Academic Recognition and Inequality: Mapping the Underrepresentation and Diversity of Global South Scholars

Poonam Singh, M.A., M.Ed.

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

School of Business

Maynooth University

Maynooth, Co. Kildare

November 2025

Head of School: Prof. Joseph Coughlan

Supervisors: Prof. Peter McNamara & Dr. Olga Ryazanova

Declaration

I, Poonam Singh, as the author of this thesis, hereby declare that, except where duly acknowledged, this thesis is entirely my own work and has not been submitted for any degree or qualification in any other university or country.

Signed: ------ Date: 7th January 2026

Doctoral Candidate: Poonam Singh

We hereby certify that all the unreferenced work described in this thesis and submitted for the award of Doctor of Philosophy, is entirely the work of Poonam Singh. No portion of the work contained in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification to this or any other institution.

Signed: ---------- Date: 7th January 2026

Supervisor: Prof. Peter McNamara

Signed: ---------- Date: 7th January 2026

Supervisor: Dr. Olga Ryazanova

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I extend my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Professor Peter McNamara for accepting me as his Ph.D. student and putting me on the path of academic research. His guidance and encouragement have been instrumental in shaping my scholarly journey.

I am profoundly thankful to my Ph.D. co supervisor Dr. Olga Ryazanova for her extraordinary mentorship. Her meticulous engagement with my work—reading every word, comma, and full stop—has been invaluable. Her high standards and pursuit of perfection have significantly enhanced my academic writing and thinking. Her dedication to her students is truly remarkable, and I feel incredibly fortunate to have learned under her guidance.

I also wish to express my appreciation to my doctoral panel—Professor John Cullen, Dr. Emmanuel Kypraios, and Dr. Gillian Moran—for their constructive feedback, critical discussions, and continuous support throughout this journey.

A special note of thanks goes to my husband, Sanjay, for his support and patience throughout this process. The way you took responsibility for domestic chores over the past one year is truly commendable. I am very grateful for this. I owe immense gratitude to my children, Yuvraj and Chitra, who have shown incredible resilience and understanding. The past year has demanded many sacrifices from them, yet they managed their lives with remarkable maturity and patience.

I am grateful to my parents, Sri Satya deo Singh and Smt. Rajkumari Singh, who provided emotional support during moments of doubt and anxiety. Their belief in me gave me the confidence to persist, even when the journey felt overwhelming.

To my brother, Vivek, your support has gone far beyond teaching me the features of Excel and introducing me to Namesor. You have always been there for me whenever I faced technical challenges. To my sister, Seema, I am forever thankful for the encouragement you gave me when I was uncertain about starting my Ph.D. Your support gave me the confidence to embark on this path.

I also extend my thanks to my Ph.D. colleague, Adam Keeley. His insights helped me navigate the academic culture of the Global North, and his willingness to share his experiences made the process much less daunting. As we shared the same supervisors, his guidance in understanding their expectations was immensely helpful.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge all my colleagues, friends, and the broader academic community who have supported and inspired me along the way. This journey has been challenging, but it has been made worthwhile by the incredible people who have stood beside me.

Thank you all.

Table of Contents

List of Abbreviations

AIB – Academy of International Business

AOM – Academy of Management

Classical GSS – Classical Global South Scholars

CRT – Critical Race Theory

DEI – Diversity, Equity and Inclusion

EGOS – European Group for Organizational Studies

Emigrant GSS – Emigrant Global South Scholars

ENT – Entrepreneurship

EURAM – European Academy of Management

GNS – Global North Scholars

GSS – Global South Scholars

Immigrant GSS – Immigrant Global South Scholars

OB – Organizational Behavior

OMT – Organization and Management Theory

RRI – Relative Rate Index

SMS – Strategic Management Society

STR – Strategic Management

Transnational GSS – Transnational Global South Scholars

UNFCSSC – United Nations' Finance Center for South-South Cooperation

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Appendices

Summary

Awards given by academic societies serve as external markers of scholarly recognition, shaping reputations and career trajectories. While the Global South Scholars (GSS)' rates of participation at major conferences have grown, these scholars remain significantly underrepresented among academic award recipients. The thesis investigates the extent and causes of this underrepresentation. As part of this investigation, it addresses conceptual ambiguities in defining GSS.

The thesis adopts a mixed-methods approach. A quantitative study of 20,265 scholars who participated in the Academy of Management (AOM) conference reveals that GSS receive awards at a 33% lower rate than their Global North counterparts, with disparities varying across the divisions of the AOM. I explore the root causes of this gap through qualitative interviews with 16 academic award gatekeepers. I identify two key dimensions influencing award outcomes: 1) demand-side barriers, including implicit biases favoring Global North scholars (GNS), institutional prestige signaling, and research paradigm dominance; and 2) supply-side barriers, such as financial constraints, limited networking access, and lack of award winner mentorship opportunities. I follow up by introducing a novel typology of GSS, based on the country of origin, Ph.D. granting institution, and employment affiliation. A further quantitative investigation based on this typology indicates that scholars employed in the Global South face the highest levels of underrepresentation, even when affiliated with prestigious institutions. The thesis highlights the asymmetrical impact of institutional prestige and geographical identity on award recognition.

