

1 Departmental-level approaches to Gender Equity in  
2 Biology

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11 **Abstract**

12           Gender equity remains a large issue in academia, with women comprising only about  
13 one fifth of professors in the US. There are many changes that can be made to increase  
14 equity, including institutional policies, cultural change and bottom-up strategies, but these  
15 can be difficult or slow to implement at a departmental level. Hiring is one area that can be  
16 easily tackled at a departmental level and is strongly influenced by implicit and systematic  
17 bias. Here we focus on two methods of tackling bias in recruitment – redefining merit and  
18 identified positions.

19 **Keywords**

20 Gender equity, recruitment

## 21 **Introduction**

22           There remains far fewer women in senior academic positions than men (OECD 2006),  
23 despite undergraduate cohorts being generally gender-neutral, or female-biased, since the  
24 mid-1980s (Luckenbill-Edds 2002). In the US women make up approximately 60% of  
25 undergraduates and half of PhD graduates in biological and life sciences, but only one-fifth of  
26 professors (Figure 1), despite there being no difference in academic ability or performance  
27 between men and women (O’Dea et al. 2018). This is reflected in authorships, with women  
28 accounting for less than one-third the authorships on scientific papers, and just under one-  
29 third first authorships (Larivière et al. 2013). Current strategies are not working quickly  
30 enough to address this inequity. For example, with the current rate of change in biology  
31 authorships, it will take 25 years before parity in authorship is achieved (Holman et al. 2018).  
32 A recent report in *Science* suggested an approach to training and action that embeds evidence  
33 and evaluation (Moss-Racusin et al. 2014). This is essential to avoid current *ad hoc*  
34 approaches and anecdotal responses.

35           Issues of equity are important ideologically, but there is also evidence that workplaces  
36 with a good gender ratio perform better. Having a higher percentage of women than is  
37 currently found in academia increases the collective intelligence of collaborations and teams  
38 (Woolley et al. 2010), with mixed-gender authorship teams receiving 34% more citations  
39 than gender-uniform authored papers (Campbell et al. 2013). Having fewer women in  
40 science decreases productivity and limits innovation (Bell et al. 2009). There is also an  
41 argument that as science is largely publicly funded, underrepresented groups such as women  
42 should have increased representation (Wallon et al. 2015).

43           We recognise that gender equity is only one form of equity that academia struggles  
44 with. For example, people of colour, LGBTQIA+ people, people with a disability, people

45 from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, and people from working class  
46 backgrounds are all underrepresented in science. This is particularly exacerbated when  
47 individuals belong to more than one marginalised group. It is important that these identities  
48 are acknowledged and considered in hiring processes, particularly considering the diverse  
49 student body in biology, many of whom lack a clear role model in academia. By promoting  
50 equity and addressing bias in the selection process, hopefully diversity across and within  
51 these areas will also increase. If not, more targeted programs could be introduced to address  
52 other areas of inequity in academia.

53         Gender inequity in academia is caused by a combination of factors, including carer  
54 roles and expectations, lack of role models, sexual harassment and bullying, and implicit bias.  
55 Ensuring effective institutional policies, such as around shared parental leave, is important in  
56 addressing these. Cultural shifts are also necessary, such as greater acceptance of men taking  
57 extended parental leave and reduced tolerance of sexual harassment. However, while  
58 important, these are often long-term changes. ‘Bottom-up’ strategies include mentoring,  
59 networking programs, and professional development opportunities, which require women to  
60 opt-in and participate. These programs can have positive impacts (Laver et al. 2018), but can  
61 also exacerbate existing inequalities by requiring additional labour from the people the  
62 programs are trying to support. Here, we focus on two changes to recruitment and selection,  
63 as these are easily implemented at a departmental level.

