialties, grouped into 14 disciplines: Biology, Biomedical
369 Research, Chemistry, Clinical Medicine, Earth and Space, Engineering and Technology,
370 Mathematics, Physics, Arts, Health, Humanities, Professional Fields, Psychology, and Social
371 Sciences. Considering the incomplete funding coverage in social science and humanities
372 publications³¹, we excluded Arts, Heath, Humanities, Professional Fields, Psychology, and
373 Social Sciences from our analysis. We limited our analysis to journal articles and review articles.
374 We also excluded publications that did not contain institutional addresses or disciplinary
375 categories. WoS began indexing funding information during the year 2008; therefore, we began
376 the analysis in 2009. After these filters, the dataset contained 12,759,130 articles published
377 between 2009 and 2018.

378 **Funding acknowledgement data**

379 Information on the research funding of a paper was retrieved from the ‘Funding Agency’ and
380 ‘Grant Number’ fields in the WoS. We limit our analysis to the funding organization strings that
381 appeared at least twice in the database, given that organizations appearing once are largely
382 spelling mistakes, non-funding organizations⁶⁹, or negligible funding agencies. 3,086,974 unique
383 name strings were removed in this step, leaving 756,881 unique name strings. This yielded a
384 reduction of 755,031 articles (i.e., 6% of all articles) from the analysis. The retained strings may
385 include organizations that are acknowledged for contributions other than funding; however,
386 empirical studies suggest these instances are relatively rare⁷⁰.

387 We then used a previously curated dataset and two automatic identification approaches to
388 assign funding organizations to countries. The curated dataset was inherited from a previous

389 study examining the mental health research funding system which includes nationality
390 information of 1,783 (0.2% of total identified institutions) funding agencies⁷¹. For the remaining
391 institutions, we developed two approaches to automatically identify nationality. First, we used
392 the names of countries and the variations of names within the names of funding organizations.
393 For instance, “China” can be identified from many Chinese funding organizations (e.g., “NSF of
394 China”). Name strings containing “EU” or “European”—such as “European Science
395 Foundation”—are classed as such: considering that EU funding organizations are supported by
396 member countries, we label them as “EU” rather than individual countries. Through this
397 approach, 237,313 (31.4% of total identified institutions) institutions were assigned to a country.
398 3,764 (0.4% of total identified institutions) name strings contained the name of multiple
399 countries, such as “US-Israel Binational Science Foundation”; these were labeled as “multi-
400 national”.

401 For the remaining strings (59.3% of total identified institutions), we inferred the
402 nationality from the main country affiliation of articles funded by each institution. More
403 specifically, we compiled the distribution of countries found in articles funded by each funder
404 and assigned the country that was most frequent. In most cases, a country appears much more
405 frequent than others. For example, 98% of papers that report the funder string ‘NERC’ (Natural
406 Environment Research Council) had affiliations from the United Kingdom; the funder was
407 therefore assigned to the UK. Similarly, 98% of papers that report funding from ‘UGC’
408 (University Grants Commission) come from institutions affiliated with India; that string was
409 identified as an Indian funding agency. By leveraging authorship institution information, we
410 were able to identify the national affiliation of 438,247 (57.90% of total identified institutions)
411 funding organizations. We exclude 10,453 (1.38% of total identified institutions) organizations

412 from our analysis as they could not be assigned to any single country due to the equal
413 distribution from multiple countries. We applied two approaches to validate the accuracy of our
414 identification (see SI). Although the approach may have a slight bias to assign organizations to
415 more scientifically advanced countries (due to higher production of articles), the validation
416 results show high accuracy of assignment (see SI).

417 Our final dataset contained 12,759,130 publications; 5,022,190 (39.36% of all
418 publications) publications are not associated with funding information, 6,620,701 (51.89% of all
419 publications) publications are associated with funding organizations that were identified via
420 country name matching, 36,971 (0.3% of all publications) publications receive funding from
421 “multi-national” institutions, 3,644,249 (28.56% of all publications) publications are associated
422 with the institutions that were identified via authorship, and 14,639 (0.11% of all publications)
423 publications are associated with unidentified funding organizations. Since the focus of our study
424 is to understand the source and the destination of the scientific investment across countries, we
425 exclude the “multi-nation” funding institutions and the unidentified institutions from our
426 analysis; those account for 0.41% of the total publications in our analysis. It is important to note
427 that certain types of funders such as government laboratories, charity units and commercial
428 companies are less likely to be explicitly acknowledged by authors. Therefore, in our analysis,
429 “funded papers” refer to those containing explicit funding information, while it’s possible that
430 papers without such information may still have been funded.

431 **Assignation of publications to funding country**

432 We use fractional counting to assign funded publications to each country, defined as $f_{c,p} = \frac{N_{c,p}}{N_p}$
433 where $f_{c,p}$ is the proportion of paper p that is funded by country c , $N_{c,p}$ is the number of funding

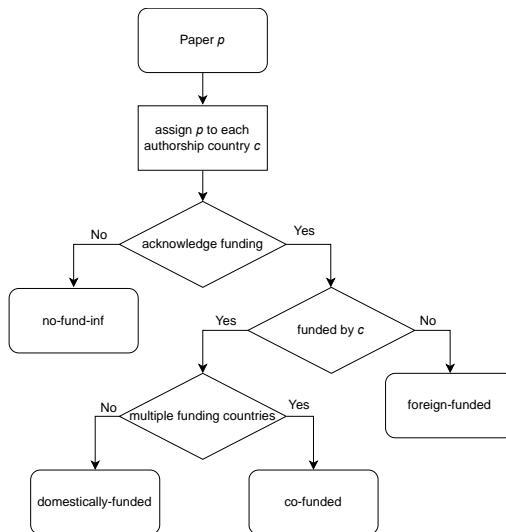
434 instances that come from country c , and N_p is the total amount of funding instances that are
435 acknowledged in paper p . A funding instance refers to the ‘funding agency-grant number’
436 combination recorded in the dataset: e.g., NSF-1904280 and NSF-2144216 are considered as two
437 different funding instances⁶⁹. For the funding agencies without grant numbers, we assume one
438 grant comes from that agency. This conceptually makes each funding instance equivalent, which
439 is a major caveat of this study. However, we note that it is challenging to find a better and
440 feasible alternative. First, it is impossible to identify the amount of every grant consistently and
441 accurately across all countries, no global datasets of funding amounts exist. Second, even if the
442 total funded amount of each grant could be revealed, the amount of direct research funding varies
443 substantially across institutions and countries due to indirect cost. Third, the funding required for
444 a research project can vary greatly across disciplines and countries due to differences in the
445 nature of the involved costs, as well as variations in the costs of labor and materials needed.
446 Finally, the fact that large grants tend to produce more papers partly mitigate the bias from
447 focusing on the funding instances. Given the constraints of available datasets, therefore, we
448 employ acknowledged funding grants as a proxy of countries’ funding activity.

