

# COMMUNICATING THE BALANCING OF THE SCALES FOR GENDER EQUITY IN BUSINESS SCHOOLS: A MULTI-COUNTRY PERSPECTIVE

H. Steve Leslie, Arkansas State University  
Natalie Johnson, Arkansas State University

## ABSTRACT

*This paper examines the relevance of gender equity to; faculty compensation, career advancement, and access to leadership roles in selected business schools in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States. These three countries reflect distinct cultural, political, economic, and societal structures and views regarding gender equity. Anchored by feminist, human capital, and socialization theories, we present the perspectives of both male and female business school faculty through cultural, economic, and societal constructs. A total of 410 business faculty members across 30 colleges in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States completed the modified Athena SWAN Gender Equity Survey. From this research, a conceptual framework was developed to help higher education administrators and faculty members contextualize the often-dissimilar experiences of business school faculty from a multi-cultural perspective. The findings confirm that female faculty in business colleges continue to lag in perceived and actual compensation and access to opportunities to succeed in business schools compared to males.*

*Additionally, the findings support the further examination of the dichotomous relationship between perceived and actual gender inequities encountered by female faculty in business schools. These inequitable treatments continue to reflect, even with positive societal shifts, a distinctly patriarchal leadership, career advancement, and compensation system in business schools, often regardless of cultural norms and mores. Our findings add to the organizational and gender studies literature by proposing a balancing of the scales for gender equity in business schools from a multi-country perspective.*

**Keywords:** gender equity, business faculty, compensation, career advancement, leadership, organizational change

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationship of gender equity to; faculty compensation, career advancement, and access to leadership roles in selected colleges of business in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States. Globally, women still exist in a world where parity is often not reflected in the four key measures of "...economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment" (World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Report, 2020, p.5). For example, according to Weinstein (2018), participation of women in the United States labor force "... nearly doubled, from 34% of

working-age women (age 16 and older) in the labor force in 1950 to almost 57% in 2016,” (p.1). Similarly, in Europe, the employment rate for women is 67% compared to 79% for men (Eurostat, 2020). Furthermore, according to the 2021 World Bank Data Report, the total labor participation rate for women in Jamaica is 60.28% compared to 71.05% for males. Thus, globally, there is a significant increase in women participating in the workforce. However, women still have a lower paid employment participation rate than their male counterparts (International Labour Organization, 2018).

In both developed and developing countries, equal opportunity and employment policies are being legislated and enacted to protect the rights of women and other marginalized populations (Bureau of Women's Affairs, 2011; Rose, 2015; Stromquist, 2013; United Nations (UN) Women, 2015). Furthermore, these disparities in the treatment of women are evident in higher education, specifically in traditionally male-dominated disciplines such as Science, Technology, Engineering, Math (STEM), and Business. Thus, the issue of gender equity is of interest to the researchers because this imbalance spreads throughout developed and developing societies, making this research very significant. For too long, women have been “left behind” regarding compensation, professional advancement, and leadership roles, especially in science and business. Hence, the authors address the following questions.

#### Research questions

1. To what extent are female faculty members in business schools compensated differently than male counterparts?
2. What factors explain differences in the career advancement of female faculty in business schools?
3. To what extent are leadership positions in business schools determined by gender?

The authors answered each question in the context of the theoretical perspectives used to anchor this study.

## **THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES**

The three relevant theoretical perspectives that anchor this research are feminist socialist theory, socialization theory, and human capital theory. At the heart of these theories is gender equity, as shown in Figure 1.

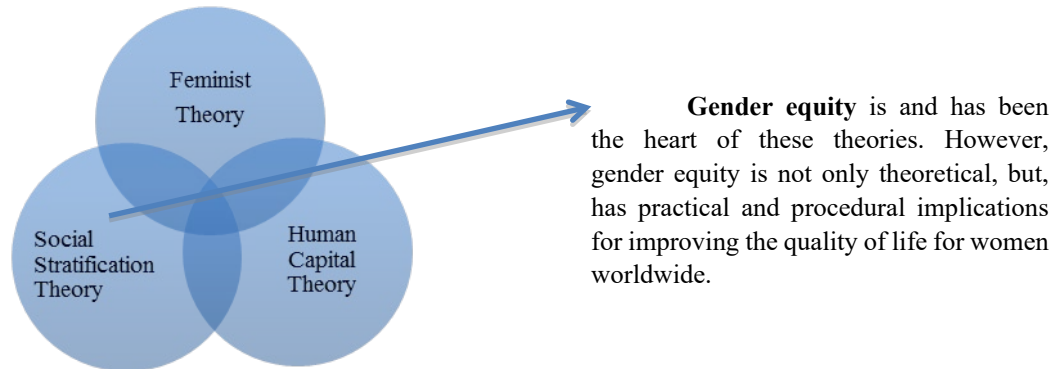
**Figure 1: Intersection of Gender Equity with Theoretical Perspectives**

Figure 1 shows the intricate relationships among the three relevant theories guiding this research. Equity is at the center because it is a focal point of discovery and is directly and indirectly influenced by human capital assumptions, social and cultural norms, or mores. Gender equity impacts and is impacted by how females perceive themselves in their social and cultural norms. Furthermore, gendered socialization and the economic engine that drives human capital decisions in society continue to perpetuate systemic inequities toward females.

### **Feminist theory**

Viewing inequity from a feminist socialist perspective suggests that established cultural norms and institutionalized and engrained economic and patriarchal systems influence how members of society are viewed and ultimately treated. Wharton (1991) postulates that how people are regarded and treated is based on how each individual sees themselves and often how others view that individual based on established norms and institutionalized structures. According to Mundy, Bickmore, Hayhoe, Madden, and Madjidi (2008), “. . . feminist theory is based on people’s own perceptions of their place in society, not only on what policymakers or bureaucrats may see as their path to progress” (p. 221). Thus, feminist theory suggests that how a female sees herself may be based on socialization, social strata, economic power, gender, race, or any other defining factor, which is very likely how she will construct her reality, resulting in how she is perceived and treated by others.

Powell (2013) suggests that the deconstruction and reconstruction of how members of society regard gender roles are crucial to recasting how men and women are essentially viewed and treated by members of society. Ledford (2012), Maitra (2013); Mundy, et al. (2008), and Nicholson (2013) advance that post-modernist feminist theorists have debunked gender essentialism, espoused by many early feminist theorists. It, therefore, suggests that women should not be viewed and ascribed expected behaviors based on specific roles they generally

assume. These roles include but are not limited to child-rearing, caregiving, and other historically and culturally specific expectations.

Feminist theorists assert that if more women are in leadership roles and are perceived in a positive light by both men and women, then it is very likely that how other women and men view them will help in the deconstruction and reconstruction of how women are viewed and compensated in the society (Powell, 2013). Inequitable social and institutional structures form the nexus of inequities experienced by women and many marginalized groups (Gordon, 2016). The data from the 2011 American Association of University Professors (AAUP) report compiled by Curtis (2011) advances the notion that even though more women are graduating from institutions of higher education with advanced degrees when compared to males, there is still a disproportionate number of women (more women in part-time positions) who are employed as full-time faculty versus adjunct/part-time faculty. Feminist theorists purport that societal constructs, including social stratification, should no longer dictate the treatment of women in society.

### **Social stratification theory**

According to Bowles (2013), social stratification is defined as “. . . the systematically unequal distribution of power, wealth, and status” within society (p. 33). Social stratification theory suggests that how men and women are treated in society indicates the power dynamics, wealth, and status of men versus women within a particular society (Acker, 1973; Bowles, 2013; Grusky, 2019; Kerbo, 2000; Kerbo 2006). How males and females are treated by the same and opposite sex within a society is crucial in assessing the impact of gender inequity and inequality within cultures (Carter, 2014; Verbos & Dykstra, 2014). Hence, many females may opt to leave a discipline because they do not feel they are treated equitably. For example, many female faculties are the minority in traditionally male-dominated disciplines of STEM and business. These faculties often feel ‘out of place’ because they do not experience what Maslow (1954) refers to as a sense of belongingness. Many eventually leave these traditionally male-dominated disciplines because they often feel like a misfit, coupled with the fact that they have few if any advocates. Hence, many women leave the organization or workforce for other lower-paying and more gender proportionate jobs (Grusky, 2019). Leaving their jobs for less paying jobs perpetuates inequities many women endure. The lower power positions ascribed to women in a male-dominated, historical, cultural, and social structure lead to women being seen and viewed as less valuable. These challenging inequities are persistent but less glaring in developed countries, where the gender gap is less when compared to many developing countries.

We found that social stratification through entrenched and inequitable institutional structures continues to influence gender equity negatively. Thus, the challenge that many female faculty members continue to encounter is defeating the entrenched patriarchal embedded societal system that has and continues to govern most societies. In these societies, there is generally powerful rhetoric of valuing human capital. However, upon a more in-depth examination of such rhetoric, one will find that human capital, as a vehicle of social and economic mobility, is not the same for both men and women.

