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# **Not Enough: Efforts to Diversify Biogeosciences Benefit Limited Segment of Society**

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## **Key Points:**

- AGU Biogeosciences members and Fall Meeting attendees include more women on average than in the society and Fall Meeting overall.
- Biogeoscience manuscript submissions (73%) and invited reviewers (69%) are dominated by geoscientists identifying as men
- White geoscientists enjoy higher acceptance rates (66%), submit more manuscripts (77%), and receive the most reviewer invites (85%)

## 21 **Abstract**

22 We examined data from the American Geophysical Union (AGU), the world's largest earth and  
23 space science society, to characterize cohort demographics of multiple milestones in a  
24 biogeoscientists' career. Geoscientists of color and White women make up a smaller proportion  
25 of those participating in activities critical to transitioning from student to professional  
26 (submitting manuscripts, getting published, and being asked to review) in comparison to White  
27 men. However, gender parity for biogeoscientists appears within reach at earlier career stages,  
28 with 37% AGU Biogeosciences members and 41% of Biogeosciences attendees at the Fall  
29 Meeting identifying as women in 2020. Unfortunately, data is lacking to make the same  
30 assessment for geoscientists of color. A large proportion of manuscripts are submitted by men  
31 (73%), many of which have no co-authors that identify as women or non-binary geoscientists,  
32 which likely points to inequitable resources and a greater service burden for scientists from  
33 historically excluded groups. Further, our communities' bias of *who* we suggest as reviewers  
34 results in 85% of the reviewer invites going to White geoscientists and 63% going to men. Thus,  
35 while representation of diverse communities has improved in some areas, barriers to publishing  
36 results in journals not reflecting society: 25% and 22% of manuscripts were led by or included  
37 non-White geoscientists, respectively, and fewer than 5% and 7% were led by or included non-  
38 White, women geoscientists, respectively. Therefore, in sectors like academia where publishing  
39 remains critical for advancement, this process represents a significant obstacle for  
40 biogeoscientists not already part of the majority.

## 41 **Plain Language Summary**

42 The geosciences remain one of the least diverse STEM fields. We use data from the American  
43 Geophysical Union (AGU), the largest scientific society for earth and space scientists, to  
44 characterize the demographics of scientists participating in scientific publication and conference  
45 activities, which represent milestones in their career. We used information provided on  
46 biogeoscientists' gender, race and/or ethnicity, and age to illustrate greater representation trends  
47 reached early in one's career (attending a scientific meeting), at career development transitions  
48 points (publishing), and in the later more established phase of one's career (invitation to peer  
49 review). We found that while the gender gap between people that identify as men and those that  
50 identify as women is closing at early career milestones, like that of AGU membership and  
51 conference attendance, we do not see this same progress at more advanced career milestones,  
52 such as publishing and reviewing. Importantly, we were limited in our ability to draw  
53 conclusions about race and ethnicity given a scarcity of representation from ethnically or racially  
54 diverse groups. However, we can conclude that biogeoscientists from historically excluded and  
55 marginalized groups continue to be underestimated and overlooked during the peer-review  
56 publishing process.

57

## 58 **1 Introduction**

59 The founder of modern biogeochemistry, Ukrainian scientist Vladimir Vernadsky (1926  
60 *Biosphere*) envisioned the Earth as three spheres: the abiotic sphere, biosphere, and the *Nöesis*,  
61 or the sphere of human cognitive process. We all acknowledge the outsized impact that humans  
62 apply to the Earth's biogeochemical cycles, [e.g. our activities have tripled the amount of  
63 reactive nitrogen cycling within the Earth system (Galloway et al. 2021)]. In contrast, fewer of us  
64 explore the role our identities play in studying these cycles (i.e., *Nöesis*). While the scientific

65 method may be unbiased, the questions we ask are influenced by personal experience and a  
66 historical lack of diversity in our field limits the array of questions asked. The last five years of  
67 social reckoning has forced the (bio)geoscience community to ask ourselves, why? The limited  
68 demographic data we have repeatedly points to little progress for geoscientists from undervalued  
69 and excluded groups (Bernard & Cooperdock 2018; Raganathan et al. 2021). Evidence points  
70 towards the need to create a more inclusive and just work environment (Purrrity et al 2017;  
71 Zambrana 2019; Sanin 2020; Marin-Spiotta et al. 2023) and to move beyond legal mandates  
72 (NASEM 2018; Clancy et al. 2020), if we want our field to be a space where all thrive and push  
73 the frontier of innovation (Hofstra et al. 2020; Nielsen et al. 2017).

74 Representation matters, yet our field has failed to make adequate progress. The  
75 geosciences “remain staunchly segregated” (Morris & Washington 2017), lagging behind other  
76 STEM fields with respect to racial and ethnic diversity (Dutt 2020) and remaining nearly  
77 unchanged over the last forty years (Bernard & Cooperdock 2018). While White women have  
78 seen recent gains within the field, they too remain underrepresented, especially in leadership  
79 positions. Only 27% of faculty at doctorate granting universities identify as women, with their  
80 representation falling with rank from 46% of assistant professors to 19% of full professors  
81 (Ranganathan et al. 2021). Demographics by race are more dire, with those identifying as Asian,  
82 Black, and Hispanic constituting just 12%, 7%, and 6% of the academic workforce, respectively  
83 (Gonzales & Keane 2020).

84 The attrition of women identifying scientists and/or scientists of color across career  
85 milestones, and across STEM fields, is well documented (e.g. Sarraju et al. 2023, Ysseldyk et al.  
86 2019); a pattern commonly referred to as the “leaky pipeline.” However, this analogy is fraught  
87 with assumptions (Tajmel 2019). In particular, it places the burden on the individual (i.e., the  
88 droplets) instead of the cracked system (i.e. problems inherent to the scientific enterprise).  
89 Recently, Berhe and colleagues (2022) helped reframe the leaky pipeline as a “hostile obstacle  
90 course” to explicitly acknowledge the systemic biases inherent in the geosciences (and STEM  
91 more broadly). The (bio)geosciences, like many other fields, have their origin within Western  
92 academic scientific organizations, rooted in extractivist, colonial, and imperialist enterprises  
93 (Wynn-Grant 2019; Trisos et al. 2021), leaving legacies that vary from discriminatory  
94 stereotypes, unspoken cultural norms, and unsafe power dynamics (Bailey et al. 2020; Smith &  
95 Griffiths 2022; Marin-Spiotta et al. 2020). Recent studies illustrate the impact of these legacies:  
96 scientists who are members of historically excluded groups disproportionately experience  
97 negative workplaces in both the geosciences (Marin-Spiotta et al. 2023) and ecological sciences  
98 (Primack et al. 2023). These exclusionary practices, especially at the highest ranked institutions,  
99 perpetuates the status quo (Ali & Prasad 2021) of who a geoscientist is and what a geoscientist  
100 looks like.

