

**ATHENS UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS**

**MSc IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT**

**GENDER EQUALITY AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN ATHENS UNIVERSITY OF  
ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS**

*Diploma Thesis submitted in the Postgraduate Programme in Human Resources Management for the  
award of the Postgraduate Diploma of Specialization in Human Resources Management.*

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## **AFFIRMATION**

This dissertation is submitted by its author as partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Postgraduate Program in Human Resources Management of the Athens University of Economics and Business.

It is responsibly stated that this dissertation has been written by the Signatory and has not been submitted or evaluated in the context of any other postgraduate or undergraduate degree, in Greece or abroad.

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## ABSTRACT

Gender equality, as one of the fundamental principles of the European Union, is an issue with many dimensions that impacts the position of women in society on many levels. Women often face discrimination in many fields of private and public life sphere. Academia and the workplace are only some of the sectors where gender inequality operates, as phenomena of the ‘glass ceiling’ and the ‘leaky pipeline’, as well as the underrepresentation of women, are widely observed. The aim of the study was to investigate career development using as an indicator the average years of residency in each academic position for men and women in Athens University of Economics and Business as an institution, and in each School and Department of AUEB. The population of the study is the active faculty members of AUEB (N= 173). Information about their chronological year of placement in each academic appointment was gathered and analysed with SPSS. Results indicated an underrepresentation of women in the University, and a lower career development, as women spend more years in each position than men. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative analysis must be the target of future research as it would be more useful to further investigate relations between gender and career patterns in a deeper level.

**Key words:** Gender equality, career development, women in academia



## ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Η ισότητα των φύλων, μια από τις θεμελιώδεις αρχές της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης, αποτελεί ένα θέμα με πολλές διαστάσεις, που επηρεάζει τη θέση της γυναίκας στην κοινωνία σε πολλά επίπεδα. Οι γυναίκες αντιμετωπίζουν συχνά διακρίσεις σε πολλούς τομείς της ιδιωτικής και της δημόσιας σφαίρας ζωής. Η ακαδημαϊκή κοινότητα και ο χώρος εργασίας είναι μόνο μερικοί από τους τομείς στους οποίους εμφανίζεται ανισότητα των φύλων, καθώς παρατηρούνται ευρέως τα φαινόμενα του ‘glass ceiling’ και του ‘leaky pipeline’, καθώς και η υποεκπροσώπηση των γυναικών. Ο στόχος της μελέτης ήταν να διερευνήσει την εξέλιξη της σταδιοδρομίας, χρησιμοποιώντας ως δείκτη τα μέσα έτη παραμονής σε κάθε ακαδημαϊκή βαθμίδα για άνδρες και γυναίκες στο Οικονομικό Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών (Ο.Π.Α.) συνολικά ως ίδρυμα, και σε κάθε Σχολή και Τμήμα του ξεχωριστά. Ο πληθυσμός της μελέτης είναι τα ενεργά μέλη Δ.Ε.Π. του Ο.Π.Α. (N = 173). Οι πληροφορίες σχετικά με το χρονολογικό έτος τοποθέτησής τους σε κάθε ακαδημαϊκή βαθμίδα συγκεντρώθηκαν και αναλύθηκαν με το στατιστικό εργαλείο SPSS. Τα αποτελέσματα έδειξαν υποεκπροσώπηση των γυναικών στο πανεπιστήμιο και χαμηλότερη εξέλιξη της καριέρας τους από τους άνδρες, καθώς οι γυναίκες παραμένουν για περισσότερα χρόνια σε κάθε ακαδημαϊκή βαθμίδα. Στόχο για μελλοντική έρευνα θα πρέπει να αποτελέσει ο συνδυασμός τόσο ποσοτικής όσο και ποιοτικής ανάλυσης, καθώς θα ήταν πιο ωφέλιμο να διερευνηθεί περαιτέρω η σχέση μεταξύ του φύλου και της ακαδημαϊκής σταδιοδρομίας σε βαθύτερο επίπεδο.

**Λέξεις κλειδιά:** Ισότητα φύλων, εξέλιξη καριέρας, γυναίκες στην ακαδημαϊκή κοινότητα



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*“Representation of the world, like the world itself, is the work of men; they describe it from their own point of view, which they confuse with absolute truth.”*

— *Simone de Beauvoir*



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## CHAPTER 1: Introduction

Gender equality is a very important issue with many dimensions that impacts the position of women in society on many levels, as they often face discrimination in many sectors of private and public life sphere. Politics, research, academia, and the workplace are only some of the sectors where women are less represented than men. However, the issue of women's underrepresentation in many male-dominated fields, is not addressed as much, leading to the misconception that women are not facing discrimination anymore. This misconception is followed by a vicious cycle of “normalized” discrimination and inequality. The gap in evidence about women in research and science, leads to a lack of role models, which further contributes to academia being a male-dominated sector. This study is an attempt to describe the phenomenon of gender inequality in the career development of faculty members of Athens University of Economics and Business, using years of residency in each academic position as an indicator, as well as to shed light to many plausible reasons for the existing gender gap in academia.

In the first chapter of the literature review, a historical retrospective of the role of women in science throughout the years and their position in society and academia in Greece and other European countries is attempted. Following, the most accurate definitions of gender equality are presented, and the policies that are implemented to preserve equality are described. Moreover, the social norms that form the current gender equality regime are highlighted. Also, gender inequality is investigated through different approaches and phenomena that focus either on the individual, as the psychodynamic approach and the imposter syndrome, or on the dialectic between the individual and society, through social dynamics approach. In the next chapter, the most common gender inequality phenomena, the “Glass ceiling” and the “Glass cliff” are explained.

Furthermore, we go through the literature of studies of representation of women in academia and research worldwide, describing the obstacles that women face. Similar studies conducted in Greek academic institutions are presented, as well as studies that took place in Business Schools. As there is a gap in research concerning gender equality and career development in Greek Business Schools, the present study aims to investigate this area, exploring the current situation in Athens University of Economics and Business (AUEB), the first Greek Business School.

Therefore, in Chapter 3 are presented the aim of the study, and the methodology that has been followed. Following, in Chapter 4 all the findings of the research are exhibited. In Chapter 5, the current findings are discussed and evaluated, compared to other findings from Business schools and academia in



Greece and in the world. Recommendations for future research are encouraged, as gender inequality in Academia is an issue of high importance that more attention should be drawn to.

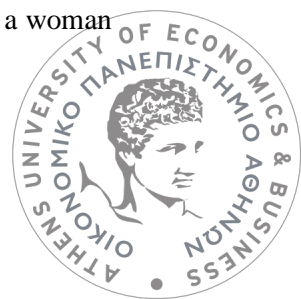
## **CHAPTER 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Historical Data**

#### **2.1.1 The First Woman in Academia**

When asked to think of a genius person, most people will automatically think of a man, e.g. Einstein. This “genius stereotype” and perceptions of intellectual abilities is taught to children at a very young age and some could imply that it may be linked with the unequal distribution of women and men across the academic and scientific fields. Studies show that at age 5 boy and girls’ perception of women’s brilliance did not differentiate. Women could be perceived as “really, really smart”, equally by boys and girls. However, by the age of 6, something seems to change. Five-year-olds boys and girls who were told to play with a game for “really, really smart kids”, both engaged in playing. On the contrary, at the age of six girls seem to stray away from such games (Bian et al., 2017). This “genius stereotype” occurs in academia too, where men academics are perceived to be more qualified than their women colleagues by their students. One possible explanation for this stereotype is that there is a great lack of evidence about women scientists. Throughout the years many women that have helped in the evolution of science of their times, sadly remain unknown (Criado-Perez, 2019; Fara, 2009).

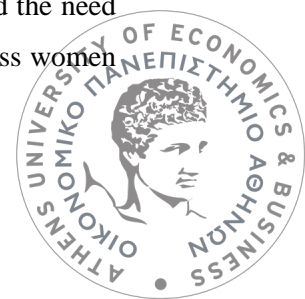
Exploring women’s role in science throughout the centuries, we came across interesting findings about women’s attempts to get involved in a field dominated by men. Many women throughout the years have been involved in the scientific field, contributing to the evolution of science and to serving as role models for other women. Those women, who have worked for years under difficult circumstances have not received any recognition and their work will never be acknowledged. One of those women is Hertha Ayrton, a British engineer, mathematician, physicist, inventor, and suffragette. She was the first woman to announce in person her academic research at the Academy of Science of London, in 1904. Before her, women were not allowed to present in person their academic work and also their work could not be published. The announcement of their work was usually done by a man, who could either be a family member or a friend. Ayrton was very passionate about her beliefs and tried to fight gender discrimination in the academic field. It should be noted that being so ahead of her time, she stated that gender should not be a matter of discussion when it comes to science. In fact, Ayrton was against the common belief of her times that being a woman and being involved in science were two incompatible concepts (Fara, 2009).



At the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century, in Europe women continued to fight the battle for equal rights, demanding the right to vote. In the educational field they started to request the right to attend to universities and to take part in the academic process equally as men. New Zealand was the first country to recognize the right to vote in 1893. Concerning the academic field, the first city to accept women in its university was Zurich, in 1865. In England in the 1870's the first colleges for women were established in Oxford and Cambridge. However, academics in Cambridge were so much against women in universities that women students were not allowed to get their degrees until 1948, despite their academic performance (Fara, 2009). In the Netherlands, the first female student to have graduated from university was, Arletta Jacobs, in 1871, and the first female professor, Joanna Westerdijk, was appointed in 1917 (Rutjens & Brandt, 2018). It was a common belief at this time that men and women should not be offered the same academic education. In Russia women were allowed to attend universities for the first time in 1876, but their right was recalled from 1881 to 1905, because the Tsar was murdered by a woman (Fara, 2009).

In Greece, at the beginning of 19<sup>th</sup> century, the ideas of the European Enlightenment about the generalization of education started to gain popularity among Greek intellectuals. In 1825 Korais, one of the most significant representatives of Greek Enlightenment, in his statements supported the education of women. A decade later, in 1834, the right of women in primary education was established by law (Deligianni & Ziogou, 1999). Despite these initiations, the general ideas of the public that men and women should not receive the same form of education, were still strong among Greek society. The common belief was that girls should be “educated” at home, performing domestic labor, and helping with the upbringing of youngsters, while boys should take part in public education. There were two forms of education that were acknowledged, domestic education, carried at home by the family, and the public education in schools by teachers. The first form of education refers to girls and young women, while the second refers to boys and young men only. During 19<sup>th</sup> century the secondary education of women, was carried exclusively by private schools and institutions, such as “Filekpaideutiki Etairia”, [Society of the Promotion of Education and Learning]. At this time secondary education for women was much different than the one men received. Years of education as well as the curriculum of studies was differentiated, with the one referring to women being downgraded. The whole educational curriculum was based on the idea that women's occupation should be housekeeping and upbringing of the kids. Thus, the orientation of education for women was directed towards home labour, and not academic knowledge as women were not encouraged to receive academic education or a career. Women are considered to not have the same capabilities as men, therefore they should not receive the same education.

The induction of women in education with the opening of schools only for girls, created the need for women teachers. Therefore, the first socially acceptable profession for lower and middle-class women



during 19<sup>th</sup> century was teaching. The law about obligatory primary education for both sexes, imposed in 1834, created the need for both male and female teachers. Due to the role of women as mothers and caregivers, and the perception of school as the continuity of family, teaching became accepted as a “female profession”. As women were perceived to be mothers and caregivers by nature, considering the gender roles of this time being completely divided, and viewing school as a steppingstone between family and society, their role as teachers was thought to be a perfect match to their female nature. Moreover, in 1852 the primary education was divided in schools for boys and schools for girls. This along with the establishment of private schools only for girls, gave the chance to many women to take on higher positions as headmistresses, and have a more significant role on education (Ziougou & Karastergiou, 2007).

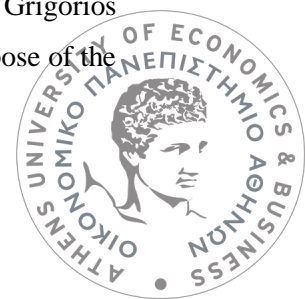
By the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century, some Greek intellectuals, started to show support to the induction of women in a broader spectrum of education and professions. Meanwhile, news about the movement of certain organizations, such as the suffragettes and their fights for women’s rights, were becoming known to the Greek society through the press. Gradually some people were starting to become skeptical about views on gender natural traits defining the field of occupation of men and women. Moreover, opinions about women’s access in higher education, slowly converged to the point of allowing women in all higher education institutes (Deligianni & Ziogou, 1999).

### **2.1.2 The First Woman in Greek Academia**

The story of the first Greek woman to ever apply in Greek University goes back in 1884. After graduating from Hill Girls' School, a highly regarded, private girl's school, Sevasti Kallisperi applied to Greek University to study Philology in 1884. Greek Ministry of Education denied her request, despite her outstanding performance in exams. Kallisperi did not abandon her dream, and finally got accepted in Paris-Sorbonne University (Zenzefylis, 2012). The first ever woman to attend a Greek university was Ioanna Stefanopolis in 1890. She was a graduate of the Greek School for Women directed by Aikaterini Lascaridou. The Greek government had to give a special permission to the University in order for her to apply to National and Kapodistrian University of Athens to study Greek Philology (NKUA, 2020).

### **2.1.3 The First Woman in Athens University of Economics and Business**

The financial, technological, and social changes at the end of the previous century, created the need for the establishment of Athens University of Economics and Business (AUEB). In 1903, Grigorios Maraslis, a great national benefactor, donated the amount of 250,000 gold drachmas for the purpose of the



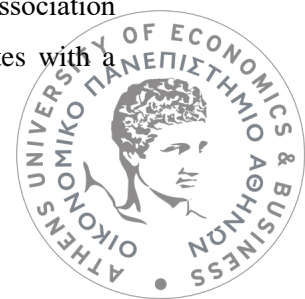
establishment of the "Commercial Academy of Athens", following the standards of the "Commercial Academy" operating abroad. Therefore, in 1921 the Athens School of Commercial Studies" was founded. It was renamed in 1926, as the "Athens School of Economics and Business", to be renamed with its present name, "Athens University of Economics and Business", later in 1989. The first year of the institution's operation, 1921, the Athens School of Commercial Studies, now known as Athens University of Economics and Business, accepted its first female students. They were Kaiti and Sophia Angelopoulou, two sisters from Patras, whose father was a lawyer. Until their graduation in 1925, they remained the only two female students (AUEB, 2020). One century later, women have a strong representation as students, which seems to weaken as they climb the academic ladder. The phenomenon of underrepresentation of women among the academic faculty, is to be further discussed.

## **2.2 Gender Equality**

### **2.2.1 Definitions and Policies**

Gender equality and the representation of women in Higher Academic Institutions is a very serious issue that has been brought to the surface by the European Union, as it is among Europe's fundamental principles, it is worth investigating the current gender policies and agendas in Europe and in Greece. However, before starting to discuss gender policies, the importance of a universal and commonly accepted definition of gender equality should be emphasised. In fact, Subrahmaninan (2005) points out the need to create a universally accepted definition of gender equality regarding educational goals, in order to make the measuring process possible. Plantenga et al. (2009) agree on the importance of finding an acceptable definition of gender equality, highlighting the complexity of the term, which has diverse dimensions with many layers of meaning. Gender equality could at a prior level mean an equality concept focused on equal starting points, or the achievement of equal results. According to Plantenga and colleagues (2009), defining gender equality in terms of equal results, does not focus on procedures but on outcomes. The "equality" approach that implies women becoming equal to men, has been characterised as one-sided among the feminist literature and has therefore started a debate. On the contrary, a "difference" approach advocates recognizing women's and men's differences and treating each gender differently, in terms of equity. This approach derives from the belief that equality strategies based on the male as a norm may disadvantage women (Plantenga et al., 2009).