## **Human capital theory**

As is used in this paper, human capital theory refers to the epistemological framework that guides the understanding of the relationship between the expected positive impact of education and training on the explicit and implicit value an individual brings to the workforce. Hence, the more education and training an individual receives, they are perceived as more valuable to employers. Nafukho, Hairston, and Brooks (2004) suggest that “Human Capital Theory, the main outcome from investment in people, is the change that is manifested at the individual level in the form of improved performance, and at the organizational level in the form of improved productivity and profitability or at the societal level in the form of returns that benefit the entire society” (p. 549). This suggests that males are generally perceived as being more productive and profitable compared to many females. The Human Capital perspective in various societies generally guides how gender is perceived and treated in relation to power (Olson, 2013).

Human Capital models continue to be biased towards men at the economic expense of women. The languages and formulae used to craft benefit policies often favor males over females regarding resource access, training, family/childcare leave, health and wellness options (Bae & Patterson, 2014; Mundy et al., 2008; Olson, 2013). Additionally, Mundy et al. (2008) caution against the negative impact of popular views on human capital theory, as those espoused by noted human capital theorist Theodore Schultz. Views espoused by those who conform to Schultz's (1961) perspective on human capital continue to harm the treatment of women in the workplace. Mundy et al. (2008) quote Schultz as advancing the argument, “The distinctive part of human capital is that it is part of man. It is human, because it is embodied in man . . .” (p. 221). Human capital theorists such as Schultz do not account for women as essential to the economic wellbeing of a nation. Viewing women as an unimportant part of human capital arguably leads to the continued inequity in policies used by numerous institutions and organizations to manage their people.

The human capital disparity, as it relates to proportionate and equitable distribution of women in male-dominated disciplines in higher education, is a direct reflection of the global trends that exist (Lips, 2013; McKinsey & Company, 2014, 2015; Marginson, 2019; Schmitt, 2015; Zhou, 2015). Thus, human capital and socialization theories are the primary drivers for developing the proceeding conceptual framework, with feminist theory supporting both. Together all three theories provide a solid foundation on which this research is anchored and conceptualized.

## **GENDER EQUITY CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Incidences of gender inequities continue to exist in all facets of our society (European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) Report, 2017, 2020; World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report, 2018). For example, in the European Union (EU), a significant gender gap still exists for full-time employment of men and women. According to the European Institute for

Gender Equality (EIGE) Report (2017), “the gender gap in employment in the EU is wide and persistent, with the full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rate of 40 % for women and 56 % for men. Among couples with children, the FTE employment rate is 28 percentage points in favour of men” (p. 31). Higher education institutions are not immune to gender inequity’s marginalizing impact on female faculty, especially regarding compensation, leadership, and upward mobility. In this research, the term framework is used because of its broad appeal and precise meaning. Hence, the framework in this research refers to “. . . methods of research and planning for assessing and promoting gender issues in institutions” (March, Smyth, & Mukhopadhyay, 2005, p. 11). Specifically, the two primary reasons for the framework were based on (1) the literature reviewed and (2) having a framework appropriate for the unit of research, gender equity, versus using other terminologies such as tools or methodology (March, Smyth, & Mukhopadhyay, 2005).

From the literature reviewed, it is observed that various frameworks have been advanced to explain and suggest policy and institutional changes to reduce and eliminate the differential treatment of males and females in public and private sector organizations, inclusive of higher education (Albertine, 2013; Daley & MacDonnell, 2011; Nielsen, 2014; Westring, McDonald, Carr & Grisso, 2016). However, from extant research, the limited focus has been placed on examining gender equity in colleges of business, a segment of higher education that has significant influence in developing human capital for the public and private sectors. The gender equity framework (Figure 2) developed from this study helps explain and link the differential treatment of males and females in business colleges to human capital perceptions based on gender, entrenched social stratification structures that reinforce patriarchy, and established cultural norms and mores.

Figure 2: Framework for Gender Equity in Colleges of Business

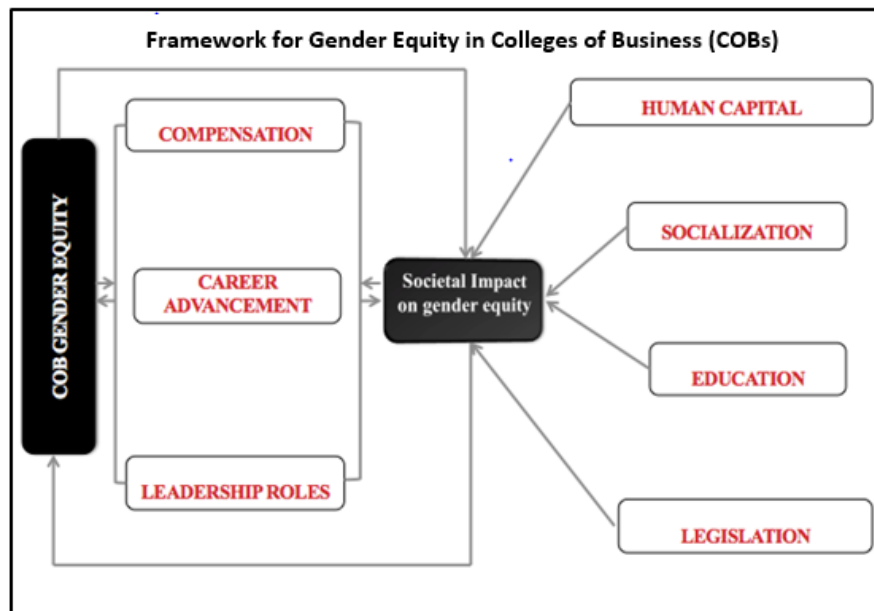


Figure 2 suggests societal gender inequity is at the heart of creating gender neutrality in all other facets of society. Therefore, societal gender equity is directly correlated to compensation, career advancement, and leadership. Furthermore, these three elements directly impact gender equity in colleges of business. On the other hand, societal gender equity is directly related to societal norms, culture, traditions, values, and symbols (Moss, 2002; Ramirez, 2010). In addition, education, human capital, laws, both enforced and unenforced, also impact societal gender equity.

How far can this proposed framework for gender equity go towards helping to understand fair treatment for all members of our society? Gender inequities are mainstream concerns in the geopolitical arena of institutions and society as a whole (Wheeler 2016). However, issues surrounding gender equity also are complex, vexing, and challenging to unravel. These challenges are due to entrenched and learned socialization reflected in allocations of authority and resources, cultural norms, injustices, biases, and disparities relating to feminism (Jahan & Mumtaz, 1996; Moser, 1993; Razavi & Miller, 1995). In each culture, there are multiple perspectives and theories, such as feminist, human capital, and socialization theories, that influence and are influenced by gender equity in the wider society. This conceptual framework is vital in contextualizing the impact of societal inequities fueled and nurtured in the formative years in shaping policies and overall treatment of women in institutions of higher education, especially colleges of business, where there is limited research relating to gender equity.

## **METHODS, TECHNIQUES, AND MODES OF INQUIRY**

This quantitative approach research utilized the modified Athena SWAN Gender Equity Survey to collect empirical data. The targeted population was 1, 500 faculty members and administrators from 30 colleges of business in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2019), 750 public 4-year colleges in the United States represent 26.5% of all 4-year higher education institutions. In addition, Finland has 35 public universities, and Jamaica has two public universities. The data for this study were collected in the fall of 2016.

Colleges of business are selected based on four inclusion criteria: (1) accreditation by a national, regional, or international board, such as the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB); and (2) masters granting or higher-level institutions; (3) public universities and (4) university full-time enrollment (FTE) of 10,000 or more students. The targeted population included: instructors, lecturers, senior lecturers, tenured or tenure-tracked faculty at the assistant; associate; and full rank professors to complete the surveys. A total of 1,500 surveys were electronically sent using SurveyMonkey to faculty members across 25 colleges of business in the United States and four colleges of business in Finland, and one college in Jamaica. The surveyed population included administrators (chairs, deans, directors, coordinators) to ascertain the relationship of gender equity to compensation, career advancement,

and access to leadership roles for female faculty. To collect valid and reliable data, the UCL Athena SWAN Gender Equity Survey instrument was modified.

### **Instrumentation**

The Athena SWAN Gender Equity Survey, developed by the University College of London (2015), was selected (and modified) because it addressed gender equity in STEM, a field with similar gender distribution characteristics as colleges of business. This instrument was used successfully to collect data regarding gender equity from science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and medicine (STEMM) professions (Munir, Mason, McDermott, Morris, Bagilhole & Nevill 2013; University College of London 2015). Written permission was obtained from the University College of London (UCL) to modify the Athena SWAN Gender Equity survey instrument.