101 In this invited paper, on this occasion of the 20th Anniversary of *Journal of Geophysical*  
102 *Research - Biogeosciences*, we ask: where is our field with respect to generating “the broadest  
103 possible community spanning a full spectrum of scientific thought, including those who may not  
104 currently engage therein” (Xenopoulos et al. 2022)? Or, in other words, where are we succeeding  
105 and where are we continuing to fail? We focus on biogeosciences, but draw on literature from  
106 geoscience and ecology more broadly. We use data from the American Geophysical Union  
107 (AGU) databases to examine Biogeosciences Section membership, conference attendance, and  
108 the publishing process to represent different points within the hostile obstacle course (Berhe et al  
109 2022) for biogeoscientists. Based on these data, we aim to provide snapshots of the inclusivity of

110 a selection of activities (e.g. opportunities to network, present one's work, publish, etc.) critical  
111 to fueling a scientist's ability to remain and succeed in the field. This data, in conjunction with a  
112 brief literature review, point to the many barriers that persist within the (bio)geosciences,  
113 especially for scientists of color, despite the efforts to diversify our field. Thus, we conclude with  
114 a summary of available resources created by fellow geoscientists that, if adopted broadly, would  
115 signify important steps forward by our collective community.

## 116 **2 Materials & Methods**

### 117 **2.1 Data**

118 Using American Geophysical Union (AGU) membership data, Fall Meeting  
119 attendance, and publication submissions and the paired demographic data, we analyze  
120 trends within our research community of biogeosciences to better understand progress  
121 and barriers towards diversifying our field. For all quantitative analyses, we used  
122 anonymized data from the membership, conference attendance, and publication databases  
123 of the AGU, which is the largest earth and space scientific society. The membership data  
124 includes self-identified gender (with options being male, female, non-binary, or  
125 unknown), and age (as defined by date of birth). Fall Meeting attendance data includes  
126 self-identified gender (with the same options as the membership data) and age cohort  
127 (e.g., 20s, 30s, 40s, etc.). Membership and attendance data also include the individual's  
128 primary and secondary affiliations within the society. Publication data offers the most  
129 detailed demographic data of biogeoscientist authors and reviewers, including self-  
130 identified or GenderAPI determined gender (with four options: man; woman; non-binary,  
131 genderqueer, or Two-Spirit; or prefer not to answer), race/ethnicity (Table S1), and age  
132 (as defined by date of birth upon submission). GenderAPI calculated 32.4% of the gender  
133 data provided by AGU and has been found to be the most accurate of similar tools (Sebo  
134 2021). Reviewer demographic characteristics are the same as authors in these data,  
135 although reviewer's self-identified gender options included non-binary and genderqueer  
136 as separate options.

137 AGU membership and Fall Meeting attendance data allows us to characterize groups of  
138 scientists at two, typically early, points in their careers: membership within a scientific  
139 society and attending a scientific conference. The AGU then is able to match their  
140 membership data on over 110,000 scientists with anonymized author and reviewer data.  
141 This merged data set approach was successfully utilized in several past analyses  
142 examining the role of identity (Hanson et al. 2020; Lerback & Hanson 2017; Lerback et  
143 al. 2020) and COVID-19 (Wooden & Hanson 2022) on the publishing process. Here, we  
144 use similar data sets to characterize two additional milestones in a biogeoscientist's  
145 career: publication of a peer reviewed paper and being asked to serve as a reviewer.

#### 146 **2.1.1 AGU membership data**

147 We obtained anonymized AGU membership data for 2015 through 2020. Each  
148 member data point is identified via a unique "Record ID" that is paired with gender, age,  
149 age cohort, primary and secondary affiliation, member type (i.e., regular, life, associate,  
150 student, or Berkner), member status (i.e., active or arrears), and year of membership.

151 2.1.2 AGU Fall Meeting data

152 We obtained anonymized AGU Fall Meeting attendance data for 2012-2022. The  
153 data provided were summarized by year, gender, primary affiliation, age cohort, and  
154 country of origin (e.g., 432 attendees in 2022 identified as men from the United States in  
155 the Hydrology section). A very small fraction (<0.01%) of attendees provided none of  
156 this information.

157 2.1.3 AGU Journal data

158 For the bibliometric analyses, we were provided nine years (2012-2021) of data  
159 from AGU's two biogeoscience-focused journals: *Journal of Geophysical Research -*  
160 *Biogeosciences (JGR-B)* and *Global Biogeochemical Cycles (GBC)*. These journal's  
161 impact factors were 5 and 7.1 in 2023, respectively ([Research.net](https://www.research.net)). Both JGR-B and  
162 GBC, like all AGU journals, use a single-blind peer review process, where reviewers and  
163 editors know the names of the manuscript's authors, but the authors typically do not  
164 know the identities of their reviewers.

165 The anonymized data obtained from AGU included substantial information on the  
166 submission (i.e., submission date, author count, first and final decision dates, number of  
167 revisions, final decision, counts of authors by gender, and counts of final reviewers).  
168 These data were separated in two manners: one, by author key to separate individual  
169 authors by first, corresponding, or contributing author and two, by manuscript ID to  
170 group all authors or reviewers on a single paper. As stated above, these authorship and  
171 reviewer data sets included gender, age at submission, and race/ethnicity data. To  
172 simplify all analyses, 2.6% of data were removed due to indeterminate decisions (i.e., NA  
173 or withdrawn).

174 From 2012 to 2021, 6640 manuscripts were submitted to the *JGR-B* and *GBC*. Of these  
175 submissions, 4600 (69.2%) manuscripts have the first authors' gender (man, woman,  
176 non-binary) identity. Of the manuscripts which have first authors' gender identity, 32.4%  
177 of these identities were derived from a commonly used gender parity index (GenderAPI).  
178 Self-reported and GenderAPI data were combined for all analyses unless otherwise  
179 stated. A far smaller subset of the 6640 manuscripts (22.4%) had information on authors'  
180 race and ethnicity, all of which was self-reported. The proportion of manuscripts with  
181 first-author gender and race or ethnicity data did not vary appreciably over time.

182 2.2 Analysis & Visualization

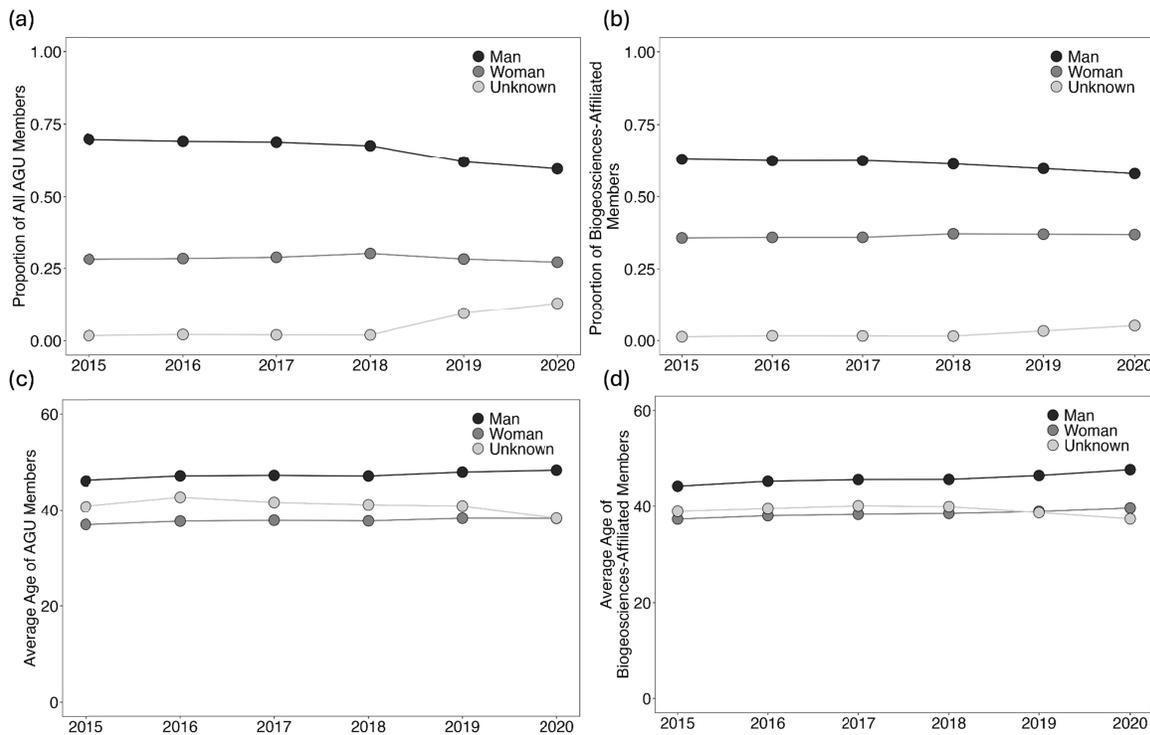
183 All data analyses and graphs were completed in the R Programming environment,  
184 Version 4.2.2 (R Core Team 2021). Due to the problem of small numbers for many of the  
185 geoscientist demographics, statistical analyses were not worthwhile. Further, we want to  
186 be transparent about the limitations of the datasets obtained, namely the lack of  
187 demographic information: for most members of the biogeoscience community  
188 represented herein, race and/or ethnicity information is missing (60-80%) and  
189 approximately 30% are missing gender information. We cannot assume geoscientists opt

