ROYAL ECONOMIC SOCIETY

Royal Economic Society, Silver Anniversary Women's Committee Report:

The Gender Imbalance in UK Economics

Victoria Bateman | Danula Kankanam Gamage | Erin Hengel | Xianyue Liu

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ROYAL ECONOMIC SOCIETY

Contents

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It has been 25 years since the Women's Committee first began producing these reports; we thank everyone who contributed throughout the years, and especially Karen Mumford and Denise Osborn. All errors are our own.

1 Executive summary

This year marks the Silver Anniversary of the Royal Economic Society Women's Committee. Since 1996, the Committee has been monitoring the gender balance within economics in the UK, publishing regular reports based on the results of surveying university departments and later scraping information from their websites. This is the latest such report but, unlike previous reports, draws together two sets of data: the Royal Economic Society's own data collection covering the period 1996–2016 and data from the Higher Education Statistical Agency (HESA) for the period 2012–2018. It considers the representation of women within academic economics, from undergraduate and graduate students through to the professorship, and strikes comparisons across time. While we find that progress has been made, we also identify areas of stagnation and retreat.

Notably, women are still under-represented in UK economics academia. The percentage of women is especially low among undergraduate students and academic economists. In 2018, women represented 32 percent of economics undergraduate students, 50 percent of economics graduate students (both masters and Ph.D.) and 26 percent of academic economists. This compares with 1996, when women represented 27 percent of economics undergraduate students, 30 percent of graduate students and at most 18 percent of academic economists (Mumford 1997; Tenreyro 2017).

Compared to men, women are worse off on almost every dimension considered. They are more likely to be employed at lower academic ranks, in research-only and teaching-only positions — instead of in more traditional posts that combine teaching and research — and on a fixed-term basis. Women are also especially under-represented among UK nationals at both the student and staff levels.

Moreover, progress in closing the gender gap appears to be stalling in some areas. There are also some signs of retreat among female students and minority academics. We summarise specific findings below.

ACADEMIC STAFF

- Women are substantially more likely to be employed at lower academic ranks. In 2018, women made up 33 percent of lecturers, 27 percent of senior lecturers/readers and 15 percent of professors.
- The overall growth in women's representation is upward, but has stalled since 2012, particularly among lecturers and professors; growth has been stronger among senior lecturers/readers.
- Women have been gaining ground in teaching-only and research-only positions. They have made slower progress obtaining positions with both responsibilities.
- Among economists on a standard academic contract, men are slightly more likely than women to be working part-time. This is largely because men are over-represented among part-time professors; women working part-time are more likely to be lecturers and senior lecturers/readers.

- Female academic economists disproportionately originate from outside the UK. Of the 455 female economists employed on standard academic contracts in 2018, only 125 (28 percent) were UK nationals. For comparison, of the 1,275 similarly employed male economists, 475 (37 percent) were UK nationals.

- In 2018, only 8 percent of standard academic posts in economics were held by Black and minority ethnic (BME) women. For comparison, BME men held 17 percent of all standard academic contracts.[1]

- At no point between 2012–2018 was a Black female professor of economics employed anywhere in the UK.

STUDENTS

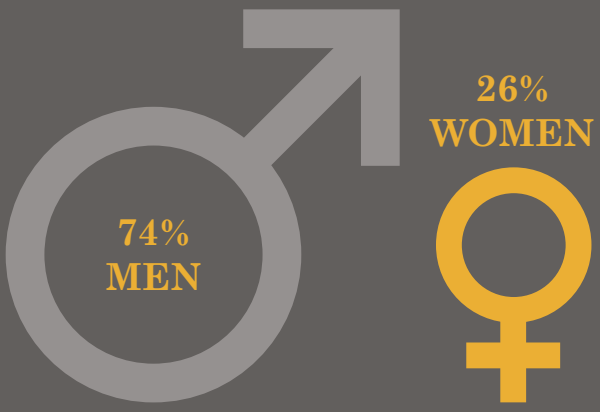
- Women are more common among postgraduate economics students — and especially among masters students — than they are among undergraduates. Women make up 32 percent of undergraduates, 52 percent of masters students and 39 percent of Ph.D. students in economics.

- The representation of women is especially poor among UK nationals, and our data suggest the gender gap in both undergraduate and taught postgraduate degrees has become worse rather than better since 2002. The proportion of UK-domiciled economics undergraduates who are women has fallen from 31 percent in 2002 to 27 percent in 2018; at the masters level, the proportion has fallen from 37 percent in 2002 to 31 percent in 2018.

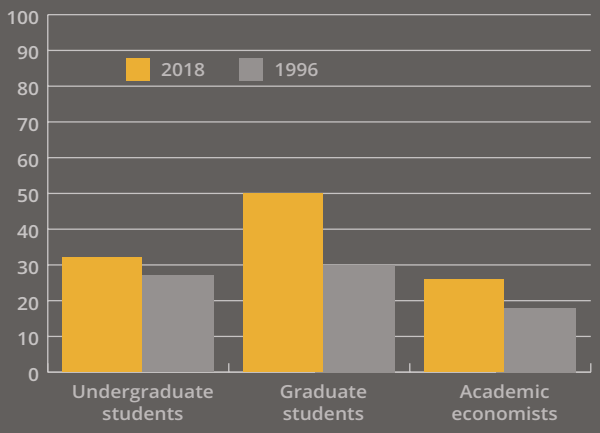
- At the undergraduate and masters levels, women are better represented among economics students from ethnic minorities than they are among white students; the reverse is true at the Ph.D. level. For undergraduates in 2018, the percentage of women is highest among Asian (31 percent) and Black students (33 percent) and lowest among white students (25 percent). Similarly, women's representation at the masters level was 5 percentage points higher among BME students than it was among non-BME students. For Ph.D. students, however, women's representation was 10 percentage points higher among non-BME students than it was among BME students.

1 The HESA data we use in this report contains a BME (or what is in fact a BAME) indicator. However, given the substantial difficulties raised when aggregating, together with the recommendations of the Sewell Report, our report disaggregates wherever possible. Sometimes, due to HESA rounding and suppression rules, that is not possible, in which case we proceed but would recommend caution. For more extensive disaggregation and discussion of ethnicity, see Advani et al (2020). For a discussion of the use of BAME in an economic context, see Sanghamitra Bandyopadhyay, "Do we need the term BAME?", economicsobservatory.com

WOMEN IN ACADEMIC ECONOMICS



In 2018/19 women represented 26% of academic economists, up from 18% in 1996



The percentage of women in academic economics compared to 1996

28%

of women on standard contracts were UK nationals in 2018 compared with 37% of men

Women comprise 33% of lecturers

27% of senior lecturers/ readers

15% of professors

8%

In 2018, 8 percent of standard academic posts in economics were held by BME women

39% of Asian ethnicity lecturers are women

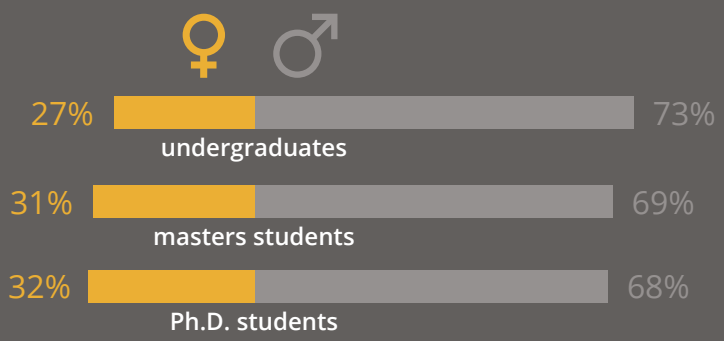
30% of White lecturers are women

17% of Black lecturers are women

0

The number of Black female professors of economics employed anywhere in the UK between 2012-2018

UK-domiciled Economics students by gender



2 Introduction

In 1971, at a meeting of the American Economic Association (founded in 1885), it was declared that economics is not a man's field. Or, more precisely, following heated debate and adaptations to the initially proposed resolution, that "economics is not exclusively a man's field" (see Cherrier 2017). Alongside the declaration, "a positive program to eliminate sex discrimination among economists" was adopted and the Committee on the Status of Women in the Economics Profession (CSWEP) was established. Similar organisations and committees emerged later elsewhere, including in the UK where the Royal Economic Society (RES) formed its own Women's Committee in 1996.[1]

The initial goal of the Women's Committee was "to promote the role of women in the UK economics profession." One of its key mandates was to report regularly on the status of women in economics. To fulfil this responsibility, the Women's Committee has, since 1997, produced bi-annual reports on the gender balance of academic economists. Until this year, these reports have largely analysed data from a RES-sponsored survey — and more recently web scraping verified by a follow-up survey — of economics departments at UK universities.

The present report continues this tradition, but departs from earlier reports in three ways. First, we now rely on data supplied by the Higher Education Statistical Agency (HESA) for the period covering 2012–2018. Similar to the RES data, HESA data provide information on the representation of women at various levels within the academic economics profession. Where possible, we also combine both datasets to illustrate how diversity in economics has evolved in the UK over the past quarter century.

Second, this report provides a detailed look at the representation of women at all levels within academic economics, from undergraduate to professor. While many previous reports have focussed on women's representation in academic jobs and among graduate students, few have considered undergraduate students.[2] The present report does. Both graduate and undergraduate students provide the pipeline that rises upward through the economics profession. By considering the representation of women amongst all students, we can better judge the extent to which the lack of diversity in economics is one of a leaky pipeline or, as Cherrier (2017) suggests, a "tiny" pipeline.

Third, using HESA data allows us to consider the intersection of gender and ethnicity in a way that (necessary) changes in RES data collection had made increasingly difficult.[3] With its intersectional coverage of gender and ethnicity, the current report acts as a complement to the recent IFS report on ethnic diversity in economics (Advani, Sen, and Warwick 2020).

Our first analysis considers the gender representation of academic economists (Section 4). In particular, we examine how well women are represented at the lecturer, senior lecturer/reader and professor levels. We also investigate differences in the types of jobs men and women perform — i.e., teaching only, research only, or both — and the extent to which men and women differ in their mode of employment (i.e., part-time vs. full-time) and contractual terms (i.e., permanent vs. fixed-term). We conclude by looking at gender breakdowns by nationality and ethnicity.

1 The first members of the Women's Committee were Denise Osborn (Chair), Tony Atkinson, Stephan Hall, David Hendry, Karen Mumford, Carol Propper, Maureen Pike and Amanda Rowlatt.

2 The exceptions are Mumford (1997), Blanco et al. (2013) and Mitka, Mumford, and Sechel (2015).

3 The only previous Women's Committee reports to consider gender and ethnicity in an intersectional sense were Mumford (2009) and Blanco and Mumford (2010). Mumford (2009, 20) notes that the shift to web-scraping — which became necessary due to a falling response rate to the more direct survey — made collecting data on ethnicity more difficult. Ethnicity was therefore dropped from the reports until now.

We next turn to students (Section 5). We first investigate women's representation at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. We then break down the fraction of female students by nationality and domicile, type of secondary education (i.e., state- or privately funded) and A-level subject. Finally, we analyse the intersection of gender and ethnicity.

This report provides a bird's eye view of the representation of women in UK academic economics. We hope it will shed more light on the causes and consequences of the lack of diversity in economics, both in the UK and elsewhere. We recognise, however, that it leaves many issues unanswered — e.g., how does economics compare to other academic disciplines, how well represented is the LGBTQI+ community in economics and are there gender differences in job separations? We hope to tackle these and other questions in future reports.

In what follows, Section 3 describes the data and Sections 4 and 5 present the associated analyses for academic staff and students, respectively. Section 6 concludes.

> "While many previous reports have focussed on women's representation in academic jobs and among graduate students, few have considered undergraduate students. The present report does"

3 Data

3.1 Royal Economic Society Women's Committee survey

One of the central roles of the newly founded Royal Economic Society Women's Committee in 1996 was to monitor the position of female economists within the UK. Given the shortage of data available at the time, the Chair of the Women's Committee, Denise Osborn, contacted members of the Conferences of Heads of University Departments of Economics (CHUDE) in December 1996 asking them to complete a questionnaire (Mumford 1997). This initial questionnaire requested information on gender balance; later, individual-level data was collected on rank, gender and ethnicity, with leavers, new hires and promotions being tracked over time, enabling a more sophisticated analysis of changes in the stock of academic economists.[4] In 2012, the research interests of individuals were also included, and in 2014 information on REF submissions was collected.[5] An independent RES survey was conducted in 1998 on the ethnic composition of academic economists (Blackaby and Frank 2000) which was merged with the Women's Committee survey from the year 2000, resulting in a combined "Gender and Ethnic Balance questionnaire" that lasted until 2012.[6]

Between 1996–2016, the Women's Committee conducted its data collection exercise at least bi-annually. In 2006, the Committee additionally scraped information directly from the websites of a sub-sample of non-responding departments; in 2008, it began collecting information in this way from all departments. Survey data and website data were separately analysed and it was found that the data scraped from departmental websites tended to include more senior, non-paid staff, e.g., Emeritus, Honorary and Visiting staff members (Mumford 2009).[7] In 2012, it was decided that the Committee would first scrape data from every department's website and then ask each one to verify the result (Blanco et al. 2013).

