



Narratives of associate professors: How recruitment and selection procedures influence career experiences

A study on the influence of recruitment and selection procedures on career experiences of male and female associate professors at the Erasmus Medical Center

Erasmus University Rotterdam

Master thesis in Sociology – Engaging Public Issues

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the extent to which recruitment and selection procedures contribute to differences in career experiences between male and female associate professors. An analysis of interviews with associate professors at Erasmus Medical Center reveals the presence of structural gendered factors in the procedure. Micro-political practices, often amplified by individual factors, lack of transparency and the influence of the department head as gatekeeper lead to differences in career experiences of men and women. This study contributes to the improvement of recruitment and selection procedures and therefore to the reduction of the gender gap in professorial positions.

KEYWORDS

Gender Gap; Micropolitics; Professorial Positions; Recruitment & Selection; Transparency

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1. Introduction

Dutch girls have overtaken boys in education: they attend higher levels of education and graduate in a shorter time (Portegijs & van den Brakel, 2018). In 2017, the share of highly educated 15 to 65-year-olds was for the first time even higher among women than among men (CBS, 2019). However, according to the Monitor Female Professors, in 2020, only 24.4 percent of academic professors in the Netherlands were women (LNVH, 2020). This issue is called: The Gender Gap in Academia.

As the above shows, the gender gap is not caused by a lagging performance of women in education. Women also are not less likely than men to opt for a PhD: Half of the current Dutch PhD students are women (OCW, 2021). The difference between the number of female PhD students and the number of female professors shows that somewhere along the career path from PhD student to professor, women ‘drop out’ or stop making upward career steps.

The differences already emerge at the transition from assistant professor to associate professor (LNVH, 2020). As can be seen in figure 1 below, in 2019, 42.7% of the assistant professors in the Netherlands were women and 57.3% were men. This gap is even greater when looking at associate professors: 30.1% of associate professors in the Netherlands were women and 69.6% were man.

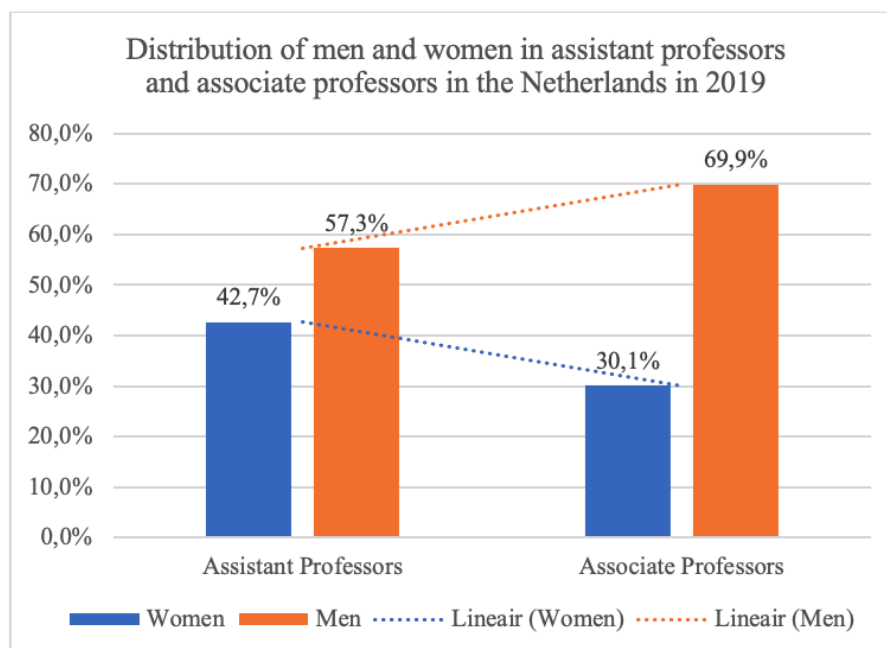


Figure 1 Distribution of men and women in assistant professors and associate professors – based on Monitor Female Professors (LNVH, 2020)

Until now, research has paid little attention to the career step from assistant professor to associate professor. The focus was mainly on the last career step from associate professor to full professor, thereby ignoring the differences in the earlier career steps (Van den Brink, Brouns & Waslander, 2006; Herschberg, Benschop & Van den Brink, 2018). Also, the policies of the Dutch government and universities focused mainly on the last career step from associate professor to full professor (NWO, 2018; EUR, 2018). An example of one of those policies is the 25/25 policy of the Erasmus University Rotterdam (EUR) which aims to have 25% female professors at the university by 2025 (EUR, 2019). This policy seeks to support female associate professors on their path to full professorship. Furthermore, policies often focus on individual factors that hinder women in their careers, such as their character traits. Little attention is paid to aspects of the organization that can hinder women, such as obstacles in the recruitment and selection process (LNVH, 2020; EUR, 2018).

1.1 Recruitment and selection

Recruitment and selection procedures can have major impact on individual's career paths and career experiences, especially for women (Dany, Louvel & Valette, 2011; Herschberg et al., 2018). They can be detrimental to their career paths, as there are several components that can complicate their process, such as subtle gender biases among job application reviewers (Nielsen, 2016; Russell, Brock & Rudisill, 2019). An explanation for this is that there are conceptions of the 'ideal' qualifications and 'ideal' careers, and these are connected with the social identity of individuals (Van Laer, Verbruggen & Janssens, 2019). This results in the fact that people from different social identity groups may have different career experiences (Van Laer et al., 2019). According to Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010), there is a need to learn more about participants' perspectives on career moves. By doing so, we can gain insight into the subjective meanings they give to it. For this reason, it is important to look at career experiences and how they are influenced by recruitment and selection procedures, rather than just the measurable outcomes of these procedures.

Several factors can influence career experiences and contribute to a gender gap. These include individual factors, such as gender differences in career confidence (Baker, 2010; Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002), competitiveness, and assertiveness (Cook & Glass, 2013; Buser, Niederle & Oosterbeek, 2014). However, I argue that these individual factors do not by themselves lead to the existing gender gap. I argue that organizational context contributes to the emergence of

differences in career experiences. Therefore, in this study, I focus on the influence of recruitment and selection procedures on career experiences.

1.2 Research questions

This thesis takes a qualitative approach, analyzing the narratives of participants in recruitment and selection procedures.

The main research question of this thesis is:

To what extent do recruitment and selection procedures and practices at Erasmus Medical Center contribute to differences in career experiences for male and female associate professors?

To answer this question, I will answer two sub-questions:

- 1. How do men and women experience the recruitment and selection procedure for associate professors?**
- 2. Which elements in the recruitment and selection procedure for associate professors can lead to different outcomes for male and female candidates?**

1.3 Relevance to science and society

This research will focus on the entire process from recruitment to appointment. This allows to identify several detrimental elements in the process. This complements previous studies that focused primarily on the selection interview (Van den Brink et al., 2006; Rivera & Owens, 2020). In addition, existing research on recruitment and selection procedures is primarily quantitative (van den Brink et al., 2006; Kin et al., 2018; Silander et al., 2021). Therefore, there is much knowledge about the intentions and outcomes of recruitment and selection processes, but less understanding of the experiences of people who participated in them. The perspective of the individual narrator allows for an analysis of people's interpretation, rather than just the intended policy or measurable outcomes. Gustafsson & Swart (2019) conducted a similar qualitative study of narratives in recruitment and selection. However, they focused primarily on law firms and recommend conducting research on the academic sector. Van den Brink et al. (2006) found aspects of recruitment and selection procedures that may contribute to the gender gap in academia. However, due to the quantitative approach, they could not explain the

findings. In addition, their study dates from 2006, while in the meantime, much attention has been paid to improving the procedures. Therefore, it is important to re-examine the issue in the current situation. This qualitative study can complement both the studies of Gustafsson & Swart (2019) and van den Brink et al. (2006).