190 out of providing this information uniformly, and therefore, we want to be careful when  
 191 interpreting small differences and choose to focus on overall patterns and trends.

192 **3 Results**

193 3.1 AGU membership data 2015-2020

194 On average, 60,190 scientists (min=58,857 in 2020, max=62,612 in 2019) were members  
 195 of AGU from 2015 to 2020. The highest membership numbers were in 2018 and 2019,  
 196 with membership shrinking by 2.5% from 2015 to 2020, likely due to the COVID-19  
 197 Pandemic. Over the same time period, the Biogeosciences members, as determined by  
 198 member-defined primary section affiliation, averaged 8,174 scientists (min=7,339 in  
 199 2020, max=8,406 in 2018) with highest membership rates in 2016 and 2018, decreasing  
 200 by 7% over the five year time period. In 2020, 12.5% of AGU members listed  
 201 Biogeosciences as their primary or secondary section affiliation, and this number  
 202 decreased from 13.9% in 2015 (Figure S1).



203 **Figure 1.** The gender diversity of (a) AGU membership and (b) AGU Biogeosciences section  
 204 membership from 2015-2020. AGU membership was greatest in 2019 (62,612 members) and has  
 205 remained disproportionately male (approximately 70%). The average age of (c) AGU members  
 206 and (d) AGU Biogeoscience members by gender. The “Unknown” category includes the  
 207 geoscientists who chose “other” as well as those without information.

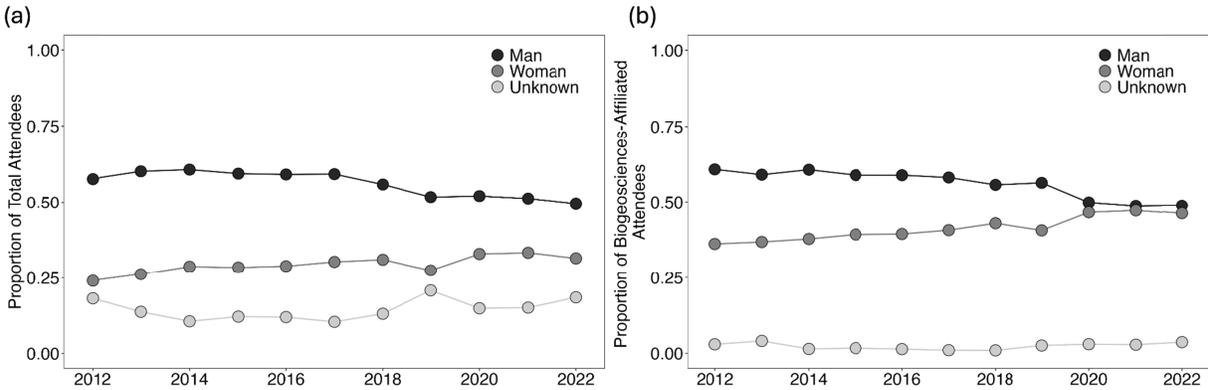
208 The biogeosciences as a field are interdisciplinary by definition, and the majority (81.6%)  
209 of members listing a secondary affiliation, as compared to the average of 72% of  
210 geoscientists at the meeting at large. The top secondary affiliations are Global  
211 Environmental Change (28.3%), Atmospheric Sciences (18.6%), and Earth and Planetary  
212 Surface Processes (10.3%). The top three primary sections for those who listed  
213 Biogeosciences as their secondary affiliation are Hydrology (21.4%), Atmospheric  
214 Sciences (17.4%), and Ocean Sciences (17.1%), which are also the three most populous  
215 sections within AGU.

216 In 2020, AGU membership was 59.6% men, 27.3% women, <1% non-binary, and 13.0%  
217 unknown, whereas membership with Biogeosciences as first or second affiliation was  
218 58.0% men, 36.9% women, <1% non-binary and 5.2% unknown. The gender diversity of  
219 the membership overall and in this section changed slightly over the five years of  
220 available data. The proportion of members identifying as men decreased steadily from  
221 70.0% and 63.9% in 2015 across all sections and the Biogeosciences, respectively, while  
222 the proportion of members identifying as women did not change (mean±sd=28.6%±1.0%  
223 across all sections and 36.4%±1% in the Biogeosciences) (Figure 1a,b). This disparity is  
224 likely described by an uptick in members of unknown gender, which peaked 2020. The  
225 average age of the AGU membership cohort slightly increased between 2015 (43.4 years)  
226 and 2020 (44.9 years). Similarly, the average age of those who choose biogeosciences as  
227 their primary or secondary affiliation increased from 41.6 to 44.3 years (mean±sd =  
228 43±0.9) (Figure 1c,d). However, it is worth noting that both at large and within the  
229 Biogeosciences section, members who identify as men are older than members who  
230 identify as women, on average (Figure 1c,d).

### 231 3.2 AGU Fall Meeting Attendance data 2012-2022

232 The number of attendees to the AGU Fall Meeting varied between 21,388 in 2012 and  
233 27,702 in 2018 over the decade of data, with an average of 24,019 attendees (Figure S2).  
234 The number of attendees affiliated with the Biogeosciences section varied similarly over  
235 the same time period, between 1,287 in 2012 and 1,801 in 2019 with an average of 1,582  
236 attendees (6.6% of attendees, Figure S2).

237 Over the entire time period, there was a greater proportion of Biogeoscience members  
238 who identified as women (41.4%) scientists as compared to all Fall Meeting attendees  
239 (29.4%) overall (Figure 2). The fraction of women, non-binary or gender-queer  
240 geoscientists attending the Fall Meeting increased over time, though the fraction of  
241 attendees identifying as non-binary or gender-queer remained less than 1% (Figure 2).  
242 The age distribution of Fall Meeting attendees shifted over time, with Biogeoscience  
243 members being younger, on average than other geoscientists at the meeting: scientists in  
244 their 20s and 30s were a greater proportion of conference attendees in 2022 (53.7% of all  
245 attendees, 63.5% of biogeoscience members) than 2012 (42.3% all, 52.8% biogeoscience  
246 members).