This research advances status bias theory, demonstrating how geographical hierarchies influence academic recognition. It also highlights the problems with the perception of meritocracy in the

context of academic society awards, revealing structural biases that favor GNS. Finally, it brings conceptual clarity to the definition of GSS and demonstrates how underrepresentation can vary significantly between different types of GSS.

Chapter 1

This thesis focuses on the intersection of two phenomena – award-giving by academic societies and representation of GSS in academia. In academic landscape, awards function as reputational currency for scholars (Frey, 2007; Gallus & Frey, 2017; Hamermesh & Pfann, 2012; Whitmeyer, 2000). Academic society awards, unlike awards given by academic employers, are considered to be external awards, because they are being conferred by organizations independent of the scholar's primary workplace. Since the award comes from the external third party, it is perceived to be more credible than those granted internally (Desai, 2018).

Underrepresentation is a complex and multidimensional construct that spans multiple disciplines. In the humanities, underrepresentation is defined as the systematic absence or insufficient presence of members of distinct social groups in a sub-population, relative to their proportion in the overall population (Encyclopedia, 2024). Carvalho and Pradelski (2024) conceptualize underrepresentation as a form of participation tax on marginalized groups. Participation tax refers to the extra costs or barriers that underrepresented groups face when participating in certain activities or domains, such as academia or other professional fields (Oyserman & Destin, 2010). The thesis seeks to examine the extent and causes of underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients. In this process, the study also addresses the conceptual ambiguity surrounding the construct of the "Global South Scholar" by systematically developing a typology that provides conceptual clarity and theoretical precision. It then compares the underrepresentation for two cases: 1) when the identity of GSS is considered as a binary construct based on institution of current affiliation, and 2) when this identity is considered through a multidimensional lens.

Furthermore, it investigates the underlying causes of their underrepresentation, particularly among the Best Paper award recipients.

The persistent pattern of GSS being underrepresented is seen across various academic domains, including publications (Collyer, 2018; Contreras & Dornberger, 2022; Montal et al., 2022), research funding (Campbell & Neff, 2020; Quiroga-Garza et al., 2022), editorial roles (Breetzke, 2025; Maas et al., 2021; Xue & Xu, 2024) and citations (Confraria et al., 2017). It is unclear whether a similar trend exists within the specific context of academic awards, because there is a paucity of empirical evidence on GSS' representation among award winners. This particular context is distinct from all other domains. Typically, GSS are underrepresented because it is claimed that they do not meet the minimum threshold of excellence – for example, their manuscripts are not good enough to be published in top international journals. Conversely, in the context of conference awards, it is known that all accepted papers have met a minimum threshold of excellence. If, despite this, GSS continues to be underrepresented in receiving prestigious academic awards, it becomes imperative to investigate the underlying reasons. The distinctiveness of this context lies in the fact that, unlike other areas where disparities in participation can be attributed to varying levels of achievement, here, the scholars have already proven their academic competence. Thus, the focus shifts to understanding the structural and systematic barriers that may prevent equitable recognition. By drawing on status bias theory (Ridgeway, 2014), this thesis seeks to establish rigorous evidence base and explore the deeper causes of this disparity. Specifically, it aims to answer a central question: ***Why are GSS, who have already demonstrated threshold academic excellence, consistently underrepresented among recipients of external academic awards?*** Understanding the dynamics between structural and systematic barriers can reveal important insights into the broader inequalities that persist in academia.

This thesis is grounded in status bias theory, which provides a lens to analyze the stratification of scholars within the global academic landscape. Status bias refers to the systematic tendency to evaluate individuals or groups based not only on their actual performance or actions but also on their perceived status, which is shaped by socially constructed hierarchies or prior achievements (Ridgeway, 2014). It perpetuates inequality by conflating actual performance with status-based expectations, privileging those in high-status positions while disadvantaging lower-status individuals (Biegert et al., 2023; Ferguson et al., 2020; Kim & King, 2014; Lawson, 2023; Melamed et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2024; Zhang & Chen, 2025). Drawing on foundational works in status bias theory (Berger et al., 1972; Berger & Webster, 2006; Ridgeway & Corell, 2006), I conduct a nuanced exploration of how categorical status, influenced by scholars' geographical origins, Ph.D. granting institution, and employment affiliation, shapes these scholars' recognition within the context of academic awards. The thesis is composed of three interrelated empirical chapters, each contributing to the overarching inquiry*: To what extent, why, and which types of GSS are underrepresented among the recipients of academic awards?*

The first chapter generates quantitative evidence of a significant disparity in representation between GSS and GNS. The second chapter explores the causes that contribute to this underrepresentation, including the organizational contexts, resource limitations, and status-related perceptions embedded within academic institutions and award selection processes. The third chapter develops a conceptual typology of GSS, recognizing the diversity within this group, and demonstrates that different subgroups have varying levels of underrepresentation. Together these chapters offer a nuanced analysis of the barriers that GSS face in transitioning from "threshold excellence" to "zero-sum excellence" (Young, 2015) in the context of academic awards. The final

chapter synthesizes the findings, offering theoretical and practical implications for addressing the underrepresentation in academic award giving and promoting more inclusive evaluation systems.