Over time, several factors have made conducting the survey and constructing a balanced panel non-trivial work. First, departments changed in nature. Some merged, others disappeared, and a few renamed themselves. Indeed, the proportion of departments included in the bi-annual surveys that referred to themselves as "Economics" departments changed dramatically. Burton and Joshi (2002) noted a substantial fall in the number of "Departments of Economics" and an associated rise in the number of "Business and Management Departments/Centres."[8] Second, response rates fell quite significantly. Although the 1996 survey enjoyed the very high response rate of 92 percent (Mumford 1997), several subsequent surveys met with less success: the 2016 response rate was only 57 percent (Tenreyro 2017) and the 2018 response rate

4 Graduate students were initially included in the data collected by the Women's Committee but were excluded from 2006 due to falling response rates. The 2013 and 2015 reports analysed gender representation among students using data provided by HESA.

5 The report found that "women were considerably less likely to be submitted, 50 percent of the male academic economists in CHUDE departments were submitted and 38 percent of the females" (Mitka, Mumford, and Sechel 2015, 3). It concluded "the substantial difference in REF submission rates across the genders, especially prevalent amongst Lecturers, is an obvious area of concern not least because of the potential long-term career implications for those left out of the REF. This is an issue the Women's Committee will be further investigating" (p. 39).

6 Initially, ethnicity and gender were considered separately in the associated Women's Committee reports. Mumford (2009) was the first to consider the intersection of the two, as did Blanco and Mumford (2010). However, ethnicity was dropped in 2012 due to a shift in data collection towards web-based data scraping. The HESA data has enabled us to reintroduce ethnicity in an intersectional way.

7 As a result, the newly expanded dataset suggested that men were even more over-represented in departments than previous reports had indicated.

8 According to Burton and Joshi (2002), in 2000, two-thirds of the departments in the survey identified themselves as "Departments of Economics," roughly 30 percent referred to themselves as "Business Schools" and the remainder called themselves "Management Centres." By 2004, these figures changed to 34 percent, 49 percent and 17 percent, respectively.

was merely 24 percent.[9] One report inferred that "many departments give the impression of being uninterested in the exercise" (Georgiadis and Manning 2007, 2). Finally, GDPR compliance made it more difficult for departments to report on the composition of their staff and establishing gender and ethnicity from web-scraped data required considerable manual effort.

For these reasons, the Women's Committee decided not to conduct their own data collection for this latest report and opted to analyse HESA data instead. As described in Section 3.2, our HESA data cover the 2012/13–2018/19 academic years. Importantly, this period overlaps substantially with the RES data, allowing us to assess the suitability of the HESA data by comparing its results to those obtained from data collected by the RES.

3.2 HESA data

The HESA data we use are on staff and students at higher education institutes in the UK between 2012–2018.[10] HESA staff data are reported by universities and cover all individuals on a contract of employment with a publicly funded higher education provider (plus the University of Buckingham) in the UK during a given academic year (1 August to 31 July).

For the purposes of this report, we restrict staff data to include only academic staff members who engage in teaching and/or research activities in the field of economics. To identify economists, we select staff members employed by an economics department or business school and whose primary or secondary academic discipline is economics. To ensure they are engaged in academic teaching and/or research activities, we additionally exclude people not on academic contracts or on atypical contracts as well as staff with an unknown academic rank, classified as professional or administrative staff and routine or simple task providers. Since our primary aim is to analyse gender differences in career academic economists, we additionally exclude teaching and research assistants unless otherwise mentioned.

The HESA data we use stratify staff numbers in terms of full-time equivalents (FTE), where FTE indicates the proportion of a full-time year being undertaken within a given stratification. In total, we have 17,575 FTE observations — 4,855 FTE women and 12,725 FTE men — roughly equally distributed across the seven academic years between 2012–2018.

HESA data for students include information on all students enrolled in a course with a level of instruction above three according to Ofqual's Qualifications and Credit Framework (or an earlier equivalent). Before 2016/17, data only covered publicly funded higher education institutes in the UK (plus the University of Buckingham); from 2016/17, further education colleges with higher education provision in Wales were included; the data for the 2018/19 academic year include all registered providers of higher education in the UK.

We restrict our data on students to men and women enrolled full-time on a standard economics degree programme. As a result, we exclude part-time and other non-full-time students (12,280 individuals) and those on non-first-degree undergraduate programmes (220 individuals) or non-Masters/Ph.D. postgraduate programmes (970 individuals). Given the purpose of this report is to analyse the representation of women in economics, we also exclude the very small number of students who do not declare their gender as either male or female (60 individuals).

HESA student data break down student counts in terms of "instance," where instance refers to a particular student-course combination.[11] In total, we have 279,775 student instances roughly equally distributed over the 2012–2018 time period. 179,380 of these instances are male; 100,390 of them are female.

9 The response rate has not always been low. For example, it was 84 percent in 2014.

10 Throughout this report, 2012 refers to the 2012/13 academic year, 2013 to the 2013/14 academic year, *etc.*

11 Since students can take multiple courses, a single student may correspond to more than one instance in the data. Moreover, universities can report up to three subject descriptors for each course with the proportion of time the course allocates to the subject. For example, students enrolled on a BSc programme that devotes equal time to philosophy and economics would appear as two instances in the HESA data, each weighted by 0.5.

Published research using HESA data must comply with its rounding and suppression strategy. To adhere to this strategy, all counts of people in this report are rounded to the nearest multiple of five and percentages are suppressed if they are based on fewer than 22.5 individuals. Because these rules are applied post-calculation (e.g., after summing FTEs), numbers may not always perfectly add up (e.g., the counts of male and female students may not precisely sum to the total number of students in a category). Further details of HESA's rounding and suppression strategy can be found on its website.

Ethnicity data for both staff and students are voluntarily self-reported according to the coding framework recommended by the Office for National Statistics. The raw data we analyse break ethnicity down into eight specific categories. To comply with HESA's rounding and suppression strategy, we further categorise the ethnicity of academic staff as follows: "white" aggregates individuals from any white ethnic background; "Black" aggregates individuals from a Black Caribbean, Black African or other Black background; and "Asia" aggregates individuals from an Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese and other Asian background. When reporting data on students, we disaggregate "Asia" into two additional categories: "South Asia" (Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi background) and "Other Asia" (Chinese and other Asian background).

Please refer to Appendix B and HESA's website for further information on data definitions.

> "Using HESA data allows us to consider the intersection of gender and ethnicity in a way that (necessary) changes in RES data collection had made increasingly difficult"

4 Academic staff

Table 1: UK academic economists in 2018, by academic rank

					Dist. across rank	
Academic rank	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**% female**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
Lecturer (A)	85	60	145	40	7	13
Lecturer (B)	420	185	610	31	33	41
Reader/SL	365	135	505	27	29	30
Professor	400	75	475	15	31	16
Total	**1,275**	**455**	**1,725**	**26**	**100**	**100**

Note: Table displays information on economists employed on a standard academic contract (i.e., full-time, permanent with both teaching and research responsibilities) by a UK institute of higher education during the 2018–19 academic year. First three columns show raw FTE counts; the fourth column displays the representation of women in each rank as a percentage of the total; the fifth (sixth) column shows the distribution of men (women) by rank as a percentage of all men (women). Data from HESA.

4.1 Academic rank

Women are substantially more likely to be employed at lower academic ranks. The first three columns in Table 1 report the numbers of economists employed in 2018 on a "standard" academic contract — i.e., full-time, permanent contract with both teaching and research responsibilities — at a UK institute of higher education. In aggregate, 1,725 economists satisfy these employment conditions, 455 of whom are women (26 percent). Women make up 33 percent of lecturers (A and B combined), 27 percent of senior lecturers/readers and 15 percent of professors.[12]

Table 1's final two columns display each gender's distribution across academic rank. Among all female economists employed on a standard academic contract, more than one in two are lecturers (13 percent Lecturer A and 41 percent Lecturer B), a little under one in three is a senior lecturer/reader (30 percent) and a little over one in seven is a professor (16 percent). The picture is remarkably different for men: out of every three men, roughly one is a professor (31 percent), one is a senior lecturer/reader (29 percent) and one is a lecturer (B) (33 percent). Only a small percentage of male academic economists are on lecturer A contracts (7 percent).

The overall growth in women's representation in economics is upward, but seems to have stalled since 2012, particularly among lecturers and professors. Figure 4.1's top graph plots the percentage of women employed in lecturer B positions (red), as senior lecturers/readers (green) and as professors (blue); dashed and solid lines represent RES survey data and HESA data, respectively.[13] In 1996, approximately 3 percent of professors, 9 percent of senior lecturers/readers and 16 percent of lecturers were female. By 2018, these shares had increased to 15, 27 and 31 percent, respectively. For lecturers and professors, however, much of this growth occurred before 2012 according to the HESA data; after that, the percentage of women in each role increased only 1.6 and 2.0 percentage points, respectively. Women's

12 Lecturer A positions correspond to grade 7 and lecturer B positions to grade 8 on the higher education pay framework agreement. Unless otherwise mentioned, "lecturer" combines both categories.

13 To ensure RES survey and HESA samples are as similar as possible, we omit lecturer A positions (see Footnote 12) from the HESA data and include only lecturers with permanent positions from the RES survey data.

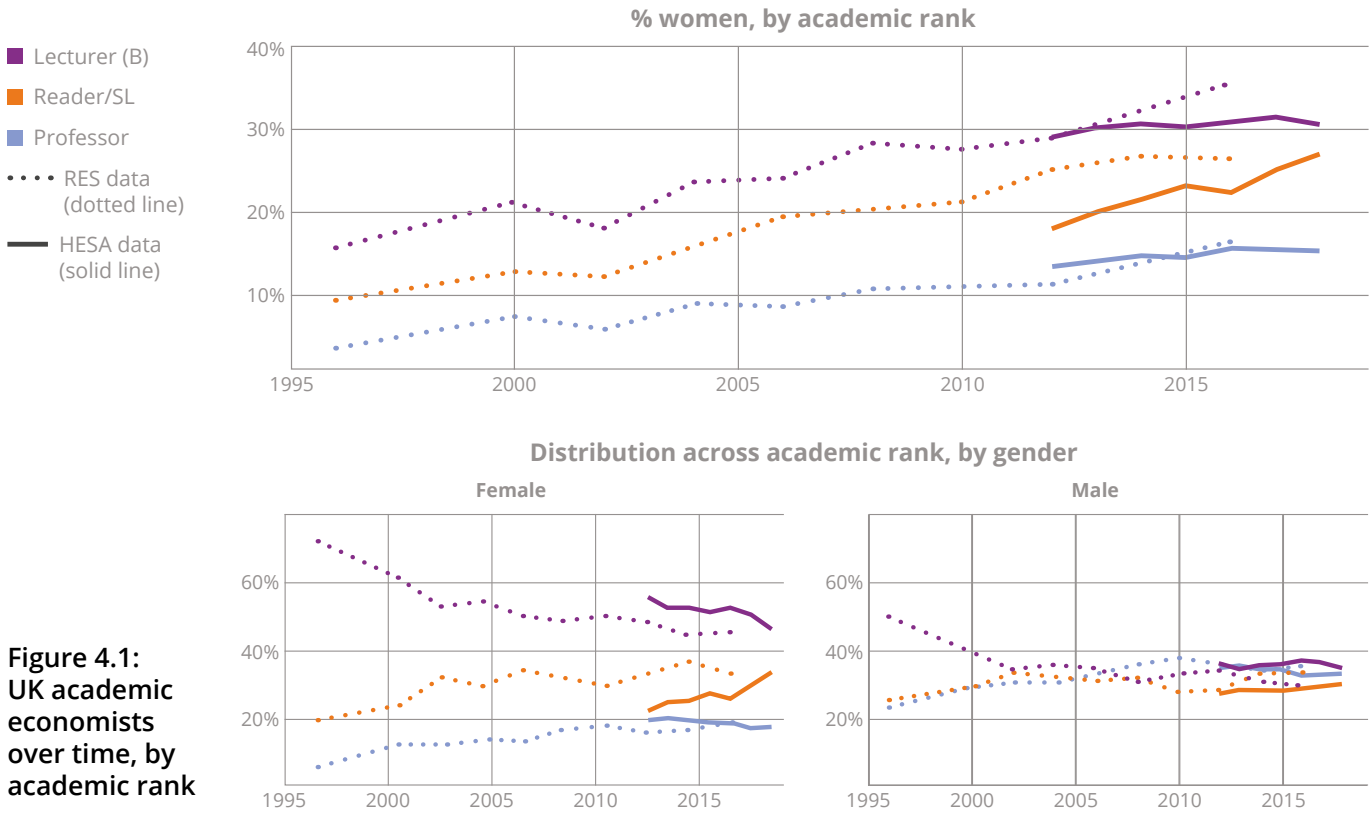


Figure 4.1: UK academic economists over time, by academic rank

Figure 4.1: The top figure plots the percentage of people employed as lecturers (B lecturers, only), senior lecturers/readers and professors who are women. Bottom graphs plot the fraction of all female economists (left) and all male economists (right) employed in each academic rank. Dashed lines represent RES data; solid lines are based on HESA data. Data restricted to standard academic contracts, defined as being full-time, permanent contracts with responsibilities for both teaching and research. Data from HESA and RES.

representation among senior lecturers/readers grew much more (9 percentage points).