**Figure 2.** The gender diversity of (a) all AGU Fall Meeting attendees and (b) AGU Biogeosciences member attendees from 2012-2022. AGU Fall Meeting attendance averaged 24,019 attendees and was greatest in 2018 (27,702 attendees), with attendees disproportionately identifying as men. Attendees affiliated with the Biogeosciences section represent 6.6% of the total AGU attendees, and over the last two years (2020-2022) the section is approaching gender parity though less than 1% of attendees identify as non-binary or gender-queer. The “Unknown” category includes the geoscientists who chose “other” as well as those without information.

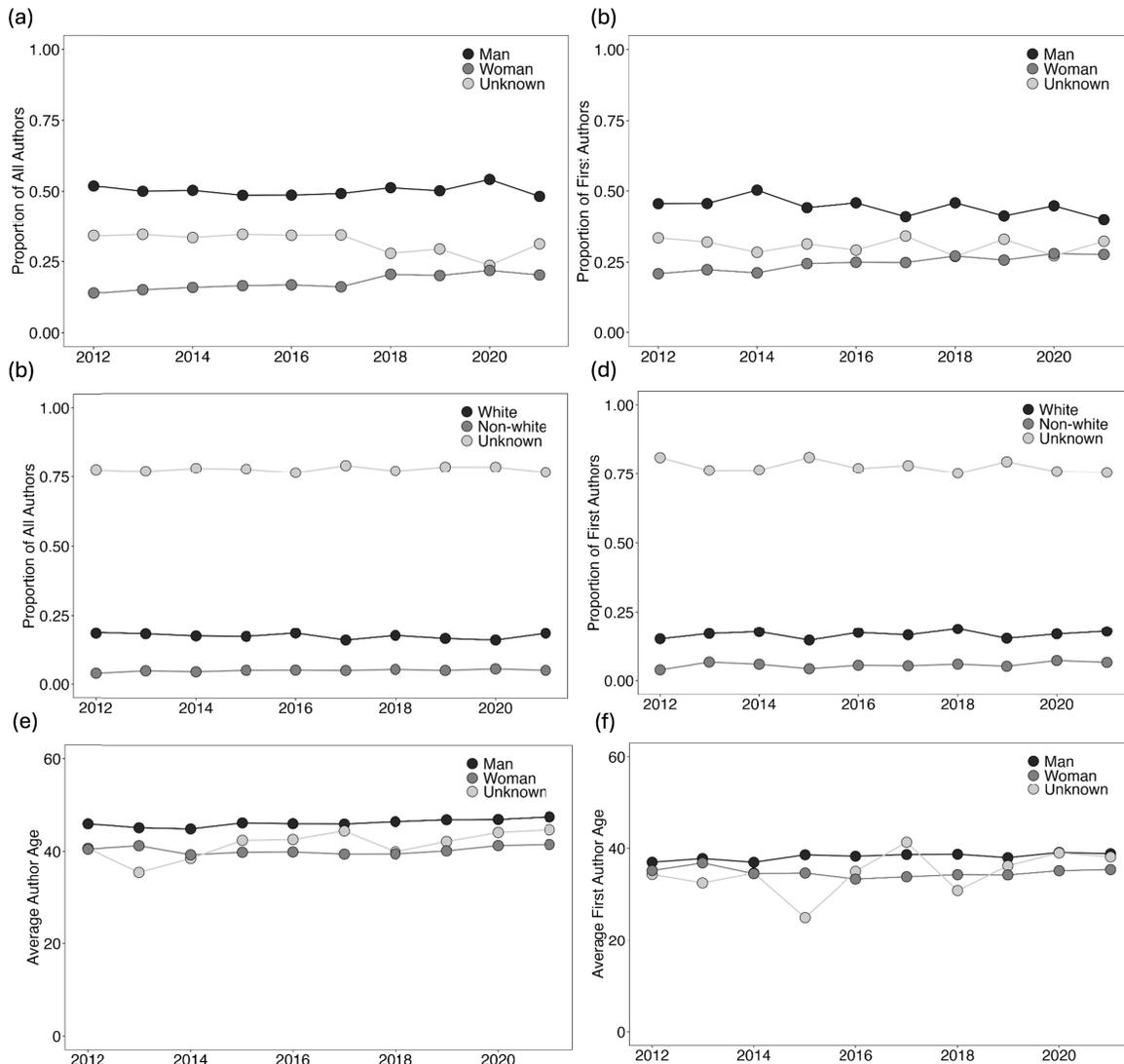
### 3.3 Manuscript submission data 2012-2021

The manuscripts involved over 40,000 authors, with 27,919 authors reporting their gender. Of these authors, 73% of these authors identify as men, 27% as women, with less than <1% identifying as non-binary. When examining only first-authors that reported their gender, 64% are men, 36% are women, and <1% non-binary. The proportion of women identifying authors (and first-authors) has increased over time (21.2% in 2012 to 29.9% in 2021 for women authors and 31.5% in 2012 to 40.0% in 2021 for women first-authors); still, the majority of manuscripts submitted to these two journals continue to be authored by men (Figure 3b).

Nearly three-quarters (74.4%) of submissions with self-reported race and ethnicity data had White scientists as first-author and White scientists made up 77% of authors of the submitted manuscripts (Figure 3e,f). First-authors who identify as Asian or Asian-American submitted 15.6%, Hispanic and Latinx submitted 6.8%, with first-authors who identify as Black, African, African-American, Middle Eastern, Indian, Indigenous, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander collectively submitted just over 3% of the manuscripts (Figure 3e,f). When examining intersectional identities of authors, White men submitted the largest proportion of manuscripts (43.9%), followed by White women (30.3%), Asian men (11.4%), Asian women (4.3%), Hispanic or Latino (3.6%), and Hispanic or Latina (3.2%), with all other identities submitting less than 1% of manuscripts’ received.

Across the 40,000 authors, 45% had age information. Approximately one-quarter (26%) of manuscripts were submitted by scientists between the age of 30 and 49 (or 58% of the authors with age data). Scientists between the ages of 50 and 69 made up 14% of the

280 author pool (31% of authors with age data). When examining first-author age data, a  
 281 large majority (88%) of manuscripts were submitted by geoscientists in their 30s.



282 **Figure 3.** The demographics of geoscientists who submitted a manuscript to *JGR-B* or *GBC*  
 283 from 2012-2022, including: gender of (a) all authors and (b) first-authors, race and ethnicity of  
 284 all authors and (d) first-authors, and the average age of (e) all authors and (f) first-authors.  
 285 The “Unknown” category includes the geoscientists who chose “other” or opt-ed out of the  
 286 voluntary reporting. Given the large fraction of geoscientists who did not provide race or  
 287 ethnicity it is difficult to interpret values overtime for each of the groups (Table S1), other than  
 288 to say that of the geoscientists who report, the majority of them identify as White.  
 289