More specifically, the first empirical chapter (Chapter 2 of the thesis) examines the hypothesis that GSS are underrepresented among academic award recipients compared to their Global North counterparts. This study draws its sample from the AOM conference, intentionally focusing on its four largest divisions: Strategic Management (STR), Organizational Behavior (OB), Entrepreneurship (ENT), and the Organization and Management Theory (OMT). Collectively, these divisions account for 42.83% of the total AOM population (data as of 2022). Data on participants and Best Paper award winners in these five divisions has been collected across five years (2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2022), resulting in the sample size of 20,265 individual scholars. The data was analysed using Relative Rate Index (RRI), which is a methodology used in government policymaking (e.g., Colorado Division of Criminal Justice, 2009; Missouri Juvenile Justice Association, 2012; Ministry of Justice, UK Government, 2020). The findings reveal a significant underrepresentation of GSS across all divisions. Overall, GSS experience a 33% lower award rate than their peers from Global North. This chapter offers a key contribution to the underrepresentation literature (Askarzadeh et al., 2025; Carvalho & Pradelski, 2022; Carvalho & Pradelski, 2024; Hunt et al., 2013; Gooty et al., 2023) by providing empirical evidence of underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients. It advances our understanding of geographical disparities in academic society awards. It extends status bias theory (Kim & King, 2014; Ridgeway, 2014) by demonstrating that geographical location influence not only the achievement of threshold excellence, such as paper acceptance, but also zero-sum excellence, such as award recognition. The research introduces a novel application of status bias theory, revealing how status bias permeates multiple stages of academic recognition. From a methodological

perspective, this study advances management literature by introducing the RRI as a novel tool for assessing underrepresentation. Traditionally, the percentage method has been the dominant approach for measuring underrepresentation in business research. The introduction of RRI, which is an established methodology in fields such as Criminal Justice, not only provides a more nuanced metric but also exemplifies the value of interdisciplinary research by integrating approaches from diverse fields.

The main objective of the second empirical chapter (Chapter 3 of the thesis) is to investigate the underlying causes of the underrepresentation of GSS among recipients of academic society awards. I adopted a qualitative research approach, conducting in-depth interviews with 16 academic award gatekeepers. This cohort was purposefully selected to encompass a diverse geographical representation, including gatekeepers from both the Global South and Global North. The data were systematically analyzed using the Gioia methodology (Gioia et al., 2013), ensuring a rigorous and structured approach to the interpretation of emergent themes and patterns. This chapter develops a conceptual model that outlines the causes of underrepresentation within the context of academic awards.

The novelty of this research lies in its integration of both demand-side and supply-side perspectives of underrepresentation. The demand-side perspective of underrepresentation emphasizes the biases, preferences, and decision-making processes of selectors, whether in the context of candidate recruitment or employee advancement (Krook, 2010). Central elements influencing this perspective include discrimination, organizational culture, institutional policies, availability of human and social capital and stereotypes (Norris et al., 1992). Conversely, the supply-side perspective focuses on the factors influencing the participation and aspirations of underrepresented groups in specific roles (Campbell & Cowley, 2014). Two key factors shape the supply side of

underrepresentation. Firstly, underrepresented groups usually have lower access to resources, such as time, money, experience, and social capital (Norris & Lovenduski, 1993). Secondly, these groups might have different motivations and interests (Norris & Lovenduski, 1993). This chapter extends literature on meritocracy by addressing its paradoxical relationship with diversity, challenging the assumption that merit-based systems are inherently fair. It also contributes to the discourse on the dominance of Global North in knowledge production by identifying and categorizing five core academic gatekeeping practices—derived from interviews with academic gatekeepers—and linking these practices to the underrepresentation of GSS. This research also advances the field's understanding of the interaction between micro- and macro-level processes in management research, offering a framework that explains how macro-level diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) policies influence individual scholars (top-down processes) and how these scholars, in turn, impact academic societies (bottom-up processes). While awards are often viewed as positive acknowledgments (English, 2014), this study reveals their selective and exclusive nature, which privileges some while marginalizing others (Lamont, 2009).