Temporal changes in the fraction of all men and all women at each academic rank are shown in the bottom two graphs of Figure 4.1.[14] In 1996, roughly one in every two male academics was a lecturer, one in four was a senior lecturer/reader and another one in four was a professor. As already discussed, these proportions had changed dramatically by 2018: men were about equally represented in all three categories. The 1996 position for women was vastly different — almost three quarters of female staff members were lecturers and only 1 in sixteen was a professor. And while these gaps have closed substantially, female economists in UK academia are still far more likely to be lecturers than they are to be senior lecturers/readers and, especially, professors.

Figure 4.1 allows us to compare HESA data with the RES survey data collected between 1996–2016. In all three graphs, HESA data for professors tracks the RES survey data fairly closely during the overlapping period (2012–2016). But compared to the RES survey, HESA under-estimates the fraction of women among senior lecturers/readers as well as the fraction of senior lecturers/readers among all women and over-estimates the fraction of lecturers among women. These differences, however, are relatively minor; both data sources suggest similar conclusions about the representation of female economists in UK academia.[15]

14 Each graph in the second row of Figure 4.1 displays the percentage of academic economists employed by rank in a particular year for the given gender; thus, conditional on year and gender, the percentages for each rank sum to 100.

15 These discrepancies are caused by small variations in the institutions covered by each dataset as well as differences in how they categorised posts.

Figure 4.2: UK academic economists, by academic employment function

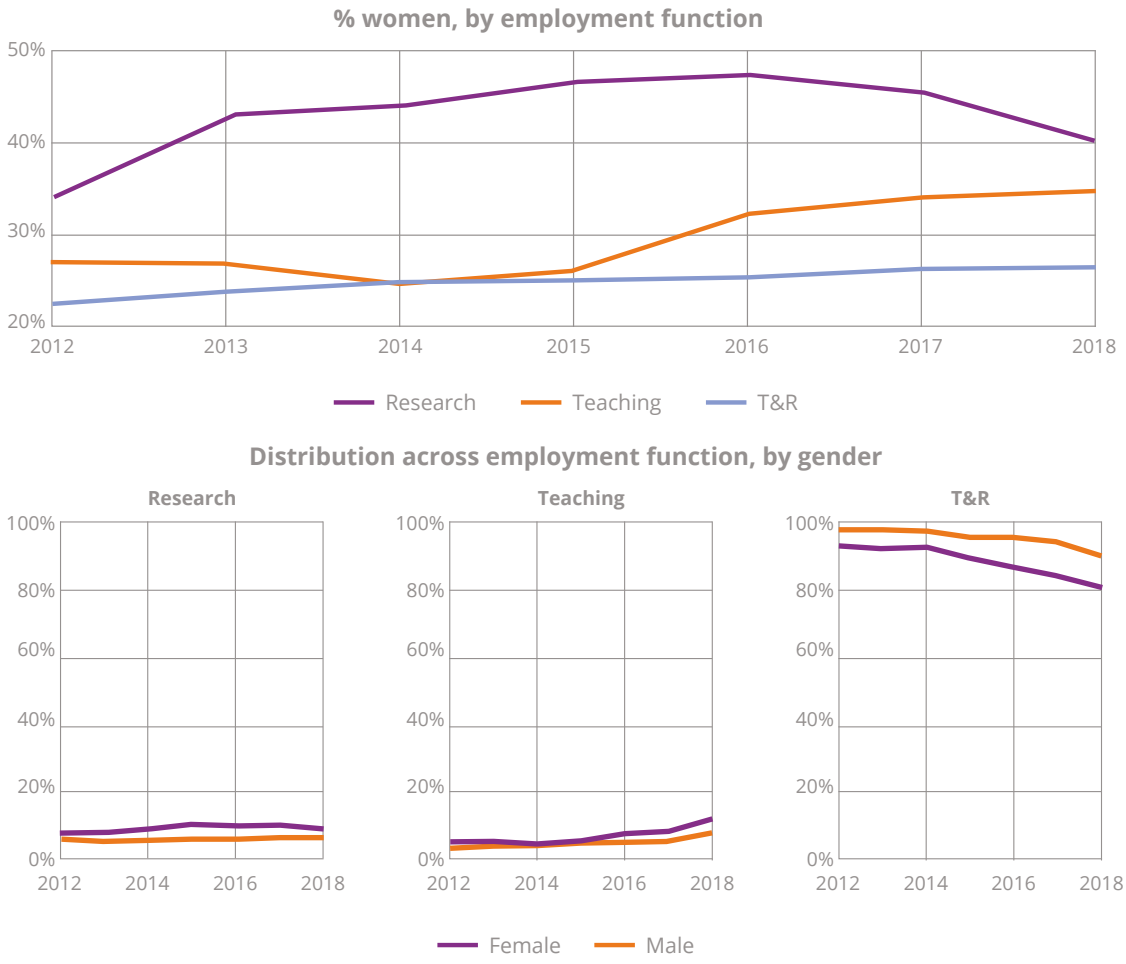


Figure 4.2: The top graph plots the percentage of people employed in teaching-only, research-only and teaching and research (T&R) positions that are women. The lower graphs plot the percentages of all female economists and all male economists across employment function. Data restricted to full-time, permanent contracts held by lecturers, senior lecturers/readers and professors. Data from HESA.

4.2 Academic employment function

When we break down data by academic employment function, we find that women have been gaining ground in teaching-only and research-only positions, but have made slower progress obtaining more traditional positions with both responsibilities (Figure 4.2, upper graph).[16] Between 2012–2018, the representation of women among academic economists employed as lecturers, senior lecturers/readers or professors on a permanant, full-time basis with only teaching or research responsibilities increased 6.3 and 6.4 percentage points, respectively; the corresponding figure for teaching and research (T&R) positions was just 4 percentage points.[17]

Women are consistently over-represented in teaching- and research-only positions and under-represented in the vast majority of positions which have both responsibilities (Figure 4.2, lower graphs). The share of women among T&R staff is consistently lower than the corresponding share for men — in 2018, 81 percent and 87 percent, respectively, for a difference of 6 percentage points. Worryingly, this gap has actually *widened* over time. (In 2012, it was only 3 percentage points.) Meanwhile, the propor-

16 Teaching-only positions make-up 3 percent of people working in economics academia on a full-time permanent contract; research-only positions make up a further 12 percent. The remaining 85 percent have responsibilities for both teaching and research.

17 Teaching- and research-only appointments are rarely made at the senior level; the vast majority of senior staff have responsibilities for both teaching and research. Since teaching-only posts are relatively new, however, this may change, going forward.

Figure 4.3: UK academic economists working part-time, by academic rank and employment function

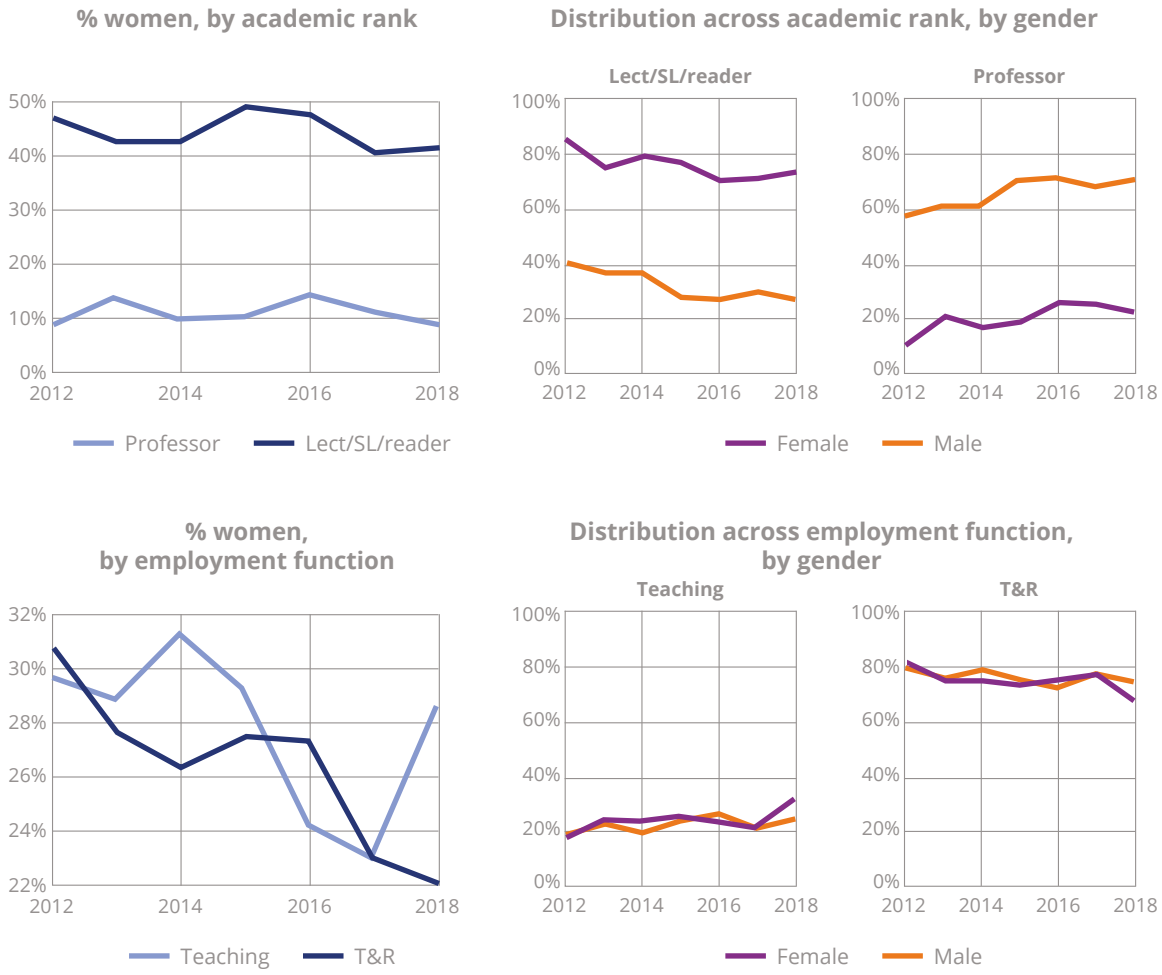


Figure 4.3: Top left-hand graph plots the percentage of part-time academics who are women, broken down by academic rank; the top right-hand graph plots the fraction of all part-time female and male economists across academic rank. Bottom left-hand graph plots the percentage of part-time academics who are women, broken down by academic employment function; the bottom right-hand graph plots the fraction of all part-time female and all male economists across academic employment function. Data restricted to lecturers, senior lecturers/readers and professors on permanent contracts; top two graphs additionally restricted to T&R positions. Data from HESA.

tion of all women in teaching only positions (15 percent) is greater than the proportion of all men in those same positions (11 percent), meaning a greater fraction of female academic economists are employed on teaching-only contracts compared to men. Again, this gap has been increasing (in magnitude) over time: in 2012, teaching-only appointments were 2 percentage points more common among women; by 2018, that difference had increased to 4 percentage points. Women are also slightly over-represented among research-only positions, but the gap between genders has remained relatively constant over time.

