I Z A Institute of Labor Economics

## POLICY PAPER SERIES

IZA Policy Paper No. 175

# Underrepresentation of Women in Undergraduate Economics Degrees in Europe: A Comparison with STEM and Business 

Rigissa Megalokonomou
Marian Vidal-Fernández
Duygu Yengin

## POLICY PAPER SERIES

IZA Policy Paper No. 175

# Underrepresentation of Women in Undergraduate Economics Degrees in Europe: A Comparison with STEM and Business 

Rigissa Megalokonomou<br>University of Queensland and IZA<br>Marian Vidal-Fernández<br>University of Sydney, IZA, and Life Course Centre<br>Duygu Yengin<br>University of Adelaide

MARCH 2021

[^0]
## ABSTRACT

## Underrepresentation of Women in Undergraduate Economics Degrees in Europe: A Comparison with STEM and Business*


#### Abstract

In the last decade, the proportion and academic performance of women who pursue university degrees has increased relative to men in a range of developing countries (OECD, 2015). Nonetheless, the percentage of undergraduate economics degrees awarded to women has remained between 30\% and 35\% during 2001-2018 in the U.S. (Siegfried, 2019). In a recent work by Lundberg and Stearns (2019), they show that the gender gap worsens as women economists progress in their professional careers in the U.S., where they end up representing only $10 \%$ of university professors. European countries seem to have less of a "leaky pipeline," where the same figure sits at 22\% (Auriol, Friebel, and Wilhelm, 2020). To put this figure into perspective, our paper describes the cross-country underrepresentation of women graduating in economics degrees in Europe relative to their country-specific women/men university graduation rates. Second, we compare the underrepresentation of women in economics to its closest alternative namely business, as well as its gender underrepresented counterpart, STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics). Finally, we lean on recent evidence to suggest policies to increase the relative share of women pursuing undergraduate economics degrees in Europe with a strong focus on policies aimed at high schools. Overall, we find that, over the period 2013-2018, the underrepresentation of women in economics graduates has worsened in Europe and that on average two of every five students are women. While the gender representation of university graduates in STEM is worse than in economics, it has experienced a mild increase over the period of study. Unlike Economics, its closest alternative, business, has a slight women overrepresentation, with 1.1 women graduating for every man.


## JEL Classification:

Keywords:

J16, J24
women, economics, STEM, university

## Corresponding author:

Marian Vidal-Fernández
School of Economics
University of Sydney
NSW 2006, Sydney
Australia
E-mail: m.vidal-fdez@sydney.edu.au

[^1]
## Introduction

In the last decade, the proportion and academic performance of women who pursue university degrees has increased relative to men in a range of developing countries (OECD, 2015). Nonetheless, the percentage of undergraduate economics degrees awarded to women has remained between $30 \%$ and 35\% during 2001-2018 in the U.S. (Siegfried, 2019).

In a recent work by Lundberg and Stearns (2019), they show that the gender gap worsens as women economists progress in their professional careers in the U.S., where they end up representing only 10 \% of university professors.

European countries seem to have less of a "leaky pipeline," where the same figure sits at 22\% (Auriol, Friebel, and Wilhelm, 2020). To put this figure into perspective, our chapter describes the cross-country underrepresentation of women graduating in economics degrees in Europe relative to their countryspecific women/men university graduation rates. Second, we compare the underrepresentation of women in economics to its closest alternative namely business, as well as its gender underrepresented counterpart, STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics). Finally, we lean on recent evidence to suggest policies to increase the relative share of women pursuing undergraduate economics degrees in Europe with a strong focus on policies aimed at high schools.

Overall, we find that, over the period 2013-2018, the underrepresentation of women in economics graduates has worsened in Europe and that on average two of every five students are women. While the gender representation of university graduates in STEM is worse than in economics, it has experienced a mild increase over the period of study. Unlike Economics, its closest alternative, business, has a slight women overrepresentation, with 1.1 women graduating for every man.