The third empirical chapter (Chapter 4 of this thesis) addresses the ambiguity surrounding the construct of "GSS", which has emerged from my qualitative exploration in Chapter 3. Drawing on ascribed status theory (Linton, 1936; Prato et al., 2019; Prato et al., 2024; Thomas-Hunt & Phillips, 2011), I argue that a scholar's country of origin should be the primary criterion for distinguishing GSS from their Global North counterparts (Badejo et al., 2023; Chagas-Bastos, 2023). I consider the geographical location of the scholar's Ph.D.-granting institution and employment affiliation as secondary factors, which further categorize GSS into distinct subgroups. Based on the intersection of these two secondary dimensions — Ph.D. institution and employment location — the chapter proposes a classification of GSS into four distinct types and empirically tests their comparative

underrepresentation among academic award winners. This chapter advances the conceptual understanding of GSS construct by offering a systematic typology that clarifies the often fluid and ambiguous nature of this definition. By deconstructing and synthesizing various conceptual elements, the chapter provides a more precise and comprehensive framework, identifying the dimensions that distinguish the different subgroups of GSS. This effort addresses a critical gap in literature by creating a structured framework that not only organizes complex relationships but also reveals the distinct effects these subgroups have on representation in zero-sum academic excellence contexts.

The first theoretical contribution of this chapter lies in the development of four unique types of GSS, each defined by specific dimensions of Ph.D. affiliation, employment affiliation, and country of origin. This classification system goes beyond simple categorization and articulates the impact of Ph.D. training and employment affiliation on the probability of receiving awards by facilitating testable hypotheses about GSS' varying degrees of representation among academic award recipients. As Doty and Glick (1994) argue, typologies are more than mere organizational tools; they provide frameworks that support the development of causal explanations. The study contributes to status inconsistency theory by showing that inconsistent status scholars (Immigrant and Emigrant GSS) are better represented than Classical GSS. It challenges the assumption that status inconsistency is always a disadvantage (Sessions et al., 2022; Han & Pollock, 2021). The study finds that status inconsistency is asymmetrical. Emigrant GSS benefit from Global North employment, but Immigrant GSS do not gain similar advantages. This highlights a structural bias favoring current employment over past institutional pedigree. The findings challenge meritocracy theory. Scholars with Global North employment affiliations receive more recognition than those with Global South employment. This remains true even when controlling for Ph.D. granting

institutions. The study reveals that employment affiliation serves as an implicit status signal. This contradicts the ideal of meritocratic fairness in academic awards.

The findings of this thesis have several policy implications for academic institutions, scholarly organizations, and funding agencies. The persistent underrepresentation of GSS in academic awards necessitates a fundamental reassessment of selection processes to mitigate systemic biases. Diversifying award committees and expanding excellence criteria would ensure more equitable recognition of scholarly contributions from underrepresented regions. Academic societies must implement targeted initiatives, such as mentorship programs, travel grants, and collaborative research funding, to enhance the visibility and competitiveness of GSS.

Structural barriers, including financial constraints and limited access to global networks, further hinder the recognition of GSS. Universities and funding bodies should prioritize equitable access to research grants, fellowships, and capacity-building programs in academic publishing, grant writing, and leadership development. Strengthening regional publication networks and establishing high-impact journals within the Global South would counter Global North hegemony and foster a more inclusive academic landscape.

Global North norms play a decisive role in academic recognition, often at the expense of meritocratic ideals. Universities should promote transnational mentorship programs and cross-institutional collaborations to facilitate knowledge exchange without necessitating permanent migration. Funding agencies must increase targeted support for research conducted within Global South institutions to reduce dependency on Global North affiliations and enhance local academic infrastructure.

Finally, indexing bodies such as Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar must recalibrate their algorithms to improve the visibility of research from diverse institutional backgrounds. Given that academic recognition and citation impact are closely tied to algorithmic discoverability, the current indexing systems disproportionately favor research affiliated with high-status institutions, often located in the Global North. These reforms are essential for dismantling systemic and structural barriers. This would foster a truly inclusive, globally representative academic community.

Chapter 2

2.1 Introduction

Extant research consistently highlights persistent geographical disparity in academia, with GSS being markedly underrepresented across numerous academic domains. Scholars from the Global South consistently demonstrate lower publication outputs across all academic disciplines compared to their counterparts from the Global North (Collyer, 2018; Contreras & Dornberger, 2022; Montal et al., 2022). These scholars also face considerable barriers in securing research funding, resulting in fewer grants awarded to them (Campbell & Neff, 2020; Quiroga-Garza et al., 2022). Moreover, their representation on editorial boards is disproportionately low, reflecting a broader exclusion from decision-making positions in the academic publishing ecosystem (Burgess et al., 2017; Maas et al., 2021; Xue & Xu, 2024). The cumulative effect of these challenges is further compounded by the fact that the work of GSS receives fewer citations, thereby limiting their academic impact and visibility relative to scholars from the Global North (Confraria et al., 2017).