As expected, women make up a greater fraction of all three employment functions at lower academic ranks. Since the percentage of women in T&R positions is described in Section 4.1, we focus on teaching-only and research-only positions here. In 2018, women constituted 39 percent of teaching-only lecturer positions and 24 percent of teaching-only senior lecturers/readers and professors. Among research-only contracts, women made up 38 percent of lecturer positions. (The numbers of senior lecturers, readers and professors on research contracts is negligible.)

4.3 Part-time employment

Among economists employed on a permanent academic contract with responsibilities for both teaching and research, men in 2018 were slightly more likely than women to be working part-time (5 vs. 4 percent,

respectively). In 2012, the reverse was true: 4 percent of men were working part-time whereas 6 percent of women were. Perhaps even more surprising is how small the number of women in this category actually is and how constant it has remained over time (about 20 women each year between 2012–2018).[18]

The percentage of women in part-time employment is declining in academic rank (top left-hand graph in Figure 4.3). In 2018, 41 percent of lecturers, senior lecturers and readers employed on a part-time basis were women; only 9 percent of part-time professors were. These figures have remained roughly stable over time.

The top right-hand graph in Figure 4.3 shows the distribution across rank of female and male part-time economists. Relative to women, men are consistently over-represented among part-time professors and under-represented among part-time lecturers, senior lecturers and readers. In 2018, men on a part-time contract were least likely to be lecturers, senior lecturers or readers (30 percent); the vast majority were professors (70 percent). Part-time women, on the other hand, were most likely to be lecturers, senior lecturers or readers (75 percent); only 25 percent were professors. These patterns have not significantly changed since 2012.

Figure 4.3's bottom left-hand graph shows the percentage of part-time economists that are female by academic employment function. This figure hovers between 20 and 30 percent for both teaching-only and T&R positions.[19] The right-hand graph plots the distribution across employment function; it suggests men and women are similarly distributed across teaching-only and T&R positions, conditional on working part-time. Again, these patterns have not changed substantially since 2012.

4.4 Temporary employment

Since 2012, there has been a slight decrease in the number and percentage of academic economists (including teaching and research assistants) employed full-time on a fixed-term contract with responsibilities for both teaching and research: in 2012, 75 economists held these jobs, or 5 percent of full-time T&R staff; by 2018, both figures had fallen to 55 and 3 percent, respectively. But the number of staff members on temporary contracts actually rises when teaching-only, research-only and part-time staff are included — from 420 in 2012 to 485 in 2018. As a percentage of all academic contracts, however, the use of fixed-term contracts has fallen slightly — from 19 percent of all economics staff in 2012 to 18 percent in 2018.

It appears temporary contracts are used in different ways depending on academic rank. Over the 2012–2018 period, the majority (52 percent) of professors on temporary contracts were employed in part-time T&R positions. In contrast, fixed-term lecturers and teaching and research assistants were predominantly employed in full-time research-only positions (35 percent) and part-time teaching-only positions (31 percent). Hardly any senior lecturers and readers are employed on a fixed-term basis (2 percent in 2018).

The fraction of female economists employed in fixed-term posts exceeds their share among permanent positions. In 2018, women constituted 33 percent of staff (including teaching and research assistants) on fixed-term, full-time T&R contracts; their corresponding share among permanent academic staff was only 26 percent.

According to the upper graph in Figure 4.4, the percentage of temporary contracts held by women is highest for teaching/research assistants and lecturers (in 2018, 32 and 41 percent, respectively) and lowest for senior lecturers/readers/professors (4 percent). Figure 4.4's lower graph plots the distribution of women on fixed-term contracts across academic rank. Compared to men, women

18 As the very first Women's Committee report noted: "Part-time employment has become increasingly prevalent throughout the UK labour market and is typically considered to be more popular amongst female employees. In 1994, 28% of all employees in the UK were engaged in part-time employment (DFEE, 1977; 20) and women held 80.6 percent of these jobs (DFEE, 1977; 10). UK academia does not appear to follow this pattern, rather 15.7% of academic economists work part-time and only 26.6% of these jobs are held by women." (Mumford 1997, 8–9). In 1996, there were only 11 permanent and 17 fixed-term part-time female academic economists on standard academic contracts in the UK. As our findings show, part-time employment remains rare in academic economics and is largely male.

19 The numbers of men and women in part-time research-only positions is negligible and has therefore been omitted.

Figure 4.4: UK academic economists on a fixed-term contract, by academic rank

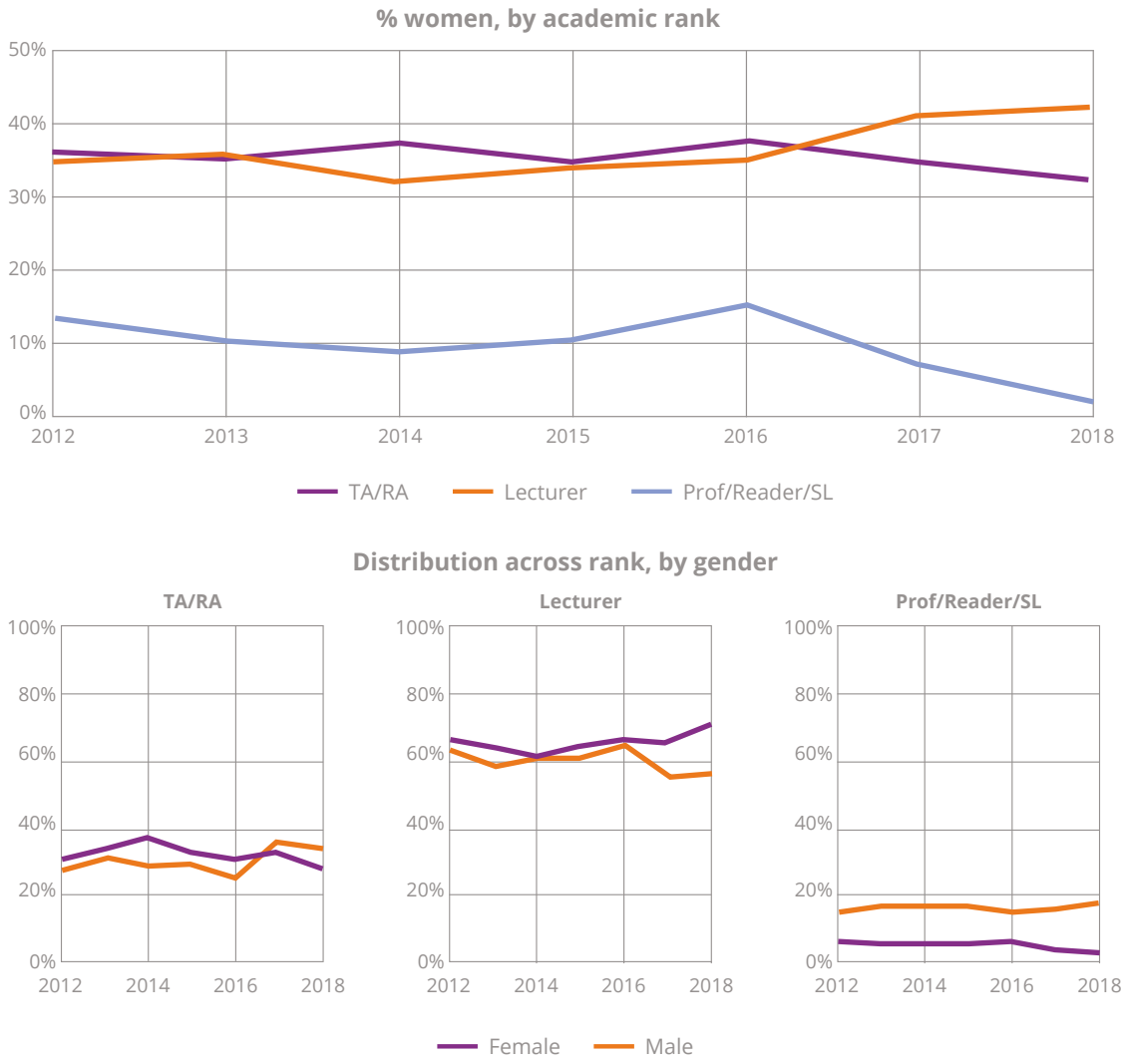


Figure 4.4: The top graph plots the percentage of academics on a fixed-term contract who are women, broken down by academic rank; the lower graph plots the percentage of all women and all men on fixed-term contracts across rank. Data restricted to academic economists (including teaching/research assistants) working full- or part-time in any employment function. Data from HESA.

are over-represented among lecturers and under-represented among senior lecturers/readers/professors, conditional on being on a temporary contract. In 2012, women on a fixed term contract were slightly more likely than men to work as teaching and research assistants; by 2018, the reverse was true.

In general, the fraction of people on temporary contracts who are women is highest for teaching- and research-only positions and lowest for positions with both responsibilities (see Figure C.1 in Appendix C). Men's and women's distributions across employment function is roughly similar although men on temporary contracts are slightly more likely to be in T&R and teaching-only positions whereas women are somewhat more likely to be in research-only positions: in 2018, 48 percent of women and 42 percent of men employed on a temporary basis held research-only positions, 41 and 43 percent were employed in teaching-only positions and 11 and 16 percent held positions with both responsibilities.

Conditional on holding a fixed-term contract, women disproportionately work full-time. In 2018, women held 38 percent of full-time fixed-term contracts but only 31 percent of part-time fixed-term contracts. Among academic staff on a fixed-term contract, 72 percent of women work full-time compared to 65 percent of men (Figure C.1, Appendix C).

Figure 4.5: UK academic economists, by nationality

Figure 4.5: The upper graphs plot the female percentage by nationality and academic employment function; the lower graphs plot the female percentage by nationality and academic rank. Data restricted to lecturers, senior lecturers/readers and professors on permanent, full-time contracts; lower graphs include only academics with responsibilities for both teaching and research. Data from HESA.

4.5 Nationality

Almost three-quarters of female economists employed in the UK higher education system are originally from a country outside the UK. Of the 455 female economists employed in 2018 as a lecturer, senior lecturer/reader or professor on a full-time, permanent T&R contract, only 125 were from the UK (28 percent). For comparison, of the 1,275 male economists employed in 2018 on a standard academic contract, 475 were UK nationals (37 percent).

The upper graph in Figure 4.5 plots the percentage of women by nationality and academic employment function. Women from all nationalities are best represented in research- and teaching-only positions and more under-represented in T&R positions. In general, the representation of women is lowest among UK academics regardless of employment function. Conditional on holding a T&R post, there are more women among non-UK/EU academic staff members (30 percent); close behind them are EU/EEA staff members (28 percent). Women only make up 21 percent of UK academic economists in T&R positions.

Figure 4.5's lower graphs plot the percentage of women in UK academia by nationality and rank. For lecturers, women's representation is highest among non-UK staff members (in 2018, 37 and 34 percent for non-UK/EU and EU/EEA staff mem-

Figure 4.6: UK academic economists, by ethnicity

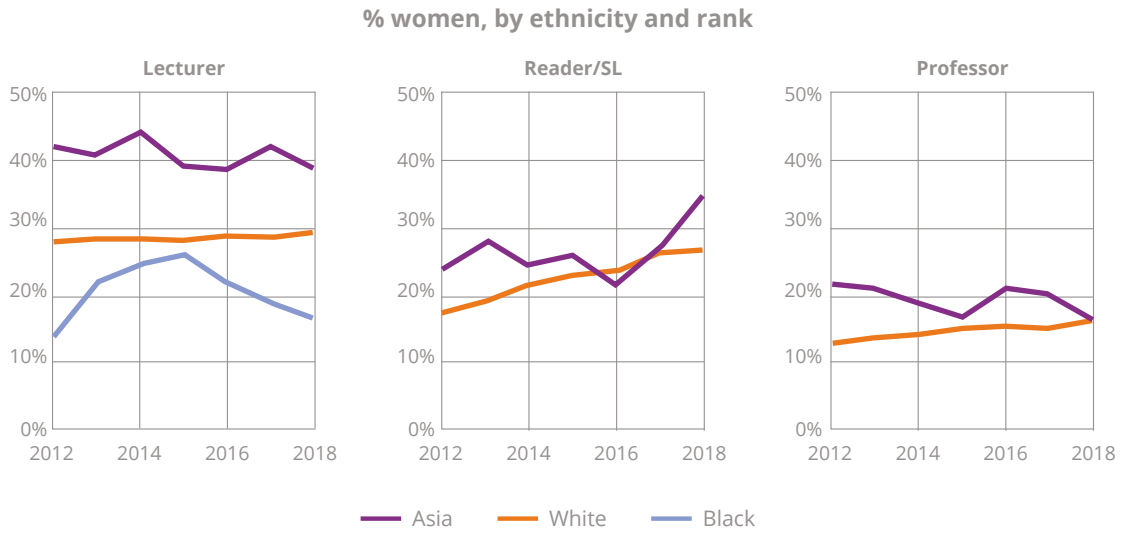


Figure 4.6: Figures plot the percentage of people employed as academic economists in the UK who are women by academic rank and ethnicity. Data restricted to permanent, full-time, T&R contracts at the level of lecturer or above. Due to HESA's rounding and suppression strategy, we are unable to plot the percentage of women among Black senior lecturers/readers (the number of female black professors of economics is zero); for similar reasons (and for readability), we also omit individuals whose ethnicity is classified as other or mixed. See Section 3.2 or Appendix B for further information on how ethnicity is categorised. Data from HESA.

bers, respectively) and lowest among staff members from the UK (24 percent). For non-UK academic staff, the percentage of women falls quite a bit at the level of senior lecturer/reader (26.7 and 26.9 percent for non-UK/EU and EU/EEA staff members, respectively); for UK staff, however, women's representation among senior lecturers/readers (28 percent) is slightly higher than their representation among lecturers (24 percent). At the professorial level, the share of women drops regardless of nationality (14, 19 and 11 percent for UK, EU/EEA and Non-UK/EU staff members, respectively).

