

# Examining the Situation of Women in the Economics Profession in Argentina\*

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## Abstract

The aim of this paper is to document the situation of women and the gender gaps in the economics profession across the full range of academic tiers, focused in Argentina. We conduct a comprehensive examination of the representation of women in Economics at various academic levels, from undergraduate programs to faculty and research positions. The analysis is based on several sources, including administrative national databases, administrative data coming from universities and other academic institutions, and microdata obtained from those institutions or through Web scraping. We assess gender differences in career trajectories, academic performance, access to research opportunities in the country and participation in relevant networks. By shedding light on the specific challenges faced by women in Economics in Argentina, we aim to inform policy recommendations and interventions that can promote gender equality and create a more inclusive and diverse economics profession.

JEL classifications: J16; I23; O30; A20.

Keywords: gender, academia, Economics, Argentina, Latin America.

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# 1 Introduction

Despite the remarkable convergence of roles of men and women in education and the labor markets over the last century, gaps remain considerable. The economics profession is not an exception: women continue to be substantially under-represented in all academic tiers (Lundberg and Stearns, 2020). According to the “2022 Report of the Committee on the Status of Women in the Economics Profession” produced by the American Economic Association, women still represent a disproportionately low share of faculty in economics departments in the United States. For instance, among economics departments with doctoral programs, women make up only 17.8% of full professors, 26.5% of associate professors, and 33.2% of assistant professors in 2022. Considering all tenure and non-tenure track positions, women represent 26.2% of all faculty and the pipeline gets thinner when focusing on the top 20 economics departments: only 18.7% of all faculty are women, or 13.6% of full professors. Moreover, the status of women in economics is worse compared to other disciplines (Ceci et al., 2014; Ginther and Kahn, 2014). The evidence for other developed countries shows a similar pattern (see, for instance, Bateman et al. (2021) and Gamage et al. (2020) for the UK and Auriol et al. (2020) for European countries). Yet, evidence for developing countries is rather scarce.

For the Latin American region specifically, previous studies show that women’s representation among graduates in Economics has increased in Uruguay reaching gender parity in recent years. Still, gender differences appear later in the academic career (Amarante et al., 2021). When looking at their research production, women and men are unevenly represented throughout different fields, there is no gender difference in the production of working papers and technical documents but men produce more journal articles than women, and partnership with non-local authors is more likely among men than women and is positively correlated with the production of journal articles. In Brazil, the share of female students enrolled in undergraduate programs is below the male share and declines in later stages of the academic career (Rocha et al., 2021). An important factor behind this leak in the academic career pipeline is the unified graduate admission exam in economics. According to the results from this exam, the share of women accepted in the most competitive graduate programs in economics is lower compared to programs evaluated with lower scores. In Colombia, female-authored readings are assigned more frequently by female professors teaching Colombian Economic History than by male professors, and the proportion of female-authored literature is marginal compared to male-authored literature (Villaveces Niño and Torres Alvarado, 2021). In Chile, women are severely under-represented among full professors. Depending on the institution considered, the participation of women ranges between 8% and 22% (Iturrieta Reyes, 2021). Gender gaps also appear in the remuneration received by economists. In the Latin American region, the average pay for male economists is 67% higher than the average pay female economists receive (INOMICS, 2023).

For Argentina in particular, we know there are more women than men enrolled in

undergraduate programs and the share of female graduates is larger than that of male graduates (SPU, 2022). At the other extreme of the academic career, women have a larger participation among researchers compared to men, and there is a trend towards gender parity in the authorship of research publications in the country (Elsevier, 2020). However, there are almost no studies or evidence that provide insights into the specific gender disparities women face as they progress in their careers within the economics profession. In terms of enrollment and graduation, the statistics of Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, a public university, show a higher participation of women compared to men at the undergraduate level when all the careers belonging to economic sciences are considered together (Agostini and Schiavi, 2017), but we do not have specific information for programs in economics across the country. Regarding publications, there is evidence showing that the number of male active authors was twice as large as the number of female active authors in Economics over the period 2014-2018 (Elsevier, 2020),<sup>1</sup> but we do not have details on fields of study within economics, the gender composition of coauthors, and the ranking of their publications. Similarly, there is a large void regarding other important aspects of the academic career, including students' performance, enrollment and graduation from Master and PhD levels, gender composition of faculty, research funding, and participation in academic activities such as seminars and conferences. This lack of knowledge hinders our understanding of the factors contributing to gender gaps in academic positions, leadership roles, research opportunities, and overall career advancement within the field of Economics in Argentina. Efforts to obtain information on these gender gaps are important to design policies that help to close them. Moreover, bridging these gaps will, ultimately, broaden the views and perspectives on economic problems, helping to shape public policy more generally (Chari and Goldsmith-Pinkham, 2017; May et al., 2018; Gamage et al., 2020).<sup>2</sup>

The literature offers varied explanations for the existence of gender gaps at different stages of the academic career, with specific evidence for economics in some cases. The absence of female role models has been demonstrated as a hindrance for women when it comes to selecting economics as their undergraduate major (Porter and Serra, 2020; Avilova and Goldin, 2023). On the same line, the number of publications of PhD female students in STEM fields is lower when having a male advisor compared to having a woman as an advisor and role model (Rosello et al., 2023). Having children is an explanatory factor behind the longest time to complete PhD studies for female students compared to male students, the lower number of publications of women compared to men, and the under-representation of women in high-skilled occupations, including university-level economics professors and high-rank positions within universities and research institutions (Antecol et al., 2018; Fernandez Soto et al., 2024; Lassen and Ivandić,

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<sup>1</sup>Active authors defined as those having at least two publications during the study period.

<sup>2</sup>The under-representation of women in different stages of the academic career raises the concern that some ideas might be lost. This is supported by evidence showing that a researcher's identity shapes research ideas and innovation (Hofstra et al., 2020) and, for economics specifically, research topics differ between women and men (Fortin et al., 2021; Antman et al., 2024).

2024). The type of tasks performed at work also influences career progression. Women may spend less time on high-promotability tasks, such as research-related tasks, and more time on low-promotability tasks, such as service-related tasks, due to differences in ability and preferences or discrimination (Babcock et al., 2017). Regarding publications, there is evidence showing that their contribution to the tenure decision within academia in economics depends on the gender mix of coauthors. Publishing a paper with coauthors increases the tenure probability much more for men than for women, especially when coauthors are male (Sarsons, 2017). Moreover, compared to male authors, female authors are held to higher standards by journal referees regardless of their gender (Card et al., 2020; Hengel, 2022),<sup>3</sup> similar evidence exists when analyzing gender gaps in the rate of acceptance to participate in economics conferences (Hospido and Sanz, 2020). There is a gender gap in citations as well. Economics papers with female authors are less likely to be cited by related papers compared to male-only authored papers (Koffi, 2021). Evidence from student evaluations of college professors may include gender stereotypes affecting women’s morale, self-worth, and chance to continue an academic career. Available evidence shows that female professors receive lower scores from their students than their male peers and that students refer to women in less respectful terms (Arceo-Gomez and Campos-Vazquez, 2019). Finally, the hierarchical nature of economics plays a role in explaining the under-representation of women in research institutions. Evidence from membership in the National Bureau of Economic Research in the United States shows that becoming a member is more difficult for those less well-connected, such as researchers who obtained their Ph.D. from a non-US or lower-ranked institution, and this penalty is higher for women than men (Kleemans and Thornton, 2021).

Another possible factor behind the under-representation of women in economics is the existence of an unwelcoming or stereotypical culture, which permeates all academic tiers. There is evidence showing that exposure to economics classes leads to more gender-biased views among undergraduate students (Paredes et al., 2020). Moreover, when PhD in economics students are about to finish their studies and preparing to enter the job market, they are exposed to gendered language that may consolidate the belief of men as an in-group in the field and women as an out-group (Wu, 2018).<sup>4</sup> Recent evidence from the United States also shows that women have higher chances than men of being dissatisfied with the overall climate within the field of economics, with the climate in their place of employment, and they also feel not valued within the field of economics more than men (American Economic Association, 2019). At the faculty level, women are asked more questions than men in economics seminars and questions are more likely to be patronizing or hostile (Dupas et al., 2021).

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<sup>3</sup>Gender differences in quantity or quality of publications in economics have been suggested as a possible factor behind the higher probability of women in the United States to move to lower-ranked institutions compared to men (Gualavisi et al., 2024).

<sup>4</sup>Wu (2018) analyzes how women and men are depicted in anonymous discussions within the Economics Job Market Rumors forum (EJMR). This forum serves as a platform where users exchange information regarding job interviews and outcomes during each year’s hiring cycle. Posts are anonymous which presumably eliminates social pressures that constrain participants’ speech in other public settings.

In this context, this study aims at providing evidence about women and the gender gaps in the economics profession in Argentina, with a focus on academia and covering all academic tiers, from undergraduate students to research positions. The analysis uses various sources of information including i) student-level data obtained from a subgroup of public and private universities in the country, ii) data at the researcher level obtained from RePEc’s website (Research Papers in Economics) and CONICET (National Scientific and Technical Research Council), iii) data at the institution level including information about enrollment and graduation rates of undergraduate, Master and PhD students obtained from the Secretariat of University Policies of the Ministry of Education, iv) data about faculty members obtained from WELAC, v) data about project funding obtained from the Ministry of Science, Technology, and Innovation, and vi) data about participation of women and men in seminars and other academic institutions and activities, obtained from the Argentine Association of Political Economy, the National Academy of Science, the National Congress of Graduate Students in Economics, the National Network of Researchers in Economics, and Economic journals in the country. While panel data would be ideal for tracing the career paths of women and men in academia, combining these various sources allows us to piece together a broader picture that provides valuable insights into gender disparities throughout the academic career in economics in Argentina.

Our analysis distinguishes, whenever possible, between public and private universities. This disaggregation is important because public and private universities in Argentina differ markedly in funding sources, accessibility, and student demographics, which in turn influence educational outcomes and labor market integration (e.g., [Adrogué and García de Fanelli \(2021\)](#)). For example, public universities receive the majority of their funding from the government, allowing them to offer free tuition to all students, which makes them accessible to a broader segment of the population. This difference in funding impacts student demographics: public universities tend to enroll more students from lower-income families than private universities, where tuition is generally required. Furthermore, private universities are often located in major urban centers, such as Buenos Aires, while public universities have a more extensive geographic distribution, including in economically less-developed provinces.

The geographic location of universities is also significant, as it often correlates with local economic conditions, affecting student income levels and labor market opportunities upon graduation. According to SPU data and previous studies (e.g., [Alfaro \(2023\)](#)), regional disparities in Argentina influence university attendance patterns, with students in lower-income regions having more limited access to higher education.

Our results show large gender disparities in almost all the dimensions under analysis. Regarding students, women are underrepresented in enrollment and graduation across the three academic levels —undergraduate, Master’s, and PhD— and the gap between male and female participation in undergraduate economics programs widened over time. In addition, the student-level data shows that the gaps are larger in private institutions than in public ones. Interestingly, women tend to complete their studies faster than men

and, although we do not find large differences in the grades obtained on average, we do find that women graduate with better grades than men in private universities, while the opposite is true in public ones. In terms of research, the panorama is not very different. Despite women’s increasing participation in RePEc-Argentina, their representation still lags behind. However, there’s a positive trend of women achieving top positions in RePEc-author rankings. Disparities persist in publication rates, with men consistently outperforming women. Collaboration dynamics also show gender gaps, with women having more female co-authors but fewer international collaborators. Women have also found barriers in accessing the CONICET and lower promotion rates also lead women to an even lower representation in higher career categories, paired with heavier supervision workload. Research funding has been harder for women to access, resulting in a smaller portion of projects and budgets allocated to them over the past two decades. This disparity has decreased in recent years, although at a very slow pace. Women’s participation in other networks and relevant activities has remained very low during the last two decades. Over the last ten years, only one in four speakers in economics department seminars has been a woman, with minimal signs of improvement. Female participation in key local conferences such as the Annual Meeting of the AAEP has remained stagnant at around 30%, while their presence in keynote lectures and panels has been limited. In the National Academy of Economic Sciences, female presence has been elusive: with less than 10% of members being female and having had only one female president in all of its history. Finally, women’s participation in editorial teams and committees of Journals edited in Argentina has also been rather faint.

The document is organized in the following way. In Section 2 we provide a comprehensive overview of the academic landscape for economics studies in Argentina. The subsequent sections focus on the various stages of the economics career path: undergraduate students (Section 3.1), master’s students (Section 3.2), PhD students (Section 3.3), academic research, publications and access to funding (Section 5), and participation of women in other academic institutions and activities (Section 6). Finally, in Section 7 we summarize our main findings and present some concluding remarks.

## 2 Mapping Economics Education in Argentina

In this section, we provide a comprehensive overview of the academic landscape for economics studies in Argentina. This encompasses a detailed examination of the various institutions and universities across the country that offer programs and courses related to economics. Our discussion delves into the historical development of economics education in Argentina, and the types of degrees and programs available. Our sources of information are the Secretariat of University Policies of the Ministry of Education (SPU by its Spanish acronym) and universities’ web pages.

The first program related to economics was offered in 1953 by the University of Buenos Aires as a postgraduate program for public accountants (Lora and Ñopo, 2009). Five

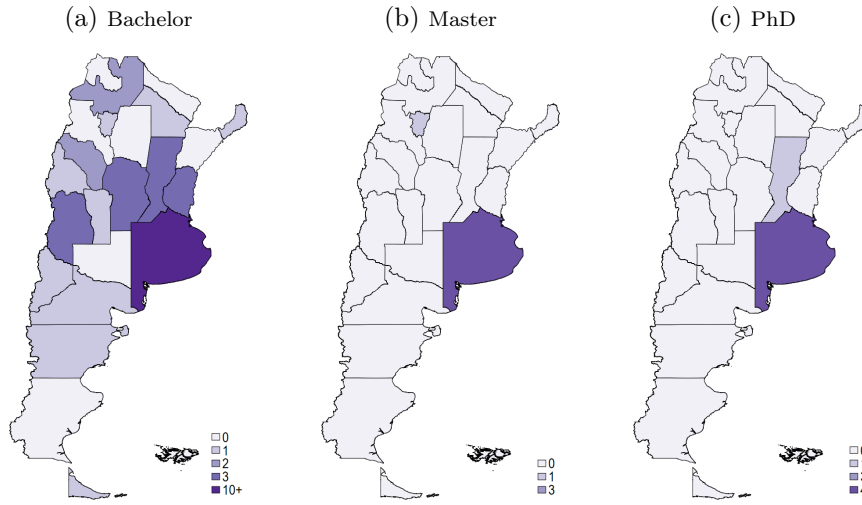
years later, the Universidad del Sur established the first BA in Economics program in the country. Today, Argentina has 49 institutions that offer a BA in Economics program (“Licenciatura en Economía” in Spanish); two-thirds of these institutions are public while the remaining third are private (Figure 1). On average, the BA in Economics programs last 4.5 years. There is a clear distinction between public and private institutions in this regard. While private institutions offer programs that last 4 years, most public institutions’ programs last 5 years. The geographic distribution shows a strong concentration. Half of the institutions are located in the province of Buenos Aires or the city of Buenos Aires (CABA by its Spanish acronym). The provinces of Córdoba, Entre Ríos, Mendoza, and Santa Fe have three institutions each; La Rioja and Salta have two; and Chaco, Chubut, Misiones, Neuquén, Río Negro, San Juan, San Luis, Tierra del Fuego, and Tucumán have one institution offering BA in Economics programs; the remaining seven provinces of the country do not offer this type of programs (Figure 2a). Most of the undergraduate programs offered by private institutions are taught in CABA, while the programs offered by public institutions are more widely distributed throughout the country.

Figure 1: Undergraduate and graduate programs in economics in Argentina



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

Figure 2: Geographic distribution of institutions offering programs in Economics



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

There are other undergraduate programs related to Economics but different from BA in Economics. They include Bachelor in Business Economics which is offered by five institutions, Bachelor in Political Economics offered by four institutions, and Bachelor in Industrial Economics, Bachelor in Development Economics, Bachelor in Economics and management of organizations, and Bachelor in Social Economics and Cooperativism which are all offered by one institution. Table A.1 in the Appendix presents the list of all the institutions offering undergraduate programs in Economics throughout the country.

When considering the total number of undergraduate programs (both BA in Economics and other related programs), there are 57 institutions offering 61 degrees in Economics in Argentina.

Moving to the graduate level, there are seven institutions offering Master in Economics programs in Argentina; four of them are public universities and the remaining three are private. The complete list appears in Table A.2 in the Appendix. The duration of the program varies between one and three years. Regarding the geographic distribution, three of the seven institutions are in the city of Buenos Aires, three are in the province of Buenos Aires, and the last one is in the province of Tucumán (Figure 2b). Other related programs include Master in Applied Economics which is offered in two public and four private institutions and Master in Development Economics offered in three public institutions.

Finally, there are eight institutions offering PhD in Economics programs in Argentina, equally distributed between public and private universities (Table A.3 in the Appendix). The duration of the programs ranges between 2 and 7 years. Four of the eight institutions offering PhD in Economics programs are placed in the province of Buenos Aires, three of them are located in the city of Buenos Aires and the last one is in the province of Santa Fe (Figure 2c). Other related programs include PhD in Economic Sciences (with



specialization in Economics) which is offered in six public institutions, PhD in Economic Development, and PhD in Political Economy, offered by only one institution in each case.

### 3 Students: Undergraduate, Master's and PhD

In this section we analyze the situation of women in economics programs in Argentina for the three academic levels: undergraduate, Master's, and PhD. The objective is to characterize the situation of women (and compare it with that of men) in terms of enrollment and performance, including graduation, time to graduation, and average grade points when available.

For the three academic tiers, we present evidence coming from both data at the university and the student level. Data at the university level come from the Secretariat of University Policies of the Ministry of Education (SPU by its Spanish acronym) and covers the period 2012 to 2021. This dataset covers all universities in the country and includes information on the number of female and male students enrolled in economics programs and the number of female and male students who graduated from economics programs in each university and year. Economics programs include BA, Master's and PhD in Economics and also related programs such as Economics and Business, Industrial Economics, etc.<sup>5</sup> Using the same source of information, we also present statistics on the number of female and male students enrolled in and graduated from comparison programs. These other programs are Law, Medicine, Computer Science, and Engineering.

Microdata at the student level is obtained from special agreements with universities.<sup>6</sup> The data gathered so far corresponds to ten universities, located in five provinces, and includes both public (seven) and private (three) institutions. These data comprise all students ever enrolled in Economics programs, for the period 2000 to 2022, and include graduates, dropouts, as well as students still enrolled in the respective program. Out of these six institutions, all of them offer undergraduate-level studies in Economics (BA), while six of them also shared data about a Master's program, and six about a PhD program in Economics.

These databases allow distinguishing between public and private universities and regional grouping by province. These classifications are essential for understanding Argentina's unique educational dynamics. Public and private universities in Argentina differ markedly in several aspects, including funding sources, accessibility, and student demographics, all of which influence educational outcomes and labor market integration. For instance, according to the latest 2021-22 report from the Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU) (SPU, 2023), public universities slightly outnumber private institutions and tend to have larger student bodies, while private universities are generally smaller (likely measured by enrollment). Public universities also have broader geographic coverage, with

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<sup>5</sup>Unfortunately, it is not possible to disaggregate this information by program.

<sup>6</sup>For each contacted university, we approached the persons in charge (in some cases by email, and in other cases we organized meetings) explaining the project and the data requested and prepared and signed university-specific agreements.

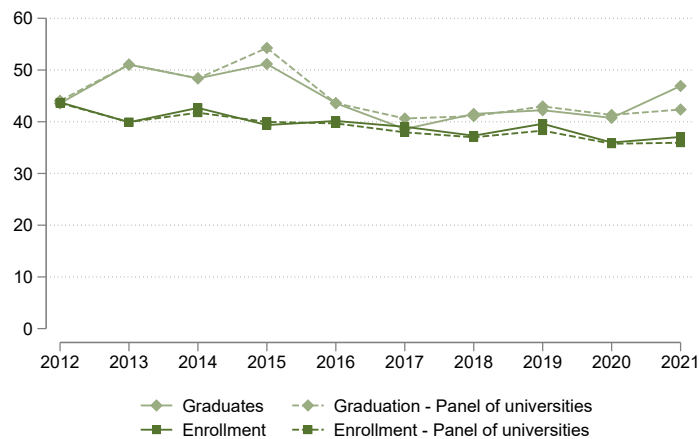
significant presence across the country, while private universities are more concentrated in specific regions and have limited representation in the south. Additionally, grouping by province provides insights into regional disparities within Argentina, as provinces are the main administrative units and vary significantly in terms of economic development and sociodemographic characteristics.

### 3.1 Undergraduate Students

#### 3.1.1 Evidence from institution-level data

The participation of women among students enrolled in economics programs suffered a substantial decline over time, from 43.8% in 2012 to 37.1% in 2021. Concurrently, the number of universities reporting information on undergraduate students increased from 45 to 57 over the same period. If we restrict the analysis to universities reporting information every year (43 universities), the conclusion remains: the percentage of women among enrolled students is always below the percentage of men and declined over the years (Figure 3). This finding indicates that the decline in the percentage of women in total enrollment in undergraduate economics programs is not attributable to the establishment of new universities in recent years;<sup>7</sup> rather, it appears to be a more pervasive phenomenon.

Figure 3: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Undergraduate level



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

Notes: The panel of universities includes the 43 institutions that reported information every year.