During this research, I have been in contact with an employee of EMC's HR department. The employee indicated areas in which recommendations would be useful for further improvement. Toward the end of my research, she provided me with advertising documents for the current women's programs so that I could be more specific in my recommendations for possible revision based on the results of my research. This being done, more certainty will be provided regarding the practicality of this research.

The results of this study may also be relevant to other faculties and universities. Especially now, a few years after universities started to see the gender gap as a major problem and implemented policies to address it, it is interesting to examine whether men and women still experience the procedures differently. By qualitatively examining people's experiences, in-depth insights can be provided, the system can be evaluated, and lessons can be learned. This will allow current policies to be improved, so that more equal opportunities for men and women can be created.

1.4 Research focus

I will analyze the experiences of male and female associate professors. The case that I will study is Erasmus Medical Center (EMC). In 2020, approximately 53% of the assistant professors and 41% of the associate professors at EMC were women (LNVH, 2020). So here too, a gap can be seen between the number of female assistant professors and the number of female associate professors.

I chose to compare experiences of men and women who participated in recruitment and selection procedures. This reduces the chance of me accidentally drawing conclusions about obstacles for women, which are actually also present for men. In addition, the narrative of men on gender inequality in the procedures is also important. It is interesting to see whether men experience the same as women or whether they have completely different experiences, so that policies can be adjusted and provide more equal opportunities.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Micropolitics theory

The micropolitical perspective provides an ideal starting point for this thesis, as it can provide tools for analyzing invisible gendered aspects of recruitment and selection procedures, which can best be found by looking at experiences of individuals, rather than by looking at outcomes. According to micropolitics theory, individuals and groups in organizations use their (formal and informal) power, strategies and tactics to pursue their goals (Blase, 1998; Morley, 1999). This refers not only to tension and conflict, but to all forms of day-to-day interaction, such as networking, influencing, lobbying, and defending one's own interests (Van den Brink, Benschop & Jansen, 2010; O'Connor, 2020). There are several subtle and complicated forms of micropolitical practices that discriminate against women (Marchant & Wallace, 2013). Most micropolitical practices in the academic workplace contain more benefits for men than for women (Teelken, Taminau & Rosenmöller, 2019). Those "gendered" expressions of micropolitics practices are called "gendered practices" (O'Connor, 2020).

One moment where gendered micropolitical practices can occur in academic careers is during the recruitment and selection procedures (Van den Brink et al., 2010). Van den Brink et al. (2010) suggest that a micropolitical perspective is useful in research into recruitment and selection processes because these processes are not purely technical but involve politics and negotiation. This creates room for micropolitics.

Louise Morley, one of the most prominent scholars in the field of micropolitics, indicates that studies often focused on individual factors of women that disadvantage them, which suggests that women are to blame for lagging behind men (Morley, 1999). Micropolitics offer a way to show that there are also structural factors in organizations that disadvantage women. For example, the micropolitical perspective can be helpful in seeing where structural gender factors are present in the recruitment and selection process.

However, I see the omission of the focus on individual factors as a limitation of this perspective. I argue that the detrimental effect of structural factors can be reinforced by the presence of individual factors. A sufficient network is for example often required to be invited to apply for certain positions (primarily structural). This can be detrimental to a particular group if that group has a network of lesser quality than other groups (primarily individual). I want to build on earlier studies by focusing both on micropolitical theory and individual factors and analyzing how they can possibly reinforce each other and thereby lead to differences in career

experiences for men and women. In order not to lose sight of the individual factors I will mention them when they emerge in the data. In this way, I can use both micropolitics and individual factors as efficiently as possible to provide a more complete picture of gendered practices in recruitment and selection procedures.

2.1.1 Masculine practices

Teelken et al. (2019) identify three forms of micropolitical practices. Masculine practices involve the existence of the male norm (Van den Brink et al., 2010). An example within academia is the existence of a 'monastic' image of the scientist. The prevailing image of a scientist is someone who is wholly devoted to science and barely has a personal life (Bleijenbergh, van Engen & Vinkenburg, 2012). Due to this prevailing image, universities are seen as 'care-free' zones (Harford, 2018). Women are still largely considered the main 'caregivers' and therefore do not correspond to the image of the monastic scientist. Teelken et al. (2019) describe the organizational culture in which masculine practices take place as a masculine organizational culture. This can hinder women in their academic career.

2.1.2 Relational practices

The second form, relational practices, refers to formal and informal networking within and outside the organization. Networks with executives, individuals in a higher hierarchical position, or individuals from outside the organization can contribute to a smooth career progression (Teelken et al., 2019). Networking is for example often needed to get access to sponsorship (Van den Brink & Benschop, 2013). Research has found that men are more likely than women to have individual relationships with people in powerful positions. This practice can therefore be disadvantageous for women (O'Connor, 1992).

2.1.3 Local fit practices

The third form, local fit practices, indicates that people tend to choose new members of their department from the internal dominant group (Teelken et al., 2019). This can lead to intellectual inbreeding and selective recruitment and ensures that people often stay their entire career with the same organization. Men are more likely to refer to the so-called 'local fit' in their job application than women. Women rather focused on the objective criteria for the position. This may lead to greater chances for men in an application procedure in which the 'local fit' is (implicitly) included as a criterion (O'Connor et al., 2017).

2.2 Application of theory

I conceptualized the three micro-political practices in the practice of recruitment and selection procedures to show when gendered practices possibly occur in recruitment and selection procedure, thereby providing a starting point for my analysis.

2.2.1 Experiences

Masculine practices may lead to different experiences for men and women in recruitment and selection procedures. A masculine organizational culture can be recognized by competition, output-driven work, long workdays, the expectation that employees put work above personal life (sacrifice), and the expectation that individuals in the organization "play the game" and conform to this masculine norm (Teelken et al., 2019). Masculine practices may come to light when respondents speak of a high workload or are expected to sacrifice their personal lives for their job. A second indication is when there is no structural commitment in the organization to policies promoting a proper gender balance. This is often seen as unnecessary because of the idea that women are simply less interested in career progress (Teelken et al., 2019).

A so called 'gender homophily' can indicate the manifestation of *relational practices*. This means that because of the powerful gendered formal and informal networks, successful candidates are selected based on whether they have the same gender as the rest of the dominant group (Van den Brink & Benschop, 2013). Bagilhole & Goode (2001) call those networks 'in-built patriarchal support systems', because they do not only advantage people by nepotism, but also offer other sources of support such as career advice and information.

An example of how *local fit practices* affect experiences is 'choice homophily'. This means selective inbreeding that occurs as individuals select people of their own sex for certain positions. As a result, the dominant group stays the same. Criteria for academic positions are often vague and can therefore be reshaped, giving local candidates a greater chance (O'Connor et al., 2017).

These examples show how micro-political practices can contribute to different experiences of recruitment and selection processes for men and women.