The survey was divided into eight sections: workload; flexible working conditions/hours; appraisals; promotion; career development; workplace culture; maternity, paternity, adoption, and paternal leave; and demographic data. The demographic data addressed gender (male/female), job role; salary range; academic rank; duration in position; work hours (full/part-time); education level, and geographic location, including Jamaica, Finland, and United States regions.

A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the relationship of gender equity to; compensation, career advancement, and access to leadership roles in colleges of business. Values on the Likert scale range from 1–5 to assess the relationship of gender equity to compensation, career advancement, and leadership. The Likert scale indicated a value of 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Neutral; 2 = Disagree; 1 = Strongly Disagree. The sixth option of Not Applicable (NA) was added to the scale for relevance in a few cases. This modification was made based on feedback from faculty members who completed the pilot study.

### **Pilot study**

Pilot research was conducted to increase the validity and reliability of the research and reduce the negative impact of an improperly designed survey instrument on the quality of the final survey results (Connelly, 2008; Johanson & Brooks 2010; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2002). The pilot study was conducted with a representative population of faculty at the rank of instructor, lecturer/associate/senior lecturer, assistant, associate, and full professor. In addition to the UCL Athena SWAN Gender Equity survey, respondents provided feedback to 12 open-ended questions relating to survey content and face validity. The data from the pilot study questionnaire and the 12 open-ended questions were analyzed and used to improve the final survey's content and face validity (Aiken, 1980; Nevo, 1985).



## Data collection and analysis

Data collected were analyzed using the IBM SPSS version 27.0 software. The data analysis includes descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), independent samples t-test, and Pearson chi-square test of independence. In addition, internal consistency (Cronbach Alpha level of 0.6 or higher for statistical significance) of the survey items was conducted to improve the instrument's reliability (Bonett & Wright 2015).

## RESULTS

This section of the paper provides the demographic results, followed by the outcomes aligned to the three research questions. In total, four hundred and sixty-six (466) of the one thousand five hundred (1,500) faculty members responded to the survey, for an overall response rate of 31%. From the 466 respondents in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States receiving the survey, 55 respondents started but did not complete the survey and were dropped from the study. This results in a final sample size of 410 and an effective response rate of 27.3%, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: College of Business Faculty Count per Country (N=410)

Country	Frequency	Percent (%)	Response Rate (%) per Country
Finland	66	16.1	21
Jamaica	30	7.3	30
United States	264	64.4	21
^Not Identified/Reported	50	12.2	
Total			410/1,500 = 27.3%*

Not reported^ Country of origin not identified/reported

\*Final response rate

As shown in Table 1, based on country, 16.1% of respondents were from Finland, 7.3% from Jamaica, and 64.4% of the respondents were from the United States. Furthermore, from this sample, 12.2% or 50 participants did not indicate the country location of their business school.

Across the three countries and two continents, the data revealed an almost equal number of females and males who responded to the modified Athena SWAN Gender Equity survey (see Table 2).

Table 2: Demographic Descriptors of Sample

Demographics/descriptors	Frequency	Percent %
<b>Gender</b>		
Woman	183	44.6
Man	182	44.4
Not reported <sup>^</sup>	45	11.0
<b>Employment Type</b>		
Full-Time	335	81.7
Part-Time	29	7.1
Not reported <sup>^</sup>	46	11.2
<b>Position – Job Role</b>		
Post Doc	13	3.2
Instructor	23	5.6
Lecturer/Senior Researcher	33	8.0
Teaching Fellow		
Senior Lecturer/Principle Researcher/Teaching Fellow	17	4.1
Assistant Professor	76	18.5
Associate Professor	64	15.6
Professor	84	20.5
Administrator and Faculty	41	10.0
Other Roles <sup>^^</sup>	16	3.9
Not reported <sup>^</sup>	43	10.5
<b>Contract Types</b>		
Permanent	203	49.5
Open-ended	41	10.0
Fixed term	103	25.1
Temporary	18	4.4
Not reported <sup>^</sup>	45	11.0

(N=410)

Not reported<sup>^</sup> – respondents did not indicate the relevant category.Other Roles<sup>^^</sup> – comprised of doctoral candidates and full-time administrators

Noteworthy is that 45 faculty members chose not to indicate their gender on the survey, representing 10.98% of the total sample from Finland, Jamaica, and the United States. These faculty members were not included in any comparisons or analyses related to gender. As shown in Table 2, 44.6% of females and 44.4% males responded to the survey. The data points to assistant and associate professors making up approximately 34% of the overall participants in the study. Full professors and college administrators (Deans, Chairs, Directors, etc.) comprised approximately 31% of the respondents.

Furthermore, Table 2 indicates 66% of the college of business faculty in the sample indicated having permanent/open-ended contracts, compared with 29% employed under fixed-term/temporary employment contracts. As reflected in Table 2, the majority of respondents were full-time faculty, having a variety of job roles and contract type appointments. The time spent in the faculty role despite contract type is outlined in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic Descriptors of Sample

Demographics/descriptors	Frequency	Percent %
<b>Time in Position</b>		
Less than 1 Yr. to 5 Years	182	44.4
5 to 10 Years	71	17.3
10 to 20 Years	67	16.3
More than 20 Years	47	11.5
Not reported^	43	10.5
<b>Caring Responsibilities</b>		
Yes	227	55.4
No	133	32.4
Prefer Not to Say	7	1.7
Not reported^	43	10.5
<b>Age</b>		
Under 25	2	0.5
26 – 35	71	17.3
36 – 45	85	20.7
46 – 55	80	19.5
56 – 65	95	23.2
66 and above	33	8.0
Not reported^	44	10.7

(N=410)

Not reported^ – respondents did not indicate the relevant category.

Other Roles^^ – comprised of doctoral candidates and full-time administrators

From the demographic data collected and presented in Table 3, we found that 44% of the respondents were in their position for less than five years. The data revealed 44% of the respondents were, on average, still relatively new to their positions. Additionally, over 33% of faculty members surveyed indicated they were between five and twenty years in their positions. The data collected also indicate that 43% of faculty members were between 46 and 65. Only 38% of respondents were between 26 and 45 years old. The demographic data examined provided a snapshot of the spread and impact of gender on various demographic descriptors such as contract type, job role, caring responsibilities, and years in current position.

The results based on the three research questions are presented in the next section.

Research Question 1. To what extent are female faculty members in colleges of business compensated differently than male counterparts? For these results, compensation data are presented in Tables 4 & 5 and Figures 3 & 4, reflecting self-reported actual compensation earned by business school faculty by country and faculty members' perceptions regarding compensation.

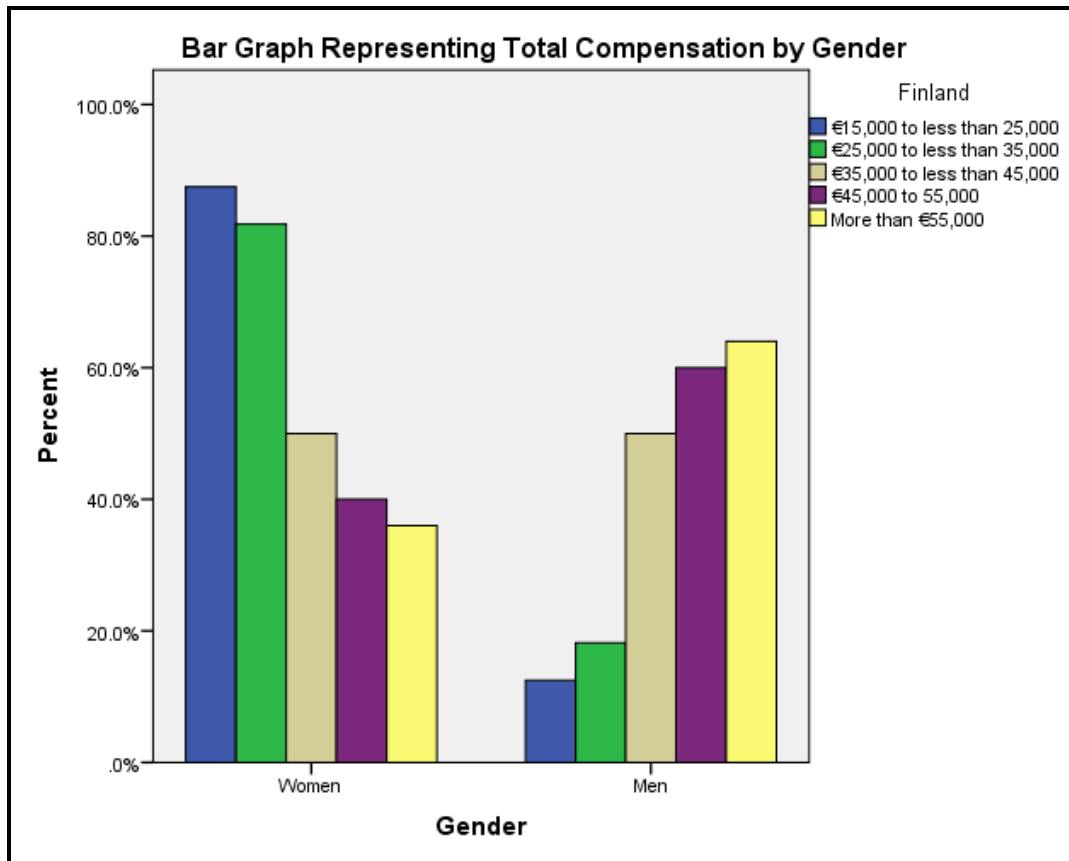
Table 4: Finnish Faculty Members Analysis of Reported Actual Compensation by Gender