#### 64 **Rethinking Merit**

65         Merit is rarely explicitly defined as most academics are confident that they can identify  
66 strong performance and are committed to maintaining excellence in their departments. In  
67 selecting candidates, several factors are considered, including research achievements  
68 (through, for example, the number of papers published), teaching ability (e.g. student

69 reviews), and academic service (e.g. committee work, mentoring or outreach). However,  
70 some of these are more easily measured than others and factors are not weighted consistently  
71 by all selection panel members. This leads to considerable potential for subjectivity in  
72 decisions, with a bias towards factors that are more easily compared quantitatively, such as  
73 publications, and against those that are hard to measure, like mentoring. This can lead to  
74 gender inequity through both implicit bias and the measures used in defining merit. Stating  
75 that appointments are made on merit and there is no need for action ignores a large body of  
76 evidence to the contrary.

### 77 *Implicit bias*

78 There is strong evidence that implicit bias plays a role in hiring and promotion  
79 decisions. Implicit bias, or unconscious bias, occurs without the person making a conscious  
80 decision. For example, several studies have explored the concept of ‘aesthetic capital’ and the  
81 ‘ugliness penalty,’ the effect that better-looking people have more success in a range of  
82 endeavours, including job interviews and loan applications (Tietje & Cresap 2005). Even  
83 small levels of implicit bias can have a large impact on the structure of an organisation, with  
84 a bias against women of only 1% at multiple points capable of explaining current levels of  
85 senior women in STEMM fields (Martell et al. 1996). Simply put, if you ‘pick the best’ and  
86 men have a small advantage they repeatedly win in pairwise assessments between otherwise  
87 equal top two applicants. We therefore need to understand implicit bias and how it affects  
88 perceptions of merit.

89 Implicit bias against women is present in academia in all genders. For example, a recent  
90 study sent an identical CV for a laboratory manager position to multiple potential supervisors.  
91 Those given the CV for ‘Jennifer’ rated the applicant less competent and less hireable, and  
92 offered them less mentoring and a lower salary, than those given the CV for ‘John’,

93 regardless of the gender of the potential supervisor (Moss-Racusin et al. 2012). In general,  
94 women are perceived to be less suited for leadership roles and are often criticised for showing  
95 signs of leadership praised in men (e.g. competitiveness or aggression) (Rudman 1998).

96 The use of merit as an indicator can be strongly impacted by implicit bias. A recent  
97 study indicates that when an organisation is explicitly presented as meritocratic, managers  
98 favour male employees over equally qualified female employees by awarding them larger  
99 monetary rewards. This phenomenon has been dubbed the ‘merit paradox’ whereby a focus  
100 on merit results in more biased outcomes (Castilla & Benard 2010). This means that the use  
101 of merit as a hiring strategy is not objective, as it is often held to be.

### 102 *Defining merit*

103 The current definition of merit used in academia often emphasises career paths and  
104 characteristics that are more typically masculine, disadvantaging women and other minority  
105 groups. For example, men often have more publications than women (Symonds et al. 2006),  
106 for several reasons. Men are socialised to be more assertive and effective at self-promotion  
107 (Rudman 1998), which can lead to them having their name included on more publications .  
108 Additionally, women tend to have more career breaks than men due to societal expectations  
109 around caring responsibilities, leading to fewer publications. Recent work suggests that the  
110 peer review process is biased, with reviewers more likely to accept manuscripts from those of  
111 the same gender and country as themselves (Murray et al. 2018). Since there are already more  
112 men in STEMM fields, this perpetuates the existing inequity. Similar patterns are found with  
113 talks, with men more likely to be invited to speak in conference symposia and specialised  
114 courses (Isbell et al. 2012; Débarre et al. 2018).

115 Papers authored by women generally have fewer citations, getting cited less than  
116 identical papers authored by men (Maliniak et al. 2013; Larivière et al. 2013), most likely due

117 to a combination of implicit bias and differences in self-citation. Men are 56% more likely to  
118 self-cite than women (King et al. 2017), which may increase the total number of citations  
119 they receive.

120 Another metric used in assessing merit is student evaluations of teaching. However,  
121 these are significantly biased against women, with students rating female teachers lower on  
122 every aspect of teaching, including ‘objective’ measures like how soon assignments are  
123 returned (Boring et al. 2016) or in identical courses (MacNell et al. 2015; Mitchell & Martin  
124 2018). This is exacerbated when the teacher is a woman of colour (Perry et al. 2015; Pittman  
125 2010) or LGBTQIA+ (Ewing et al. 2003).

