Trends in the representation of women amongst geoscience faculty from 1999-2020: the long road towards gender parity

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Abstract

Inequalities persist in the geosciences. White women and people of color remain under-represented at all levels of academic faculty, including positions of power such as departmental and institutional leadership. While the proportion of women among geoscience faculty has been catalogued previously, new programs and initiatives aimed at improving diversity, focused on institutional factors that affect equity in the geosciences, necessitate an updated study and a new metric for quantifying the biases that result in under-representation . We compile a dataset of 2,531 tenured and tenure-track geoscience faculty from 62 universities in the United States to evaluate the proportion of women by rank and discipline. We find that 27% of faculty are women. The fraction of women in the faculty pool decreases with rank, as women comprise 46% of assistant professors, 34% of associate professors, and 19% of full professors. We quantify the attrition of women in terms of a fractionation factor, which describes the rate of loss of women along the tenure track and allows us to move away from the metaphor of the 'leaky pipeline'. Efforts to address inequities in institutional culture and biases in promotion and hiring practices over the past few years may provide insight into the recent positive shifts in fractionation factor. Our results suggest a need for 1:1 hiring between men and women to reach gender parity. Due to significant disparities in race, this work is most applicable to white women, and our use of the gender binary does not represent gender diversity in the geosciences.

Trends in the representation of women among US geoscience faculty from 1999-2020: the long road towards gender parity

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Key Points:

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10	• We compile a dataset of the proportion of women:men in the geosciences from		
11	$\sim 2,500$ geoscience faculty. Women make up $\sim 27\%$ of tenured and tenure-tra	.ck	
12	faculty in the institutions considered		
13	• We quantify the attrition of women in the geosciences in terms of a 'fractionation'	on	
14	factor' to describe the rate of loss of women along the tenure track and find tha	t	
15	the historic disproportionate attrition of women is decreasing.		

• We develop a simple model to analyze when gender parity can be reached

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17 Abstract

Inequalities persist in the geosciences. White women and people of color remain under-18 represented at all levels of academic faculty, including positions of power such as depart-19 mental and institutional leadership. While the proportion of women among geoscience 20 faculty has been catalogued previously, new programs and initiatives aimed at improv-21 ing diversity, focused on institutional factors that affect equity in the geosciences, ne-22 cessitate an updated study and a new metric for quantifying the biases that result in under-23 representation . We compile a dataset of 2,531 tenured and tenure-track geoscience fac-24 ulty from 62 universities in the United States to evaluate the proportion of women by 25 rank and discipline. We find that 27% of faculty are women. The fraction of women in 26 the faculty pool decreases with rank, as women comprise 46% of assistant professors, 34%27 of associate professors, and 19% of full professors. We quantify the attrition of women 28 in terms of a fractionation factor, which describes the rate of loss of women along the 29 tenure track and allows us to move away from the metaphor of the 'leaky pipeline'. Ef-30 forts to address inequities in institutional culture and biases in promotion and hiring prac-31 tices over the past few years may provide insight into the recent positive shifts in frac-32 tionation factor. Our results suggest a need for 1:1 hiring between men and women to 33 reach gender parity. Due to significant disparities in race, this work is most applicable 34 to white women, and our use of the gender binary does not represent gender diversity 35 36 in the geosciences.

³⁷ Plain Language Summary

Both women and people of color are under-represented throughout academic fac-38 ulty positions in the geosciences, which covers earth, atmospheric, ocean, and planetary 39 sciences. Previous work has shown that women comprise a lower percentage of geoscience 40 faculty. Recently, there have been an increasing number of programs and studies that 41 seek to understand the institutional causes of gender inequities and to find solutions for 42 these inequities. Here, we assess the representation of women in the geoscience faculty 43 and propose a new, quantitative metric that connects with the research on institutional 44 root causes. We gathered a dataset of 2,531 faculty from 62 different universities and quan-45 tify the number of women in each discipline, type of institution, and by their rank. Over-46 all 27% of faculty are women, and the percent of women faculty decreases with rank. The 47 typical terminology for this phenomenon is a 'leaky pipeline', but here we suggest the 48 use of what we term a 'fractionation' factor to quantify disproportionate loss of women 49 from the academic field. Importantly, our work is most applicable to white women be-50 cause of existing disparities in race, and our use of the gender binary does not represent 51 gender diversity in the geosciences. 52

53 Introduction

Professorships are a position of power, not only immediately within the academic 54 hierarchy but also more broadly within society. This power dynamic raises the need for 55 the geoscience community to critically examine how social groups are represented in these 56 positions. Women made early contributions to the field, both within the academic sys-57 tem (such as Florence Bascom, who became the second woman to earn a Ph.D in geol-58 ogy in the United States in 1893 and founded the geology department of Bryn Mawr Col-59 lege) and outside of it (such as Eunice Foote, who conducted early experiments demon-60 strating the greenhouse effect in the 1850s), but in spite of these accomplishments, women 61 were not hired at a wider range of universities until the 1900s. Today, 150 years after 62 the first woman (Hariette Cooke) was hired as a professor with a salary commensurate 63 with the salary of men on the faculty, bias and inequities continue to persist across aca-64 demic departments, including and in particular within the geosciences ('Geosciences' herein 65

includes the disciplines of Earth, Ocean, Atmosphere, and Planetary Sciences) (Holmes
 et al., 2008; Wilson, 2016; Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018).

These inequities raise significant concerns for the future of the geosciences, partic-68 ularly with regards to career advancement of current faculty from marginalized groups, 69 mentoring of students and faculty from marginalized groups, and toxic environments 70 that push faculty from marginalized groups out of their fields (Puritty et al., 2017; Stad-71 mark et al., 2020; Marín-Spiotta et al., 2020). Further, the lack of diversity in the geo-72 sciences and the underlying culture of racism and sexism hinder innovation and the dis-73 74 persal of new ideas (Hofstra et al., 2020). For the sake of science and for future geoscientists and leaders in STEM fields, academic institutions must focus on addressing these 75 inequities. 76

With respect to gender, an increasing number of Ph.D graduates in the geosciences 77 are women (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018). In Ocean and Earth Sciences, women have 78 earned more Ph.Ds each year than men since ~ 2007 and ~ 2014 , respectively, deter-79 mined from the Survey of Earned Doctorates reported by NSF (Bernard & Cooperdock, 80 2018). However, advances in diversity at the student level often don't translate to ad-81 vances at the faculty level. Previous studies have analyzed the gender diversity among 82 geoscience faculty to show that gender diversity has been increasing, albeit slowly, since 83 1999 (Wolfe, 1999; de Wet et al., 2002; Holmes & O'Connell, 2003; Holmes et al., 2008; 84 Glass, 2015; Holmes et al., 2015; Wilson, 2016). Recently, programs and initiatives, such 85 as NSF ADVANCE and the Earth Science Women's Network, have been designed to tackle 86 inequities and bias at the institutional level (Holmes, 2015; Adams et al., 2016). 87