449 **Measuring a country’s share of funded publications**

450 To estimate a country’s contribution to global scientific funding, we measure the proportion of
451 global publications that are funded by each country. The proportion of global publications that
452 are funded by a country is defined as $F_c = \frac{\sum_p f_{c,p}}{F}$ where $\sum_p f_{c,p}$ is the sum of the proportion of the
453 funded publications by country c and F is the total number of funded publications globally.

454 **Measuring a country’s research funding intensity**

455 To investigate the funding portfolio of countries, publications are classified into four groups
 456 based on the involved funders after they are assigned to the authorship countries, namely, no-
 457 fund-inf, domestic, co-funded, and foreign (Fig. 6). For ease of interpretation, we use the full
 458 counting method to assign publications to countries based on authorship⁷². “No-Fund-Inf” refers
 459 to publications without any funding information in WoS database. “Domestic” refers to papers
 460 that are funded exclusively by the focal author’s country. For instance, if a publication has
 461 authors from both China and the US, but is funded solely by China, then the publication is
 462 viewed as “domestic” funded from China’s perspective, whereas it will be classified as “foreign”
 463 funded from the perspective of the US, as we will explain shortly. “Co-funded” means the author
 464 country participated in the funding activity with other countries, e.g., for a collaborative
 465 publication authored and funded by both China and the US, the paper is classified as co-funded
 466 for both countries. “Foreign” means the author’s country is not listed as the funding country. For
 467 instance, for an EU-funded collaborative publication authored by China and the US, the paper is
 468 classified as foreign-funded for both China and the US.



469

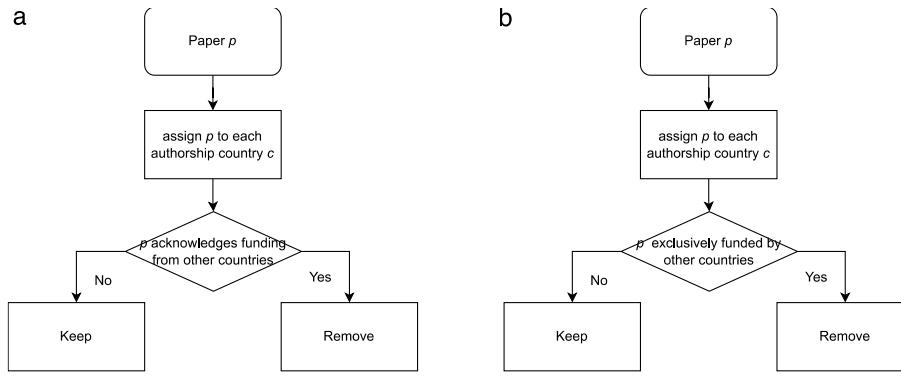
470 *Figure 6 Classifying publications into four funding types based on the countries providing funding and the countries of*
 471 *authorship.*

472 The overall funding intensity of a country is defined as $I_c = \frac{1}{M_c} \sum_{m \in M_c} \delta(m, F)$ where M_c
473 is the number of publications that are authored by country c , $\delta(m, F)$ is 1 if paper m
474 acknowledges funding regardless where the funding comes from otherwise the value is 0. To
475 characterize a country's gross funding capacity, we measure the proportion of publications that
476 are exclusively funded by the country itself which is defined as $C_c = \frac{1}{M_c} \sum_{m \in M_c} \delta(c, m)$ where
477 M_c is the number of publications that are authored by country c , $\delta(c, m)$ is 1 if paper m
478 acknowledges funding solely from country c otherwise the value is 0.

479 **Estimating a country's dependence on international funding and its global impact**

480 To investigate a country's dependence on international research funding, for each country, we
481 calculate the percentage of publications that would be influenced if we excluded all
482 internationally-funded publications. Internationally-funded publication refers to any publication
483 that acknowledges funding resources from a country that is different from the focal authorship
484 country (Fig. 7a). For instance, paper p —co-authored by China and the United States while
485 funded by China—is considered as an internationally-funded publication for the United States
486 and as a non-internationally-funded publication for China since Chinese' funding resources
487 flows to US authors who participated in research through paper p . Removing internationally-
488 funded publications for a country can be considered as an extreme hypothetical scenario where
489 the country is cut off from receiving funding resource from all foreign countries, influencing
490 publications involving any degree of international funding. We call the publication record
491 without internationally-funded papers as the counterfactual publication record. Meanwhile,
492 considering the potential situation wherein researchers can leverage domestic funding in the
493 absence of foreign financial support, we build the second counterfactual publication record by

494 removing publications exclusively funded by foreign sources (Fig. 7b). This additional
 495 experiment estimates countries' dependence on international funding by assuming that only
 496 papers exclusively funded by foreign funding would be affected when the country is
 497 disconnected from foreign funding.



498

499 *Figure 7 Illustration explaining the process of determining whether a publication is included in the counterfactual record.*

500 In addition to examining the number of remaining publications, we also investigate how
 501 countries' research profiles are changed by removing these publications. A country's research
 502 profile is measured as the distribution of number of publications in each discipline. To estimate
 503 countries' dependency on the papers that receive foreign funding, we use the Kullback-Leibler
 504 divergence (KL-divergence) between the actual research profile and the research profile after
 505 removing internationally-funded publications (counterfactual research profile). The KL-
 506 divergence is defined as:

$$507 \quad D_c(P||Q) = \sum_{x \in \chi} p(x) \ln \frac{p(x)}{q(x)},$$

508 Where Q is the actual research profile of country c , $q(x)$ is the proportion of publications in
 509 discipline x in country c , P is the counterfactual research profile of country c , $p(x)$ is the
 510 proportion of publication in discipline x in the counterfactual profile. $D_c(P||Q)$ measures the
 511 extra number of bits required to represent the counterfactual research profile using the code that

512 is optimized for the actual research profile. Large KL-divergence value means the counterfactual
513 profile is more distant from the actual research profile, indicating the topical distribution of
514 internationally-funded publications is more distinct from that of domestically-funded
515 publications. In other words, large divergence suggests that the country's research focus may be
516 largely swayed by foreign funding agencies' priorities.