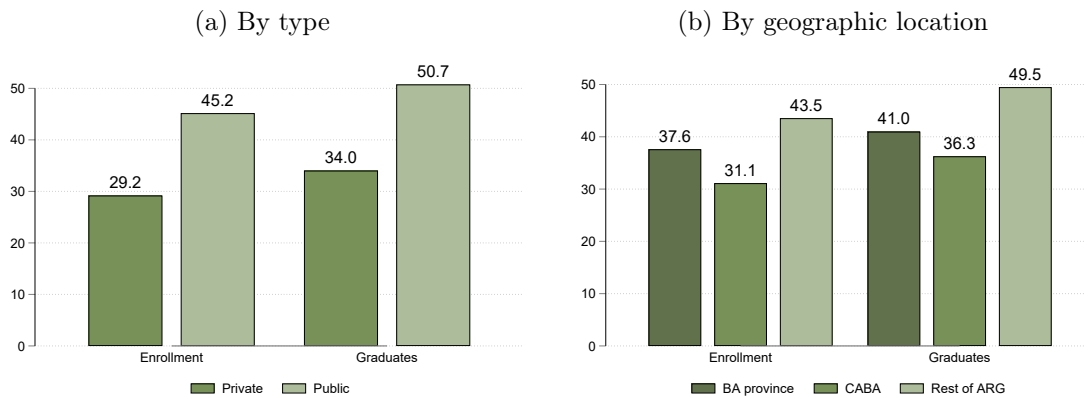
When looking at the participation of women among students graduating from economics programs, we also find a declining trend, especially between 2015 and 2017, when the percentage of women dropped from 51.2% to 38.6%. The percentage of women sta-

<sup>7</sup>The number of universities with undergraduate programs in economics was 45 in 2012, 49 in 2014, 51 in 2016, 52 in 2018 and 57 in 2020. Most of the universities created over the period are public institutions located in the province of Buenos Aires.

bilized around 40% the following years and increased in 2021. However, the growth is mostly explained by new universities (Figure 3).

The participation of women in enrollment and graduation in economics programs at the undergraduate level differs depending on the type of university (public versus private) and its geographic location. First, the percentage of women in both enrollment and graduation is higher in public than in private universities (Figure 4a). Second, the percentages of women are higher in provinces different from Buenos Aires and the city of Buenos Aires (Figure 4b). Interestingly, for graduation from public universities and graduation from universities located in the rest of the country (outside Buenos Aires province and CABA) the statistics reveal gender parity.

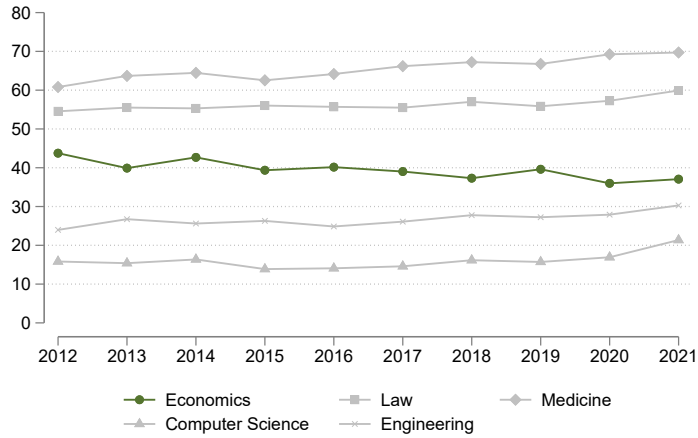
Figure 4: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Undergraduate level. Average 2012-2021



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.  
Notes: Statistics calculated using data from all universities.

When comparing the percentage of women enrolled in economics at the undergraduate level and the percentages corresponding to other programs, we find important differences in trends. In other programs, the participation of women in enrollment increased over time. This pattern appears both in programs where the participation of women in enrollment is lower than in Economics (e.g., Computer Science and Engineering) and in programs where the participation of women is higher (e.g., Law and Medicine). On the contrary and as we showed before, for Economics we find an overtime decline in the percentage of women who are enrolled (Figure 5). A possible explanation is the existence of a stereotypical culture within economics. If these stereotypes intensify over time or become more visible to potential students, that may discourage women from enrolling in an undergraduate program in Economics. The lack of female role models may play a role as well in a context of intensified gender-biased views.

Figure 5: Percentage of women in enrollment in Economics and comparison programs  
Undergraduate level



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

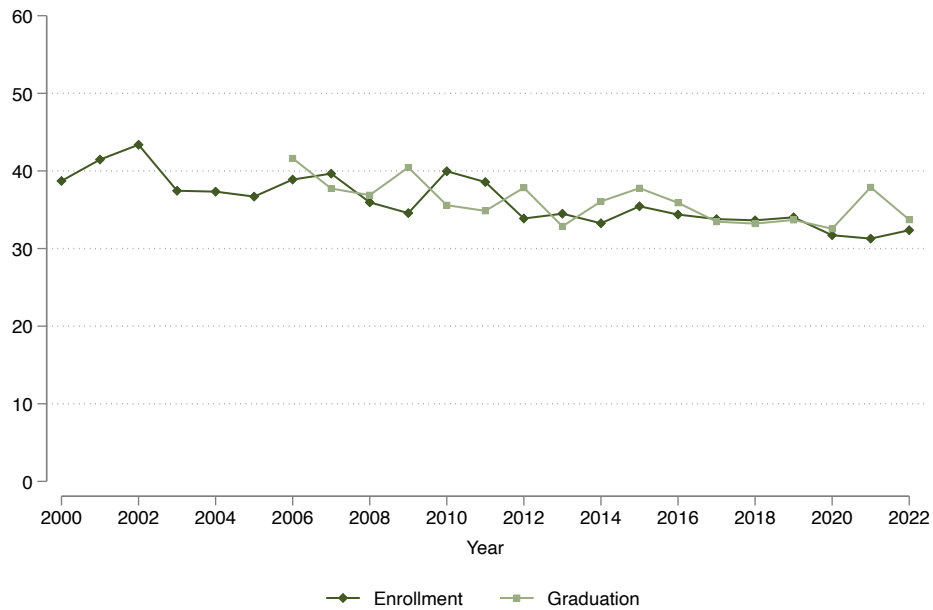
### 3.1.2 Evidence from student-level data

This subsection describes the evidence that emerges from the student-level microdata. For the undergraduate level, the data corresponds to ten universities, of which seven are public and three are private, and they are located in five different provinces. These universities represent 50 percent of total enrollment in undergraduate-level programs in Economics in 2021, according to information reported by SPU. Two important points should be noted, though: First, this 50 percent serves as a lower bound, as SPU enrollment numbers include both Economics and other related programs (such as Business Economics, Development Economics, among others). Since we cannot disentangle between them, the total enrollment likely overestimates the actual number of students in pure Economics programs. Second, although our sample covers (at least) 50 percent of enrollment, we believe it is highly representative of the population of undergraduate students in Economics, as it includes the three largest public universities in the country—Universidad de Buenos Aires, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, and Universidad Nacional de Córdoba—and the three main private universities—Universidad Torcuato Di Tella, Universidad de San Andrés and Universidad del CEMA— where most graduates who pursue an academic career come from. The data covers the period from 2000 to 2022, although with some heterogeneity across universities. Table A.4 reports the number of universities and students in the individual-level data, by academic level, and by calendar year.

Figure 6 presents the share of women among students enrolled in Economics for the universities considered. The first thing to note is that women’s participation in enrollment is below 50 percent over the entire period. Moreover, consistent with the evidence presented in the previous subsection, it experienced a substantial decline over time, going

from above 40 percent during the first decade to 32 percent in 2022. We further assess the participation of women among enrolled students in public and private universities (Figure 7a). Except for a few years, the share of women in enrollment is always higher in public universities relative to private ones. Yet, this difference has narrowed over time, both due to an increase in women’s participation in enrollment in private universities and as well as a decrease in public ones.

Figure 6: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Undergraduate level, students’ level data

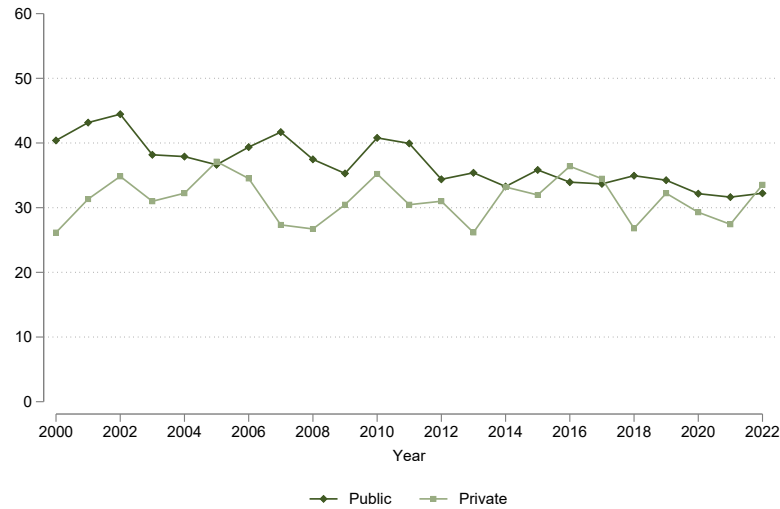


Source: Data at the student’s level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

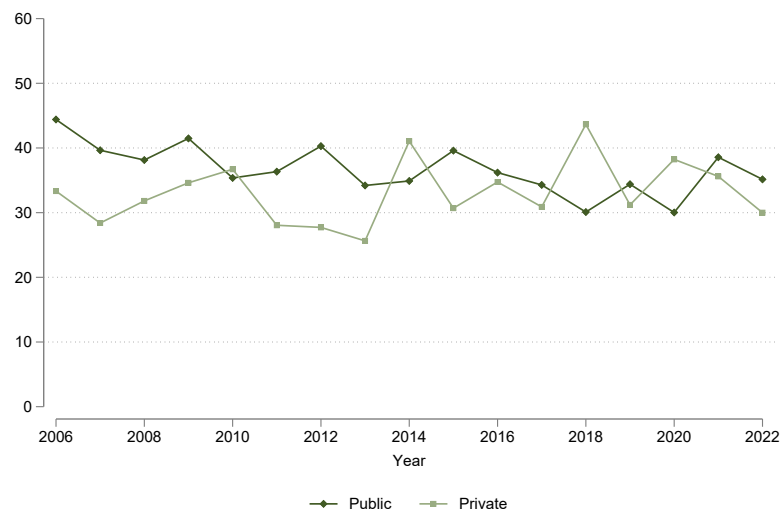
Figure 6 also reports the share of women among students graduating from an Economics program each year. Given that our data contains students enrolled in 2000 or later, the information about graduation starts in 2006 when most of the universities in our sample report having graduates from the 2000 cohort. As we can see, the participation of women in graduation at the undergraduate level is also below the participation of men. Moreover, just like enrollment, there is a similar declining pattern over time when focusing on graduation: the share of women went from 41.6 percent in 2006 to 33.7 percent in 2022. When we analyze the distinction between public and private universities, the participation of women among graduates is also generally higher in public universities, although the difference is smaller than for enrollment, and the gap seems to be decreasing over time (Figure 7b).

Figure 7: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics, by type of university  
 Undergraduate level, students' level data

(a) Enrollment



(b) Graduation

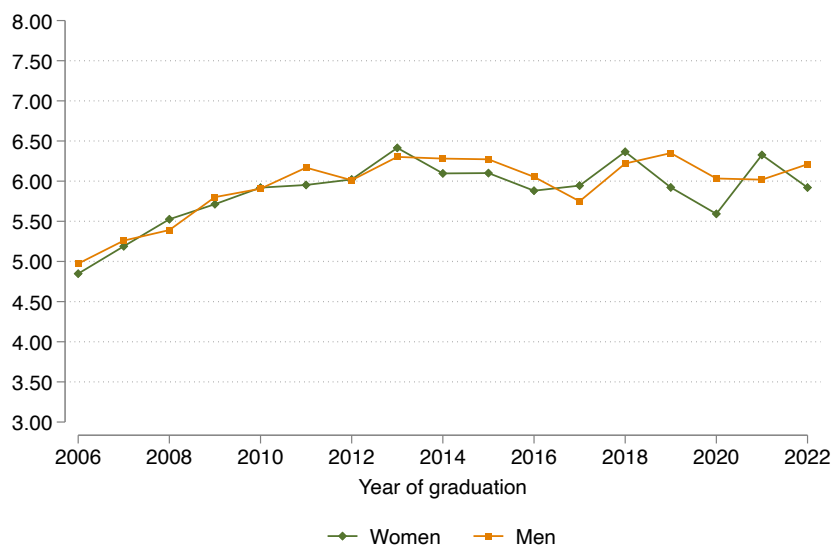


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
 Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

Beyond graduation, we inspect different indicators of the performance of graduates in Economics. The database provides us with the student's date of entrance and date of graduation (for those who graduated). Based on these dates, we construct a measure of how long it takes students to graduate from an undergraduate program in Economics in Argentina. Figure 8 shows the length to graduation, measured in years, for women and

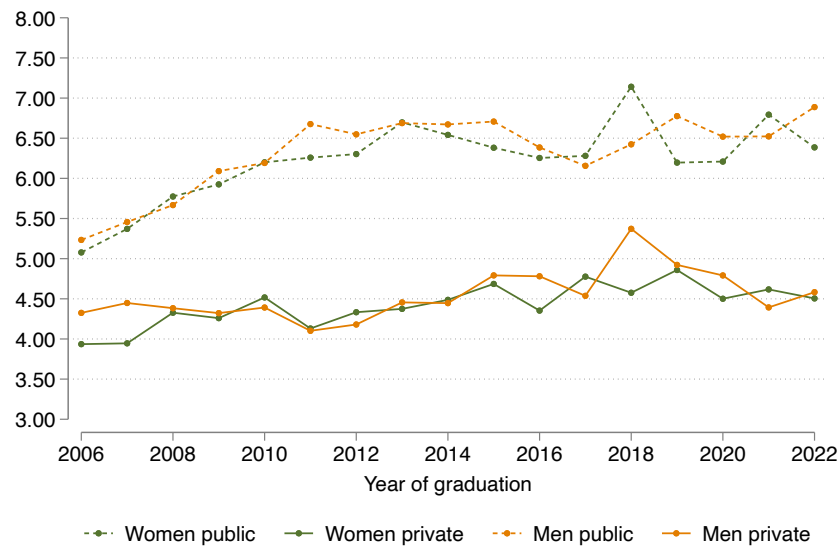
men by year of graduation. The average length to graduation has increased over time, from about 5 years for those graduating in 2006 to slightly more than 6 years for 2022 graduates. Yet, as we can see, until 2014 there were virtually no differences between men and women in the number of years elapsed between entrance and graduation from an Economics undergraduate program. But we do observe a difference for those graduating after 2014: with the exception of a few years, males generally take longer to graduate than females. Considering the entire 2014-2022 period women complete their undergraduate studies 0.12 years earlier than men. We additionally analyze the length to graduation by type of university (Figure 9). Not surprisingly, students in private universities obtain their diplomas faster than students in public universities, given that the programs generally last five years in public universities and four years in private ones. However, there is not a clear gender pattern in terms of length to graduation between public and private institutions: in the last decade, women tend to graduate slightly faster than men both in the public and the private universities in our sample.

Figure 8: Length to graduation (years) in Economics, by gender  
Undergraduate level, students' level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

Figure 9: Length to graduation (years) in Economics, by gender and type of university  
Undergraduate level, students' level data

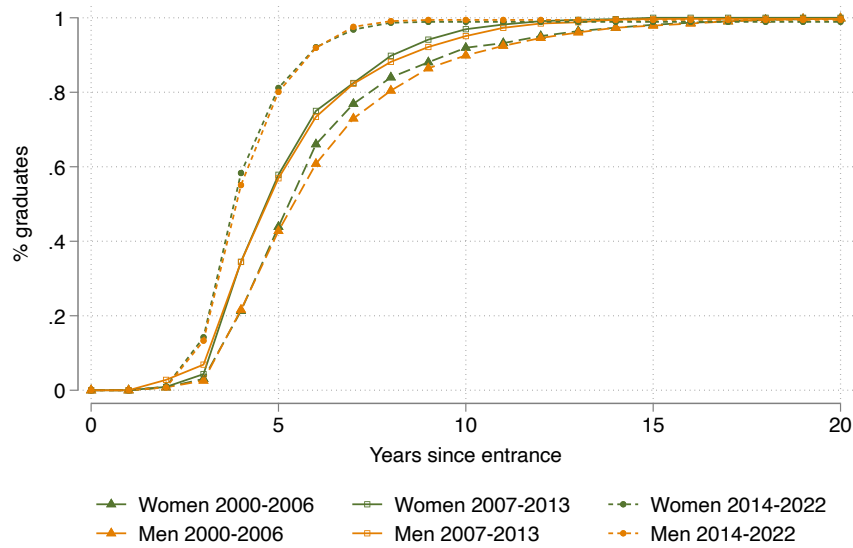


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

We further explore whether this relative advantage of women in terms of the length to graduation varies by cohorts of entrance. Figure 10 plots the percentage of students who graduated (vertical axis) after a given number of years since entrance (horizontal axis), for different cohorts of entrance, and for women and men separately. A first thing to note is that more recent cohorts are graduating faster than older cohorts, regardless of gender. Yet, as we can see, for earlier cohorts (those who started in 2000-2006), there is a gap favoring women: the distribution of the percentage of graduates over time for women (in green) is always above the one for men (in orange). However, the gap decreases for the 2007-2013 cohorts, and there are practically no gender differences in the share of graduates over time for the most recent cohorts (students entering in 2014-2022).



Figure 10: Percentage of students who graduated, by gender and cohorts of entrance  
Undergraduate level, students' level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

Another way to study how long it takes men and women to graduate from an undergraduate program in Economics is to look at the on-time graduation rate. Although it is difficult to define precisely on-time graduation for higher education, we look at the percentage of individuals who completed a B.A. in Economics within six years of starting it (that is, allowing one and two years more than the theoretical duration in public and private universities, respectively). As one might expect, the percentage of women who graduate on time according to this definition is almost always higher than that of men (see Figure 11).

Figure 11: Percentage of students who graduate on time (within 6 years), by gender  
Undergraduate level, students' level data

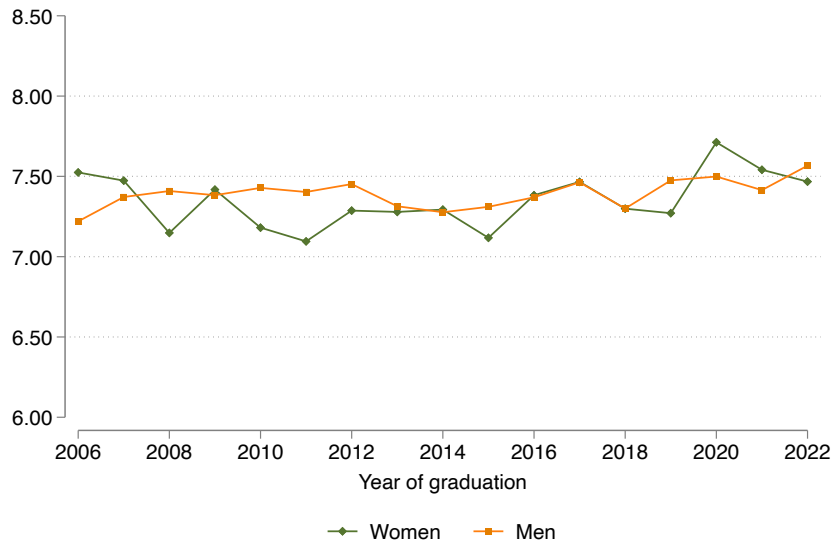


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

We also ask ourselves whether, conditional on graduation, women and men obtain different grades. Figure 12 plots the Grade Point Average (GPA) over time for both female and male graduates but shows no clear pattern.<sup>8</sup> Although for some years women graduate with higher GPAs than men, the opposite is true for other years.

<sup>8</sup>Despite our efforts to obtain it, some universities were unable to provide information on GPAs. Therefore, this analysis is restricted to the nine universities that provided us with data about their graduates' GPAs.

Figure 12: GPA of graduates in Economics, by gender  
Undergraduate level, students' level data

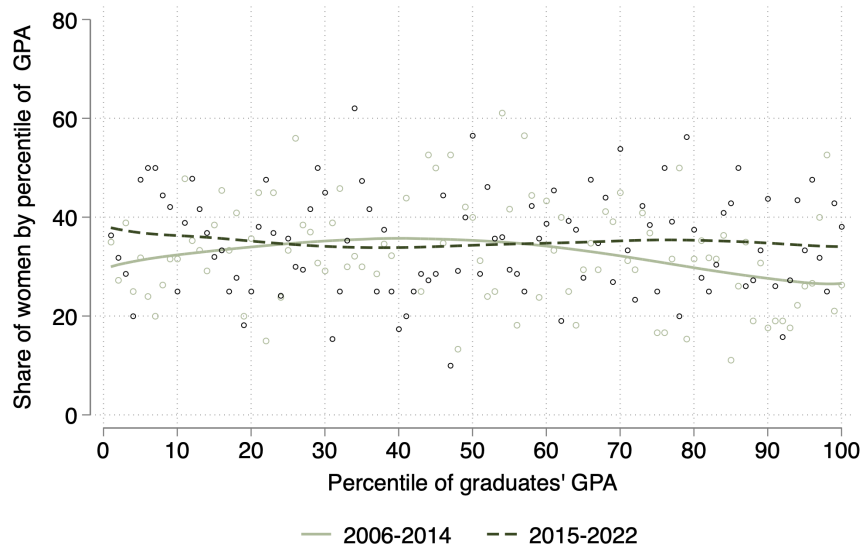


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The data about GPA corresponds to nine universities, although with variations between years.  
For more details refer to Table A.4.