In this study, we quantify the representation of woman geoscience faculty along the 88 tenure-track to consider the institutional factors that may contribute to the lack of rep-89 resentation of women, particularly at high ranks. We compile and analyze a database 90 of Earth, Atmospheric, Ocean, and Planetary Sciences faculty from the 62 colleges and 91 universities in the United States that have granted the most Geosciences PhDs since 1958. 92 Using this database, we determine the current gender makeup of tenure-track geoscience 93 faculty, adding to the temporal trend in gender composition that has been documented 94 since 1999 by past studies (Wolfe, 1999; de Wet et al., 2002; Holmes & O'Connell, 2003; 95 Holmes et al., 2008, 2015; Wilson, 2016). We build upon this previous work by consid-96 ering the change in representation of women amongst geoscience faculty up to 2020 and 97 considering the role that biases in promotion and hiring and unequal attrition may have in maintaining under-representation of women. 99

We focus here on the quantitative aspects of gender in hiring and promotion. Be-100 cause of our focus on academic institutions, we define gender as defined by institutions 101 themselves on public websites. This means that if institutions do not visibly represent 102 their non-binary faculty, then this study will not account for non-binary gender. In the 103 discussion section, we refer to other literature for qualitative aspects of gender experi-104 ence that are essential for interpreting these findings. Further, there are significant dis-105 parities in race that this study does not address. Over approximately the same timeframe 106 of this study (1999-2018), an average of 85% of Ph.Ds were awarded to white students 107 (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018). Given this, it is nearly certain that a disproporationate 108 majority of the women in our dataset are white women and this study is therefore most 109 applicable to the representation of white women in the geosciences. In the Discussion, 110 we put this work in the context of current programs, initiatives, and studies that aim 111 to understand root causes of and address institutional inequities in geoscience depart-112 ments. 113

114 Methodology

We compiled a dataset of 2,531 tenured and tenure-track faculty from university 115 websites for 62 universities that each granted > 0.5% of total geoscience doctorates in 116 the United States between 1958 and 2017. In total, these schools granted 79.4% of all 117 geoscience doctorates during that time period (Table S1 of the Supplement) (NSF Sur-118 vey of Doctorates). These departments likely contribute the greatest number of trainees 119 to the academic geoscience workforce and thus have a significant impact on the diver-120 sity and future of geoscience fields. The geoscience faculty from these institutions serve 121 122 in a primary mentorship role for many geoscience trainees, making representation and diversity amongst these faculty particularly important (Thomas et al., 2007; Hernandez 123 et al., 2020). This study does not consider many Minority-Serving Institutions and other 124 institutions that grant the rest of geoscience doctorates. 125

To build our database, we count faculty from all departments consisting of major-126 ity geoscientists. Their areas of study include earth and planetary science, atmospheric 127 science, geology and geophysics, oceanography and marine science, and geography de-128 partments. We focused on faculty that were hired by geoscience departments, exclud-129 ing faculty with joint appointments in a geoscience department but whose primary ap-130 pointment is a non-geoscience department. Only tenure-track faculty hired by these de-131 partments were included in the dataset (thus excluding lecturers, or research faculty), 132 due to their role as mentors for future generations of geoscientists and institutional decision-133 makers. However, previous work has considered the representation of women in non-tenure-134 track positions and has found relatively high percentages of women in these positions 135 (Thompson et al., 2011; Wilson, 2016). 136

Name, title, and key words relating to geoscience sub-discipline were identified from 137 department directories, and in some cases from the faculty member's group or personal 138 website. Subdisciplines are listed in Table S1, and faculty are counted under as many 139 of these subdisciplines as were identified. Thus, for the purposes of the subdiscipline study, 140 a faculty member may be a part of multiple subdiscipline categories given the overlap 141 between many geoscience subdisciplines and the increasingly interdisciplinary nature of 142 some work. However, faculty members are only counted once for all other studies in this 143 paper. Our dataset cannot account for errors that arise due to out-of-date websites, as 144 we assume webpages reflect the most updated department information. The dataset was 145 last checked on September 7, 2020 and is accurate as of that date. 146

In this study, gender identity is assigned to faculty members by pronouns used in the faculty directories or on university news sources. This may lead to inaccuracies if faculty members do not identify with a binary gender but nonetheless typically use binary pronouns in a professional context or if faculty members are misgendered by the website. Furthermore, pronouns are not equivalent to gender, and therefore there is potential for error if a faculty member uses she/her or he/his pronouns but does not identify on the gender binary.

We remove all sub-categories within the dataset that represent only a small num-154 ber of individuals, defined as 25 members, or < 1% of the full dataset. Thus, we do not 155 assess the gender distribution of several sub-disciplines (e.g. History of Science). For this 156 reason, we also exclude faculty who do not use 'she/her/hers' or 'he/him/his' pronouns. 157 Less than 1% of the faculty in our dataset are identified with non-binary pronouns on 158 academic websites. Based on other survey methodologies in allied fields (Strauss et al., 159 2020), we expect that the actual number of non-binary faculty may be higher but that 160 non-binary visibility is limited on official websites. In what follows, we only present two 161 genders (man/woman). Consideration of only two genders does not account for or con-162 sider the wide diversity of gender that exists, or the historic and systemic biases that re-163 sult in low numbers of non-binary faculty. Further study and data availability is needed 164

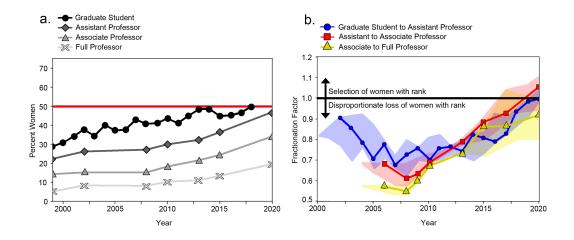


Figure 1. Multi-decadal time-series of gender distribution in faculty by rank (a) Percentage of faculty who are women by rank for the last 21 years. References: 1999 Data (de Wet et al., 2002), 2002 Data (Holmes & O'Connell, 2003), 2008, 2010, 2013 Data (Wilson, 2016) exact percentages interpreted from a bar chart, 2015 Data (n = 2324) (Holmes et al., 2015; Glass, 2015), 2020 Data (This Study). (b) Fractionation factor (see Equation 1) for the three transitions (graduate student to assistant professor, assistant to associate professor, associate to full professor). Shading represent a range in promotion timeline of ± 2 years

to widen the scope of gender studies in STEM disciplines. This is discussed in more detail in the Discussion section.

Throughout this study, we use the term under-represented to mean that the numerical representation of a group (women in most cases) is less than that in the US population. This is passive, technical language that does not address the causes of underrepresentation. Under-representation is a symptom of structural factors. When appropriate when discussing the results we use the terms marginalized or excluded to position this work in its wider structural context (Morris, 2021).