517 In addition to measure the general impact of internationally funded publication, we
518 replicate the same analysis by removing internationally funded publications that are funded by a
519 single country, to estimate the impact of a specific country. For instance, to estimate the global
520 impact of funding from the United States, we remove publications that have non-US authors
521 where the US's funding agencies are acknowledged, considering the case where the United
522 States had stopped international funding and the publication would be influenced. After filtering
523 out those publications, we measure the proportion of publications influenced and changes in
524 research profile across countries. Moreover, to address the possibility that researchers can
525 potentially access funding resources from alternate countries in the absence of financial support
526 from a specific country, we build the second counterfactual publication record by removing
527 publications exclusively funded by the focal country. The analysis measures the impact of a
528 country under the condition that the focal country is the sole provider of financial resources
529 necessary for the paper's production.

530 To understand a country's reliance on funding resources from other nations, we construct
531 a funding reliance network where nodes are countries and directed, weighted edges capture the
532 reliance of one country on the other. For instance, a direct edge from country c_1 to country c_2
533 with a weight of 0.2 represents 20% of publications would be influenced in country c_2 if country
534 c_1 stops funding internationally and if all the publications that was funded by c_1 could not be

535 realized. To identify the most influential funders for each country, we apply the multiscale
536 backbone extraction method⁷³, which uses a simple null-model to identify the most
537 disproportionately significant edges around each node. Networks in our study are extracted with
538 the significance value set at 0.005.

539 **Fixed-effect regression model**

540 Empirical studies have demonstrated that national innovation capacity is intricately characterized
541 by a nuanced set of observable factors, encompassing inputs devoted into innovation system such
542 as scientific manpower and scientific investment^{50–52}. Additionally, the environment for
543 innovative production, such as the extent of IP protection^{50–52} and openness to global
544 cooperation^{50–52}, along with a country's knowledge stock^{50,51}, play determining roles. Building
545 upon these empirical evidences, our conceptual model posits that national scientific publication
546 growth is a function of scientific production capacity, openness to international cooperation, and
547 scientific investment (Fig. 4c).

548 Scientific capacity in our model considers available scientific personnel, infrastructure,
549 the stock of accumulated knowledge, and the capability to convert scientific capital into
550 publications. Given the infrequency of abrupt changes in a country's scientific capacity between
551 two consecutive years and recognizing the causal relationship from scientific capacity to the
552 number of produced publications, we approximate scientific capacity at time t with number of
553 publications produced in time $t-1$. Furthermore, we posit that a country's scientific openness is
554 closely linked to the extent of international collaboration and consequent external funding.
555 Consequently, we substitute the openness factor in the theoretical model with the amount of
556 foreign funding instances acknowledged by the papers published by the country. To assess the
557 impact of funding from different countries, we categorize funding sources, namely: China, EU,

558 France, Germany, United Kingdom, United States, and others. The scientific investment of a
559 country is measured by the number of domestic funding instances acknowledged in publications.
560 The fixed-effect model is defined as follows:

561

$$G_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{i,t-1} + \sum \beta_q F_{q,t} + \alpha_t + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

562 Where i denotes countries, t denotes time periods, $G_{i,t}$ is the publication growth rate in the
563 receiving country between time t and $t-1$, $P_{i,t-1}$ is the number of publications produced by
564 country i at time $t-1$, $F_{q,t}$ is the amount of funding instances from each distinctive country
565 include country c itself, α_t and α_i are the time-specific and country-specific intercepts that
566 capture the heterogeneity across time periods and countries.

567 **Limitations**

568 This study has several limitations. First, estimations derived from Web of Science are
569 subject to biases and errors. Web of Science, being developed and maintained by the Western,
570 Anglophone scientific enterprise, tends to overestimates research and related funding from
571 Western countries and publications in English while underestimating the production and funding
572 in other nations and languages⁷². Moreover, the effectiveness of the funding indexation algorithm
573 varies across countries and years, leading to underestimations of funding data for earlier years
574 and certain countries (see SI). Nevertheless, given the comprehensive coverage of funding data
575 within the dataset used for our analysis, our results remain largely unaffected by the omission of
576 some information (see SI). Furthermore, the database primarily focuses on journal articles,
577 neglecting alternative forms of output like patents and book projects, which could potentially
578 result in an underestimation of funding-related output.

579 Second, our analysis is based on the identification of funding acknowledgements within
580 publications. It is important to note that funding acknowledgement information, while a valuable
581 resource, may not comprehensively reflect the entire financial support for knowledge production.
582 Funding from certain types of funders, such as hospitals or government agencies, may be less
583 likely to be explicitly acknowledged, a phenomenon denoted as implicit funding^{74,75}. However,
584 given the limited systematic understanding on the prevalence, role, and mechanism of implicit
585 funding, we defer the examination of the impact of implicit funding to future research.
586 Therefore, within the scope of our analysis, “funded publications” specifically refer to those that
587 contain explicit and identifiable funding information. In addition, it is possible that institutions
588 are acknowledged in publications due to various incentive reasons. Authors may cite funding that
589 did not directly contribute to the work but were included to demonstrate evidence of labor for
590 grants (see SI on data section). However, as funding agencies and publishers are increasingly
591 strict about the reporting of financial support behind their publications, funding
592 acknowledgements are now more effective in reflecting the financial investment behind
593 publications^{70,71} (see SI on data section).

594 Another caveat is that funding acknowledgement practices may vary across countries and
595 disciplines³¹. For instance, previous studies argued that publications with Chinese affiliations
596 have higher rate of funding acknowledgement and are associated with higher number of
597 grants^{47,48}, although the extent of such biases is not yet clear and evidence tends not to be well-
598 established (see Supplementary information on data section). Third, our estimation of influence
599 may be too simplistic; future work may be able to devise more sophisticated causal inference
600 techniques to estimate the extent of influence that one country is exerting on another. Despite
601 these limitations, our systematic examination of global funding landscape with the best available

602 data allows us to map contrasting funding patterns on a global scale and understand how
603 countries are interconnected through funding.

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611
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614 authors contributed to the interpretation of the results and writing of the manuscript.