On top of the average GPA, we also analyze differences in the distribution of GPAs obtained by women and men. Figure 13 plots the share of women for each percentile of the graduates' GPA distribution for the periods 2006-2014 and 2015-2022, together with a line of best fit (lowess regression curve). Female graduates are not concentrated in one particular segment of the GPA distribution; on the contrary, they are represented across all GPAs. The pattern is similar for those who graduated in 2006-2014 and in 2015-2022, although we note a slight increase in dispersion in the more recent period compared to the first one.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup>Alternatively, if we examine the percentage of women in a given quintile as a share of all women, the results reveal a similar pattern.

Figure 13: Share of women by percentile of graduates' GPA distribution  
Undergraduate level, students' level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.

Notes: The data about GPA corresponds to nine universities, although with variations between years.

For more details refer to Table A.4.

Each dot represents the share of women for each percentile of the distribution of graduates' GPA, for graduates in 2006-2014 and 2015-2022. The solid lines represent the lowest regression curves of the relationship between the share of women and the GPA distribution.

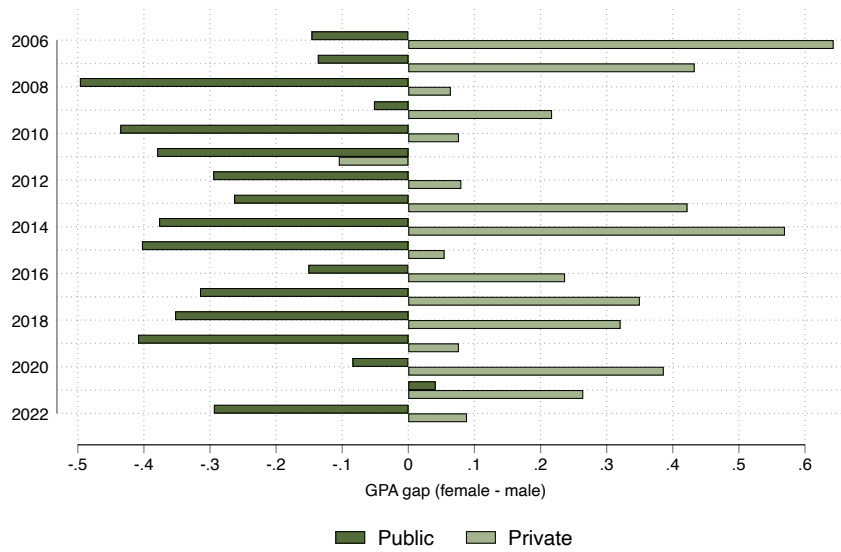
When we break down the GPA analysis by type of university, we observe that graduates from private universities have on average higher GPAs than graduates from public universities (Figure 14). Yet, an interesting pattern emerges: men graduating from public universities earn higher GPAs than women, while female graduates from private universities have better grades than their male counterparts.

Figure 14: GPA of graduates in Economics, by gender and type of university  
Undergraduate level, students' level data

(a) GPA by gender and type of university



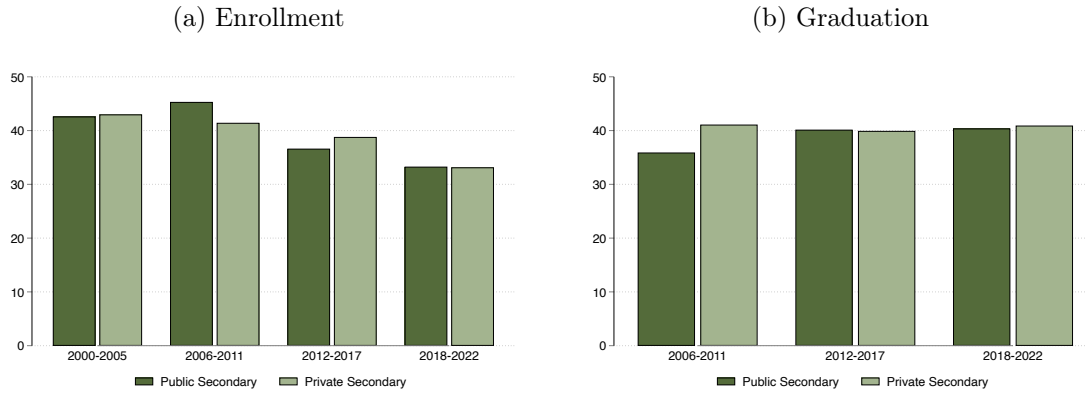
(b) Gender GPA gap by type of university



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The data about GPA corresponds to nine universities, although with variations between years.  
For more details refer to Table A.4.

We finally exploit the information about the secondary school of origin of BA in Economics students. Only a subset of four universities provided information about the secondary school of origin of the student, which means that the study sample is not

Figure 15: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics, by type of secondary school of origin  
Undergraduate level, students' level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.

Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

comparable to the other analyses. Figure 15 shows the percentage of women both in enrollment and graduation in undergraduate level programs in Economics, by type of secondary school for three different periods. We do not find any clear pattern either for enrollment or for graduation: the participation of women in enrollment is similar if we focus on individuals who attended a public or a private secondary school, and the same is true for graduation. This suggests that the type of secondary school of origin does not seem to be related to gender differences in these indicators.

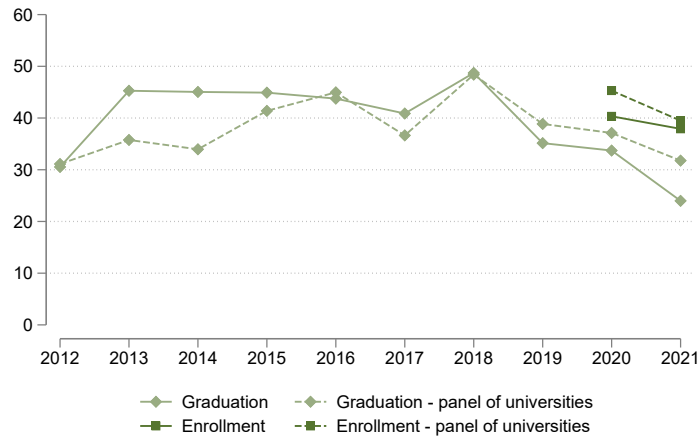
## 3.2 Master's Students

### 3.2.1 Evidence from institution-level data

The percentage of women enrolled in economics programs at the Master's level is way below that of men and declined between 2020 and 2021, the only two years with available information, from 40.3% to 37.9% (Figure 16). The pattern remains when focusing on universities reporting information in both years.<sup>10</sup>

<sup>10</sup>The number of universities offering programs in economics at the master level increased from 21 in 2012 to 30 in 2021. From these universities, 13 offered these programs every year.

Figure 16: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Master's programs



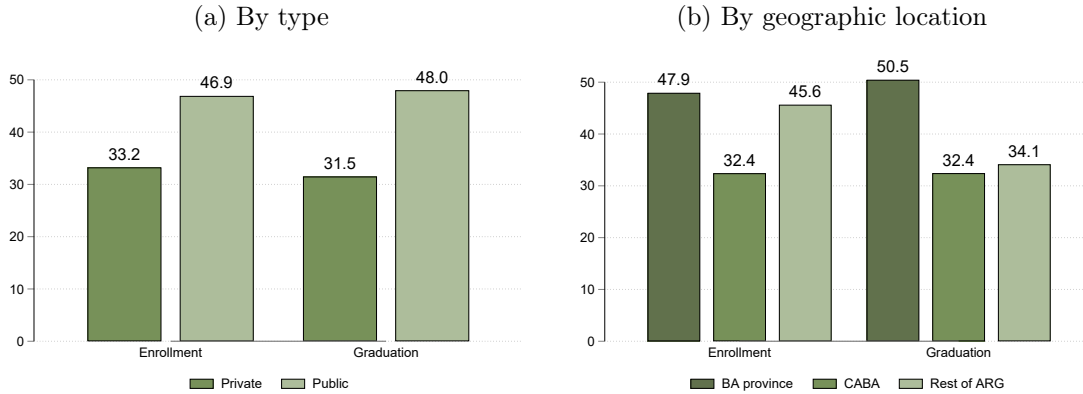
Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

Notes: The panel of universities includes 13 institutions that reported information every year.

Focusing on graduation, the participation of women among graduates from an economics program at the Master's level is also below the participation of men (Figure 16). The overtime trend reveals an initial increase (between 2012 and 2013), four years of slight decline in female participation followed by an increase, and a drastic drop starting in 2018, from 48.7% in 2018 to 24.0% in 2021. This substantial decline in the last years also appears when restricting the sample to universities offering programs in economics at the master's level every year.

The share of women is much higher in public than in private universities for both enrollment and graduation at the Master's level (Figure 17a). However, the statistics reveal that, even in public universities, there is no gender parity. Finally, when disaggregating the statistics by the geographic distribution of universities, we find that the participation of women in enrollment and graduation from economics programs at the master level is highest in the province of Buenos Aires, where there is gender parity in graduation, than in the city of Buenos Aires or the rest of the country (Figure 17b); the lowest participation appears in the city of Buenos Aires.

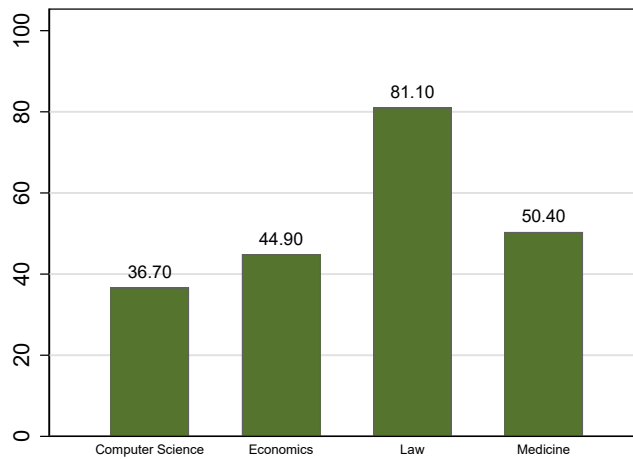
Figure 17: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Master's programs. Average 2012-2021



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.  
Notes: Statistics calculated using data from all universities.

Next, we compare the 2020-2021 average percentage of women enrolled in Economics programs at the Master's level and the percentages of enrollment in other fields. The participation of women is higher in Economics than in Computer Science, but is lower compared to Law and Medicine (Figure 18).<sup>11</sup>

Figure 18: Percentage of women in enrollment in Economics and comparison programs Master's level, Average 2020-2021



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

### 3.2.2 Evidence from student-level data

In this subsection, we present the analysis of Master's students based on the student-level microdata. In this case, the data corresponds to six universities (three public and

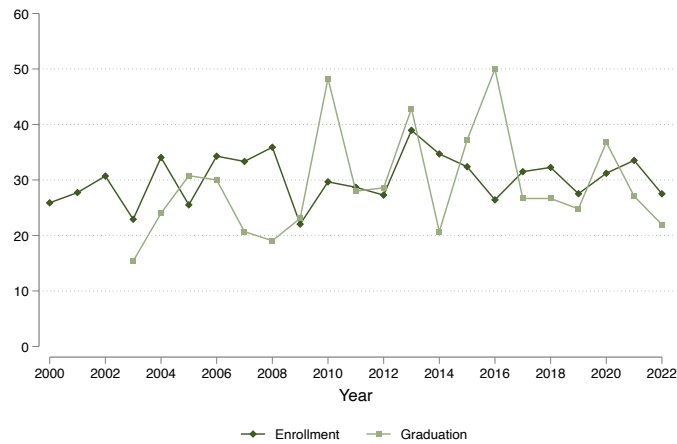
<sup>11</sup>We present the average from 2020 to 2021 information for earlier years is not available. Similarly, there is not data from Engineering programs at the Master's level.



three private) and covers the period 2000 to 2022. These universities represent 53 percent of total enrolment in Master’s programs in Economics in 2021. As in the case of undergraduate-level programs, we believe this represents a lower bound of the actual percentage of students covered by our sample. The number of Master’s students per year ranges between 90 and 190, depending on the year considered (see Table A.4). The average cohort size for Master’s programs in our sample is 21 students for the period 2010-2021.

The participation of women among enrolled students in Master’s programs is substantially lower than men’s (Figure 19). Over the entire period, the percentage of women in enrollment is substantially below 50, oscillating between 20 and 35 percent. In terms of graduation, although the pattern is more erratic, it shows that the participation of women is nonetheless lower than men’s.

Figure 19: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics Master’s programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student’s level obtained from special agreements with universities.

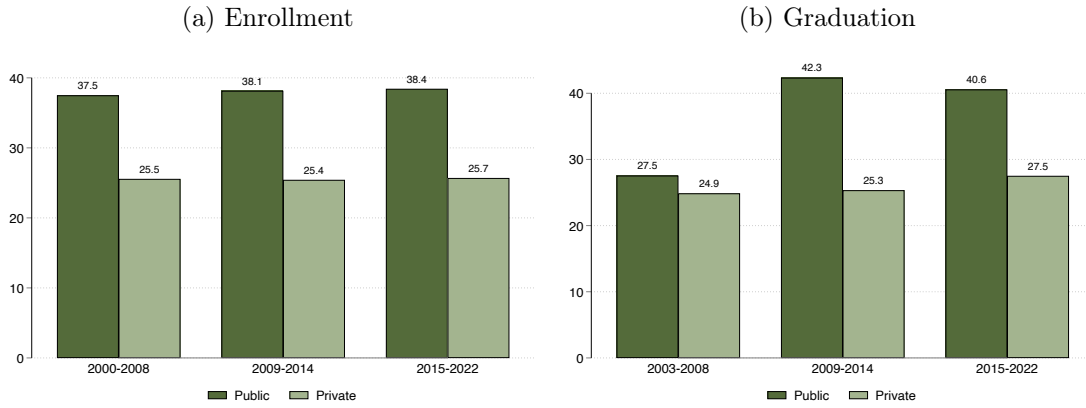
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

When we assess the participation of women in enrollment and graduation in public and private universities, we again find a larger presence of women in public universities.<sup>12</sup> In terms of enrollment, the share of women is always higher in public than in private universities: women’s representation in enrolment is between 12 and 13 percentage points in public universities, a gap that has remained remarkably stable over time (Figure 20a). When we turn to graduation, we find that the participation of women among master’s level graduates in Economics has increased notably in public universities, going from 27 percent in 2003-2008 to above 40 percent in the latest years, while it remains rather low in private universities where only one in four graduates is female (Figure 20b).

In addition to enrollment and graduation, our data allows us to explore the perfor-

<sup>12</sup>Given that the analysis for graduates reduces substantially the sample size and yields noisy estimates when performing year-to-year comparisons, we show results pooling several years together.

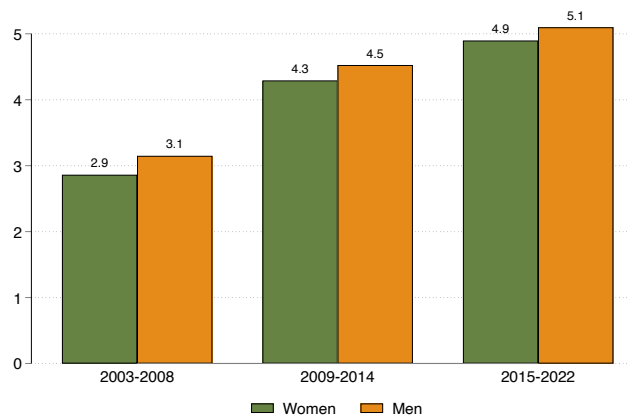
Figure 20: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics, by type of university  
Master's programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

mance of women who complete their Master's studies, relative to men. Figure 21 depicts the average number of years that it takes female and male students to graduate from a Master's program in Economics. The first thing to note is that the average length to graduation has increased over time, regardless of the student's gender, from three years in 2003-2008 to almost five years in 2015-2022. Beyond this generalized increase for both genders, women complete their master's studies 0.2 years faster than men, although the difference is not statistically significant.

Figure 21: Length to graduation (years) in Economics, by gender  
Master's programs, student-level data

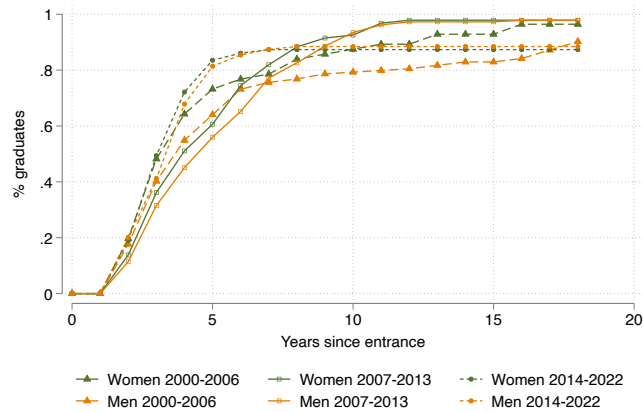


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

This pattern is also visible in Figure 22 which shows, for different cohorts of entrance,

the percentage of students who graduated after a given number of years. As we can see, for any given number of years elapsed since entrance, the percentage of graduates among women is above the percentage among men for the cohorts 2000-2006 and 2007-2013. However, the distributions become very similar for the cohorts 2014-2022.

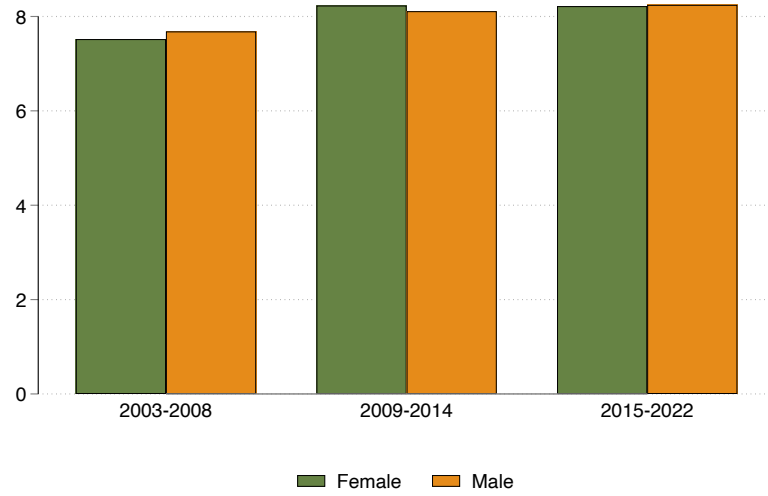
Figure 22: Percentage of students who graduated, by gender and cohorts of entrance  
Master's programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

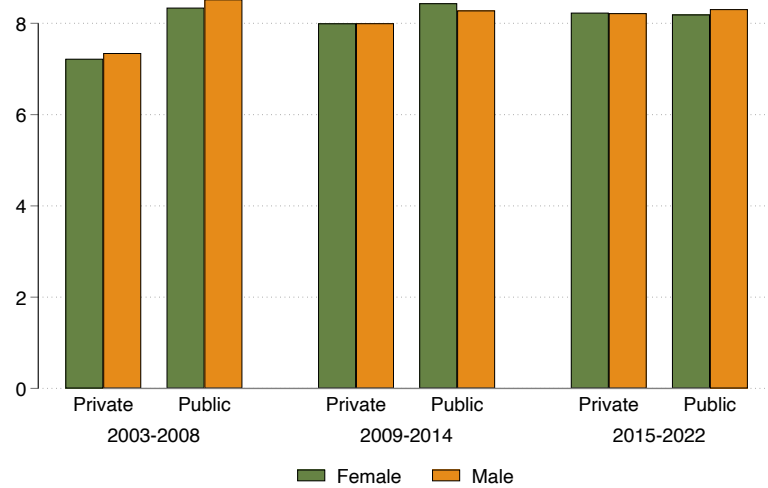
We also study whether women and men get different grades when studying a master's program, but we do not find gender differences in this regard (see Figure 23). If anything, a slightly higher GPA is observed for men graduating in 2003-2008, but this minimal relative advantage is reversed in 2009-2014 and disappears in 2015-2022. Neither do we find any relevant gender gaps in the average GPAs of master's program graduates when comparing public and public universities (Figure 24).