173 **Results**

Women make up approximately 27% of all the tenured and tenure-track faculty in 174 the 62 academic institutions considered. The fraction of women in the faculty pool de-175 creases with rank, as 46% of assistant professors are women, 34% of associate professors 176 are women, and 19% of full professors are women. These statistics are roughly equiv-177 alent at the public and private universities considered. At all career stages, these num-178 bers are lower than the US statistics for professors in 2016 across all disciplines, which 179 show that 42% of all the tenured and tenure-track faculty were women, 51% of assistant 180 professors are women, 45% of associate professors were women, 32% of full professors were 181 women (Johnson, 2017). Evaluation of current department leadership (i.e. department 182 heads, department chairs, or equivalent) shows that 21% of leadership positions are held 183 by women. While this is an under-representation of women with respect to the faculty 184 pool, it is roughly equivalent to the percentage of women who are full professors. 185

We compare our data with results from past studies of the demographics of the geosciences faculty, most of which present results from reports of the geoscience workforce. The percentage woman faculty in major geoscience departments has been steadily increasing for the past twenty years for all ranks (Figure 1). For all timepoints considered (1999, 2002, 2008, 2010, 2013, 2015 and 2020), the percentage woman assistant professors is higher than the percentage woman associate professors, which is higher than the percentage woman full professors (Figure 1a).

In this study, we discuss the higher rate of attrition of women than men in geosciences 193 using a concept from geochemistry: fractionation. In isotope geochemistry, fractionation 194 factors quantitatively describe processes that affect the relative proportion of isotopes 195 of the same element. Here, we describe fractionation as being the ratio between the per-196 centage of women at one rank of academia (Rank i+1) and the percentage of women 197 198 in the rank below (Rank i) at the time that the women in Rank i+1 were at Rank i. Mathematically, if the average time that it takes to get from Rank i to Rank i + 1 is 199 t_i , then the fractionation factor α is 200

$$\alpha(R_i, R_{i+1}) = \frac{\% \text{ of Women in Rank } i+1}{\% \text{ of Women in Rank } i \ t_i \text{ Years Ago}}$$
(1)

While this study focuses on the attrition of women, the use of fractionation factors could 201 be applied to other excluded and historically excluded groups (due to race, sexuality, socio-202 economic status, or other forms of margainalization). This metric is well suited for this 203 context because it quantifies the proportional loss of women across academic rank. A 204 fractionation factor of 1 means that the proportion of women in one rank is the same 205 as the proportion of women in the rank before. Thus, it would imply no difference in at-206 trition by gender. A fractionation factor of 0, on the other hand, means that none of the 207 women in one rank continued to the next rank, while the same is not true for men. 208

This framework enables us to add a quantitative approach to considering the at-209 trition of women and to move beyond the common analogy of the 'leaky pipeline'. The 210 'leaky pipeline' frames the lack of representation of women (and other marginalized groups) 211 in the context of a pipeline which begins at early education and ends at higher levels of 212 academia. The 'leaks' are the attrition of women from the pipeline towards professor-213 ships. This metaphor has been criticized for suggesting the existence of only one track 214 through academia and the sciences (Lykkegaard & Ulriksen, 2019). Several alternatives 215 to the 'leaky pipeline' have been proposed to better incorporate and value the variety 216 in pathways taken in modern science careers (e.g. the braided river analogy), as well as 217 to acknowledge the additional barriers faced by marginalized groups (Batchelor et al., 218 2021). The 'leaky pipeline' also focuses on absolute attrition of women, while failing to 219 consider the unequal attrition between men and women. This may implicitly put the blame 220 on individual women for leaving by not accounting for the structural and institutional 221 factors that certainly contribute to the under-representation of certain groups as seen 222 in data (Marín-Spiotta et al., 2020). 223

The fractionation factor, on the other hand, quantifies the proportional attrition 224 between identities. This factor focuses not on individual women leaving, but on how the 225 proportions of women compared to men decrease with rank. Thus, fractionation acknowl-226 edges that successful careers may exist outside of academia by diverting attention from 227 attrition alone and focusing on bias in attrition, a more useful metric for diversity prob-228 lems in academia. Furthermore, the fractionation framework quantifies bias that must 229 be a result of institutional and structural factors that cause women to leave academic 230 institutions at a rate higher than men. This puts the onus on institutions, rather than 231 women, to ensure equity in retention. 232

To study the presence of bias under the fractionation framework, we compare our results with previous studies on the gender diversity of geoscience faculty and NSF data of gender diversity in Ph.D graduates (Figure 1b). We interpolate the data presented in Figure 1a onto the full timespan 1999–2020. For simplicity, we assume that the average length of time between graduating with a Ph.D and becoming an assistant professor is ~ 2 years (the length of a typical post-doc contract), and that the average length

of time from assistant professor to associate professor (with tenure) is ~ 7 years, and 239 that promotion from associate professor to full professor is also ~ 7 years. The shad-240 ing represents the range of possible time to promotion $(\pm 2 \text{ years})$, in particular due to 241 the fact that, on average, women take nearly two years longer to be promoted to full pro-242 fessor, which represents a loss of earnings and influence within academic institutions (Van 243 Miegroet et al., 2019). Up until the last few years (~ 2017), the percentage of women 244 at the rank of assistant professor has been smaller than the percentage of women grad-245 uating with Ph.Ds (α (Graduate Student, Assistant Professor) < 1). Similar trends can 246 be seen between the assistant professor and associate professor level (when one is typ-247 ically awarded tenure) and between the associate professor and full professor level. Ad-248 ditionally, at all career stages, from 1999-2015, women advanced less often than men do. 249 This suggests that resolving diversity problems in academia must involve approaches be-250 yond outreach and student-focused initiatives. 251

For the year 2020, there is negligible evidence of differential loss of women at all 252 three stages (fractionation factor ≈ 1). In particular, α (Assistant Professor, Associate Professor) > 253 1, which is likely a function of the fact that the pool of associate professors are not all 254 exactly 7 years from being assistant professors; error in promotion timeline of +/-2 years 255 is reasonable and depicted in Figure 1b. Tenure clocks are extended in some cases, such 256 as for new parents. Extensions for childcare features its own equity challenges given that 257 often women still shoulder the burden of childcare. Men are often able to continue to 258 work during this clock extension, while women spend this time as a primary caretaker 259 (Antecol et al., 2018). Further, achieving a fractionation factor of 1 (i.e. parity in attri-260 tion) between any two ranks does not imply gender parity in the geoscience faculty. In 261 order to achieve gender parity, hiring must occur at a 1:1 men to women ratio and fractionation between all previous ranks must be 1. Thus, even after fractionation factors 263 reach 1, work still must be done to ensure gender parity in a reasonable timeframe. 264