615 **Competing Interest Statement:** The authors declare no conflict of interest

616 **Data and materials availability:** Restrictions apply to the availability of the bibliometric data,
617 which is used under license from Thomson Reuters. Readers can contact Thomson Reuters at the
618 following URL: <http://thomsonreuters.com/en/products-services/scholarly-scientific->
619 <research/scholarly-search-and-discovery/web-of-science.html>. The code used for data processing
620 and analysis is available here https://github.com/LiliMiaohub/national_science_funding

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- 777
- 778

779 **Supplementary Information**

780 **Funding acknowledgement data**

781 Web of Science (WoS) starts to record funding data in August of 2008. Considering the quality and
782 completeness of funding data, we utilize records from 2009 onwards. For the same reason, only
783 publications that are in fields of Natural Sciences, Engineering and Medicine are considered. We only
784 consider the document type “Article”, “Note” and “Review”. In total, 12,759,130 publications are
785 included in our analysis. Among the 12,759,130 publications, 7,737,510 (60.6%) publications have
786 funding information.

787

788 Our analysis builds upon the acknowledgement data within the WoS dataset. However, it is important to
789 note that the acknowledgement data in WoS is not exempt from errors. WoS primarily relies on in-text
790 extraction to collect the funding information from acknowledgements, and it is unclear how the WoS deal
791 with cases where funding acknowledgement is found in other sections of the manuscript, such as
792 footnotes. The accuracy of funding acknowledgements varies across disciplines and research grants^{76,77}.
793 Powell found that WoS returned around 80% of all publications supported by NIH grants, whereas
794 PubMed returned 93% of them⁷⁷. Koier and Horling found that WoS incorrectly retrieved
795 acknowledgements for about 24% of research publications supported by two Dutch climate programs⁷⁸.
796 After manually extracting funding data from the full text (including other sections that may include
797 funding acknowledgement) of cancer related publications produced by UK affiliated authors in 2011,
798 Grassano et al. find, among all the sampled publications with funding information, WoS reports funding
799 information for 93% of them⁷⁰. Grassano et al. also report that WoS missed at least one funder in about
800 11% of records⁷⁰. This result is roughly comparable to the results of Álvarez-Bornstein, who found the
801 rate of missing information from acknowledgement in WoS is quite low. For instance, they found that
802 funding information was entirely lost (neither the funder nor the grant number was collected) in 7.1% of
803 sampled articles and is partially lost (only the funder or the grant number was collected) in 5.8% of
804 sampled articles⁶⁹. Wang and Shapira find that the likelihood of misreporting funding information in WoS
805 is relative low for nanotechnology; only one paper is found to incorrectly index the funding field from
806 funding acknowledgement among the 150 sampled publications³⁵.

807

808 Since the quality of the data plays vital role in our analysis, we systematically evaluated the accuracy of
809 funding information retrieval within the WoS. The analysis is performed with a most recent WoS version,
810 which is slightly different from the version that we used for the analysis. We will discuss the consequence
811 of using different versions of WoS in the following paragraph.

812

813 In alignment with our main analysis, our robustness analysis uses journal papers and review articles in the
814 Science Citation Index Expanded (SCIE). We assert that Web of Science (WoS) rarely introduces
815 spurious, nonexistent funding information (referred to as the false positive case) when original articles
816 lack funding information or when such information are not reported by external sources. To substantiate
817 this assertion, we conducted a manual examination of papers associated with funding information in the
818 WoS dataset. The manual examination of a randomly sampled set of 30 articles reveals that all 30 articles
819 indeed acknowledged funding, yielding a 95% confidence interval for the true positive rate of
820 94.3%±5.6%. Therefore, we posit that the occurrence of false positives is infrequent. Consequently, we

821 focus on the false negatives—funded papers acknowledging financial support within publications but not
822 documented in WoS.

823

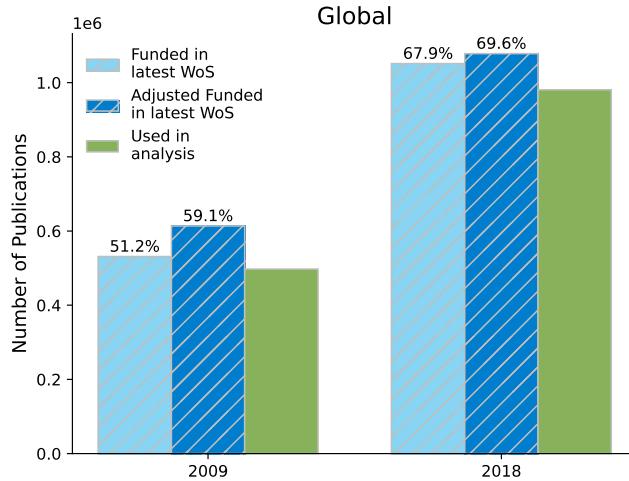
824 We estimate the frequency of false negatives in WoS and use it to estimate the true funding rates. First,
825 we assess the overall long-term funding trend by examining two specific time points, namely 2009 and
826 2018. For each time point, from all papers that do not have any funding information in the WoS, we
827 randomly sample 150 papers (300 total). We then conducted a manual verification of the funding
828 information in the sampled publications.

829

830 For those from 2009, we identify funding support acknowledgements in 24 out of 150 (16%) of them; for
831 those from 2018, 8 out of 150 (5.3%) contain identifiable funding information. To estimate the number of
832 papers should be reclassified as having funding information, we measure the error rate in recognizing
833 papers without funding information, which is defined as $ER = FN/N$, where FN represents the number
834 of papers should be reclassified as having funding information, and N represents the number of papers
835 classified as lacking funding information in WoS.

836

837 We applied bootstrapping to the sampled dataset to estimate the error rate and its confidence intervals. In
838 2009, the estimated error rate is 16.2% (95% CI: [16.0%, 16.4%]), and in 2018, it is 5.4% (95% CI:
839 [5.3%, 5.5%]). According to the most recent version of WoS, out of 1,038,638 papers published in 2009,
840 51% (531,320) are recognized to include funding information and 49% (507,318 papers) are identified as
841 not having funding information. Considering the estimated error rate, approximately 16.2% of papers
842 identified as without funding information should be reclassified. Incorporating misclassified papers, we
843 anticipate that about 59% (613,525 papers, 95% CI: [612,602, 614,449]) of these papers actually have
844 funding information. For the 1,548,696 papers published in 2018, 68% (1,051,390 papers) already contain
845 funding information. Factoring in the estimated error rate, approximately 70% (1,078,350 papers, 95%
846 CI: [1,077,757, 1,078,944]) of papers in 2018 should be classified as having funding information. Despite
847 a relatively high error rate in identifying papers without funding information in earlier years, the results,
848 after adjusting for misclassifications, still support an increasing trend in the proportion of papers
849 containing funding information within WoS (see Figure 1).