Another element that literature on recruitment and selection procedures highlights is the influence of "lack of transparency" on experiences of men and women (Van den Brink et al., 2010). Unclear criteria and opaque procedures can increase the chance that criteria unconsciously steer towards for example nepotism or one's own biased interpretations and can

therefore provide ground for the presence of micropolitical practices (Teelken et al. (2019). Van den Brink et al. (2010) found that already in 2010, even though most of the recruitment and selection protocols drew attention to equal opportunities for men and women, there was not much transparency on the actual implementation of those policies and faculties with the most formalized and transparent appointment procedures nominated the highest number of women. Because lack of transparency may provide ground for the presence of micropolitical practices, I will analyze this element in the data as well.

2.2.2 Outcomes

A *masculine organizational culture* can lead to different outcomes for men and women in recruitment and selection processes, because it is more natural for men to participate in the (political) game than for women (Teelken et al., 2019). Women who adapt to this norm will get promoted faster, but in turn prefer to work with women who also adapt to this norm, thus excluding a certain group of women from a smooth career path, which can lead to different outcomes for men and women (Teelken et al., 2019).

Relational practices can influence outcomes when individuals outside the official selection committees have influence over the process. This influence can be detrimental to women because these individuals may interpret the policy themselves and may not have been properly trained to recognize their own implicit biases (Van den Brink et al., 2010).

An example of local fit practices is when women are deemed less competent than men, despite objectively meeting the same criteria. Women often have to perform more before they are rated at the same level as men (O'Connor et al., 2017). This is called the “double standard”. The most extreme example of *local fit practices*, according to O'Connor et al. (2017) is when selection interviews do not function as a moment of assessment but become “public consecration ceremonies”. Hereby the successful candidate is already identified before the interview takes place. This creates bias and unfair opportunities in the process.

These examples show how micropolitical practices can lead to different outcomes for men and women.

Another element that literature on academic recruitment and selection procedures shows is how the power of gatekeepers can affect the differences in outcomes for men and women (Van den Brink & Benschop, 2013). The influence of HRM in academic recruitment and selection procedures is often small. Academics in high hierarchical positions often consider themselves best suited to manage the process and feel responsible to recruit and select their own academic

staff. They accept little or no interference in this (Thunnissen & Van Arensbergen, 2015). Van den Brink & Benschop (2013) call these academics ‘Gatekeepers’ because of their own powerful positions and their influence in the access of others to academic positions. Examples of gatekeepers in academia are department heads, senior managers, or full professors with influential positions. A department head acting as a gatekeeper can for example decide who is or is not likely to be promoted and can "close the gate" even before an objective assessment can take place. This can be detrimental to women because those gatekeepers can decide what the ideal academic looks like (Herschberg et al., 2018). The influence of gatekeepers can provide ground for the presence of micro-political practices that can contribute to differences in outcomes for men and women and therefore I chose to analyze this factor as well.

3. Methods and data

3.1 Research design

I aimed to analyze the experiences of people who have participated in recruitment and selection procedures and to explain the different outcomes for men and women. For the purpose of describing, interpreting and explaining experience, and thus meaning-making, qualitative research is most appropriate (Boeije, 2016). This qualitative study used narratives of individuals who participated in recruitment and selection procedures. The narrative approach allowed respondents to explain their own experiences and interpretations of events. This is important because it can provide insight into the underlying complexities of recruitment and selection processes (Gustafsson & Swart, 2019)

3.2 Setting

I chose EMC as case study for this research. EMC is a university medical center (UMC) affiliated with Erasmus University Rotterdam. EMC is a suitable case to study as 24.4 percent of the professors at EMC are women, which is the same as the national average of female professors at universities (LNVH, 2020). However, in comparison with other UMC's in the Netherlands, it has the second lowest percentage of female professors. EMC has three core tasks: patient care, research, and education (EMC, 2020). Within EMC, academics can be distinguished into those with 'clinical' tasks and those with 'non-clinical' tasks. Clinical tasks are directly related to patients. This can include surgery and patient care. Non-clinical tasks refer to other work in the hospital, such as lab work. Differences in prior education steer academics at EMC towards clinical or non-clinical work.

3.3 Interviews

The data used for this research was obtained through interviews with associate professors of EMC. The interviews were secondary data from another research project¹. Seventy-five interviews were conducted for the project, of which thirty-eight were used for this thesis. The remainder were not conducted at EMC but at other faculties and were therefore excluded from this research.

¹ The interviews were conducted as part of the 'Gender Gap in Academia' research affiliated with Erasmus University Rotterdam.

3.3.1 Secondary data

Secondary analysis can lead to the data being mined to a fuller extent (Bryman, 2016). When data is only used by one researcher for only one study, there will be a large part that remains under-analyzed. Secondary analysis can bring valuable insights to the surface by looking at the data from a different perspective. Another benefit is the possibility for “sub-group analysis” (Bryman, 2016). The existing dataset was quite large, but this study focused on a subgroup within this respondent group, namely the respondents who work within EMC. Zooming in on this small group yielded perspectives that may apply to the whole respondent group, and therefore offer interesting new research questions. Additionally, using secondary data reduces work for the researcher (Bryman, 2016). I analyzed thirty-eight interviews of about one and a half hours each. Gathering the data myself would have taken much more time and would have reduced the time that I could spend on the analysis.

A possible limitation of secondary data is the lack of familiarity with the data (Bryman, 2016). When data are collected by others, a period of familiarization is often necessary because of the complexity of the data. However, in this study this disadvantage was limited because the data were available from the start of the research, offering sufficient time to become familiarized with the data. Secondly, the data were originally collected for a slightly different purpose than the research objective of this thesis. While this could lead to a lack of key variables for the study, I overcame this by coding the interviews myself and drawing up my own theoretical framework. This offered me the chance to interpret the data myself and not be influenced by already existing codes.

3.3.2 Characteristics of the interviews

The interviews I analyzed for this study were semi-structured interviews. This means that questions were asked based on a topic list. The interview could easily take a different turn when interesting points came up, but it was ensured that all intended topics were eventually discussed. One of the intended goals of semi-structured interviews is that the interviewer finds out how the respondent understands and explains problems and events (Bryman, 2016). The emphasis is on what the respondent considers important in explaining and understanding events, patterns, and behaviors. In addition, semi-structured interviews leave room for the respondents to submit their own points and opinions (Bryman, 2016). This method was in line with the aim of this study because people were given the space to comment on their own experiences and opinions. This method may have led to interesting new findings that had not

yet emerged from the theory. The interviewer was able to comment directly on new points brought up by the respondents, so that they immediately could be explored.

The topic list that was used is included in Appendix I. The interviews focused on seven main themes, three of which were of particular interest to this study, namely *outline career path*, *personal development*, and *career events*. In discussing these topics, the respondents talked about, among other things, how their career had progressed up to that point, what choices they had made, and what their experiences were with the procedure for appointment as associate professor.

At the time of the interviews, all respondents were associate professors at the EMC. They had been appointed associate professors at EMC between 2014 and 2018. The cohort that was analyzed fell under the same recruitment and selection policy, which makes the data more consistent. A distinction was made between male and female professors and between clinical and non-clinical employees. The table below shows the distribution of the respondents.

	Clinical	Non-Clinical	Total
Female	9	10	19
Male	9	10	19
Total	18	20	38

Table 1 Distribution of respondents by gender and type of work.