The majority of definitions given by universal organizations working on human rights and gender policies, seem to agree with the "difference approach". According to the American Psychology Association [APA], "Gender refers to the attitudes, feelings, and behaviours that a given culture associates with a

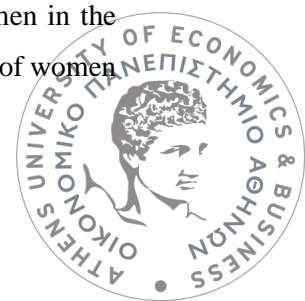


person's biological sex. Gender is a social construct and a social identity.” (APA, 2019). APA suggests avoiding gendered occupational titles and using gender-neutral terms instead. Also, APA declares as problematic words that imply the subject’s gender, such as the word “chairman” e.g., of an academic department, and suggest the word “chairperson” or “chair”. Using gendered titles implies that all individuals in a certain role are, or should be, of a particular gender. So, using gender titles helps maintaining the stereotypes about gender roles. As stated by APA in the APA Dictionary of Psychology, “Gender bias is any one of a variety of stereotypical beliefs about individuals on the basis of their sex, particularly as related to the differential treatment of females and males. These biases often are expressed linguistically...” (APA, 2020).

The European Institute for Gender Equalities (EIGE), underlines the differences between women and men regarding their needs and characteristics, stating that those differences should be acknowledged for the sake of reformation of the disparities between genders (EIGE, 2020). According to UNESCO (2019) all forms of discrimination based on gender are violations of human rights, and an obstacle to the achievement of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals. UNESCO states that women and men must enjoy equal opportunities, choices, capabilities, power and knowledge as equal citizens. Also, they declare that the precondition to building a sustainable future for all is to equip both girls and boys, women and men with the knowledge, values, attitudes and skills to stop gender disparities and pave the way for equality (UNESCO, 2019). UNICEF (2017) outlines gender equality in terms of women and men, having equal conditions, treatment and opportunities to develop as individuals and to contribute to the development of society. It should be pointed out that, according to UNICEF (2017), gender equality is based on the equal valuing by society of the similarities as well as the differences of men and women, and the societal roles of those. The recognition of the differences plays a crucial role in defining equality in order to form sustainable equality policies.

Understanding that women and men are not the same in terms of needs and characteristics and nor they will ever be, paves the way for acknowledging the definition of equality. Gender equality means that women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female (UNICEF, 2017). It should be noted that gender equality must be viewed in a way of considering women and men’s interests, needs and priorities as well as recognizing their right to evolve and make life choices free of bias and stereotypes about gender roles (UNICEF, 2017). The United Nations Population Fund (2005) also highlights the importance of understanding that equality does not mean that men and women are the same, nevertheless it means that exercising their rights should neither be dependent on, nor constrained by their gender.

According to Vosniadou & Vaiou (2005), who studied the underrepresentation of women in the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, the most efficient way to assist the participation of women

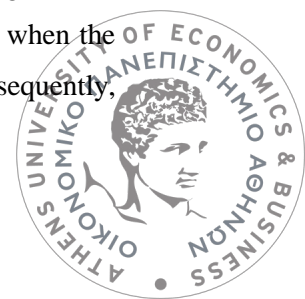




in the academic field is by imposing laws that will have a positive outcome towards them, directly or indirectly. To further support the above statement, it is important to examine the paradigm Sweden, a country known for the government's policies for gender equality. Sweden universities did not have a high percentage of women faculty members, until they imposed two laws about this issue. First, in 1995, the government created 32 full professorships that would be given to male candidates, only if no female candidates were suitable. The professorships were called "Tham-Professors" and were co-funded with research councils and universities. Moreover, in 1999, a new faculty promotion policy that happen to be very helpful for women was introduced. According to the new police, senior lecturers with the appropriate qualifications would be appointed as professors and junior lecturers were going to be appointed to the position of senior lecturer. Women happen to benefit of this policy as they held 18% of 11.000 of these promotions to professors in 1999 and 2000 (George, 2003). As a result from both these policies, the number of women in faculty doubled in 6 years from 2000 to 4000 (Vosniadou & Vaiou, 2005). Correspondingly, evidence from Australia, further support the statement that legislations imposed by government, regulatory frameworks and university strategies contribute to increasing the representation of women not only among all academic faculty but in senior positions as well (Winchester & Browning, 2015). Therefore, it is the government's responsibility to promote research on issues of gender equality, in order to establish policies and quotas about gender equality in Universities.

Findings about the inadequate representation of women in science subjects, have raised concerns about the future of gender equality among UK Universities (Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2016). Consequently, initiatives about gender equal representation in leadership roles have started. One initiative that since and has been going ever since is the is the Athena SWAN (Scientific Women's Academic Network) Charter launched in 2005 which is established and managed by the UK Equality Challenge Unit (Athena SWAN 2011).

Gender equality is explicitly included in the shared values of the European Union among the fundamental principles of the Union. In compliance with the Lisbon Treaty, the promotion of gender equality in all the Union's activities is not only an obligation for the member nations of the European Union but also, an indicator to determine whether a state can become a member of the Union (Burri, 2018). In the Treaty of Rome that established the European Economic Community (EEC) for the first time, in 1957, the provision that was included to battle gender discrimination, was the principle of equal pay for equal work both for men and women. The main reasons for this provision at that time were solely economic. The social purpose of the Article 119 E.E.C. that established equal pay for both genders, was acknowledged later, in 1976 by the Court of Justice. In fact, the contribution of the provision for equal pay to societal progress and the improvement of living and working conditions was recognised. Further progress was made when the Court acknowledged that the social aim of the provision was superior to the economic one. Consequently,



the principle of equal pay and the elimination of discrimination based on gender were acknowledged as part of the fundamental human rights of the European Union (Burri, 2018).

In 1999, with the Treaty of Amsterdam, the enhancement of equality between men and women throughout the European Community was indicated as one of the main duties of the Community. Furthermore, in accordance with the Article 3(2) E.E.C., the Community should aim to the elimination of inequalities, and the promotion of equality, between men and women in all activities (Burri, 2018). This obligation of gender mainstreaming means that both the Community and the Member States are committed to estimate the objective of gender equality when planning and implementing laws, regulations, administrative provisions, policies and activities. With the implementation of the Lisbon Treaty in 2007, the importance of the principles of non-discrimination and equality, as fundamental principles of EU law were further emphasised. Moreover, the Treaty on European Union (TEU) declares the values that the European Union is founded on, which include the “respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities” (Burri, 2018). Also, the solidarity and equality between women and men is referred to as a common value to the Member States in the Treaty. Furthermore, a significant moment in the development of EU gender equality law was the implementation of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. In this Charter, the prohibition of any kind of discrimination, including gender discrimination is declared. Accordingly, rights related to family protection and gender equality are stated, and the aspect of work and family balance is touched, as the Charter establishes the right to paid maternity leave and to parental leave (Burri, 2018).

More importantly, it is worth investigating the implementation of laws and policies concerning the academic field. Twenty years ago, in 1999, the Council of the EU acknowledged an underrepresentation of women in the fields of scientific and technical research. Even though at that time there was not any research about what happened to women after they got their university degrees, there was a concern about it at both the national and the European level. It was high time that the European Union developed effective policies around gender equality in research. In fact, in the meeting of 1999 in the Helsinki Group on Gender in Research and Innovation resulted in the release in 2003 of the “She Figures” report. The ‘She figures’ report delivers a variety of indicators and statistics on gender equality in research and innovation at pan-European level. Its aim is to present an overview of the gender equality situation, using a broad range of indicators to investigate the effect and efficacy of policies implemented in this field (She Figures, 2018). Therefore, the interpretation of such tools is very important, as statistics and indicators set the tone for the implementations needed across the academic field.





### 2.2.2 Social Norms Preserving Gender Inequality

Policies and implementations about gender equality are of great importance, however taking a glance from a psychosocial approach, it is worth investigating more deep-rooted phenomena that affect gender equality. Gender parity is a way of measuring gender equality, by ensuring an equal representation of both genders. However, it should not be confused with gender equality, as the latter takes a lot more than just equal representation of men and women. Gender equality requires mechanisms and policies to ensure equality of treatment of men and women and equal opportunities for both genders (Subrahmaninan, 2005). However, none of the above would have an actual result, without a change in social norms and constructs, preserving gender inequalities in a more deep, structural level. According to Subrahmaninan (2005) to measure gender equality it is required to assess whether fundamental human rights are equally exercised by women and men, in terms of having equal access to choices and freedoms. To change gender inequality regime, it is essential to understand that gender biases have been historically legitimised by societies. The construction of gender inequalities has formed on the basis of “naturalization” of gender differences, in order to legitimize the disparities in treatment of women and men. A typical example of this kind of legitimization is the unequal distribution of work within the home and caring for siblings or other family members. Subrahmaninan (2005) claims that it is assumed that women take on these roles as a result of their natural instincts, rather than because the division of housework is determined by society. It is suggested that the division of labour at home is based on unequal power relations between women and men. The legitimization derives from the naturalization of these differences which not only makes them more acceptable among society but also, more powerful and therefore, harder to change.

Moreover, the social norms practices and unwritten rules that maintain gender inequalities are formed on the basis of gender ideologies that are part of what is called the “social unconscious”. Being part of the social unconscious, they are encrypted in all sorts of daily life including institutions, schools and universities (Platenga et al. 2009). It is suggested that gender equality policies that focus only on the legislative level have the risk of not succeeding because they only hide the problem without actually fixing it (Grada et al. 2015). Implementing equality policies and transparent criteria in recruiting and tenure, may lead academics to believe that gender equality is no longer an issue. In that case, the deep-rooted inequality regime becomes invisible and operates in a hidden, unconscious way. Assuming that gender meritocracy is achieved may hurt the overall process very badly. Meritocracy can help passing the responsibility of the problem of unequal outcomes back to the individual. The individual, believing that meritocracy exists, can only blame the self for not being capable enough to achieve equal results. Internalizing the problem can lead to being stigmatized as unsuccessful and having low self-esteem. (Knights and Richards, 2003, p. 218, as cited in Grada et al. 2015).



Bailyn, Professor of Management, Emerita at the MIT Sloan School of Management, (2015) once again addresses the issue of meaning and definition of equality. The meaning that is used by the legal structures of organizations considers equity the same as equality. In that definition equality means that salary, access to opportunities to enter a certain profession, and work environment should be the same for men and women. Undoubtedly, all the above issues are of great importance, however it is very common to come across matters of inequalities in universities. Specifically, in the MIT School of Science women not only were less represented among the faculty, but also they were paid less, had less lab space compared to men. Women also held lower academic positions and felt marginalized by men, as Bailyn states (2015).

According to Bailyn, (2015) equity is not the same as equality. Considering equality identical to equity, is assuming that the workplace is completely divided from the other aspects of life. Gender neutral policies that take the male model as the normative, assume that equality will be achieved by women following that model. This approach ignores the different aspects of life of women and men. These realizations trigger the question whether women can actually follow the male model. Even if the first definition of equality is ensured in a university, and women do have equal pay and opportunities, is it possible for them to meet all the requirements of the ideal academic? Equality based on equal benefits, opportunities and other factors is only valid if women and men have equal constraints. Bailyn (2015) claims that we cannot achieve equality in terms of equity if one subgroup is occasionally unable to keep up with the rest of the group's performance. In this case women who are most likely to be burden with family care responsibilities and housework, therefore they do not have the time as much time as men to do academic work.

In order to achieve equality, the equation must consist of equal opportunities as well as equal constraints for both parts. Instead of a definition of equality where only the workplace is taken into consideration, another definition that includes both academic life and life outside work would be more beneficial. Therefore, policies that include practices as parental leave, or even freeze the process of tenure if a member of faculty has a child should be considered. For the sake of these practices to have an actual impact, a strong policy system that implements all the characteristics of both genders is required. Professor Bailyn (2015) suggests that the "ideal image of gender equity" is the integration of both parts of an academic's life rather than a separation. The general idea is that each person leads a working life and a private life that involves family, interpersonal relationships, and personal activities. This life should not be considered separate from the academic life because the one impacts the other. The ideal academic should not be the one without any other life outside, for example a family, because in that case we cannot talk about gender equality even if we achieve equal pay or equality in processes.



### 2.2.3 Is Gender Inequality an Individual's or a Societal Issue?

#### The Imposter Syndrome

It is worth investigating how women perceive gender inequalities in academia. In a study conducted by Monroe et al. (2008) women academics were asked about gender discrimination in their workplace. Surprisingly, they described discrimination as a personal problem rather than a legal or a political one (Monroe et al., 2008). It is surprising how women in some cases respond to gender discrimination by internalizing it as if it was their own fault. This kind of internalization of the problem indicates its large dimensions. Furthermore, it is believed that some women, -mostly high achieving ones- believe their achievements happened because of luck or other reasons rather than their own abilities, competencies, and hard work. In fact, there is a psychological term describing this issue, introduced by Clance and Imes (1978). Clance and Imes in their study "The Impostor Phenomenon in High Achieving Women: Dynamics and Therapeutic Intervention", in 1978, defined impostor phenomenon as an individual's experience of self-perceived intellectual phoniness. The researchers interviewed a sample of high-achieving women academics who all had been formally recognized for their professional excellence by colleagues and had displayed academic achievement through degrees earned and standardized testing scores. What all these women had in common was the high academic performance, accompanied with consistent evidence of external validation, yet they all lacked internal acknowledgement of their accomplishments. Therefore, they attributed their success to temporary causes as luck, or even believed that their abilities and work have been mistakenly overestimated (Clance & Imes, 1978). The impostor phenomenon, or syndrome, is mostly found to affect women, and according to Bothello and Roulet (2019), the academic profession has certain characteristics that contribute to the development of this phenomenon, even though it is found among other occupations as well. They suggest that the intrinsic characteristics that trigger such phenomena exist in the multi-dimensional role of the academic profession (Bothello & Roulet, 2019). We could also add that the role of women as caregivers, and mothers adds another burden to their already multi-dimensional role as professionals.

The emerging questions are why some women face gender discrimination as their personal problem, and is there any connections between gender inequality and the imposter phenomenon? If there is a link between the two, is the impostor phenomenon an individual or a societal problem? To answer, it is worth investigating the role of the social and how that interprets the individual. According to Clance and Imes (1978) the internal belief of being a fraud in the impostor phenomenon, has its roots to both societal stereotypes and family dynamics. Society's image of women not being as competent and intelligent as men, is in alignment with their own self-image of not being worthy of their accomplishments and the feeling of being a phony, because it has been internalised. The psychodynamic approach of Clance and Imes (1978)



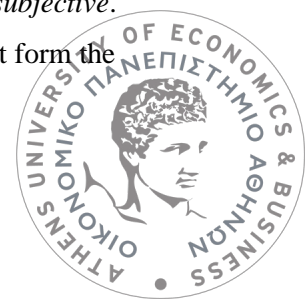
suggests that “*Certain early family dynamics and later introjection of societal sex-role stereotyping appear to contribute significantly to the development of the impostor phenomenon.*”. Viewed from a psychodynamic approach, the individual level is separated from the societal level, and the reasons for the development of the syndrome stem from the individual. However, this approach not only is outdated, but it could be harmful as it focuses on the individual, by putting the blame on the individual. Moreover, even though the imposter syndrome has been examined many times since its original appearance in 1978, the societal context where it appears, that may contain bias and discrimination has not been thoroughly investigated (Tulshyan & Burey, 2021). It is worth exploring this phenomenon through a social dynamics approach, in order to investigate it in terms of gender inequality in society and therefore in academia.

### **Social Dynamics Approach**

Viewing this approach in a social dynamics context, it is not safe to say that it is the introjection of society in the individual’s mindset that is responsible for any occurring syndrome or phenomenon. Discussing this issue, it would be useful to refer to the concept of social unconscious, a concept linked to the concept of “habitus” introduced by Bourdieu and Elias (Foulkes, 1964).