Survey Items – (See Appendix E)	Analysis	p-Value
1 – Perceived equality of work hours Compensated	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.367
64b – Perception of equity in salary	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.202
64c – Perception of equity in access to funding	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.203
78 – Total compensation earned	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.025*

\*Significant difference at the .05 level ( $p < .05$ )

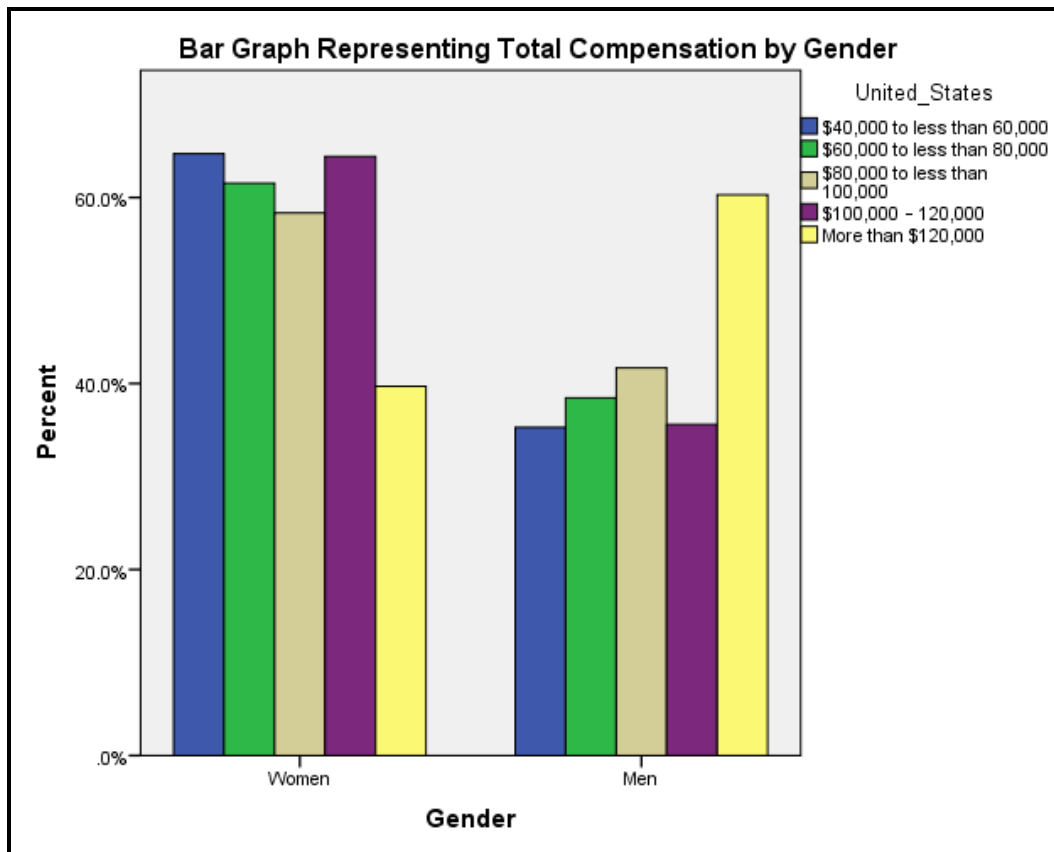
\*\*Significant difference at .01 level ( $p < .01$ )

Figure 3: Finnish Business Faculty Total Compensation by Gender



Our analysis indicates significant differences exist between how male and female business faculty members in Finland and the United States are compensated (see Tables 4 & 5; Figures 3 & 4). These research findings strongly support those female faculty members in Finland, and the United States earn less than males. However, our findings did not support any significant difference in the actual compensation of male and female business faculty members in Jamaica. The findings indicate that fewer Finnish females than male faculty members earned compensation of more than 55,000 Euros (Figure 3), the top of the salary scale used for comparison. Additionally, regarding female faculty members in the United States sample, we found only 22.2% earned more than \$120,000/year (Figure 4).

Figure 4: United States Business Faculty Total Compensation by Gender



The data we present in Table 4 reveal the perceptions of Finnish faculty regarding compensation in direct contrast to the actual self-reported salaries of Finnish faculty members. Thus, the findings suggest, Finnish faculty are in effect being inequitably compensated based on self-reported actual salary earned. In addition, the findings did not support any significant

difference between actual and perceived compensation of male and female faculty members in Jamaica by comparison to Finland. Hence, Jamaican business school faculty members' actual and perceived salary earned was equitable regardless of gender. Conversely, the data reveal that business school faculty members in the United States perceived inequitable treatment related to salary and access to funding sources for research/scholarship (see Tables 5 & 6).

Table 5: United States Faculty Members Analysis of Compensation with Gender

Survey Items (see Appendix E)	Analysis	p-Value
1 – Perceived equity of work hours compensated	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.348
64b – Perception of equity in salary	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.000**
64c – Perception of equity in access to funding	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.000**
80 – Total compensation earned	$\chi^2$ Test of Independence	.009**

\*Significant difference at the .05 level ( $p < .05$ )

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level ( $p < .01$ )

As shown in Table 5, the faculty in the United States perceived a difference in salary based on gender. This suggests that female faculty in the United States overwhelmingly believe that they are treated inequitably related to salary, access to funding for research/travel, and total compensation earned compared to their male counterparts. Table 6 further elucidates this difference in salary and access to funding for travel/research, based on gender in the United States.

Table 6: Perceptions Male and Female Faculty Regarding Salary and Access to Funding Independent Samples t-test in the USA

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
Salary	Equal variances assumed	95.654	.000	8.974	254	.000	.74779	.08333	.58369	.91189
	Equal variances not assumed			8.938	199.301	.000	.74779	.08366	.58281	.91276
Access to funding	Equal variances assumed	91.135	.000	4.133	253	.000	.22632	.05476	.11847	.33416
	Equal variances not assumed			4.146	149.284	.000	.22632	.05458	.11847	.33417

\*Significant difference at the .05 level (p <.05)

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level (p<.01)

The data clearly show in Table 6 that females in the United States earn less than their male counterparts for doing the same job. Such inequities demoralize women in the workplace and continue the unfair treatment of faculty members based on gender.

Research question 2. What factors explain differences in the career advancement of female faculty in colleges of business? Table 7 summarizes the findings of research question two. Career advancement was measured using the sub-factors, recognition, tenure, promotion, work flexibility, and working part-time. Career advancement as an overall factor did not indicate any significant difference between male and female faculty members' perceived progress in their careers.

Table 7: Independent Samples T-test Summary Results of Career Advancement Perception

Country Factor/Criteria	p-Value		
	Finland	Jamaica	United States
Recognition	-.183	1.538	.193
Tenure & Promotion	.266	.180	.396
Work Flexibility	-.685	.690	.043*
Working Part-time	-.448	1.732	.411

\*Significant difference at the .05 level (p <.05)

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level (p<.01)

Additionally, sub-factors such as recognition, tenure and promotion, flexible working, and working part-time, derived from an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using a varimax rotation (see Table 7), did not indicate significant differences, except for the United States sample, as it relates to flexible working hours. Female faculty in the United States business school indicated that flexible working conditions were inequitable based on gender (see Table 8).

Table 8: Rotated Component Matrix

*Items	Components								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12	.891								
10	.816								
16	.807								
32	.789								
3	.708								
9	.699								
30	.659			.460					
35	.593		.425						-.395
28	.546			.504					-.333
14	.524	.396					.356	.308	
21		.857							
23	-.375	-.797							
8		.499				.402	.339		
7			.799						
13			-.667		.347				
11	.490		.529			-.448			
25				.871					
36		.422		.707				.460	
24					-.762				
22					-.747				
33						.882			
34					.336	.515			-.502
26							-.795		
15							.745		
27								.906	
31	.456				.352				.627

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. <sup>A</sup>

a. Rotation converged in 21 iterations.

The findings from the Finnish business school sample in Table 8 did not indicate a statistically significant difference between career advancement variables, equality in treatment



regarding; promotion, access to career development opportunities, office space, administrative support based on gender. Conversely, business school faculty members in the Jamaican sample perceived they were treated unequally/inequitably regarding promotion and receiving administrative support because of their gender (see Table 9). The data indicate a significant interaction between gender and the other perceived inequitable conditions faced by faculty in the United States sample (see Table 9).