850

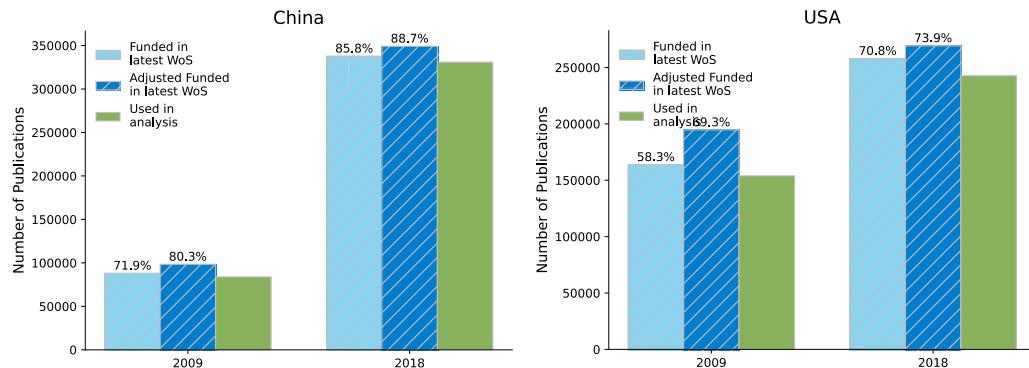
851 **Figure 1 The number of publications with funding information.** The light blue bars represent the number of papers identified in
 852 the latest version of WoS as containing funding information. The associated percentage represents the corresponding fraction,
 853 calculated as N_{funded}/N_{total} , where N_{total} is the total number of publications in the latest version of WoS. The dark blue bars
 854 represent the number of papers should be classified as have funding information after incorporating false negative cases. The
 855 associated percentage represents the corresponding fraction. The green bars represent the number of funded papers in the
 856 dataset we used for our analysis.

857 We further compared the data coverage in our analysis with the expected number of publications with
 858 funding information in the latest WoS release. In the dataset used for the analysis, we identified 497,411
 859 and 980,965 publications with funding information for the years 2009 and 2018, respectively, constituting
 860 81% and 91% of the anticipated number of publications with funding information (see Figure 1). The
 861 difference in coverage between our dataset and the most recent WoS arises from three key factors. First,
 862 the anticipated number of publications is calibrated to address false negatives, yielding to a more
 863 comprehensive coverage. Second, WoS has been updated dynamically, incorporating additional funding
 864 information into the dataset. Third, our analysis selected publications based on funding institutions,
 865 focusing on funding institutions with occurrences more than two instances. This filtration identified
 866 755,031 articles (6% of all articles in our analysis) as unfunded papers. Although multiple factors have
 867 contributed to a more comprehensive coverage of funding information in the latest version of WoS, given
 868 that the data used in our analysis encompass substantial amount of funding information compared to the
 869 expected number, we believe the data is valid and robust for the analysis.

870

871 Given that our analysis primarily focuses on the evolving dominance between the United States and
 872 China, we conduct additional estimations to assess the error rates in recognizing papers without funding
 873 information for these two countries, defined as $ER_c = FN_c/N_c$ where FN_c represents the number of
 874 authored by country c misclassified as lacking funding information by WoS, and N_c represents the
 875 number of papers authored by country c classified as papers without funding information by WoS.
 876 Sampling approximately 100 papers from China and the United States for the years 2009 and 2018,
 877 respectively, we manually cross-validated funding information within these publications. Applying
 878 bootstrapping on the sampled dataset, our results indicate an error rate of 29.9% (95% CI: [29.5%,
 879 30.2%]) for Chinese-authored publications and 26.3% (95% CI: [26.1%, 26.6%]) for US-authored
 880 publications in 2009. In 2018, these rates are 20.4% (95% CI: [20.2%, 20.6%]) for China and 10.7% (95%
 881 CI: [10.5%, 10.9%]) for the United States.

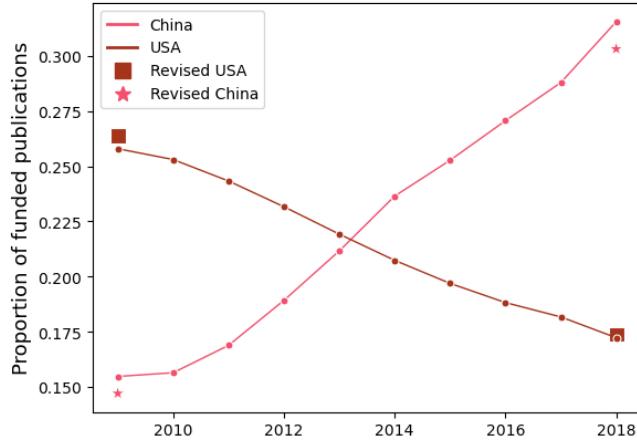
883 In the most recent version of WoS, among the 122,394 and 393,720 papers authored by China in 2009
 884 and 2018, 34,350 and 55,973 papers are classified as lacking funding information. Considering the
 885 estimated error rate, 26.3% and 10.7% of papers identified as lacking funding information should be
 886 reclassified. After incorporating misclassified cases, there are 98,214 and 348,724 Chinese researchers
 887 authored papers should have funding information in 2009 and 2018. In our analysis dataset, we have
 888 83,947 and 330,812 papers authored by Chinese authors with funding information in 2009 and 2018,
 889 representing 85% and 95% of the expected number of funded publications based on the latest WoS (see
 890 Figure 2). For US authors, the latest WoS reports 163,769 and 257,887 papers with funding information
 891 in 2009 and 2018. After incorporating misclassified papers, these numbers become 194,704 and 269,189
 892 for US-authored papers. In our analysis dataset, we have 153,889 and 242,645 papers authored by US
 893 researchers with funding information in 2009 and 2018, which constitutes 79% and 90% of the expected
 894 number of funded papers (see Figure 2).