The term “social unconscious” was first introduced by Foulkes in his book “Therapeutic Group Analysis” in 1964. Many others have contributed to describe and define the term. Hopper’s definition about the concept of the social unconscious refers to “*...the existence and constraints of social, cultural and communicational arrangements of which people are unaware. Unaware, in so far as these arrangements are not perceived (not ‘known’), and if perceived not acknowledged (‘denied’), and if acknowledged, not taken as problematic (‘given’), and if taken as problematic, not considered with an optimal degree of detachment and objectivity*” (Hopper, 2001). Dalal (2007), from a radical socio-psychological approach brings his own definition to the term, stating that “*The social unconscious includes, but is bigger than, what might be called the cultural unconscious. The cultural unconscious can be described as consisting of the norms, habits, and ways of thinking of a particular culture.... The social unconscious .... includes the power relationships between discourses. The social unconscious is a discourse which hierarchically orders other discourses.*” (Dalal, 2007, pp. 212).

The concept of “social unconscious” is very close to Bourdieu’s “Habitus”. The term “Habitus”, introduced by Bourdieu, describes exactly how social phenomena become internalized, explaining the relation between the objective and subjective or “outer” and “inner”. According to Bourdieu “Habitus” is “a socialized subjectivity” and “the social embodied” (Bourdieu & Wacquant 1992a: 127, 128, as cited in Grenfell, 2014 pp. 53). Habitus is a structure that has been internalized, the *objective* made *subjective*. Another dimension of Habitus is also how the personal interacts with the social. Our actions, that form the



social structures, stem from its dispositions. Therefore, “habitus” is a term combining both objective social structure and subjective personal experiences. Habitus conceptualizes “the dialectic of the internalization of externality and the externalization of internality” (Bourdieu & Wacquant 1977b: 72, cited in Grenfell, 2014 pp. 53). Bourdieu’s “habitus” is close to the term of social unconscious. These terms are very helpful to both explain and understand the deep-rooted nature of the gender inequality problem.

Following the literature about gender representation in academia, it is safe to say that women are facing a discrimination based on their gender. Discrimination stems from stigmatization of a sub-group and the attribution of certain characteristics to it. But how does stigmatization’s mechanism operate? Elias claims that stigmatization works because the one being stigmatized is accepting it, because of existing evidence that assures that in fact a group is stigmatized. The psychoanalytic approach would doubt this statement, claiming that there is something in the individual’s personality that makes it possible for the stigma to exist (Dalal, 2007). This is a form of psychology of behaviour, according to which a signal is enhanced by external reality and therefore it is forced into the psyche. For stigma to be forced into the psyche, the force must come from an established position of power. One of the weapons used from the superior groups as a mean to maintain their social superiority, is to call the other social group inferior. In that case the social shame caused to the inferior group penetrates the image of the self, disarms, and weakens it (Dalal, 2007). Women are indeed underrepresented in universities. This could be perceived as “evidence” supporting the inferiority of women in comparison to men. Some may insist that it is natural, but is it? Is the underrepresentation of women in academia a product of natural inferiority of women in comparison to men, or is the underrepresentation and the internalization of phenomena as the impostor syndrome, the result of certain social dynamics?

In alignment with the above discussed issue, Breeze (2018) from a sociologist’s approach, gives the impostor syndrome another perspective, viewing it as a “public feeling”. She states that it is a very common condition among academics, highlighting the need for individuals to share their private experiences, in order to transform them into public statements. It should be mentioned that imposter syndrome is considered an individualistic problem, rather than a collective one, which leads to individualized “coping solutions” and not to a systemic perspective (Gill & Donaghue, 2016, pp.91, as cited in Breeze, 2018). According to Breeze (2018), despite feelings of “imposterism” being acknowledged by the majority of academics, not all of them are affected at the same level, also, the impact varies in relation with career stage, contract type, gender, race and ethnicity, sexuality, disability, and factors such as parenting responsibilities. It is worth examining the distribution of the imposter syndrome in universities, and whether it is affecting more certain minorities. The imposter phenomenon is surely something more than an individual’s private problem. Stereotypes about women, women’s position, and multidimensional roles in society and in academia combined with certain



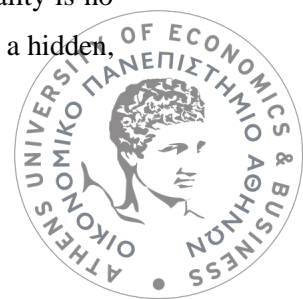
intrinsic characteristics of the academic profession seem to simultaneously contribute to the imposter phenomenon, showcasing it as social problem.

### **Individual Merit Ideology**

The internalization of a societal problem, in that case the issue of gender inequality in academia, is much supported by current ideology. It is suggested that society today is dominated by individual merit ideology, a term used to describe a belief system in which people acknowledge individual level factors as crucial when it comes to success, without addressing the social context. Consequently, it follows to believe that each person that falls under the desired criteria and engages in consistent effort will succeed. Therefore, when members of certain groups are underrepresented or less successful than others, in this case women in academia, people who have internalized individual merit ideology, automatically assume that this results from differences in merit. Accordingly, if women are less represented than men, and therefore less successful, it must be due to lack in their competencies and effort (an individual's deficiency) and not a problem in the societal and organizational context where they belong (Van der Lee & Ellemers, 2018)

Individual merit ideology also links with a general belief, common among most people, that the world is equitable and fair. It is very comforting for people to have the idea that certain results come from certain actions and that individuals accept the outcomes of their previous steps, and oppositely they are deserving of the outcomes they experience (Van der Lee & Ellemers, 2018,). In fact, this belief has penetrated the social unconscious through language, with phrases as “we get what we deserve”. Consequently, people tend to believe that people who succeed deserve their success, because of their traits and capabilities, when people who experience difficulties in life, are responsible for them, without examining the chance that bad results may come from bad procedures or a fault in the organizational structure of the system. Such an individualistic approach leads to individualistic causal attribution (Van der Lee & Ellemers,). Hence, privileged groups tend to attribute their success to their good performance, abilities, while the underprivileged, tend to blame their own bad luck, staying consistent with the idea that the world is fair. Consequently, they get into a vicious cycle of waiting for their luck to change instead of gaining perspective to view the social context where all of the above take place.

In the case of gender equality in universities, individual merit ideology and gender-neutral meritocracy are considered to have hazardous results in the quest towards gender equality. In fact, Grada and colleagues, (2015) suggest that equality policies that focus only on implementing equality procedures and transparent criteria in recruiting and tenure, may lead academics to believe that gender equality is no longer an issue. In that case, the deep-rooted inequality regime becomes invisible and operates in a hidden,





unconscious way. Assuming that gender equality is achieved may hurt the overall process very badly. Meritocracy can help passing the responsibility of the problem of unequal outcomes back to the individual. The individual, believing that meritocracy exists, can only blame the self for not being capable enough to achieve equal results. Internalizing the problem can lead to being stigmatized as unsuccessful and having low self-esteem (Knights and Richards, 2003, p. 218, as cited in Grada et. al, 2015). Thus, individual merit ideology and gender-neutral meritocracy in academia explain one aspect of the internalization of a societal problem to the individual level.

Grada and colleagues (2015) suggest that social structures are integrated in individuals and reproduced by them within society. By failing to recognize the dynamic process of the formation and reproduction of social structures such as gender, we are led to a dichotomy between the individual and the society as a whole. This not only weakens the interventions, but also strengthens the internalisation of the problem, which is perceived as an individual's "syndrome" rather than a "public feeling", as Breeze (2018) suggests. By making the problem private, it is much harder to address it in a sufficient way. Moreover, policies targeted in the equal representation and recruiting procedures in academia, could only temporarily make the problem of underrepresentation go away, but in the long run they fail, by overlooking the deep-rooted nature of gender inequality (Grada et. al, 2015). Also, policies aiming to outcomes, without trying to change the gender inequality regime, only result in making the problem invisible.

Transparency in career criteria in the recruitment and promotion process should be incorporated in gender policies, but they are not enough to change the gender inequality regime. In fact, when these policies are not part of a multi-dimensional gender equality program, they could result in the assumption that gender is no longer an issue, as stated by Grada and colleagues (2015). Therefore, the issue becomes invisible, much more powerful, and harder to change. In that case, it is assumed that there is no longer a societal issue, but an individual's problem.



## 2.3 Gender Equality in Academia

### 2.3.1 Gender Inequality Phenomena

#### The Glass Ceiling

According to the annual report of the European Commission on gender equality (2019), women in 2018, represented 23,9% of the biggest companies' board members in the 28 countries of the EU. The countries with the highest women representation were France with 42,2% women companies board of directors' members, Sweden with 36,9% and Italy with 32,3%. Greece was among the countries with the lowest representation, having only a 9,1% of women in companies' boards, along with Malta 4,5%, and Estonia 8,8%. On a more positive note, for the first six-months of 2019, the numbers for Greece increased in 10,2%, as reported by the European Institute for Gender Equality. Moreover, women in the position of CEO in Greece, reached a 11% representation, 13% for the COO position and 17% for CFO.

The highest percentages of women in higher administrative positions came to a 28% and was mainly found among Human Resources Directors and Chief Marketing Officers (CMO), findings consistent with the general tendency for women to stray away from professions in the field of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) (Vodafone, 2020). In a research conducted by Grant Thornton, the percentage of women in higher administration in Greece pointed a 4% decrease within a year. In 2019 the percentage was 22%, when it was 26% in 2018 (Grand Thornton, 2019). Evidence from academia, in Greece and worldwide, present a similar image, with women being concentrated in lower academic positions. More specifically, women are underrepresented in all European Union as head of institutions in higher education, even in the countries that are known for their gender policies (She Figures, 2018).

It seems that leader roles are dominated by men, all around the world, even in north European countries that have developed better and more structured policies about gender equality. The general picture worldwide shows that women are mostly represented in middle-levels of management and in low or middle academic positions. The concentration of men in higher positions is a very serious issue, and the fact that it is noticed in companies as well as in academia, indicates the need to reconsider. This phenomenon is described as “the glass ceiling phenomenon”, meaning that there is an invisible barrier that prevents women from conquering high leadership positions (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010). The emerging question would be if men are better leaders than women. Studies show that this is not the case. However, it is suggested that there are gender differences concerning leadership styles. Women and men are equally evaluated as good leaders. The differences occur in leadership styles.

A meta-analysis of 45 studies showed that female leaders were more transformational than male leaders as they engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors, a critical element of transactional leadership. On the contrary, male leaders tended to manifest the other aspects of transactional leadership





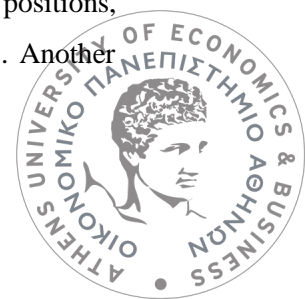
like active and passive management and laissez-faire leadership (Eagly, et al., 2003). If men and women are equally effective leaders, why is there a gender leadership gap and a glass ceiling for women? There is an explanation based on the role compatibility theory (Eagly, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002), according to which, there is a bigger overlap between schemas about leadership and attributes that are stereotypically given to men, than schemas about leadership and characteristics that are perceived as feminine. Consequently, people tend to link good leadership to men more often than women because of this overlap. Taking into consideration the role compatibility theory, it follows that the evaluation of men and women as leaders would change if stereotypes about certain gender attributes or leadership schemas would change (Eagly, et al., 1995).

Other possible reasons for the gender leadership gap could be that women tend to claim a leadership role less effective than a man would. Men are more likely to adopt a more competitive style, while women tend to be more communal and understanding (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010; Ryan et al., 2015). Also, women face many obstacles in their path towards claiming a leadership role, because not only they have their career role but also they tend to be the ones who are responsible for caregiving and parenting which are very time-consuming activities. Moreover, stereotypes about women in leadership seem to have an impact on their decisions and motives (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010).

### **The Glass Cliff**

The glass cliff phenomenon refers to the tendency for women to have a “leadership advantage” in times of poor company performance (Ryan et al., 2015). According to this phenomenon, women tend to be more likely than men to be appointed to leadership positions that are risky and precarious. Ryan and his colleagues (2015) reviewed studies conducted within a decade, examining this phenomenon, in many fields such as corporate organizations, public organizations – schools, US Federal regulatory organizations and the political sphere. Outcomes from all these sectors of both public and private sphere came up to results consistent with the glass cliff, indicating a preference for the female candidate in leadership, when organizational performance was declining. When organizational performance was strong, participants demonstrated no gender preference concerning the leader position, but when performance was poor women candidates were preferred (Ryan et al., 2015).

According to Ryan and colleagues (2015), the glass cliff is a multiple dimensional phenomenon. First of all, the solid nature of crisis, being uncertain, has been demonstrated as a facilitator in organizational change and risk-taking. Consequently, situations of crisis could reveal opportunities for women to receive leadership positions. Also, women have fewer opportunities compared to men to take on such positions, therefore they may be more willing to accept them, even in time of crisis (Ryan et al., 2015). Another



interesting dimension is demonstrated in a study conducted in Swedish academia, where women hold 43% of Vice Chancellor positions as opposed to the 10% of such positions held by women in the 27 countries of the European Union (She Figures, 2012). The study shows that women make the choice of accepting glass cliff appointments, to use their position as a platform to eliminate gender inequalities, and also to serve as role models and empower other women in academia (Peterson, 2015). Peterson also highlights the sense of duty that the Swedish women academics have to their female colleagues, as they feel that it is their obligations to take on a leadership role and contribute to a bigger cause. Also, it is worth mentioning that Swedish women academics viewed glass cliff positions as an opportunity to make a change in their university (Peterson, 2015).

Another dimension that possibly explains the glass cliff phenomenon is the different personality traits and characteristics that are attributed to women and men. Women are mostly perceived as communal, warm, understanding and caring, and are considered to have better communication skills as well as the ability to encourage others. On the contrary, men are perceived as being competent, independent, decisive, competitive, and confident. The traits that are stereotypically attributed to men are very similar to stereotypes about good leadership, as opposed to women's traits. This linkage leads to a phenomenon, known as the "think manager-think male" association (Schein, 1973, as cited in Ryan et al., 2015). On the contrary, traits of managers in unsuccessful companies were linked with stereotypically female traits. Women's perceived communality is linked to a "think crisis – think-female", as feminine traits seem to be those in need in times of crisis. For example, women are attributed to have the appropriate communication skills and caring attitude to handle personnel issues that tend to arise in times of crisis (Ryan et al., 2015). Neurobiological findings seem to confirm those assumptions as high testosterone levels (which are higher in males) have been associated with hierarchy, social dominance, and competition, while estrogen levels (which are higher in females) has been related to agreeableness and cooperation (Ehrenkranz et al., 1974).

Evidence from Ryan et al.'s review (2015) also demonstrate that women were preferred for leadership positions, because of candidates' perception of women being more accepted in this position in the organizational context. It should be mentioned that those participants who appointed a women leader at a risky time were those who legitimized the current socio-political system and therefore it is suggested that their choice was made to maintain the status quo (Ryan et al., 2015).

Finally, it should be noted that maybe women are appointed glass cliff positions because they are perceived to make a good scapegoat (Ryan et al., 2015). This statement is in line with many anthropological findings about the role of women as scapegoats throughout the centuries. A typical example of women serving as scapegoats is the witch-hunt that occurred in Europe in medieval times and later. During those times women served as scapegoats by being victims of a generalized fear and tension caused by social and political problems (Swales et al., 1979; Aarsal & Yavuz, 2014).

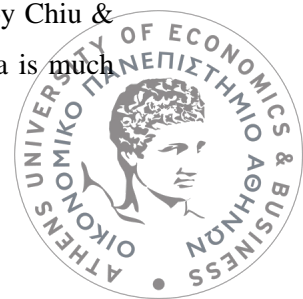


### 2.3.2 Studies from The World

According to UNESCO (2018) women academics hold fewer academic positions than men, representing only 28.8% of all the universal academic human capital in 2015. There is not much of a difference in the representation of women in North America and Western Europe, which is 32.3%. In Italian universities in 2018 women represented 46.7% of assistant professors, 38.4% of associate professors but only 23.7% of full professors. Similar are the findings from Germany, indicating that men are most likely to climb the academic ladder (Ooms, Werker, & Hopp, 2018).