3.4 Analyzing the interviews

Before I began my research, the interviews had already been transcribed and partially coded. I removed all existing codes, as I aimed for an unbiased analysis. In the “application of theory” section of the theoretical framework, I had previously outlined how the micropolitical concepts might occur in the practice of recruitment and selection procedures for academic positions. I used this as a starting point for my analysis. I established five sensitizing concepts based on this theoretical framework, namely, *masculine practices*, *relational practices*, *local fit practices*, *perceived transparency*, and *gatekeepers*. I linked several subcodes to these concepts that emerged from the literature. For example, “relational practices” got the subcodes “formal relationships”, “informal relationships” and “support”. I used the program Atlas.ti 9, in which I entered the codes. I read all interviews in a random order, so that while I was reading, I would not go looking for confirmation of previous findings from the same group, but carefully linked the codes while aiming to be as unbiased as possible. I coded based on a theoretically based

inductive analysis. I used the sensitizing concepts as a theoretical starting point and added additional codes based on new concepts I encountered during the analysis. In doing so, I made room for respondents' opinions and experiences and other highlights that did not emerge directly from the theory. I found new relevant concepts that I would have otherwise overlooked. As a result, for example, the original code "relational practices," was assigned even more subcodes and new main codes were also added. After I coded all the interviews, I started over, so that all the codes added later were also coded in the first interviews. This process resulted in a total of 9 main codes with 32 associated subcodes.

3.5 Quality of methods

The replicability of this study is guaranteed to the extent to which this is possible for a qualitative study. For a study to be replicable, the procedures must be written out in detail (Bryman, 2016). I explained the methodological choices that I made in detail. The choices made in the distribution of respondents are listed in the section above. This clear presentation makes it possible for later studies to use the same type of respondent selection. In addition, the topic list used for the interviews is included in Appendix I. This makes the study easily replicable, for example for research into the situation at other UMCs.

To guarantee the reliability of this study as much as possible, the interviews used for this thesis have been transcribed. This makes it easy to find exactly what a respondent said and in what context, to prevent this from being misinterpreted. Most of the interviews used were originally conducted in Dutch. The quotes used in the results section were translated into English and then checked by a native English speaker. This checking ensured that the respondents' statements were interpreted correctly. Secondly, I explained how the interviews were coded and I added the code tree in Appendix II. In this way, I was able to show that there has been consistency in the analysis and interpretation of the data and the same code tree can be reused in follow-up research (Bryman, 2016).

Both internal and external validity were guaranteed in this study. The purpose of this study was to describe experiences. Interviewing people in a safe environment where privacy is guaranteed ensured that they could tell their stories undisturbed and that experiences were measured rather than socially desirable answers. Furthermore, after coding the data, I checked the findings regarding processes within EMC with a staff member of the HR-department. This way I knew that I had not made any incorrect assumptions or interpretations.

This study was a case study, so external validity was not the goal. Yet I guaranteed this as best as possible, by choosing a case in which the average number of female professors is the same as the national average. Also, the total cohort consisted of seventy associate professors, so thirty-eight interviews was a large part of the whole cohort, which increased the validity.

3.5.1 Ethics and Privacy

I am aware that this research used highly personal data, so I made sure that the privacy of the respondents was always accounted for. When the interviews were conducted, all respondents consented to the collection of the data and signed a consent form. In addition, prior to the interviews, discussions were held with privacy officers and the dean of Erasmus MC, who also gave their approval. Furthermore, all names of respondents have been anonymized and replaced with fictitious names. While I conducted the study, I always kept the data in a secure environment. Before beginning this research, I completed and signed a comprehensive Ethics and Privacy checklist myself. This checklist is attached in Appendix III. To this checklist, I also attached the consent document for respondents.

4. Results

4.1 Experiences

4.1.1 Masculine practices

The masculine organizational culture as described by Teelken et al. (2019) is reflected in the respondents' experiences when they mention the workload. All respondents experienced a heavy workload, but women talked about it more as a hindrance than men. Respondents mentioned that working more than was stipulated in their contracts was expected of them and sacrificing one's private life seemed to be the norm. Robert (male) said: *“I sometimes joke that this is the same as an insatiable mistress; it is never enough here at Erasmus MC”*.

Several female respondents indicated that they felt a barrier to going on maternity leave. Sophie (female) mentioned that she worked as long as possible during her pregnancy: *“I have always demonstrated to be equal to men. So, I worked for 36 weeks during my pregnancy. I did not stop earlier [...], so I might have overcompensated there”*. Female respondents also experienced a lot of pressure to work full-time. A respondent mentioned that she had suggested working part-time to be able to spend more time with her family, but received negative reactions from the organization, such as that her motivation for the work was doubted.

Another masculine aspect in the organization, according to female respondents, was the “masculinity” of the criteria for appointments for professorial positions. Olivia (female) described them as *“not the recognition of talent, but the recognition of results”*, because they were focused on numbers and achievements. This resembles the output-driven masculine culture as described by Teelken et al. (2019).

The differences in experiences between men and women are amplified by differences in individual factors that respondents mention. Women often reported that their character traits had been a hindrance to their career progression. They said they had been too reluctant or insecure to take the lead in the process themselves. Men did not mention their characters as detrimental factors.

Another factor on which men and women differed notably were their motivations to become associate professors. Women most frequently mentioned that the title could serve as a *means of access*. They indicated that the title could give access to collaborations that are not possible as an assistant professor. Laura (female) saw the associate professor position as a tool: *“You*

can apply [for research grants] yourself as an associate professor. You will also be considered to be a more sophisticated partner with whom others would like to collaborate”.

Female respondents frequently mentioned they were not actively pursuing becoming associate professors prior to appointment. A respondent noted that people around her thought her appointment was more special than she did: *“You noticed it from the responses too. I mean the people who say: ‘Congratulations’, while I am thinking: I’m still doing the same thing as I did before, except for the fact that the title is different”* (Sylvia, female).

Men spoke more often about the value they placed on the title of associate professor. *Gaining respect* was the greatest motivation for men to start with the procedure. Most men mentioned respect or status as a motivation. Women mentioned this only a few times. Sebastian (male) stated: *“I just deserve it”*. Peter (male) saw the appointment as a reward for his work: *“It is a step in your career that is an appreciation of your success”*.

Respondents reported a negative view of gender balancing initiatives, which is an indication of a masculine organizational culture according to Teelken et al. (2019). One example of such an initiative at EMC is the Female Career Development Program (FCD). The goal is to help women develop in such a way that they can take the right steps for a smooth career path. Although all female respondents who participated in the FCD program looked back on this positively, several women indicated that they had been skeptical about the program beforehand. Emma (female) had been skeptical, until she needed the support herself: *“I have not done that for a long time since it did sound so feminist to me. I think that it should not matter whether you are a man or a woman. So, I thought that it is nonsense that a program existed specifically aimed at women. [...] Until the moment that I ran into that issue myself”*. Several women mentioned that they had been afraid of skeptical reactions from their environment. This increased the barrier to participate in the program.

Several men also expressed reservations about the gender initiatives. They felt that they were blamed for women having fewer career opportunities and sometimes felt disadvantaged by not being allowed to participate in the programs. Timothy (male) commented: *“I don’t agree with it. I think, without a doubt there’s a clear gap in the number of women in senior positions regarding to men [...] But I think there should be support for both [...] men need mentorship too”*. John (male) was also skeptical about the initiatives that support women in the organization: *“So, to [say] that we only promote women simply because they are female, is just as strange as saying: I condemn women, or homosexuals, because they are homosexuals”*.

These masculine practices and masculine organizational culture reinforced with individual differences between men and women may lead to different experiences for men and women.