897 *Figure 2 The number of funded papers by China and the United States. The light blue bars represent the number of papers*
 898 *identified in the latest version of WoS as containing funding information. The associated percentage represents the*
 899 *corresponding fraction, calculated as N_{funded}/N_{total} , where N_{total} is the total number of publications authored by the country*
 900 *in the latest version of WoS. The dark blue bars represent the number of papers should have funding information after*
 901 *incorporating false negative cases. The associated percentage represents the corresponding fraction. The green bars represent*
 902 *the number of funded papers in the dataset we used for our analysis.*

903 To assess the impact of omitted funding data, we estimate the number of publications funded by the
 904 United States and China in 2009 and 2018 using the latest WoS data, while incorporating the
 905 misclassified cases. However, it is important to note it is infeasible to precisely replicate the calculations
 906 from the main analysis (Figure 1d in the main text) due to the involvement of fractionalization of funded
 907 publications based on the number of funders and funding instances, where specific funding information of
 908 the misclassified publications remain unknown. Therefore, we estimated the funded publications in the
 909 latest WoS leveraging the proportion of papers funded by each country, as quantified in our current
 910 analysis. Specifically, we computed the proportion of papers funded by country c when researchers from
 911 country c are listed as authors, denoted as $P_1 = F_{c,t}/N_{c,t}$ where $F_{c,t}$ represents the number of papers
 912 country c funded when researchers from country c are listed as authors (calculated using fractional
 913 counting, see Method), and $N_{c,t}$ is the number of funded papers country c authored. Similarly, the
 914 proportion of papers funded by country c when researchers from country c are not listed as authors is
 915 defined as $P_2 = Q_{c,t}/N_{\neg c,t}$ where $Q_{c,t}$ is the number of papers country c funded when researchers from
 916 country c are not listed as authors and $N_{\neg c,t}$ is the number of funded papers that country c is not listed in

917 authorship country. The number of papers funded by country c is estimated as: $M_{c,t} \times P_1 + M_{\neg c,t} \times P_2$
918 where $M_{c,t}$ and $M_{\neg c,t}$ represent the number of funded papers authored by country c and not authored by
919 country c in the latest WoS after adjusting for false negative rates.



920
921 *Figure 3 The proportion of funded publications that are funded by the United States and China. Solid lines depict the trend*
922 *derived from the dataset used in our analysis, while squares and stars denote the corresponding proportion for the United States*
923 *and China derived from the latest WoS, accounting for false negative cases.*

924 Our finding indicates that, despite data issues, our original results are remarkably robust. Moreover, since
925 the dataset employed in our analysis covers a substantial portion of the “ideal funding data”, we believe
926 that the funding portfolio of countries, as illustrated in Figure 2 in the main text, remains robust against
927 omitted data. Lastly, considering the high and slightly higher funding coverage for China compared to the
928 United States, the conclusion highlighting the more influential impact of funding from the United States
929 remains unchallenged by the omitted data.

930
931 Finally, to comprehensively estimate the quality of funding information in the WoS database, we sampled
932 an additional 500 publications from the WoS dataset and compared the disclosed funding information of
933 these papers with their corresponding entries in the Dimensions data. Within the sampled 500 papers, we
934 find that 131 of them contain funding information from WoS, while only 51 of these papers contain
935 funding information within the Dimensions dataset. There is an overlap of 36 publications that contain
936 funding information in both datasets. A subset of 95 papers is identified as possessing funding
937 information in the WoS while lacking corresponding data in the Dimensions dataset. We examined 10
938 randomly selected papers from this subset and find each of these 10 papers indeed acknowledged funding
939 support. Meanwhile, our examination also reveals that the WoS dataset is not entirely flawless. We
940 conducted another examination with the 15 articles within the Dimensions dataset that contained funding
941 information but lacked corresponding information in WoS. We find 12 out of the 15 articles contain
942 funding information within the paper. Two articles lack funding information and Dimensions inaccurately
943 identified the funding for one paper. The results collectively suggest that although funding information in
944 the WoS dataset is not exempt from errors, it is a reasonable dataset to investigate the global funding
945 landscape.

946

947

948 **Accuracy of nationality identification**

949 We applied two methods to evaluate the accuracy of the identification. First, we crosschecked our
950 identification result with other curated datasets. The first data we used is the unified and cleaned list from
951 WoS¹. The list contains 1,254 funding agencies where 1,119 (89.2%) organizations are included in our
952 analysis. Among the 1119 funding agencies, 1074 (95.98%) organizations are assigned to the same
953 countries as the WoS list. There are five organizations that are assigned to the incorrect country in WoS.
954 In our dataset, 40 agencies have different countries affiliations with the information contained in WoS
955 list. Among the 40 incorrectly identified agencies, 12 (12/40) institutions are identified as either “EU” or
956 “Multi-nation” in our method while they are assigned to the country where the headquarter of the
957 organization locates. There are 8 (8/40) institutions are incorrectly identified through the step one where
958 we extracted the country relevant information from the name of the institution. For example, “American
959 University Cairo” is assigned to the US by us while in actual it is a university locates in Egypt. For the
960 remaining 20 institutions, they all are incorrectly identified using the second step where the authorship
961 institution-level information is used. A potential bias in the second step is the method favors big
962 collaborative countries, particularly when it is dealing with the small research grants with a few
963 publications. For instance, among the 20 incorrectly identified institutions, half of them are incorrectly
964 assigned to the US due to the international collaboration advantage of US institutions.

965

966 The second dataset we used is a set of global cancer research funding institutions . This dataset consists of
967 funding institutions that fund cancer research. The list of funding agencies is collected from five different
968 sources include institutions extraction from cancer related google news, bibliometric approaches using
969 WoS, private for-profit financial entities for cancer from the Pharmaceutical Research and Manufacturers
970 Association, funding institutions in the Union for International Cancer Control, and funding organizations
971 from the US Internal Revenue Service. The multiple sources yield 4737 funding agencies in total. Since
972 the cancer funding agency list contains institutions that are not frequently acknowledged by academic
973 publications such as the for-profit financial entities, among the 4737 funding agencies, only 2501 (52.9%)
974 appear in our analysis. Among the 2501 institutions, 2309 (92%) institutions are identified as the same
975 countries. There are 16 European academic associations assigned to the location of the headquarter: e.g.,
976 the European Institute of Oncology is assigned to Italy. Instead of assigning a single country, we label all
977 EU associated agencies as “EU”. There are 26 institutions that are assigned to the wrong country in the
978 cancer list. For instance, “University of Liverpool” is assigned to the US while it is located in the UK.
979 Therefore, including all the “EU” institutions and the incorrectly identified institutions by the cancer
980 research, a total of 2351 (94%) institutions are correctly identified by our list. For the rest of the 150
981 incorrectly identified agencies, 19 (12.7%) are identified through the first step where the country
982 information in the name string is used and the rest of them are identified through the second step using the
983 funded author information. Among the 131 mistakenly assigned institutions by the second step, 61
984 (46.57%) institutions are identified to US agencies which reinforces that the author information
985 identification favors scientific advanced countries due to their collaboration advantage.