4.6 Ethnicity

In 2018, 8 percent of standard academic posts in economics were held by Black and minority ethnic (BME) women. This figure is only 2 percentage points higher than it was in 2012. For comparison, BME men constituted 17 percent of all standard academic contracts in 2018, a 3 percentage point increase from 2012.

Figure 4.6 displays the percentage of female economists employed on a standard academic contract by ethnicity and academic rank.[20] Women's representation is highest among Asian individuals: in 2018, there were 155 Asian lecturers, 39 percent of whom were women. Among the 490 white lecturers, 30 percent were women. Of the roughly 25 Black lecturers in economics, however, no more than 5 (17 percent) were women.[21]

Among Asian ethnicity economists, the percentage of women declines as academic rank increases: in 2018, there were 85 Asian senior lecturers/readers and 50 professors, 35 and 16 percent of whom were women, respectively; among whites, however, the decline is only apparent at the professorial level: the percentage of female senior lecturers/readers is similar to that of lecturers (27 and 30 percent in 2018, respectively); the share of female professors is much lower (16 percent). Worryingly, the percentage of Asian professors who

20 See Section 3.2 or Appendix B for further information on how ethnicity was categorised; due to relatively small numbers and to enhance readability, individuals whose ethnicity is classified as other or mixed are not included.

21 These results are consistent with Blanco and Mumford (2010), who found that in 2010, women made up 41 percent of academic economists in the UK with a Chinese background and 30 percent with a South East Asian background. Moreover, of the 121 permanently employed female economics lecturers in their data, only one was Black.

are women declined 6 percentage points — from 22 percent to 16 percent — between 2012–2018. The decline was especially stark among economists from an Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi background.

In 2018, there were no more than 10 Black senior lecturers/readers in economics employed on a standard academic contract, very few of whom were women.[22] **At no point between 2012–2018 was a Black female professor of economics employed anywhere in the UK** according to the HESA data.[23]

Most BME academic economists employed full-time in a permanent post have responsibilities for both teaching and research (130 individuals in 2018). A much smaller number (25) were in teaching-only positions. Hardly any BME academic economists hold research-only positions.

> “In 1996, approximately 3 percent of professors, 9 percent of senior lecturers/readers and 16 percent of lecturers were female. By 2018, these shares had increased to 15, 27 and 31 percent, respectively. For lecturers and professors, however, much of this growth occurred before 2012...”

22 HESA’s rounding and suppression strategy prevents us from showing the percentage of women among Black senior lecturers/readers in Figure 4.6.

23 This was similarly found to be the case in Blanco and Mumford (2010). Note that the data include only those individuals who are based in economics departments or business schools and whose primary and/or secondary research interest is economics as defined by HESA’s own subject coding (which distinguishes economics/econometrics from, for example, business and management or social policy).

5 Students

Table 2: UK economics students in 2018, by level of study

					Dist. across level	
Level of study	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**% female**	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**
First degree	25,315	12,000	37,310	32	87	77
Masters	3,000	3,220	6,220	52	10	21
Doctorate	655	410	1,070	39	2	3
Total	**28,970**	**15,630**	**44,600**	**35**	**100**	**100**

Note: Table displays information on full-time male and female students studying economics on a standard degree programme during the 2018–19 academic year at a UK institute of higher education. First three columns show raw numbers; the fourth column displays the representation of women in each level as a percentage of the total; the fifth (sixth) column shows the distribution of men (women) across level. Data from HESA.

5.1 Level of study

In economics, women are more common among taught post-graduate students than they are among undergraduate or Ph.D. students. Table 2 breaks down the number of full-time students studying economics in a British institute of higher education during the 2018–19 academic year. Total student numbers were 44,600; of them, 15,630 were women (35 percent). Women make up 32 percent of undergraduate, 52 percent of masters and 39 percent of Ph.D. students in economics. Table 2's final two columns reinforce this conclusion. They display each gender's distribution across level of study. Compared to women, men disproportionately study economics at the undergraduate level; women disproportionately study it at the masters level. Similar proportions of male and female economics students are working toward a Ph.D.

Overall growth in women's representation among economics students is flat. Nor has there been any recent change to men's and women's distribution across level of study. At no level has there been a substantial increase (or decrease) in the percentage of women studying economics between 2012–2018 (Figure 5.1, upper graph). The lower graph in Figure 5.1 displays the fraction of all men and all women by level of study. Men are consistently over-represented among undergraduate students of economics; women are consistently over-represented among masters students.

5.2 Domicile/nationality

The representation of women is especially poor among UK residents. Figure 5.2's upper graph plots the percentage of women studying economics full-time at a UK institute of higher education by domicile.[24] Between 2012–2018, women have consistently made up at least half of all non-UK/EU students and about 40 percent of all EU students. For the UK, however, women represented only 27 percent of economics students in 2018; if anything, this figure has slightly declined since 2012, when it was 28 percent. Conclusions are similar when considering students' nationality instead of domicile (see Figure D.1, Appendix D).

British women are absent from economics at every level of study. Figure 5.2's lower graph plots the percentage of women by study level and domicile. Among economics students domiciled in the UK in 2018,

24 Domicile refers to the location of a student's permanent home address prior to starting study.

Figure 5.1: UK economics students, by level of study

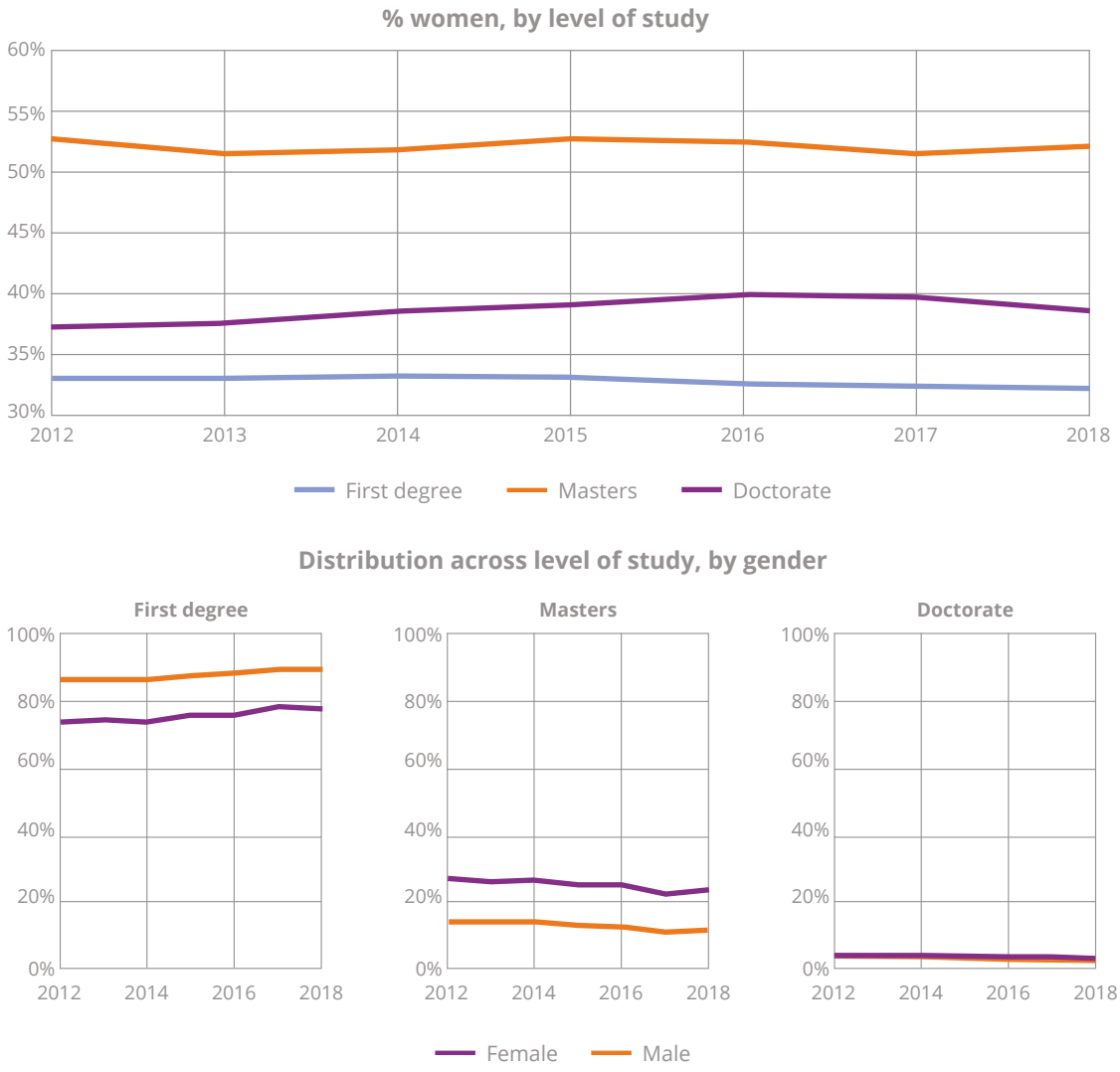


Figure 5.1: Top graph plots the percentage of students in economics who are female by level of study; the lower graph displays the fraction of all female and all male economics students across level of study. Data are for full-time male and female students studying on a standard degree programme. Data from HESA.

women represented 27 percent of undergraduates, 31 percent of masters students and 32 percent of Ph.D. students. These figures can be compared with those from previous reports. In 2002, 31 percent of UK-domiciled economics undergraduates were female, falling to 28 percent by 2012 (Mitka, Mumford, and Sechel 2015). Our data reveal no improvement since that time. In terms of the proportion of British women at graduate level, just under 37 percent of masters students were women in 2002, falling to less than 32 percent by 2011 (Blanco et al. 2013). As with undergraduates, the data suggest no improvement since then. If anything, the gender gap at both the undergraduate and taught postgraduate degree level has been getting worse rather than better since 2002. There has, however, been a small improvement at the doctoral level: 28 percent of UK-domiciled economics students were women in 2002; that figure rose to 33 percent by 2011 (Blanco et al. 2013) and has remained fairly steady since. (It was 32 percent in 2018.)