In the United Kingdom in 2009-2010 women represented 53,8% of all academic staff, which is a rather high percentage compared to other countries. However, women in the UK were mostly occupied in part-time positions, as women staff held 46,8% of full-time positions and 67,1% of part-time positions (Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2016). Moreover, findings from the UK are in alignment with those of the rest of the world, where the higher appointments were occupied by men, who held 80,9% of professorial positions while women represented only a 19,1%. In 2010-2011 in the UK there was only a slight improvement as women possessed only 19.8% of the staff in higher institutions, according to Howe-Walsh and Turnbull (2016). The study focused on the fields of Science, Engineering, and Technology, where a disproportionate number of men at higher academic levels was noticed. Moreover, the number of female professors in those fields was 12% of the faculty.

Australia has been a country with very specific and structured gender equality policies since 1986, when the Australian Government passed the Affirmative Action Act (Equal Employment Opportunity for Women). The purpose of this Act was to remove gender discrimination in the workplace and to promote equal employment opportunity for women. As of recently Australia established the “Universities Australia Strategy for Women: 2011–2014”. Since then, there has been an increase in the representation of women across all levels of academia. More specifically, women held 44% of academic staff and 31% of academic positions above senior lecturer in 2014 (Winchester & Browning, 2015). Additionally, women seem to obtain positions in not so prestigious departments, and it is less likely for them to receive tenure (Weisshaar, 2017; Chiu & Monroe, 2010). Women in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) also have fewer chances to obtain tenure (Casad et al. 2020). They also earn less compared to men even in the same positions. Another finding in Chiu & Monroe’s (2010) analysis is that women are ranked at lower grades than men in the same universities. A possible explanation for this could be gender bias that seem to exist in academic evaluation and peer reviews (Chiu & Monroe, 2010). Not only women are underrepresented, but they also become less over the years, which is due to many reasons along with the ‘leaky pipeline phenomenon’ (Santos, Horta & Amancio, 2020). This phenomenon explained by Chiu & Monroe (2010) is a metaphor which indicates that the number of women working in academia is much

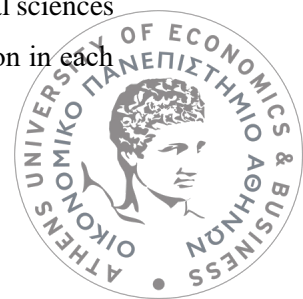


smaller compared to the number of female graduate students. Thus, it is implied that some of the graduate women “drop out” of the academia. Possible reasons for this phenomenon are going to be further examined.

It should be mentioned that women in European countries examined in the report, represent less than a half of PhD students, PhD graduates as well as academic staff. The lowest percentage of women in faculty is found among the academic position of professor. While these findings refer to the whole European Union, there are some differences in certain countries. Unfortunately, women form a minority, and only little progress has been made since 2013. At the beginning of an academic career, more women than men in European countries graduate at bachelor level, but less women than men to continue to doctoral level. Also, in half the countries explored, men that started their studies at a doctoral level were more likely to finish them and obtain a PhD degree than women. Interestingly, Greece was one of the four countries where the number of women who obtain a PhD degree has increased, while it has decreased for men. Also, in Greece women and men at doctoral level had the exact equal representation in 2018 (Business Daily, 2020). Some other countries also follow that tendency, having big differences in annual growth levels in favour of women, specifically those countries are Georgia, Moldova and Czechia (She Figures, 2018).

While across all the EU, the number of both men and women with a PhD degree, increased from 2007 to 2016, the number of women increased at a faster rate. The representation of women among PhD graduates increased in the period 2007-2016, not only in a European Union level, but at a country level as well. As a result, in 2016 the percentage of women with PhD degrees was at a range between 40-60% in most of the countries studied. It is worth mentioning that despite the increased rate of women who study, the unemployment rates for tertiary educated women were the highest in Greece (18.6%), followed by North Macedonia (18.5 %) and Turkey (16.6 %). On the contrary, Germany had the lowest rates of unemployment for tertiary educated women, only 1%, along with Czechia (1.1 %) and Iceland (1.2 %) (She Figures, 2018).

Concerning the academic community, the results of the “She Figures” study (2018) indicate that women are the ones that come across bigger obstacles in developing their career than men. However, since 2013 this issue has slightly ameliorated in most countries, giving hope for a better future. The percentage of women academics the European Union was 41.3%. At a national level, the percentages vary from 34.4 % to 57.4 %. Greece was among the three countries with the lowest percentage, having 35.1 % of women in all academic positions, along with Czechia (34.4 %), and France (36.5 %). Among all academic staff occupied in the position of professor, or equivalent, in the European Union, women’s representation varies from 13% to 54.3% (She Figures, 2018). The highest percentage of women in professorial positions, were found in the human the social and the medical sciences, where women held the 32.1%, 28.1% and 27.5% respectively. The smallest ratio was noticed in engineering and technology (12.0 %) and in natural sciences (18.1 %). The study indicated interesting findings regarding women’s age and their representation in each



academic position. It appears that women were better represented among professors at a younger age than men (She Figures, 2018).

Women as head of institutions in higher education are underrepresented in all European Union Institutions, even in the countries that are known for their gender policies. On a more positive note, the proportion of women in such positions in the EU expanded from 20.1 % in 2014, to 21.7 % in 2017. On the contrary, in the national level, the percentage decreased for countries that already had a high proportion of women in head positions. The highest numbers of women as head of academic institutions were found mostly in Nordic, Baltic and Western Balkan countries. More thoroughly, in Sweden the representation of women was 41.7 %, in Latvia 37 %, in Lithuania 32.6 %, in Slovenia 32.4 %, in Norway 31.3 %, in Croatia 30.8 %, in Estonia 30.4 % and in Iceland and Switzerland there was a 30 % of women as head of high educational institutions. Greece had the highest of the lowest percentage of women in head positions, with a 11.1%, a little above Cyprus (10.4 %), Turkey (8.5%) and Spain (8 %). Luxembourg was excluded, having only one higher education institution. Moreover, women comprised 27 % of board members (including leaders) in the EU in 2017. This proportion ranged from 12 % to 54 % at the national level, while in nine of the countries investigated it was 40 % or higher.

Alarmingly, as a standard academic career path develops, women's representation decreases, contributing to the "leaky pipeline phenomenon". In the European Union in 2016, women represented 54% of students and 58% of graduates at both Bachelor and Master levels. Nevertheless, women made up 48% of students and graduates at PhD level, 46% of lower academic staff (assistant professors, lecturers), 40% of deputy professors and only 24% of professors. The ratio of women was even smaller in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM). In those sectors, women represented 32% of students and 36% of graduates at the B.Sc. and M.Sc. levels, 37% of students and 39% of graduates at PhD level. Regarding the academic staff, women hold 35% of lower academic positions (assistant professors, lecturers), 28% of deputy professors and 15% of professors (She Figures, 2018).

Regarding the research and development sector, women are more likely to be occupied as researchers in medical and social sciences, while men researchers were mostly represented in engineering and technology, and in natural sciences. Nevertheless, some countries, including Greece formed an exception, as women researchers were represented mostly in engineering and technology. Those countries were Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ukraine, Romania and Greece. In Italy and Estonia, women were most likely to work in research in the sector of natural sciences. In the EU, 8.1 % of women and 5.2 % of men researchers in the higher education field worked under precarious contracts. It should be noted that women had higher proportions of precarious employment than men in two thirds of the countries investigated, with Luxembourg (9.1 %) and Greece (6.4 %) having the widest differences (She Figures, 2018).



Results from “She Figures” report (2018) show that while in 2015 the highest percentage of women researchers in Europe was found in Latvia (51%), in 2018 even though Latvia’s percentage increased, there was a more significant increase in North Macedonia (53.4%) that overcame it. The Netherlands is in the lowest position, with a slightly increase in 2018. In Greece, the percentage of researchers went down, from 38% in 2015 to 37.8% in 2018. In 2015 women researchers formed a 33.4% of all researchers in the European Union. Between 2008 and 2015 the number of women researchers in the EU was increasing in a higher rate than men. Also, according to UNESCO ‘s report “Women in Science” (2018), in 2015 the representation of women researchers was 28.8% worldwide, 39.5% in Central and Eastern Europe, and 32.3% in North America and Western Europe. It is worth mentioning that the significant difference between the data of the two reports could be because in UNESCO’s report both part-time and full-time researchers are accounted. In 2017, the total number of women employed both full-time and part-time in Research and Development were 30% worldwide, 39% in Central and Eastern Europe and 32.9% in North America and Western Europe. (UNESCO, 2020). The latest “Women In Science” report show that women represent the 30% of researchers worldwide.

According to “She Figures” (2018), in most of the countries women researchers are represented in the higher education sector. While the business enterprise sector is mostly dominated by men. Specifically, among all women researchers in the EU, a great majority (62.5%) are occupied in Higher Education. The business enterprise sector holds 47.9% of men researchers. Women working in the business sector as researchers are mostly occupied in medical science, as in most countries they represent more than 40%. In the fields of engineering and technology women are still underrepresented compared to men. However, women researchers are less than their male colleagues in the field of engineering and technology, though their representation among researchers has increased in these sectors since 2007. On a more positive note, in 2001, Sweden adopted a research policy that supports the gender balance in higher education. This policy is based on the acknowledgement that increasing the participation of women in the science and engineering enterprise is one of the key elements for making Sweden a leading research nation (George, 2003).

Professions related to STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) are mostly dominated by men, and at the same time those are the higher-paid and those that provide the most opportunities for career development. However, according to the results from the European Committee “Women in Digital Scoreboard” of 2018, only one in six individuals who specialize in Science, Computers and Telecommunications and only one in three with a university degree in STEM are women (Women in Digital Scoreboard 2018, as cited in Vodafone, 2020). Moreover, while women represent 52% of European population, only 17% are occupied in positions related to Science, Computers and Telecommunications (SCT). Also, there is a significant gender pay gap, as women are paid 19% less than their male counterparts in those fields. Findings about Greece indicate a larger pay gap, as women earn 22% less than men in the





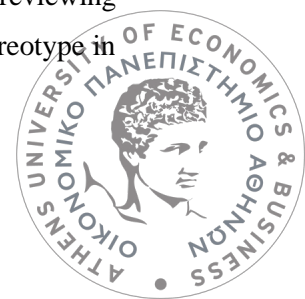
field of SCT. women that specialize in this field represent only 12,7% of the specialists in SCT, contrasting the equivalent 16,7% in Europe (Women in Digital Scoreboard 2018, as cited in Vodafone, 2020).

Having more women occupied in positions in the digital sector would create an annual increase of the European Union's GDP (Gross Domestic Product) at about 16 billion euros, as research shows. The above findings should be taken under serious consideration, not only by enterprises, but by the whole educational system and therefore academia (Vodafone, 2020). It is of great significance, to understand the importance of the representation of women in sectors that are traditionally dominated by men, and to recognize the role of education and academia in promoting the occupation of women in certain fields, as STEM and SCT. In order to promote this, the reformation should start from inside, meaning that women should be represented in all positions of the academic faculty in the field of STEM.

## **Obstacles in Women's Careers in Academia**

### **Gender Gap in Promotion and Tenure**

After reviewing the literature, it is obvious that women are underrepresented than men in most parts of the research and academic fields. It is worth investigating what are the obstacles that women face when they stumble across the “glass ceiling”, that keeps them from developing their career. One dimension that plays a critical role in career development in the academic sector is the number of citations and publications. Studies show that women are less likely to self-cite their own research than men are (Weisshaar, 2017). In fact, research from the last 20 years indicates that men tend to have 70% more self-citations than women (Maliniak et al., 2013). In accordance with the previous mentioned findings, King and colleagues (2017) examined the self-citation of men and women authors and found that while men are responsible for 84.8% of the self-citations while women are responsible only for 15.2%. Understanding the importance of metrics of scholarly influence in academic hiring, tenure and salary decisions, examining gender differences in citation patterns and the reasons behind those patterns are worthy of further investigation. Tenure and promotion in academia are strongly dependent on the number of publications, yet studies show that it is much more difficult for women to publish in academic journals. According to several studies women's articles tend to be more easily accepted when the procedure of double-blind assessment is followed (Roberts et al., 2016; Budden et al. 2008). The gender gap in publications is followed by a vicious cycle in which women publish less in journals, therefore they have less citations, which leads to less promotions and the process repeats itself (Criado-Perez, 2019). However, it should be noted that the double-blind reviewing methods have not been established yet in academia. Another practice that reveals the gender stereotype in



academia is that most of the times the author is automatically assumed to be male. Because of the way citations are formed, the gender of the author is not visible. The gender-science stereotype leads to the phenomenon of citing female scholars as if they were male more than ten times more often than the opposite happens (Krawczy, 2017).

The gender-science stereotype is strongly profound in economic sciences, where men tend to receive tenure twice as much as women, despite the fact that women and men both make the same number of publications. While men receive the same percentage of positive reviews for the papers they wrote themselves and for papers they participated in, women tend to receive less than half of all the reviews for papers with a co-writer compared to men (Wolfers, 2016).

Furthermore, one of the many mechanisms in which gender inequality operates, is that women's careers progress slower than men's (Toren, 1993). The pattern in academics' career, is formed around not on fixed time intervals, rather than on the culture of each academic departments or institution. According to Toren and Kraus (1987) who conducted a research about the career development in Israeli academe, on the first and second academic levels (lecturer to senior lecturer the average durations for men are: 3.6 years, while for women it is 4.9. Between the second and third academic rank (senior lecturer to associate professor), it is 4.4 years for men and 5.9. In the highest academic levels (associate professor to full professor, the duration until they get a promotion for men is 5.0 years, while the equivalent years for women is 7.0 . It should be noted that both genders' career development is faster in natural more rapidly in the natural sciences than in the humanities. However, is should be noted that in the male-dominated fields, the career development of women is closer to the career development of their male colleagues (Toren and Kraus 1987).

A research conducted in Australian academia, indicated that the pattern of employment plays a critical role in the development of women's careers, which is not as favourable as the one of men's. The percentage of women appointed in lower academic levels is higher, and women are more likely to be employed on more limited and short-term contracts (Todd & Bird, 2000; She Figures,2018). The most critical factor influencing the progress of women academics is the pattern of their employment which is much less favourable than that of men. A higher proportion of women than men are being appointed at lower levels, have been employed on casual, fractional and/or short-term contracts, and do not receive tenure as much as men. All of the above form obstacles that prevent women from pursuing promotion in a higher academic level (Todd & Bird, 2000).





## **Student Mentoring and Administrative Work**

Moreover, findings indicate that women in academia are given more administrative work, mentoring and service activities (Casad, 2020). Malisch and colleagues (2020) highlight that women in academia tend to have more duties concerning counseling students and providing them with additional support. Along with these “extra duties” they also seem to have more work concerning teaching. Women of color in academia may experience more work loads, as it is expected of them to engage in mentorship and other duties, to be aligned with the institution’s diversity and inclusion protocol (Malisch et al., 2020). This matter needs to be further examined as, when it comes to tenure or promotion, service -which is more time consuming for women- is valued less than research. This could be a possible explanation to why women tend to be less likely to receive tenure or full professorship (Weisshaar, 2017; Chiu & Monroe, 2010; Casad et al. 2020).

Similar findings from Guarino and Borden (2017) who investigated the relative amounts and types of service performed by women and men in academia, suggest that women are charged with more service than their male colleagues. Academic level, race, ethnicity did not seem to have any impact on the service performed by women. Another interesting discovery was that women completed more internal service, such as service to the campus, than men who mostly executed external service. While internal service is insignificant when it comes to promotion and tenure reviews, external service is known to be more profitable for career advancement, as it provides recognition to the individual (Guarino & Borden, 2017). Men are more likely to engage in external service, that benefits them directly, as they are more likely to self-cite their own work, as previously mentioned (Weisshaar, 2017). Those findings manifest the differences in the approach of men and women concerning their career development. Such evidence seems to imply that men act in a more individualistic way than women.