Figure 23: GPA of graduates in Economics, by gender  
Master's programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

Figure 24: GPA of graduates in Economics, by gender and type of university  
Master's programs, student-level data



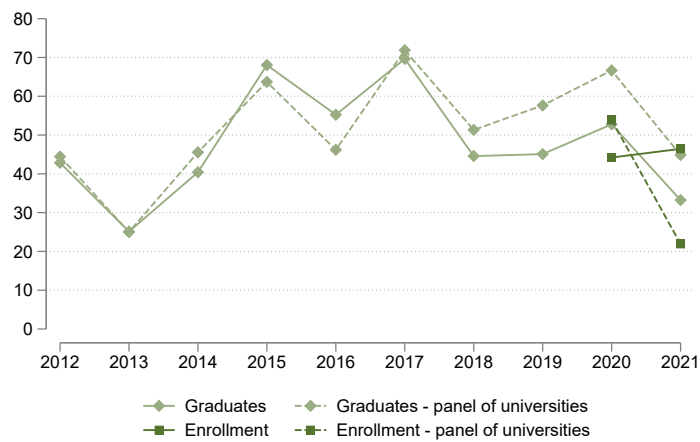
Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

### 3.3 PhD Students

#### 3.3.1 Evidence from institution-level data

The enrollment of women in PhD programs in Economics at Argentine institutions was below that of men in 2020 and 2021, the only two years with available information (Figure 25). While there was a small increase, from 44.2% to 46.5%, when looking at all universities reporting information, the pattern shows a drastic decline, from 53.9% to 21.9%, when focusing on universities reporting information in all years.<sup>13</sup>

Figure 25: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics PhD programs



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

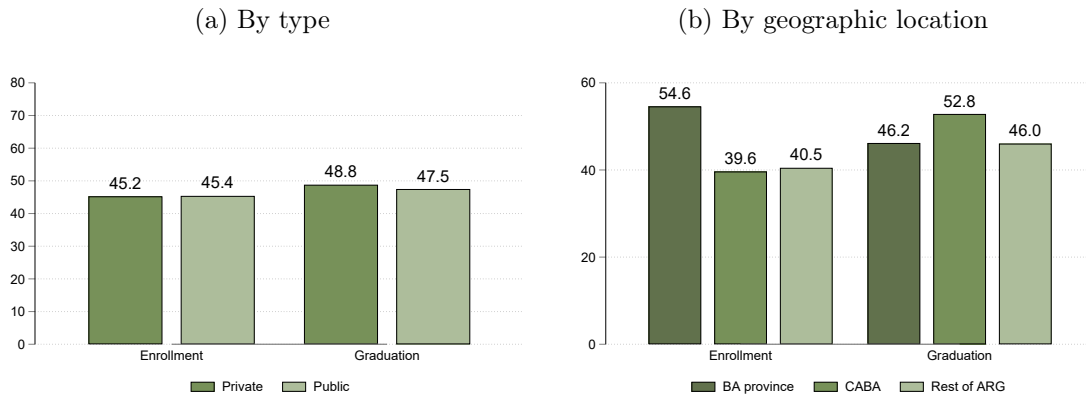
Notes: The panel of universities includes 6 institutions that reported information every year.

On average, the gender distribution of graduates from PhD in economics programs is close to parity in both samples (all universities and universities offering these programs every year). However, the overtime trend is erratic.

The participation of women is similar in public and private universities when looking at enrollment (around 45%) and graduation (48.8% in public universities and 47.5% in private universities) (Figure 26a). Finally, the geographic distribution shows a higher participation of women in enrollment in PhD programs in the province of Buenos Aires than in the city of Buenos Aires or the rest of the country (Figure 26b). Moreover, in the province of Buenos Aires, female enrollment is higher than male enrollment. For graduation, the participation of women is higher in the city of Buenos Aires, where it surpasses the participation of men, than in other locations.

<sup>13</sup>The number of universities offering programs in economics at the PhD level increased from 10 in 2012 to 15 in 2021. From these universities, 6 offered these programs every year.

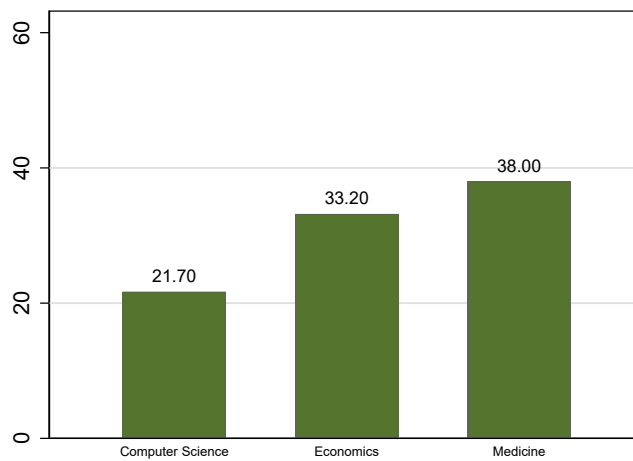
Figure 26: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics PhD programs. Average 2012-2021



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.  
Notes: Statistics calculated using data from all universities.

The comparison of the 2020-2021 average percentage of women enrolled in Economics programs at the PhD level and the percentages in other fields reveals the same pattern found at the Master's level: the participation of women is higher in Economics than in Computer Science, but lower than in Medicine (Figure 27).<sup>14</sup>

Figure 27: Percentage of women in enrollment in Economics and comparison programs PhD level, Average 2020-2021



Source: Secretaría de Políticas Universitarias (SPU), Ministry of Education.

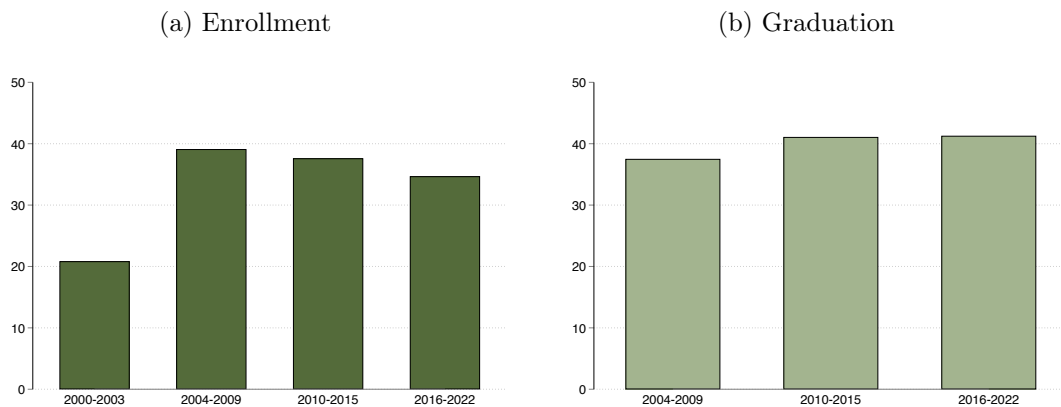
<sup>14</sup>As we mentioned for the comparison of the percentages of women enrolled in Economics programs and in other fields, we present the 2020-2021 average because information from previous years is not available. Similarly, there is no information of enrollment in Law and Engineering programs at the PhD level.

### 3.3.2 Evidence from student-level data

The analysis of the individual-level data for students pursuing a PhD in Argentina is presented in this subsection. It is based on six universities (four public and two private), although not all of them appear every year. These universities represent 92 percent of total enrollment in PhD programs in Economics in 2021. Given the low number of observations (between 10 and 29 students per year, corresponding to an average cohort sample of 4 students between 2010 and 2021), we present this analysis pooling several years together.

The participation of women in enrollment in PhD programs in Economics is below that of men for every period. Between 2004 and 2015, 4 out of 10 students enrolled in a PhD program were women, and this proportion decreased to 3.5 for the period 2016-2022 (Figure 28). In terms of graduation, women's participation was 37 percent before 2010, and it increased and remained at 41 percent afterward.<sup>15</sup> The division by type of university shows a higher participation of women in enrollment in PhD programs in Economics in public universities compared to private ones, although the difference has decreased over time. For the most recent period, the percentage of women starting PhD level studies in 2016-2022 is 3 percentage points higher in public than private universities, but it was about 10 percentage points in 2004-2009. This higher representation of women in public universities is also reflected when we look at graduation: for public universities in our sample, the proportion of women among PhD graduates is higher than in private ones, although it has shown an increasing trend over time in private universities.

Figure 28: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics PhD programs, student-level data

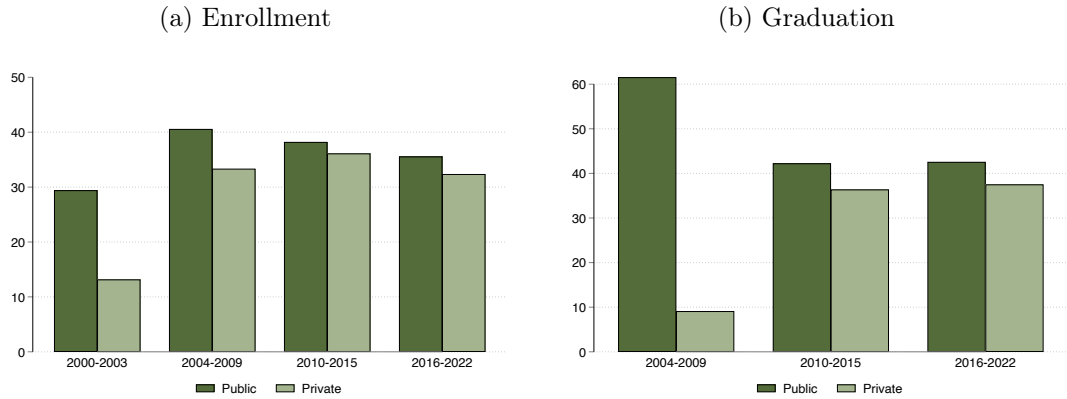


Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.

Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

<sup>15</sup>The analysis for graduation starts in 2004, given that it is the first year in which most universities report having graduates from the 2000 cohort.

Figure 29: Percentage of women in enrollment and graduation in Economics, by type of university  
PhD programs, student-level data



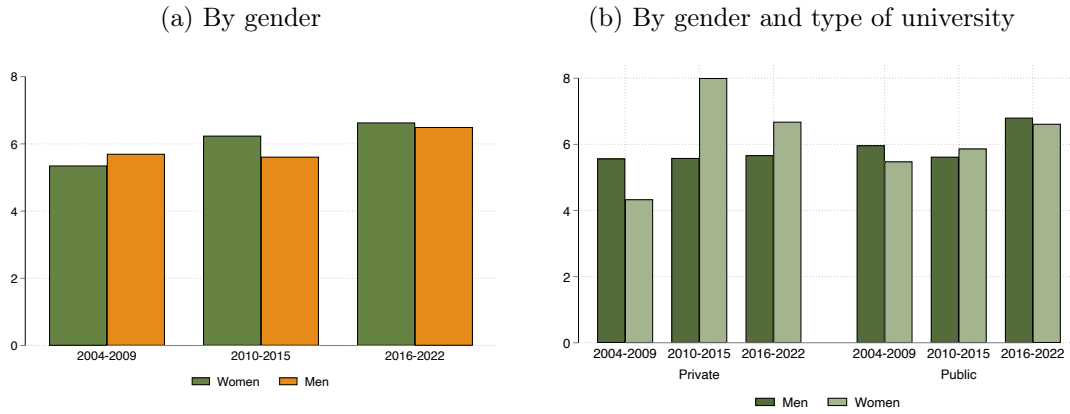
Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

We also look at how long it takes for women and men to complete their PhD studies in Economics. Figure 30 shows the average number of years from entrance to graduation, by year of graduation. In general, we find no significant gender differences in the length to graduation, with the exception of graduates from 2010-2015, where women's length was about 0.8 years higher for women than for men. However, we do find marked differences by type of university. The gender gap in the length to graduation is rather small in public universities but it increases substantially in private universities. For the latest period considered, female PhD graduates took one year more to obtain their degree than their male counterparts in private universities, while they did it 0.2 years faster than men in public universities.

Our data also allows us to observe the age at which students start and end their PhD in Economics. Figure 31 shows that women are younger when they start their PhD studies (Panel a). This gender gap in the age at entrance, together with similar paces of study between women and men, implies that women are also younger when they graduate from a PhD program in Economics (Panel b). On average, women in our sample are almost three years younger than men when they obtain their PhD degree.

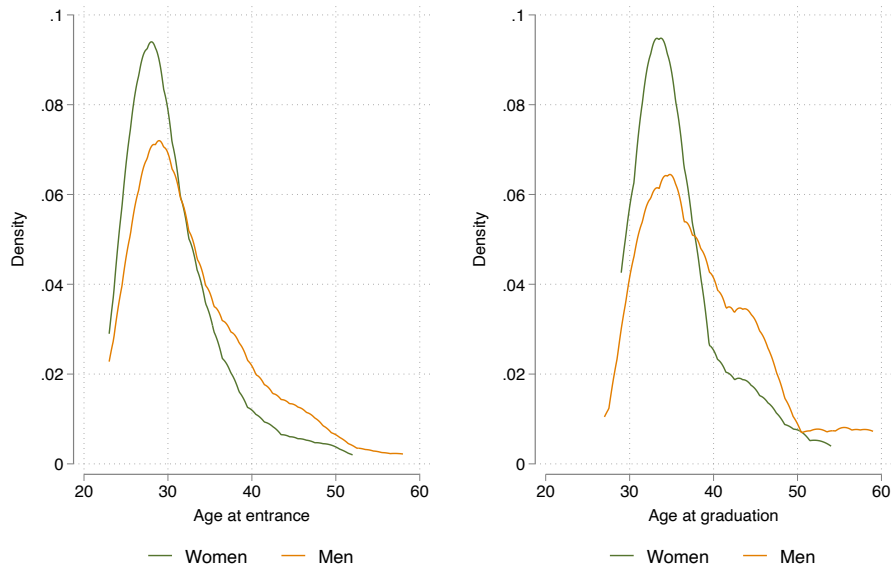


Figure 30: Length to graduation (years) in Economics PhD programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
 Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

Figure 31: Density function of the age at entrance and the age at graduation, by gender PhD programs, student-level data



Source: Data at the student's level obtained from special agreements with universities.  
 Notes: The number of universities varies between years. For more details refer to Table A.4.

## 4 Faculty

In this section, we examine the representation of women in economics faculty and leadership positions at the university level using data collected by WELAC in 2022.<sup>16</sup> The WELAC survey was conducted across 10 Latin American countries, including Argentina, and contains information on the gender composition of faculty in Economics Departments and research centers, both in public and private universities. The information covers three professorship categories: full professor, associate professor, and assistant professor, and also contains information on the gender of the Economics Department chair. The data refers to the year 2022.

In Argentina, the WELAC survey covered 15 universities (11 public and 4 private universities).<sup>17,18</sup> We supplement this information adding data from another university not included in the WELAC database. The information collected from this university also refers to 2022. Thus, our analysis describes the situation of women among faculty members and department chairs across 16 universities.

The data reveals that among the professors who held permanent positions in Argentina in 2022, there was a slight advantage for women among assistant professors –the category with the lowest rank– and the participation of women declined the higher the professorship category considered (Figure 32). Specifically, the representation of women was 50.8% for assistant professors, 35.5% for associate professors, and 27.7% for full professors.<sup>19</sup> These percentages are higher than those observed for the average of the 10 countries included in the WELAC database. The simple cross-country average of the share of women in the three professorship categories were 34.9%, 33.6% and 24.2% for assistant professors, associate professors and full professors, respectively.

The underrepresentation of women also appears when looking at the gender of the department chairs. The proportion of female chairs in Argentina was 37.5% in 2022 (Figure 32). Again, this percentage is higher than the average representation of women in the 10 LAC countries included in the survey.

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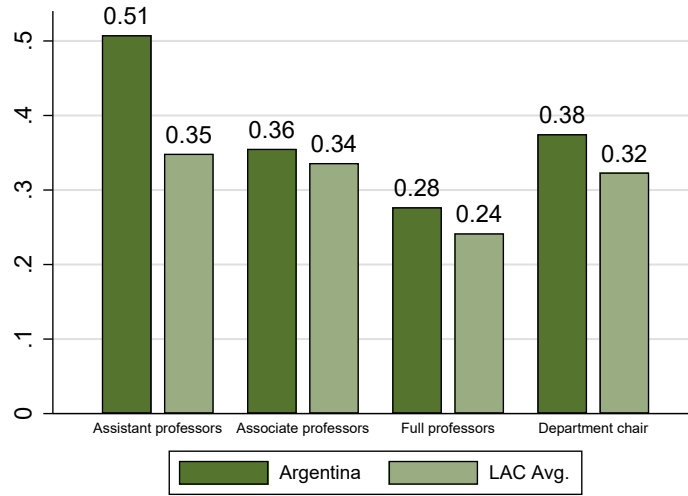
<sup>16</sup>Women Economist in Latin America and the Caribbean, or WELAC by its Spanish acronym, is a committee established in 2018 to monitor and promote the careers of women economists in the LAC region.

<sup>17</sup>These universities are Universidad de San Andrés, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, Universidad Torcuato Di Tella (Departamento de Economía), Universidad Torcuato Di Tella (Escuela de Negocios), Universidad del CEMA, Universidad de Buenos Aires, Universidad Nacional de Tucumán, Universidad Nacional del Sur, Universidad Nacional de San Martín (IDAES), Universidad Nacional de San Martín (CENIT), Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata, Universidad Nacional de San Luis, Universidad Nacional de Cuyo, Universidad Nacional de Rosario, Universidad Nacional de Salta.

<sup>18</sup>WELAC (2023) provides details on the selection criteria of universities.

<sup>19</sup>In Argentina and according to the WELAC harmonization, Full professors category corresponds with ‘profesores titular’, associate professors with ‘profesores asociados y adjuntos’, while assistant professors are ‘Asistentes de docencia, ayudantes y auxiliares.’

Figure 32: Percentage of women by professorship category and among departments chair 2022



Source: WELAC database.

Notes: Data for Argentina corresponds to 16 universities (15 covered by the WELAC survey and one additional university). The percentage of female professors for each category was derived by dividing the total number of female professors in that category across all institutions in Argentina by the overall number of professors in that category. The LAC average value represents the simple average of these percentages across countries. All values correspond to 2022.

## 5 Academic Research and Publications

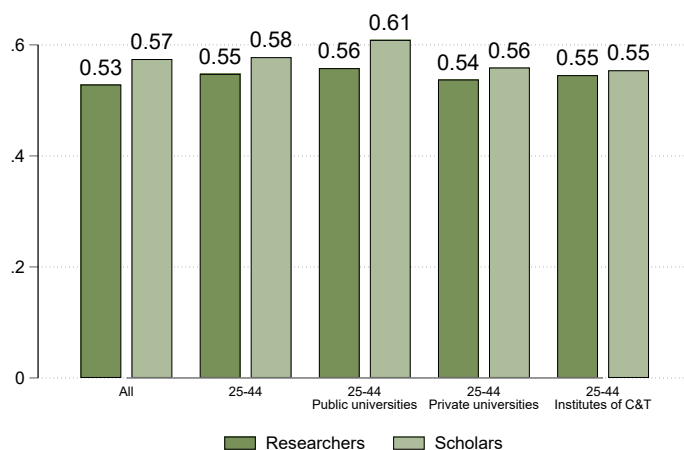
In this section, we analyze the situation of female researchers in economics and the associated gender gaps in Argentina. Our main objectives are to examine the representation of women economists in research institutions in Argentina, compare age profiles, academic trajectories, and promotions between female and male researchers, assess the gender distribution of publications and working papers, and investigate potential gender differences in research collaboration patterns and network structures. Building on the earlier discussion, it is important to emphasize that gender parity should not be used as a benchmark in this section. Given the trends highlighted regarding the share of female graduates, professors, and researchers, women are expected to represent no more than 40% of research output.

### 5.1 The Context: Gender Gaps in Research in Argentina

We start by providing an overview of gender disparities in research in Argentina, including Economics and other fields. The participation of women is higher than the participation of men throughout the entire research career (Figure 33). However, a decline in female participation becomes evident when considering more advanced research positions: the average share of women among scholars was 57.4% over the period 2017-2021, while the participation among researchers was 52.9%. The same pattern persists when focusing on

individuals aged 25 to 44 years old and when analyzing the data by type of institution. The comparison between types of institutions shows that the participation of women is higher in public than in private universities or science and technology centers.

Figure 33: Percentage of women by research categories  
Average 2017-2021

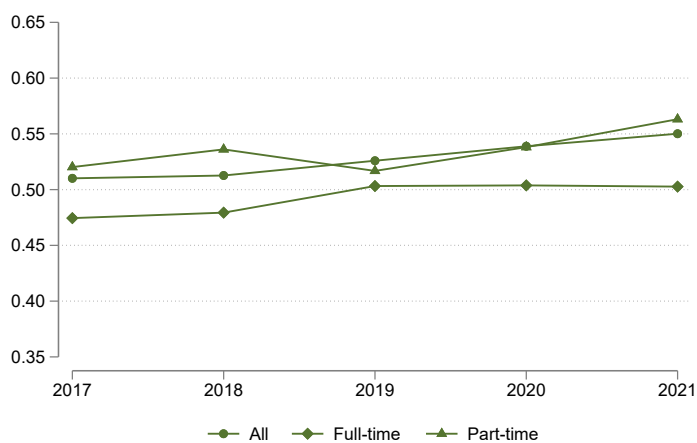


Source: Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología.

Notes: Data corresponds to the entire research system of Argentina.

The participation of women among researchers shows a growing pattern, from 51% in 2017 to 55% in 2021 (Figure 34). This upward trend appears for full and part-time researchers, although it has been more pronounced for the part-time category. Notably, the participation of women is higher in the part-time than in the full-time researcher category.

Figure 34: Percentage of women among researchers by dedication and year



Source: Ministerio de Ciencia y Tecnología.

Notes: Data corresponds to the entire research system of Argentina.

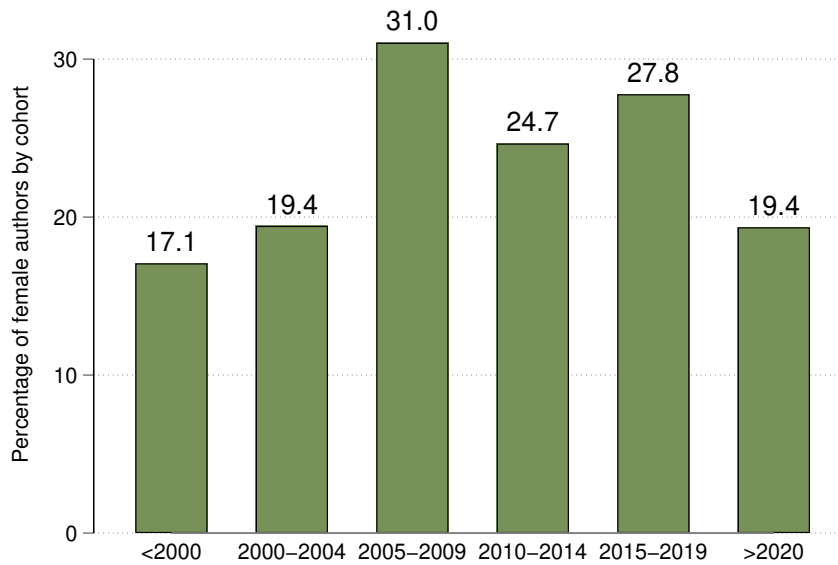
## 5.2 Argentinean Researchers in RePEc

RePEc (Research Papers in Economics) serves as a central index for economics research, facilitating the exploration of economic literature, author profiles, references, citations, keywords, and classifications. We collected data on Argentine researchers registered in RePEc as of January 2, 2024, employing web scraping techniques. Our database comprises information on the 455 Argentine researchers registered in RePEc by that date, including 345 men and 110 women affiliated with 84 different institutions in Argentina. For each researcher, our database contains information on their publications, spanning articles, working papers, books, and chapters, along with details about their co-authors.

Although we lack information about the age of the researchers, leveraging the date of their inaugural publication provides us with an indirect measure of their age or level of seniority. For instance, the earliest documented publication by a woman in RePEc-Argentina is traced back to the year 1985, while the first recorded publication by a man dates back to 1965. We carry out a kind of cohort analysis, where cohorts are defined based on the year of the first publication, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

Figure 35 illustrates how women's participation in RePEc-Argentina has been growing across cohorts, from an average of 18% in the first two cohorts (<2005) to 28% in the next three cohorts (2005-2019). However, women's participation drops to 19% among those who first published after 2020. It remains to be explored what has caused this reversal and how much of it is due to the COVID-19 pandemic or reflects life-cycle effects, such as lower participation among younger women.

Figure 35: Participation of women in RePEc-Argentina across cohorts of year of first publication



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

Notes: Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

### 5.2.1 Women in Argentinean RePEc-author rankings

RePEc provides country-specific authors rankings: the *historical authors ranking*, which considers all publication years, and the *last-ten years authors ranking*, which only includes publications from the last decade. As of February 2024, out of 104 authors in the top 25% of RePEc-Argentina, 19 (18.2%) are women in the historical ranking, and 20 (19.2%) are women in the last-ten years ranking. Thus, in terms of sheer numbers, the representation of women in the Argentinean RePEc-author rankings seems rather poor. However, there is a promising trend of increasing female representation in top positions within these rankings. For example, while there is only one woman among the top 20 Argentinean authors according to the historical ranking, the number of women in the top 20 rises to four when focusing on publications from the last ten years. Furthermore, the highest-ranked woman in the historical ranking holds the 15th position, whereas the top-ranked woman in the last-ten years ranking occupies the 6th position.

However, it is important to acknowledge that these rankings may not necessarily reflect the true quality or impact of researchers' work, and there's a risk that they could introduce biases that disproportionately disadvantage women. The final ranking of authors in RePEc is the result of 36 different individual rankings based on various criteria. These criteria may include the number of works, citation counts, journal page counts, popularity on RePEc services (such as abstract views or downloads), as well as measures of centrality in author networks. RePEc computes a score for each registered author in

each dimension, and subsequently generates an ordinal ranking. The average rank score, derived from the 36 individual ranks, is calculated using the harmonic mean method (Zimmermann, 2013). The problem is that the outcomes for each author exhibit considerable variability across the 36 alternative ranks.

Zacchia (2021) explores how various rankings assess female economists in the top 10 percent world authors list. By examining the positioning of each author across the alternative 36 rankings using different combinations of measures and weights, she finds that rankings that heavily prioritize the quantity of publications consistently disadvantage women. Furthermore, women are disproportionately penalized when rankings focus solely on journal articles. This underscores a trend where women, even those recognized as excellent by conventional disciplinary standards, demonstrate lower productivity in terms of the number of published articles compared to their male counterparts. Unfortunately, RePEc does not allow us to customize rankings within Argentina—i.e., the ranking that compares each author in Argentina with their peers in the same country—, but these results alert us to the potential bias against women, especially if these metrics are in turn used to determine promotions and tenure.

## 5.2.2 Publications

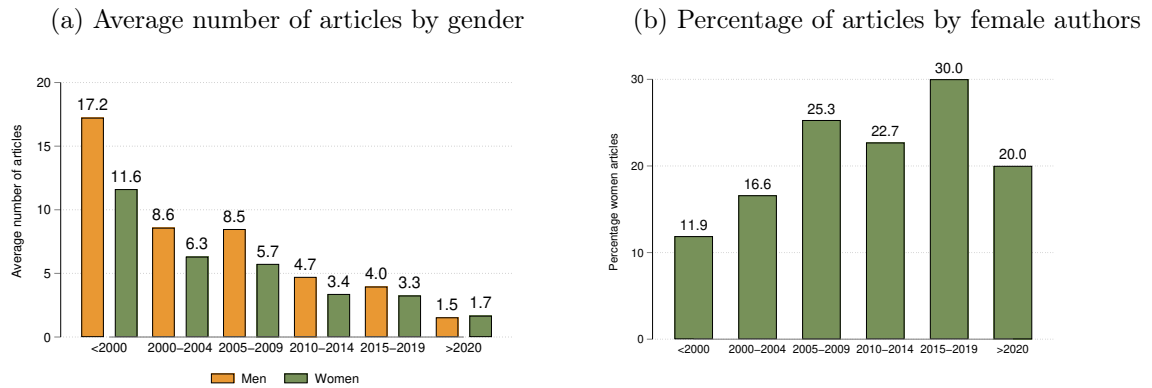
### Journal articles

Of the 455 authors registered in RePEc-Argentina, 314 have at least one published article—80 women (25.5%) and 234 men (74.5%). Our database contains information on 2269 individual articles published. However, since each article is recorded multiple times—as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc—our database displays a total of 2680 publications. For example, consider an article authored by four Argentinean researchers listed in RePEc, consisting of three women and one man. In our database, this article is represented three times (three observations) as a publication authored by women and once (one observation) as a publication authored by a man. Although we use the term "publications" for the sake of simplicity, it is important to bear in mind that it refers to article-author units rather than the number of individual articles.

Out of the total 2680 publications, 2217 (82.7%) belong to men and 463 to women (17.3%). Figure 36a shows that, as expected, the average number of articles is higher the older the cohort, and, within each cohort, men have on average more publications than women. Yet, the participation of women in the publications of each cohort has been increasing, as shown in Figure 36b. The share of publications by women shows a significant upward trajectory from an average of 14% in the first two cohorts—i.e., those who first published before 2005—to 26% in the next three cohorts—i.e., among all publications by authors who first published between 2005 and 2019. However, this trend seems to reverse for those who first published after 2020. For this youngest cohort, women's share of publications declines to 20%, which could be attributed to gender differences in publication pace over the life cycle—e.g., if men accumulate more publications early in their career

than women—, but also the COVID-19 pandemic may have played a role in this pattern.

Figure 36: Articles across cohorts of year of first publication



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

Notes: Publications are article-author units, as each article is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc-Argentina. Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc-Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

### Other publications

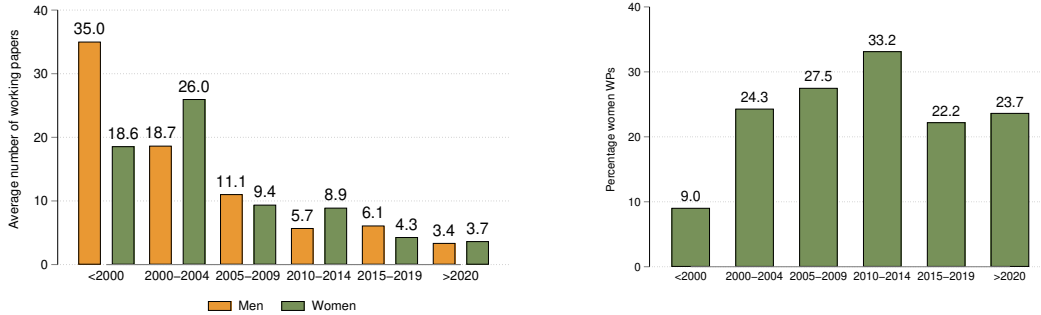
As with journal articles, other publications are recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc. Our database displays a total of 5324 working paper-author units, of which 4351 (81.7%) belong to men and 973 to women (18.3%). Figures 37a and 37b show similar patterns across cohorts as for articles. Although men usually have on average more working papers than women from the same cohort, the participation of women in the publications of each cohort has been increasing, ranging from 9% among authors who first published before 2000 to 33% for those who first published during the period 2010-2014. However, as observed with articles, this trend reverses for the two most recent cohorts, where women account for only 23% of all authors who have first published since 2015.



Figure 37: Working papers (WP) across cohorts of year of first publication

(a) Average number of WP by gender

(b) Percentage of WP by female authors



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

Notes: Publications are working paper-author units, as each working paper is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc-Argentina. Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc-Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

It is difficult to identify which working papers end up as published articles because there are often changes in the title or even in the coauthors during the publication process. However, a quick back-of-the-envelope calculation can give us a rough idea: the ratio of articles to working papers yields 51% for men and 48% for women.

The RePEc database also reports a total of 76 individual books representing 201 book-author units, the vast majority of which correspond to male authors—188 (93.5%) male and 13 (6.4%) female.

### 5.2.3 Coauthorship

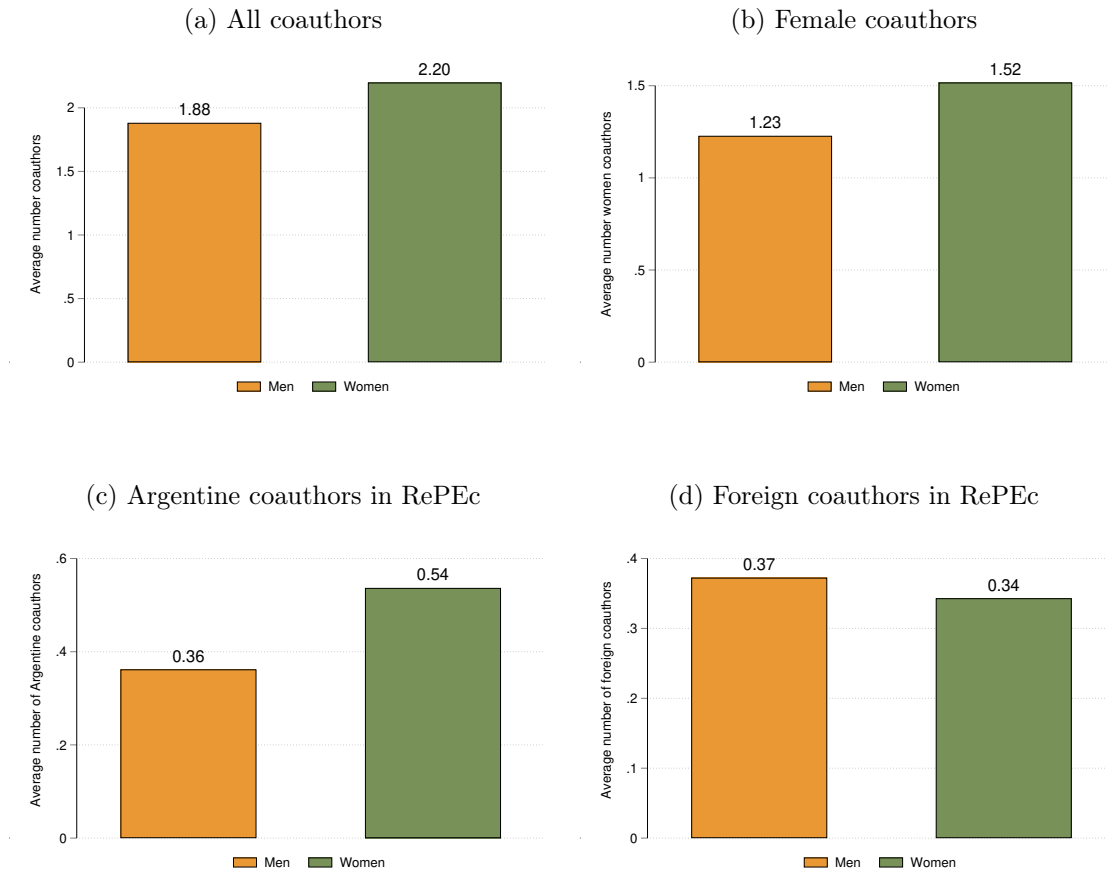
Regarding collaborative work, each journal article in our database has 1.25 coauthors on average. Women usually have more coauthors than men. First, it is less common for women to publish as the sole author. From the total of 2269 individual articles, 708 feature a sole author—614 (87%) men and 94 (13%) women. In addition, when work is collaborative, women have more coauthors than men. While male authors collaborate with 1.9 coauthors on average, women work with 2.2 coauthors (see Figure 38a). Furthermore, male authors tend to have fewer female coauthors than female authors. On average, male authors collaborate with 1.2 female coauthors, which accounts for 65% of their coauthors, while female authors collaborate with 1.5 female coauthors, representing 69% of their coauthors (see Figure 38b).

To assess the extent of international collaboration within coauthor teams, we conducted web scraping of all researchers registered in RePEc and then matched their names with those of coauthors in our RePEc-Argentina author database. For each publication-author unit, we obtain three groups: coauthors affiliated with Argentine institutions, coauthors affiliated with foreign institutions, and coauthors not registered in RePEc.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>20</sup>It is important to note that the matching process is not perfect because names may be spelled

For simplicity, we refer to the first two groups as Argentine and foreign coauthors, respectively. Figures 38c and 38d present the average number of Argentine and foreign coauthors registered in RePEc for male and female authors in our RePEc-Argentina database. Figures 38c and 38d show that female authors have a higher proportion of Argentine coauthors and a lower proportion of foreign coauthors, respectively. Specifically, 54% of the total coauthors of female authors are registered in RePEc-Argentina, compared to 36% in teams of male authors. In contrast, foreign coauthors registered in RePEc represent 37% in teams of male authors, compared to 34% in female authors.

Figure 38: Average number of coauthors in multiple-authored articles by author's gender



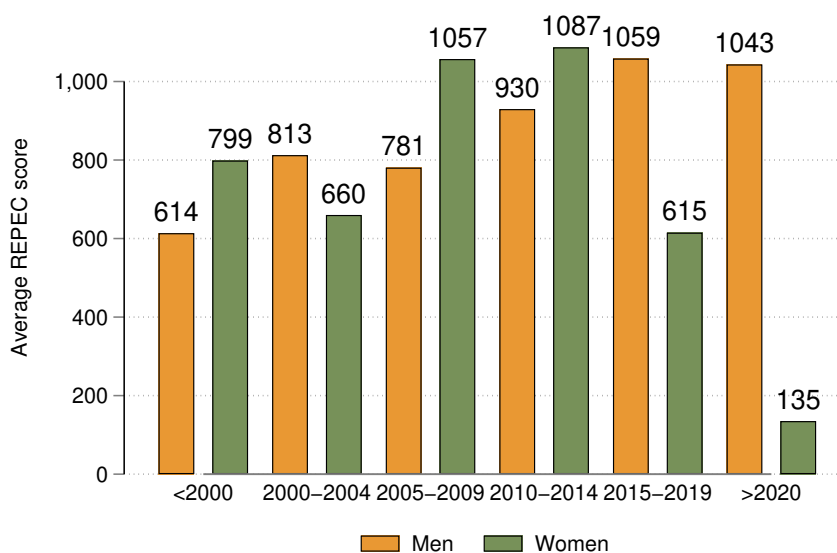
Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

## 5.2.4 Rankings of publications

Based on the RePEc-publication ranking, we assess the quality of publications by women and men. The RePEc-publication ranking is the harmonic mean of various individual rankings such as RePEc Simple Impact Factor, RePEc Recursive Impact Factor, RePEc Discounted Impact Factor, RePEc Recursive Discounted Impact Factor, RePEc H-Index differently in the two sources, which can lead to the matching algorithm detecting false positives or negatives.

and RePEc Abstract-Ranking. A lower score or index value indicates a higher ranking for the journal.<sup>21</sup> In our sample, publications by men are, on average, better ranked—i.e., lower RePEc scores—than publications by women. The average score for publications by men is 807.6, while the average score for publications by women is 855.8. This 48-point difference in the RePEc score implies that, on average, journals where men publish more are ranked 48 places higher than those where women publish. Figure 39 shows a general decline in publication rankings for both men and women as we move towards younger cohorts. However, there is a notable exception: women in the two more recent cohorts have, on average, the best rankings among all female cohorts and outperform most male cohorts, except for the oldest. In the latest cohort, the quality of women’s publications significantly improves, resulting in a substantial gap in RePEc-publication ranking in favor of women among the "youngest" researchers. In light of this evidence, along with our earlier finding of a decline in women’s participation in published articles (as shown in Figure 36b), it appears that there may be a shift toward prioritizing quality over quantity.

Figure 39: Average RePEc score of articles across cohorts of year of first publication



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

Notes: A lower score indicates a higher ranking for the journal. The RePEc ranking refers to the current classification of the journal but not its ranking at the time of publication. Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper. Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc-Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

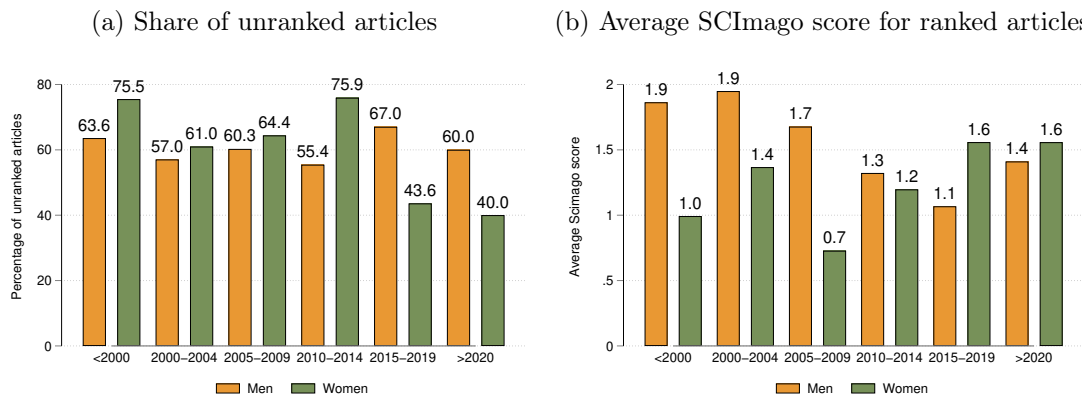
One drawback of the RePEc ranking is that it reflects the current classification of the journal but not its ranking at the time of publication. Consequently, this measure comes with limitations when assessing the evolution of publications’ quality. An alternative approach involves examining the SCImago journal rank, which allows us to identify

<sup>21</sup>Only journals with 50 or more items are ranked. The RePEc ranking is not available for 2 articles, each authored by one man.

journals' scores over time since 1999. We gathered information on journals' scores from the SCImago Journal and Country Rank Portal, and matched it to each publication in our database. Out of the 2680 publications in our sample—i.e., 2680 article-author units—1666 (62%) are published in journals not indexed in SCImago (henceforth *unranked* publications), which we will consider as an indication that the publication may have a lower quality.

Among the 1666 unranked publications, 1357 correspond to male authors, and 309 to female authors—61% and 67% of total publications by men and women, respectively. Figures 40a and 40b display the percentage of unranked articles and the SCImago score of ranked articles, respectively, by cohort and gender. Although a clear pattern is not evident across cohorts, for the two more recent cohorts of women, there is a significant reduction in the share of unranked articles and a clear improvement in the average score of ranked articles. In other words, both indicators suggest an enhancement in the quality of publications for women in the youngest cohorts, both in absolute terms and in comparison to men.

Figure 40: Articles in SCImago-journal rank across cohorts of year of first publication



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc and SCImago Journal and Country Rank Portal. Notes: Publications are article-author units, as each article is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc-Argentina. A higher score indicates a higher ranking for the journal. Cohorts are defined at the author level, based on the year of the first publication recorded in RePEc-Argentina, whether it be an article, book, or working paper.

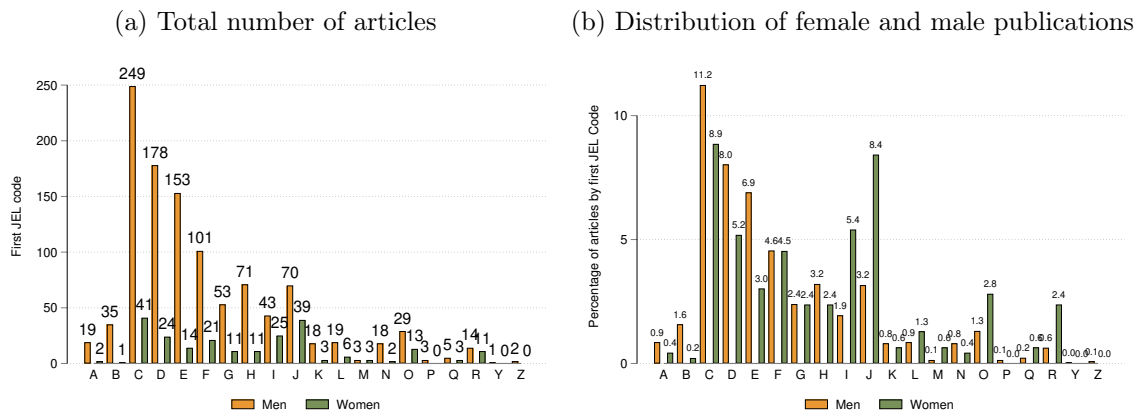
### 5.2.5 JEL codes

Finally, we explore gender gaps in thematic areas based on the Journal of Economic Literature (JEL) codes assigned to each journal article. The JEL classification system is a standard method of classifying scholarly literature in the field of economics. The general categories are represented by letters from A to Z, with each letter corresponding to a specific area: A stands for General Economics and Teaching; B for Schools of Economic Thought and Methodology; C for Mathematical and Quantitative Methods; D for Microeconomics; E for Macroeconomics and Monetary Economics; F for International

Economics; G for Financial Economics; H for Public Economics; I for Health, Education, and Welfare; J for Labor and Demographic Economics; K for Law and Economics; L for Industrial Organization; M for Business Administration and Business Economics, Marketing, Accounting, Personnel Economics; N for Economic History; O for Economic Development, Innovation, Technological Change, and Growth; P for Political Economy and Comparative Economic Systems; Q for Agricultural and Natural Resource Economics, Environmental and Ecological Economics; R for Urban, Rural, Regional, Real Estate, and Transportation Economics; Y for Miscellaneous Categories; and Z for Other Special Topics.

Figure 41 shows the distribution of articles published by men and women according to the first JEL code listed in the publication.<sup>22</sup> Figure 41a displays the number of publications in each JEL code by gender, and Figure 41b shows the distribution of articles published by women and men across JEL codes. Fields C (Mathematical and Quantitative Methods), D (Microeconomics), and F (International Economics) are among the most popular both among men and women—together represent 23.8% of men’s and 18.6% of women’s published articles. However, fields I (Health, Education, and Welfare) and J (Labor and Demographic Economics) are much more popular among women than among men—together, they represent 13.8% of women’s publications and only 5% of men’s publications. On the other hand, field E (Macroeconomics and Monetary Economics) is significantly more popular among men than women—6.9% of men’s publications belong to this field compared to only 3% of women’s publications.

Figure 41: Articles across JEL codes



Source: Own elaboration based on data from RePEc.

Notes: The JEL code is the first listed in the publication. Publications are article-author units, as each article is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in the CONICET database.

<sup>22</sup>We find similar results if instead of considering only the first JEL code, we consider all reported JEL codes.

### 5.3 Economics Researchers at CONICET

The National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET, for its acronym in Spanish) is the main organization in Argentina responsible for promoting and funding scientific and technological research. It employs researchers who work across the country in research centers and institutes exclusive to CONICET or jointly affiliated with national universities and other institutions. Their activities span various knowledge areas, including the social sciences, where Economics is included.

Through a special request, we obtained information about researchers in Economics affiliated with CONICET. Our database contains information on 194 researchers, 126 men (65%) and 68 women (35%), who were active at some point during the period 2000-2020. For each researcher, we have information on age, gender, year and category of entry into CONICET, promotions to higher categories, unsuccessful promotion attempts, and all available background information from their CVs as of December 2020, including publications.

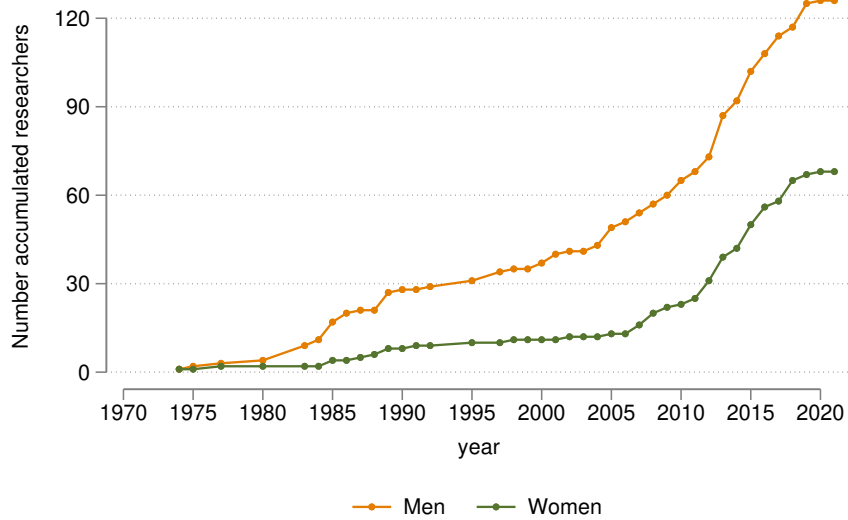
#### Admission and promotions at CONICET

Entry into the CONICET scientific researcher career is through a competitive process, and it is a requirement to hold a doctoral degree. Figure 42 shows that the entrance of men into CONICET had a faster pace than that of women, particularly during the 1980s.<sup>23</sup> Despite a significant growth in admissions for both men and women in the second half of the 2000s, the gender gap persists until the end of the series, and it has even widened in recent years. This historically lower likelihood of women having access to CONICET explains why the concentration of older researchers is significantly higher among men, as shown in Figure 43: 51% of men but only 23% of women in CONICET are over 50 years old.

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<sup>23</sup>Unfortunately, we have no information on admission requests.

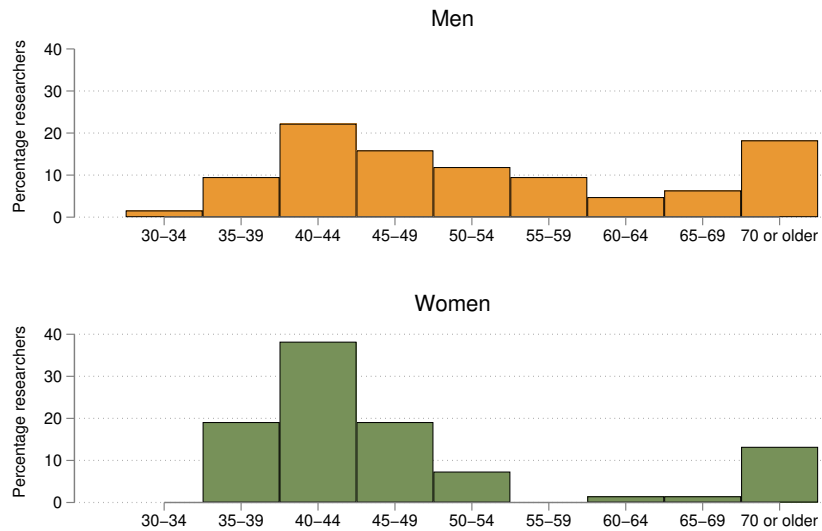
Figure 42: Cumulative number of CONICET researchers by gender



Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Notes: We count only entries into CONICET, regardless of whether the researchers are active or retired as of December 2020.

Figure 43: Age distribution of male and female researchers at CONICET



Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Notes: Age as of December 2020.

The researcher career at CONICET comprises five stages or categories of increasing hierarchy: Assistant Researcher, Associate Researcher, Independent Researcher, Principal Researcher, and Superior Researcher. Table 1 displays the distribution of researchers according to the category at the time of entry into CONICET and the category as of

December 2020 for women and men, separately. Overall, female researchers have entered CONICET at lower categories than their male counterparts: while 81% of women enter as Assistant Researchers, building their careers from the ground up, more than half of the men (53%) enter as Associate researchers or in higher categories. This means that, given entry age and promotion rates, men could reach higher positions than women earlier in life.

Table 1: Entry category into CONICET and current category as of Dec. 2020

<b>A. Women</b>	Category by Dec. 2020					
Category at entrance	Assistant	Associate	Independent	Principal	Superior	Total
Assistant	19	25	10	1		55
Associate		4	1	1		6
Independent				3		3
Principal				2	1	3
Superior					1	1
Total	19	29	11	7	2	68

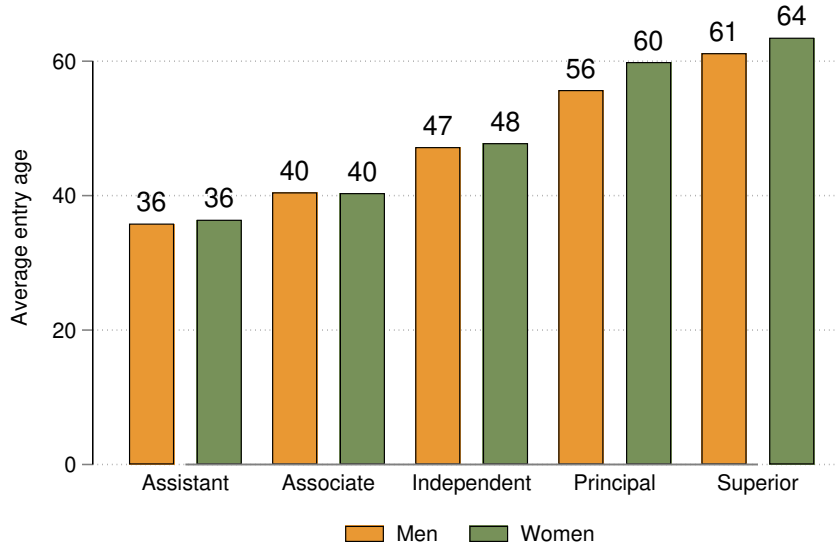
  

<b>B. Men</b>	Category by Dec. 2020					
Category at entrance	Assistant	Associate	Independent	Principal	Superior	Total
Assistant	14	30	10	5		59
Associate		19	16	5		40
Independent			10	7	1	18
Principal				5	1	6
Superior					3	3
Total	14	49	36	22	5	126

Figure 44 shows that men and women are of similar average age upon entering the first three lower CONICET categories—Assistant, Associate, and Independent Researcher—, but men are four years younger than women upon reaching the Principal Researcher category. Also, among the few researchers in our database who have attained the highest researcher category—only five men and two women—, men are younger than women upon becoming Superior researchers.



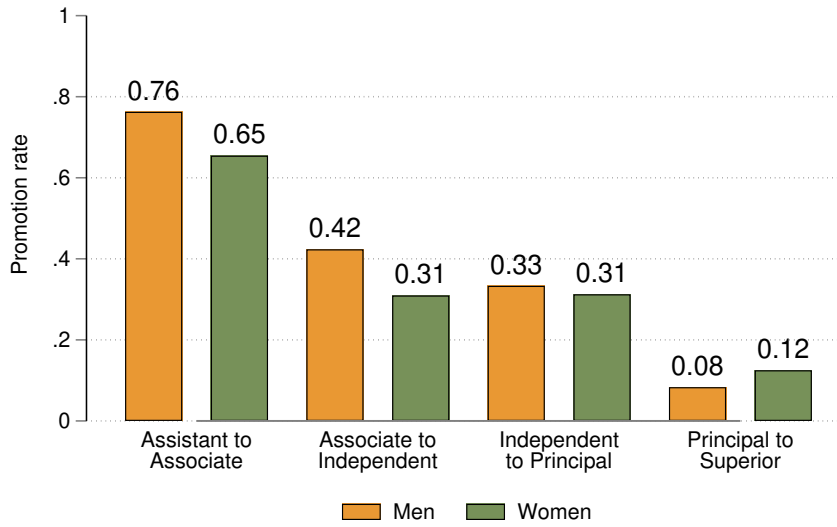
Figure 44: Average age at entry into each CONICET researcher category



Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Regarding promotions, men show a somewhat higher inclination to apply compared to women, and importantly, they are much more successful in obtaining them. Figure 45 displays the promotion rate for women and men separately, measured as the share of researchers who were promoted out of the total who have ever occupied the original category. The promotion rate is significantly higher among men, especially in the lower categories—the promotion rates to the Assistant and Associate categories are 11 percentage points higher for men than for women. This helps explain why only a few women reach the highest categories—only eight women compared to 24 men have ever reached the Principal category, and only two women compared to five men have ever reached the Superior category. Conditional upon reaching these top categories, the gender gap in promotion rates is not as pronounced, and it even reverses in promotions from Principal to Superior, although this evidence is anecdotal, as only two women reached the highest category. It is important to notice that these results do not stem from men applying for promotions more often than women, as we find these same patterns when defining the promotion rate as a percentage of total applications.

Figure 45: Promotion rates in the CONICET researcher career

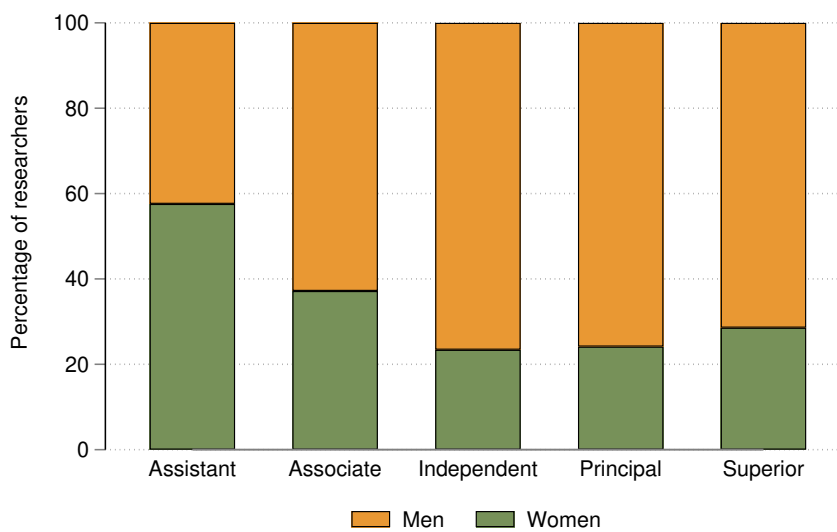


Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Notes: The promotion rate is calculated by dividing the number of researchers who have been promoted from one category to the next by the total number of researchers who have ever occupied the original category.

As a result, although women make up more than 50% of Assistant Researchers, as higher categories are considered, the participation of women progressively decreases. Figure 46 illustrates this *leaky pipeline*, where women represent only between 23% and 29% of CONICET researchers in the top three categories.

Figure 46: Participation of female and male researchers across researcher categories



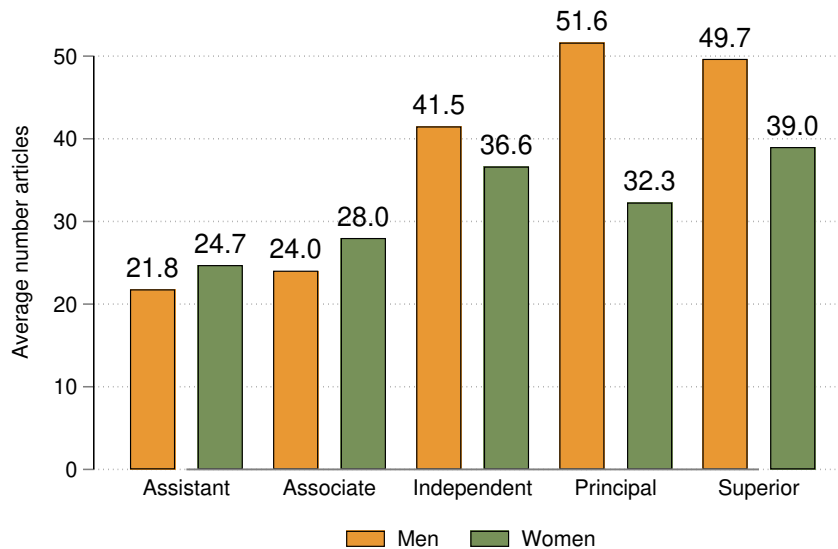
Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

## Publications

Our database also includes information on publications by CONICET researchers. Analogous to the RePEc database, in the CONICET database each article, book, or chapter appears as many times as there are CONICET coauthors. Thus, while we use the term “publications” for ease of reference, it is important to keep in mind that it refers to publication-author units.

Our dataset contains a total of 9789 publications, of which 5949 are articles—4024 (68%) authored by men and 1925 (32%) by women. The average number of articles is 34.4 for men and 29.2 for women. This publication gap is, in part, a result of male researchers being older. Figure 47 shows the average number of articles for both men and women for each researcher category. The publication gap in favor of men is evident for the three highest categories—i.e., Independent, Principal, and Superior Researchers—, but for the Assistant and Associate Researcher categories, women have more publications than men, on average. While this suggests an advantage in publications by women in the early stages of the CONICET researcher career, this contrasts with their lower promotion rates, as we discussed earlier. Of course, it is also crucial to consider the quality of these publications.

Figure 47: Average number of published articles across researcher categories



Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

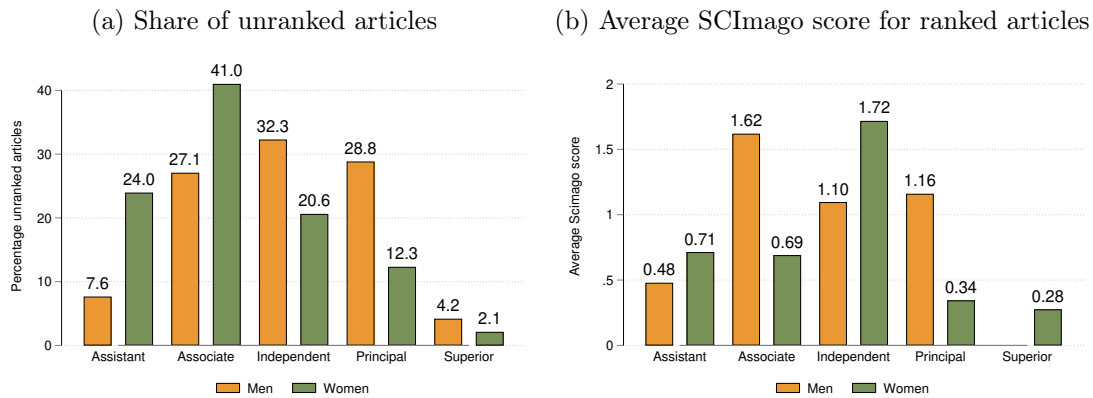
Notes: Publications are article-author units, as each article is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in the CONICET database.

CONICET establishes its own standards for determining publication quality through the *Núcleo Básico de Revistas*, which is a curated list of journals meeting CONICET’s quality criteria.<sup>24</sup> This classification is taken into account when determining admissions

<sup>24</sup>The list of journals in the *Núcleo Básico de Revistas* for the social sciences is available at <http://www.caicyt-conicet.gov.ar/sitio/comunicacion-cientifica/nucleo-basico/>.

and promotions for the CONICET researcher career. However, when compared with other metrics such as SCImago, CONICET’s list of journals shows greater diversity. To assess the quality of publications by CONICET researchers in a manner similar to what was done for RePEc-Argentina researchers in the previous subsection, we once again refer to the SCImago journal ranking. Only 10% of the articles listed in our CONICET database are ranked in SCImago, a significantly lower percentage than what was observed for Argentinean researchers in RePEc, where 38% of the articles were ranked. Gender differences are evident, suggesting that publications by female CONICET researchers may not be "as good as" those by male researchers on average—only 6.7% of articles authored by female CONICET researchers appear in the SCImago journal ranking compared to 11.3% for male researchers. Figure 48a shows that the share of unranked papers is higher among women in the two lowest categories—Assistant and Associate. Conversely, in the Independent categories and beyond, the reverse is true, indicating a higher proportion of unranked articles among men. As for the SCImago score of ranked articles, Figure 48b does not exhibit a clear pattern according to the researcher’s category, possibly due to the small sample size of ranked papers in each gender-category group.

Figure 48: Articles in SCImago-journal rank across author’s category at CONICET



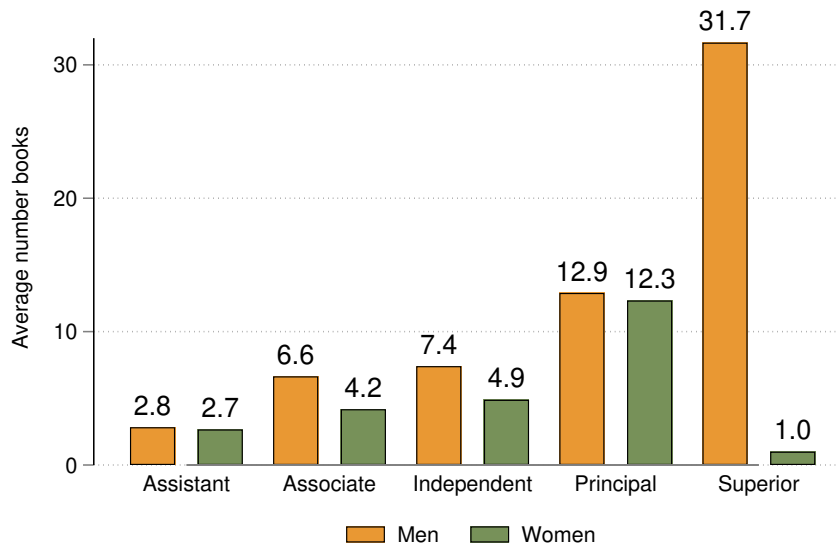
Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET and SCImago Journal and Country Rank Portal.

Notes: Publications are article-author units, as each article is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in RePEc-Argentina. A higher score indicates a higher ranking for the journal.

Regarding coauthorship, we observe a similar pattern to the one identified among RePEc researchers: women typically have more coauthors than men. First, it is more common for men to publish as the sole author: 40% of the 4024 male-authored publications and 32% of the 1925 women-authored publications feature a sole author. In addition, when work is collaborative, women have, on average, more coauthors than men—1.9 and 1.8 coauthors, respectively—, and they are more likely to collaborate with female coauthors—0.67 and 0.45 female coauthors, which represent 35% and 24% of women’s and men’s coauthors, respectively.

We also have information regarding books published by CONICET researchers. Our database reports a total of 1091 author-book units, of which 848 (77.3%) belong to men and 243 (22.3%) to women. The average number of books published is 8.4 for men and 4.9 for women. Figure 49 shows the average number of books for both men and women in each researcher category. Once again, a publication gap in favor of men is evident, although it is important to note that the significant gender gap in the top category is merely anecdotal, as only a few individuals occupy this position.

Figure 49: Average number of published books across researcher categories



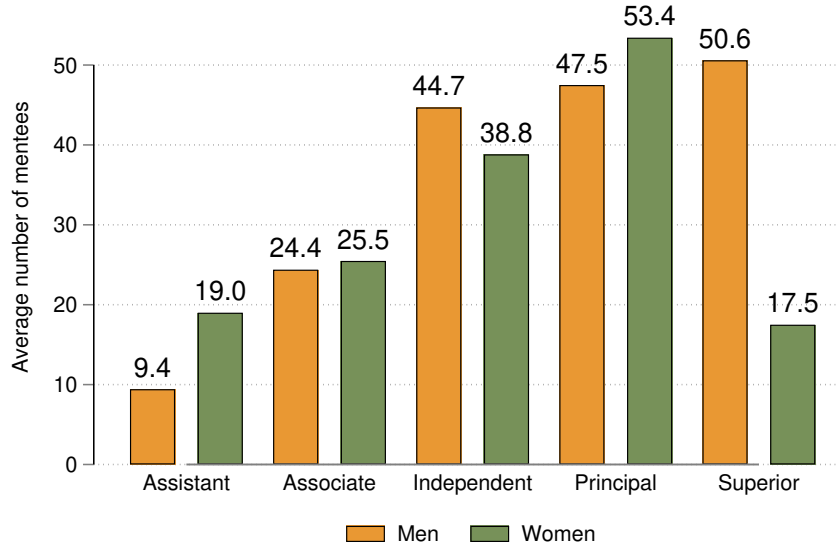
Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Notes: Publications are book-author units, as each book is recorded as many times as there are coauthors listed in the CONICET database. There are only two women and five men in the Superior category.

### Researchers as mentors

Using CONICET data, we can also evaluate gender differences in the workload of supervising thesis students and fellows. On average, female researchers supervise around 28.5 mentees, while male researchers supervise around 33.6. Figure 50 illustrates that the supervision workload increases for both men and women as they advance to higher categories. It is notable that women bear a much heavier supervision burden in the first category, with an average of 19 supervisees compared to 9 for men. If evaluations assign less weight to human resources development than to publications, this could partially explain the lower promotion rate for women. Once again, caution must be exercised when interpreting the figures for researchers in the top category, as they represent only a few cases and serve merely as illustrative examples.

Figure 50: Average number of mentees across researcher categories



Source: Own elaboration based on data from CONICET.

Notes: Mentees include thesis students, fellows, and young researchers under the researcher’s supervision.

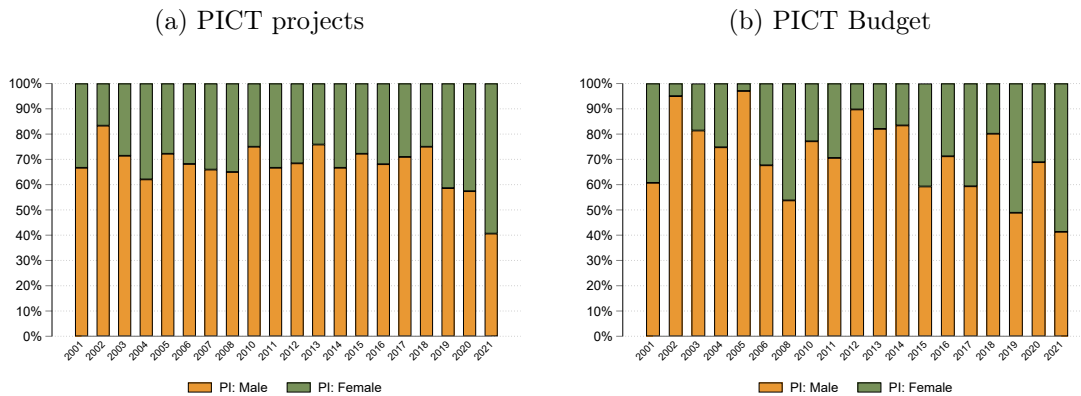
## 5.4 Funding

In Argentina, the primary funding for scientific and technological research is provided by the Ministry of Science, Technology, and Innovation. The key funding source within this framework is the Scientific and Technological Research Projects (PICT), a grant program overseen by the National Agency for the Promotion of Scientific and Technological Research and Innovation (ANPCyT). PICT aims to support research projects that significantly contribute to the advancement of scientific and technological knowledge in the country. Eligible applicants include researchers affiliated with academic and scientific institutions. The allocation of funds is determined through competitive calls, wherein project proposals are evaluated based on criteria such as scientific quality and their relevance to the overall development of Argentina.

Figure 51 shows the distribution of project funding in Argentina from 2000 to 2021, according to the gender of the Lead Researcher. It is important to note that projects in the field of Economics are part of a category that also includes “Law”. The data does not allow for disaggregating these categories and thus results are presented for the category as a whole. Panel (a) refers to the number of projects assigned, while panel (b) reflects the amount of budget allocated across projects. It is easy to see that women have been underrepresented for most years, both in terms of number of projects assigned and amount of budget allocated. On average, for the last two decades, women have been granted 32% of projects and 28% of the total budget. However, the trend seems to be changing in favor of women, although at a rather slow pace. Indeed, when comparing the first and

the last decade for which we have information (2001-2010 and 2011-2021) we find that the share of projects has increased from 30 to 34% while the budget allocated to women has grown from 24 to 31%. Moreover, 2021 shows a reversal in this pattern: for the first time both the share of projects led by a woman outnumbered those led by a man, and this was also reflected in the budgets allocated. However, it is too early to assess whether this represents a new status quo or it reverts to previous levels.

Figure 51: PICT Funding by gender of Lead Researcher



Source: Fondo de Ciencia y Técnica (FONCyT).

Note: Projects included are part of a general category “Law and Economics”. For 2007 and 2009 data is missing: for the former, no data is publicly available; for the latter, the data does not allow to identify this category.

## 6 Participation of Women in Other Academic Institutions and Activities

As in any other academic field, building a successful career in economics requires active engagement within a broad network of peers, established across various contexts. Academic seminars, workshops, and conferences provide a natural environment for engaging in discussions and debates and receiving feedback that will help improve research. Participating in associations may also provide the opportunity to interact with peers, as well as to take part in the making of decisions that may affect the status of women in the profession. In this section, we identify these networks in Argentina’s academic setting in the field of economics and, most importantly, the presence and role of women in them. As stated before, it should be noted that gender parity should not be hold as a benchmark in this section. Indeed, women participating in these activities may account at best for 40% of participants, given the panorama depicted in the previous sections regarding the share of female graduates, professors and researchers.

## Academic seminars

There are several established institutions that hold permanent academic seminar series on economics in Argentina. Public universities such as *Universidad de Buenos Aires* (UBA), *Universidad Nacional de Córdoba* (UNC) and *Universidad Nacional de la Plata* (UNLP); as well as private universities: *Universidad de San Andrés* (UdeSA) and *Universidad Torcuato Di Tella* (UTDT) offer such seminars on a weekly to monthly basis. Other research institutions with a similar practice are the *Banco Central de la República Argentina* (BCRA) - the central bank in Argentina-, and the *Banco de Desarrollo de América Latina y el Caribe* (CAF). Information on seminars is available from 2011-2012 on these organizations' websites.

Table 2 shows that over the last decade or so, almost 1650 speakers presented their research in these seminars. The largest share of speakers presented in private universities (almost 41%), followed by public universities (35%) and other research institutions (24.5%).

Table 2: Public available information on academic seminars, by type of institution

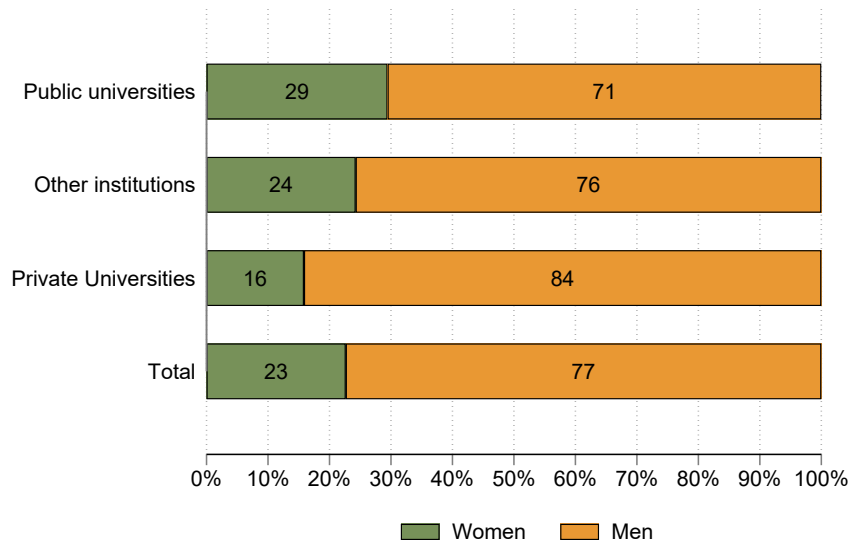
Type of institution	Period	Number of speakers	Share of speakers
Private university	2011-2023	669	40.6
Public university	2011-2023	574	34.9
Other institutions	2012-2023	404	24.5
Total		1,647	100%

Note: Public universities include UBA, UNLP, UNC; private universities include UTDT, UdeSA; other research institutions include BCRA, CAF. Source: institutions' websites.

On average, the participation of women as speakers in seminars over the last decade is less than 25%, as shown in Figure 52. Public institutions stand out for their higher share of female speakers: UBA, UNLP and UNC show the largest shares, around 30%. In contrast, private institutions show surprisingly low levels of female presenters: 16%. This is especially relevant, given that they have the highest share of presenters among all institutions (41%).



Figure 52: Speakers in seminars, by gender and type of institution

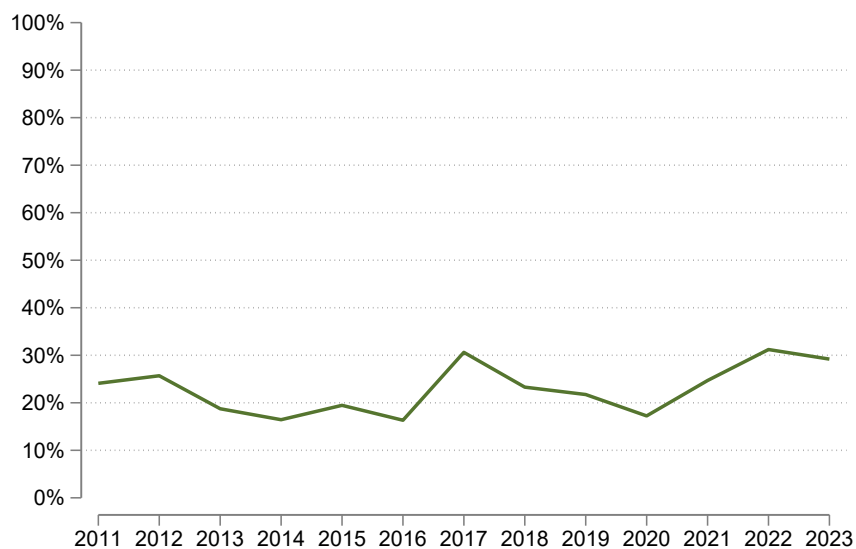


Source: institutions' websites.

Notes: See Table 2 for the complete list of institutions and period of reference.

Regarding trends, Figure 53 shows that the share of women as presenters in seminars has remained in the 20-30% range over the last decade or so. There has been a slight tendency towards growth of this share in the last three years, but it is probably too early to assess whether this will continue.

Figure 53: Percentage of female presenters in economic academic seminars



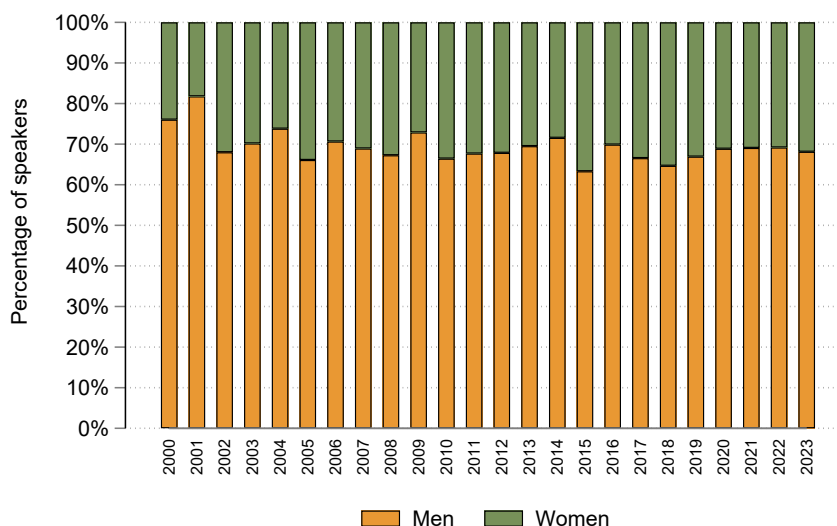
Source: institutions' websites.

Notes: See Table 2 for the complete list of institutions and period of reference.

## Argentine Association of Political Economy (AAEP)

The Argentine Association of Political Economy (AAEP) was founded in 1964. It is focused on promoting economic analysis in Argentina, with its main activity being the discussion of academic work at an annual conference, as stated on its website. This reunion takes place in November, each year in a different city, in collaboration with universities and other research institutions. The AAEP Annual Conference consists of a series of parallel sessions where papers are presented. The number of papers has increased from under 100 at the beginning of the 2000s to around 300 in 2023. Also, a series of keynote lectures and panels for discussion of specific issues takes place. In some years, a poster session has been included to incentivize the participation of recent graduates. Most of the information on the speakers is either available online.

Figure 54: Share of men and women presenting papers in the AAEP Annual Conference

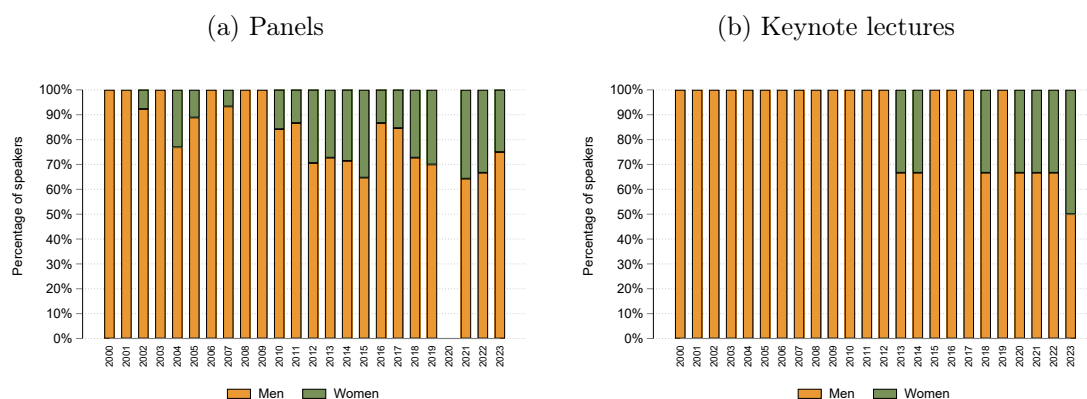


Source: <https://aaep.org.ar/>

Figure 54 shows the share of women in the last 23 years. The share has consistently oscillated around 30%, except for 2000 and 2001 where the share is particularly low—around 20%—. There are no signs of increase in the following two decades.

In contrast, the participation of women in panels does show some increase in the last 10 years (see Figure 55). Indeed, while women were rather the exception up to 2010, an effort to present more balanced panels in terms of gender has been pursued thereafter. However, the participation of women in panels hardly exceeds 30%. Keynote speakers show a more nuanced picture for gender balance. In fact, no woman participated as a keynote speaker until 2013. Even afterward, several years show no women at all (2014-2016 and 2018). Even though the number of keynote lectures is very low in each Conference (between one and three, depending on the year) it is still striking that the female share has remained

Figure 55: Share of men and women in the AAEP Annual Conference participating in:



Source: <https://aaep.org.ar/>

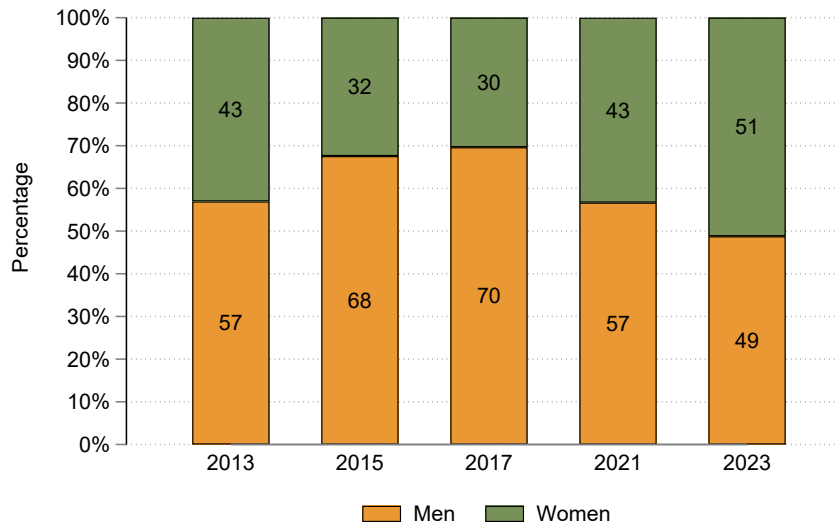
so low over the last decades.

### National Congress of Graduate Students in Economics (CNEPE)

CNEPE (for its acronym in Spanish) is the National Congress of Postgraduate Students of Economics held around every two years. There is publicly available information on the last five congresses (2013, 2015, 2017, 2021 and 2023) out of ten editions that were held. The congress consists of a series of paper presentations, discussion panels and keynote speakers.

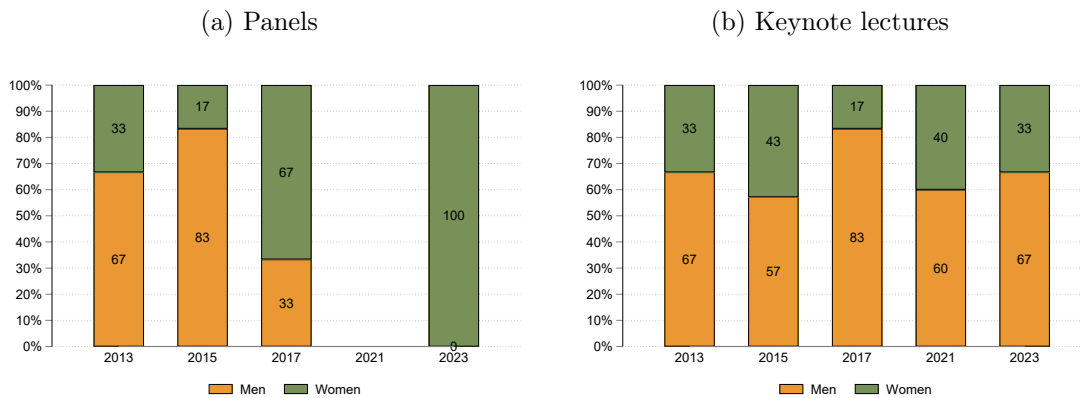
In contrast to the AAEP Annual Conference, the share of women participating in CNEPE is high: 43%. Moreover, in the last edition (2023) it has reached parity, as can be observed in Figure 56. While in terms of keynote speakers the share of women is still lower than that of men (around 30%), female participation in panels has increased in the later editions. In fact, in 2023, only women participated in panels (see Panel (a) and (b) in Figure 57).

Figure 56: Share of men and women presenting papers in the CNEPE



Source: <https://cnepe.fce.unam.edu.ar/>

Figure 57: Share of men and women in the CNEPE participating in:



Source: <https://cnepe.fce.unam.edu.ar/>

### National Academy of Economic Sciences (ANCE)

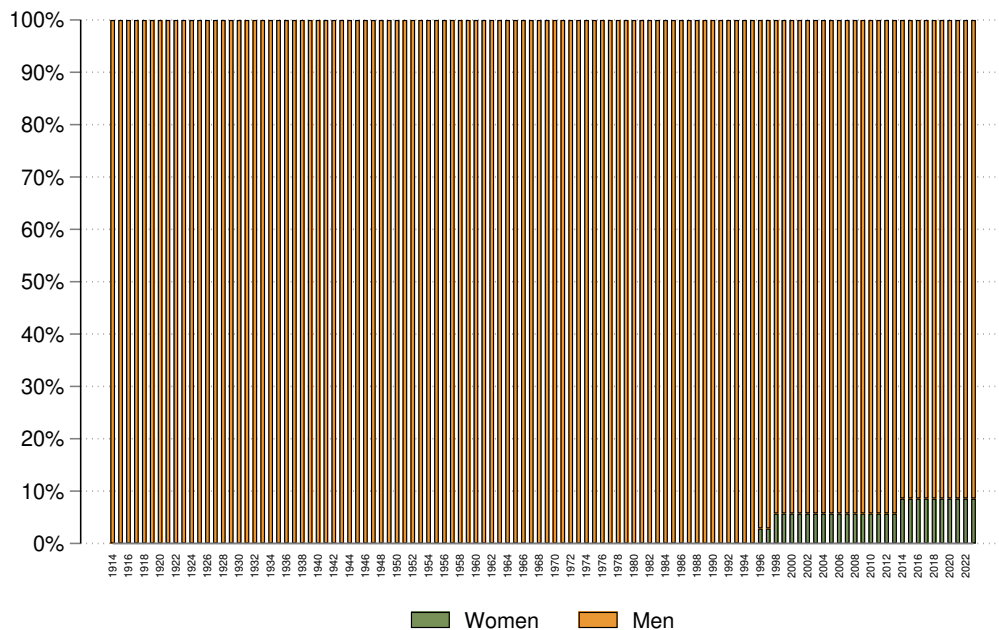
The National Academy of Economic Sciences of Argentina (ANCE) is a prestigious institution dedicated to advancing economic sciences. Since its foundation in 1914, it conducts research, publishes scholarly works, and advises policymakers. ANCE fosters collaboration, hosts educational programs, and serves as a recognized platform for leading economists in Argentina.

The academy operates with a distinctive structure. Membership is an honor, granted for significant contributions to the field, and appointments are lifelong. There are 35

lifetime positions, or “siliales”, in total. This unique setup seeks to ensure a stable and esteemed body of experts, contributing to the continuity and impact of the academy’s work.

Female presence in the ANCE has been elusive. Since its foundation, a total of 159 members have been part of the ANCE and only 3 have been women. Only in 1996 there were female members that joined the ANCE, as can be appreciated in Figure 58. Currently, with a total of 3 out of 35 places occupied by women, ANCE has reached its maximum female representation which accounts for only 9%. In all of its history, only one woman presided the ANCE: Dr. Luisa Montuschi, between 2013 and 2016.

Figure 58: Share of female and male members of ANCE

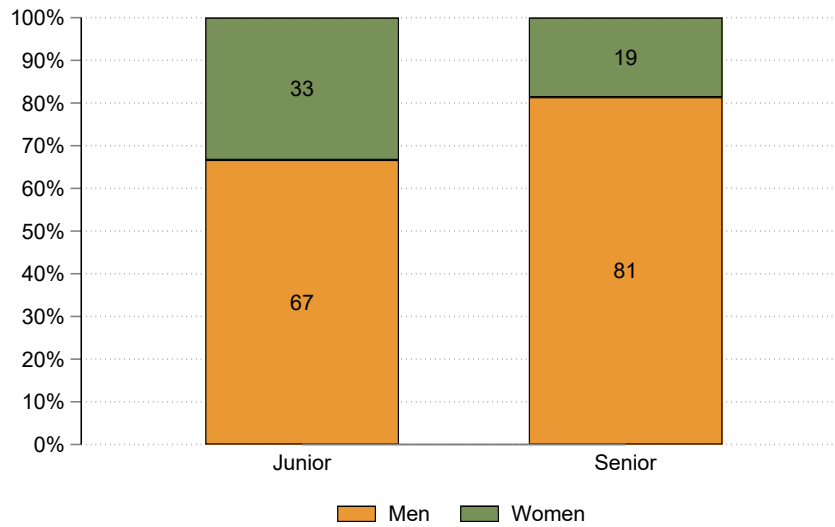


Source: ANCE website <https://anceargentina.org/>

### National Network of Researchers in Economics (RedNIE)

RedNIE, short for *Red Nacional de Investigadores en Economía*—i.e., National Network of Researchers in Economics—, is a non-profit organization founded in 2019 aimed at promoting the dissemination and development of economic research in Argentina, thus contributing to strengthening its academic quality. This objective is achieved primarily through the dissemination of research by its members in the form of working papers, as well as through seminars and other collaborative initiatives. A total of 126 researchers are members of RedNIE, out of which 24 are included in the “junior” category, while the other 102 are considered “senior” researchers.

Figure 59: Share of men and women members of RedNIE, by category

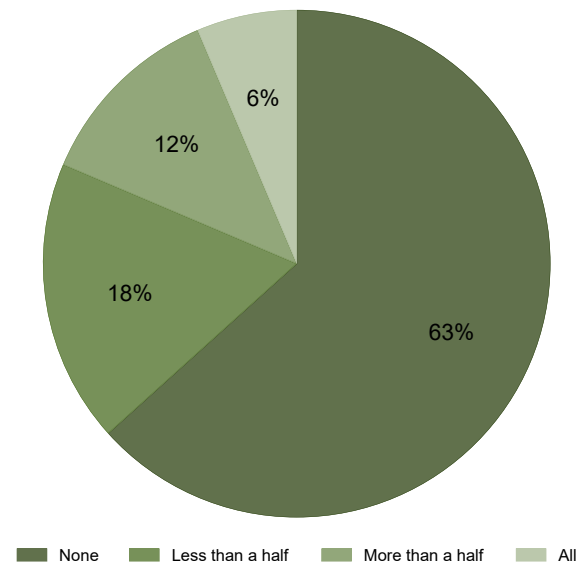


Source: RedNIE website <https://www.rednie.com.ar/>

While in total women represent 21% of researchers in RedNIE, the gender gap seems to be smaller in the younger cohorts. In fact, as Figure 59 shows, while the share of women among senior researchers is around 19%, this share increases to 33% among junior researchers.

RedNIE holds 299 working papers, written by a total of 798 authors. Only 21% of these authors are women. Moreover, 63% of papers have only male authors, which contrasts with the fact that only 6% of papers have only female authors. As Figure 60 also shows, while 18% have less than half women as authors, 12% have majority of women authors.

Figure 60: Distribution of RedNIEs working papers, by share of female authors



Source: RedNIE website <https://www.rednie.com.ar/>

### Economic Journals in Argentina

There are 9 main economic journals in Argentina, all endorsed by a particular institution. These are *Económica* by *Universidad Nacional de la Plata*, *Actualidad Económica* and *Revista de Economía y Estadística* by *Universidad Nacional de Córdoba*, *Revista de Economía Política de Buenos Aires* by *Universidad de Buenos Aires*, *Revista Ensayos Económicos* by *Banco Central de la República Argentina*, *Cultura Económica* by *Universidad Católica Argentina*, *Estudios Económicos* by *Universidad Nacional del Sur*, *Desarrollo Económico* by *Instituto de Desarrollo Económico y Social* and *Realidad Económica* by *Instituto Argentino para el Desarrollo Económico*.<sup>25</sup> All of the journals have their respective websites with information on their current editorial team. *Económica* and *Estudios Económicos* also provide some information on previous teams. Table 3 shows the year of creation, number of issues per year, and the SJC ranking for each journal.

<sup>25</sup>The Journal of Applied Economics (JAE), one of the most relevant economic academic journal originated in Argentina was founded by UCEMA (Universidad del Centro de Estudios Macroeconómicos de Argentina). In 2018 UCEMA signed an agreement by which JAE became part of Taylor & Francis economic journals. Although UCEMA is still associated to JAE as the founding institution, it does not own the journal anymore. Therefore, it has not been included in this analysis.

Table 3: Economic Journals in Argentina

Journal	Year of creation	Issues per year	SJC rank
Economica	1953	1	Not ranked
Actualidad Económica	1991	3	Not ranked
Revista de Economía y Estadística	1939	1	Not ranked
Revista de Economía Política de Buenos Aires	2007	2	Not ranked
Revista Ensayos Económico	1977	2	Not ranked
Cultura Económica	1983	2	Not ranked
Estudios Económicos	1962	2	Not ranked
Desarrollo Económico	1960	3	Q4
Realidad Económica	1970	8	Not ranked

Sources: journals' websites.

It can be noted that for every journal, the majority of the team members are male (Figure 61). The highest percentage of female team members can be found for *Estudios Económicos* with 47% and the lowest for *Actualidad Económica* with 15%. We can also look at specific positions within the team, since the journals specify the position that each person holds. An important remark is that there is currently not a single case of a female director or main editor. For the journals that have information on previous directors, *Económica* has had no females in this position in its history, but *Estudios Económicos* two former directors have been female: Elena Ortiz de Guevara from 1996 to 2008 and Andrea Castellano from 2008 to 2016.



Figure 61: Share of men and women in

Figure 62: Current editorial team

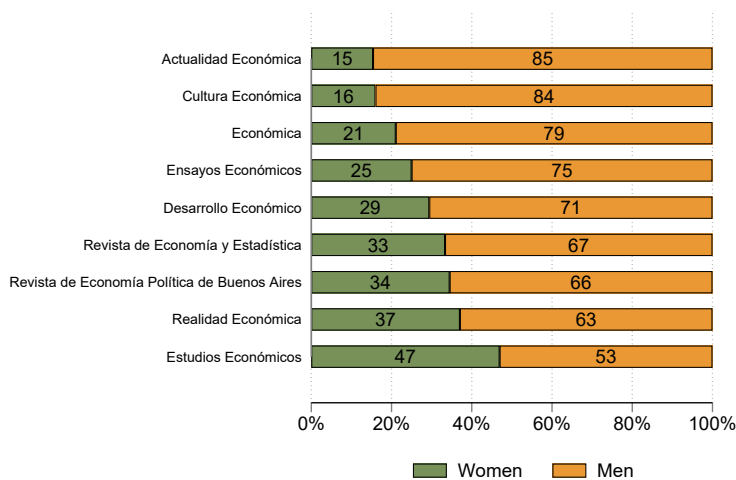
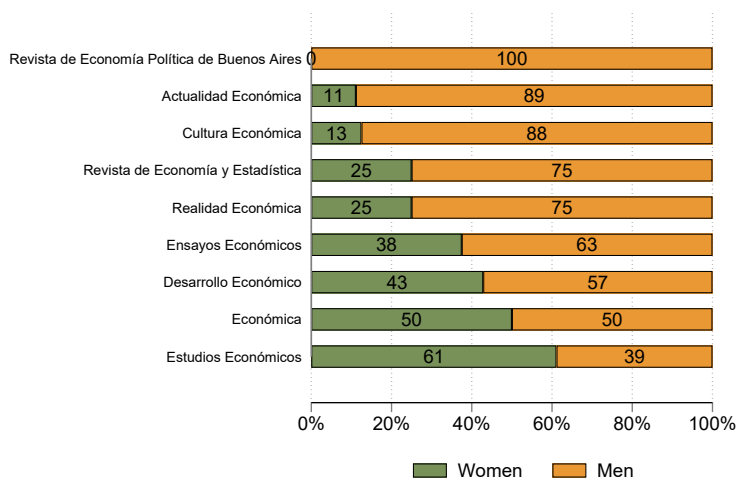


Figure 63: Editorial committee



Sources: journals' websites

## 7 Final Remarks

This document has provided an overview of the status of women and gender disparities within the economics profession across all academic tiers, focusing on Argentina. We conducted a comprehensive examination of women's representation in economics, spanning from undergraduate programs to faculty and research positions. Our analysis was based on various sources, including national administrative databases, university records, and microdata obtained through web scraping.

Regarding students, large gender disparities persist and —notably— seem to be enlarging. The institution-level data revealed that women are underrepresented among students enrolled in and graduated from economics programs at the undergraduate level. A similar pattern was found for graduate programs including Master and PhD levels, although with more erratic trends due to the smaller number of institutions offering these programs. The pattern of lower participation of women among undergraduate students enrolled in economics programs (compared to men) intensified over time. Moreover, the comparison with other fields revealed that the participation of women has been increasing in Computer Science and Engineering (fields with lower participation of women among enrolled students compared to Economics) and in Law and Medicine (fields where the participation of women among enrolled students is higher compared to Economics). The student-level data reinforces these findings: at the undergraduate level, women are underrepresented both in terms of enrollment and graduation, and this pattern is intensified in private institutions relative to public ones. Although we do not find strong differences in terms of the grades obtained upon graduation between women and men, we do find that women tend to complete their undergraduate studies faster than their male counterparts. Regarding the masters' level we find lower enrollment rates: on average 38% of women have pursued a master degree in Economics. It is important to note a sharp gradient between public and private universities: according to the student level data while the former show enrollment rates of about 40%, the latter have not been able to grow beyond 25% over the last two decades. As for the PhD level, we only have information regarding students pursuing programs in Argentina. We find a larger share of women compared to undergraduate and master's programs (around 40%). As odd as this may seem, this is consistent with the fact that men show higher rates of pursuing PhDs abroad.

The panorama in terms of research shows similar patterns. Indeed, despite a noticeable growth in women's participation within RePEc-Argentina across different cohorts, their representation still lags behind, although there is an encouraging upward trend in occupying top positions within RePEc-author rankings and an improvement in the quality of women's publications among the "youngest" researchers. Nevertheless, disparities persist in publication numbers, with men consistently outpacing women within each cohort. Moreover, collaborative work dynamics underscore gender gaps, as women tend to have more coauthors and a higher proportion of female collaborators, yet a lower share of international collaborators. Within the Argentinian scientific system, historical barriers have made it tough for women to join the National Scientific and Technical Research Council (CONICET), resulting in a predominant male presence among older researchers. Also, women face lower promotion rates than men, leading to a gradual decline in their representation in higher career categories. Despite women's tendency to produce more publications than men in the lower researcher categories—i.e., Assistant and Associate—, this advantage doesn't translate into promotion opportunities. Furthermore, women shoulder a heavier supervision workload, particularly in lower categories, potentially contributing to their lower promotion rates if evaluation criteria prioritize

publications over the development of human resources.

Research funding has also proven to be more elusive for women than men, with the former being granted a lower share of PICT projects and budget over the last two decades. It is important to note, however, that during the last decade this gap has been decreasing, although at a rather slow pace.

The presence and role of women in other academic institutions and activities has also been rather limited in Argentina. Female participation in academic seminars in Economics Departments during the last decade is quite low: 1 in 4 speakers are women. Notably, this share goes down to 16% when looking at private universities. Although a slightly upward trend may be observed for the last three years, it may be too early to assess whether it will continue. Female participation in key local conferences, such as the Annual Meeting of the AAEP, has oscillated around 30% in the last two decades without any signs of increasing. Moreover, women in keynote lectures and panels still remain strikingly scarce. In contrast, the CNEPE, another relevant congress gathering more junior researchers shows a rising share of women presenters which has even reached parity in the last years. As for the National Academy of Economic Sciences, probably one of the longest standing institutions in the academic field, female presence has been elusive: currently it has reached its peak with a 9% share of women, whereas there has been only one female president in all of its history. Women's participation in other research networks such as the recently founded RedNIE also remains scarce, where female authors account for around one quarter of the total. Finally, and importantly, the presence and role of women in editorial teams and committees of Journals edited in Argentina has also been rather faint. These low levels of female participation represents a sign of alarm as it limits interaction with peers and involvement in decision-making processes, hindering the construction of successful careers.

In summary, this document provides evidence of large gender disparities within the economics profession in Argentina. We've identified significant gender gaps in student enrollment, research involvement, and career advancement. Despite some positive trends, such as women's increasing presence in top positions, disparities persist in publication numbers and collaborative dynamics. These findings underscore the need for policy interventions to promote gender equality and create a more inclusive environment within the economics profession in Argentina.

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## A Tables and Figures

Table A.1: Programs in Economics at the undergraduate level

Institution (by Program)	Province	Years	System
<i>Bachelor of Economics</i>			
Universidad Arturo Jauretche	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de Avellaneda	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de La Matanza	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de La Plata	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de Mar del Plata	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Moreno	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de Morón	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public
Universidad Nacional del Oeste	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public
Universidad San Antonio de Areco	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de San Martín	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public
Universidad Scalabrini Ortiz	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public
Universidad Nacional del Sur	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad Católica de La Plata	Buenos Aires Province	4	Private
Universidad de San Andrés	Buenos Aires Province	4	Private
Universidad de Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires City	4	Public
Universidad Abierta Interamericana (UAI)	Buenos Aires City	5	Private
Universidad Argentina de la Empresa	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad de Belgrano	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad del CEMA	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Pontificia Universidad Católica Argentina	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad de Ciencias Empresariales y Sociales	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad Marina Mercante	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad Metropolitana	Buenos Aires City	5	Private
Universidad Torcuato Di Tella	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad del Nordeste	Chaco	5	Public
Universidad Patagonia S. J. Bosco	Chubut	5	Public
Universidad de Córdoba	Cordoba	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto	Cordoba	5	Public
Universidad Nacional Villa María	Cordoba	5	Public
Universidad Autónoma de Entre Ríos	Entre Rios	4	Public
Universidad de Concepción del Uruguay	Entre Rios	4	Public
Universidad de Entre Ríos	Entre Rios	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Chilecito	La Rioja	4	Public
Universidad de La Rioja	La Rioja	5	Public
Universidad de Cuyo	Mendoza	5	Public
Universidad del Aconcgua	Mendoza	4	Private
Universidad de Congreso	Mendoza	4	Private
Universidad de Misiones	Misiones	5	Public
Universidad del Comahue	Neuquen	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Río Negro	Rio Negro	4	Public
Universidad de Salta	Salta	4.5	Public
Universidad Católica de Salta	Salta	4	Private
Universidad Católica de Cuyo	San Juan	4	Private
Universidad Nacional de Villa Mercedes	San Luis	5	Public
Universidad del Litoral	Santa Fe	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Rosario	Santa Fe	5	Public
Centro Educativo Latinoamericano	Santa Fe	4	Private
Universidad de Tierra del Fuego	Tierra del Fuego	5	Public
Universidad de Tucumán	Tucuman	5	Public

Table A.1 (cont.): Programs in Economics at the undergraduate level

<b>Institution (by Program)</b>	<b>Province</b>	<b>Years</b>	<b>System</b>
<i>Bachelor of Business Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional del Centro de la PBA	Buenos Aires Province	4.5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Lanus	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de El Salvador	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad Austral	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad Torcuato Di Tella	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
<i>Bachelor of Development Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de Quilmes	Buenos Aires Province	4.5	Public
<i>Bachelor of Industrial Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
<i>Bachelor of Political Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Lanus	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
Universidad de El Salvador	Buenos Aires City	4	Private
Universidad Nacional de Jujuy	Jujuy	4	Public
<i>Bachelor of Social Economics and Cooperativism</i>			
Instituto de la Cooperacion	Buenos Aires City	4.5	Private

Table A.2: Programs in Economics at the Master level

<b>Institution (by Program)</b>	<b>Province</b>	<b>Years</b>	<b>System</b>
<i>Master in Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de La Plata	Buenos Aires Province	2	Public
Universidad Nacional del Sur	Buenos Aires Province	2	Public
Universidad de San Andres	Buenos Aires Province	1	Private
Universidad de Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires City	1	Public
Universidad del CEMA	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Torcuato Di Tella	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Nacional de Tucuman	Tucuman	3	Public
<i>Master in Applied Economics</i>			
Universidad de Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Argentina de la Empresa	Buenos Aires City	2	Public
Pontificia Universidad Catolica Argentina	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Torcuato Di Tella	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Austral	Santa Fe	1.3	Private
Universidad Nacional del Litoral	Santa Fe	4	Public
<i>Master of Development Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de San Martín	Buenos Aires City	2	Public
Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos	Entre Ríos	2	Public
Universidad Nacional de Salta	Salta	2	Public



Table A.3: Programs in Economics at the PhD level

Institution (by Program)	Province	Years	System
<i>PhD in Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public
Universidad Nacional de La Plata	Buenos Aires Province	2	Public
Universidad Nacional del Sur	Buenos Aires Province	7	Public
Universidad de San Andrés	Buenos Aires Province	2	Private
Universidad Argentina de la Empresa	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad del CEMA	Buenos Aires City	5	Private
Pontificia Universidad Católica Argentina	Buenos Aires City	2	Private
Universidad Nacional de Rosario	Santa Fe	5	Public
<i>PhD in Economic Sciences</i>			
Universidad Nacional de La Matanza	Buenos Aires Province	2	Public
Universidad de Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires City	6	Public
Universidad Nacional del Nordeste	Chaco	3	Public
Universidad Nacional de Córdoba	Córdoba	2	Public
Universidad Nacional de Cuyo	San Juan	5	Public
Universidad Nacional de Tucumán	Tucumán		Public
<i>PhD in Development Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de Quilmes	Buenos Aires Province	5	Public
<i>PhD in Political Economics</i>			
Universidad Nacional de San Martín	Buenos Aires Province	4	Public

Table A.4: Number of universities and students, by academic level and year

	Universities			Students		
	Undergraduate	Master	Ph.D	Undergraduate	Master	Ph.D
2000	8	5	3	1098	85	16
2001	8	6	3	1160	119	24
2002	8	5	3	1381	114	22
2003	9	5	4	1394	96	10
2004	10	5	6	1516	94	20
2005	10	5	5	1112	196	15
2006	10	5	6	1152	105	26
2007	10	5	5	981	78	26
2008	10	5	4	1032	117	19
2009	10	5	5	1001	118	27
2010	10	6	5	1066	118	27
2011	10	6	5	1045	129	29
2012	10	6	5	1122	121	15
2013	10	6	4	1093	95	14
2014	10	5	5	1335	98	17
2015	10	6	5	1216	105	23
2016	10	6	4	1527	106	13
2017	10	6	6	1438	127	19
2018	10	5	5	1552	93	11
2019	10	5	6	1928	109	23
2020	9	6	5	1794	141	17
2021	10	5	6	2097	173	28
2022	10	5	5	1545	120	13