Table 9: Pearson Chi-square Test of Independence Summary Results of Business Faculty Perceptions: Other Career Advancement Variables

Factor/Criteria	p-Value		
	Finland	Jamaica	United States
Access to Promotion	.190	.026*	.000**
Access to Career Development Opportunities	.564	.053	.000**
Access to equitable Office Space	.568	.364	.000**
Access to Administrative Support	.557	.008**	.000**

\*Significant difference at the .05 level ( $p < .05$ )

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level ( $p < .01$ )

Table 9 indicates that for career advancement variables such as access to promotion, career advancement opportunities, equitable office space, and administrative support, females in the United States sample continue to lag behind their male counterparts, irrespective of the number of years on the job. Only access to promotion and administrative support presented a significant interaction at  $p < .05$  level in Jamaica. No significant difference was found between how male and female Finnish faculty access these career advancement variables.

Research question 3. To what extent are leadership positions in colleges of business determined by gender? Research question three focused on two sub-factors (1) gender-biased leadership and (2) equal access to leadership positions derived from an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using a varimax rotation. This analysis found that gender-biased leadership represented a significant difference in how male and female faculty members in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States accessed leadership positions (see Table 10).

Table 10: Pearson Chi-square Test of Independence Summary Results of Business Faculty Leadership Factors

Factor/Criteria	Finland	Jamaica	United States
Gender-biased Leadership	10.299	.181	.000**
Equality of Access to Leadership	14.198	.243	.363

\*Significant difference at the .05 level ( $p < .05$ )

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level ( $p < .01$ )

As shown in Table 10, only findings from Finland and the United States sample indicated a statistically significant difference in equal access by male and female business faculty members to gender-biased leadership. The findings relating to perceptions of business faculty regarding other leadership variables are summarized in Table 11.

Table 11: Pearson Chi-square Test of Independence Summary Results of Business Faculty Perceptions: Other Leadership Variables

Factor/Criteria	Finland	Jamaica	United States
Leadership opportunities	.767	.602	.042*
Gender balance on committees	.048*	.084	.173
Decision making	.750	.498	.050*
Consulted on key decisions	.378	.105	.442

\*Significant difference at the .05 level ( $p < .05$ )

\*\*Significant difference at .01 level ( $p < .01$ )

Table 11 indicates that business school faculty members in Finland did not perceive that gender had any statistically significant role in how they accessed leadership opportunities and being involved in decision-making within their colleges. Conversely, Finnish business school faculty members did perceive that tenure/promotion committees lacked gender balance. From the data, female faculty perceived fewer females than males are represented on tenure/promotion committees.

## DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

The findings are presented and interpreted based on the three research questions that guided the study. Consistent with the findings regarding the extent to which female faculty members in colleges of business are compensated differently than their male counterparts, is borne out in existing literature regarding gender inequities in the United States and Finland (AAUW Report 2016-2017; European Commission 2016—2019; United Nations Women—Finland, 2015; World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report, 2020). The literature we reviewed revealed female faculty in academia continue to be compensated at a lower rate than their male counterparts. In Finland, the data revealed females were compensated at 87 cents to the dollar (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2020; Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, n.d.; Statistics Finland, 2014;) and in the United States, 82 cents to the dollar according to the American Association of University Women (AAUW) 2020 Report. According to the Statista Labor Market Gender Gap Index, 2021, females in Jamaica are compensated 63 cents to the dollar compared to their male counterparts (Romero, 2021).

Our findings for research question one confirmed what other researchers have advanced. That is, compensation remains a significant factor impacting gender equity in higher education. From this research, only data related to the total compensation of faculty members in Finland and the United States supported this significant relationship/interaction between gender and compensation earned. Conversely, the data from the Jamaican sample did not support a perceived or actual disparity related to compensation. The results from the Jamaican sample ran counter to the findings of the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report (2018, p.137) findings that females are still being compensated at 61 cents to the dollar compared to their male counterparts.

The perceptions of business faculty members regarding equity in compensation were not explained in the literature reviewed. We found that perceptions of inequitable salaries based on gender confirmed the actual self-reported inequitable salary earned by female faculty members. In other cases, we did not support the findings. For example, even though Finnish faculty members were inequitably compensated based on the self-reported actual compensation, they did not perceive gender as having any impact on how they were compensated

Consequently, this research represents a fascinating and important extension based on anecdotal evidence that there is a disparity in how Finnish faculty members are compensated. This reality can lead to significant social, financial and political implications, especially for women in colleges of business. When compared to Jamaica, a small developing country, there was no statistical difference in the actual or perceived equity in compensation of male and female faculty members.

On the other hand, the findings indicate that faculty members in the United States perceive that gender plays a significant role in compensation. This finding was consistent with the literature and supported the actual self-reported compensation data collected in this study (Newman, 2014; World Economic Forum, Gender Gap Report, 2020, 2021). Current literature (International Labor Organization, 2018 and Grusky, 2019) placed significant focus on inequity in actual compensation and not on the impact of perceptions regarding compensation of business school faculty members. The findings from this research regarding perceptions of equity in compensation will expand earlier research regarding compensation and gender equity. Although no significant difference existed between compensation and gender for the Jamaican sample, the findings show that when salaries are negotiated in a highly-unionized system, issues of inequity are generally fewer.

All business faculty in the Jamaican sample, a public university, and the population for this study were compensated based on collective bargaining negotiations. Hence, compensation within Jamaica's highly unionized public university system makes it difficult for inequitable compensation to occur, at least when faculty are hired. Document analysis showed emphatically that the University of the West Indies, the largest public university in Jamaica, and by extension, Mona School of Business and Management, the sample for this study, hiring practices were guided by a gender mainstreaming policy. As a result, faculty compensation within the Jamaican system is part of collective bargaining and not decided within colleges. This collective bargaining practice reduces the likely impact of gender-based compensation at the time of hire.

These results are in keeping with the literature reviewed (UWI Statistical Report, 2016; UN Women, 2015; World Bank Data, 2020).

In conjunction with research question two, the factors that explained the differences in the career advancement of female faculty in colleges of business were recognition, tenure and promotion, flexible working conditions, and working part-time. The literature reviewed pointed to gender inequities both in academia and the business world that negatively impacts career advancement of women related to these factors (Bilimoria & Liang 2011; Blättel-Mink, 2008; Doyle 2010; McKinsey & Company 2014, 2015; McKinsey Quarterly 2015; Reilly, Jones, Vasquez & Krisjanous 2016; Tyer-Viola & Cesario 2010; Unterhalter et al. 2011; Sanders, Willemsen & Millar 2009; World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report 2020). The findings from this study do not support the premise that career advancement, on its own, was a significant factor being influenced by gender. Instead, the findings reveal that when career advancement sub-factors, recognition, tenure and promotion, flexible working hours, and working part-time were evaluated against gender, they contradicted existing literature. The literature indicated that these named factors were essential measures of career advancement that continue to be influenced by gender (Stromquist, 1990, 2013; Sanders, Willemsen, & Millar, 2009). We found the only exception was the sub-factor, flexible working hours, which presented a significant relationship with gender for the United States (see Table 7).

Furthermore, the results on gender perception indicate more females from the United States sample believed they were mistreated regarding issues related to workload. Perceptions tend to lead to behaviors that may impact an individual's overall performance on the job (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009), in keeping with human capital theory. Hence, the findings from this research are essential, adding to and extending the body of literature regarding gender equity. Additionally, the findings indicate that male and female perceptions of inequitable treatment based on gender, as it relates to promotion and administrative support, were significant for some business faculty, but not for others, in accordance with both feminist and socialization theories. For example, female faculty members from the Jamaican and the United States samples were the only ones perceived to be treated inequitably related to promotion and getting administrative support (see Table 9). Thus, female faculty are still a marginalized population in the United States and Jamaica, and their perception of disproportionate treatment based on gender may result from their lived experiences. Again, this was in keeping with the tenets of feminist theory.

Additionally, perceived inequity by Jamaican business faculty may be based on the deep-rooted patriarchal culture and socialization patterns of women in the society who are still viewed as being inferior to men in many respects, inclusive but not limited to promotion and receiving administrative support (Bellony, Hoyos & Nopo, 2010; Thame & Thakur, 2014). The perceptions held of being mistreated in the areas of promotion and getting administrative support are critical components of career advancement that may also be further explained by feminist theory (Ledford, 2012; Powell, 2013) as well as by human capital theory (AAUP, 2018-2018; Bae & Patterson 2014; Mundy et al. 2008; Olson 2013). According to socialization and feminist theory, how individuals view themselves and others may directly result from the socialization process they have encountered from their formative years through adulthood. Hence, how each

individual views themselves continue to influence the expectations and their world view and perceptions.