## Recent Trends in Undergraduate Women in Economics across Europe (2014-2018)

We gain insights about recent trends in the cross-country differences in the underrepresentation of women in undergraduate economic degrees in Europe through detailed Eurostat data on the total number of graduates by gender, degree, country for all available years (2014-2018). ${ }^{1}$

For comparison purposes, out of the 36 countries for which data is provided by Eurostat, we focus on the 25 for which data is reliable, homogeneous, and available for most of the period of study. Henceforth, we will denote this group as Europe-25. ${ }^{2}$ This group includes countries with significant size economics undergraduate programs (graduating at least 50 students each year) that have reported detailed ISCED ${ }^{3}$ field data for at least three of the past four years via Eurostat.

Because in recent decades, women are more likely to pursue a university degree than men, we rely on a within country conversion rate based on the relative share of women enrolled in a particular field in with respect to the total share of women graduating in the same country (Avilova and Goldin, 2018). This conversion rate allows U.S. to abstract from the possibility that women might be overrepresented

[^2]in a particular field simply because there are more women attending university than men in most European countries.

As depicted in Figure 1, preliminary cross-country analysis of the Eurostat dataset reveals an interesting spatial pattern. A range of Eastern European countries have a proportionally more women graduating in economics than men (conversion rate greater than 1), even when accounting for differences in university graduation rates between genders. Meanwhile, Northern European countries which have achieved very high levels of female representation at university as a whole, perform rather poorly when it comes to gender gap in graduation rates from economics undergraduate degrees.

Figure 1. W/M Conversion Rate for Economics Graduates across Europe, 2015-2018 ${ }^{4}$

*No countries reported a converison rate of less than 0.25

Next, we aim to compare economics with its closest alternative, business studies, ${ }^{5}$ and STEM, ${ }^{6}$ a group of degrees with an even more historically pronounced underrepresentation of women. ${ }^{7}$

On the one hand, some studies find that business students tend to populate introductory economics lectures and are the primary group to transfer into economics (Asarta and Butters, 2012; Emerson and Mcgoldrick, 2017). On the other hand, in the U.S., universities that offer both economics and business degrees see a wider gender gap in economics majors. Goldin (2013) points out that although all U.S. undergraduates have a preference for business over economics, this is particularly pronounced for women. In particular, men prefer business to economics at a rate of 3:1 whereas for women the ratio

[^3]is 5:1. Furthermore, studies of high school students in Australia have shown that women consider business significantly more attractive than economics (Dwyer, 2018; Livermore and Major, 2020). Like in Australia, most European University systems require students to specialize upon entry and also allow for relatively limited flexibility in unit choices (Arnold, 2020). This rigidity reduces the likelihood of business students transferring into economics and strengthens the case in Europe for business being a substitute rather than a complement to economics.

For comparison purposes, Figure 2 shows the weighted average ${ }^{8}$ of economics, STEM and business conversion rates for the EU-25 countries over the period 2013-2018 together with the ratio of total women to men university graduates. Appendix B provides individual graphs for each and every EU-25 country.

Figure 2. Conversion rates in Economics, STEM, and Business Graduates in Europe


Overall, and consistent with U.S. data, we find that during 2013-2018:

1. Except from the UK, the overall conversion rate of women versus men in economics has been stable or decreasing over time and has been around 0.6 on average. ${ }^{9}$
2. Unlike Economics, the conversion rate of its closest substitute, business, sits at 1.1 which indicates that more women graduate than men, adjusting for total gender ratios at university.
3. The average conversion rate in STEM is worse than economics at 0.35 but experiencing a mild increase over the period.

To put these figures into perspective, in a very recent study, Auriol, Friebel, and Wilhelm (2020) collect data of European research institutions and examine the percentage of academic women in economics

[^4]at different academic ranks. They find that in the top 300 research institutions, while women make up $33 \%$ of academic positions in economics, they only fulfil $21.5 \%$ of professorships. ${ }^{10}$

Europe-25 seems to have a slightly higher proportion (0.375) of women attending university than in the U.S. sitting at 0.3 (Lundberg, 2019). Keeping in mind that undergraduate students are less likely to move continents to pursue their studies than post-graduates, compared to the U.S., this figure improves also the relative success of European universities in the representation of women in professorship positions at $22 \%$ (Auriol et al, 2020) compared to the U.S. (Lundberg, 2019).