Women's representation is higher among EU-domiciled students, but similarly stable across undergraduates and masters students — in 2018, 41 percent of EU undergraduates and 39 percent of EU masters students were women — before falling among Ph.D. students (30 percent). Between 2012–2018, the share of women among EU Ph.D. students declined 11 percentage points. Again, conclusions are similar when

Figure 5.2: UK economics students, by domicile

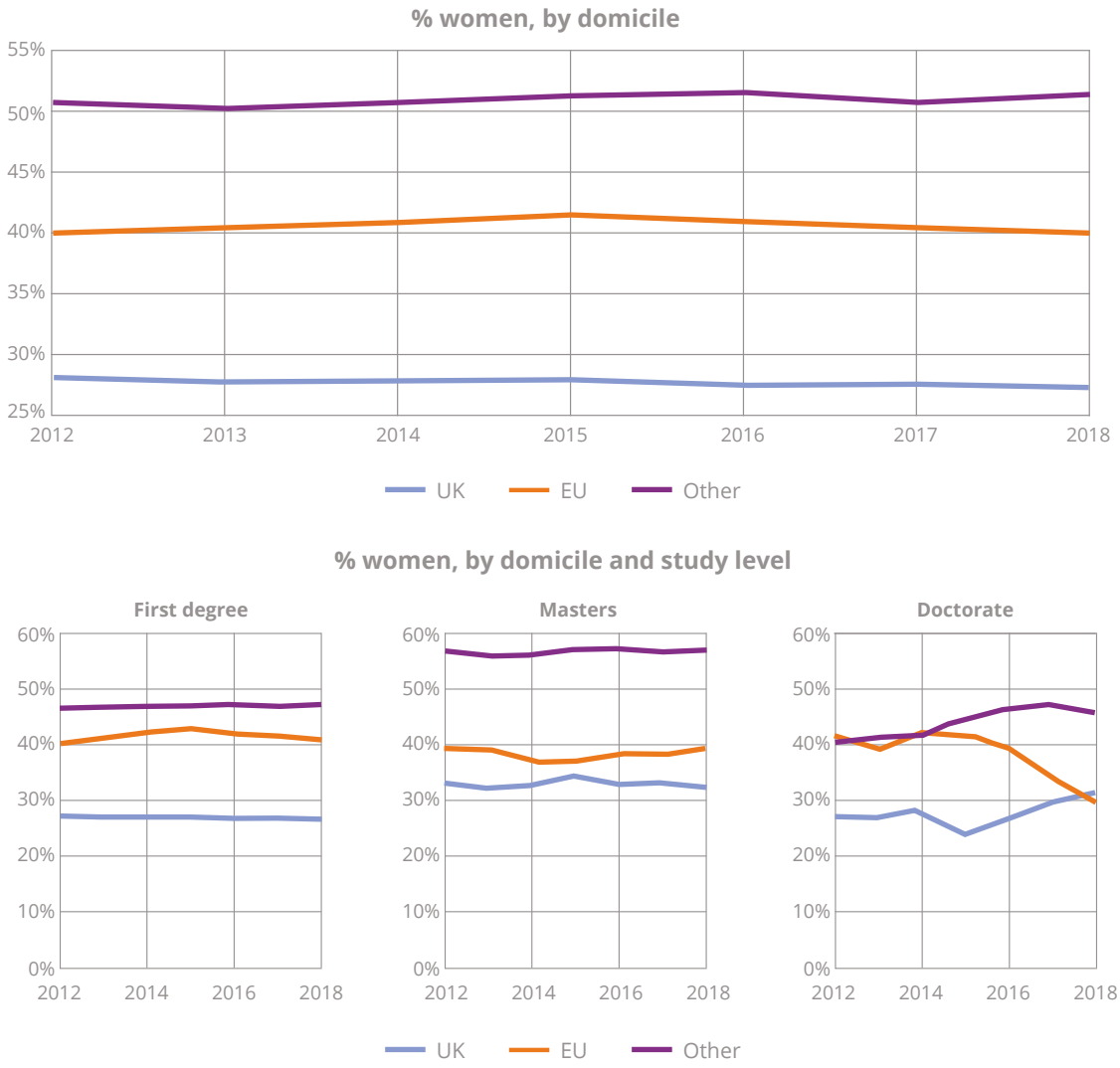


Figure 5.2: Top graph plots the percentage of students in economics that are female by domicile; lower graphs plot the female percentages, by domicile and study level. Data are for full-time male and female students studying for a standard degree programme and omit students with an unknown domicile. Data from HESA.

the analysis is based on nationality instead of domicile (see Figure D.1, Appendix D).

Across every degree level, women's representation is highest among non-UK/EU students. Indeed, women made up 59 percent of non-EU/UK students studying economics at the masters level. Thus, the over-representation of women at this level — apparent in Figure 5.1 — is clearly due to large inflows of non-UK/EU women coming to the UK to study economics on a taught postgraduate programme.[25]

5.3 Secondary education

The top two graphs in Figure D.2 (Appendix D) break down the percentage of women among undergraduate economics students domiciled in the UK by type of secondary education and A-level subject. Women are better represented among students who attended state-funded schools and colleges and among students without an economics A-level. Gender differences, however, are slight. In 2018, women made up 27 percent of economics undergraduates from state-funded institutions and 26 percent of undergraduates from privately-funded schools or colleges. Women represented 26 percent of students with an A-level and 30 percent of students without

25 Note that non-EU/UK women make up 81 percent of all female students studying economics at the masters level.

Figure 5.3: UK economics students by ethnicity/BME marker, over time

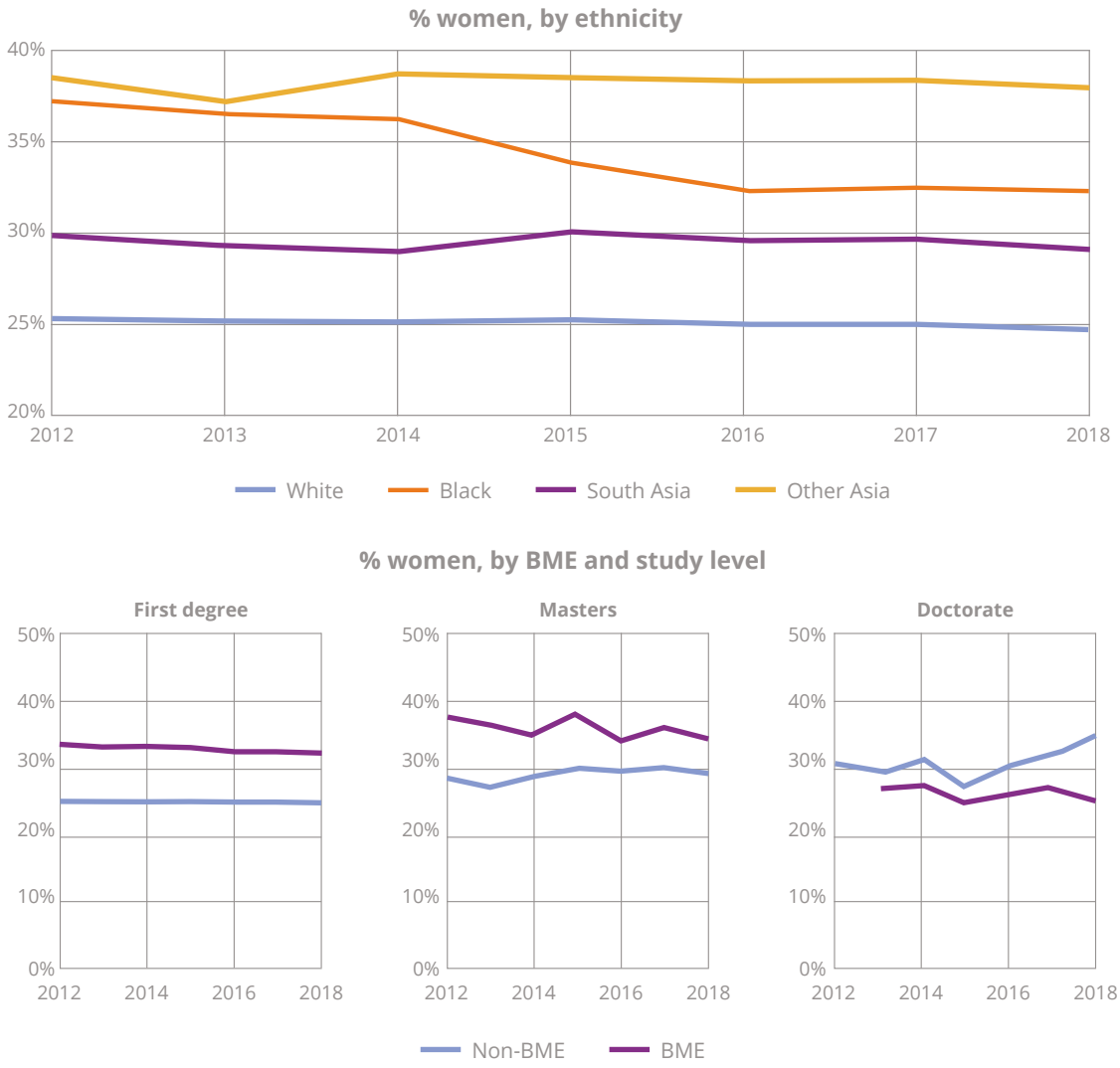


Figure 5.3: Top graph plots the percentage of undergraduate economics students in the UK who are women by ethnicity; lower graph plots the percentage that are women among BME and non-BME students by level of study. See Section 3.2 for information on how ethnicity was categorised. Data are for full-time male and female students studying on a standard degree programme; top graph excludes individuals whose ethnicity is unknown, other or mixed (see Advani et al 2020 p.19 for more detail for UK nationals); lower graph excludes students with an unknown BME marker. See Section 3.2 or Appendix B for further information on how ethnicity was categorised. Data from HESA.

one. These patterns have not substantially changed since 2012.

5.4 Ethnicity

Non-white women are more likely to study economics than white women[26]. The upper graph in Figure 5.3 plots the percentage of female undergraduate women by ethnicity.[27] The representation of women is highest among "other" (i.e., non-South) Asian (39 percent) and Black (33 percent) students, although the percentage for Black students has declined 5 points since 2012. South Asian and white students have the lowest percentages of women: in 2018, only 29 and 25 percent, respectively. These patterns have remained relatively stable since 2012.

Women are better represented among BME students than they are among non-BME students at the undergraduate and masters level; the reverse is true for Ph.D. students. The lower graph in Figure 5.3 plots the percentage of women by BME status and level of study. In 2018, the gaps between the

26 See also Advani et al (2020), pp.16-19.

27 See Section 3.2 or Appendix B for further information on how ethnicity was categorised.

shares of women among BME and non-BME students was 7 percentage points for students taking their first degree and 5 percentage points for masters students. Among doctoral students, however, the representation of women was 10 percentage points higher among non-BME students than it was among BME students.

The bottom two graphs in Figure D.2 (Appendix D) plot the percentages of BME and non-BME economics undergraduates students who are women by type of secondary school and A-level subject. The percentage of women among BME students is higher than it is among non-BME students regardless of secondary school type or A-level subject. These patterns have not changed much with time; the exception is the percentage of BME students without an economics A-level that are women, which has declined from 37 percent in 2012 to 32 percent in 2018.

> “Among economics students domiciled in the UK in 2018, women represented 27 percent of undergraduates, 31 percent of masters students and 32 percent of Ph.D. students”

6 Conclusion

As numerous studies have shown, there is a lack of gender diversity in economics.[28] Indeed, only two Nobel Prizes in economics have ever been awarded to women. This report, published in the Silver Anniversary year of the Royal Economic Society's Women's Committee, suggests that the UK is not an exception: we find that women are under-represented at almost every level within academic economics in the UK.

Employing data supplied by the Higher Education Statistical Agency, we find that in 2018 women represented 32 percent of economics undergraduate students, 39 percent of Ph.D. students and 26 percent of academic economists. The only exception to the picture of gender imbalance can be found at masters degree level, where the numbers of men and women studying economics are roughly equal. Within the group of UK-domiciled students, however, a significant gender gap exists at every level of study: women represented 27 percent of undergraduates, 31 percent of masters students and 32 percent of Ph.D. students in 2018. This means that at every level of study there are between two and three times as many British men studying economics as there are British women.

Black women face a double penalty: Black economists are under-represented within UK academic economics, and the proportion of Black economists that are female is particularly small. While in 2018 39 percent of Asian ethnicity lecturers were women, and 30 percent of white lecturers were women, of the roughly twenty-five Black lecturers in economics, no more than five were women. Strikingly, at no point between 2012–2018 was a Black female professor of economics employed anywhere in the UK, according to our data.

Interestingly, at the student level, there is in fact greater gender balance amongst Black students studying economics (33 percent of whom are women) compared with white students (25 percent of whom are women). However, this has not translated into better representation of women among Black academic economists. More generally, while women's representation is higher among ethnic minority students at the undergraduate level compared with non-BME students, at Ph.D. level this situation reverses: in 2018, women's representation was 10 percentage points higher among white students (35 percent) than it was among BME students (25 percent).

The Royal Economic Society Women's Committee has been monitoring the gender balance within UK economics for the past 25 years. The findings of our report can be compared with those of previous reports in order to gauge the direction of change. Doing so suggests that improvements in gender balance have been achieved in the last quarter century, but that there are also signs of retreat and stagnation.