However, there is a lack of research which has systematically explored the underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients. The exploration of underrepresentation among academic awards is important because differences in representation give rise to identity-related behavioral heuristics (Carvalho and Pradelski, 2024). Identity related heuristics lead to unconscious biases of gatekeepers as they assume that high-quality performance is less likely to come from underrepresented groups (Hardy III et al., 2022; Martell et al., 2012).

Academic awards identify and confirm distinctive research, advance scientific discoveries, and confer credibility to scholars, ideas, and disciplines (Jin et al., 2021; Ma & Uzzi, 2018). Among the various forms of academic recognition, including citations, peer-reviewed publications,

editorial roles, and keynote addresses, academic awards are widely regarded as the highest form of academic acknowledgement (Frey & Neckermann, 2009). In contrast to citations, which come from regular scholars (and sometimes reflect a negative assessment of someone's contribution), awards are bestowed by esteemed organizations following competitive selection processes. This clear positive acknowledgment from esteemed organizations sets awards apart and makes them more influential. It has been argued that receiving a major award is a better signal of research quality and contribution to society than the count of citations (Seglen, 1992) and hence provides much greater visibility within the scientific community and beyond. In short, awards serve as important, easily understood signals of academic and research excellence (Gallus & Frey, 2017). However, not all awards carry equal weight or influence. For instance, a "Best Paper Award" at a conference such as the AOM, while prestigious within its domain, operates within a narrower disciplinary scope. In contrast, awards like the Nobel Prize transcend disciplinary boundaries, enjoying global visibility and unparalleled prestige. This disparity underscores the varying degrees of institutional authority, symbolic capital, and societal impact associated with different awards.

Academic awards can be regarded as reputational currencies premised on meritocratic norms (Gallus, 2017). Meritocracy refers to a view of procedural justice according to which certain scarce economic goods, such as jobs, income, or wealth, ought to be distributed according to merit (Napoletano, 2024). Meritocracy requires that research excellence should be distributed solely in accordance with individual merit, whereas merit is construed as ability and effort (Young, 1958). There is no reason to assume that ability and effort are disproportionally overrepresented in any given region. Therefore, according to meritocratic principles, academic awards should be distributed broadly in line with academic populations. In other words, if meritocracy indeed exists in academia, there should be no underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients, as

these awards are grounded in academic competence, which can arise from any region, whether Global South or Global North.

Increasing the representation of GSS among academic award recipients is important for several reasons. It promotes the production of scholarly work that incorporates diverse research paradigms and methodologies. Such diversity is essential for advancing knowledge, as it expands the scope of academic inquiry and strengthens theoretical and methodological approaches (De Vaan et al., 2015; Page, 2019; Tung, 2006). Furthermore, greater inclusivity fosters innovation, driving knowledge creation into new areas and enhancing our understanding of both the natural and social world (Hofstra et al., 2020).

In addition to this broad benefit of increased representation, the question of the geographic distribution of academic awards holds legitimate value for at least two reasons. Firstly, it is important to explore whether this distribution is raising any social and ethical issues as the concentration of award recipients in one region can perpetuate academic inequalities. Secondly, unequal distribution of awards can contribute to a sense of unfairness or injustice, particularly among those who are overlooked or disadvantaged in the award-giving process. This can undermine the legitimacy of the awards themselves and erode trust in the institutions and organizations responsible for giving them out.

The main objective of this chapter is to conduct an empirical investigation to determine whether GSS are underrepresented among recipients of academic awards. This study fills a gap in the literature on inequality in academia, which has historically centered on gender-based disparities in academic awards (Botelho, 2022; Klein et al., 2021; Morgan et al.,2017; Van Miegroet & Glass, 2020), by shifting the focus to geographical inequality. This work contributes to the status bias theory (Ridgeway, 2014) by expanding its boundaries. Specifically, the findings of this study

indicate that status bias operates not only in reaching threshold excellence but also throughout the progression from threshold excellence to zero-sum excellence. This demonstrates that status plays a pivotal role in shaping hierarchical structures at all levels, influencing not just first-order outcomes but extending its effects to second-order dynamics as well.

2.2 Theoretical background

Status is an ancient form of inequality and is apparently universal in human societies (van Vugt & Tybur, 2016). Status emerges from the deep sociality of humans, the way they look to others for their sense of worth and depend on them for what they want and need in life (Anderson et al., 2015). Status bias theory (Ridgeway, 2014) highlights that social hierarchies, shaped by status, have long been a fundamental source of inequality across human societies. These status distinctions often align with socially constructed categories like race, gender, and class, with dominant groups (e.g., men, Whites, the middle class) being assigned higher status and perceived competent in domains deemed important by society (Fiske et al., 2002; Ridgeway et al., 2009).

Classical theorists have identified status in two most general categories on which actors are ranked by their main audience: ascribed and achieved status. Linton (1936: 115), who coined the two terms, defined “ascribed status” as being “assigned to individuals without reference to their innate differences or abilities” and “achieved status” as “requiring special qualities” and “open to individual achievement.” Thus, ascribed status is typically characterized as an “indelible” (Galtung, 1964, p. 101) or “irreversible” (Schnore, 1961, p. 412) dimension that is defined by an “accident of birth” (Foladare, 1969, p. 53). Achieved status is, conversely, a “delible”, or “reversible” dimension that allows for social mobility by means of “performance or effort or volition” (Foladare, 1969, p. 53).

Berger et al. (1975) theorized that a person's high or low status influences others' expectations about his or her abilities translating into perceived potential for success. This tendency to rely on status cues aligns with the concept known as the “Matthew Effect” (Merton, 1968; also discussed in Bothner et al., 2011), which posits that individuals who are already successful are more likely to further their success, while those who are less successful are prone to further setbacks. Accordingly, research indicates that people attain status when they are perceived as making valuable contributions to a group, and these conferred statuses subsequently shape expectations regarding the potential value of their future contributions (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Willer, 2009).

Research in sociology and management has shown that the different stereotypes about worthiness and competence become salient in different settings (Berger & Webster, 2006), including stereotypical evaluations based on country or geographical region of origin. For example, research has suggested that Hispanic Americans (Nadler & Clark, 2011) and African Americans (Steele & Aronson, 1995) experience negative stereotypes in academic contexts, whereas Asian immigrants enjoy positive ones (Shih et al., 1999). Research also shows that African Americans experience positive stereotypes in rap music and basketball but are negatively evaluated in the Senate and corporate America, whereas Mexicans enjoy a positive stereotype in relation to Tejano music (Inman, Huerta, & Oh, 1998).

Despite claims of geographical neutrality, there is extensive empirical evidence highlighting the prevailing geographical hierarchies in academia, which often operate under the guise of meritocracy. A significant example of this is the core-periphery model, where institutions in the Global North serve as central nodes of knowledge production and dissemination (Glänzel et al 2008; Ohmae, 1985; Wallerstein, 2010). These institutions dictate academic norms, which function as unwritten rules that shape what is considered valid, rigorous, and worthy of recognition

(Mignolo, 2014; Go, 2020). Within this framework, the Global North is often seen as the source of advanced theoretical innovation (Connell, 2017), while theories from outside Europe and the United States are frequently dismissed as ethno-theories (Alvares, 2011; Boatca, 2021; Grosfoguel, 2013). This systemic bias relegates the Global South to the periphery, limiting its role to data collection and the application of Northern theories (Bai, 2018).

Geographical hierarchies are evident in academic mobility and talent migration patterns. Stahl et al. (2024) note that professionals from emerging economies face considerable obstacles when pursuing global careers, navigating complex "push-pull" dynamics between their home countries and Western institutions. Similarly, Burford's (2021) study on Thailand revealed that scholars from the Global North often view relocation to the Global South as a career setback, further reinforcing these hierarchies.

Academic publishing and citation practices also reflect geographical hierarchy. Scientists may select citations based on the location and status of the cited author rather than the merit of the work itself, using the prestige of eminent authors to strengthen their arguments (Baldi, 1998; Gilbert, 1997). This practice favors a minority of highly visible, high-status authors, while marginalizing lower-status scholars, particularly those from the Global South (Confraria, 2017; Skopec et al., 2020). The level of an author's eminence often correlates with their geographical location, and prestige diminishes with distance, which reflects a clear geographical bias in citation flows (Pan et al., 2018; Sverdlichenko et al., 2022).

Global research collaboration patterns further illustrate geographical hierarchy. While academic interconnectedness has grown, North America (the USA and Canada), Western Europe, Australia, New Zealand and, in the past 30 years, Japan and Hong Kong dominate international research networks, leaving other regions on the periphery (Gewin, 2023). Nagendra et al. (2018) highlight

this imbalance, revealing that Global South authors contribute an average of only 3% to papers led by Global North authors (excluding first authors with dual affiliations), whereas Global North authors account for a significantly larger 15% share in papers led by Global South authors. Furthermore, researchers from the Global South are frequently confined to roles such as data collection and fieldwork, with their Global North counterparts assuming leadership in project design, data analysis, and publication processes (Liverpool, 2021). This asymmetry reflects deeply rooted inequities in global academic collaboration and knowledge production.

These hierarchies are also evident in the underrepresentation of GSS on editorial boards, where researchers from the Global North dominate, leveraging their cultural and social capital (Akça & Şenyurt, 2023; Harzing & Metz, 2013; Hedding & Breetzke, 2021). This reinforces stratification within academic communities (Paasi, 2005).

In the present study, exploration of underrepresentation is situated in the context of awards given by academic societies. Academic societies are conceptualized as those organizations that exist to promote an academic discipline or profession or a group of related disciplines such as arts or science (Wise & Castella, 2014). Most learned societies are non-profit organizations (Brown, 2015). Their activities typically include holding regular conferences for the presentation and discussion of new research results, and publishing or sponsoring academic journals in their discipline (Environmental Studies Association of Canada, 2014, Taskin et al., 2024). The societies may fill voids such as knowledge dissemination, fostering community and belongingness, providing professional network opportunities that exist outside the scope of operations of universities and other research organizations (Korkeamäki et al., 2019). Academic societies' awards can be conceptualized as third-party awards because society acts as an external entity that is not directly involved in the recipient's primary workplace. The academic society evaluates the

contributions from an independent perspective, presumably offering a neutral and unbiased acknowledgment.

Academic awards bestowed in the conferences can play a crucial role in advancing scholars' careers. Academic awards serve as a form of validation, signifying that the recipient's work is respected and valued within their field (Gallus & Frey, 2017, Moser & Nicholas. 2013). This external recognition often increases a scholar's visibility (Harrison & Jepsen, 2015), and leads to more collaboration opportunities (Liao et al., 2023). Attending conferences allows researchers to interact with peers and leading experts in their field. Winning an award at such an event further expands a scholar's professional network opportunities (Ma & Uzzi, 2018) as awardees are often sought after for collaborations and mentorships.

This chapter specifically looks at Best Paper Awards which are given in conferences organized by academic societies. The purpose of this award is to identify zero-sum excellence. Zero sum excellence relies on the assumption that excellence is a limited resource allocated by relative and competitive means (Young, 2015). This is based on the logic of a ranking system, which is also how most of the awards bestowal process work: evaluation of proposals leads to a ranked list, for which a cut-off point is chosen. There is also a second type of excellence, which is called threshold excellence (Young, 2015). It is based on the assumption that excellence is unlimited and is defined by its inherent quality rather than its relative position among its competitors. Acceptance of a paper to a conference is based on threshold excellence.

My study is situated in the context of academic society awards which is in the category of zero-sum excellence. In the context of threshold excellence, status bias theory posits that GSS are frequently perceived as less competent. Existing literature provides empirical support for this theoretical assumption, highlighting GSS' systemic underrepresentation across various academic

domains. In line with this theoretical logic, I argue that the pattern of underrepresentation will also persist within the context of academic society awards, or, more broadly, in the context of competitions based on zero-sum excellence.

While prior research largely examined underrepresentation within a threshold excellence framework, my investigation advances existing literature by focusing on zero-sum excellence. The sample for this study consists of scholars who have already demonstrated threshold excellence, as evidenced by the acceptance of their papers for prestigious conference presentations. This pre-selection provides an empirical indication of their research capabilities. The research thus seeks to explore whether the established pattern of underrepresentation persists as scholars transition from threshold to zero-sum excellence. Given the inherent biases and structural inequalities in academic evaluation processes, I hypothesize that

H1: GSS will be less represented in comparison of their Global North counterparts in the distribution of academic society awards.

2.3 Methods

I adopted a quantitative approach for this study. The initial phase involved the operationalization of the primary constructs of the study. Following this, I determined the appropriate population and sample for data collection. I utilized the RRI method to analyze the data.

2.3.1 Operational definition

Global South: I operationalized Global South as those countries which are recognized by the United Nations' Finance Center for South-South Cooperation (UNFCSSC). This term refers to a group of 78 countries, commonly known as the "Group of 77 and China," considered the most

authoritative list of Global South nations as of early 2022. In 2024, 135 countries are listed as Global South Countries. I chose this classification for four interrelated reasons.

First, it originates from the Global South itself, shaped through landmark events such as the Bandung Conference (1955), the founding of the Non-Aligned Movement (1950), and the formation of the Group of 77 (G77) at the United Nations. Unlike externally imposed categorizations based on economic or geopolitical criteria, this definition reflects an organic, collective self-articulation. It affirms the agency of Global South actors in defining their own status. Agency is an essential consideration when studying systemic exclusion (Marques-Pereira & Siim, 2002; Ozkazanc-Pan, 2019) from academic recognition, which is often shaped by institutions rooted in Global North norms and power structures.

Second, while the countries included in the UNFCSSC list vary in income levels and institutional development, they share long-standing structural disadvantages in the global knowledge economy. These include histories of colonialism, resource extraction, geopolitical marginalization and imperialism. As Sud and Sánchez-Ancochea (2022) argue, the Global South should be viewed as a territorial, relational, structural, and political construct rather than a simple geographical or economic grouping. This classification allows me to frame under-representation in academic awards not merely as a statistical anomaly but as a manifestation of deep-rooted structural marginalization. It provides a more accurate analysis of how geography of institutional location continues to shape access, visibility, and recognition in global academia.