Changes in the fractionation factors α (Graduate Student, Assistant Professor) and 265 α (Assistant Professor, Associate Professor) are expected to occur on similar timescales, 266 given the similar pool sizes (ca. 500 individuals). On the other hand, since the full pro-267 fessor pool is 3 times as large as either the assistant or associate professor pools, we would 268 expect a change in α (Associate Professor, Full Professor) of a similar magnitude to take 269 3 times as long. Factors that contribute to uncertainty in α (Associate Professor, Full Professor) 270 271 include that criteria for promotion from associate professor to full professor is not uniform across institutions, promotion can be more variable in timing than previous pro-272 motions, individuals can go up for promotion again if denied, and not all tenured fac-273 ulty make it to the full professor rank. 274

275 Gender and Discipline

Gender diversity varies between the four major disciplines that make up geosciences: 276 Earth Sciences, Ocean Sciences, Atmospheric Sciences, and Planetary Sciences (Figure 277 2). The percent woman faculty range between 23% and 30% of the faculty in each dis-278 cipline, with atmospheric sciences having the lowest percentage woman faculty ($\sim 23\%$) 279 and ocean sciences having the highest percentage woman faculty ($\sim 30\%$). This dataset 280 can only account for geoscience faculty primarily in geoscience departments, and thus 281 does not represent those that are primarily in other departments. We do not expect this 282 to bias the results, as there has been no reason proposed as to why there should be a gen-283 der difference in faculty who are hired outside of geoscience departments. We present 284 results for other subdisciplines in Supplement Table S3. 285

While the fractionation factors calculated for 2020 suggest no inequitable attrition of women overall for the geosciences, this is not the case for certain disciplines. As an example, we discuss the fractionation for the ocean sciences to illustrate the point that

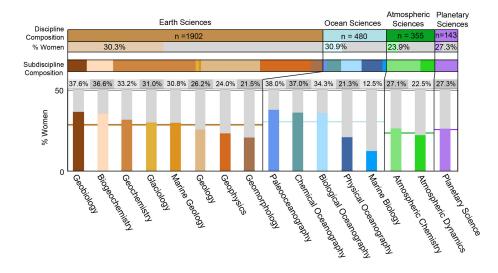


Figure 2. Faculty gender distribution by sub-discipline Gender distribution at the faculty level in order from highest to lowest percent women within each discipline. The black line represents an even gender distribution. Brown, blue, green, and purple lines represent the gender distributions of the major disciplines of earth sciences, ocean sciences, atmopheric sciences, and planetary sciences, respectively

fractionation factors for each discipline do not necessarily mirror the fractionation factors of the geosciences as a field.

In the ocean sciences, gender parity was reached amongst Ph.D graduates around 291 2006 (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018). Since then, the percent woman Ph.D graduates in 292 the ocean sciences has wavered between $\sim 50\%$ and $\sim 60\%$. Given that parity was reached 293 in 2006 and most assistant professors are hired $\sim 2-4$ years post-PhD, with full re-294 tention the percent woman assistant professors should have reached $\sim 50\%$ at least by 295 2010. In our 2020 data, we find that in fact $\sim 50\%$ of the ocean sciences assistant pro-296 fessors are women, though we do not have the data to confirm whether gender parity was 297 reached in 2010 or more recently. Further, since the average time to tenure is ~ 7 years, 298 we should have seen gender parity within associate professors by 2017-2018 if there were 299 equal hiring and promotion since 2006, but this is not reflected in the data. In 2020, only 300 $\sim 39\%$ of associate professors in the ocean sciences are women, giving a fractionation 301 factor of ≈ 0.78 . These fractionation factors are computed assuming that the assistant 302 professors were all at the beginning of the ~ 7 years in this rank, and that associate pro-303 fessors were all at the beginning of the ~ 7 years in this rank. The attrition continues: 304 only $\sim 22\%$ of full professors in the ocean sciences are women. 305

We further assess the gender distribution within the sub-disciplines of the major 306 disciplines defined above (earth sciences, ocean sciences, and atmospheric sciences), pre-307 sented in Figure 2. While some sub-disciplines have a higher percentage woman faculty 308 than others, no sub-discipline has yet achieved gender balance. Geobiology, paleooceanog-309 raphy, and chemical oceanography have the highest representation of women at around 310 38%. We find low percentages woman faculty in the subdisciplines of marine biology (12.5%), 311 physical oceanography (21.3 %), and geomorphology (21.5%). In the case of marine bi-312 ology, our dataset may not have enough faculty to fully represent the sub-discipline, since 313 we did not consider marine biologists in biology or zoology departments. Variations in 314 fractionation and gender distribution with sub-discipline suggest that it is insufficient 315

to consider the geosciences as a whole and instead important to consider each discipline individually. Data of both rank and subdiscipline are in Supplement Table S1.

Subdisciplines in the chemical and biological sciences (geochemistry, geobiology, 318 chemical oceanography, biological oceanography, atmospheric chemistry) generally have 319 a higher percentage woman faculty than subdisciplines in the physical sciences (geophysics, 320 physical oceanography, atmospheric dynamics). In particular, atmospheric physics and 321 physical oceanography have the lowest percentage woman faculty (22% and 21% respec-322 tively). The higher percentages of women in the biological and chemical sciences as com-323 pared to the physical sciences is a well-documented phenomenon across levels of STEM 324 (Ceci et al., 2014), and may be attributed to cultural factors including the myth of 'bril-325 liance' being more prevalent in physics- and math-based disciplines (Leslie et al., 2015). 326

Data on the gender distribution within geoscience subdisciplines published in 2003, 327 compared to the new data presented here, show that many disciplines have improved with 328 respect to representation of women faculty (Geology from 19% to 26%, Geophysics from 329 18% to 24%, Oceanography from 28% to 31%, Atmospheric Sciences from 12.5% to 27.3%, 330 and Planetary Sciences from 17% to 27%) (Holmes & O'Connell, 2003). However, the 331 gender distribution in geochemistry faculty has gone roughly unchanged in the past 18 332 years (from 34.9% to 33.2%). While the comparison with data published in 2003 enables 333 a rough assessment of how subdisciplines might have changed, we cannot make any defini-334 tive comparisons because this dataset did not evaluate the same institutions we did and 335 may not have defined the subdisciplines as we have in this study (Holmes & O'Connell, 336 2003).337

338 Discussion

We do not have sufficient data to determine the cause of the discrepency in attri-339 tion between men and women. However, previous work has considered this question, leav-340 ing us with hypotheses. Studies have pointed to institutional culture as being a factor 341 in the attrition of women. Policies that lead to inadequate childcare and maternity leave 342 , policies that do not protect women from harassment, the timeline and process of tenure, 343 and cultures of racism and sexism all play a role in making academic geoscience careers 344 inacessible to women, people of color, and other marginalized groups (de Wet et al., 2002; 345 Puritty et al., 2017; Marín-Spiotta et al., 2020; Bocher et al., 2020). To achieve gender 346 parity at all levels of faculty in the geosciences, we need to look beyond recruitment and 347 retention at the student level and consider biased institutional practices (including hir-348 ing and promotion processes) and problematic cultures that cause the lack of represen-349 tation of women faculty in the geosciences. 350

Lower representation of women - and low fractionation factors - at all levels may 351 point to biases in the hiring and tenure process. We note that the representation of women 352 seen at the assistant professor level is not translated as expected to the associate pro-353 fessor level in many disciplines, as shown above for the ocean sciences. Bias in the tenure 354 process within academia has been found in many previous studies, with respect to race 355 (in particular, anti-Black bias) (Perna et al., 2007) and gender (Box-Steffensmeier et al., 356 2015), amongst other identities, in many disciplines of STEM. Although this study fo-357 cuses exclusively on the US, under-representation of women is an issue in other coun-358 tries as well including throughout much, but not all, of Europe (Piccoli & Guidobaldi. 359 2021; Giakoumi et al., 2021). In the next section of the discussion, we apply simple mod-360 els of hiring to further explore the potential for bias in hiring. 361

362

What will it take to reach gender parity?

Given that the proportion of women at all levels has been increasing, a natural question is how long we have to wait for academic spaces to reach gender parity. Based on the observation that the percentage of faculty that are women remains lower than that of men at all ranks, the rate of hiring must be at least 1:1 - one woman professor hired per man. Here we consider two questions: (1) what is the current rate of hiring, (2) if we begin hiring at 1:1 starting in 2020, how long will it take to reach gender parity?

There is no database available of hiring rates and the diversity of applicant pools 369 and hires amongst geoscience faculty. Further, it is difficult to gather this data from web-370 pages given that faculty webpages do not consistently state in what year each faculty 371 member was hired. Therefore, we use a simple model to estimate the percentage of women 372 373 hired as assistant professors in the geosciences each year. We assume that the number of assistant professors in our dataset has been constant with time (i.e. from 1999-2020, 374 there have always been 505 assistant professors in the geosciences) and that the aver-375 age assistant professor remains in the position for 7 years, compatible with the model 376 developed above. From these assumptions, we compute the number of woman assistant 377 professors in year $i(f_i)$ as 378

$$f_i = f_{i-1} - h_{i-7} + h_i \tag{2}$$

where h_i represents the number of women hired this year and h_{i-7} represents the women 379 hired seven years ago (who are now leaving the assistant professor pool due to promo-380 tions, or contract terminations). We interpolate the data from Figure 1a onto each year 381 from 1999-2020 and use Equation 2 to compute h_i . From 1999-2020, we estimate the per-382 centage of women hired each year to vary between $\sim 23\%$ (in the early 2000s) to $\sim 56\%$ 383 (in 2016) (Figure 3b). 2016 is the only year in which the percentage of women hired equals 384 or exceeds 50% according to this model. In all other years, including between 2017 and 385 2020, women are less than 50% of the hires to geoscience assistant professors. The es-386 timate for 2020 is $\sim 42\%$ of hires are women. These estimates match up with the data 387 shown in Figure 1a, since women make up approximately 46% of the assistant profes-388 sors in 2020 and in the ~ 6 years leading up to 2020, we estimate the hiring rate of women 389 to fluctuate between 42% and 56%. If the number of assistant professors has been in-390 creasing, then the estimated percent of hires that are women is overestimated in this sim-391 ple model. 392

Based on these assumptions, our analysis suggests that hiring rates have been in 393 the 1:1 range since 2016. Given this result, we consider if the geosciences were to con-394 tinue hiring 1:1 on average from 2020, how long would it take to reach gender parity? 395 To estimate the answer to this question, we build a simple model in which we consider 396 the faculty pool to be in steady state (the number of faculty hired = number of faculty 397 who retire each year). We assume a promotion timeline of 7 years as an assistant pro-398 fessor, 7 years as an associate professor, and a 35 year career (assuming a retirement age 399 of ~ 65). Given these assumptions and the current number of faculty in each rank, we 400 use a flux into and out of the faculty pool of 70 people per year. If hiring is in line with 401 the approximate 50/50 gender split of women at the PhD level and in the general pop-402 ulation starting in the 2021 hiring cycle and there is no bias in hiring and promotion, 403 we may expect the assistant and associate professor pools could reach gender parity by 404 2028 and 2035, respectively. However, due to the long residence time of full professors, 405 the full professor pool and the total faculty pool would not reach equal (binary) gender representation before 2056 (Figure 3). Assuming a 35 year career, this would be approx-407 imately when current graduate students are nearing retirement. 408

This model is a simplified representation of the complex hiring practices and rentention in academia. We note, however, that this model can be thought of as a 'best case' scenario, given that professors often do not retire at age 65, and the full professor pool is about three times greater than either the assistant or the associate professor pool. Furthermore, this model does not account for bias in retention. As shown above, bias in retention has been decreasing in the last ~ 10 years, and while these results may not have

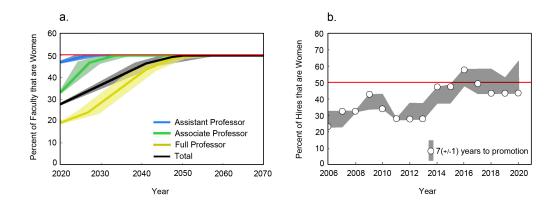


Figure 3. Estimated gender distribution over time (a) Model outlook on faculty gender composition by rank. If faculty are hired at a 1:1 gender ratio, and assuming there is equal retention between men and women, we should expect gender parity by 2055.(b) Estimated percent of hires that are women by year, computed from Equation 2. This shows that we have been hiring at a 1:1 ratio since 2015, assuming a range of 6-8 years for promotion.

the longevity to establish a clear trend, they do suggest that current initiatives may be working to improve gender equity. However, assessment is required to determine how current programs and efforts work and who they are working for. This model does emphasize a need to ensure continued hiring at 1:1 ratio; because women are currently underrepresented relative to men, without at least a 1:1 hiring strategy, we will never reach gender parity. Furthermore, this demonstrates the need for a continued study in the demographics of geoscience faculty to establish long-term trends.