## **Home Labor and Work-Life Balance**

According to Weisshaar (2017) women perform less in academia because of factors such as service work and mentoring in the workplace. Another time-consuming occupation they often have is labor in the household and the upbringing of children which contribute to spending less time in academic work (Dubois & Shaik, 2017). Thus, academic productivity it is not a matter of gender differences concerning personality traits such as competence, but it is the discrimination in division of workload both in institutions and households that affects women’s academic productivity (Weisshaar, 2017). According to Galanaki (2013) fringe benefits mostly related to work family-balance and security, given by organizations to employees seem to be perceived as more valuable to women than men. The above findings both indicate the great impact of having a family on women’s careers.



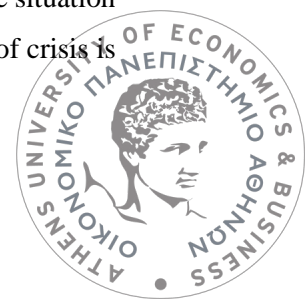
Moreover, Dubois and Shaik (2017) in their study about gender inequality and the role of family in a modern European context, state that universities have a long way to go before they have regulated major issues concerning women's opportunities in academic career growth. It seems that having children affects the academic career of women more than men, as research shows (Grada et al. 2015), shedding more light in the gender gap in academia (Evers & Sieverding, 2014). Findings underlying the effect of family in academic performance show that women pursuing an academic career tend to have less children than others (Dubois & Shaik, 2017). Although society has made a lot of progress with fundamental women's rights, it seems that there are still lots of matters to be discussed. For example, the work-family conflict seems to exist only for women and not affecting men at all (Dubois & Shaik, 2017).

Evidence from a study conducted in the USA in 2010, about the unpaid work of women and men scientists showed that 54% of women performed daily housework, which added over ten extra workhours in their 60-workhours week. On the contrary, only 28% of men scientists contributed to housework activities. Moreover, women were those that engaged in parenting, as 54% of women with children participated in their upbringing, while only 36% of men scientists were involved in parenting (Schiebinger & Gilmartin, 2010).

### **New challenges: The impact of Covid-19 on Women Academics**

The Covid-19 pandemic has brought another challenge to the whole society and therefore academia. It seems that the new reality that has forced everyone to remote working, not only has an impact on mental health but has also brought an extra burden for faculty, especially those who engage in childcare and eldercare. Those affected the most by this situation are women, because it is them that are often expected to perform housework and to care for the children, husband, and/or extended family (Malisch et al., 2020). Hermann and Neale-McFall (2020) also claim that the results of the pandemic in daily life have affected academics with caregiving responsibilities much more than those without. Those academics are for the vast majority women. Women not only are burdened with care responsibilities at home, but they also have higher teaching loads that need to be restructured to be suitable for remote teaching.

Also, women academics are charged with mentoring and advising duties, as well as more administrative work (Casad, 2020), and they are more likely to spend time over non-academic matters like providing support to students than men. Those very time-consuming duties in synergy with the impact of covid-19, have left women academics with little time to conduct research and therefore receive promotion and tenure. On the contrary, faculty members without caregiving responsibilities, benefit from the situation as they have plenty of time to participate in scholarship activity. What usually happens in times of crisis is



that the differences between the favoured and less favoured become more obvious. Therefore, during Covid-19 pandemic, the major differences between faculty members with caregiving obligations and those without them, are becoming very clear (Hermann & Neale-McFall, 2020).

Looking into a field of study mostly dominated by men, Gibson and his colleagues (2020), conducted research on the impact of Covid-19 to early career researchers, indicating the need to support them. Women, racial or ethnic minorities and parents, are those who leave the field of STEM in the early stages of their career. It is suggested that the turnover rate will rise because of lab closure, due to the pandemic. When husbands create an extra seven hours of housework for women (Vulliamy, 2020), it is understood that women who have a family, not only have to work extra unpaid work hours, but also must care for their children when schools and day-care facilities are closed. Acknowledging the fact that the burden of family work mostly affects women, some universities have added one-year extensions to the tenure tracks of early career researchers, to support those academics in unfavored positions. Women consist of only 30% of STEM faculty, so the need to support them by ensuring their tenure is much more needed in times of Covid-19 (Gibson, et al., 2020). In accordance with the previous findings, Vodafone and Women on Top conducted a research named “Breaking the Glass Ceiling”, about women working in enterprises, during the covid-19 pandemic outbreak. Even though the study did not involve women in academic positions, the issue of working remotely and having a family is common among most of women during this new reality. Only 21,9% stated that remote work had a positive impact on their lives. Women with children claimed to have the most significant difficulties in combining working from home and caring for their family at the same time, while 22,3% of all women candidates argued that remote work had a negative impact on their productivity, and stress level (Vodafone, 2020).

To conclude, it is far from obvious that the challenges brought by Covid-19 are affecting to women academics more than men. This crisis could be an opportunity to reevaluate the current gender equality regime in academia and work-life balance as well. It is recommended to implement policies that stop the tenure clock for faculty members with caregiving responsibilities until the end of this crisis to reassure their work-life balance and their mental health as well. Nevertheless, even after the end of the pandemic gender policies should be reevaluated to be equal for all faculty members despite their gender, colour, or other characteristics.



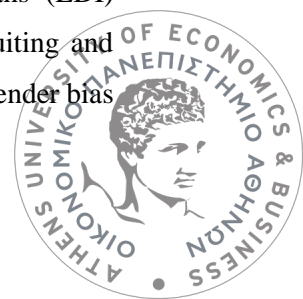
### 2.3.3 Gender Inequality in Business Schools

After reviewing the literature about the role of women in academia, it is worth examining the findings of gender discrimination in Business Schools around the world to further investigate if findings about women in academia in general, apply to Business schools. As mentioned above, STEM seems to have the lower representation of women among their faculty. Regarding university presidents in Canada, in 2017, only 20% of university presidents positions were occupied by women, while most university senior administrators and vice-president positions were held by men (Smith, 2017). Moreover, concerning MBA programs in Canadian Business Schools, those programs have been criticized of not hiring enough female faculty. Specifically, as stated in a report about business school deans in the Financial Times, in 2018, only two women held the position of deans in Canadian business schools with MBA programs (Jack, 2018).

Women in Canada are found to be underrepresented in superior positions among all professions. Also, according to a 2018 equity report by the Conference Board of Canada, although women represent 48% of the Canadian workforce, they are underrepresented in senior leadership positions. For example, only 4.1% of women are board chair members in publicly traded firms while female representatives of members of the federal parliament in 2015, constituted 26% of all members (Edge et al., 2018). Dandalt and Brutus (2020) found the area of underrepresentation of women among faculty linked to promotion in senior academic positions, to be underinvestigated, and therefore they conducted a research, with both quantitative and qualitative studies, in Canadian Business Schools. Their study was the first to address the issue of discrimination in terms of fairness of faculty promotion evaluation systems, specifically in Business Schools. They were also the first to inspect the thoughts and opinions of tenured women business school academics on faculty promotion assessment systems. Women at Canadian business schools hold only 23% of the positions in the rank of full professor, findings that seem to agree with European and US research. Despite the fact that women are becoming more represented in Canadian business schools' faculty during the past decade, most of them are occupied in lower positions.

Dandalt and Brutus's research analysis (2020), indicates that the female faculty who participated in the study, overall had a positive perception of the fairness of the promotion assessment process. The view of women faculty on the fairness of the promotion process, is attributed by the authors to the gender-neutral language used to communicate the conditions of the procedure. Therefore, the study shows that gender discrimination is not always perceived as such even though it exists, as Canadian academia is facing a glass ceiling problem (Dandalt & Brutus, 2020).

Canadian government is taking the issue of underrepresentation of women in academia under consideration, as 77% of universities have established equity, diversity, and inclusion plans (EDI) (Charbonneau, 2019). Furthermore, some universities are training those in charge of the recruiting and promotion process, as well as university authorities and peer review committee on unconscious gender bias



(Edge et al., 2018; Universities Canada, 2019). West and Curtis (2006) state that in the United States there were more barriers for women in academia than in corporate positions. Similar to the results about Canadian Universities, are the findings of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) on the representation of women in full professor positions, which consist only 23% of the faculty (Davis & Geyfman, 2012). Kahn (1993), in his research about the gender differences in academic career paths of economists, another field that is traditionally dominated by men, investigated the career development of women who held a Ph.D. degree in economics and management. The findings of his study shed light to the fact that women economist with a Ph.D. were hardly likely to start a career in the academic field, compared to men, and more likely to follow another career path. However, some women decide to follow an academic career, but their path is harder than men's, as they do not receive tenure as often as them. The study suggests that women with Ph.D. degrees in economics are very unlikely to get a tenured job in academia, however there are still other variables that need to be examined (Kahn, 1993). According to Levsen and her colleagues (2001), white men have far better chance than women to occupy crucial positions such as dean or associate dean in private and/or research schools.

Miotto and colleagues (2019) investigated the situation in the top 50 business schools of the world communication priorities linked to gender equality projects and policies in their sustainability reports. In their research, correlations with the schools' ranking positions, the price of the MBA programmes, the percentage of female MBA students, of female faculty members and women in board of directors in the different geographical areas as Europe, US and Asia were explored. One of the issues that emerged through the social narrative of Business Schools is gender equality in business administration. In 2017 women represented only four in 10 applicants on two-year, full-time MBAs, despite the fact that in the US and in Europe the female university graduates outnumber men. According to Miotto et al., in 1962 was the year that women were first permitted to join the MBA Harvard Business School programme. Since then, the number of female students is rapidly growing. However, in 2016 among all MBA degree holders, women represented only 38% worldwide (Schwab et al., 2017). Not only women are underrepresented in MBA programs, but their career development is not as fast as men's and are also paid less than men after they graduate the programme. For all these reasons, even though women value an MBA programme they often are held back from applying (Miotto et al., 2019). Even though women perceive business administration programmes as worthy and important, most of the times they come to the decision not to apply at one of them. Researchers agree that it the reason why women decide not to apply is mostly financial, since women are paid less than men and therefore have difficulties in paying both their tuitions and support themselves economically (Arbaugh et al., 2010; Bruggeman & Chan, 2016; Schwab et al., 2017).

After reviewing Miotto and peers' research about the worlds 50 top Business schools, we came across many interesting findings about the representation of women among those institutions' faculty



According to their findings, the best ranked universities among all others are found to be those with the highest representation females in their academic faculty. The “Fudan University School of Management” in China and the “Nanyang Business School”, the “National University of Singapore Business School” in Singapore, have a remarkable 35% female representation in their academic faculty, which is rather high compared to the findings from other countries. In fact, in IE Business Schools in Spain the percentage of women academics is 38% and in Bocconi Institution in Italy women hold 35% of faculty positions. However, in other parts of the world, specifically in the University of Chicago Booth and in China Europe International Business School (CEIBS) women seem to be underrepresented (Miotto et al., 2019).

In European Business Schools, it seems that women are more than men among the board of managers. Actually, the percentage of women on average in European Business schools board of directors is 30%, much higher compared to the 18% of boards in United States Business Schools and the 14% in Asian Business Schools. Referring to how women perceive business education, interesting findings indicate that Asia women value business education as tremendously important for their career development, as well as Chinese and Indian women who did not seem to worry about funding their tuition as long as they got in. The top ranked Asian universities acknowledge the significance of having gender diversity in the high academic management positions, and therefore the most high-priced Asian Business Schools have the higher percentage of women in such positions. Also, it is important to consider that ranking positioning is related positively not only to women academic faculty, but also to women representation among the students (Miotto et al., 2019).

Reilly and colleagues (2016) suggest that there is not enough research done in the business school concerning gender and higher education, even though these schools are known for a ‘chilly climate’ for women. Therefore, they conducted a research as members of the Business School Equity Committee, at a Business School in a New Zealand university. Although most studies of gender in higher education, are focused on academics, and frequently on the most senior academic positions, Reilly et al. (2016) implemented in their study all female faculty, including academic women in permanent positions, academics on contracts as well as women in administrative positions. Data from the Human Rights Commission show that women represent only of 24% of senior academic positions in New Zealand’s universities (Human Rights Commission, 2012, p. 138, as cited in Reilly et al., 2016). Also, women are mostly occupied in temporary teaching contracts and as research assistants. Findings about the difficulty women face in receiving tenure are similar in many countries (Roberts et al., 2016; Budden et al. 2008; Criado-Perez, 2019). The findings from the university where the study took place, indicate corresponding tendencies. In 2012 women represented only 15% of the professors, and 21% of associate professors (Human Rights Commission, 2012, p. 138, as cited in Reilly et al., 2016).





Reilly and colleagues (2016) argue that the attempt to investigate gender equality was difficult in terms of candidates' participation, and confrontation of the inequalities in an academic environment. Their findings indicate that some women candidates, did not acknowledge the existing discrimination, in fact some of them denied the question. Moreover, the study shed light to the fact that Equal opportunities policies and programmes were not widely known among staff and announcements about gender equity were not very thorough. A finding that agrees with the majority of the bibliography is that women indicated the effect of having a family on their career development. In fact, this finding was common among all faculty positions (Reilly et al., 2016). Furthermore, some candidates explained a range of possible reasons to give justification to gender equality. According to the researchers, they all used 'women-centred' justifications for inequalities, indicating the dialectic of women being victims and promoting gender bias at the same time. The difficulties in the process of the research, and the still existing discrimination despite laws ensuring gender equality and policies contributing to Equal Employment Opportunities, indicate the implicit form of inequalities, that often seem to be invisible. Also, the legitimisation of inequalities when they are acknowledged is itself an obstacle in addressing them and therefore changing the regime (Reilly et al., 2016).

#### **2.3.4 Studies from Greek Academia**

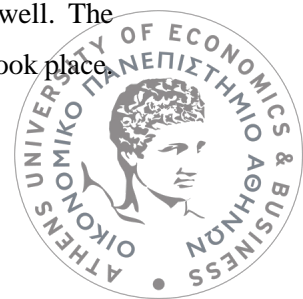
Several studies about the representation of women in the academic field have taken place in Greece. Papalexandri (2019) conducted research about the gender gap among faculty members of Greek higher education institutions. Results indicated that women held 31% of academic faculty positions while men represented 69% of faculty members. It should be noted that between the years 2003 and 2016, women's representation showed a rising trend. In 2003 women were represented in 27%, while in 2016 their representation escalated to 31%. Men's representations percentage dropped from 73% in 2003, to 69% in 2016. The research also investigates the distribution of women in each Higher Education Institution in Greece. Findings show that the underrepresentation of women is common in all Greek academic institutions. Thus, their representation varies depending on the field of study. Women in Greek academic faculty are represented in a higher percentage among humanitarian studies, where women represent 55% of faculty, and men 45%, and in Fine Arts, where the distribution was 60% of men and 40% of women faculty members. Among Polytechnical schools and schools of Technology of Information the gender gap is wider. In Polytechnical schools and schools of technology of Information there is a large gender gap where men hold 82% of faculty members and women only 18%. Moreover, among fields of studies with the lowest percentage of women faculty members, is math and science with 75% of men faculty members and 25% of



women. In the field of social and economic sciences women are still lower represented as they held 28% of faculty positions while men represented 72% of faculty.

Concerning each academic institution separately, those with the higher female presence among the academic faculty was Harokopeio University (59% men, 41% women), Panteion University (59% men, 41% women), University of West Macedonia (60% men, 40% women), University of Peloponnese (60% men 40% women), National and Kapodistrian University of Athens (62% men 38% women), Athens School of Fine Arts (65% men, 35% women). When University of Peiraeus (82% men, 18% women), and Polytechnical School of Crete (86% men, 14% women) had the smaller percentage of women. Athens University of Economics and Business, when the research was conducted was among those institutions with a rather low women's representation, with 78% men and 22% women members of faculty. It is alarming how some departments have no women representation at all among their faculty. Such departments are the department of Accounting and Finance in University of Macedonia, School of Production Engineering and Management in Technical School of Crete and in Democritus University of Thrace, Department of Food Science and Nutrition of the University of The Aegean, Department of Mechanical Engineering university of Thessaly, School of Naval Architecture and Marine Engineering of the National Technical University of Athens, Department of Material Science of the University of Patras, Department of Computer Engineering and Informatics of the University of Patras. Therefore, it seems that the gender gap is even bigger among fields of engineering, which is traditionally a male dominated field of occupation. Findings from worldwide literature seem to agree.