4.1.2 Relational practices

Respondents indicated that nepotism and using the network for career advancement, were present in the organization. This indicates relational practices as described by Teelken et al. (2019). These were enabled by a combination of factors that were primarily individual, namely differences in networks of men and women, and factors that were primarily structural, namely lack of information and transparency in the organization.

When asked about important people in their careers, significant people from the respondents' private lives were rarely mentioned as a major influence. When it comes to key individuals within the organization, women most often spoke of colleagues. Men mainly mentioned persons in a higher position in the hierarchy, such as (former) managers or professors in their department. During their career, they could go to these persons with questions and for career advice.

Differences between men and women also emerged when discussing the role of a "mentor" in their career. Only two women reported that they had had a mentor. However, women often mentioned that they had experienced some form of mentoring as part of the FCD program. Men were more likely to report that they had a mentor who helped and advised them on difficult career choices. Several times the department head fulfilled this role. Men also mentioned formal coaches, to whom they were linked through a leadership program. Seven respondents explicitly stated that they had not had support from a mentor during their career.

Both male and female respondents experienced a lack of information about promotional opportunities. Respondents indicated that the policy regarding the recruitment and selection process could easily be found on the EMC website and that the criteria for appointment were clear. However, the appointment process could be improved, according to the majority of respondents, by offering more information provision during the career and prior to starting the process. Susan (woman) stated: *"You could raise awareness amongst people about the career possibilities within Erasmus MC. For instance, if you'd like to discuss something like that and how to approach it, you should know who the specific people are that you could approach. For me, this was not immediately made clear"*.

Some respondents suggested that more support should be provided during the career. By this they meant structural support, where they would be monitored during their career, for example. This would allow them to ask for constant help when they would have to make important choices. Male respondents were more likely than women to indicate that someone in their network, such as someone in a higher hierarchical position with whom they maintained good contact, had helped them arrange a new position or workplace, for example by informing them about upcoming vacancies or checking their portfolios. This is a typical example of a relational practice that is more beneficial to men than to women (Teelken et al., 2019). Women did not mention certain people in their networks. When women had their resumes checked, it was most often during the FCD program.

Men often mentioned that there was a lot of room for political play in the organization and that this had bothered them. They mentioned that there was room for nepotism and that with the "right friends" you would make a career faster. Women did not explicitly state that this was their experience.

In this practice, the impact of lack of transparency clearly emerges as a barrier for women, as women seem to have less of a network and thus are more dependent on transparent information and support from the organization.

4.1.3 Local Fit practices

Respondents indicated that the criteria for appointment as associate professor are defined in an official document. The criteria are divided into three pillars: Education, Research and Management. Examples of criteria include whether the candidate has obtained the teaching certificate and whether the candidate has been a co-promoter at least twice. The criteria are the same for everyone. Many respondents were unhappy with this "one-fits-all list" of criteria, because job descriptions vary considerably from one another, especially between clinicians and non-clinicians. Many non-clinical respondents indicated that it is more difficult for them to publish much, because publishing takes much more time for them due to the size of their studies. However, some clinicians indicated the opposite: because of the time they spend caring for patients, clinicians have less time for research than non-clinicians. In conclusion, both parties do not think it is right to measure their number of publications in the same way. The

same criteria for all provides opportunities for local fit practices. It is more difficult to meet the criteria for individuals with different profiles or different (study)backgrounds. Also, as indicated earlier, respondents termed the criteria "masculine" and therefore they may be more difficult for women to achieve. This reinforces the position of the internal dominant group and can therefore lead to academic inbreeding, which can be detrimental to women.

Furthermore, respondents felt that criteria would sometimes be weighed less strictly than other times. They mention that some people were rejected because they had not achieved a certain number of publications, while others, according to respondents, were already appointed even with far fewer publications. The reason would then be that an appointment was convenient for the organization because a person would leave the organization otherwise. The sense that criteria are not always rigorously tested evokes the idea that there is room for politics and subjectivity in the process. Sander (male) said: *"I'm sometimes under the impression that there are some strategic matters or political affairs that play a role in the background"*. Nevertheless, when asked for examples of such situations, respondents could not replicate an actual situation. Again, it becomes clear how great the influence of a lack of transparency in the process can be.

4.2 Outcomes

4.2.1 Masculine practices

Respondents mentioned that according to official policy, the department head must nominate a candidate before the candidate can be interviewed by the appointment committee. However, it differs whether the department head or the (potential) candidate took the initiative for the nomination. The interviews show that in the vast majority of cases, candidates themselves took the initiative to go to the department head and ask for a nomination. This is true for both men and women. Of the thirty-eight respondents interviewed for this study, twenty-four took the initiative themselves. In about one-third of the cases, the initiative came from the department head.

The standard practice in the organization of having employees be assertive and take the initiative themselves indicates a masculine practice in this part of process, as described by Teelken et al. (2019). Although both men and women often took the initiative themselves, their reasons for doing so differed. Men had two common reasons for taking the initiative. The first reason was that they thought they were good enough: *"At a certain moment I just looked up the*

requirements for associate professor and I simply met these requirements” (Stan, male). The second reason men gave for their initiative is that nothing would have happened if they had not taken the initiative themselves. The majority of men who took the initiative themselves explicitly cited this as their motivation. Robert (male) said: “It is not as simple as the department head calling me and saying how he woke up after a strange dream in which he was allowed to nominate me as associate professor. Of course, if you do not start such discussions yourself, or if you do not make your ambitions clear [...] nothing will happen”.

The most common motivation among female respondents who had taken the initiative themselves was that they had been encouraged by their environment, for example by the FCD program. They indicated that the program had explained the career opportunities within EMC and the “political game” within the procedure. Respondent Luna (female) said: *“The FCD program did help me because I had a certain impression of how such a procedure would go. If I had not followed that program, I would not have known how transparent that either would or would not have been for me”.* The nudge that women experienced from the program to take the initiative for nomination themselves was seen as positive by most women. However, one of the women indicated that she felt pushed too hard by the program. In retrospect, she regretted that she had asked for a nomination too early under the pressure of the program: *“I felt forced in the sense that it was a required task that had to be completed. I wouldn’t have initiated it myself, and it was also too early. So, that moment is not a particularly happy memory” (Ellen, female).* The FCD program, according to women, aims to teach them “how to play the game”. This is an example of the masculine practice described by Teelken et al. (2019): encouraging women to adapt so that they meet the masculine norm and can get promoted faster.

However, even when women asked for nominations on their own initiative, they seemed to wait longer to do so than men, to make sure they were 100% compliant. More than half of the male respondents reported that they had not yet completed the teaching qualification prior to the nomination process. Women, on the other hand, reported that they had almost always completed it prior to the start of the procedure.

In this practice, the influence of the department head as a “gatekeeper” clearly emerges as a barrier for women, as women are less likely than men to take the initiative in an early stage of their careers and are therefore more dependent on the timing of initiative from the department head.

4.2.2 Relational practices

Relational practices came to light and influenced outcomes when respondents talked about being nominated for an appointment. Many respondents felt that the opinion of the department head had too much influence on the careers of employees: *“If the department head does not write a letter about you being the suitable person for that position, you will never receive that position. Of course, such a department head is good at judging people and their qualities. However, the one head of department is perhaps ten times more critical than the other”* (Peter, male). A female respondent also mentioned that she felt the policy made employees too dependent on the opinion of their department head: *“The intermediate layer [i.e. nomination by department head] should be removed [...] I think that there is room for improvement there, so that you are not only dependent on your department head, and that therefore the politics that take place on the level of the department should be removed”* (Maria, female). Here again it becomes clear how great the influence of the department head is in the procedure.