The proportion of the academic workforce that is female has expanded from at most 18 percent in 1996 to 26 percent in 2018. At a more granular level, in 2018 women comprised 33 percent of lecturers (versus 15-16 percent in 1996), 27 percent of senior lecturers/readers (versus 9-10 percent in 1996) and 15 percent of professors (versus less than 5 percent in 1996). The overall rank composition of the workforce has to a degree converged. In 1996, out of every four male academic economists, one was a professor, one was a senior lecturer/reader and two were lecturers. By contrast, amongst female staff in the same year, almost three-quarters were working at the lecturer level and only one in sixteen was a professor. These gaps have closed substantially over time, albeit not completely.

Progress has, however, begun to stall.[29] The proportion of economics professors who are

28 See, for example Auriol, Friebel, and Wilhelm (2019), Bayer and Rouse (2016), Gamage, Sevilla, and Smith (2020), Chari and Goldsmith-Pinkham (2017), Ductor, Goyal, and Prummer (2018), Ginther and Kahn (2004), Lundberg and Stearns (2019), Hengel and Moon (2020) and Doleac, Hengel, and Pancotti (2021) as well as the past reports listed in Appendix 7.

29 Lundberg and Stearns (2019) find similarly for the USA.

female has increased by only two percentage points since 2012: from 13 percent to 15 percent. Similarly, the proportion of economics lecturers who are women has barely budged since 2012: from 29 percent to 31 percent. At the current rate of change, it will be a very long time before the profession comes anywhere close to achieving gender balance.

Not only has progress stalled, there are also signs of retreat. The share of all female economists who are professors has actually slightly declined since 2012, from 21 percent to 18 percent. Also on the decline is the percentage of economics professors with Asian ethnicity who are women (from 22 percent in 2012 to 16 percent in 2018), and the proportion of Black lecturers who are women (from 26 percent in 2015 to 17 percent in 2018).

Retreat is perhaps most noticeable at the student level. Since 2002, the gender gap has widened at both the undergraduate and taught postgraduate degree levels for UK-domiciled students: the proportion of economics undergraduates who are women has fallen from 31 percent in 2002 to 27 percent in 2018; at the masters level, the proportion has fallen from 37 percent in 2002 to 31 percent in 2018.[30] While other subjects are making progress in terms of closing the gender gap, that is not the case for economics. In fact, economics is behind mathematics and physical sciences: 37 percent of full-time students studying maths as their first degree are women, and 43 percent of physical scientists, both of which exceed economics. In fact, the only major subjects with a worse gender balance than economics are computer science (15 percent) and engineering (18 percent) (HESA 2021).

The stagnation and retreat is stark when set alongside the potential for improvement. Women have consistently comprised at least half of all foreign (non-EU) students and about 40 percent of all EU students studying economics within the UK in recent years. Amongst academics, the proportion of women is 10 percentage points higher amongst non-UK nationals working at UK universities compared with those from within the UK itself. In economics departments elsewhere in Europe, better gender representation among academics can be found in Ireland, Poland, Romania, and Russia (Auriol, Friebel, and Wilhelm 2020).

Women are also better represented among economists outside of academia: in the Treasury, 38 percent of economic staff are female (Cabinet Office 2020); at the Bank of England, 32 percent of senior staff are female, along with 46 percent of their new graduate intake (Bank of England 2020); at the Institute for Fiscal Studies, 40 percent of all researchers listed on their website in May 2021 were female, and of those employed purely by the IFS, 52 percent are female (IFS 2021); at NIESR, 45 percent of researchers are female (NIESR 2021b, 2021a); across UK think tanks, 44 percent of researchers and 29 percent of senior researchers are female (Smart Thinking 2020). These figures are impressive compared with academic economics, where only 26 percent of those working as economists are female and only 15 percent are professors.[31]

Women are better represented in UK academic economics than they were a quarter century ago. Nevertheless, progress is stalling, and there are signs of retreat. The greater gender balance achieved amongst economists outside of academia suggests that the scarcity of women within academia is neither natural nor inevitable. But, without a sizeable enough pipeline of female economists, a better gender balance in one area will inevitably mean a worse gender balance elsewhere. We need to understand why academic economics is failing to attract women in the first place and why, even when it does, they do not stay. We hope UK institutions are ready to both recognise the problem and to rise to the challenge of overcoming it.

30 For earlier data, see Mitka, Mumford, and Sechel (2015).

31 Joshi (2002) similarly identified better representation amongst economists in both the Government Economic Service (GES) and the Bank of England compared with academic economics. While, at the time, 20 percent of all academic economists were female (when including non-tenured and research-only posts alongside "standard" posts), 23 percent of economists at GES were female and 24 percent of all economic staff at the Bank of England were female. Joshi (2002, 14) goes on to note: "When the Bank of England is compared with academic employment of economists, women's relative success at achieving senior and middle positions in the Bank is more striking, with seven percent professors (accounting for 21 percent of academic posts) being women compared with 11 percent of the higher and senior management in the Bank." According to our comparisons, the disparity in female representation between academia and policy making has, if anything, increased since then.

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Tenreyro, Silvana. 2017. "Report on the Gender Balance in UK Economics Departments and Research Institutes in 2016." Report to the Royal Economic Society Women's Committee.

Appendix

A Past reports

Table A.1: Past Gender Reports

Year	Title	Author(s)
2017	Royal Economic Society's Report on the Gender Balance in UK Economics Departments and Research Institutes in 2016	Silvana Tenreyro
2015	The 10th Royal Economic Society Women's Committee Survey: the Gender Balance of Academic Economics in the UK 2014	Malgorzata Mitka, Karen Mumford and Cristina Sechel
2013	The Gender Balance of Academic Economics 2012: Royal Economic Society Women's Committee Survey	Laura C. Blanco, Malgorzata Mitka, Karen Mumford and J. Roman
2010	Royal Economic Society Women's Committee Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2010	Laura C. Blanco and Karen Mumford
2009	Royal Economic Society Women's Committee Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2008	Karen Mumford
2007	Royal Economic Society Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2006	Andreas Georgiadis and Alan Manning
2006	Royal Economic Society Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2004	Jonathan Burton and Jane Humphries
2002	Royal Economic Society Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2002	Jonathan Burton and Heather Joshi
2002	Royal Economic Society Survey on the Gender and Ethnic Balance of Academic Economics 2000	Jonathan Burton, Amanda Rowlatt and Heather Joshi
2000	The Position of Women in UK Academic Economics	Alison L. Booth, Jonathan Burton and Karen Mumford
1997	The Gender Balance of Academic Economics in the UK	Karen Mumford

B Data definitions

Academic staff

For staff members, we concentrate our analysis on sex, academic rank, academic employment function, part-/full-time employment status, terms of employment, nationality and ethnicity. Below we briefly describe data definitions; more detailed information is available on HESA's website.

- Sex refers to the sex of the individual as opposed to the gender they identify with. HESA data include three gender categories: male, female and other. Given the purpose of this report is to analyse the representation of women in academic economics, all analyses exclude individuals who do not declare their gender as either male or female.[1]
- Academic rank (or contract level) records the UCEA or XpertHR defined level of the contract. In most analyses, we only include levels F1 (professor), I0 (senior lecturer/reader), J0 (lecturer B) and K0 (lecturer A).[2] In Section 4.4, we also include L0 (teaching and research assistants).
- Academic employment function refers to the role/categorisation of an academic contract (teaching only, teaching and research or research only); staff members without teaching or research responsibilities are excluded from all analyses.
- Part-/full-time status is attributed to the contract; thus, an individual working full time on multiple part-time contracts would be represented as multiple part-time instances in the data.
- Terms of employment describe the type of contract an employee holds (open-ended/permanent or fixed-term); all analyses exclude staff members employed on atypical contracts.
- Nationality refers to the country of legal nationality.
- Ethnicity data are voluntarily self-reported according to the coding framework recommended by the Office for National Statistics. To comply with HESA's rounding and suppression strategy, we categorise the ethnicity of academic staff as follows: "white" includes individuals from any white ethnic background; "Black" includes individuals from a Black Caribbean, Black African or other Black background; and "Asia" includes individuals from an Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese or other Asian background.

Students

For students, we concentrate much of our analysis on sex, level of study, nationality, domicile, state school marker, A-level subject, ethnicity and BME marker. Data descriptions not already defined above for academic staff are briefly summarised below; for further details, please consult HESA's website.

- Level of study refers to either undergraduate (first-degree) or postgraduate (masters or doctorate) study. Students studying on non-first-degree undergraduate programmes or non-masters/doctorate postgraduate programmes are omitted from all analyses.
- Domicile refers to the location of a student's permanent home address prior to starting study.

1 Given other data restrictions, however, all staff observations are either male or female.

2 See Footnote 12 for the distinction between "lecturer A" and "lecturer B" positions.

- State school marker indicates whether a student obtained his or her secondary education from a state school or a privately funded school or college.

- A-level subject indicates whether the student obtained an economics A-level or not.

- Student ethnicity is categorised as follows: “white” includes individuals from any white ethnic background; “Black” includes individuals from a Black Caribbean, Black African or other Black background; “South Asia” includes individuals from an Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi background; and “Other Asia” includes individuals from a Chinese or other Asian background.

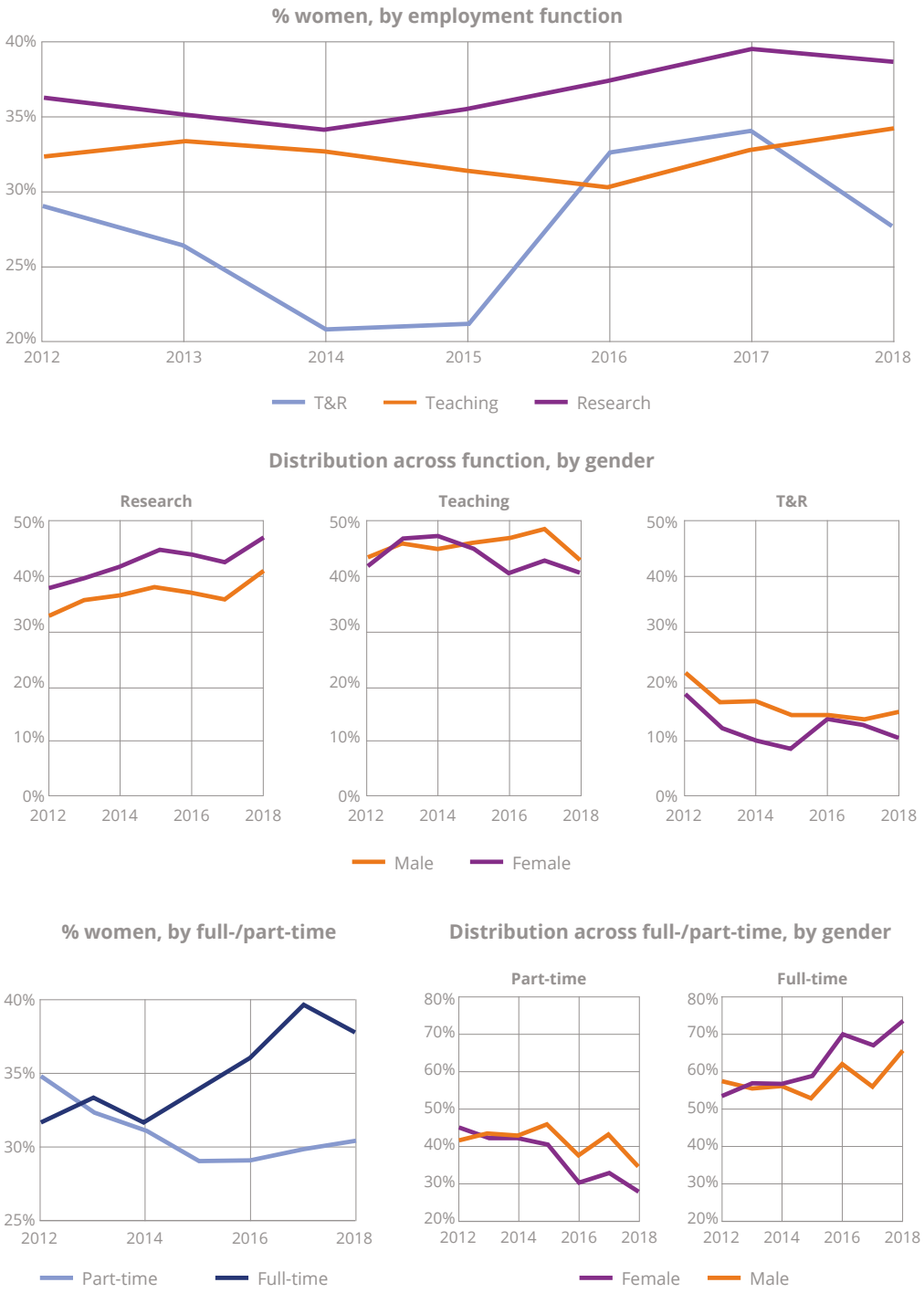
- Black and minority ethnicity (BME) marker indicates whether a student’s ethnicity is categorised as either Black, Asian, Mixed or Other.