It is worth mentioning that the results of Papalexandri's (2019) study indicated that the representation of women decreases as academic appointments increase, indicating a leaky pipeline phenomenon (Santos, Horta & Amancio, 2020). Hence, in the appointment of Professor men held 79% of positions, while women only 21%. At the appointment of Associate Professor men represented 68% and women 32%. As we get to the appointment of Assistant Professor there is a slightly better picture with women holding 37% of positions, while men 63%. In the lowest academic appointment of lecturer, women were 43% while men 57%. On a more positive note, the study shows an increase in women representation in each academic appointment. In fact, women in the appointment of full Professorship in 2003 held 14% of full professorship positions, and in 2016 the percentage increased in 21%. At the academic position of Associate professors' women's representation grew from 27% to 32%, between the years 2003 and 2016. The same increase was noticed among Assistant Professors, which became 43% in 2016, compared to the 39% representation women had in 2003. Also, women lecturers increased from 32% to 37%. In alignment with findings from Europe and the rest of the world, women in Greek academic institutions are underrepresented not only among members of the faculty, but in management positions as well. The percentage for the position of rector was 85% for men and only 15% for women, when the study took place.



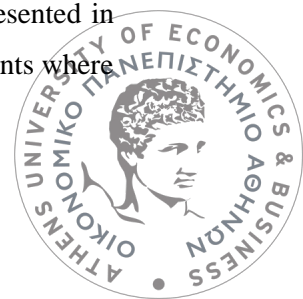


The representation of women among Deans was 16%, while the equivalent for men was 84%. Women as Head of Departments constituted the 23%, while men the 77%. To conclude, overall the study indicated the wider gender gap in the fields of Mathematics, Physics, Polytechnical Schools and Informatics, while in Humanitarian, Health, Social and Economic Studies, women were more, yet still underrepresented.

Furthermore, Vosniadou and Vaiou (2005) in their study examined the evolution of women's participation in the academic staff of the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens. Their findings show a vast increase of women academics since 1982, the year that Greek government passed a law that was about to change the ratio of women and men in faculty. Throughout one decade the number of women academics in the University of Athens doubled. Despite the increase of the number, the overall percentage of women was still lower than men. In 1963-64 women held only a 3% of academic positions, which increased in 5% in 1973-74. The major change started in 1980-81, with women obtaining more positions in the academic field. The academic year 1980-81 women held 60 positions in the Athens University faculty, and in 1983-84 the number enlarged in 285. In 1982 Greek government passed a law concerning the structure and function of Universities. This law not only established the universities responsibility to practice equity and equality of genders, but also it helped any academic assistants that held a PhD become faculty members. In that case women that were the majority of research assistants, made it to faculty members (Vosniadou & Vaiou, 2005).

Vosniadou and Vaiou (2005) in their study present the percentage of women faculty per position in Athens University compared to the percentage of women in faculty in all Greek universities for the year 2003-04. Athens university has a rather high amount of women faculty compared to other universities, and this is because it does not have a polytechnical school. A relevant study in 2003-04 showed that the vast majority Polytechnical school 's and other similar fields' faculty is male members. In addition, both universities that are located in big cities, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens and Aristoteleio University of Thessaloniki have more women faculty members than universities located in smaller cities. In the university of Athens women represent 35% of all faculty members, one the bigger percentage for Greek universities. Women hold a 37%, the largest percentage among all, of faculty positions in Panteion University of Social and Political Studies. In Aristoteleio University of Thessaloniki, the year of the study faculty members were 29% women, in university of Patras the percentage was 20,5%, in University of Crete it was 23% and in University of Aegean 22,5%. The smallest percentage was found in Polytechnical School of Crete, where woman only represent the 4% of the faculty (Vosniadou & Vaiou, 2005).

The above findings show an increase in the number of women in Greek universities. However, women academics are mostly concentrated in humanities and social studies and they are underrepresented in Science, Technology, Engineer and Mathematics (STEM). Moreover, women are underrepresented in senior administrative positions (deans, heads of departments, etc.), surprisingly even in departments where

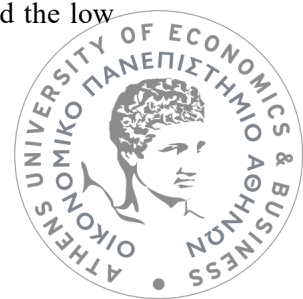


they represent the majority of the teaching and research staff (Vosniadou & Vaiou 2005). Similar findings from Casad 's et al. (2020) study, show that women in STEM are less likely to receive tenure and therefore to obtain academic positions.

The gender equality among academic faculty has also been examined by Sailer (2018) in University of Macedonia, in Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and in Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki. The results have shown that the positions of faculty members are dominated by men both at Macedonia University and Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. Moreover, women faculty members held the lowest percentage at the top of the academic hierarchy. The sample of the study consisted of 17 female professors, that met the criteria of being married and having at least one child. An interesting finding is that some women did not know the fact that they are underrepresented. When they were asked about the reasons, they believe they are underrepresented, some of them stated it to be because of stereotypes of the patriarchal society and social structures about women. In addition, the study sheds light to the lack of quotas for women academics in Greece, in contrast to Europe, highlighting the need for laws and guidelines for women academics.

The study points out the many obstacles that women face in academia, as having bigger loads working hours, dealing with gender related stereotypes, and getting paid less than men for the same amount of work. The most common issue for women academics seems to be work- life balance. Most women declared to have the ultimate responsibility for the upbringing of the children and majority also claimed to be responsible for the housework. Findings about University of Patras seem to agree (Zenzefylis, 2012). According to Sailer (2018) most women do not climb the academic ladder as fast as men due to family duties and responsibilities concerning the upbringing of the children. Also, women are underrepresented in administrative positions as well. The lack of women in high administrative positions could be explained by the fact that women do not apply as often as men for such positions as dean of the school.

A similar study took place in the University of Patras, where in 2011-12 the highest percentage of the faculty was men academics (78,2%). Similar findings to the previous studies show that the higher distribution of women is in schools of Social Studies and Humanities (47,9%) and Health Studies (24,7%). On the contrary in Science and Mathematics women represent a lower percentage of 21,9%, in Polytechnic School only a 7,9%, while in the Electronical Engineering and Computers Department there was not one woman in the faculty in 2011-12. In the University of Patras, the year the study took place women were mostly found in positions of Assistant Professor 35,4% and Associate Professor 25,3%. At the highest academic level of Professor women had the lowest percentage, only 17,1% (Zenzefylis, 2012). Those findings are in alignment with previous findings about Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and University of Macedonia (Sailer, 2018) as well as with Vosniadou and Vaiou's (2005) study that indicated the low representment of women in STEM.

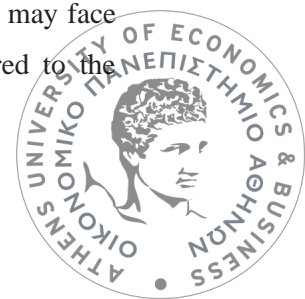


Women academics in University of Patras are mostly represented in higher academic positions (Associate Professor and Professor) in Social Studies and Humanities (16,16%). In Health Studies the percentage of women Associate Professors and Professors is lower, but still one of the highest (8,9%). The lowest representation of women in higher academic positions appears in the School of Mathematics and Science (8,2%). In Polytechnic school of Patras women Associate Professors and Professors consist only 2,3% of the members of the faculty. In Economic studies women are generally underrepresented, in all academic levels (Zenzefylis, 2012). The socio-economic profile of women academics, who mostly came from the middle-class of Greek society had a positive impact on their choice to follow the academic profession. When investigating the reasons that led women academics to the academic profession, one must take into consideration the social and political state of Greece in the mid '60s, when the social role of women was perceived in a more "traditional" way and did not involve an academic career. It should be noted that the impact and support of family plays a critical role to women's decisions to follow the academic path. (Zenzefylis, 2012)

In the case study of University of Patras the reasons why women academics followed the academic profession are investigated. As stated, some of them declared that it was a personal goal to follow this path. Furthermore, some women claim to have been pressured by their families, concerning mostly the field of studies, due to the perception of the splitting of fields in female and male professions. An interesting yet controversial finding was the fact that 30% of women members of faculty attributed their choice to luck, stating to never have thought of following an academic career. These findings highlight the impact that social stereotypes about gender, possible intrinsic gender-related characteristic and choice of profession have on women (Zenzefylis, 2012)

It is very important to note that even though all the above mentioned findings seem to agree that there is a glass ceiling in Greek academia, at the doctoral level of Greek universities gender equality has been achieved, according to the National Center for Documentation and Electronic Content (ECB). Similar are findings from the "She Figures" (2018) report which indicated that Greek women at a doctoral level increased at a faster rate than men from 2007 to 2016. However, even though the past years there is an increase in women's participation at all levels, the glass ceiling in academia still exists, especially at the highest level, where women in 2017 were represented only by 22.3%. Also, the representation of women in the highest management positions of universities still remains very low (Business Daily, 2020)

On a more positive note, Galanaki (2021) illustrates her experience though her academic career in Greece, with allegories from Homer's epic poem Odyssey, pointing out the difficulties academics face, as well as describing the nature of the academic career. Odysseus during his journey to return home in Ithaca, comes across several unexpected and unpredictable situations, as academics during their career may face several unforeseen circumstances. The allegory is formed around Odysseus journey compared to the



academic career, in terms of all the unexpected situation and obstacles that an academic may face, pointing out that these experiences are more valuable than the outcome (Galanaki, 2021).

## **CHAPTER 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Aim**

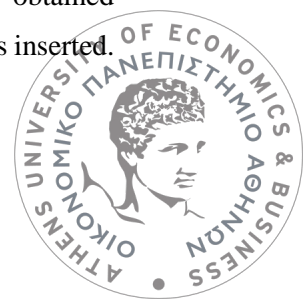
The aim of this study was to investigate career development using as an indicator the average years of residency in each academic position for all the active members of the Teaching and Research Staff, according to their gender. To investigate that the average years of residency in each academic position for men and women in AUEB as an institution, and in each School and Department of AUEB were examined. Although gender inequality in workplaces and academia has been an issue of interest among both academics as well as the Human Resources community, it has rarely been studied in Greece.

### **3.2 Data Collection**

For the purpose of the study, information about the exact chronological year of placement of each member in each academic appointment was gathered. The data were retrieved from the information provided by the faculty members CVs from the official site of AUEB. In cases where the CV was not posted on the website, or CV was not updated, the faculty member was contacted by email, and was asked to provide the information needed for the purpose of the research. All participants were informed for the purpose and the methodology of the study. Also, the use of their personal information for research purpose only was ensured. To cross-check the information, and to obtain the missing information that was not provided by the website nor by email, we contacted the Teaching Staff Department of AUEB, in order to access the information of the Teaching Staff Department. After a special permission given by the Vice Chancellor of the University, Mr. Vasdekis, we managed to get the rest of the data. However, it should be noted that in a few cases some information was still missing, even from the Departments' files. In those cases, the missing information about the year of the placement in an academic appointment was coded as such.

### **3.3 Data Coding & Software**

We started with the creation of an xls. document with all the active faculty members of AUEB categorized per department, school, current academic appointment and gender. Then, all the obtained information of the years of placement of every faculty member in each academic appointment was inserted.



To code the data, we calculated the years of residency in each academic position by subtracting the year of placement in the academic position from the year of placement in the next academic position the member was placed. All analyses were conducted using IBM's software SPSS V.22.

### **3.4 Population of the Study and Organizational Structure**

The population of the study is the active faculty members of Athens University of Economics and Business. The existing academic appointments in all Greek higher academic institutions are the position of assistant professor, associate professor, and full-professor. It should be noted that the position of lecturer was abolished in 2011 with the by the implementation of a law about the Structure, operation, quality assurance of studies, and the internationalization of higher education institutions [N.4009/2011]. Tables with the exact numbers and percentages of the population of all the AUEB academic faculty per gender, of all the faculty per academic appointment and gender, and of the overall population of the faculty per academic appointment divided by Department, School and gender can be found listed below. The structure of the organization of AUEB, as presented in the list below, consists of the division of it in three Schools, each one of them consisting of several Departments.

#### **1. School of Information & Technology**

- i. Department of Statistics
- ii. Department of Informatics

#### **2. School of Economic Sciences**

- i. Department of International & European Studies
- ii. Department of Economics

#### **3. School of Business**

- i. Department of Management Science & Technology
- ii. Department of Business Administration
- iii. Department of Accounting & Finance
- iv. Department of Marketing & Communication



Table 1: AUEB Academic Faculty Overall by Gender

Faculty Members	Men (N= 139)	Women (N=34)
N= 173	80,34%	19,65%

### 3.5 Analysis Methodology

For the purpose of the study, several analyses were conducted. At first, we provide the descriptives of the mean of years in each position for the whole AUEB, for each School in AUEB and for each Department. Gender was considered as the independent (categorical) variable, having two categories (male and female). The years of residency in each academic position were considered as the dependent variable (continuous quantitative). We tested whether there are statistical differences in the means of years between women and men faculty members. The significance level was set to 5% ( $\alpha=0.05$ ).

The assumption of the normality of distribution was not validated, thus we preferred to use a non-parametric test, specifically the Mann-Whitney Test, which is more robust, to test the hypotheses of equality of means. In order to test the two groups of the independent variable which were more than 20 for each group, (N=173) we transformed the data into standardized data (z-scores) (Roussos & Tsaousis, 2011). Transforming data into z-scores, is very useful for the interpretation of a value in relation to the other values of the data group. Therefore, we followed this method in order to better understand the differences between the two groups of the independent variable and in order to interpret the size of effect (McLeod, 2019).

At first, we studied the years of residency in each academic appointment for men and women in AUEB as an institution. Secondly, the years of residency in each academic appointment for men and women in each School of AUEB were examined. Mann-Whitney Test was used in order to compare the mean ranks between two unrelated groups (men and women) on the same continuous dependent variable (years of residency in each appointment). The null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is: The means of females and males are equal,  $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ . The research hypothesis ( $H_1$ ), 1-tailed, is that: The means of females and males do differ. More specifically, as we test a one-tailed hypothesis, the mean rank of females is higher than the one of males,  $\mu_1 > \mu_2$ . Also, the results are explained in terms of the measure of magnitude (Effect Size), which describes the size of the effect of the variable gender on each variable of years of residency in each position (McLeod, 2019). Finally, concerning each Department of Each School, due to the very small number of cases, we discuss the data in terms of descriptive analysis.



## CHAPTER 4: Analysis

### 4.1 Analysis of the overall AUEB Academic Faculty in Each Academic Appointment

#### Descriptives of Years in Each Appointment in AUEB Overall

The mean of years of residency in each position is presented in Table 4 below. It is noticed that the means of years differ between men and women especially in higher academic positions. For the position of PhD men spend on average 3.53 years before they enter a tenured track in AUEB, while women 4.47. Moving on to the position of lecturer we notice that the mean of years for men is 5.20, and for women 5.76. As can be seen in Figure 2 in appendix, there are some extreme values in the group of males. In the position of assistant professor men's mean of years of residency is 6.26 while women's equivalent is 7.48. In the associate's position men spend on average 6.47 years while women 7.18. In Figure 4, it can be noticed that in the group of females there are some extreme values that are far from the rest of the distribution (see Appendix).

Table 2: Descriptives for AUEB overall

Position	Mean		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
PhD	3.53	4.47	3.522	3.612
Lecturer	5.20	5.76	2.429	2.459
Assistant Professor	6.26	7.48	2.863	2.556
Associate Professor	6.47	7.18	3.221	4.976

#### Years as a PhD

**Results from Mann-Whitney Test:** the non-parametric tests whether the mean ranks of the two groups differ (i.e. the two groups are equal on average in their ranks). The result of one-sided test relies on the margin (0.047 slightly less than 0.05%) which indicates that the means between males and females do differ, with the mean of females being higher than the one of males (see Table 5).