4.2.3 Local Fit practices

Local fit practices were experienced by respondents during the nomination and the selection interview. Women experienced this differently than men. Women were more likely than men to indicate that their department head was reluctant to nominate them. According to several female respondents, the department head only wanted to nominate women if he or she was sure that this person would be appointed. Sophie (female) said that her department head, even though she already met all the criteria, wanted to wait a little longer: *“He wanted to choose for certainty, so he first wanted to be sure that my profile was as suitable for this position as possible”*. Sophie recalled that after the procedure, the selection committee informed her that she could have applied much earlier. Julia (female) also says that her department head was not eager to nominate her: *“I definitely initiated the process of becoming an associate professor myself. If it were not for my own initiative, I think I would never have had that position”*. This is consistent with the “double standard” as described by O’Connor et al. (2017): women must perform better before they are considered good enough for certain positions.

One element from the selection interviews that respondents mentioned is very similar to the finding of O’Connor et al. (2017) that selection interviews may be used as “public consecration ceremonies” instead of critical interviews. Male respondents often felt that they were not taken

seriously in the procedure or that the decision to appoint them had already been made in advance. Lucas (male) indicated that despite being appointed, he was left with a negative feeling from the interview: *“I really had the feeling that this was actually already set in stone, and that the commission also had the feeling that it was somewhat of a formality”*. Women experienced the interview more as a moment of assessment than men. Even though none of the female respondents looked back on the interview in a negative way, they found it more often difficult despite their good preparations and they talked much more about how they had been questioned in terms of content than men did.

Despite that, there is a striking difference in the number of male and female respondents who indicated that they had ever been rejected for the appointment. Six men indicated that they had ever been rejected, while only one of the women indicated this. In most cases the rejection was very unexpected for the male candidate. Half of them disagreed with their rejection. They believed they were unfairly rejected because they did meet the criteria. William (male) stated: *“I feel as if they did not estimate this correctly at the time, simply because there were several guidelines where I simply complied to”*. The one female respondent who reported being rejected the first time had a remarkable process prior to appointment. She mentioned that her department head had a choice between her and a male employee who were both eligible. She said that the department head chose the male employee because he was "the breadwinner" and that it mattered more to his salary scale than to hers (Anne, female).

The influence of the department head becomes evident in this part of the analysis. Employees depend on the judgment of the department head as a "gatekeeper", which is usually more disadvantageous to women.

5. Discussion and conclusion

5.1 Experiences

The first sub-question was: *How do men and women experience the recruitment and selection procedure for associate professors?*

Respondents' experiences reveal a masculine organizational culture as described by Teelken et al. (2019) in which women face more obstacles than men. The disadvantages of those masculine practices for women are compounded by the presence of individual factors, such as differences in character traits and motivation. The disadvantages women face are partially removed by their participation in the FCD program, in which they learn to "play the game". However, learning women to adapt to the male norm ensures that only women who do so will have easy careers, leaving a group of women still excluded from a smooth career path. Furthermore, the FCD program does not solve everything, as it is viewed negatively in advance by women and those around them and because there is only room for ten women per year. This negative view of gender-balancing initiatives is also consistent with masculine organizational culture as described by Teelken et al. (2019). The existence of this masculine organizational culture combined with differences in individual factors between men and women may lead to different experiences of the recruitment and selection process for men and women.

Differences in experiences of men and women are also influenced by relational practices. Both men and women experience a lack of information about the recruitment and selection process. However, men's networks may be more helpful in resolving this deficit than those of women. Thus, in addition to having the general advantages of a big (in)formal network, this may provide additional support for men. Furthermore, male respondents experience the possibility for nepotism, while female respondents do not mention this. One possible explanation for this finding is that because of their large networks, men can take advantage of nepotism, while women do not. This corresponds with the relational practices as identified by Teelken et al. (2019) and is a possible explanation for different experiences of recruitment and selection procedures for men and women.

Respondents perceive room for subjectivity and politics in the selection process, which may provide ground for local fit practices and influence the experiences of men and women. Individual differences may make the “masculine” one-size-fits-all criteria more difficult to meet for women than for men. In addition, women may be less likely to be seen to meet the criteria because they are subjectively interpretable and women do for example not fit the picture of the “monastic scientist” (Teelken et al., 2019). Thus, the combination of micro-political practices and individual factors may contribute to different experiences for men and women here.

The analysis showed that lack of transparency creates space for subjectivity and politics, as there is room for one's own interpretation of the criteria and of who is and is not appointed. This in turn gives room for micropolitical practices, for example it provides room for practices such as favoriting men because of the image of men as “excellent scientists”. As a result, lack of transparency can contribute to different experiences for men and women in recruitment and selection processes and may contribute to advantages for men's careers and disadvantages for women's careers.

5.2 Outcomes

The second sub-question was: *Which elements in the recruitment and selection procedure for associate professors can lead to different outcomes for male and female candidates?*

Respondents indicate the masculine norm in the organization that people should be assertive and take initiative for nomination themselves (Teelken et al., 2019). Women seem to wait longer to take the initiative themselves. This combination of masculine practices (primarily structural factors) and individual factors may be related to the finding that women seem to be nominated for appointment at a later point in their careers than men. This provides a possible explanation for the differences in outcomes between men and women. This is partially remedied by the FCD program, which motivates women to take the initiative, but again this only applies to a few women each year.

The presence of relational practices and the excessive influence of the department head offer possible explanations for differences in outcomes for men and women, as men tend to have better networks than women and are more likely to cite their department head as a “mentor” or form of support. Both men and women report that they are too dependent on the department

head. However, this probably has more benefits for men than for women, because it is likely that a better relationship with the department head can contribute to a smoother appointment. Both factors may contribute to differences in outcomes between men and women.

Women note that department heads wait longer to nominate them than men. Women must perform better to be seen as “excellent”. This resembles the “double standard” and indicates local fit practices (O’Connor et al., 2017). Men indicate that they took the initiative at an earlier stage in their career, while women tend to wait longer. More often than women, they mentioned that they did not meet all the required criteria at that time. This may explain the fact that more male than female respondents report that they were ever rejected for an appointment. After all, it is likely that the probability of rejection is higher if some criteria are not met. This finding reinforces the suspicion of the presence of *local fit practices* in this part of the process, as respondents indicated that men were more likely to be nominated even though they more often did not yet meet all the objective criteria. Again, micro-political practices (department head nominates women later) and individual factors (men take initiative earlier) possibly reinforce each other and contribute to differences in outcomes.

The department head can be seen as a gatekeeper in the process as described by Van den Brink & Benschop, 2013). The department head cannot be avoided in the career step to associate professor. This person can single-handedly determine who will and will not be nominated. Candidates are thus completely dependent on the department head, which can be disadvantageous for the outcomes for women because of the possible presence of micro-politics, such as advantages for men because of their better networks (with department heads). This may contribute to different outcomes for men and women in the process.

5.3 Suggestions and recommendations

This study only included experiences of people who eventually made the step to associate professor. Experiences of people who did not make it, for example because of too many obstacles in the process, were therefore not included. This may have distorted the results. Therefore, for follow-up research, I recommend including people who have stagnated somewhere in their career path.

Second, it is possible that I was unconsciously biased in assessing the experiences of men and women. In retrospect, I would analyze the interviews with women separately from those with

men. By analyzing them separately, I am not directly comparing them and reduce the likelihood that I will recognize differences, which are less present in reality.