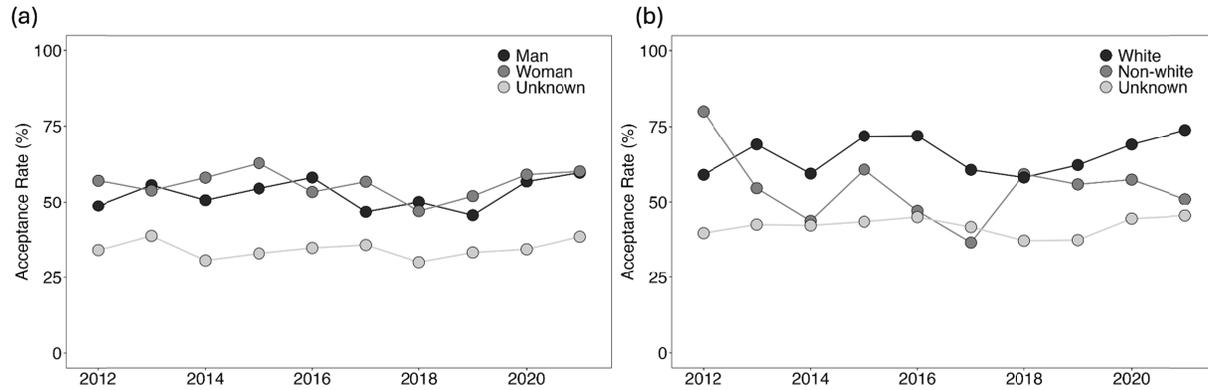
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 291  
 292  
 293  
 294 As interdisciplinary scientists, biogeochemists typically work in teams. Single author

295 papers were rare in JGR-B and GBC, making up <1% of submissions; the majority of  
296 these (64%) were submitted by men, with an additional 27% submitted by women, and  
297 8% by an author with an unknown gender identity. On average, 6 authors contributed to  
298 each paper, with the number of authors varying from 1 to 100. There was no difference in  
299 team size between papers with women first-authors versus men first-authors. Papers with  
300 more than 20 authors (<1% of submission) were more likely first-authored by a man  
301 (58%) than women (24%) or an author with an unknown gender identity (17%). Across  
302 the 2388 manuscripts where all authors' genders were identified, 31% had manuscripts  
303 with no women nor non-binary scientists, while only 3% of the manuscripts were  
304 authored by all-women teams. Of these manuscripts first-authored by men (n=1407),  
305 49% have women and/or non-binary authors included, while 64% of manuscripts first-  
306 authored by women or non-binary scientists (n=911) include additional women and/or  
307 non-binary scientists as authors.

### 308 309 3.4 Manuscript acceptance data 2012-2021

310 The average acceptance rate over the decade of submissions to JGR-B and GBC  
311 was 47.7%. Of those rejected, ~5% were rejected "and referred" [to another AGU  
312 journal] and 43% were rejected with "encouragement to resubmit." All forms of rejection  
313 are grouped together in our analyses, as the type of rejection did not vary by reviewer  
314 demographics. Based on reviewer response data, few manuscripts were accepted outright  
315 (1.3%), with the many of accepted manuscripts first receiving "major revisions" (13.5%)  
316 or "minor revisions" (14.1%) recommendations from the reviewers. Given that these  
317 values are calculated from individual reviewer responses and individual manuscripts do  
318 not get monolithic responses from the review community, we do not expect the values to  
319 add to 100%. It does point to the fact that handling editors are more likely to side with  
320 reviewers who suggest revision instead of outright rejection. Approximately 2.5% of the  
321 papers were withdrawn before review, these were not included in the analyses.

322  
323 Of the submissions with self-reported gender information, the overall acceptance rate was  
324 53.7%; if data from the GenderAPI are included in this analysis, the overall acceptance  
325 rate rises to 56%. Self-reported gender and GenderAPI are combined in all analyses  
326 moving forward unless otherwise noted. Acceptance rates were higher for papers with  
327 women-first authors (55.8%), than men (52.5%), both are significantly higher than papers  
328 led by authors with no gender data provided, i.e. the "unknowns" (34.3%) (Figure 4). The  
329 number of submissions by first-authors who identify as non-binary was not enough to  
330 reliably calculate an acceptance rate. There was no temporal trend to acceptance rates for  
331 any group.



**Figure 4.** The average acceptance rates for *JGR-B* or *GBC* from 2012-2022 by (a) gender of first-author and by (b) race and ethnicity of first-author. Women first-authors tend to have slightly higher manuscript acceptance rates as compared to men, while White first-authors have generally enjoyed higher acceptance rates than geoscientists of color (b).

Examining the 22% of submissions with self-reported race and ethnicity information, the acceptance rate varied between groups, with White/European first-authors enjoying a 66.9% acceptance rate as compared to a 54.6% and 53.1% acceptance rates for Asian/Asian-American and Hispanic/Latinx first-authors, respectively. The number of papers submitted by geoscientists who self-identified as Black, Middle Eastern, or Indigenous were too few to reliably calculate acceptance rates. The acceptance rate for first-authors without race or ethnicity data was the lowest of all groups at 43.1% (Figure 4). While numbers are too small in most instances to examine acceptance rates across intersectional identities, women of all races and ethnicities tended to have slightly higher acceptance rates than their male counterparts.

Of the 45% of submissions with self-reported age information, the acceptance rate averaged 56.4%. When examining acceptance rate across age and gender of the first-author, women in their 30s (60.1%) and men in their 60s (59.6%) enjoyed the greatest submission success. In general, women had slightly greater acceptance rates than men across age groups (Table S2). It should be noted that several of the gender-age identities did not have enough submissions ( $n < 20$ ) to provide acceptance rates without the possibility of identifying specific papers and authors.

Despite the higher rates of acceptance for manuscripts led by women identifying geoscientists, 46% of published papers in *JGR-B* and *GBC* are first-authored by men with over 78% of papers first-authored by White geoscientists. Only 22% of published manuscripts were led by non-White geoscientists, with fewer than 5% authored by non-White, women geoscientists.

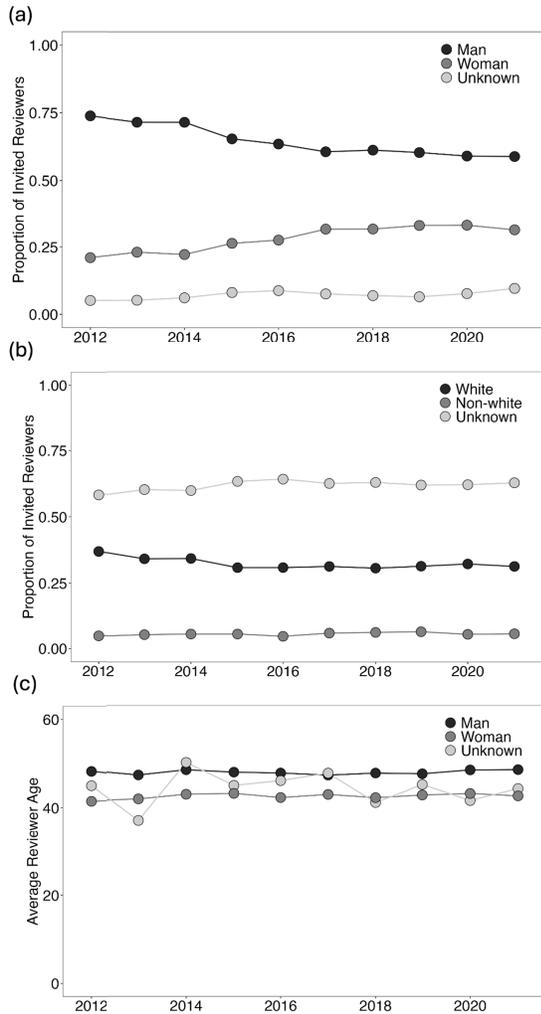
### 3.5 Invited reviewer data 2012-2021

364 Over 26,000 reviewers were invited to review the 6040 manuscripts between 2012-2021;  
365 on average, that is just over 4 reviewers per paper. Over 92% of reviewers provided their  
366 gender identity: approximately 64% of invited reviewers are men, 29% identify as  
367 women, <1% as non-binary, and 7% are unknown (Figure 5a). Approximately one-third  
368 of reviewers (37.6%) provided their race and/or ethnicity. Of the invited reviewers who  
369 provided this information, the vast majority of reviewers identify as White (85%), 9.6%  
370 of reviewers identifying as Asian or Asian-American, 3.6% as Latino, with scientists who  
371 identify as Black, Indigenous, Middle Eastern, and mixed race collectively making up  
372 approximately 2% of reviewers (Figure 5b). Reviewers had self-reported age information  
373 ~60% of the time: 18% of geoscientists were in their 30s, 20% in their 40s, 13% in their  
374 50s, and 7% in their 60s, when asked to review (Figure 5c, Table S3).

375  
376 In all age groups, women, non-binary, and gender-queer scientists made up a smaller  
377 proportion of invited reviewers than their male identifying counterparts. For example,  
378 women in their 40s and 50s made up 10.9% and 4.6% of the reviewer pool, respectively,  
379 compared to men of the same ages who made up 22 and 17% of the reviewer pool,  
380 respectively (Table S4).

381  
382 The average number of reviewers asked per manuscript did not appreciably change over  
383 the decade examined (mean±sd=5.1±0.26). However, the rate that scientists accepted  
384 reviewer assignments did change, with the proportion of invited reviewers accepting  
385 assignments generally decreasing from 2012 (44%) to 2021 (37%). The likelihood of  
386 scientists agreeing to complete the review did not vary by gender of the reviewer, as men  
387 and women agreed to review 39% of the time on average. Scientists of color tended to  
388 agree to review more often (46.9%) than their White counterparts (42.7%) with reviewers  
389 who identify as Black or African/African-American accepting the most often (54.2% of  
390 the time).

391  
392 Reviewer identity did not appear to have a large effect on reviewer decisions, with  
393 similar acceptance rates across reviewer gender, race or ethnicity, and age.  
394 Biogeoscientists who identify as women reject manuscripts 23.4% of the time while men  
395 reject 25% of manuscripts they reviewed (Table S5), both men, women and non-binary  
396 reviewers accepted manuscripts led by women or non-binary scientists more often than  
397 those led by men. White biogeoscientists reject 24% of manuscripts they reviewed, while  
398 biogeoscientists of color reject 26.5% of the manuscripts they reviewed. However, both  
399 White and reviewers of color rejected manuscripts led by authors of color more often  
400 than they rejected manuscripts led by White authors. On average, reviewers who rejected  
401 manuscripts outright (44.2) were younger than those who accepted them outright (46.4),  
402 while those who suggested major and minor revisions were 43.1 and 44.8, respectively.



403

404 **Figure 5.** The proportion of invited reviewers by (a) gender, (b) race and ethnicity, and (c) age  
 405 and gender from 2012-2022.

406

407 **4 Discussion**

408 Efforts to diversify the geoscience, and the STEM workforce more broadly, have focused  
 409 on recruitment and visibility, often neglecting the complex but necessary work required to retain  
 410 and advance individuals from marginalized groups (Allen-Ramdiel and Campbell 2014). This  
 411 focus on recruitment is likely compounded in fields like the geosciences that are “discovery  
 412 majors,” or majors that students rarely come to college to study. People from all backgrounds  
 413 interested in the earth and ecological sciences as their expertise are needed to address many of  
 414 our most pressing global challenges, from climate change to air pollution. However, as the AGU  
 415 data describing milestones in a scientist’s career illustrates, access is not granted equally or  
 416 equitably to all biogeoscientists. Thus, we need systemic changes to institutions that address  
 417 inequalities, create more inclusive climates, and advance a diversity of scientists (Lerback et al  
 418 2022).

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#### 4.1 The Hostile Obstacle Course

The proportion of women earning geoscience degrees has increased steadily over the last several decades, from 22.5% in 2005 to 46% 2019 of undergraduate degrees (Gonzales & Keane 2020). Concurrently, the fraction Bachelor’s degrees awarded to geoscientists from historically excluded groups increased threefold over the last two decades, to 15.7% (Gonzales & Keane 2020). However these same gains are not seen at the graduate level (Beane et al. 2021), geoscientists from historically excluded groups earning just 6.7% of doctorate degrees in the US with women identifying scientists earning 40% of geoscience PhDs (Gonzales & Keane 2020). As previously mentioned, the proportion of women in academic geoscience positions decreases with seniority, with few in leadership positions (Raganathan et al 2021). Similar patterns are present in the AGU data analyzed, with greater gender parity observed at the earlier milestones (women are ~37% of the Biogeosciences membership and 41% of conference attendance) in a biogeoscientist’s path as compared to later milestones: manuscript submission (women first-authors submit 25% of manuscripts), publication (29% of papers accepted by *GBC* or *JGR-B* are first-authored by women), and only 29% of reviewer invites go to women identifying geoscientist. Notably, these later activities are commonly done at the early career stage as one is making a name for themselves in the field and that represents advancement within academia. We note that academia is far from the only path (bio)geoscientist can follow (Bachelor et al. 2021); however, it is the sector we have the most insight into via the literature and our personal experiences. Unfortunately due to lack of data we can not make the same comparisons for biogeoscientists from historically excluded and marginalized groups.

One barrier to diversifying the biogeosciences or any STEM field is the lack of visible representation. A recent poll found that the majority (72%) of people in the U.S. cannot name a living scientist; of those who could name a scientist, only 2% named a woman (Jane Goodall) (Research!America 2021). Scientists are invisible to many and to those who are aware, the majority are White men (500 Women Scientists 2018). In countries where women have reached gender parity, these gender stereotypes are less strongly held, yet the dominant image of a scientist remains a man (Miller et al. 2015). As such, it should not be surprising to find that undergraduate women’s scientific identity (Henderson et al. 2022) and her intention to stay in the geosciences, was linked to the Núñeznumber of same-gender role models and mentors in their lives (Hernandez et al. 2018). Núñez and colleagues (2020) concur, discussing the importance of representation in thinking about intersectional identities in the geosciences.

A paid membership to a scientific society does not equate to one feeling included, but it is a metric available to us. As AGU is the largest earth and space scientific organization

459 globally, we can use membership as a measure of the first “step” in the hostile obstacle  
460 course that many scientists take. The fraction of scientists identifying as women is greater  
461 within the Biogeosciences section (36.9% in 2020) than the overall AGU membership  
462 (27.3% in 2020). However, it is difficult to suggest the gender diversity in the Section is  
463 appreciably different given the fraction of reported unknowns (5.2% and 13% for the  
464 section and society, respectively). These values are similar to other scientific societies  
465 with shared membership. In the Geological Society of America (GSA) men make up a  
466 slim majority in several career categories, but 70% of professionals (GSA 2023). Almost  
467 two-thirds (64.5%) of the European Geophysical Union members (Toth et al. 2021) and  
468 72% of members of the Soil Science Society of America (SSSA), American Society of  
469 Agronomy (ASA), and Crop Science Society of America (CSSA) identify as men  
470 (Gillispie et al. 2021). In contrast, only 50.8% of the nearly 7800 members of the  
471 Ecological Society of America (ESA) identified as men in 2021 (ESA 2021). In all cases,  
472 these gender breakdowns reflect a smaller proportion of women identifying scientists in  
473 these professional societies as compared to those receiving Bachelor's and Master's  
474 degrees from US institutions.