422 Equity Initiatives and Systemic Change

The fractionation framework focuses on quantifying attrition and cannot propose 423 causes for biases and inequities or solutions to those inequities. Recent research has con-424 sidered the causes for inequities, including hierarchical cultures that enable harassment 425 and bias (Marín-Spiotta et al., 2020) and hampers belonging (Cheryan et al., 2017), racism 426 and sexism within academia (Bocher et al., 2020; Dutt, 2020; Ramos & Yi, 2020), in-427 acessibility of fieldwork (Morales et al., 2020), among other factors. Some factors are not 428 specific to hiring, but relate to bias in other aspects of academic careers that are con-429 sidered heavily in hiring such as publishing, grant awards, and speaking invitations (Bornmann 430 et al., 2007; Ford et al., 2018; Pico et al., 2020). Many studies focus on the need for in-431 stitutional change (Ahmed, 2012), and the fractionation factor provides a quantitative 432 metric that can be used to assess institutional change. These quantitative studies are 433 important because perceptions of composition of the faculty are biased, with studies show-434 ing that men are more likely than women to believe that representation is equal between 435 men and women (Popp et al., 2019; Giakoumi et al., 2021). 436

The fractionation factors of ≈ 1 may suggest that recent gender equity policies and 437 programs are beginning to improve the outlook for gender representation in the geosciences. 438 The National Science Foundation (NSF)'s ADVANCE program, has funded programs 439 across the United States and has produced research with demonstrated impacts on the 440 recruitment and retention of women in the sciences (Holmes, 2015). Other funded pro-441 grams, such as the NSF Aspire project, which developed a model that helps institutions 442 understand the causes of inequities and develop solutions (Griffin, 2020), and Atmospheric 443 Science Collaborations and Enriching Networks (ASCENT), a series of workshops for 444

women in atmospheric sciences (Hallar et al., 2015), have tackled similar problems. Organizations such as the Earth Science Women's Network (Adams et al., 2016), Society
for Women in Marine Science, GeoLatinas, and the Association for Women Geoscientists provide mentorship and networking opportunities for women in the geosciences.

Progress has not always been consistent. A detailed study of the career trajecto-449 ries of men and women graduates in physical oceanography from the six largest oceano-450 graphic institutions from 1980-2009 revealed inconsistent progress with more equal hir-451 ing of women and men into tenure track positions in the period 1980-1996 than in the 452 period 1996-2009 (Thompson et al., 2011). This strongly suggests that the representa-453 tion of women at higher ranks is not solely due representation among graduate students, 454 but instead to factors at play during hiring and promotion. It is important to continue 455 monitoring faculty diversity and differential attrition with respect to both race and gen-456 der to ensure that any progress is maintained. 457

Research into practices that alleviate bias and inequity have proposed ways insti-458 tutions and individuals may contribute to resolving inequitable cultures and institutional 459 practices, including ways to reframe diversity conversations (Keisling et al., 2020), pro-460 moting inclusivity in fieldwork (Carabajal & Atchison, 2020), and creating specific poli-461 cies within institutions (National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineer-462 ing, 2007a; Dutt, 2015). Many of these practices have been shown in programs, such as 463 ADVANCEGeo, a geoscience focused grant from the NSF ADVANCE Program, to be 464 effective at improving retention (Holmes et al., 2015). The National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, and Institute of Medicine outlined the systemic in-466 equities that lay at the foundation of academic institutions and presented recommen-467 dations in line with the studies cited here, including addressing inequities in hiring and 468 promotion, ensuring equity of faculty search processes, and reviewing tenure practices 469 (National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, 2007b). Further, there 470 are several edited volumes and special issues summarizing lessons learned from programs 471 such as NSF ADVANCE, including suggestions for structural change (Rosser & Chameau, 472 2006; Stewart & Valian, 2018; Furst-Holloway & Miner, 2019; Laursen & Austin, 2020). 473

Many of these programs are created and sustained by women and people of color. 474 While these programs are creating positive change, they are also putting an undue bur-475 den on those most at risk from institutional bias (Harris, 2013). Furthermore, these re-476 sults do not mean that diversity initiatives are working for all groups. Those most af-477 fected by the problem may have clearer ideas about solutions. Men and women have sys-478 tematically different perceptions of the most effective responses to gender bias (Giakoumi 479 et al., 2021). Some solutions that are designed to alleviate inequities faced by women, 480 such as parental leave, may not have the intended effect depending on the implementa-481 tion (Antecol et al., 2018). There is also overwhleming evidence that programs intended 482 to alleviate gender bias primarily benefit white women, revealing the need for intersec-483 tional approaches. Affirmative action is one example of a structural program that pre-484 dominantly benefited white women rather than people of color. White women are not 485 consistently in solidarity with women of color. For example, white women have been lead-486 ing voices in dismantling affirmative action over the past few decades (Hall, 2016). This 487 study focuses on women and does not have the data to discuss race, ability, gender iden-488 tity, or sexual orientation, among other factors. Furthermore, given the racial makeup 489 of the geosciences (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018), this data likely reflects progression 490 for white women only. Current studies (e.g. Bernard and Cooperdock (2018)) show that 491 even when the representation of white women increases, this does not suggest that in-492 stitutions have becomes unbiased nor that equity with respect to race or other marginal-493 ization has improved. 494

⁴⁹⁵ Moving beyond gender and the gender binary

In this study, we consider only two genders: man and woman. The gender binary 496 does not accurately and completely represent gender diversity due to the exclusion of 497 those outside of the binary. Studies, most notably (Rasmussen et al., 2019) and (Strauss 498 et al., 2020), have discussed the harm that the continued exclusion of non-binary scien-499 tists from studies of gender inequities does to those who identify outside of the gender 500 binary, including the psychological harm that comes from misgendering and the harm 501 that comes from overlooking the ways in which non-binary scientists are discriminated. 502 Focusing on the gender binary neglects the complex ways in which institutional gender-503 based discrimination operates. Based on the data presented here showing that fewer than 504 25 geoscience faculty at the 62 institutions we studied use non-binary pronouns on in-505 stitutional websites, this study suggests that there may be significant lack of represen-506 tation of non-binary geoscientists or that non-binary geoscientists do not feel safe or com-507 fortable presenting as such within their department or both. Either of these interpre-508 tations implies systematic discrimination against scientists who identify outside of the 509 gender binary and a culture in geosciences that is not inclusive to all gender identities, 510 concerns which are supported by (Rasmussen et al., 2019) and (Strauss et al., 2020). 511

More studies need to be done to understand the full diversity of gender identity 512 in the geosciences. (Rasmussen et al., 2019) and (Strauss et al., 2020) recommend broad-513 ening studies of gender diversity and gender-based inequities beyond simply quantita-514 tive studies, as these often exclude scientists outside of the binary. In addition to the 515 need for further qualitative work on gender, our results support the necessity for organ-516 izations to lead formal, inclusive data-gathering that is done in conjunction with social 517 scientists and in which gender is identified based on self-identification (Rasmussen et al., 518 2019; Strauss et al., 2020). 519

This study focuses on the inequities with respect to gender, which is information 520 that is readily available and collectable. However, as we look towards advancing the in-521 clusivity and diversity of the geosciences, we must ensure that systems to address inequities 522 are focused on more than one group. There are dramatic inequities with regard to race 523 in the geosciences, including lasting marginalization of Black, Indigenous, and Latinx sci-524 entists (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018). Studies have shown that there are further inequities 525 rooted in cultural and systematic problems with respect to mentoring, education, ser-526 vice burden, and many other factors (Thomas et al., 2007; Zambrana et al., 2015; Brun-527 sma et al., 2017; Jimenez et al., 2019; Dutt, 2020). As early as 1978, June Bacon-Bercy 528 pointed out that for the representation of Black meteorologists to reach population par-529 ity, the rates of Black students earning bachelors degrees would need to increase dramat-530 ically, emphasizing our social obligation to take action to overcome discrimination and 531 marginalization (Bacon-Bercey, 1978). Certainly these inequities affect the faculty body 532 of, and the practice of, the geosciences. 533