My research showed that micro-political practices in recruitment and selection procedures may lead to differences in experiences and outcomes for men and women. To strengthen and expand micropolitical theory on this subject, I recommend for further research to examine whether men are rejected for appointment more often than women and on what grounds. By framing this quantitatively, it can be examined whether men actually meet fewer criteria than women (e.g., because they nominated earlier due to nepotism or gatekeepers) when they take the step and whether this leads to rejection or not.

In addition, the data revealed a few times that not only women, but also people of other backgrounds and nationalities may encounter obstacles in their careers. This research did not provide room to elaborate on this, therefore I recommend this for follow-up research.

I recommend EMC, as well as other universities and faculties, to take a critical look at the taboos surrounding women's programs. A different way of promotion, for example by having previous participants promote the program, rather than promoting it only from within the organization, may break the taboo around participation and get women to participate earlier in their careers. I recommend expanding the program to include more women while simultaneously starting a program that trains gatekeepers (i.e. department heads) and members of selection committees to let go of the masculine organizational culture and learn to make unbiased judgments.

Second, I recommend that criteria for appointment be formulated in more detail so that there is less room for interpretation, and I suggest designing a tracking system that automatically indicates when someone meets the objective criteria, thereby reducing the influence of the department head and eliminating micropolitical practices.

The main question addressed in this thesis was: *To what extent do recruitment and selection procedures and practices at Erasmus Medical Center contribute to differences in career experiences for male and female associate professors?* The study showed that micro-political practices, often reinforced by individual factors and the presence of gatekeepers and lack of transparency can lead to differences in experiences and outcomes, and thus career experiences, of men and women. This study contrasts with previous studies, which mainly looked at how individual characteristics and behaviors of women affected their own career experiences. This

study builds on the ideas of Morley (1999) and other scholars on micropolitics. The findings revealed that it is not obvious that women themselves are to blame for their less smooth career trajectories, but that structural factors can also disadvantage women. As long as there is room for subjectivity and politics in recruitment and selection procedures, women will not have the same opportunities to make a career as men. These insights can contribute to improving recruitment and selection procedures for academic positions, so that women and men have equal opportunities in the procedures and the gender gap in academic professorial positions can be reduced.

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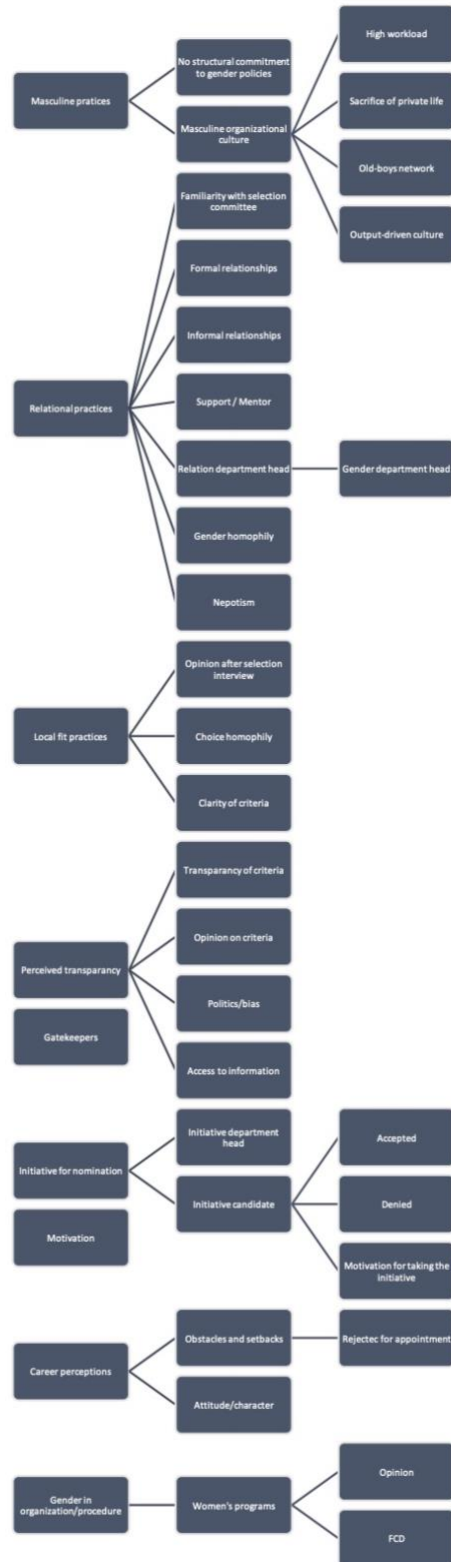
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Appendix I: Topic list interviews

Topics longitudinal research project: ‘*Academic Leadership: Mining the Gender Gap*’
Round 1, November 2019 – January 2020

Topic	Examples / Content
Current position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What kind of tasks does your position involve?
Outline career path	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How did you end up with the following function? - Path is already partly reconstructed on the basis of the CV. Special attention will be paid to the associate professor appointment process.
Personal development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Which training and development programs have you followed?
Background & private life events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Could you outline which private events you have experienced during your working life?
Well-being and career performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Both are affected by changes in a person’s work and private life. - There will also be a reflection on the combination of work and private life during the respondents’ career.
Career events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What sort of encouragement and opportunities have you had in the academy on your journey towards becoming an associate professor? - Are there any other factors in your background that were influential?
Future	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are your ambitions for your academic career? - How do you want to shape this?

Appendix II: Code tree



Appendix III: Checklist Ethical and Privacy Aspects of Research

INSTRUCTION

This checklist should be completed for every research study that is conducted at the Department of Public Administration and Sociology (DPAS). This checklist should be completed *before* commencing with data collection or approaching participants. Students can complete this checklist with help of their supervisor.

This checklist is a mandatory part of the empirical master's thesis and has to be uploaded along with the research proposal.

The guideline for ethical aspects of research of the Dutch Sociological Association (NSV) can be found on their website (http://www.nsv-sociologie.nl/?page_id=17). If you have doubts about ethical or privacy aspects of your research study, discuss and resolve the matter with your EUR supervisor. If needed and if advised to do so by your supervisor, you can also consult Dr. Jennifer A. Holland, coordinator of the Sociology Master's Thesis program.

PART I: GENERAL INFORMATION

Project title: [Master Thesis Marieke Pechtold](#)

Name, email of student: [Marieke Pechtold – 580608mp@eur.nl](#)

Name, email of supervisor: [Daphne van Helden - vanhelden@essb.eur.nl](#)

Start date and duration: [01-12-2020 – duration: 7 months \(till June 20, 2021\)](#)

Is the research study conducted within DPAS YES - NO

If 'NO': at or for what institute or organization will the study be conducted? (e.g. internship organization)

The study is already conducted by Daphne van Helden. The part of the data that I will use is conducted at Erasmus Medical Center.

PART II: HUMAN SUBJECTS

1. Does your research involve human participants. YES - ~~NO~~

If 'NO': skip to part V.

If 'YES': does the study involve medical or physical research? YES - NO

Research that falls under the Medical Research Involving Human Subjects Act ([WMO](#)) must first be submitted to [an accredited medical research ethics committee](#) or the Central Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects ([CCMO](#)).

2. Does your research involve field observations without manipulations that will not involve identification of participants. ~~YES~~ - NO

If 'YES': skip to part IV.