## Policy recommendations and future research

Unlike the U.S., undergraduate degrees in Europe are relatively inflexible in regards to switching degrees. Except for from business, there is a relatively large sunk cost involved in transferring into economics because courses are rarely exchangeable across degrees (Arnold, 2020). This is why we focus on policies aimed at informing and attracting high school students into economics.

## Mentoring at the high school level

Researchers have posited a number of hypotheses for the underrepresentation of women in economics, and one of them is the lack of role models. The evidence is mixed regarding whether the gender composition of economics department faculty has a significant impact on the proportion of bachelor degrees in economics awarded to women. Most studies in U.S. find no effect, and a few find a positive effect (see the references in Emerson et al, 2018). Many existing studies have either data limitations due to focusing on one or a selected set of institutions, or failing to capture relevant characteristics such as the gender ratio of faculty in the department, or curriculum requirements. Emerson et al (2018) overcomes these limitations using a panel of 10 years of institutional data with departmental characteristics such as the gender ratio of economics department faculty and the quantitative course requirements across a large number of institutions in the U.S., and finds no evidence of a positive role model effect of presence of women faculty in attracting a more gender diverse set of undergraduate majors.

On the other hand, interventions exposing students to charismatic women role models have been shown effective in increasing gender representation. In a very recent U.S. study, Porter and Serra (2020) show that female students exposed enrolled in introductory economics classes and exposed to successful and charismatic women who majored in economics at the same university significantly increasing the likelihood of women majoring in economics by $8 \%$.

Given that in European institutions, it is harder to switch disciplines once a student commences her degree, exposure to role models at high school level becomes more significant in order to attract more women to enrol in economic degrees. Support for this policy intervention comes from a recent study in STEM. Using a random assignment of classroom interventions carried out by 56 women scientists among 20,000 high school students in the Paris Region, Breda et al (2020) show that there is a significant positive impact of external women role models on student enrolment in STEM fields.

## Addressing Unconscious Bias

[^5]An alternative hypothesis behind the under-representation of women in math-oriented disciplines is that women underperform in mathematics and science. However, recent trends reveal the gender achievement gap in mathematics is gradually closing. A recent OECD report based on PISA scores shows that in several European countries, such as Iceland, Sweden, Norway, Finland, Israel, and Greece the gender gap in mathematics and science has reversed in favour of women (OECD, 2016).

Why are then women still less likely to specialize in math and science at the university level? Another reason that could discourage women to pursue math and science studies at the undergraduate level is teachers' unconscious bias. A few recent studies focus on the existence of teachers' gender biases in primary and high school in European countries. Terrier (2014) analyze teachers' biases in primary schools in France and shows that teachers' grading biases in mathematics in favor of boys have a positive impact on boys' relative test score achievements. Lavy and Sand (2018) use data from primary schools in Israel and find that teachers' biases favoring boys in math have a positive effect on boys' performance in those subjects and negative effect on girls' achievements. Carlana (2019) uses data from Italy to show that teachers' stereotypes increase the gender gap in math performance and in selfassessment of students' own mathematical abilities in middle school.

In addition, biased teachers activate negative self-stereotypes on female students in male-typed domains. Lavy and Megalokonomou (2020) use data on high school teachers from Greece to show that teachers' grading bias in math in favor of boys have a positive (negative) impact on boys' (girls') subsequent test scores. However, girls' decision to enroll in a particular degree (i.e., math or economics) is affected by the teacher biases they are exposed to in high school, while boys are insensitive to the influences of those biases when they make field specialization decisions.

Thus, a policy tool that may be effective is to raise awareness of teachers' gender unconscious biases (Carlana, 2019) and develop gender-unbiased grading policies such as blind grading whenever possible (Bohnet, 2016). An alternative policy tool to fight stereotypes boost women's confidence in their own skills. The latter could be very effective for women who are found to be more sensitive to grades in introductory undergraduate courses and that might also happen in high school (Crawford 2017). Boosting women's confidence in their skills may encourage them to pursue more math or economics related courses even if they underperform in those subjects.