Further, considering gender alone ignores the ways in which marginalized identi-534 ties intersect. People who experience multiple types of marginalization have experience 535 and outcomes that cannot by understood as the result of discrete forms of discrimina-536 tion (Crenshaw, 1989). For example, in the New Zealand professoriate, Maori and Pa-537 cific women have lower salaries than non-Maori and Pacific men while there is no sig-538 nificant salary difference for Maori and Pacific men (McAllister et al., 2020). Survey re-539 sults show that women of color in astronomy experience higher rates of sexual harrass-540 ment than white women do and that more women of color than white women in STEM 541 report feeling unsafe on campus because of their gender (Clancy et al., 2017; National 542 543 Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, Policy and Global Affairs, Committee on Women in Science, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018). The disparities in repre-544 sentation of women of color are almost surely much larger than those presented in this 545 study. Recent studies have begun to build an intersectional framework to address the 546 ways in which race, class, gender, ability, and other marginalized identities interact with 547

each other in the context of STEM (Metcalf et al., 2018) and a desired direction for future research and interventions is to engage with intersectional frameworks to provide

a complete understanding of the ways in which institutional inequities persist.

551 Implications

This study quantifies the gender diversity of tenured and tenure-track faculty in 552 the geosciences using information from 62 colleges and universities in the United States. 553 We determine that women remain under-represented in the faculty body of geoscience 554 departments ($\sim 27\%$ of all faculty) and the disparity increases with increasing rank in 555 academia and varies with geoscience discipline. We reframe this phenomenon in which 556 under-representation increases at higher levels of the academic hierarchy in terms of a 557 fractionation factor, which here quantifies the inequitable attrition of women. We show 558 significant attrition of women across the geosciences, though this has decreased in re-559 cent years when considering the geosciences as a whole. Additionally, we show that con-560 tinued hiring at a 1:1 ratio is necessary to ensure reaching gender parity across all ranks 561 of professorship. These results suggest that despite a number of initiatives, tenure and 562 promotion processes within geoscience departments may still have institutional inequities 563 and implicit biases that result in a disproportionate attrition of women. 564

While gender diversity has improved at the assistant professor and associate pro-565 fessor stage, the representation of women at the full professor rank is increasing far more 566 slowly, at least partially because faculty stay in the full professor stage for many decades. 567 Full professorships bring with them a significant amount of power and influence, both 568 over internal policies within departments and institutions and also within society. The 569 expertise of full professors tends to be most valued due to their rank and full professors 570 are generally influential in hiring decisions. Further, this has implications for the gen-571 der pay gap, since salaries increase with rank and thus women on average make less than 572 men in academia (Newman, 2014). Thus, under-representation at this stage may per-573 petuate inequities. Accelerating change at higher ranks and otherwise ameliorating the 574 present gendered power differentials is critical to ensuring a just future for the geosciences. 575

Importantly, the fractionation factor pushes for accountability within institutions 576 and systems for the biases and cultures that lead to higher fractionation of women into 577 other paths of work. As addressed in the discussion section, there are a number of pro-578 grams and implementation strategies focused on institutional and cultural changes that 579 are needed alongside a continued 1:1 ratio hiring to ensure recruitment and retention of 580 women (Holmes, 2015; Bocher et al., 2020; Carabajal & Atchison, 2020; Griffin, 2020; 581 Marín-Spiotta et al., 2020). However, many of the existing programs and studies focus 582 on the retention and recruitment of white women (Liu et al., 2019), and moving forward 583 an intersectional lens must be put on diversity programs to ensure that racial diversity, 584 diversity with respect to ability, sexual orientation, among others, are incorporated. In-585 vesting in programs dedicated to fixing institutional sexism, racism, and inequities, such 586 as those funded by NSF ADVANCE, is critical if we are to adequately consider the in-587 stitutional barriers that uniquely exist for those with intersectional identities. Continued research on the role that biases and systemic inequities have in hiring and retention 589 processes is needed, and as programs are instituted to combat these inequities, assess-590 ments of their success and failure is important. 591

⁵⁹² Our methods of data collection are neither exhaustive across the field, inclusive of ⁵⁹³ intersectional identities, nor sustainable. Institutions, associations, and foundations should ⁵⁹⁴ continue to improve data collection and transparency so that work like this can be ex-⁵⁹⁵ panded on to include an intersectional and gender inclusive lens (Langin, 2020) and hold ⁵⁹⁶ the field accountable to the biases and inequities that continue to persist.

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- ures are openly available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4749665 and https://github 604 .com/lfreese/women_geosci. 605
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Supporting Information for "Gender Diversity Among Tenured and Tenure-Track Geoscience Faculty"

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Contents of this file

- 1. Text S1
- 2. Figure S1
- 3. Table S1
- 4. Table S2
- 5. Table S3

Introduction

Text S1: Institutional Factors. We consider the effect that gender proportions at one level of the academic hierarchy may have on the gender proportions of another level. We compare the gender composition of the faculty during the 2019-2020 academic year to the gender composition of graduate students obtained from the NSF graduate student survey for 2018 and 2019. At a given institution, there is a weak correlation between the percent

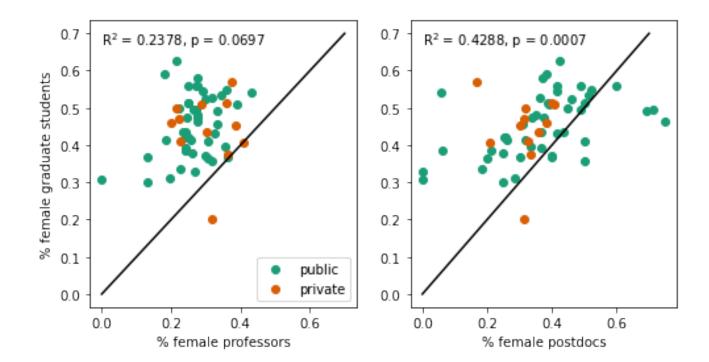
May 11, 2021, 3:48pm

of faculty who are female and the percent of graduate students who are female (Figure S1). While no causative statements can be made based on this correlation, it appears that institutions with a higher percentage of female professors are not more likely to have a higher percentage of female graduate students at an instant in time. This may be either because the assumption that diversity attracts diversity is not always applicable or may be because the typical percentages of female faculty are not high enough to attract more female students.

For nearly every institution we considered, there are more women at the graduate student level than at the faculty level. The percentage of graduate students ranges from $\sim 30\%$ to $\sim 60\%$, while the percentage of female professors ranges from $\sim 0\%$ to $\sim 40\%$. The proportions of female faculty do not differ significantly between private and public institutions.