#### Effect size

The mean of years for women is 0.264 standard deviations higher than in men. The above indicates that the effect of sex does not have significant impact on this position level despite the fact that females tend to spend more years compared to males.





### **Years as a Lecturer**

#### **Results from Mann-Witney test:**

The result of nonparametric test do not reject the hypothesis of equality of means (sig.=0,168).

#### **Effect Size**

The mean difference equals 0,228 standardized years, which is considered a small effect size (close to 0.2) according to Cohen's d. Which means that the mean of years for women is 0,228 standard deviations higher than the mean of years in men.

### **Years as an Assistant Professor**

#### **Results from Mann-Witney test**

The results of the non-parametric test (sig=0 .15), do not reject the hypothesis of equality of means in years suggesting that there is not a significant difference between the men and women.

#### **Effect Size**

The mean difference between women and men is 0,428 which is close to 0.5, considered a medium size of the effect, according to Cohen's d. This is interpreted as that the mean years for females are 0,428 standard deviations higher than the mean years in males.

### **Years as an Associate Professor**

#### **Results from Mann-Witney test**

Results from non-parametric test (sig=0.484) do not reject the null hypothesis of equality of means of years between the two genders in the position of the Associate professor.

#### **Effect Size**

The mean difference is 0,204, which means that the size of the effect is small (smaller across all positions we have seen in the analysis). This is to indicate that the mean of the years for females is 0,204 standard deviations higher than those for men.



Table 3: Mann-Witney Test for Overall Analysis

<b>Mann-Whitney Test</b>	
Std years as	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)
PhD	0.047
Lecturer	0.168
Assistant Professor	0.15
Associate Professor	0.484

Table 4: Mean Differences in Overall Analysis

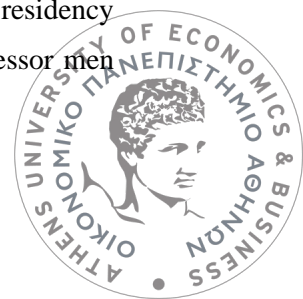
<b>Mean difference (Effect Size)</b>	
PhD	0.264
Lecturer	0.288
Assistant Professor	0.428
Associate Professor	0.204

### 4.3 Analysis of the Academic Faculty of Each School in Each Academic Appointment

#### School of Information Sciences and Technology

##### Descriptives

School of Information Sciences and Technology, is overall male dominated with 85,1% male members of faculty and 14,8% female (see Table 20 in appendix). From the descriptives provided in Table 7, we can observe that men PhD graduates spend on average 3.84 years before they receive the appointment of lecturer, while the equivalent average years for women is 6.00. In the position of lecturer, men spend on average 4.81 years, while women 5.00. Concerning the position of assistant professor, the years of residency in this position for men are 6.65, while for women 8.80. In the appointment of associate professor men



spend on average 6.55 years before they climb in the position of full professor, while the equivalent years for women is 5.33.

Table 5: Descriptives for School of Information Science & Technology

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	3.84	6.00	3.50	6.00	2.411	1.915
<b>Lecturer</b>	4.81	5.00	5.00	4.00	1.682	1.732
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6.65	8.80	6.00	7.00	2.787	2.490
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.55	5.33	6.00	5.00	2.540	0.577

Regarding the results from Mann-Witney test, females need more years on average than males (sig=0.009) to climb from the position of PhD to the lecturer's position as well as in the position of the assistant professor, (sig.=0.034). For the position of lecturer, (sig.=0.483) and associate professor, (sig.=0.180), equality of means holds.

Table 6: Mann-Whitney Test for School of Information Sciences and Technology

Mann-Whitney Test	
Std years as	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)
PhD	0.009
Lecturer	0.483
Assistant Professor	0.034
Associate Professor	0.180

**School of Economic Sciences**



## Descriptives

School of Economics Science has 74,39% men faculty members and 25,6% women (see Table 20 in appendix). According to the descriptives presented in Table 9, men spend on average 2.24 years before they get to the position of lecturer, while women spend 4.00 average years in the same position. As regards the position of lecturer men spend 5.50 years on average in this position, while women spend 6.00. Before they receive the position of associate men stay on the previous appointment for 6.12 years on average, while women for 7.00. Men spend on average 6.73 years in the position of associate while women 7.50.

Table 7: Descriptives of School of Economic Sciences

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	2.24	4.00	1.00	4.50	3.358	2.366
<b>Lecturer</b>	5.50	6.00	5.00	6.00	2.673	2.603
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6.12	7.00	5.00	6.50	3.445	3.668
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.73	7.50	5.00	6.50	2.865	3.873

Results from Mann-Witney test show that, in the position of PhD, (sig=0.026) the null hypothesis is rejected, as the mean of years of women is higher than men's, meaning that women spend more years in this academic position than men. In the positions of lecturer (sig.= 0.425), Assistant Professor (sig.= 0.297) and Associate Professor (sig.= 0.404), means of males and females are equal.

Table 8: Mann-Whitney Test for School of Economic Sciences

Mann-Whitney Test	
Std years as	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)
PhD	0.026
Lecturer	0.425



Assistant Professor	0.297
Associate Professor	0.404

## School of Business

### Descriptives

In AUEB's School of Business, according to the data presented on Table 20 (see appendix), men hold 74,39% of positions, while women 25,6% of them. From the descriptives provided in Table 11, it can be observed that in the doctoral level men spend on average 4.08 years, while women, 4.10. Men stay on average in the position of lecturer for 5.50 years, while women spend 6.00 average years in this position. Concerning the academic appointment of assistant professor the average years of residency for men is 6.03 while the equivalent years for women is 7.17. In the appointment of associate men spend on average 6.73, while women 7.50.

Table 9: Descriptives for School of Business

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	4.08	4.10	3.00	3.00	4.040	4.242
<b>Lecturer</b>	5.50	6.00	5.50	6.00	2.673	2.603
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6.03	7.17	5.50	6.50	2.468	1.899
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.73	7.50	5.00	6.50	2.865	3.873

Results from Mann-Witney test (see Table 12) indicate that in the position of PhD (sig.= 0.451), lecturer (sig.=0.225) and associate professor (sig.=0.324) we cannot reject the null hypothesis, meaning that equality of means holds. In the position of assistant professor (sig.=0.035) the null hypothesis is rejected, as the means do differ and the mean of years for women is higher than the equivalent for men, this indicates that women spend more time in this academic position than men.



Table 10: Mann-Whitney Test for School of Business

Mann-Whitney Test	
Std. years as	Exact Sig. (1-tailed)
PhD	0.451
Lecturer	0.225
Assistant Professor	0.035
Associate Professor	0.324

#### 4.4 Analysis of Each Department

For the examination of each department of AUEB, due to the very small number of cases, a descriptive analysis was preferred. Below are presented the observations for each department of each school, concerning the career paths and development of the female and male faculty members.

##### Department of Informatics

Starting with the School of Information, Sciences and Technology and the Department of Informatics, which is overall a male dominated department, with 88,46% men and 11,53% women faculty members (see Table 20 in appendix), we can see that even though women are underrepresented, they are holding positions of full professorship. Specifically, the distribution of women in each position is 16,66% in the position of assistant professor, 12% in the position of full professor and apparently there is not a single woman in the position of associate professor. We can also observe the cases of two male faculty members with previous careers in other institutions who received full professorship at AUEB. Moreover, we observe that in some cases members, mostly men, have skipped the position of lecturer, receiving the position of assistant professor. As can be seen in Table 9 below, the years that women remain as PhD (Mean=6.33) students until they get promoted to the position of lecturer are on average more than the equivalent for men (Mean=3.57). Due to the very small number of cases, descriptives do not provide us with much more information about the years of residency in the rest of the appointments.



Table 11: Descriptives for Department of Informatics

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	3.57	6.33	3.00	8.00	2.107	2.887
<b>Lecturer</b>	4.50	-	4.50	-	1.095	-
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	7.00	-	6.00	-	3.010	-
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.14	-	6.00	-	2.316	-

### Department of Statistics

The Department of Statistics is another male dominated department, with 80,95% men and 19,04% women faculty members (see table 20 in appendix). In the position of assistant women hold 20,0% of the positions, their representation grows to 28.57% in the position of associate professor, only to drop in 11.11% in the appointment of full professorship. From the collected data we observe that there are male members of faculty that came to AUEB from other academic institutions in higher positions, while women in this Department tend to spend most of their career in AUEB. Descriptives presented in Table 10 show that men spend on average less years than women to get promoted from PhD graduates to lecturers, as the mean years for men are 4.27 and for women 5.75. Same follows in the position of lecturer where men spend less years (Mean=5.13) until they get promoted to the next level than women (Mean=5.67). In the position of assistant professor the widest difference in means is noticed, as men stay in this position on average 6.15 years, while women 10.00.

Table 12: Descriptives for Department of Statistics

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	4.27	5.75	4.00	6.00	2.840	1.258
<b>Lecturer</b>	5.13	5.67	5.00	5.00	2.134	2.082





<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6.15	10.00	6.00	11.00	2.478	2.646
<b>Associate Professor</b>	7.25	-	6.50	-	2.915	-

### Department of Economics

In the School of Economic Sciences, Department of Economics men hold most of the positions with 84,21% members of faculty while women are represented only in 15,7% (see Table 20 in appendix). It is noticed that the majority of women faculty is in higher academic position, as they hold 22,22% of full-professorships, and 20,0% of associate professor positions, while there are no women assistant professors. Also, as discussed before, most male members of faculty with previous career in other institutions received full professorship at AUEB while women members of faculty followed a career path in AUEB, reaching each academic appointment in the same university. From the descriptives in Table 11, we assume that women spend on average more years in the position of PhD (Mean=5.00) than men (Mean=3.00), also in the position of lecturer there is still a small difference in the average years as men spend 4.64 years on average, while women 5.50. In the position of Assistant professor we can see that again men spend less years on average (Mean=6,67) than women (Mean=8,00). The largest difference is noticed in the position of associate, where men spend a lot less years (Mean=5,57) than women who spend on average 12,50 years (Mean=12,50).

Table 13: Descriptives for Department of Economics

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	3.00	5.00	1.50	5.00	4.147	2.000
<b>Lecturer</b>	4.64	5.50	4.50	5.50	2.240	3.536
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6,67	8,00	6,67	6,00	3,905	5,292
<b>Associate Professor</b>	3,57	12,50	2,00	12,50	2,878	10,607



### Department of International and European Economic Studies

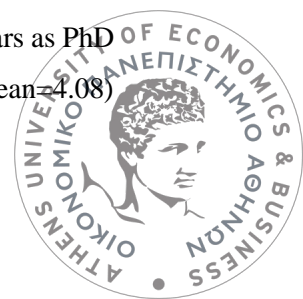
In the Department of International and European Economic Studies again we see men faculty members holding most of the positions with 88% representation, while women hold 12% of them, slightly above the other department of the same School (see Table 20 in appendix). Women in this department are appointed only in high positions of associate and full professor with a representation of 33,33% and 11,11% correspondingly, and with no representation at all in the position of assistant, while men are distributed in all positions, with the majority of them in the position of full professor (see Table 20 in appendix). Furthermore, among men members, most of them came in AUEB receiving higher academic positions, while women tend to start in AUEB in lower positions and move up the academic ladder. As seen in Table 12, men spend less years (Mean= 1,56) on PhD level before they get promoted to lecturer as women (Mean=3.00). In the position of lecturer, assistant and associate, the years of residency for the two genders do not differ much on average, however men still spend less years.

Table 14: Descriptives of International and European Economic Studies

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	1.56	3.00	1.00	4.00	2.382	2.646
<b>Lecturer</b>	5.59	5.67	5.00	5.00	3.001	3.055
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	5.82	6.00	5.00	7.00	3.264	1.732
<b>Associate Professor</b>	5.82	6.25	5.00	6.00	1.328	6.00

### Department of Management Science and Technology

In the School of Business and the Department of Management Science and Technology women representation is higher than the previous mentioned departments, with men holding 77,27% of positions and women 22,72% (see Table 20 in appendix). It is encouraging to see, women in this department are gaining more positions, holding 33,33% of assistant professor appointments, 27,27% of associate and 12.5% of full professor positions. Most women again follow an academic career receiving all positions in AUEB. In the information provided in Table 13 below, it is noticed that women on average spend less years as PhD (Mean=3.40) than men (Mean=5.00). Also, women (Mean=4.00) spend less years than men (Mean=4.08)



on average in the position of lecturer. In assistants' position men (Mean=5.82) spend less years than women (Mean=6.25 before they get promoted to the next appointment. In the associate's position, the mean years for women could not be calculated since there is only one case of a woman who got promoted to the full-professors appointment.

Table 15: Descriptives for Department of Management Science & Technology

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	5.00	3.40	4.00	4.00	4.569	2.881
<b>Lecturer</b>	4.08	4.00	4.00	4.00	1.505	1.225
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	5.82	6.25	5.00	6.00	1.328	0.500
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.00	-	5.00	-	2.708	-

### Business Administration

In the Department of Business Administration, we can see that men represent 76,0% and women 24,0% of the academic faculty, a rather good analogy in comparison with other departments (see Table 20 in appendix). Again, women are better represented in lower academic positions, with 25,00% in the position of assistant, 33,33% in the position of associate and 14,28% of representation in the position of full professor. We can observe that men tend to come in AUEB receiving a higher academic position (associate/full professor) after having a previous career in other institutions. Most women again spend their whole career in AUEB (all positions). As seen in Table 14 in the level of PhD women spend on average 4.67 years (Mean=4.67) while men 4.39 (Mean=4.39). In the position of lecturer this difference in means gets wider as men spend on average 6.69 (Mean= 6.69) years while women spend 8.00 (Mean=8.00).

Table 16: Descriptives Business Administration

Position	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
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	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	4.39	4.67	3.00	1.50	4.913	6.186
<b>Lecturer</b>	6.69	8.00	6.00	8.00	3.038	3.240
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	4.90	7.00	4.50	6.00	1.663	1.732
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.33	-	6.00	-	2.160	-

### Department of Accounting and Finance

In the Department of Accounting and Finance men hold again most of the faculty member positions with 89,47%, while women represent 10,5% (see Table 20 in appendix). Women hold 25,00% of associate professor positions and 14,28% of full professorships. It should be noted though, that in the position of assistant professor there is an absolute absence of women. We can observe that all women of the academic faculty of this department had their whole career in AUEB. Descriptives, as seen in Table 15, do not provide us with much information due to the very few cases. We notice that in the position of lecturer women (Mean= 4.00) spend less years than men (Mean=5.40). In the position of assistant women spend on average less years (Mean=6.50) than men (Mean=6.63) to get promoted.

Table 17: Descriptives for Department of Accounting & Finance

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	3.56	-	3.50	-	2.874	-
<b>Lecturer</b>	5.40	4.00	5.00	4.00	2.923	1.414
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	6.63	6.50	6.50	6.50	3.503	3.536
<b>Associate Professor</b>	6.60	-	5.00	-	3.435	-



## Department of Marketing and Communication

Finally, concerning the Department of Marketing and Communication, it is found to be the most gender equal department with the exact equal representation of men, 50%, and women, 50%, faculty members. Also, it is the only department where women are overrepresented in the position of assistant professor, holding 71.42% of positions (see Table 20 in appendix). In the associate's position women and men have the exact equal representation, while in the full professor appointment women hold 20% of positions. As can be noticed in Table 16 below, in the position of PhD men spend on average 2,50 years (Mean=2.50) which is less than the equivalent for women (Mean=4.88). In the lecturer's position men again spend less years on average (Mean= 6.00), than women (Mean=6.57). Regarding the position of assistant, men once again spend less years (Mean= 7.80) before they get promoted than women (Mean=9.00).