126 Women, particularly women of colour, those from working class backgrounds and  
127 LGBTQIA+ women, are also more likely to spend more time mentoring and on other  
128 academic service work than men (Misra & Lundquist 2015). Time spent on this essential but  
129 ‘invisible’ work means there is less time available for these academics to spend on work that  
130 is valued in hiring (Social Sciences Feminist Network Research Interest Group 2017; Guarino  
131 & Borden 2017).

132 This evidence leads to the conclusion that the selection process for academic positions  
133 needs to be re-considered. Research quality, rather than quantity, should be the most  
134 important factor. One method is to ask applicants for their top papers, an approach being  
135 increasingly used. Alternatively, applicants could be asked to provide a research narrative  
136 that explains their goals and impact, as is currently required for ARC Future Fellowships.  
137 There is also a need to recognise and reward less measurable activities that also contribute to  
138 academic work, such as excellence in teaching, contributions to service, mentoring and  
139 outreach.

140 **Identified Positions**

141 An identified position is an advertised position open only to people with a certain  
142 characteristic, in this instance women and non-binary people, with the aim of increasing  
143 representation of under-represented groups. Identified positions and quotas are short-term  
144 solutions, used to rectify past and current inequalities in how people of different genders are  
145 treated.

146 Identified positions are being increasingly used in academia to address gender inequity.  
147 For example, several Australian universities have recently advertised identified positions for  
148 women in STEMM fields (e.g. University of Adelaide, University of Melbourne and The  
149 Australian National University). International universities have also introduced identified  
150 positions, such as the Delft Technology Fellowship at the Delft University of Technology.  
151 Quotas can also be applied to governance roles; for example, Austrian universities are bound  
152 by legislation to ensure all university bodies have 50% women. However, such policies can  
153 place undue pressure on the small number of women eligible.

154 The impact on gender equity from identified positions is much faster than from other  
155 measures, as they force change to happen, instead of relying on discussions and policies that  
156 may not translate into organisational change (Wallon et al. 2015). A projection based on a US  
157 university showed that given equal rates of men and women being hired and leaving  
158 (eliminating any hiring and retention biases), gender parity would be reached in 57 years. If  
159 only women were hired this would be reached in 11 years, showing the dramatic impact that  
160 identified positions could have on gender equity (Marschke et al. 2007).

161 Ideally, increasing the representation of women through identified positions will allow  
162 a 'critical mass' of women in senior positions to be reached, making these measures  
163 unnecessary. While implicit bias occurs in all genders, research has shown that increasing the

164 number of women can help balance the gender ratio further. For example, mixed-gender  
165 review committees promote men and women at equal rates while those comprising only men  
166 are less likely to promote women (De Paola & Scoppa 2015; Zinovyeva & Bagues 2010). In  
167 the private sector, areas with more women in managerial positions have increased hiring and  
168 promotion of other women (Kurtulus & Tomaskovic-Devey 2012), while women are more  
169 likely to correctly rate another woman's job performance than men are (Bowen et al. 2000).

170 The two main issues with identified positions are interrelated. Colleagues may be  
171 concerned that underqualified people will be hired over others more qualified or with greater  
172 'merit' (Wallon et al. 2015). There are many issues with the definition of merit (see previous  
173 section) which would have to be explored alongside the use of identified positions. There is  
174 also the concern that any successful hires may be viewed as 'tokens' and marginalised  
175 (Wallon et al. 2015). The stigma surrounding staff hired through identified positions would  
176 have to be addressed based on the organisational culture.

### 177 **Proposals for consideration**

178 We propose five actions that biology departments should consider implementing in  
179 their recruitment processes. While not all will be applicable to every department, we suggest  
180 that they are discussed extensively within departments to ensure a shared understanding of  
181 the issues and commitment to equity.