## Degree flexibility and interdisciplinarity

Finally, we believe that having a more flexible degree structure in European universities would allow for recruiting undergraduate students into economics from other disciplines other than business that can be closely complementary to our field such as behavioral and data sciences, mathematics, health and public policy. This flexibility would not only allow women to get a taste of the versatility of economics without taking the risk of having to start a new degree but also generate interdisciplinary complementarities across fields.

## References

Arnold, I. J. M. (2020). Gender and major choice within economics: Evidence from Europe. International Review of Economics Education, 35.

Auriol, E., Friebel, G., \& Wilhelm, S. (2019). Women in European Economics. VoxEU: Women in Economics.

Bayer, A., \& Wilcox, D. W. (2019). The unequal distribution of economic education: A report on the race, ethnicity, and gender of economics majors at U.S. colleges and universities. The Journal of Economic Education, 50(3), 299-320.

Beede, D. et al. (2011). Women in STEM: A Gender Gap to Innovation. Economics and Statistics Administration Issue Brief No. 04-11.

Bohnet, I. (2016). What Works: Gender Equality by Design. Harvard University Press
Breda, T. et al. (2020). Do Female Role Models Reduce the Gender Gap in Science? Evidence from French High Schools. PSE Working Papers.

Carlana, M. (2019). Implicit stereotypes: Evidence from teachers' gender bias. The Quarterly Journal of Economics, 134(3), 1163-1224.
Dwyer, J. (2018). What Happened to the Study of Economics? RBA Speech, Sydney, 26 May, 2018.
Emerson, T. L. N., Mcgoldrick, K., \& Siegfried., J. J. (2018). The Gender Gap in Economics Degrees: An Investigation of the Role Model and Quantitative Requirements Hypotheses. Southern Economic Journal, 84(3), 898-911.

Kahn, S. \& Ginther, D. (2017). Women and Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM): Are Differences in Education and Careers Due to Stereotypes, Interests, or Family? The Oxford Handbook of Women and the Economy.

Lavy, V. and E. Sand (2018). On The Origins of Gender Human Capital Gaps: Short and Long Term Consequences of Teachers' Stereotypical Biases. Journal of Public Economics, 167, 263-279.

Lavy, V. and Megalokonomou, R. (2019). Persistency in Teachers' Grading Bias and Effects on LongerTerm Outcomes: University Admissions Exams and Choice of Field of Study. National Bureau of Economic Research, 26021.

Livermore, T. \& Major, M. (2020). Why Study (or Not Study) Economics? A Survey of High School Students. Reserve Bank of Australia Bulletin - June 2020.

Lundberg, S. (2017). Report: Committee on the Status of Women in the Economics Profession (CSWEP). American Economic Review, 107 (5), 759-776.

Lundberg, S. \& Stearns, J. (2019). Women in economics: Stalled progress. Journal of Economic Perspectives, 33(1), 3-22.

OECD (2015). The ABC of Gender Equality in Education: Aptitude, Behaviour, Confidence. OECD Publishing.

OECD (2016), PISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education. OECD Publishing.
Pietro, T. \& Lupiañez-Villanueva, F. (2017). D2.1 Report on Employment Labour Market Trends In EU. Stem4youth.

Porter, C. \& Serra, D. (2020). Gender Differences in the Choice of Major: The Importance of Female Role Models. American Economic Journal: Applied Economics, 12 (3), 226-54.

Rathenau Instituut (2020). Share of female professors, in the Netherlands and EU countries.
Siegfried, J. J. (2019). Trends in undergraduate economics degrees, 2001-2018, The Journal of Economic Education, 50(3), 333-336.

Terrier, C. (2020). Boys lag behind: How teachers' gender biases affect student achievement. Economics of Education Review, 77.

Tonin, M. \& Wahba, J. (2015). The Sources of the Gender Gap in Economics Enrolment. CESifo Economic Studies, 61(1), 72-94.