986 To further estimate the bias that is introduced by our identification methods, particularly to the US, we
987 manually validated 100 institutions that are randomly selected from the institutions that are assigned to
988 the US and China, respectively. A further validation shows our identification has high accuracy. Among
989 the 100 institutions we sampled from the US, five of them are incorrectly identified; one is identified with

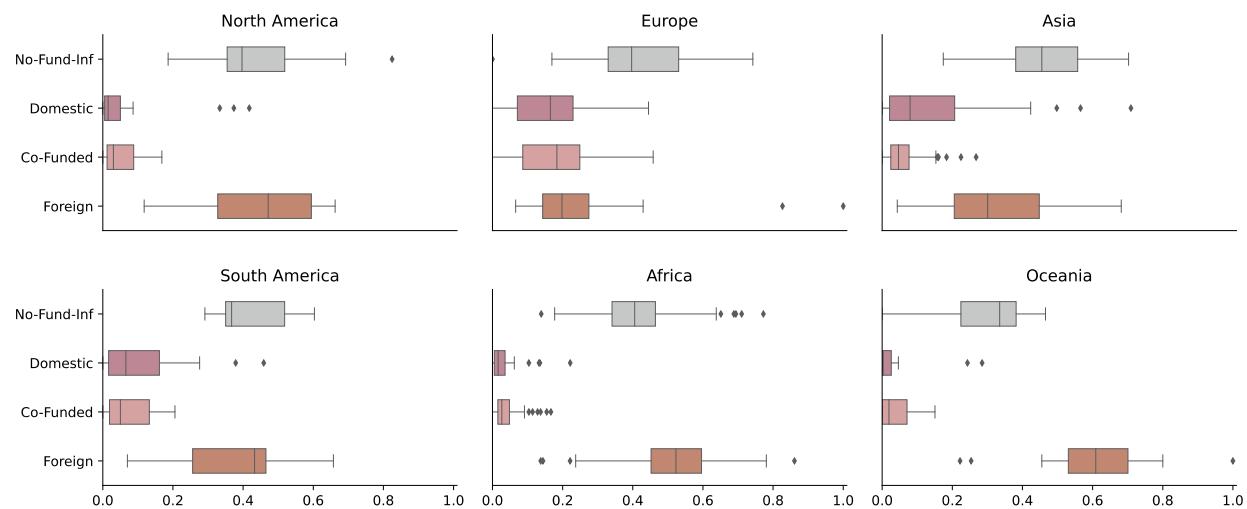
¹ https://support.clarivate.com/ScientificandAcademicResearch/s/article/Web-of-Science-Core-Collection-Availability-of-funding-data?language=en_US

990 step one and four are identified with step two (where the authorship institution information is used). There
991 are eight funding institutions where we are unable to find relevant information. In total, these 13
992 institutions funded 71 publications which is only 3% of the publications that are covered by the sampled
993 institutions. Among the 100 institutions we sampled from China, two of them are incorrectly through the
994 step two and 11 of them are unidentified. In total, these 13 institutions cover 76 publications which is
995 only 1% of the publications that are covered by the sample.

996

997 Country's research funding intensity by source of the fund

998 As showed in figure 6, North American, African and Oceanian countries have the lowest proportion of
999 publications exclusively funded by the focal authorship countries, while concurrently having the highest
1000 proportion of publications exclusively funded by foreign countries. We conduct further examination of
1001 countries with a significant share of domestic funding within each region. The results reveal that China
1002 has the highest proportion of publications funded domestically across all countries. Despite the generally
1003 lower percentage of domestically funded publications in North American countries, the United States,
1004 Canada and Mexico emerge as notable outliers with high proportion of domestically funded publications
1005 (see Table 1).



1006

1007 *Figure 4 Distribution of funding portfolios across regions. "No-Fund-Inf" is the abbreviation for "No Funding Information",*
1008 *denoting papers that lack explicit funding information within the WoS dataset. "Domestic" represents publications that are*
1009 *exclusively funded by agencies from the authorship country. "Co-Funded" represents publications that are co-funded by the focal*
1010 *authorship country and other countries. "Foreign" represents publications that are exclusively funded by foreign countries.*

1011 *Table 1 Funding portfolio of outlier countries across regions based on domestic funding*

cntry	region	Co-Funded	Domestic	Foreign	No-Fund-Inf
Ethiopia	Africa	0.05	0.14	0.38	0.43
Mauritius	Africa	0.10	0.10	0.35	0.45
South Africa	Africa	0.17	0.22	0.26	0.35
Tunisia	Africa	0.04	0.13	0.14	0.69
China	Asia	0.07	0.71	0.04	0.17
South Korea	Asia	0.08	0.57	0.07	0.29
Taiwan	Asia	0.11	0.50	0.11	0.29
Canada	North America	0.17	0.33	0.19	0.31
Mexico	North America	0.12	0.37	0.13	0.37
United States	North America	0.13	0.42	0.12	0.34
Australia	Oceania	0.15	0.28	0.22	0.34
New Zealand	Oceania	0.12	0.24	0.25	0.38
Argentina	South America	0.17	0.38	0.16	0.29
Brazil	South America	0.10	0.46	0.07	0.37