Table 18: Descriptives for Department of Marketing & Communication

Position	Mean		Median		Std. Deviation	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>PhD</b>	2.50	4.88	3.00	3.50	2.330	3.907
<b>Lecturer</b>	6.00	6.57	5.50	7.00	2.098	1.902
<b>Assistant Professor</b>	7.80	9.00	7.00	10.00	3.194	1.732
<b>Associate Professor</b>	8.75	-	8.50	-	3.500	-

## CHAPTER 5: Discussion

The aim of the study was to investigate career development using as an indicator the average years of residency in each academic position for men and women in Athens University of Economics and Business as an institution, and in each School and Department of AUEB. Despite the fact that gender inequality among Higher Institutions in Greece and abroad has been investigated in terms of distribution of gender among different academic fields and appointments, established differences in years of residency in each academic position remain a dearth of the evidence. According to our study women are underrepresented in AUEB as an Institution, while this is more profound in School of Information and Technology and School of Economic Sciences. Alarmingly, it is noticed that in the School of Economic Sciences and the Department



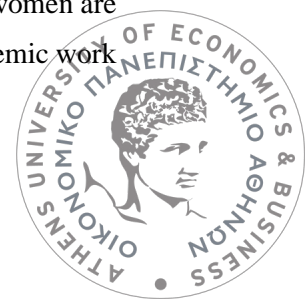
of Accounting and Finance, the absence of women in lower academic positions (Assistant Professor), foreshadow that they will be even more underrepresented in the future years. Encouraging findings are observed in AUEB's Business School, which is the School with the better representation of females among its faculty members. The Department of Marketing and Communication was found to be the most gender equal of all departments.

Findings from previous studies in Greek Higher Institutions are in alignment with our results about the underrepresentation of women in the field of economic studies (Papalexandri, 2019). Previous findings about the overall representation of women in AUEB, which was 28% in 2017, sets an alarm for the current situation, as the equivalent percentage in 2020 is 19,65%. Among Europe, women seem to be more equally represented in the academic field as they form the 41.3% of the academic staff in EU (She Figures, 2018). Comparing our findings with previous ones from Greek Higher Academic Institutions (Papalexandri, 2019; Zenzefylis, 2012), regarding the distribution of genders in each academic position, it should be noted that women are less represented in each academic appointment in AUEB than in the rest of Greece's Institutions. On a more positive note, women in AUEB represent 13,9% among all academic staff occupied in the position of full-professor, while the corresponding percentage for the European Union at a national level varies from 13% to 54.3% (She Figures, 2018).

Regarding the representation of women in Business Schools, some surveys have indicated that women in Canadian business schools hold 23% of the positions in the rank of full professor, while their distribution is wider among lower academic positions, findings that are in line with European and US research (Dandalt & Brutus, 2020). Our findings about AUEB's Business School, are in alignment with the above as women represent 25,6% of the faculty members in all of the Business School's departments. More specifically, women hold 30%, 32%, and 14,81% of positions, in the appointment of assistant, associate and full professor respectively.

Gender inequality in academia has an impact on many aspects of women's careers, as previously discussed. One of the many mechanisms in which gender inequality operates, is that women's careers progress slower than men's (Toren, 1993). In AUEB as an Institution, we observed that women spend more time than men in each academic position, findings which are consistent with corresponding studies from abroad (Toren & Kraus, 1987). This pattern is noticed among the majority of Schools and Departments of AUEB.

Many plausible mechanisms explaining the observed pattern have been discussed. The most critical factor behind women's underrepresentation and slower career development in academia, is that women are the ones responsible for caregiving and parenting, which contribute to spending less time in academic work

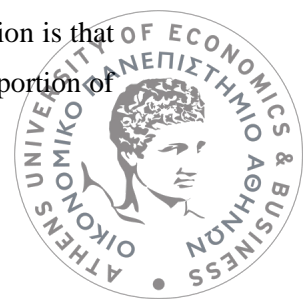


(Dubois & Shaik, 2017; Schiebinger & Gilmartin, 2010). Also, we should note that findings indicate that women in academia are given more administrative work, mentoring and service activities (Casad, 2020). Malisch and colleagues (2020) highlight that women faculty members tend to have more duties concerning counseling students and providing them with additional support.

Furthermore, there are reasons related to stereotypes and social norms. The “genius stereotype” profoundly exists in academia, where men academics are perceived to be more qualified than their women colleagues by their students. The gender-science stereotype is widely observed in economic sciences too, where men tend to receive tenure twice as much as women, despite the fact that women and men both make the same number of publications (Wolfers, 2016). This brings us to a factor crucial to the academic career development, which is citations and reviews, yet studies show that women are less likely to self-cite their own research than men are (Weisshaar, 2017; Maliniak et al., 2013; King, et al. 2017). This type of behavior could be explained in terms of men being more likely to adopt a more competitive style, than women (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010; Ryan et al., 2015). Also, the lack of evidence about women scientists, contribute to the phenomenon of gender inequality in certain fields, by not providing young women with role models of women in research and academia (Criado-Perez, 2019; Fara, 2009).

To further understand plausible mechanisms fostering gender inequality we should investigate the social structures that are integrated in individuals and reproduced by them within society (Grada et al., 2015). By failing to recognize the dynamic process of the formation and reproduction of social structures such as gender, we are led to a dichotomy between the individual and the society as a whole. This not only weakens the interventions for gender equality in academia, but also strengthens the internalisation of the problem, which is perceived as an individual problem than a societal one (Breeze, 2018). Paradigms from the implementation of gender equality programs in Australian, Canadian and Swedish Universities, highlight the importance of such policies. However, these policies should be part of a multi-dimensional gender equality program, that includes training on gender bias, to have a more significant impact (George, 2003; Winchester & Browning, 2015; Edge et al., 2018; Universities Canada, 2019). Policies targeted in the equal representation and recruiting procedures in academia, only aim to outcomes, without trying to change the gender inequality regime, and result to making the problem invisible rather than fixing it. In the long run these policies fail because they overlook the deep-rooted nature of gender inequality (Grada et. al, 2015; Plantenga et al., 2009).

Our analysis is limited by its cross-sectional design, hence no temporal relationship and causal inference can be established. Furthermore, potential con-founding factors such as age, socio-economic status and marital status of the population of the study have not been evaluated. Another limitation is that we do not know how many women and men apply for tenure to have a better picture of the proportion of





men and women who get it. Also, faculty members who have left AUEB were not included in this research, therefore we do not know their gender nor the academic or non-academic path they followed. Moreover, this study does not examine the gender's representation among high administrative positions of the university. Despite the limitations of the present work, the reported findings are deserving of particular attention. The presence of an investigator all through the procedure of the data collection increases their validity. Also, the descriptive analysis of each department, each school and AUEB as an institution provides a rather detailed picture of the current situation.

## **Conclusions**

To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to examine the career development of faculty members regarding their gender in Athens University of Economics and Business. Due to the fact that career development is influenced by multi-dimensional factors, qualitative analysis could better illustrate the situation of gender equality and career development in AUEB. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative analysis must be the target of future research as it would be more useful to further investigate relations between gender and career patterns in a deeper level.



## Appendix

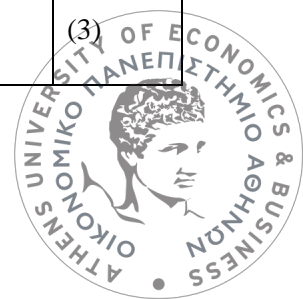
### Tables

Table 19: AUEB Faculty in Each Academic Appointment by Gender

Academic appointment	Men	Women	Total number
Full professor	86,07% (68)	13,92% (11)	79
Associate professor	72,72% (32)	27,27% (12)	44
Assistant professor	78% (39)	22% (11)	50

Table 20: AUEB Faculty in Each Academic Appointment by School, Department and Gender

	Assistant		Associate		Full Professor		Overall	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<b>School of Information &amp; Technology</b>	81,81% (9)	18,18% (2)	81,81% (9)	18,18% (2)	88,0% (22)	12,0% (3)	85,1% (40)	14,8 % (7)
Statistics	80,0% (4)	20,0% (4)	71.42% (5)	28.57% (2)	88.88% (8)	11.11% (1)	80,95% (21)	19,04% (4)
Informatics	83,33% (5)	16,66% (1)	100% (4)	0	87.5% (14)	12.5% (2)	88,46% (23)	11,53% (3)
<b>School of Economic Sciences</b>	100% (9)	0	75,0% (6)	25,00% (2)	85,18% (23)	14,81% (4)	86,36% (38)	13,6% (6)
International & European Studies	100% (4)	0	66,66% (2)	33,33% (1)	88.88% (16)	11,11% (2)	88,0% (22)	12,0% (3)



Economics	100% (5)	0	80,0% (4)	20,0% (1)	77,77% (7)	22,22% (2)	84,21% (16)	15,7% (3)
<b>School of Business</b>	70,0% (21)	30,0% (9)	68,0% (17)	32,0% (8)	85,18% (23)	14,81% (4)	74,39% (61)	25,6% (21)
Management Science & Technology	66,66% (2)	33,33% (1)	72,72% (8)	27,27% (3)	87.5% (7)	12.5% (1)	77,27% (17)	22,72% (5)
Business Administration	75,0% (9)	25,00% (3)	66,66% (4)	33,33% (2)	85.71% (6)	14.28% (1)	76,0% (19)	24,0% (6)
Accounting & Finance	100,% (8)	0	75,0% (3)	25,00% (1)	85.71% (6)	14.28% (1)	89,47% (17)	10,5% (2)
Marketing & Communication	28.57% (2)	71.42% (5)	50,00% (2)	50,00 % (2)	80,00% (4)	20,00% (1)	50,0% (8)	50,0%ω (8)

## Figures

Figure 1: Years as PhD in AUEB

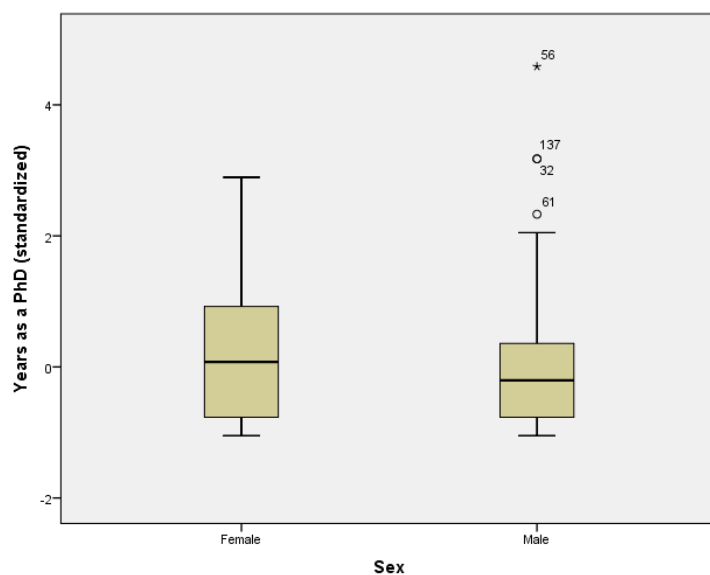


Figure 2: Years as Lecturer in AUEB

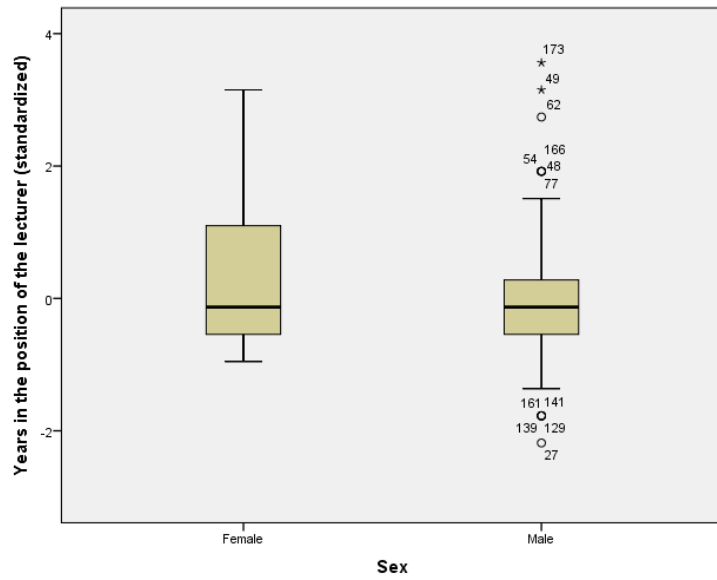


Figure 3: Years as Assistant in AUEB

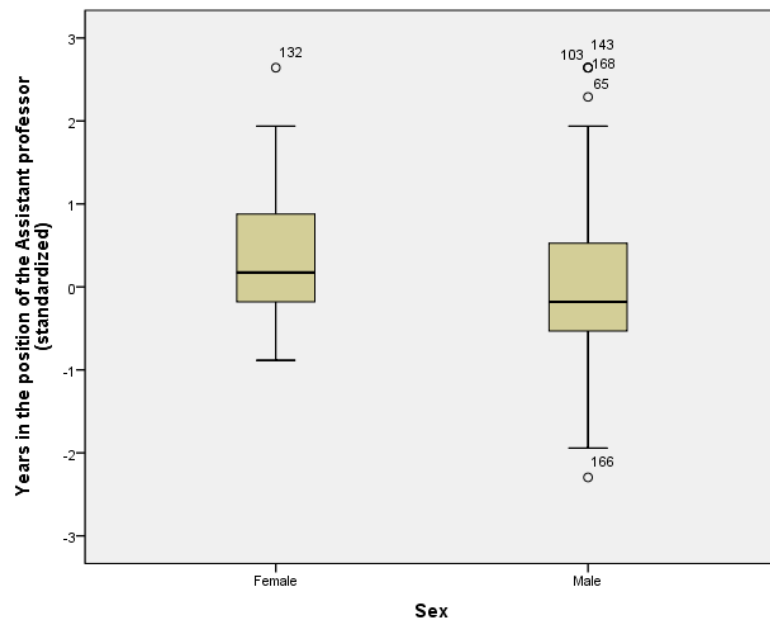
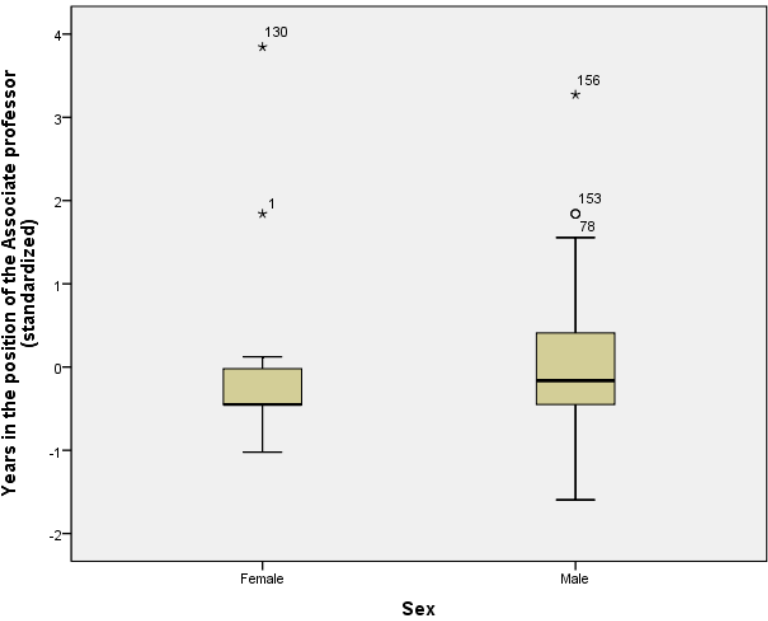


Figure 4: Years as Associate in AUEB



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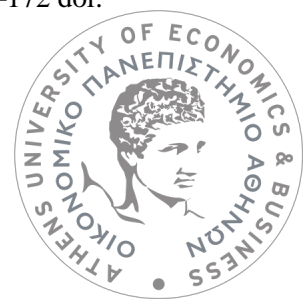
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