182 1. Aim to maintain the ratio of percentage of women group leaders in the range  
183 40-60%. When the department moves outside this ratio, advertise gender-specific positions  
184 (e.g. open only to women/non-binary people only) until it returns to within these limits.

185 2. Expect all staff to take an implicit bias test and/or unconscious bias training.  
186 Have one person on all selection committees whose role is to challenge potentially biased  
187 statements (it is easier to recognise unconscious bias in others than in yourself).

188           3.           Reconsider the selection process to better reflect a broader range of activities,  
189 with a commitment to improved evaluation of activities that are difficult to quantify, for  
190 example mentoring, leadership in teaching, service and science communication.

191           4.           Focus on research quality, not quantity, e.g. by assessing the ten best  
192 publications only or asking applicants for a research narrative that demonstrates impact.

193           5.           Recognise that equal opportunity is not just a gender issue and ensure that fair  
194 consideration is given to people of colour, LGBTQIA+ people, those from low socio-  
195 economic backgrounds, those with disabilities, and those from culturally and linguistically  
196 diverse backgrounds.

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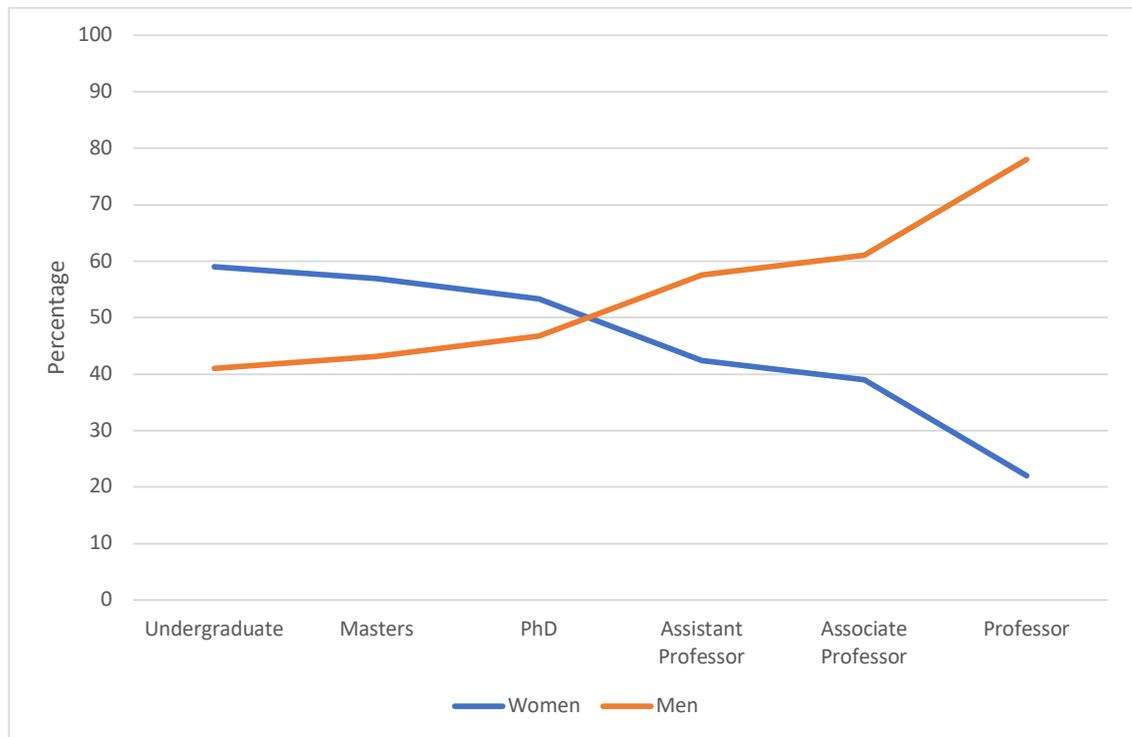
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283 **Figure 1**

284 Gender equity in US universities for biological and life sciences, student data from  
285 2014 and academic data from 2015. Data from (National Center for Science and Engineering  
286 Statistics 2017)



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