Interestingly, for faculty in the United States sample, we found a significant relationship between gender and access to administrative support, equitable office space, career development opportunities, and access to promotion (see Table 9). Additionally, United States business school faculty members indicated that they felt unfairly burdened with low-level administrative and service work. These two factors have proven to be detrimental to their career. Analysis of survey data does not show a significant relationship between gender and inequities in career advancement for Finnish faculty members. However, according to the European Institute for Gender Equality report (2016, 2019, 2020), females in Finland lag behind their male counterparts regarding equitable access to healthcare, work, power, and shared time for caregiving. Notably, female faculty members from the United States and Jamaica perceived mistreatment compared to their male peers regarding promotion and administrative support access. Furthermore, female faculty members from the United States perceived they were treated inequitably regarding access to office space and career development opportunities.

Our findings to research question three examining the extent to which leadership positions in colleges of business were determined by gender is interpreted below. First, the findings indicate that significantly more female business faculty members in all three countries (Finland, Jamaica, and the United States) perceive that leadership positions in colleges of business are gender-biased. This finding supports both the literature in academia and the business world that gender inequity exists in business school leadership as well as leadership in corporate entities, respectively (Bilimoria, & Liang, 2011; Blättel-Mink, 2008; Doyle, 2010; McKinsey, & Company, 2014, 2015; McKinsey Quarterly, 2015; Reilly, et al., 2016; Tyer-Viola & Cesario, 2010; Unterhalter et al., 2011; Sanders, Willemsen & Millar, 2009; World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report, 2014, 2015). Second, this study also confirmed findings in the literature that a significant relationship exists between gender and leadership opportunities. However, what is of interest, which deviates from the literature, is that significant interactions were not present between gender and equitable access to leadership (see Table 10).

Additionally, significantly more female faculty members in the United States sample indicated they noticed/observed others in their college being mistreated (gender-biased leadership) because of their gender (see Table 10). The fact that more females in the United States sample reported seeing inequitable treatment encountered by faculty because of gender may indicate different historical and social norms in the United States compared to Finland and Jamaica. Finally, with these strong findings come implications for policy and practice regarding reducing and ultimately eliminating gender inequity within business schools.

## **IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE**

### **Policy implications**

We found that current literature on gender equity did not focus on business school faculty (Reilly, et al., 2016). Hence, this research sought to fill this gap in the literature. Additionally,

examining issues of gender equity utilizing the perceptions of business faculty is not an area of focus in the literature. Therefore, we suggest that the findings from this study add to the general body of research literature on gender equity. More importantly, the findings of this study extend the discussion of gender equity by accounting for the impact of faculty perceptions of equity through a comparative and multicultural lens (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2018). Using faculty members' perceptions of inequitable treatment helps understand why, as was found in this study, actual data sometimes runs counter to perceived inequities.

For example, even though female faculty members in Finland were compensated at lower rates than their male counterparts, they perceived no inequitable compensation between male and female faculty members. Because Finland, a Nordic Welfare State, is seemingly a more egalitarian society, likely, faculty would not have perceived any inequity in compensation. In contrast, faculty from the United States, a more individualistic/capitalistic society, perceived they are inequitably compensated, and in actuality, they are. Additionally, in a highly patriarchal society, faculty members from Jamaica did not perceive they were inequitably compensated. This finding was confirmed by self-reported actual salary data provided but contrasted with the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report (2018) that indicates that on an overall country basis, females are inequitably compensated, 61 cents to the dollar compared to males.

Using Human Capital theory to examine the implications of perceptions regarding faculty compensation and the actual inequities between salaries of male and female faculty members is essential to gender equity research. From a human capital theory perspective, as Olson (2013) espoused, those who control the power and resources within societies determine how gender issues are viewed and treated. Therefore, if policymakers who make compensation decisions view females as less than males in their ability to get the job done, gender inequity will persist. Furthermore, even though females may come to the table with the same human capital, the compensation model valued by leadership will often favor male over female faculty.

According to Bowles (2013), those who control organization resources are typically those who control power. Therefore, policymakers, who more often than not are men, need to be educated to have a behavior change and to craft policies that equalize the playing field for females. From this study, we found that more males in the study sample earned higher compensation. This unequal distribution of compensation, based on the postulate of Bowles (2013) and Kerbo (2000), will likely lead to the unequal distribution of power and likely determine how females are treated, viewed, and positioned in society. To deconstruct the stereotypical view that men are generally destined to earn more than women based on expected societal norms, one must examine how men and women are socialized in their formative years (See Figure 2, Framework for Gender Equity in College of Businesses). This socialization process and practice generally decide how males and females perceive themselves and ultimately treat others.

## **Implications for practice**

Except for working flexibly, an important practice impacting gender equity in the United States, career advancement was not deemed a significant factor explaining the differences in how male and female faculty members progress in their profession. Based on these results, we imply that generally, business faculty across these distinct cultures of Finland, Jamaica, and the United States, do not perceive their progression in their career being impacted by inequity in tenure and promotion, recognition for their work, and working part-time. The findings suggest that working flexibly is a significant factor impacting the career advancement of female faculty in the United States. These findings suggest that it is incumbent on legislators and policymakers at the national and university level to place more effort on eliminating perceived and actual inequities in compensation across these three countries. Additionally, accommodating working flexibility should become more equitable, especially as more females than males participate in caregiving roles.

Equitable access to leadership positions continues to be a critical factor advanced by many in the literature regarding male and female faculty (AAUW Report, 2016, 2018; AACSB Report, 2014; Curtis, 2011). The data obtained from business faculty in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States are emphatic that leadership positions in business schools are gendered in favor of males over females. Our findings further indicate that more male than female faculty members is in leadership positions in business schools across the three countries. The AACSB Report supports this finding (2014), Business School Data Guide Report (2018), and other literature reviewed. This finding implies that even though in Finland, Jamaica, and the United States, legislation and policies have been enacted to assure females have equitable access to jobs and opportunities, they still lag behind males based on their human capital.

We suggest that policy and practice implications implore policymakers/legislators at the country and university level to reexamine current Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) mandates and determine necessary changes that will positively impact female business faculty access to leadership roles, equitable compensation, and particular career advancement opportunities. Crafting policies that lead to acceptable practices that focus on providing opportunities for more females to access leadership positions will be a step in the right direction. More females in leadership and policymaking positions provide both a real and psychological boost to females coming through the pipeline.

## **CONCLUSION**

Conclusively, in this study, we set out to examine the relationship between gender equity and compensation, career advancement, and leadership. We found there were powerful connections between gender and actual compensation for Finland and the United States. However, no significant relationship existed between gender and compensation for Jamaica due to hiring policies guided by a collective bargaining unionized environment. In addition, there was no significant difference between gender and career advancement for all three countries.

Furthermore, our study confirmed gender-based leadership roles continue to significantly influence hiring practices in business schools where more males control senior leadership positions, are tenured or tenure-tracked full or part-time faculty and graduate teaching assistants compared to females (AACSB Business School Data Guide, 2021).

Gender inequity persists in the wider society. Its impact in businesses colleges is far-reaching as these business schools have the enviable task of preparing students who will likely be the business leaders of tomorrow or future faculty members. These research findings suggest the need for a strong focus in terms of policy and practice for fixing or providing equity for current gender inequities. This would require placing greater emphasis on societal norms, values, mores, and beliefs that shape each individual. Hence, the study posits a conceptual framework (see Figure 2) that places focus on deconstructing societal perceptions from the formative years (pre-school, kindergarten, elementary) that women are less than or unequal to men. However, trying to make meaningful change after the formative years where deeply rooted normed behaviors have been reinforced is difficult, if not impossible, in engendering sustainable changes in attitudes and behaviors by women about themselves and others regarding their place in society (Bicchieri & Mercier, 2014).

The deconstruction of entrenched societal and cultural norms must begin in the formative years for both males and females to assure that behavioral changes are sustained by accepting equity and equality for all members of society. Additionally, the findings of our study indicate actual and perceived unequal compensation by gender should inform legislation, educational policies, curricula, and other measures that seek to change cultural, institutional, and personal perceptions regarding gender equity. Finally, we want women worldwide to perceive and experience fairness in how they are compensated, promoted, and given access to leadership roles. This way, balancing the scale of gender equity will be achieved.