475  
476 Society membership often accompanies the first time a scientist attends a scientific  
477 conference, in part because most societies create financial incentives to do so. However,  
478 attending a scientific society's conference typically has significantly more barriers than  
479 annual membership. In the case of the AGU Fall Meeting there are large, often out-of-  
480 pocket, monetary costs including registration, travel, lodging, and abstract fees (if you  
481 plan on presenting) to the scientist (Skiles et al. 2020). On top of this, conferences present  
482 accessibility and safety challenges to some members of our community (Joo et al 2022).  
483 Comparing AGU's membership (~60K) with attendee data at their largest annual  
484 conference (the “annual Fall Meeting” which attracts ~25K attendees) illustrates that a  
485 maximum of 40% of members attend annually (i.e., not everyone who attends is a  
486 member), with an even smaller average fraction of members associated with the  
487 Biogeosciences section (21.5%) attending each year. Comparing the proportion of  
488 women attending the annual meeting (41%) in 2019 to the membership (37%) in the  
489 Biogeosciences in 2019, suggests that despite additional barriers, women make up greater  
490 proportions of conference attendees than would be expected based on membership  
491 demographics.

492  
493 Scientific conferences are important places for scientists to grow their networks, share  
494 ideas, and build community. For early career scientists, conferences present unique  
495 opportunities to meet fellow scientists, access resources, and grow their networks  
496 (McMillion-Brown 2020); however they are also places where one can feel  
497 uncomfortable or even unsafe (Raby & Madden 2021). Recognizing this, scientific  
498 societies often provide professional development opportunities for early career scientists

499 to network and receive training on topics including funding systems and how to design  
500 courses that incorporate research. Scientific societies have also created formal mentoring  
501 programs (e.g. [AGU's Mentoring365](#)) acknowledging the value of peer mentoring and  
502 the different types of support we all need (Glessmer et al 2015, De Janazz & Sullivan  
503 2004, Burt et al. 2023). The characteristics of one's network determines access to  
504 information, opportunities, and resources (Hernandez et al. 2023). An analysis of AGU  
505 Fall Meeting presentation abstracts from 2014-2018, illustrated that men's and women's  
506 networks, as defined by co-authorship, were inherently different. Men had networks that  
507 crossed more age groups and contained more international scientists than women,  
508 especially in the earlier age cohorts (Hanson et al 2020). These differences in network  
509 characteristics likely point to differential access to resources and benefits. A recent study  
510 of undergraduate women found that those with larger, more close-knit networks had a  
511 greater sense of scientific identity and were more likely to continue onto graduate studies  
512 (Hernandez et al. 2023).

513  
514 Peer reviewed publications are the currency of accomplishment for scientists. Achieving  
515 authorship (co-authorship or otherwise) is thus another critical accomplishment in a  
516 scientists' career, and one that is non-negotiable at many points in a scientists' life.  
517 Submission rates to AGU's two biogeoscience focused journals reveal that men submit  
518 significantly more manuscripts than women, a trend common across all AGU journals  
519 (Lerback & Hanson 2017). Thus despite the slightly higher acceptance rates for women,  
520 the journals continue to be dominated by articles written by men. In the case of *JGR-B*  
521 and *GBC*, nearly a third (31%) of the articles published from 2012-2021 had no women  
522 geoscientists within the author lists, with women appearing as first author less than 30%  
523 of the time. An analysis of images of geoscientists in introductory (physical geology)  
524 textbooks reveals that most scientists pictured appear to be White men; with men  
525 appearing 2.3x more often than women and White geologists appearing 15x more than  
526 scientists of color (Bush & Mattox 2020). In both instances, the outward expression of  
527 who a (bio)geoscientist is misaligns with the realities of the workforce in our field. The  
528 invitations for peer review for *JGR-B* and *GBC* reflect this misalignment, with 69% of  
529 invitations sent to men and 85% to White scientists.

530  
531 We submit and publish manuscripts to share and collectively build knowledge. The  
532 frequency one is cited by others is viewed as a measure of a scientist's impact (e.g., H-  
533 index) in their field. However, when citing the literature in our own manuscripts affinity  
534 bias and the Matthew effect result in citing work of our colleagues and well known  
535 scientists more often (Brainard 2022). Citation metrics thus may more strongly reflect the  
536 collective authors' network size than the paper's scientific quality (Lerback et al 2020) or  
537 simply be another measure of publishing productivity (Mishra et al. 2018). Previous work  
538 examining citation rates of papers published in AGU journals found that citations were

539 lower for papers authored by multi-racial and multi-ethnic US teams, as compared to  
540 authorship groups of a single race or ethnicity within the US and papers authored by  
541 single-gendered teams and/or authors from one career stage were cited more often  
542 (Lerback et al 2020). Thus, despite the efforts to diversify our field, our collective actions  
543 continue to reinforce the status-quo.

544  
545 Why might geoscientists of color and White women submit fewer manuscripts? Often  
546 because individuals from historically excluded and marginalized groups spend more time  
547 teaching (Gonzales & Keane 2021; Malisch et al 2020), doing institutional service and  
548 advising students (Toutkoushian & Bellas 1999, Rideau 2021), and often more of the  
549 household duties (Morgan et al 2021). In addition to doing more unpaid service,  
550 (bio)geoscientists from excluded groups disproportionately experience negative  
551 workplace environments (Marin-Spiotta et al 2023, Primack et al 2023). For example,  
552 non-binary (51%), LGBPQ (33%), disabled (26%), women (20%), and geoscientists of  
553 color (17%) experienced higher rates of sexual harassment than the average respondent to  
554 the survey (14%) in the prior year (Marin-Spiotta et al 2023). This survey data also  
555 illustrates that most negative workplace experiences consist of frequent rude and  
556 insensitive comments and other microaggressions, often described as “a thousand tiny  
557 cuts” which often seem insignificant to outside observers but are shown to be just as  
558 destructive to the target’s mental wellbeing (Smith & Griffiths 2022). These negative  
559 experiences lead scientists to opt-out of professional events and to consider leaving their  
560 institution or the field altogether (Cech & Waidzunus 2021); 50% of Black women and  
561 non-binary White geoscience respondents reported considering leaving their position in  
562 the year prior (Marin-Spiotta et al 2023).

#### 563 564 4.2 The Challenge of Unknowns

565 As with many similar analyses, most of our conclusions are limited, due to  
566 incomplete data. This is especially true with respect to conclusions around race and  
567 ethnicity as data coverage is particularly poor for these identity characteristics. In  
568 addition, gender data is interpreted from binary sex (male, female) responses, with a third  
569 “prefer to not answer” option available and in one-third of instances determined via a  
570 commonly used algorithm (GenderAPI). Similarly the race and ethnicity options open to  
571 geoscientists are not inclusive of all, the historic variability in reporting this information  
572 (number of options and names of options change), and fear of reporting when you are one  
573 of a few, leads to low rates of reporting and makes this data difficult, at best, to interpret.