There are also more women graduate students at a given institution than women postdocs. Additionally, there are more women postdocs than women faculty at any given institution on average. This suggests a systematic attrition of women at each stage of the academic process (from graduate student to postdoctoral associate to tenure-track faculty member). There is a strong correlation between the number of women postdocs and the number of women graduate students at a given institution. This may result from graduate students becoming postdocs at the same institution or with other institutional factors related to support for early career women.

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Figure S1. Correlations between academic ranks Comparison of percent female faculty in 2020 with percent female graduate students in 2017 and 2018 from the graduate student survey at each institution we consider. The color of the data point shows whether an institution is public or private.

Universities and Departm	Department		
Arizona State University	School of Earth and Space Exploration		
Brown University	Department of Earth, Environmental, and Planetary Sciences		
California Institute of Technology	Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences		
College of William & Mary	Department of Geology		
Colorado School of Mines	Department of Geology and Geological Engineering		
	Department of Geophysics		
Colorado State University	Department of Atmospheric Science		
	Department of Geosciences		
Columbia University	Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences		
Cornell University	Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences		
Florida State University	Department of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Science		
Georgia Institute of Technology	School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences		
Harvard University	Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences		
Indiana University, Bloomington	Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences		
Johns Hopkins University	Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences		
Louisiana State University	Department of Geology and Geophysics		
	Department of Oceanography & Coastal Sciences		
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences		
North Carolina State University	Department of Marine, Earth, and Atmospheric Sciences		
Ohio State University	School of Earth Sciences		
	Department of Geography		
Oregon State University	College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences		
Pennsylvania State University	Department of Meteorology and Atmospheric Science		
	Department of Geosciences		
Princeton University	Program in Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences		
	Department of Geosciences		
Purdue University	Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences		
Rice University	Department of Earth, Environmental and Planetary Sciences		
Rutgers University	Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences		
Stanford University	Department of Earth System Science		
	Department of Geological Sciences		
	Department of Geophysics		
Stony Brook University	Department of Geosciences		
	School of Marine and Atmospheric Sciences		
Texas A&M University	Department of Atmospheric Sciences		
	Department of Geography		
	Department of Geology and Geophysics		
	Department of Oceanography		

 Table S1.
 Universities and Departments Studied

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Department
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vdrology and Atmospheric Scie
of Earth and Planetary Science
f Farth And Planetary Science

 Table S1.
 Universities and Departments Studied

University	Department		
University of Alaska, Fairbanks	Department of Geosciences		
University of Albany, SUNY	Department of Atmospheric and Environmental Sciences		
University of Arizona	Department of Geosciences		
	Department of Hydrology and Atmospheric Sciences		
University of California, Berkeley	Department of Earth and Planetary Science		
University of California, Davis	Department Of Earth And Planetary Sciences		
-	Department of Land, Air, Water Resources		
University of California, Los Angeles	Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences		
•	Department of Earth, Planetary, and Space Sciences		
University of California, Santa Barbara	Department of Earth Science		
•	Department of Geography		
University of California, Santa Cruz	Earth and Planetary Sciences		
University of California, San Diego	Scripps Institution of Oceanography		
University of Chicago	Department of the Geophysical Sciences		
University of Colorado, Boulder	Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences		
- 0 .	Department of Geological Sciences		
University of Delaware	Department of Earth Sciences		
- · · · ·	Department of Geography and Spatial Sciences		
	School of Marine Science & Policy		
University of Hawaii, Manoa	Department of Earth Sciences		
····· ··· · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Department of Oceanography		
University of Houston	Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences		
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign	Department of Atmospheric Science		
	Department of Geography and Geographic Information Scie		
	Department of Geology		
University of Iowa	Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences		
University of Kansas	Department of Geography & Atmospheric Science		
Oniversity of Francisco	Department of Geography & Atmospheric Science Department of Geology		
University of Maryland, College Park	Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Science		
	Department of Renospheric and Oceanic Science Department of Geology		
University of Miami	Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science		
University of Michigan	Department of Climate and Space Sciences and Engineerin		
0 111 (01010) 01 1.1000	Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences		
University of Minnesota, Twin Cities	Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences		
Oniversity of minineseta, 1	Department of Soil, Water, and Climate		
University of Nevada, Reno	Department of Son, Water, and Chinate Department of Geography		
University of revolution, rooms	Department of Geological Sciences and Engineering		
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	Department of Geological Sciences and Engineering Department of Geography		
University of therein Caronica, Chap a 22	Department of Geological Sciences		
University of Oklahoma, Norman	School of Geosciences		
Oniversity of Oktonomic, Forman	School of Meteorology		
University of Rhode Island	Department of Geosciences		
Oniversity of renout maine	Graduate School of Oceanography		
	Graduate School of SceansBrashy		
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University	Department
University of Southern California	Department of Earth Sciences
University of South Carolina	School of Earth, Ocean, and Environment
University of South Florida	School of Geosciences
University of Texas, Austin	Jackson School of Geosciences
University of Texas, Dallas	Department of Geosciences
University of Utah	Department of Atmospheric Sciences
	Department of Geology and Geophysics
University of Washington	Department of Atmospheric Sciences
	Department of Earth and Space Sciences
	Department of Oceanography
University of Wisconsin, Madison	Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences
	Department of Geosciences University of Wyoming
	Department of Geology and Geophysics
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University	Department of Geography
	Department of Geosciences
Yale University	Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences

Table S1.	Universities and	d Departments Studied
Table 51.	Chiversities and	a Departments Studied

 Table S2.
 Percentage of Women by Rank and Subdiscipline

Subdiscipline	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Full Professor
Geobiology	54	50	27
Biogeochemistry	59	45	25
Geochemistry	58	40	22
Glaciology	40	42	20
Marine Geology	0	66	27
Geology	46	30	19
Geophysics	37	30	18
Geomorphology	33	31	11
Total Earth Science	51	38	21
Paleoceanography	71	12	38
Chemical Oceanography	55	45	25
Biological Oceanography	48	55	26
Physical Oceanography	37	29	15
Marine Biology	75	0	22
Total Ocean Science	50	40	22
Atmospheric Chemistry	25	41	22
Atmospheric Dynamics	40	30	14
Total Atmospheric Science	38	33	17
Planetary Science	46	40	17

 Table S3.
 Percentage of Women by Rank and Subdiscipline for Subdisciplines Not Presented

in the Main Text			
Subdiscipline (# Faculty)	Assistant Professor	Associate Professor	Full Professor
Climate Dynamics (172)	48	27	13
Ecology (191)	52	51	25
Education (15)	100	100	10
GIS/Engineering(61)	37	30	14
Hydrology (167)	48	31	20
Impacts (108)	51	37	30
Land Surface Processes (12)	33	0	25
Paleobiology (20)	33	33	27
Paleontology (51)	60	12	13
Resource Management (34)	71	27	25
Sustainability (35)	50	14	25