## REFERENCES

- AACSB Business School Data Guide Report. (2014). Retrieved from <https://www.aacsb.edu/-media/aacsb/publications/data-trends-booklet/2014.ashx?la=en&hash=42CF1899D4DE5C717BEEF07E2DDAF6BF08293276>
- AACSB Business School Data Guide Report. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.aacsb.edu/~media/AACSB/Publications/data-trends-booklet/2014.ashx>
- AACSB Business School Data Guide Report. (2021). Retrieved from <http://aacsb.edu/-/media/aacsb/publications/data-trends-booklet/2021-business-school-data-guide-octoberrelease.ashx?la=en&hash=01A876C5C49E746E75A832EB4421AA6B914382EC>
- Acker, J. (1973). "Women and social stratification: A case of intellectual sexism." *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(4): 936-945.
- Aiken, L. (1980). Content validity and reliability of single items or questionnaires. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 40(4), 955-959. Retrieved from <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/001316448004000419>
- Albertine, S. (2013). "Gender Equity in higher education: Calling for equitable, integrative, and inter-generational leadership." Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U). Retrieved from <http://aacu.org/diversitydemocracy/2015/spring/Albertine-women>
- American Association of University Professors (AAUP). (2020 – 21). Faculty compensation survey results. Retrieved from <https://www.aaup.org/2020-21-faculty-compensation-survey-results>



- American Association of University Professors (AAUP). (2020). The annual report on the economic status of the profession, 2019 – 20. Retrieved from [https://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/2019-20\\_ARES.pdf](https://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/2019-20_ARES.pdf)
- American Association of University Women (AAUW) Report. (2016). “The simple truth about the gender pay-gap.” Retrieved from [http://www.aauw.org/files/2016/02/SimpleTruth\\_Spring2016.pdf](http://www.aauw.org/files/2016/02/SimpleTruth_Spring2016.pdf)
- American Association of University Professors (AAUP) Report. (2017-18). “The annual report on the economic status of the profession.” Retrieved from [default/files/ARES\\_2017-18.pdf](default/files/ARES_2017-18.pdf)
- Bae, S., & Patterson, L. (2014). “Comparison and implications of human capital theory at the individual, organization, and country levels.” *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication and Conflict*, 18(1): 11-28. Retrieved from <https://ezproxy.library.astate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/doc/view/1647822738?accountid=8363>
- Bellony, A., Hoyos, A., & Ñopo, H. (2010). “Gender earnings gaps in the Caribbean: Evidence from Barbados and Jamaica.” Retrieved from [http://papers.ssrn.com/so13/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=1818749](http://papers.ssrn.com/so13/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1818749)
- Bicchieri, C., & Mercier, H. (2014). Norms and beliefs: How change occurs. In *The complexity of social norms* (pp. 37-54). Springer, Cham.
- Bilimoria, D., & Liang, X. (2011). “Gender equity in science and engineering: Advancing change in higher education.” *Routledge studies in management, organizations, and society*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Blättel-Mink, B. (2008). “Reinventing gender in higher education.” *Equal Opportunities International*, 27(1): 107-111. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02610150810844974>
- Bonett, D., & Wright, T. (2015). “Cronbach’s alpha reliability: Interval estimation, hypothesis testing, and sample size planning.” *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1): 3-15. doi:10.1002/job.1960
- Bowles, D. (2013). “Toward an integrated theory of social stratification.” *American Journal of Economics & Sociology*, 72(1): 32-58. doi:10.1111/j.1536-7150.2012.00870.x
- Bureau of Women’s Affairs. (2011). “National policy for gender equality-Jamaica.” Retrieved from <https://www.nlj.gov.jm/files/u8/NPGE-JA-FINALwCover21311.pdf>
- Carter, M. (2014). “Gender socialization and identity theory.” *Social Sciences*, 3(2): 242-263 doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/socsci3020242>
- Chang, C., Rosen, C., & Levy, P. (2009). “The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A meta-analytic examination.” *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4): 779-801.
- Connelly, L. (2008). “Pilot studies.” *Medsurg Nursing*, 17(6): 411.
- Curtis, J. (2011). “Persistent inequality: Gender and academic employment.” American Association of University Professors. Washington, DC. Retrieved from [https://www.aaup.org/NR/rdonlyres/08E023AB-E6D8-4DBD-99A0-24E5EB73A760/0/persistent\\_inequity.pdf](https://www.aaup.org/NR/rdonlyres/08E023AB-E6D8-4DBD-99A0-24E5EB73A760/0/persistent_inequity.pdf)
- Daley, A., & MacDonnell, J. (2011). “Gender, sexuality and the discursive representation of access and equity in health services literature: implications for LGBT communities.” *International Journal for Equity in Health*, 10(1): 40.
- Doyle, W. (2010). “The gender “crisis” in higher education.” *Change*, 42: 52-54. Retrieved from <https://ezproxy.library.astate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/578487956?accountid=8363>
- European Commission: Strategic engagement for gender equality. (2016-2019). Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/document/files/strategicengagement.en.pdf>. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union
- European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) Report. (2017). “Gender equality index 2017: Measuring gender equality in the European Union 2005-2015 – Report.” ISBN: 978-92-9493-768-1 DOI: 10.2839/251500 Retrieved from <https://eige.europa.eu/publications/gender-equality-index-2017-measuring-gender-equality-european-union-2005-2015-report>
- Eurostat. (2020). Women’s employment in the EU. Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/products-eurostat-news/-/EDN-20200306-1>
- Eurostat Statistics Explained. (2020) “Tertiary education statistics.” Retrieved from <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/pdfscache/1152.pdf>

- Gillies, D. (2011). State education as high-yield investment: Human capital theory in European policy discourse. *Journal of Pedagogy*, 2(2): 224 doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10159-011-0011-3>
- Gordon, L. (2016). 'Intersectionality', Socialist Feminism and Contemporary Activism: Musings by a Second-Wave Socialist Feminist. *Gender & History*, 28(2), 340-357.
- Grusky, D. (2019). *Social stratification, class, race, and gender in sociological perspective*. Routledge.
- International Labour Organization. (2018). The gender gap in employment: What's holding women back? Retrieved from <https://www.ilo.org/infostories/en-GB/Stories/Employment/barriers-women#intro>
- Jahan, R., & Mumtaz, S. (1996). "The elusive agenda: Mainstreaming women in development." *The Pakistan Development Review*, 35(4): 825-834.
- Johanson, G., & Brooks, G. (2010). "Initial scale development: sample size for pilot studies." *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 70(3): 394-400.
- Johnson, K. (2011). "Gender inequality still an issue for business women." *The Sundial – California State University Northside*. Retrieved from <http://sundial.csun.edu/2011/10/gender-inequality-still-an-issue-for-business-women/>
- Johnson, K., Warr, D., Hegarty, K., & Guillemin, M. (2015). "Small wins: An initiative to promote gender equity in higher education." *Journal of Higher Education Policy & Management*, 37(6): 689-701. Doi:10.1080/1360080X.2015.1102820
- Kerbo, H. (2000). "Social stratification and inequality: Class conflict in historical, comparative, and global perspective, (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)." New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kerbo, H. (2006). "Social stratification." California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo, CA. Retrieved from [http://digitalcommons.calpoly.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1064&context=ssci\\_fac](http://digitalcommons.calpoly.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1064&context=ssci_fac)
- International Labour Organization. (2018). The gender gap in employment: What's holding women back? Retrieved from <https://www.ilo.org/infostories/en-GB/Stories/Employment/barriers-women#intro>
- Ledford, A. (2012). "Group representation, feminist theory, and the promise of justice." Farnham, Surrey [UK]: Ashgate
- Lips, H. (2013). "The gender pay gap: Challenging the rationalizations. Perceived equity, discrimination, and the limits of human capital models." *Sex Roles*, 68(3-4): 169-185.
- Maitra, K. (2013). "The questions of identity and agency in feminism without borders: A mindful response." *Hypatia*, 28(2). Retrieved from <https://feminism.org.360-376>. doi:10.1111/hypa.12017
- March, C., Smyth, I., & Mukhopadhyay, M. (2005). "A guide to gender-analysis frameworks." London: Oxfam.
- Marginson, S. (2019). Limitations of human capital theory. *Studies in Higher Education*, 44(2), 287-301.
- Maslow, A. (1954). "Motivation and personality." New York: Harper and Row.
- McKinsey & Company. (2014). "Moving mind-sets on gender diversity: McKinsey global survey results." Retrieved from <http://www.mckinsey.com/businessfunctions/organization/our-insights/moving-mind-sets-on-gender-diversity-mckinsey-global-survey-results>
- McKinsey & Company. (2015). "Women in the workplace report." Retrieved from [http://womenintheworkplace/ui/pdfs/Women\\_in\\_the\\_Workplace2015.pdf?#5](http://womenintheworkplace/ui/pdfs/Women_in_the_Workplace2015.pdf?#5)
- McKinsey Quarterly. (2015). "A CEO's guide to gender equality." Retrieved from. <http://www.mckinsey.com/global-themes/leadership/a-ceos-guide-to-gender-equality>
- Ministry of Social Affairs and Health. (n.d.). "Towards equal pay." Retrieved from <http://stm.fi/en/gender-equality/equal-pay>.
- Morse, J., Barrett, M., Mayan, M., Olson, K., & Spiers, J. (2002). "Verification strategies for establishing reliability and validity in qualitative research." *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(2): 13-22.
- Moss, N. (2002). "Gender equity and socioeconomic inequality: a framework for the patterning of women's health." *Social Science & Medicine*, 54(5): 649-661.
- Moser, C. (1993). "Gender planning and development theory practice and training." Routledge: London.
- Mundy, K., Bickmore, K., Hayhoe, R., Madden, M., & Madjidi, K. (Eds.). (2008). "Comparative and international education: Issues for teachers." NY: Teachers College Press