574  
575 The fraction of geoscientists who self-reported gender, age, and race or ethnicity not only  
576 varied by characteristic but also by role within the dataset. For example, there are fewer  
577 unknowns for reviewers as compared to authors for *JGR-B* and *GBC* manuscripts, across  
578 all demographics. The most likely explanation is that reviewers are more frequently AGU  
579 members than authors, thus there is a greater likelihood of demographic information

580 available to be matched. This observation, combined with the dominance of White men  
581 in the invited reviewer pool, speaks to the fact that we need to reach beyond our own  
582 networks when inviting reviews. The greater fraction of known gender and age  
583 information versus race and ethnicity is likely linked to past discriminatory experiences.  
584 Studies find that most authors receive inappropriate reviews, though scientists from  
585 historically excluded groups are more likely to internalize these messages leading to  
586 longer term negative consequences (Silbiger and Stubler 2019). Thus it is likely that race  
587 and ethnicity information is preferentially reported by members of majority groups, in an  
588 effort to limit exposing oneself to discriminatory actions by making themselves less  
589 visible (Settles et al 2019).

## 591 **5. Moving Forward**

592 Resolving diversity problems in the geosciences must involve approaches beyond  
593 outreach and recruitment, we must collectively change the culture of our field. To do this, It is  
594 critical for us to acknowledge that the same traditions and practices that welcomed us to the  
595 field, could also push others away. As stated by Morris (2021), “ideological changes are required  
596 within the geosciences to remove racialized barriers and the psychological violence that prevents  
597 access and opportunities for full participation of BIPOC+ in the academy and other careers.”  
598 Codes of Conduct and Field Safety plans provide guidance and frameworks for accountability to  
599 the community and several geoscientist-led efforts provide resources for making your classroom,  
600 your laboratory, your team meetings, more welcoming, inclusive, and accessible.

601  
602 In creating their Ethical Code of Conduct in 2017, AGU became the first scientific society to  
603 acknowledge bullying, harassment, and discrimination as scientific misconduct (McPhaden et al.  
604 2017). In expanding the definition of scientific misconduct beyond the falsification of data and  
605 plagiarism to include the treatment of people, AGU implicitly recognized the harm these actions  
606 have on the understanding of our planet, on the creation of knowledge. Since then, scientists  
607 need to agree to the Ethical Code of Conduct to attend their meetings, a critical step towards  
608 making the conference experience more inclusive (Favaro et al 2016). AGU has also created its  
609 Safe AGU program, training conference staff on how to respond to incidents of harassment and  
610 bullying and having them present, visible, and available during meetings and all honorees are  
611 asked about current and past conduct, resulting in the rescinding of at least one award (Reardon  
612 2018). The practice of requiring attendees to sign a Code of Conduct is now fairly common at  
613 many scientific conferences and meetings biogeoscientists attend, however the specifics vary.

614  
615 Field work is often an assumed part of a (bio)geoscientists’ work. The increased risk of assault,  
616 harassment, and bullying associated with remote field work, common in many fields within the  
617 ecological and geological sciences, is well documented (e.g., Willenbring 2018, Jha 2021). In  
618 many instances, scientists do not know how, or who, to report to (Clancy et al 2014), with early  
619 career scientists having less knowledge of the processes than those with more experience

620 (Primack et al 2023). In response, field safety plans are becoming more common with numerous  
621 resources available in the literature that address both general (McGill et al 2021) and specific  
622 field safety considerations for marginalized members of our community (Rudzki et al 2022), for  
623 LGBTQ+ scientists (Coon et al 2022, Olcott & Downen 2020), for Black, Indigenous and  
624 geoscientists of color (Anadu et al 2020). The evidence is such that the US National Science  
625 Foundation has started a pilot program requiring Field Safety Plans ([NSF 23-071](#)) as part of  
626 proposals for several programs in the Biological Sciences and Geoscience Directorates.

627  
628 While there is no information on scientists' disabilities in the data provided to us, we know the  
629 cultural assumptions and educational requirements around field work are exclusionary (Demery  
630 & Pipkin 2021, Lawrence 2021). During the COVID-19 pandemic many academic departments  
631 were forced to change field requirements and others have shifted their requirements, recognizing  
632 their inherent ableism (Powell 2021; Marshall and Thatcher 2019). Conferences, including the  
633 AGU Fall Meeting, moved to online and hybrid environments providing opportunities to  
634 improve access to some scientists with disabilities and increase inclusivity for scientists from  
635 multiple marginalized groups (Sarabipour, 2020; McMillion-Brown 2021, Raby and Madden  
636 2021, Skiles et al 2020).

637  
638 Culture change across the geosciences requires a collective effort. Thanks to numerous members  
639 of the geoscience and ecological science communities, many of whom identify as members of  
640 historically excluded and marginalized groups, there are resources available to create more  
641 inclusive spaces. Ali and Presad (2022) provide several examples of how institutions can  
642 meaningfully engage in activities to create accessible, inclusive, just, and equitable programs  
643 from reviewing outward facing recruitment materials to changing promotion criteria to include  
644 DEI work. Cooperdock and colleagues (2021) suggest actions that individual researchers can  
645 take in their own laboratories, classrooms, and field settings, including creating codes of  
646 conduct, discussing DEI issues on a regular basis, understanding one's own positionality, and  
647 adopting anti-oppressive lab guidelines (e.g. Anti-Racist Lab Rules;, Chaudhary & Berhe 2020).  
648 Acknowledging that the way we conduct research affects more than just the members of our  
649 team, but also the impact of our work, Harris and colleagues (2021) challenge fellow  
650 geoscientists to do place-based, community-based, interdisciplinary research and Jones (2021)  
651 suggests geoscientists team up with local environmental organizations, inherently expanding  
652 what geoscience research can be. We encourage our colleagues to purposefully engage with  
653 these materials, have open, honest, and sometimes uncomfortable discussions with your  
654 colleagues, and importantly act to implement change in your space.

655  
656 As the largest membership of earth and space scientists, AGU is a role model and we hope that  
657 their leadership on several of these issues will encourage other scientific societies as well as  
658 institutions to take similar measures. As a role model, like other highly regarded institutions,  
659 they have a "duty to demonstrate best practices -- not only in research & education -- but also in

660 being socially responsible” (Ali & Prasad 2022). While progress was made in 2022 to diversify  
661 the reviewer and editorial pool (Huntzinger et al 2023), AGU editorial boards need to continue to  
662 work to make their journals more inclusive and accessible. The addition of open-access journals  
663 and uptick in publication of diversity, equity, inclusivity and accessibility research across the  
664 AGU journals are important, positive steps forward. We welcome the specific steps discussed in  
665 the *JGR-B* editors’ update (Xenopoulos et al 2023) and we ask handling editors to take a more  
666 active role in ensuring reviews are respectful and when they are not, providing written statements  
667 sent to both authors and reviewers stating as much. These statements will not erase the harm of  
668 disrespectful and mean-spirited reviews on the authors (Silbiger and Stubler 2019), however  
669 acknowledgement can help minimize their psychological impact (Latane and Rodin 1969) and  
670 will signal the values of the journal. To enact this *culture change* requires leadership at all levels,  
671 for everyone to act, “We must shift our focus from performing diversity to enacting inclusive  
672 change” (Raji & Ali 2021).

673

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681

### 682 **Open Research**

683 De-identified and composited data as allowed per the AGU confidentiality statement is available  
684 via Hydroshare: <http://www.hydroshare.org/resource/7ff2cac594194c7f8fb9d3816c84e142>.  
685 Prior to publication data will be published, and receive a DOI.

686

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