C Additional tables and graphs for academic staff

C.1 Fixed term contracts

Figure C.1: UK academic economists on fixed-term contracts, by function and part-time status

Note. Top graph plots the percentage of academics on fixed-term contracts who are women, broken down by academic employment function; middle graph shows the percentages of all women and all men on fixed-term contracts across academic employment function. Bottom left-hand graph plots the percentage of academics on fixed-term contracts who are women, broken down by full- and part-time status; bottom right-hand graph shows the percentages of all women and all men on fixed-term contracts across full-/part-time status. Data restricted to academic economists (including teaching/research assistants) working both full- and part-time in teaching-only, research-only or T&R positions. Data from HESA.



C.2 Academic economists, by university

Table C.2: Academic economists in 2018, by university

Note: Table displays the total number of staff and the female percentage of staff employed during the 2018/19 academic year at each listed institution. Data restricted to lecturers, senior lecturers/readers and professors on standard academic contracts (i.e., full-time, permanent, T&R positions). In order to comply with HESA's rounding and suppression strategy, figures in the first column have been rounded to the nearest multiple of five and universities employing fewer than 22.5 individuals meeting the relevant criteria are not shown. Data from HESA.

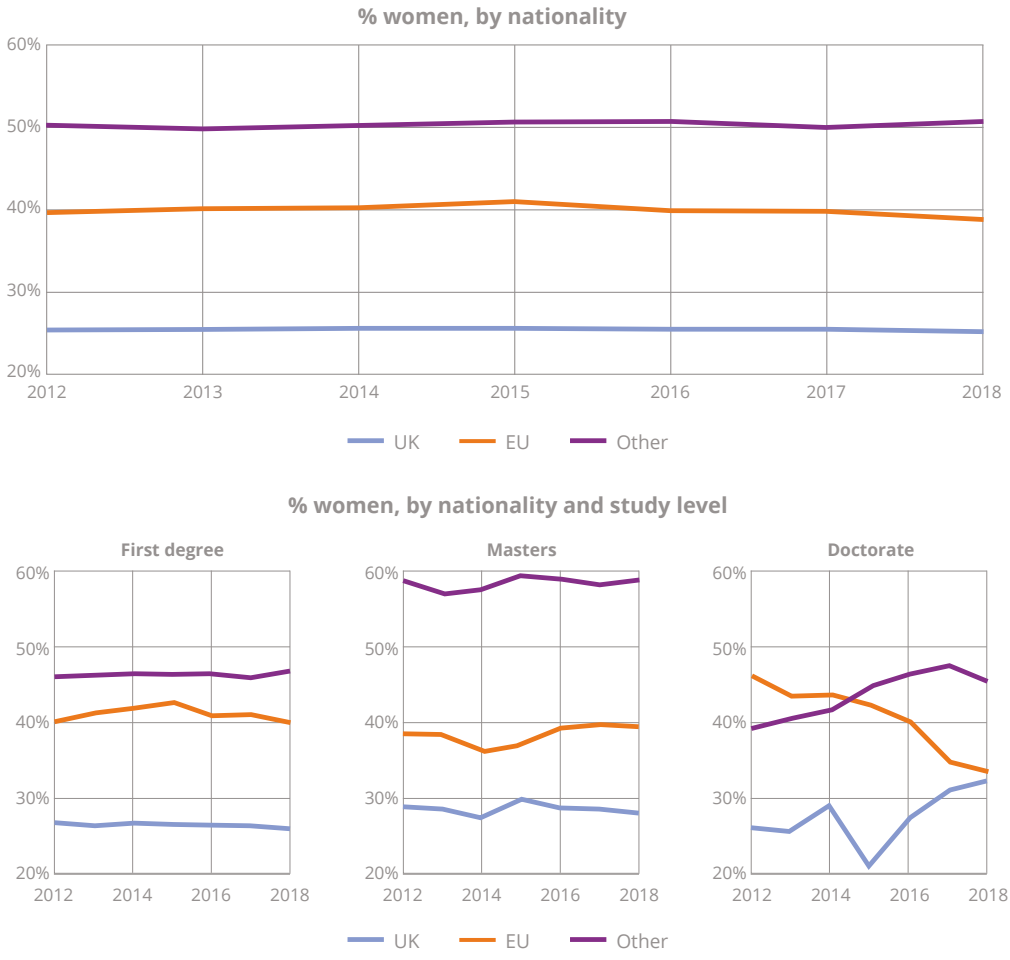
Institution	Total staff no.	% female
Brunel University London	25	32
Cardiff University	35	21
City, University of London	30	33
London School of Economics and Political Science	45	21
Loughborough University	25	30
Manchester Metropolitan University	30	34
Newcastle University	30	21
Queen Mary University of London	30	29
Royal Holloway and Bedford New College	30	17
University College London	40	28
University of Birmingham	30	30
University of Bristol	40	28
University of Cambridge	40	25
University of Durham	45	26
University of East Anglia	30	26
University of Edinburgh	25	22
University of Essex	45	29
University of Exeter	35	24
University of Glasgow	45	28
University of Kent	30	24
University of Lancaster	35	23
University of Leicester	30	22
University of Liverpool	30	25
University of Manchester	55	12
University of Nottingham	65	25
University of Oxford	45	21
University of Reading	25	41
University of Sheffield	30	28
University of Southampton	25	17
University of Surrey	30	41
University of Sussex	25	25
University of the West of England, Bristol	25	41
University of Warwick	60	22
University of York	45	22

D Additional tables and graphs for students

D.1 Nationality

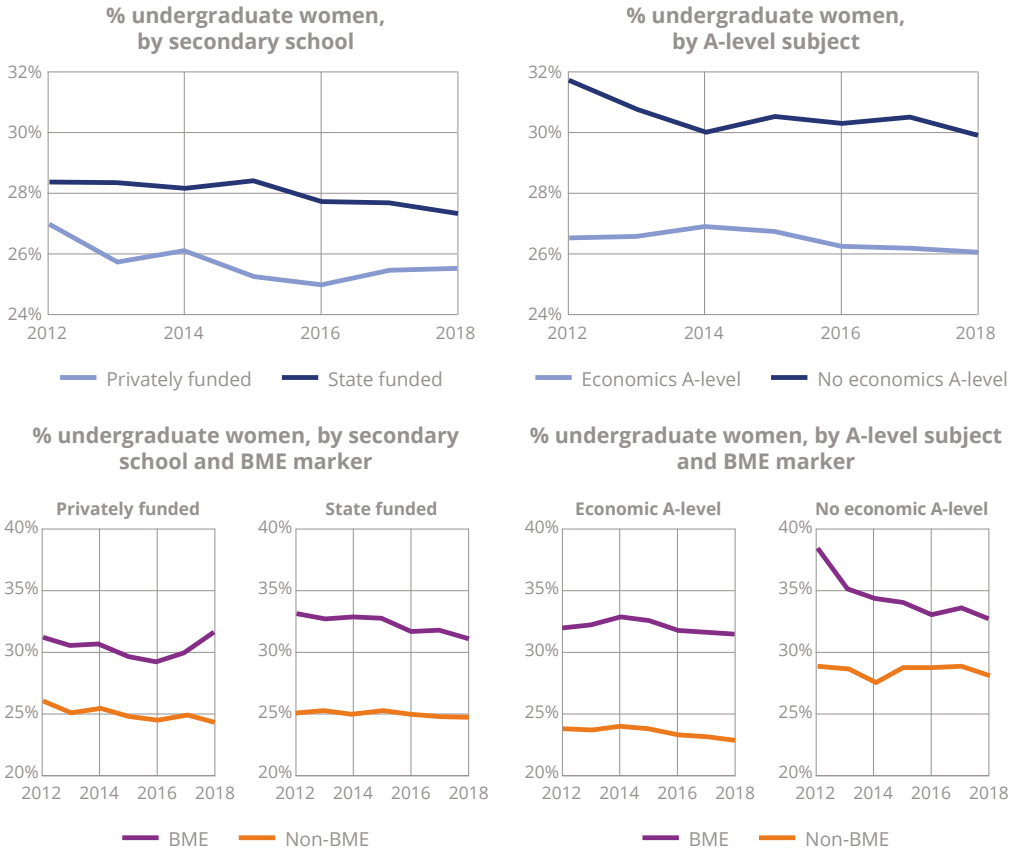
Figure D.1: UK economics students, by nationality

Note. Top graph plots the percentage of female students in economics by nationality; bottom graph plots the percentages of women, by study level and nationality. Data are for full-time male and female students studying on a standard degree programme; students with unknown nationality are excluded. Data from HESA.



D.2 Secondary education

Figure D.2: UK economics students, by secondary education and BME marker



Note. Top left-hand graph plots the percentage of female undergraduate economics students by type of secondary school; top right-hand graph plots the percentage of female economics undergraduates by A-level subject. Bottom left-hand graph shows the percentages of undergraduate women studying economics by BME marker and type of secondary school; bottom right-hand graph shows the percentages of undergraduate women by BME marker and A-level subject. Data are for fulltime male and female undergraduate students domiciled in the UK studying on a standard degree programme. Data omit students with an unknown type of secondary school (left-hand graphs only), A-level subject (right-hand graphs only) and BME marker (bottom two graphs only). Data from HESA.

D.3 Female share of economics students, by university and level of study

Table D.3: Female share of economics students in 2018, by university and level of study

Note: Table displays the female share of economics students studying in the UK by university and level of study. Data restricted to full-time male and female students studying on a standard degree programme during the 2018–19 academic year. In order to comply with HESA's rounding and suppression strategy, figures for study levels with fewer than 22.5 students satisfying the relevant criteria are omitted; universities with fewer than 22.5 students in every level of study are not shown. Data from HESA.

	% female		
Institution	First degree	Masters	Doctorate
Aberystwyth University	17		
Anglia Ruskin University	41		
Aston University	34	35	
Bangor University	22		
Birkbeck College	32	33	
Birmingham City University	26		
Brunel University London	27	41	
Cardiff Metropolitan University	19		
Cardiff University	33	60	
City, University of London	33	49	
Coventry University	22		
De Montfort University	24	33	
Glasgow Caledonian University	40		
Goldsmiths College	34		
Heriot-Watt University	24	29	
Keele University	22		
King's College London	50	53	
Kingston University	26		
Leeds Beckett University	18		
London Metropolitan University	38		
London School of Economics and Political Science	37	48	21
Loughborough University	25	51	
Manchester Metropolitan University	23		
Middlesex University	27		
Newcastle University	26	39	
Nottingham Trent University	17		
Oxford Brookes University	34		
Queen Mary University of London	41	48	
Queen's University Belfast	38		
Royal Holloway and Bedford New College	34	40	
Sheffield Hallam University	17		
SOAS University of London	44	59	48
Swansea University	17	47	

Institution	First degree	Masters	Doctorate
Ulster University	3		5
University College London	42	56	33
University of Aberdeen	38	33	
University of Bath	31	62	
University of Bedfordshire	33		
University of Birmingham	39	60	41
University of Bradford	29		
University of Brighton	36		
University of Bristol	31	70	
University of Buckingham	20		
University of Cambridge	38	42	36
University of Central Lancashire	15		
University of Chester	36		
University of Derby	28		
University of Dundee	38		
University of Durham	35	48	
University of East Anglia	26	49	54
University of East London	34		
University of Edinburgh	38	48	
University of Essex	27	49	
University of Exeter	30	53	
University of Glasgow	40	52	28
University of Greenwich	37		
University of Hertfordshire	29		
University of Huddersfield	22		
University of Hull	28		
University of Kent	28	40	32
University of Lancaster	26	54	39
University of Leeds	35	7	3
University of Leicester	31	58	58
University of Lincoln	18		
University of Liverpool	50		
University of Manchester	38	56	52
University of Northampton	45		
University of Nottingham	29	47	29
University of Oxford	33	37	35

Institution	First degree	Masters	Doctorate
University of Plymouth	21		
University of Portsmouth	20		
University of Reading	34	53	51
University of Salford	23		
University of Sheffield	3	49	58
University of Southampton	30	63	
University of St Andrews	41	48	
University of Stirling	19		
University of Strathclyde	36	34	
University of Surrey	29	31	40
University of Sussex	28	46	
University of the West of England, Bristol	19		
University of Warwick	36	55	26
University of West London	27		
University of Winchester	14		
University of Wolverhampton	27		
University of York	32	64	35