## Appendix A

Table A.1: Countries Meeting the Data Criteria to be Included in the Main Analysis

| Country | Over 50 economics graduates during years when data is reported | Reported data on number of economics students for at least three of the four available years | Graduate data reported according to Eurostat guidelines |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Belgium | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Bulgaria | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Czechia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Denmark | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Germany | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Estonia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Ireland | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Greece | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Spain | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| France | Yes | No | Yes |
| Croatia | No | Yes | Yes |
| Italy | Yes | No | Possible double counting of students enrolled in double degrees. Metadata describes this possibility as 'rare'. |
| Cyprus | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Latvia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Lithuania | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Luxembourg | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Hungary | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Malta | No | Yes | Yes |
| Netherlands | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Austria | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Poland | Yes | Yes | Vulnerable to double counting of students enrolled in double degrees. |
| Portugal | Yes | Yes | Vulnerable to double counting of students enrolled in double degrees. |
| Romania | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Slovenia | Yes | No | Yes |
| Slovakia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Finland | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Sweden | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| United Kingdom | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Iceland | No | Yes | Not able to verify |
| Liechtenstein | No | Yes | Yes |
| Norway | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Switzerland | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Montenegro | No | No | Yes |
| North Macedonia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Serbia | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Turkey | Yes | No | Yes |

Figure A.1: Reference Map ${ }^{11}$


[^6]Appendix B: W/M Conversion Rates by Country





[^0]:    Any opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and not those of IZA. Research published in this series may include views on policy, but IZA takes no institutional policy positions. The IZA research network is committed to the IZA Guiding Principles of Research Integrity.
    The IZA Institute of Labor Economics is an independent economic research institute that conducts research in labor economics and offers evidence-based policy advice on labor market issues. Supported by the Deutsche Post Foundation, IZA runs the world's largest network of economists, whose research aims to provide answers to the global labor market challenges of our time. Our key objective is to build bridges between academic research, policymakers and society.
    IZA Policy Papers often represent preliminary work and are circulated to encourage discussion. Citation of such a paper should account for its provisional character. A revised version may be available directly from the author.

[^1]:    * The authors acknowledge that this paper would not have been possible without the outstanding support of our research assistants Zachary Orlando and Emily Shaw.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ While it would be also interesting to analyse graduation rates along with the relative differences in enrolment and dropout rates, this information is unfortunately not available homogeneously for all countries studied.
    ${ }^{2}$ For example, through correspondence with Eurostat inquiry office, Portugal and Poland's data double counts graduates who have completed multiple specialisations. Please refer Table A. 1 in Appendix A for details on the reasons for exclusion of each country.
    ${ }^{3}$ ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) is the reference international classification for organising education programmes and related qualifications by levels and fields.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ We use $W / M$ to denote the ratio of the number of women to the number of men. W/M Conversion Rate for Economics Graduates is found by taking the ratio of $\mathrm{W} / \mathrm{M}$ graduating from economics over $\mathrm{W} / \mathrm{M}$ graduating from university. These conversion rates statistics indicate what the ratio of women to men would be if overall university populations had equal number of each gender. A reference map with the names of countries is provided in Appendix Figure A.1.
    ${ }^{5}$ We consider the ISCED-F field Business and Administration degrees. This include: Accounting and Taxation, Finance, Banking and Insurance, Management and Administration, Marketing and Advertising, Secretarial and Office Work, Wholesale and Retail Sales Work Skills.
    ${ }^{6}$ We include the following ISCED-F (2013) STEM fields: Natural sciences, Mathematics and Statistics, Information and Communication Technologies, Engineering and Engineering Trades, Manufacturing and Processing. This is similar to other studies that have relied on this dataset such as Tornese and Lupiañez-Villanueva (2017).
    ${ }^{7}$ For example, see Kahn and Ginther, 2018 for the U.S. case.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ Weighted by the number of graduates for each country in that particular year.
    ${ }^{9}$ As it can be seen from the individual country graphs in Appendix B, the only outliers are Cyprus, Lithuania, the Netherlands, and Serbia.

[^5]:    ${ }^{10}$ Note that this figure does not account for the relative fraction of women at academic positions at in other academic field.

[^6]:    ${ }^{11}$ Identifies European countries by their two letter country codes available here: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/Glossary:Country codes