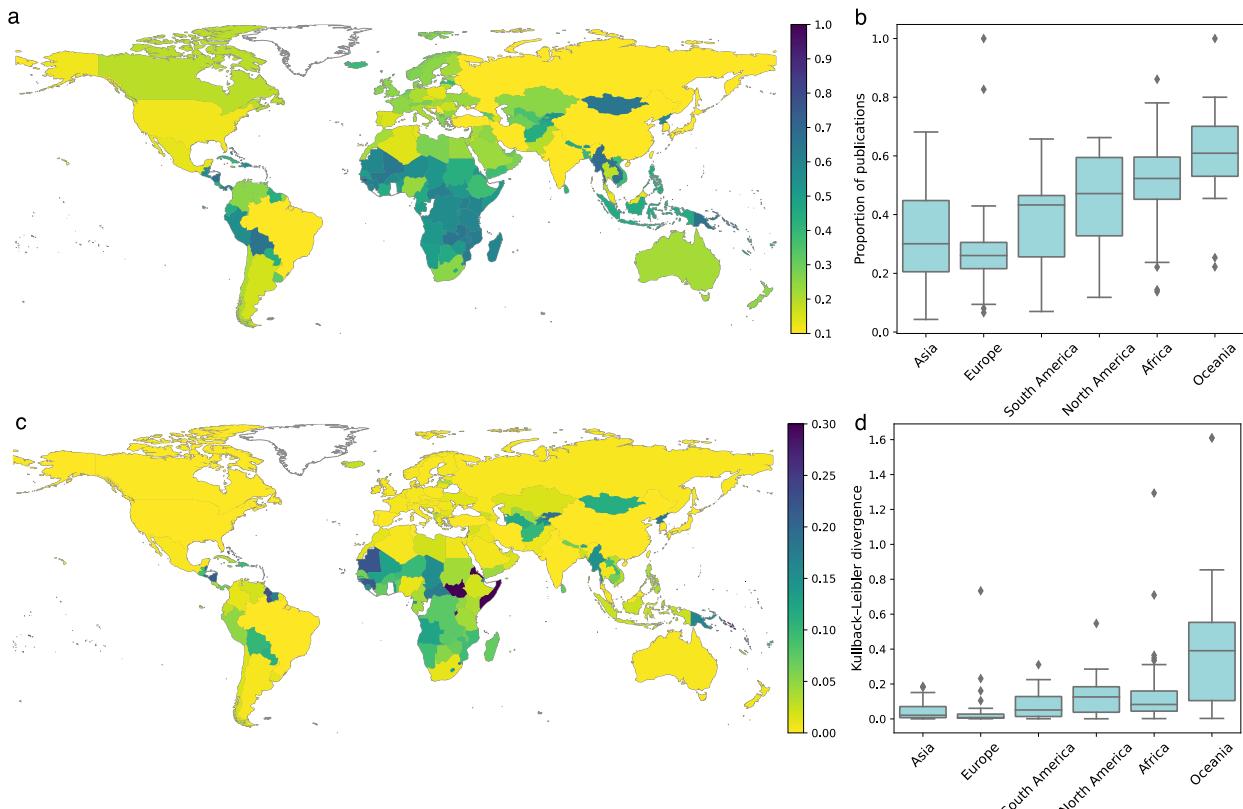
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1014 **Estimating a country's dependence on international funding**

1015 To investigate a country's dependence on international research funding, we construct the first
 1016 counterfactual publication record by removing publications involving any degree of international funding.
 1017 However, considering the potential situation wherein researchers can leverage domestic funding in the
 1018 absence of foreign financial support, we build the second counterfactual publication record by removing
 1019 publications exclusively funded by foreign sources. This additional experiment assesses countries'
 1020 reliance on international funding under the assumption that domestic funding can sustain research
 1021 production even in the absence of foreign funding. The results indicate that, if additional support from
 1022 domestic funding agencies is possible, African and Oceanian countries till bear the most significant
 1023 impact during a disruption in international funding (see figure 7). This reaffirms the vulnerability of
 1024 African and Oceania countries to funding disruptions.

1025



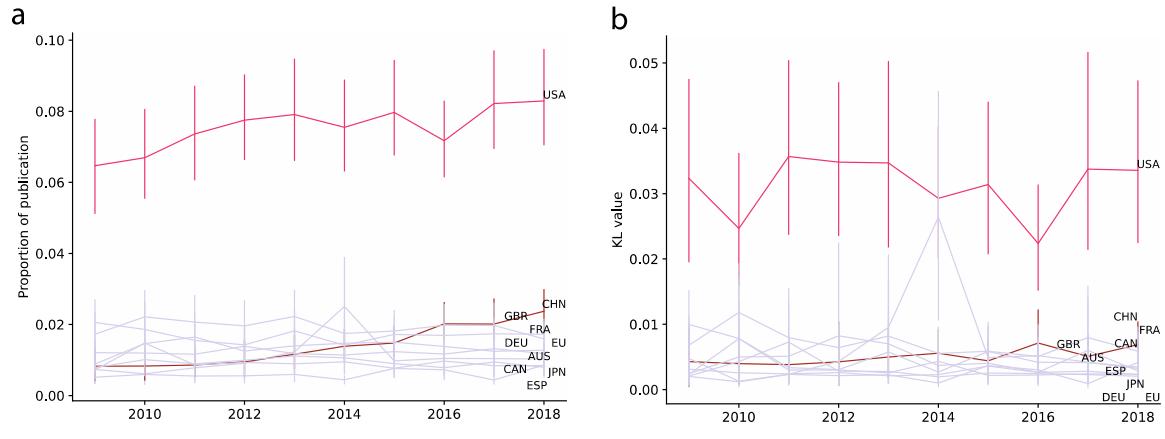
1026

1027 **Figure 5 The impact of removing publications funded exclusively by internationally funding. Asian countries experience the**
 1028 **least lost while African countries as well as Oceania countries suffer the largest lost.** (a) The proportion of reduced
 1029 publications after the exclusively internationally funded publications are removed. (b) the country-level publication reduction
 1030 grouped by continents. (c) The difference between actual research profile and the counterfactual research profile. The difference
 1031 is measured by the Kullback-Leibler divergence. (d) the profile change of countries by continents.

1032 Estimating a country's global impact

1033 To investigate a country's dependence on international research funding, considering the possibility that
 1034 researchers can potentially access funding resources from alternate countries in the absence of financial
 1035 support from a specific country, we build another counterfactual publication record by removing
 1036 publications exclusively funded by the focal country. The analysis measures the impact of the focal
 1037 country under the condition that the focal country is the sole provider of financial resources for the
 1038 paper's production, with no other funding sources available for research production. The results again
 1039 demonstrate that removing funding from the United States would have the most significant impact on the
 1040 scientific production of other countries. In comparison, the impact of China is considerably less
 1041 substantial (see figure 8). The results reaffirm the conclusion that the United States has been the leading
 1042 scientific investor in other countries.

1043



1045 *Figure 6 Estimating a country's impact on global scientific production by removing publications that are exclusively funded by*
1046 *the focal country.*