3. Research involving completely anonymous data files (secondary data that has been anonymized by someone else). YES - NO

If 'YES': skip to part IV.

PART III: PARTICIPANTS

1. ~~Will information about the nature of the study and about what participants can expect during the study be withheld from them? — YES — NO~~

2. ~~Will any of the participants not be asked for verbal or written~~

- ~~‘informed consent,’ whereby they agree to participate in the study? — YES — NO~~
3. ~~Will information about the possibility to discontinue the participation
at any time be withheld from participants? — YES — NO~~
4. ~~Will the study involve actively deceiving the participants? — YES — NO~~
Note: almost all research studies involve some kind of deception of participants. Try to think about what types of deception are ethical or non-ethical (e.g. purpose of the study is not told, coercion is exerted on participants, giving participants the feeling that they harm other people by making certain decisions, etc.).
5. ~~Does the study involve the risk of causing psychological stress or negative emotions beyond those normally encountered by participants? — YES — NO~~
6. ~~Will information be collected about special categories of data, as defined by the GDPR (e.g. racial or ethnic origin, political opinions, religious or philosophical beliefs, trade union membership, genetic data, biometric data for the purpose of uniquely identifying a person, data concerning mental or physical health, data concerning a person’s sex life or sexual orientation)? — YES — NO~~
7. ~~Will the study involve the participation of minors (<18 years old) or other groups that cannot give consent? — YES — NO~~
8. ~~Is the health and/or safety of participants at risk during the study? — YES — NO~~
9. ~~Can participants be identified by the study results or can the confidentiality of the participants’ identity not be ensured? — YES — NO~~
10. ~~Are there any other possible ethical issues with regard to this study? — YES — NO~~

~~If you have answered ‘YES’ to any of the previous questions, please indicate below why this issue is unavoidable in this study.~~

~~What safeguards are taken to relieve possible adverse consequences of these issues (e.g., informing participants about the study afterwards, extra safety regulations, etc.).~~

~~Are there any unintended circumstances in the study that can cause harm or have negative (emotional) consequences to the participants? Indicate what possible circumstances this could be.~~

~~Please attach your informed consent form in Appendix I, if applicable.
Continue to part IV.~~

PART IV: SAMPLE

Where will you collect or obtain your data?

I am allowed to use the data of Daphne van Helden. She collected her data at Erasmus Medical Center. She anonymized the data before she did send them to me. I signed a confidentiality/privacy agreement prior to obtaining the data.

Note: indicate for separate data sources.

What is the (anticipated) size of your sample?

38 interviews with respondents.

Note: indicate for separate data sources.

What is the size of the population from which you will sample?

I only use 38 interviews that were conducted at Erasmus MC. The entire cohort consists of seventy associate professors that were all appointed as associate professor at Erasmus Medical Center between 2014 and 2018.

Note: indicate for separate data sources.

Continue to part V.

Part V: Data storage and backup

Where and when will you store your data in the short term, after acquisition?

Because I am registered as an intern, I have an employee-account from Erasmus University. I only store the data in that secured environment and not on my own laptop.

The transcripts of the interviews were sent to me via Surfdrive and not via E-mail, because Surfdrive is a secured tool to send data.

Note: indicate for separate data sources, for instance for paper-and pencil test data, and for digital data files.

Who is responsible for the immediate day-to-day management, storage and backup of the data arising from your research?

Marieke Pechtold

How (frequently) will you back-up your research data for short-term data security?

Every workday via Surfdrive.

In case of collecting personal data how will you anonymize the data?

The data are already anonymised by Daphne van Helden.

Note: It is advisable to keep directly identifying personal details separated from the rest of the data. Personal details are then replaced by a key/ code. Only the code is part of the database with data and the list of respondents/research subjects is kept separate.

PART VI: SIGNATURE

Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the ethical guidelines in the conduct of your study. This includes providing information to participants about the study and ensuring confidentiality in storage and use of personal data. Treat participants respectfully, be on time at appointments, call participants when they have signed up for your study and fulfil promises made to participants.

Furthermore, it is your responsibility that data are authentic, of high quality and properly stored. The principle is always that the supervisor (or strictly speaking the Erasmus University Rotterdam) remains owner of the data, and that the student should therefore hand over all data to the supervisor.

Hereby I declare that the study will be conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the Department of Public Administration and Sociology at Erasmus University Rotterdam. I have answered the questions truthfully.

Name student: *Marieke Pechtold*

Date: 17-06-2021



Name (EUR) supervisor: *Daphne van Helden*

Date: 17-06-2021



Appendix IV: Informed Consent Form

Information Sheet for the Study

“Academic Leadership: Mining the Gender Gap” Erasmus University Rotterdam

Objective of the Study

This study is led by PhD candidate Daphne van Helden under supervision of prof. Laura den Dulk, prof. Meike Vernooij, prof. Bram Steijn and dr. Joke Boonstra. The objective of this study is to understand the gender gap in academic leadership by identifying individual, institutional and cultural factors that influence progression from sub-top to top among academics (male and female). The research data will be used for scholarly articles and publications and recommendations for the university.

How do we proceed?

In this study a selection of the current cohort (2014-2018) of associate professors is followed for 3 years. You will take part in a study which collects information by means of interviewing and recording answers by means of a sound recording. We will make transcriptions of the interviews.

Potential Risks and Inconveniences

There are no physical, legal or economic risks associated with your participation in this study. You don't need to answer any questions which you don't want to answer. You are taking part on a voluntary basis and can stop whenever you want to.

Reimbursement

You will not receive payment for taking part in this study.

Confidentiality of Information

We will do everything we can to protect your privacy as much as possible. Confidential information or personal data relating to you will not be publicised in any way; no one will be able to trace this data back to you. Your information will be pseudonymised during fieldwork. The sound recordings, forms and other documents which will be made or collected for the purpose of this study will be stored in a safe location at the Erasmus University Rotterdam and on the researchers' secured (encrypted) data carriers. The research data will be retained for a period of 10 years. The data will be deleted or rendered anonymous by the end of this period so that it can no longer be traced back to anyone.

Voluntary Basis

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. As participant, you can pull out of the study at any time or, without stating reasons, withdraw your permission for the use of your information in the study. If you decide to pull out from the study, this will not have any adverse consequences for you. If you decide to pull out of the study, the information you submitted before you withdrew permission will be used for the study.

Do you wish to pull out of the study, or do you have any questions and/or complaints? If so, please contact the research leader Daphne van Helden (vanhelden@essb.eur.nl or 010-4082570).

Erasmus University Rotterdam

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By signing this Consent Form, I acknowledge the following:

1. A separate information sheet has told me everything I need to know about the study. I have read the information sheet and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. These questions have been answered sufficiently.
2. I am taking part in this study voluntarily. I am not under any explicit or implicit pressure to take part in this study. It is clear to me that I can pull out of the study at any time, without stating reasons. I don't have to answer a question if I don't want to.

In addition to the above, it is possible to give consent for specific components of the study below. You can choose to give or withhold consent per component. If you wish to give blanket consent, you can tick the box below the assertions for this purpose.

- | | YES | NO |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 3. I hereby consent to having the data collected during the study processed in the manner stated in the enclosed information sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I hereby consent to having (sound) recordings made during the interview and to having my answers transcribed. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I hereby consent to having my answers quoted anonym in research publications. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I hereby consent to having my research data stored and used for future scientific research . | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Name of the participant:

Name of the researcher:

Daphne van Helden

Signature:

Signature:

Date:

Date: