

1 **Is the audience gender-blind? Smaller attendance in female talks highlights**  
2 **imbalanced visibility in academia**

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13 **CRedit statement**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Although diverse perspectives are fundamental for fostering and advancing science, power  
25 relations have limited the development, propagation of ideas, and recognition of political  
26 minority groups in academia. Gender bias is one of the most well-documented processes,  
27 leading women to drop out of their academic careers due to fewer opportunities and lower  
28 recognition. Using decadal-scale data on talks (n=344, 2008-2019) from a seminar series in  
29 Ecology, Evolution, and Conservation Biology, we questioned whether affirmative actions  
30 focused on increasing women's representation affected their visibility and recognition,  
31 measured by audience size, as an indirect outcome. Specifically, we evaluated (i) the  
32 representation of females as speakers along academic levels and the effect of affirmative  
33 actions; (ii) whether the audience size of the talk depends on the speaker's gender, even  
34 accounting for the speaker's career length and productivity (iii), and (iv) if there were gender  
35 differences in the topics of the talks. The results indicate that women gave fewer talks than  
36 men, and this difference was greater for seminars given by professors. However, as expected,  
37 affirmative action increased the representativeness of women throughout their career  
38 positions. Female speakers had smaller audiences, especially among professors, indicating  
39 higher visibility for male professors even with comparable productivity metrics. We found no  
40 gender effect in the research topics presented, indicating that the difference in audience may  
41 also not be related to the topics of the talks. We raise the discussion that gender bias in the  
42 academic community in attending talks may decrease the visibility of research carried out by  
43 women, potentially impacting professional development and restricting the spread of ideas.  
44 Moreover, although encouraged, affirmative action increasing representativeness may not be  
45 enough against more subtle gender-stereotype biases. Our research contributes to the  
46 discussion of how gender inequity can influence visibility and reinforce the stigmatization of  
47 science.

48 **Keywords:** gender-science stereotype, gender equity, seminars, academic career, affirmative  
49 actions, audience, research topics.

50

## 51 **Introduction**

52 Diversity is a fundamental part of the advancement of science. Evidence shows that the  
53 current lack of social diversity, including gender, race, and ethnicity, in academia represents a  
54 highly inefficient equilibrium (Miriti, 2020, Pew Research Center Science, 2021, Doleac et  
55 al., 2021). Limiting the diversity of perspectives not only hinders the scope of inquiry but  
56 also reduces the potential for innovative solutions, underscoring the importance of inclusivity  
57 in fostering a more robust and dynamic scientific community (Hong, Page, 2004, Page,  
58 2007). For instance, gender equity is listed as one of the 17 goals of the United Nations 2030  
59 agenda (United Nations General Assembly, 2015).

60 The lack of representation and discrimination against women in academia is a reality that has  
61 been widely recognized. Women publish fewer first-authored articles (Larivière et al., 2013,  
62 Fox et al., 2016, 2023), receive smaller grants (Wennerås, Wold, 1997, Zandonà, 2022) and  
63 start-up funding (Sege et al., 2015, Oliveira et al., 2019), are paid less (Woolston, 2019), are  
64 less invited to talks (Schroeder et al., 2013), are promoted with reduced frequency, and hold  
65 fewer positions of power or influence (Niemeier, González, 2004, Amrein et al., 2011), such  
66 as being reviewers in scientific publications and grants (Astegiano et al., 2019) or in the  
67 editorial board of scientific journals (Fox et al., 2018, but see Barros et al., 2021). All of this  
68 contributes to the well-known phenomenon of the “leaky pipeline” of women's representation  
69 in science, i.e., women tend to leave the academic career path earlier than men (Shaw,  
70 Stanton, 2012, Zandonà, 2022).

71 Recent policies have been enacted to tackle the "leaky pipeline" phenomenon and increase  
72 the presence of women in university committees, journal editorial boards, scientific events,  
73 and organizations (Greska, 2023). While these measures primarily focus on enhancing female  
74 representation, gender-science stereotypes, which are entrenched and overly simplistic views  
75 about gender roles, continue to challenge these efforts by significantly shaping perceptions  
76 and behaviors (Nosek et al., 2002). Such stereotypes persist as a major source of gender bias  
77 in academia, with pervasive cultural effects against equity (Reuben et al., 2014, Miller et al.,  
78 2015, Calaza et al., 2021). These stereotypes typically present scientists as male (Mead &  
79 Metraux, 1957; Miller et al., 2015), creating an academic environment that diminishes the  
80 visibility and recognition of women's contributions. This reduced recognition leads to lower  
81 prestige for female scientists, perpetuating a vicious cycle that keeps them in a disadvantaged  
82 position within academia (Ross et al., 2022). Such dynamics illustrate the complex interplay

83 between affirmative actions aimed at increasing representation and the deep-rooted biases  
84 and stereotypes that continue to impede true gender equity.

85 Using the audience in talks of a seminar series in Ecology, Evolution, and Conservation  
86 Biology, we evaluate whether affirmative actions focused on increasing women's  
87 representation as speakers affected their visibility and recognition in science, measured by  
88 audience size, as an indirect outcome. To do so, we first evaluated (i) the representation of  
89 females as speakers through academic levels and the effect of affirmative actions. Then, we  
90 analyzed (ii) whether audience size depends on the speaker's gender, academic level, and  
91 affirmative actions for women representativeness . As audience size can be influenced by  
92 speakers' attributes other than gender, we additionally evaluated (iii) if differences in the  
93 audience of male and female professors reflected differences in the speaker's career length  
94 and productivity and (iv) if there were gender differences in the topics of the talks.

95 We rely on the analysis of decadal-scale data (2008-2019) on women's representation among  
96 speakers, audiences, and topics of the talks in an ecological seminar series (n=344 talks) at  
97 one of the main Latin American universities, the University of São Paulo, Brazil. Such events  
98 are fruitful occasions to catalyze learning, discuss ideas, contribute to further developing the  
99 speaker's research, and expand collaboration networks. They are pillars for promoting  
100 individual and social changes within scientific communities locally and globally.

## 101 **Methods**

### 102 *Seminar series in Ecology*

103 The EcoEncontros is a seminar series of weekly talks at the Ecology Graduate Program at the  
104 University of São Paulo (PPGE-USP), Brazil. EcoEncontros started in 2008 and is organized  
105 by a committee formed mainly by graduate students (master's and doctorate), in which  
106 females comprised around 70% of the organizing committee members until 2019. The  
107 committee primarily operates with open calls for volunteer speakers. In the seminars,  
108 speakers present their research at any stage of development: as a project, preliminary results,  
109 published papers, or any other topics of interest. Although it is a graduate program seminar  
110 series, almost 20% of the speakers between 2008 and 2019 were affiliated with foreign  
111 institutions.

112 Affirmative action can take various forms to promote equal opportunities for women in  
113 science (Bird, 2011; Bardoel et al., 2012). In 2018, the EcoEncontros organizing committee  
114 became aware of gender imbalance in their seminar talks. Hence, it began pursuing to  
115 improve it in response to ongoing discussions about gender disparity in Science. However,  
116 these efforts aimed to preserve the seminars' decentralized, horizontal, and voluntary nature,  
117 which relies on open calls for volunteer speakers rather than direct invitations. The initiatives  
118 (henceforth affirmative actions) aimed to create a more inclusive environment and focused on  
119 reinforcing calls for women to encourage greater female participation and engagement.  
120 Ultimately, when multiple volunteers expressed interest in presenting a seminar on a given  
121 date, preference was given to women. However, if no women volunteered, the slot was  
122 assigned to a male volunteer to ensure continuity in the schedule.

### 123 *Data collection*

124 We retrieved recorded information from all talks between 2008 and 2019 from the  
125 EcoEncontros committee attendance list archives (N=344 talks). We retrieved data about the  
126 speaker (gender, academic level, and affiliation) and the seminar (date, title, abstract, and  
127 audience size). We inferred the speaker's gender by name and photo (always present on the  
128 seminars' posters). Even though we are aware that the binary classification underrepresents  
129 gender diversity and may not reflect the self-declared gender of the speaker, we believe that  
130 any possible bias by the audience in attending the talks is also led by the same information.

131 We classified the speaker's academic level into 3 categories: student (bachelor's, master's, or  
132 doctoral degrees), postdoctoral researcher, and professor (assistant, associate, full, or  
133 lecturer). Senior researchers at non-university scientific institutions were also included in the  
134 professor category. We assessed audience size through the attendance list of the seminar, in  
135 which all attendees signed their names and affiliations. We excluded special seminars such as  
136 round tables and talks unrelated to the speaker's research, totaling 327 talks for the analyses.  
137 We classified talks in terms of whether they were presented before or after the start of the  
138 organizing committee's affirmative actions (2018): 256 talks (78%) were given before and  
139 71(22%) after it.

### 140 *Data analyses*

#### 141 Female speakers across academic levels

142 To investigate the representation of female speakers across academic levels and the effect of  
143 affirmative actions, we modeled the proportion of female speakers as a function of their  
144 academic level and whether the talk occurred before or after affirmative actions. We excluded  
145 talks from non-academic professionals, totaling 320 talks used in this analysis.

146 We used generalized linear mixed-effects models with a Binomial distribution (response  
147 variable: 0 for male; 1 for female) and set up models based on the combination of academic  
148 level and before-after affirmative actions (Table 1a). We included the year of the talk as a  
149 random intercept to account for differences in the proportion of female speakers through the  
150 years. We used model selection based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to infer the  
151 models that best fit our data (lower AIC), using the criterion of equality plausible models for  
152 those with a difference in AIC lower than 2.

153 Additionally, to differentiate gender bias in talks from the possible effect of gender unbalance  
154 in the Graduate Program community (PPGE), we performed a similar analysis with a subset  
155 of data for speakers from the PPGE (136 talks, 44% of the original dataset). The proportion  
156 of female academics in the PPGE community was calculated for each academic level and  
157 year (Figure S1) and used as a predictor variable in all competing models to represent the  
158 speaker's pool. That is, for each talk, this variable was the proportion of female academics in  
159 the program according to the year of the talk and the academic level of the speaker.

160 Competing models were set up based on the combination of academic level and affirmative  
161 actions in additive models (Table S1). This way, we evaluate if the proportion of female  
162 speakers follows the gender ratio of the PPGE community or if it is more or less biased  
163 through male speakers in the different academic levels as well as whether these proportions  
164 changed before and after affirmative actions.

#### 165 Speaker gender differences in seminars audience and affirmative action effects

166 To evaluate whether audience size depends on the speaker's gender, academic level, and the  
167 effects of affirmative actions, we modeled audience (number of attendants) as a function of  
168 the speaker's gender, academic level, and whether the talk occurred before or after the  
169 affirmative actions. We excluded talks from non-academic professionals and seminars when  
170 more than one speaker presented on the same day, totaling 298 talks for this analysis (see  
171 Table S2 for the descriptive summary). Similarly to the previous analysis, we modeled the  
172 year as a random intercept to account for possible differences in audience through time.

173 Given the considerable variation in the audience (ranging from 4 to 101), we used  
174 generalized linear models with negative binomial distribution. We set up models using the  
175 same procedure as previously explained (Table 1b).

176 To investigate if gender differences in the audience of professors reflected differences in the  
177 speaker's career length and productivity, we collected information on the professor's  
178 productivity, career length, and institution prestige rank. We collected the following  
179 information on each professor's Google Scholar profile: (1) career length, measured as the  
180 number of years from the first cited publication until the year of the talk; (2) i10-index, which  
181 measures the number of papers with at least ten citations; (3) H-index, which counts the  
182 number of papers with at least the same number of citations; (4) total number of citations; (5)  
183 cumulative number of citations until the year of the talk; (6) citations of the most cited paper.  
184 To measure the professor's institution rank, we used two Nature Indexes (Nature Index 2021):  
185 count and share. A count of one is to an institution or country if one or more authors of the  
186 research article are from that institution or country, regardless of how many co-authors there  
187 are from outside that institution or country (Nature Index, 2021). A fractional count (also  
188 called "share") considers the percentage of authors from that institution and the number of  
189 affiliated institutions per article. We performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with  
190 all metrics and used the first axis as the predictor variable for the productivity index. We  
191 analyzed 87 professors' talks since we could not get productivity information for nine  
192 professors.

### 193 Gender differences in seminar topics

194 To investigate possible gender differences in the topics of the talks, which could explain part  
195 of the gender differences in the previous questions, we performed a text analysis with the  
196 titles and abstracts of the talks. We recovered talk titles from 320 talks (140 for females, 180  
197 for males) and abstracts from 234 talks (99 for females, 135 for males). Titles and abstracts  
198 written in Portuguese or Spanish were translated into English. We compared the frequency of  
199 words used by male and female speakers using Pearson correlation. Given the small sample  
200 size for text analysis, we did not compare it by academic level. However, we also analyzed  
201 the data separately for professors, with 96 titles (24 for females, 72 for males) and 77  
202 abstracts (20 for females, 57 for males).

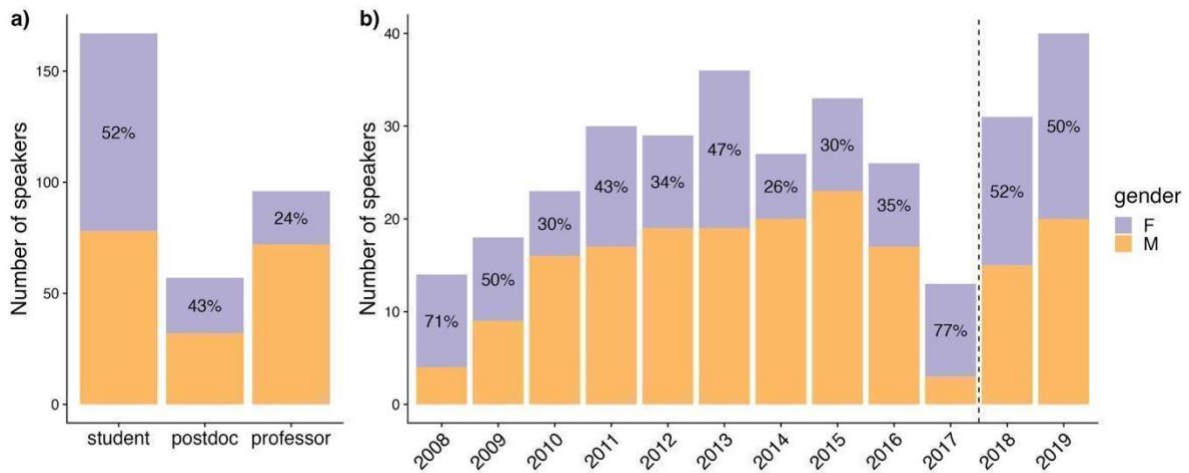
203 To investigate differences in research topics of talks given by male and female speakers, we  
204 performed a topic modeling analysis, an unsupervised machine learning model to identify  
205 groups of similar words (i.e., topics) within a body of text. We used Latent Dirichlet  
206 Allocation (LDA), following Silge & Robinson (2017), which treats each document  
207 (abstracts and titles of the talks) as a mixture of topics and each topic as a mixture of words.  
208 We compared LDA models with different numbers of topics ( $k = 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 20$ ) using AIC  
209 model selection. After classifying the talks within topics, we compared the frequency of  
210 topics between male and female speakers with a Chi-squared test.

211 All data analysis was performed in R (version 4.3, R Core Team, 2022), using the main  
212 packages: *glmmTMB* (Brooks et al., 2017), *DHARMA* (Hartig, 2016), *bbmle* (Bolker, R  
213 Development Core Team, 2023), *performance* (Lüdtke et al., 2021), *ggeffects* (Lüdtke,  
214 2018) for modeling; *tidytext* (Silge, Robinson, 2016), *topicmodels* (Grün, Hornik, 2011), *tm*  
215 (Feinerer et al., 2008), and *quanteda* (Benoit et al., 2018) for text analysis. The complete list  
216 of packages, together with all code and data, is openly available on the Zenodo repository  
217 (Leite, Barreto, 2024).

## 218 **Results**

219 From the 327 talks analyzed in 12 years, 184 were given by men (56%) and 143 by women  
220 (44%). When separated by academic level ( $N=320$ , excluding non-academic speakers),  
221 women gave fewer talks than men in higher academic levels, from 52% of the students and  
222 43% of the postdocs to 24% of the professors' talks (Figure 1a). Before 2018, men were most  
223 of the speakers in 7 of 10 years (Figure 1b). In 2018 and 2019, after the affirmative actions  
224 began, gender balance among speakers was 52% and 50% of women in each respective year.



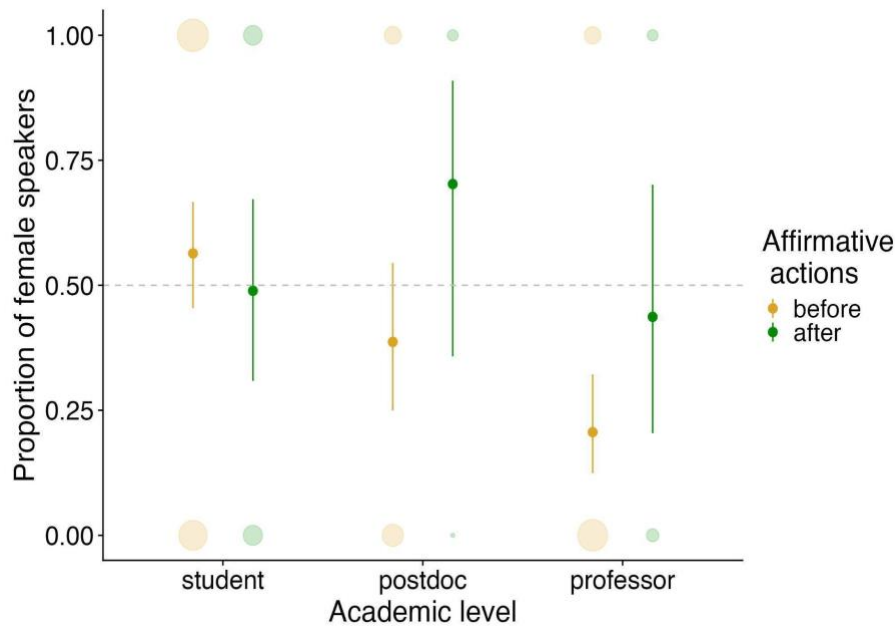


225

226 **Figure 1.** a) Total number of speakers by gender (females in purple and males in yellow) and  
 227 academic level for all talks in 12 years of the EcoEcontros seminar series. b) Number of talks  
 228 by gender for each year. The dashed vertical line indicates the beginning of affirmative action  
 229 to increase women’s representation. Percentages in both figures are the proportion of female  
 230 researchers within each academic level in (a) and year in (b).

231 *Female speakers across academic levels*

232 Two models were equally plausible for the proportion of female speakers (Table 1a). Both  
 233 models included academic level as a predictor, with the difference that the best-fitted model  
 234 includes affirmative actions and the interaction between them (conditional  $R^2 = 0.15$ ,  
 235 marginal  $R^2 = 0.12$ , Figure 2). Before the start of affirmative action, we found a decrease in  
 236 the proportion of female speakers through academic levels, with female speakers being only  
 237 21% of the professors’ speakers (Figure 2, gold lines). After implementing affirmative action,  
 238 the proportion of females in all academic levels was more balanced and did not differ from  
 239 50% (Figure 2, green lines). If we consider the second most plausible model, the proportion  
 240 of females also decreased with academic level, being smaller than 50% only for female  
 241 professors (26%, Figure S3).

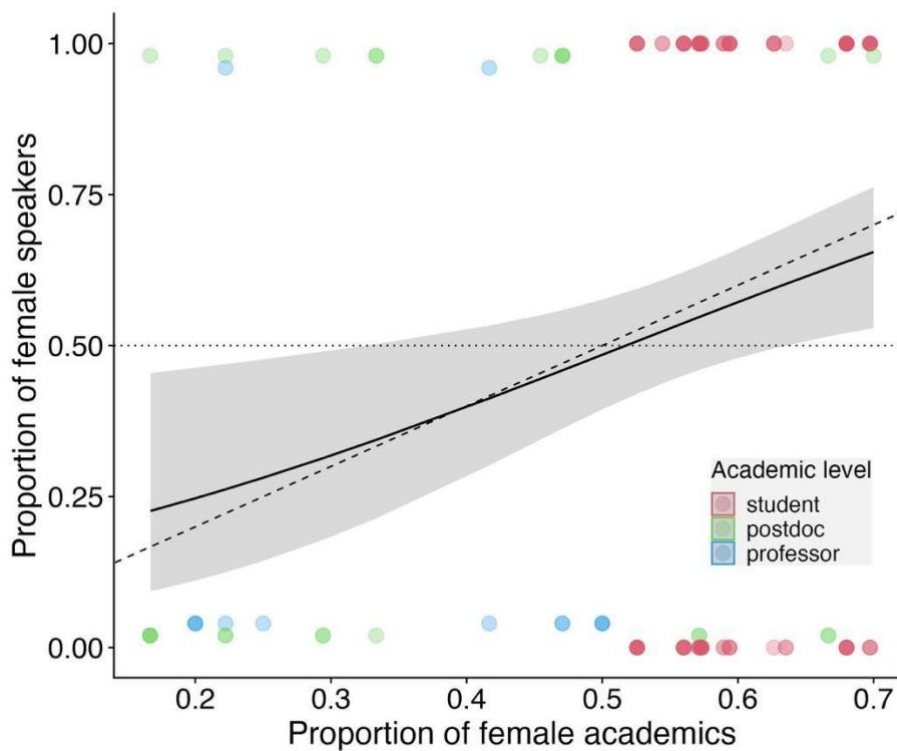


242

243 **Figure 2.** Proportions of female speakers according to academic level and affirmative actions  
 244 (before in gold and after 2018 in green) predicted by the best-fitted model (Table 1a).

245 Vertical line ranges mean 95% confidence intervals for the estimated proportions. The size of  
 246 the circles is proportional to the number of talks given by a male (y-axis 0) and female (y-  
 247 axis 1) in each category, ranging from 3 (smallest circle - male postdocs after affirmative  
 248 actions) to 69 (largest circle - male professors before the affirmative actions).

249 When considering the subset data for the Graduate Program academic community, we found  
 250 that the proportion of female speakers closely followed that of female academics within each  
 251 academic level (best-fitting model, Figure 3), showing no inherent gender bias in speaker  
 252 selection within the academic community. However, there was high uncertainty in the model  
 253 selection with all models being equally plausible ( $\Delta AIC < 2$ ), except the null (Table S1),  
 254 probably due to a smaller (44% of the original dataset) and unbalanced data between  
 255 academic levels (99 students, 24 postdocs, 13 professors) and affirmative actions (109 before,  
 256 27 after).



257  
 258 **Figure 3.** Predictions of the proportion of female speakers according to the proportion of  
 259 female academics at the Graduate Program in Ecology (PPGE-USP) population. The solid  
 260 black line is the predicted relationship from the best-fitting model (Table S1), and the shaded  
 261 area indicates a 95% confidence interval of the estimates. The dashed line indicates the 1:1  
 262 relationship between the proportion of female academics and the proportion of female  
 263 speakers per year and academic level. Dots represent the 136 talks of females (1) and males  
 264 (0), and the proportion of female academics according to the speaker's academic level  
 265 (colors), which are different for each year (not shown). We created little displacement in the  
 266 y-axis around zeros and ones to better show the data for each academic level.

267  
 268 **Table 1:** Model selection results for (a) the proportion of female speakers according to  
 269 academic level and affirmative actions; (b) the audience (number of attendants in the  
 270 seminar) according to the gender of the speaker, the academic level, and affirmative  
 271 actions; and (c) the audience of professors according to the gender, productivity index and affirmative  
 272 actions. All sets of models include year as random intercepts (not shown). For (b), we are  
 273 presenting only the models with weights above 0.01. Equally plausible models ( $dAIC < 2$ ) are  
 274 in bold. Asterisks between predictors mean the model includes the predictors' main effects  
 275 and the interaction between them.

Models	AIC	dAIC	df	weight
a) Proportion of female speakers (N=320)				
~ <b>academic level * affirmative actions</b>	<b>422.53</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0.53</b>
~ <b>academic level</b>	<b>423.56</b>	<b>1.03</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>0.32</b>

~ academic level + affirmative actions	425.08	2.55	6	0.15
~ NULL	440.30	17.77	3	0.00
~ affirmative actions	441.18	18.65	4	0.00
<hr/>				
b) Audience (N=298)				
<hr/>				
<b>~ gender * academic level + affirmative actions</b>	<b>2160.03</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>0.45</b>
<b>~ gender + academic level + affirmative actions</b>	<b>2161.43</b>	<b>1.41</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0.22</b>
~ gender * academic level	2161.27	2.24	8	0.15
~ gender + academic level	2163.49	3.47	6	0.08
~ gender + academic level * affirmative actions	2166.62	3.95	9	0.06
~ gender * academic level * year	2167.07	6.59	14	0.02
<hr/>				
c) Audience for professors' speakers (N=87)				
<hr/>				
<b>~ gender + productivity index + affirmative actions</b>	<b>691.32</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>0.60</b>
<b>~ gender * productivity index + affirmative actions</b>	<b>692.95</b>	<b>1.64</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>0.27</b>
~ productivity index + affirmative actions	695.04	3.73	5	0.09
~ gender + affirmative actions	696.94	5.62	5	0.04
~ affirmative actions	702.13	10.82	4	0.00
<hr/>				

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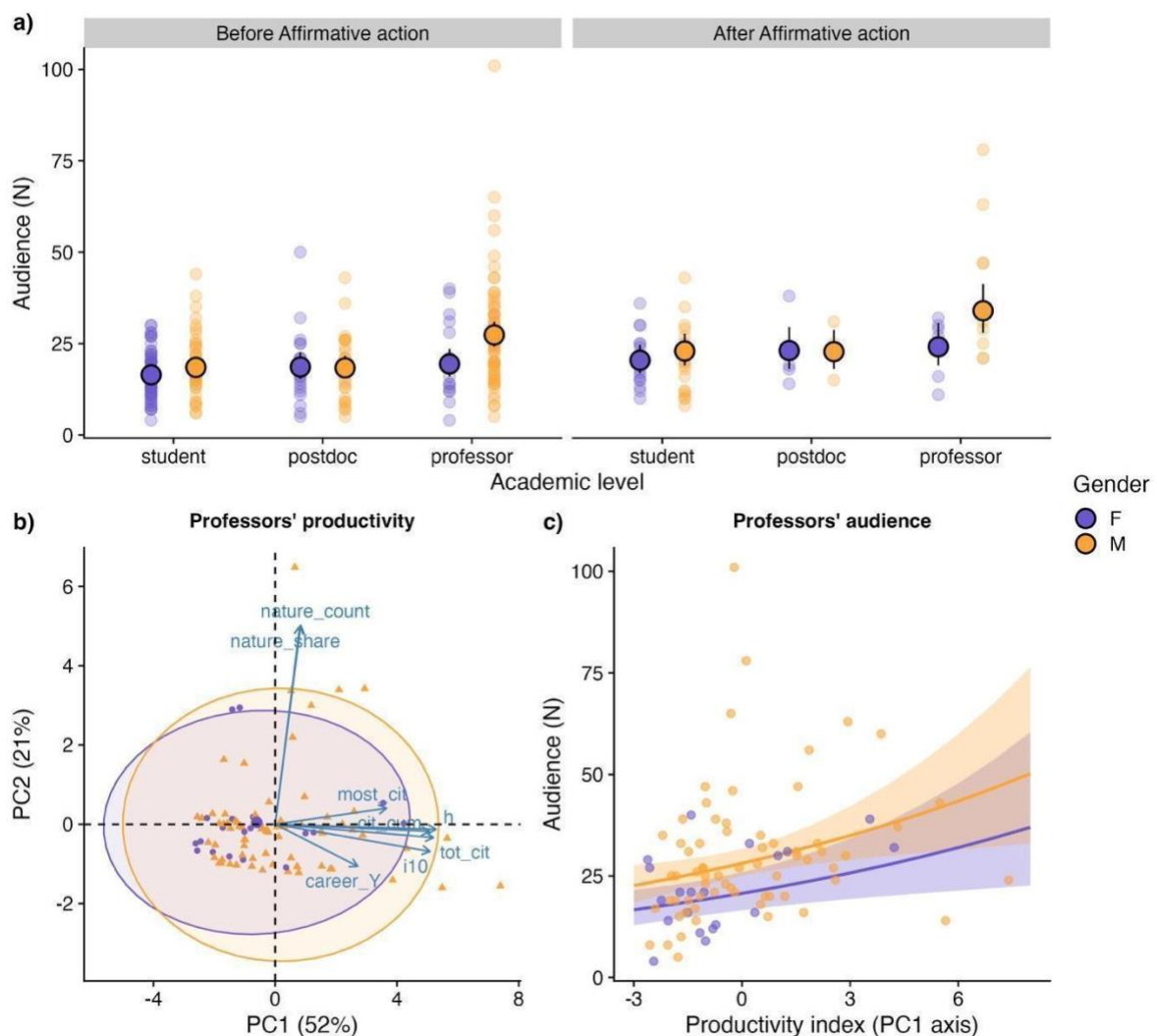
277 *Speaker gender differences in the seminars audience*

278 We found that male professors had the largest audience on average for their talks (Figure 4a,  
279 Table S2). The two equally plausible models for the audience (Table 1b) included gender,  
280 academic level, and affirmative actions as predictors, with the difference that the best-fitted  
281 model included an interaction of gender and academic level (conditional  $R^2 = 0.22$ , marginal  
282  $R^2 = 0.18$ , Figure 4a). For both models, (1) male speakers had, on average, a larger audience  
283 than female speakers, (2) the higher the academic level, the larger the audience, and (3)  
284 affirmative actions increased the audience of the seminars. According to the best-fit model,  
285 male professors' talks had, on average, 1.4 times the audience size of female professors' talks  
286 (predicted values from the model: before affirmative action - 27 and 19 attendees,  
287 respectively; after affirmative action - 34 and 24 attendees, respectively).

288 For the subsequent analysis of professors' talks (N=87), the PCA results (Figure 4b) show  
289 that career length and productivity metrics for professors were highly correlated with the first

290 axis (52% of variance explained), while the institution indexes composed the second PCA  
 291 axis (21% of variation explained). In general, male and female professors did not show  
 292 multivariate differences in career length and productivity metrics.

293 To explain the professor's audience, we used the first PCA axis as a proxy of productivity  
 294 (Figure 4b). As expected, professors' audience increased with productivity for both equally  
 295 plausible models (Table 1c). However, male professors still had, on average, an audience 1.4  
 296 times higher than female professors regardless of the productivity index (Figure 4c). The  
 297 marginal  $R^2$  of the best-fitted model was 0.21.

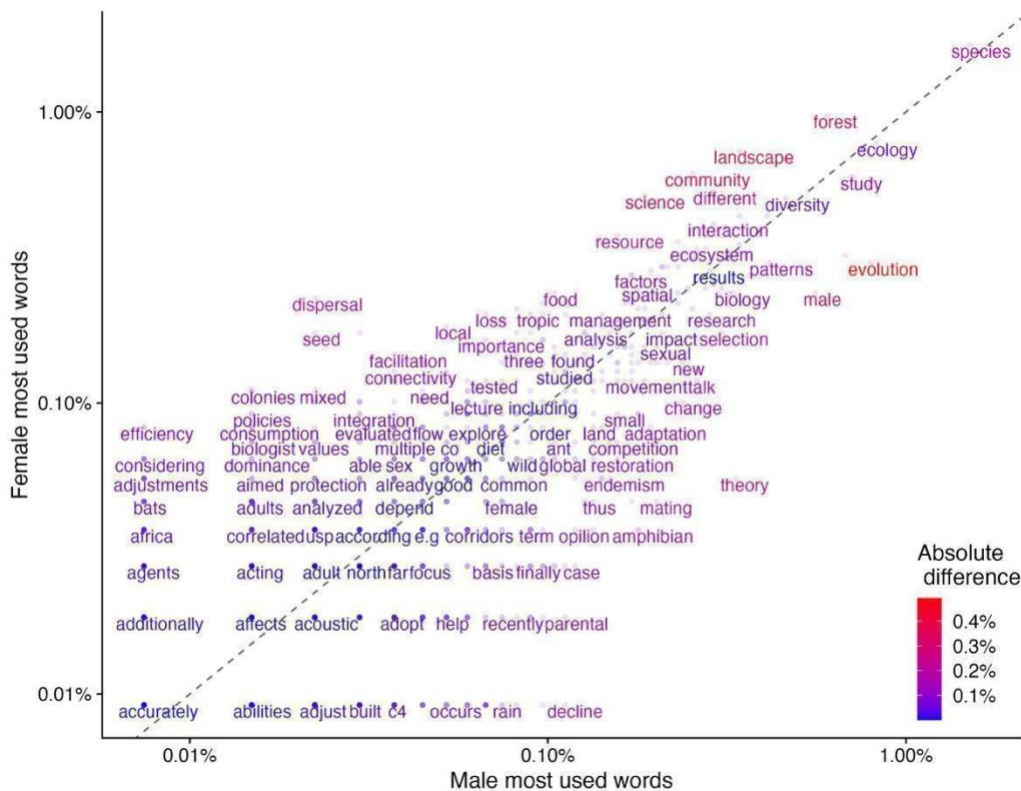


298 **Figure 4.** a) Audience (number of attendants) in seminars according to gender, academic  
 299 level, and affirmative actions (before and after 2018) with the prediction (black contour  
 300 circles) and confidence intervals (vertical black lines) from the best-fitted model for the  
 301 audience (Table 1b). b) Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for the productivity metrics for  
 302 professors and institutions (N=87); for variables code, see Table S3. c) The professor's  
 303 audience analysis is based on the gender and productivity index (PCA first axis). Lines and  
 304

305 shaded areas represent marginal predictions and 95% confidence intervals for the estimates of  
 306 the best-fitted model with additive effects of productivity index, gender, and affirmative  
 307 actions. We fixed the affirmative action to 'before' to display the predictions because most  
 308 data come from this period (N=67).

309 *Gender differences in topics of research presentation*

310 The frequencies of the most used words by male and female speakers were highly correlated  
 311 (all data  $r_p = 0.87$ ; professors  $r_p = 0.66$ ), indicating that there is no clear distinction between  
 312 the words used by male and female speakers in their titles and abstracts (Figure 5 all  
 313 speakers, Figure S4 only professors). We found no difference in topics between male and  
 314 female talks in general (Chi-square = 0.28, df =1, p-value = 0.59), neither for professors (Chi-  
 315 square = 0.50, df =1, p-value = 0.48).



316

317 **Figure 5.** Frequency plot of the most used words in the titles and abstracts of the seminars  
 318 given by female (y-axis) and male (x-axis) speakers. Both axes are at the logarithm 10 scale.  
 319 The color scale indicates the absolute percentage differences between male and female  
 320 speakers. Words with the exact same frequency were randomly assigned to display. The  
 321 dashed line indicates the slope of 1; words closer to it have similar frequencies in both sets of  
 322 texts The Pearson correlation between word frequencies was 0.87 for all talks (this plot) and  
 323 0.66 for professors only (Figure S4).

## 324 **Discussion**

325 Our results revealed a smaller audience in women professors' talks, suggesting a persistent  
326 lower visibility and recognition of women in an academic seminar. Although the affirmative  
327 actions successfully increased the representation of female speakers across all academic  
328 levels as expected, it did not produce a proportional increase in the recognition of women  
329 speakers (estimated through changes in audience size). The fact that female professors attract  
330 smaller audiences, even when presenting on similar topics and having comparable  
331 productivity to male professors, suggests that there may be underlying biases or cultural  
332 factors at play that we can partially attribute to the gender-science stereotype that is pervasive  
333 in the academic and non-academic communities.

334 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first decadal-scale study evaluating audience gender  
335 bias in a seminar series covering themes in Ecology, Evolution, and Conservation. Studies  
336 from different disciplines found contrasting results. For example, the audience size for female  
337 speakers was smaller in Philosophy (Carter et al., 2018), similar in Biology and Psychology  
338 (Carter et al., 2018), and higher in Economy (Dupas et al., 2021). However, unlike what we  
339 did, these studies did not investigate further reasons for the observed differences.

340 Nevertheless, our study complements what was found by many other studies on gender bias  
341 in seminar and conference talks (e.g., Davenport et al., 2014, Schmidt et al., 2017, Doleac et  
342 al., 2021), showing that the culture of seminars is not gender-neutral and the audience is not  
343 blind to gender (Dupas et al., 2021). Women speakers are usually treated differently,  
344 receiving more questions in general (Davenport et al., 2014, but see Schmidt et al., 2017) and  
345 even harsher and more patronizing questions (Dupas et al., 2021). It seems unlikely that the  
346 fact that female speakers attracted smaller audiences could reflect any explicit decision by  
347 seminar attendees to treat women differently. Instead, our results may indicate a systemic  
348 bias favoring male scientists (Reuben et al., 2014, Miller et al., 2015). In this regard, the  
349 male-scientist stereotype (Mead & Metraux, 1957; Miller et al., 2015), rooted in our male-  
350 dominated culture (Young et al., 2013) and especially stronger for college-educated people  
351 (Miller et al., 2015), provides the best hypothesis to explain the academic's willingness to  
352 attend a seminar based on the speaker's gender. Our study presents another layer of evidence  
353 of how gender-biased stereotypes still influence the visibility and recognition of women in  
354 science.

355 Seminars and talks are a way for academics to get feedback, disseminate their work, and  
356 expand their professional networks (Schmidt et al., 2017, Doleac et al., 2021). Similar to  
357 what happens in many other instances, the academic community's gender bias in attending  
358 talks given by women may decrease the visibility of research carried out by them, potentially  
359 impacting professional development and restricting the reach of the research. In the long run,  
360 smaller visibility and recognition of women in science perpetuates the gender productivity  
361 gap (Astegiano et al., 2019) if it does not force women to evaluate whether they have chosen  
362 the right career (Dupas et al., 2021). Therefore, it is utterly important to address the  
363 underlying cultural and systemic factors that may be contributing to the gender bias in  
364 academic speaking opportunities and audience attendance. Our results highlight the need for  
365 continued efforts to promote gender diversity and to challenge gender stereotypes at all levels  
366 of academia, while at the same time providing support and resources to women academics to  
367 succeed in their careers.

368 On the one hand, we found that the problem of gender bias in the audience of female speakers  
369 seems harder to address with the most common affirmative actions towards  
370 representativeness (Bird, 2011; Helitzer et al., 2017), in our case, those supporting and  
371 encouraging female speakers. On the other hand, we found that even simple changes in how  
372 committees motivate women to participate were successful in the short term. This highlights  
373 the importance of communities taking action to promote equal opportunities for women in  
374 science regardless of its forms (Bardoel et al., 2011; Bird, 2011). Moreover, we found no  
375 inherent gender bias in volunteered speakers within the academic community studied. The  
376 smaller proportion of women speakers followed the already biased gender ratio of the  
377 community across the academic levels, which is a well-known phenomenon in science (Shaw  
378 & Stanton, 2012; Dutch et al., 2012; Johson et al., 2017) . We argue that since female  
379 scientists provide positive role models for women (Young et al., 2013), attending seminars  
380 presented by a woman not only increases the scientist's visibility but may help reduce the  
381 implicit stereotype that science is masculine in the culture-at-large (Young et al., 2013).  
382 Although this positive feedback may seem hard and slow to achieve, it is crucial to increase  
383 awareness of the commonly ignored biases (Calaza et al., 2021). Addressing gender  
384 disparities in scientific events demands a more comprehensive and sustained approach.

385 Many different levels of affirmative actions to promote community engagement and to  
386 support inclusive, socially aware, and diverse sciences (Calaza et al., 2021, Diele-Viegas et



387 al., 2021) are necessary to speed up the time to achieve equity and ban the skewed societal  
388 tendency to perceive scientists as an elder white man (Mead & Metraux, 1957; Miller et al.,  
389 2015). For instance, our institute organized a webinar with experts in social research to  
390 explore stereotypes, visibility, and recognition in light of our findings. We invited our  
391 community to reflect on why we put more effort into attending certain talks and not others  
392 and to pay attention to whether there may be any unnoticed bias regarding the characteristics  
393 of the speaker in this decision. We, as academics, should be able to ask ourselves the  
394 following question: If the same seminar were given by a prestigious male professor, would I  
395 attend?

396 While our study provides valuable insights into gender bias in academic seminars, it has  
397 limitations, such as focusing on a specific seminar series at one institution, the indirect nature  
398 of the affirmative actions implemented, and its timeframe. Moreover, a two-year range (after  
399 affirmative actions) might be too short to assess any indirect effects of affirmative actions  
400 focusing on women's representation in the audience. Our findings, however, provide a  
401 starting point to ignite discussions and more studies. For example, future research expanding  
402 the scope to encompass a broader range of institutions and disciplines could shed light on  
403 whether the phenomenon of a smaller audience for female academics is widespread or  
404 specific to some disciplines in science. Exploring the intersectionality of gender with other  
405 factors such as race, ethnicity, and geographic origin is also necessary to address ways to  
406 improve diversity in academia (Schmidt et al., 2017, Diele-Viegas et al., 2021). Since our  
407 study is observational, we also encourage experimental approaches, such as Bertrand &  
408 Mullainathan (2004) for racial discrimination in the labor market and Moss-Racusin et al.  
409 (2012) for gender discrimination in academic science. Future experimental studies could, for  
410 instance, assess the willingness to attend talks depending on the features of the speaker. By  
411 addressing these gaps, academia can continue to work towards creating a more equitable and  
412 inclusive scientific community where all voices are valued and represented.

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## 429 **Data and code availability**

430 All the data used and the analysis code produced in this study is available in the Zenodo  
431 repository <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.11237445> (Leite, Barreto, 2024). Names were  
432 omitted from the available dataset to preserve the speakers' anonymity.

## 433 **Conflict of interest**

434 We declare no conflict of interest relating to the content of this article.

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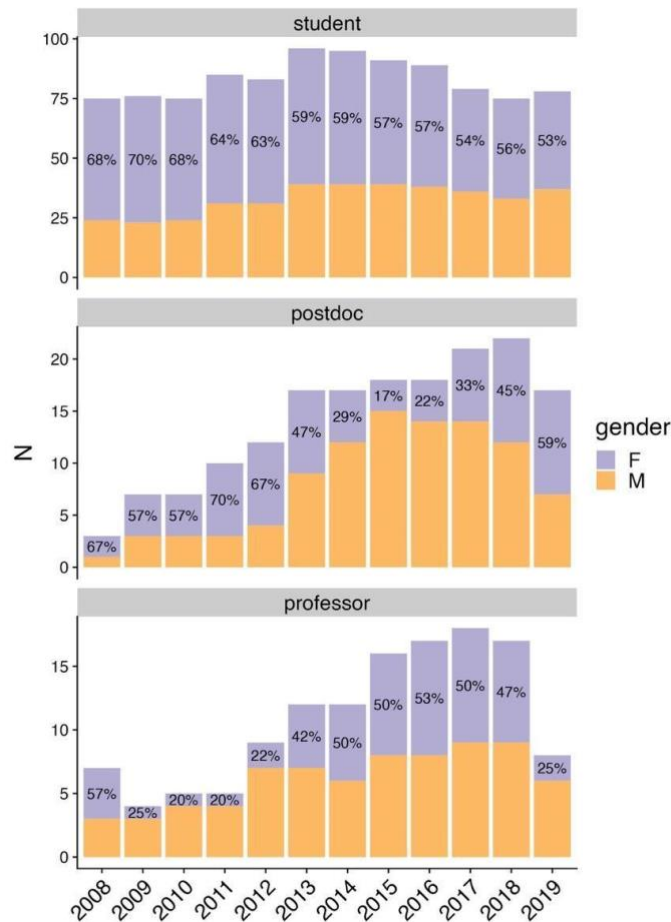
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## Supplementary material of Barreto et al. (2024)

### Is the audience gender-blind? Smaller attendance in female talks highlights imbalanced visibility in academia

#### The proportion of female speakers in the PPGE population

We collected information on the gender balance for each academic level in the Graduate Ecology Program during the same period of the seminar series (2008-2019). We used that information to calculate the population gender ratio for each academic level to represent the speakers' pool. Over the years, women represented, on average, 61% of the graduate students (master's and doctorate), 48% of the postdoctoral researchers, and 38% of the professors (Figure S1).



**Figure S1.** Gender balance per academic level and year for the Graduate Program of Ecology (PPGE-USP). This information was used to calculate the population gender ratio for each academic level and year as the source of speakers for the EcoEncontros seminar.

## Graduates Program's community subgroup analysis

**Table S1:** Model selection results for the proportion of female speakers with only speakers from the PPGE community according to the proportion of female academics, academic level, and affirmative actions. All models include year as random intercepts (not shown). The proportion of female academics was calculated for each academic level and year separately.

Models	AIC	dAIC	df	weight
a) Proportion of female speakers (N = 136)				
~ prop. female academics	186.43	0.00	3	0.33
~ academic level + prop. female academics	186.64	0.21	5	0.30
~ affirmative actions + prop. female academics	187.75	1.32	4	0.17
~ academic level + affirmative actions + prop. female academics	187.75	1.31	6	0.17
~ 1	192.24	5.82	2	0.02

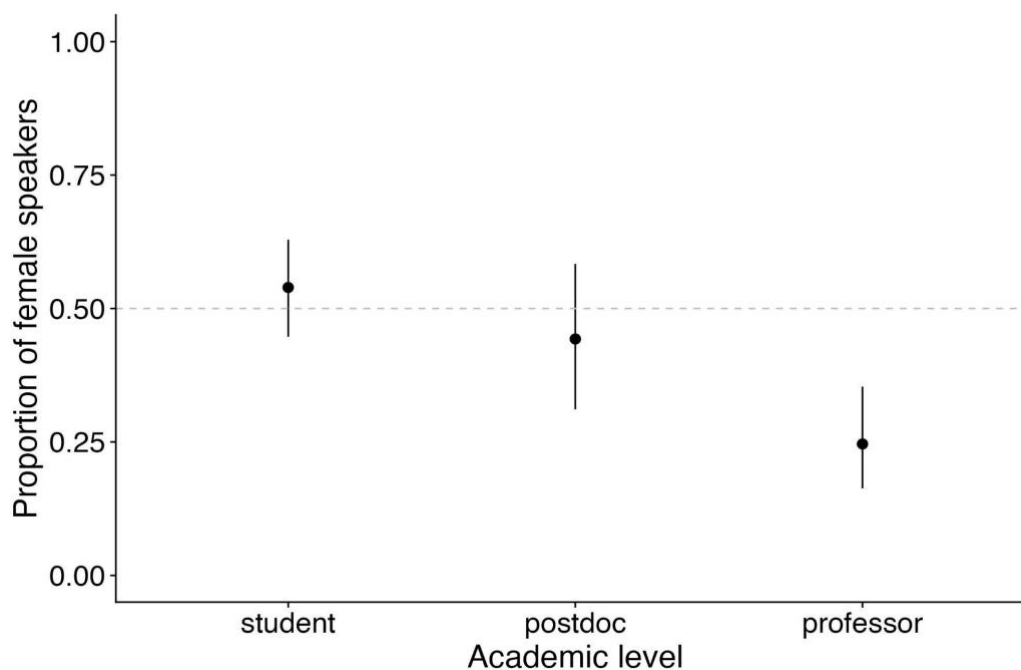
## Audience analysis: supplementary information

**Table S2.** Descriptive summary of the audience of talks by academic level and gender.

Academic level	Gender	N	Min	Mean	SD	Median	Max
Student	F	77	4	17.58	6.69	18.0	36
Student	M	70	6	19.83	8.20	19.0	44
Postdoc	F	23	5	19.52	10.34	18.0	50
Postdoc	M	32	5	18.97	8.78	18.0	43
Professor	F	24	4	21.54	9.78	21.0	40
Professor	M	72	5	29.51	16.46	26.5	101

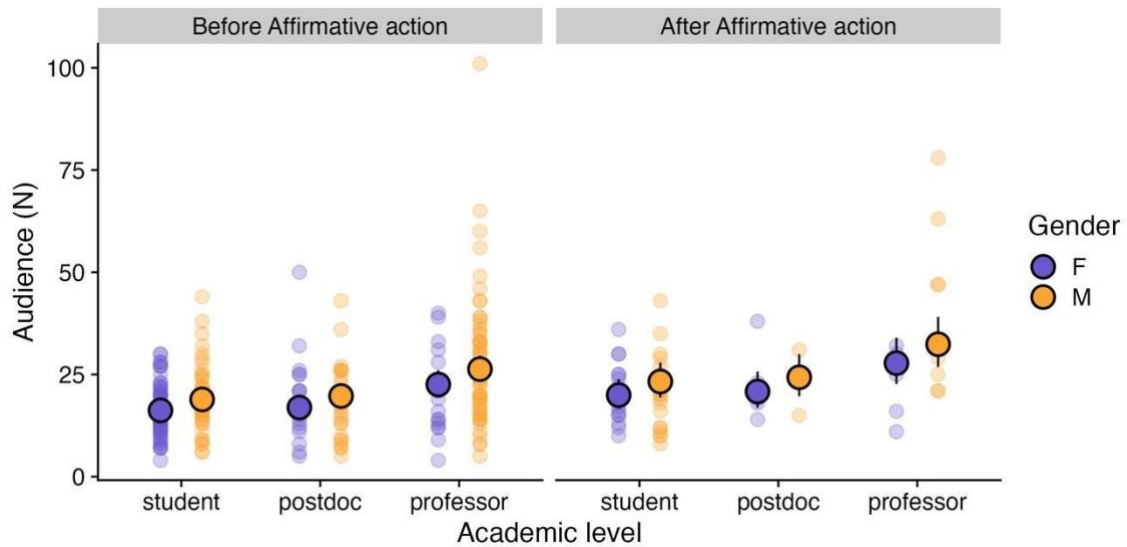
**Table S3.** Variables used to measure the professors' productivity, career length, and institution prestige rank. Variables codes are presented in the PCA results in Figure 3b.

Variable	Code	Description
Career length	career_Y	The number of years from the first cited publication until the year of the talk
i10-index	i10	The number of papers with at least ten citations
H-index, which counts;	h	The number for papers with at least the same number of citations
Total citations	tot_cit	Total number of citations
Cumulative number of citations	cit_cum	Cumulative number of citations until the year of the talk
citations of the most cited paper	most_cit	Number of citations of the most cited paper
Nature index Count	nature_count	A count of one is to an institution or country if one or more authors of the research article are from that institution or country, regardless of how many co-authors there are from outside that institution or country
Nature Index Share	nature_share	A fractional count considers the percentage of authors from that institution and the number of affiliated institutions per article

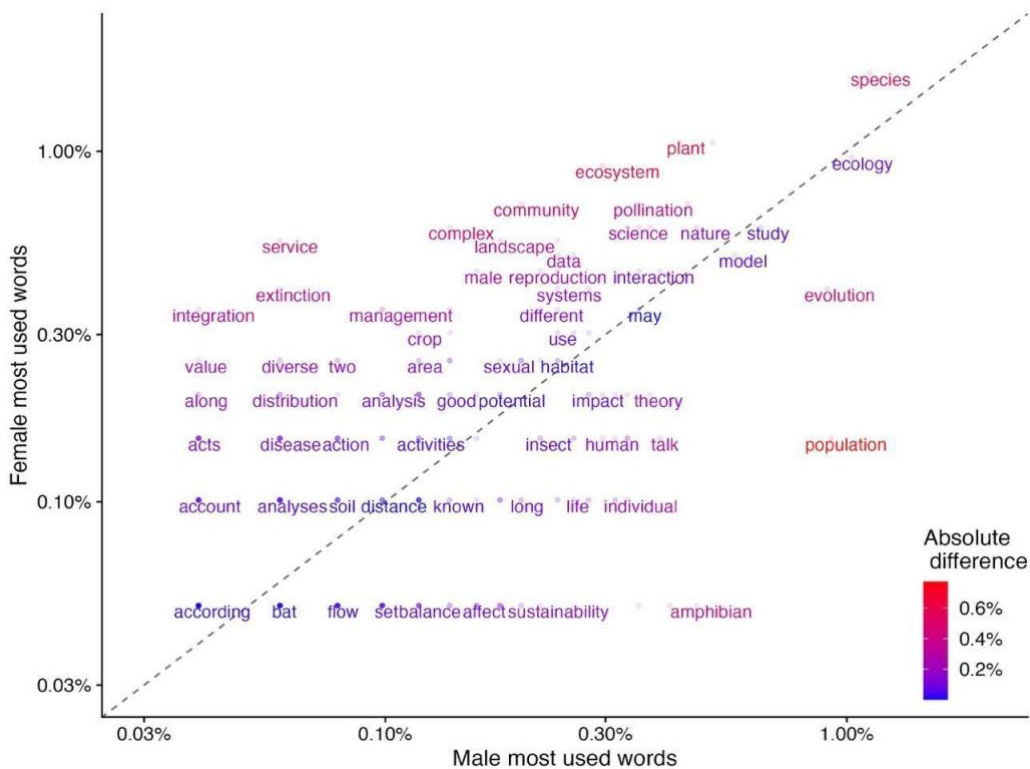


**Figure S2.** The proportion of female speakers per academic position of the second most plausible model (see Table 1a in the main text), which has academic position and the population gender ratio as predictors. The population gender ratio was fixed at 1 for the predictions.





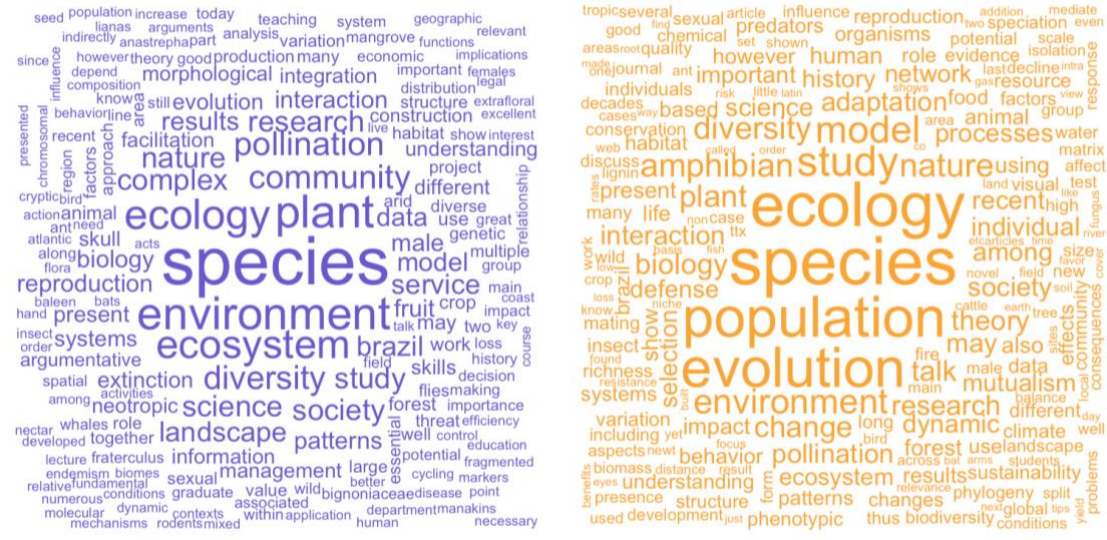
**Figure S3.** Audience (number of attendees) in seminars according to gender, academic position, and affirmative actions (before and after 2018) with the prediction (black contour circles) and confidence intervals (vertical black lines) from the second best-fitted model for the audience (Table 1b in the main text).



**Figure S4:** Frequency plot of the most used words in the titles and abstracts of the seminars given by female (y-axis) and male (x-axis) professor speakers. Both axes are at the logarithm 10 scale. The color scale indicates the absolute difference in the percentage of use between male and female speakers. Only the most common words are displayed, words with the exact same frequency were randomly assigned to display. Words that are close to the dashed line have similar frequencies in both sets of texts. The Pearson correlation between word frequencies was 0.87 for all talks (Figure 4, main text) and 0.66 for professors only (this figure).



**Figure S5.** Word clouds generated from the titles and abstracts of the seminars given by female (purple) and male (yellow) speakers for all talks. The size of each word represents its frequency in the text. The Pearson correlation between word frequencies was 0.87 for all speakers (p-value <0.001).



**Figure S6.** Word clouds generated from the titles and abstracts of the seminars given by female (purple) and male (yellow) professors only. The size of each word represents its frequency in the text. The Pearson correlation between word frequencies was 0.66 for professors only (p-value <0.001).