- Munir, F., Mason, C., McDermott, H., Morris, J., Bagilhole, B., & Nevill, M. (2013). "Advancing women's careers in science, technology, engineering, mathematics and medicine: Evaluating the effectiveness and impact of the Athena SWAN charter." London: Equality Challenge Unit.
- Nafukho, F. M., Hairston, N., & Brooks, K. (2004). "Human capital theory: Implications for human resource development." *Human Resource Development International*, 7(4): 545-551.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2015). "Fast facts: Degrees conferred by sex and race." Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=72>
- Nevo, B. (1985). Face validity revisited. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 22(4), 287-293. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/1434704.pdf>
- Newman, J. (2014). "There Is a gender pay gap in academe, but it may not be the gap that matters." *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <https://www.chronicle.com/blogs/data/2014/04/11/there-is-a-gender-pay-gap-in-academe-but-it-may-not-be-the-gap-that-matters/>
- Nicholson, L. (2013). "Feminism/postmodernism." Routledge, London
- Nielsen, M. (2014). "Justifications of gender equality in academia: Comparing gender equality policies of six Scandinavian universities." *NORA: Nordic Journal of Feminist and Gender Research*, 22(3):187- 203.
- Olson, J. (2013). "Human capital models and the gender pay gap." *Sex Roles, Feminist Forum Commentary*, 68(3-4): 186-197. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11199-012>
- Powell, J. (2013). "Feminist Social Theory." Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Ramirez, S. (2010). "Gender inequities in academe and faculty perceptions of family-friendly policies" (Order No. 3440339). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global (854330604). Retrieved from <https://ezproxy.library.astate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/854330604?accountid=8363>
- Razavi, S., & Miller, C. (1995). "Gender mainstreaming." UNRISD, Geneva.
- Reilly, A., Jones, D., Rey Vasquez, C., & Krisjanous, J. (2016). "Confronting gender inequality in a business school." *Higher Education Research & Development*, 35(5): 1025-1038
- Romero, T. (2021). Jamaica: labor market gender gap index 2021, by area. Statista. Retrieved from <https://www.statista.com/statistics/803809/jamaica-gender-gap-labor-market-category/>
- Rose, D. (2015). "Regulating opportunity: Title IX and the birth of gender-conscious higher education policy." *Journal of Policy History (JPH)*, 27(1): 157-183. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0898030614000396>
- Sanders, K., Willemsen, T., & Millar, C. (2009). "Views from above the glass ceiling: does the academic environment influence women professors' careers and experiences?" *Sex roles*, 60(5-6): 301-312.
- Schmitt, J. (2015). "A gender scorecard for business schools." *Poets & Quants*. Retrieved from <http://poetsandquants.com/2015/05/02/a-gender-scorecard-for-business-schools/>
- Schultz, T. (1961). "Investment in human capital." *The American Economic Review*, 51(1): 1-17.
- Statistics Finland. (2014). "Women and men in Finland 2014." Communication and Statistics Services—Statistics Finland. ISBN 978-952-244-491-2 (pdf). Retrieved from [http://www.stat.fi/tup/julkaisut/tie-dostot/julkaisuluettelo/yyti\\_womefi\\_201400\\_2014\\_10368\\_net.pdf](http://www.stat.fi/tup/julkaisut/tie-dostot/julkaisuluettelo/yyti_womefi_201400_2014_10368_net.pdf)
- Stromquist, N. (1990). "Gender inequality in education: Accounting for women's subordination." *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 11(2), 137-153. Retrieved from [http://www.jstor.org/stable/1392827?Seq=1#page\\_scan\\_tab\\_contents](http://www.jstor.org/stable/1392827?Seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents)
- Stromquist, N. (2013). "Education policies for gender equity: Probing into state responses." *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 21(65).
- Thame, M., & Thakur, D. (2014). "The Patriarchal state and the development of gender policy in Jamaica. In politics, power and gender justice in the Anglophone Caribbean." Retrieved from <https://sta.uwi.edu/igds/ppgj/documents/IDL-53631.pdf>
- The World Bank Data. (2021). Labor force participation rate – Jamaica. Retrieved from the International Labour Organization, ILOSTAT database [https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.MA.NE.ZS?end=2019&locations=JM&most\\_recent\\_val\\_ue\\_des.c=false&start=1990&view=chart](https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.MA.NE.ZS?end=2019&locations=JM&most_recent_val_ue_des.c=false&start=1990&view=chart)

- Tyer-Viola, L., & Cesario, S. (2010). "Addressing poverty, education, and gender equality to improve the health of women worldwide." *Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic, and Neonatal Nursing: JOGNN/NAACOG*, 39(5): 580-589. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1552-6909.2010.01165.x>
- United Nations (UN) Women. (2015). "Annual report (2014 – 2015)." Retrieved from <http://www.unwomen.org/media/annual-report/attachments/sections/library/un-women-annual-report-2014-2015-en.pdf?language=en&vs=522>
- University of the West Indies (UWI) Higher Education and Statistical Review. (2013). "Issues and trends in higher education." Retrieved, from <http://www.uwi.edu/sf-Docs/default-source/uopd-general/hesr2013-issues-and-trends-in-higher-education-march2015-for-univer-council.pdf?sfvrsn=2>
- UWI Statistical Review Academic Year 2009/2010. (2016). "The University of the West Indies—serving the region at Cave Hill, Mona, St. Augustine and through the open campus." Retrieved from <https://www.mona.uwi.edu/opair/statistics/2009-2010/UWI+Statistical+Review+2009-10.pdf>
- UWI Statistical Digest 2010/11 to 2014/2015. (2016). "A statistical review of 5-year trends in student enrollment and graduation statistics at the UWI during the period 2010/11 to 2014/15 for selected datasets." The University of the West Indies—the university office of planning and development. Retrieved from <https://www.mona.uwi.edu/opair/statistics/2014-2015/Statistical-Review-2010-11-to-2014-15.pdf>
- United Nations Women. Finland. (2015). "Country report by Finland. The implementation of the Beijing platform for action (1995) and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly (2000)." Retrieved from [http://www2.unwomen.org/~media/headquarters/attachments/sections/csw/59/national\\_reviews/finland\\_review\\_beijing20.ashx?v=2&d=20140917T100730](http://www2.unwomen.org/~media/headquarters/attachments/sections/csw/59/national_reviews/finland_review_beijing20.ashx?v=2&d=20140917T100730)
- University College of London (UCL) Template. (2015). Athena SWAN survey. Retrieved from <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/hr/equalities/gender/6.%20UCL%20Athena%20SWAN%20Survey%20-%202015.pdf>
- Unterhalter, E., & North, A. (2011). "Girls' schooling, gender equity, and the global education and development agenda: Conceptual disconnections, political struggles, and the difficulties of practice." *Feminist Formations*, 23(3): 1-22. Retrieved from <https://ezproxy.library.astate.edu/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/917429243?accountid=8363>
- U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2018). "The condition of education 2018 (NCES 2018-144), Undergraduate retention and graduation Rates." Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=40>
- Verbos, A., & Dykstra, D. (2014). "Female business faculty attrition: Paths through the labyrinth." *Equality, Diversity & Inclusion*, 33(4): 372-383. doi:10.1108/ED10-2013-0083
- Weinstien, A. (2018). "When more women join the workforce, wages rise — including for men." *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2018/01/when-more-women-join-the-work-force-wages-rise-including-for-men>
- Westring, A., McDonald, J., Carr, P., & Grisso, J. (2016). "An integrated framework for gender equity in academic medicine." *Academic Medicine*, 91(8): 1041-1044.
- Wharton, A. S. (1991). "Structure and agency in socialist-feminist theory." *Gender & Society*, 5(3): 373-389.
- Wheeler, L. (2016). "Study: Women lose \$500b a year from unequal pay." *The Hill*. Retrieved from <http://thehill.com/regulation/legislation/275877-study-women-collectively-lose-500b-a-year-due-to-unequal-pay>
- World Economic Forum. (2021). *Global gender gap report 2021*. Retrieved from [http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF\\_GGGR\\_2021.pdf](http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2021.pdf)
- World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report. (2014). Retrieved from <http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/report-highlights/> and <http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/>
- World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.weforum.org/reports/global-gender-gap-report-2015>
- World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report. (2017). Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-gender-gap-report-2017>
- World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report. (2018). Retrieved from <https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-gender-gap-report-2018>

Zhou, L. (2015). "Year in review: The biggest stories about gender inequality at work." The Atlantic. Retrieved from <http://www.theatlantic.com/business/archive/2015/12/gender-equality-work place-2015/422328/>