Third, this framework avoids the reductive logic of income-based classifications. There are many countries with high national income but limited academic integration, particularly Gulf nations such as Qatar, the UAE, and Saudi Arabia. Despite their wealth, these countries face epistemic marginalization and limited recognition in dominant global academic circuits. For instance, a

bibliometric analysis by Dardas et al. (2023) found that Gulf scholars are significantly underrepresented in high-impact international journals, especially in the social sciences and humanities, despite increased research funding. Similarly, a PwC Middle East (2019) report noted that academic prestige in the Gulf is often imported through partnerships with Western institutions, rather than being organically developed reinforcing dependency and limiting local scholarly visibility. By adopting the UNFCSSC classification, which includes these nations, my study captures the complexity of academic exclusion more accurately, acknowledging that economic affluence does not necessarily translate to academic privilege or inclusion. This enables a more nuanced exploration of the non-linear relationship between economic affluence and epistemic recognition.

Finally, this classification excludes countries like such as Uzbekistan, Moldova, Georgia, and Serbia from Global South category although their per capita incomes are lower than many Global South countries. Their exclusion is justified based on their increasing integration into Northern academic infrastructures. Many of these countries are part of the European Research Area and actively participate in Northern-led research networks such as Horizon Europe and the European Research Council. Post-Soviet countries like Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan are increasingly embedded in Northern research infrastructures through the Bologna Process and partnerships with European institutions. This disjuncture between economic wealth and epistemic status further validates the use of the UNFCSSC classification, which captures symbolic and structural hierarchies, not merely income disparities.

In sum, the UNFCSSC classification offers a more nuanced, historically grounded, and epistemically relevant framework for understanding academic under-representation despite its surface-level economic anomalies. It captures symbolic hierarchies, structural inequalities, and

historical exclusions that income-based classifications fail to recognize. This makes it especially suitable for a study examining how categorical and institutional status shapes global patterns of recognition in academic awards.

I accessed the list of these countries from the website of Global South Countries - United Nations Finance Center for South-South Cooperation (2024). List of Global South countries and Global North countries are enclosed in Appendix 5 and Appendix 6, respectively.

Global South Scholar: The term "Global South Scholar" is operationalized on the basis of scholars' employment affiliation. I acknowledge that the institutional affiliation of a scholar may not necessarily reflect their nationality and as such the country's location may be considered as a proxy. While this may be considered as a limitation of this methodology, this approach is in line with prior research (e.g. Burgess & Shaw, 2010; Cummings & Hoebink, 2016; Ozbilgin, 2004). Maintaining consistency in operationalization with prior research enhances the alignment of the findings of this study with existing literature. It will serve as an essential foundation before adopting a modified methodology in Chapter 4.

Academic Society Awards: In this context, the study focuses exclusively on the Best Paper awards given by academic societies, excluding other types of awards, such as activity-based and career-stage awards.

2.3.2 Population and sample

The population of this study are all the participants of conferences organized by academic societies. I decided on AOM conferences as the sampling frame. The reason for considering AOM as a sample frame is that the annual AOM conference is the world's biggest academic meeting in management and organizational studies. With 42,736 members from 26 divisions spanning over

120 countries, it is aptly described as a "big tent" (George et al., 2014). As the number of attending scholars from different countries is much higher in comparison to any other conferences in the field of management, it is expected that there will be relative heterogeneity in the demographic composition of the participants. Due to these attributes, it is an appropriate sampling frame as there is a high probability that it will contain all the properties of the population. Besides these attributes, this conference has a powerful influence over a range of academic practices, privileging certain ideas, methods of analysis, and scholarly pursuits (Myrick et al., 2013).

The participants of the four largest divisions of AOM as of year 2022 are the sample of this study. These divisions are: Organizational Behaviour (OB; total membership: 5711), Organization and Management Theory (OMT; total membership: 3897), Entrepreneurship (ENT; total membership: 3502), Strategic Management (STR, total membership: 5197). I focused on the participants from these four divisions as my sample because the total members of these four divisions (18,307) constitute 42.83% of the sampling frame. The bigger size of these four divisions - OB, OMT, STR and ENT - gives my more scope for generalization of the results obtained in this study. Another reason for choosing these four divisions was that they were the biggest divisions; hence, it is assumed that they are doing research on the most mainstream topics. So, it is more likely that they are attracting more people from all over the world.

2.3.3 Data Collection

I collected data from the archive of the AOM Annual Conference. A published online list of AOM participants and award winners representing five years of data (2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2022) was accessed from the AOM website. I did not capture the data for the years 2020 and 2021 as these were Coronavirus-affected years, which might have been atypical in terms of conference participation. Information regarding participants' names, employment affiliation and their award

was collected. The overall sample size is 20,265 individual observations (enclosed in Appendix 1).

To assess the ranking of scholars' employment affiliations, I utilized the 2019 QS World University Rankings. The choice of 2019 as the reference year was based on the timeframe of my dataset, which spans 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2022. Selecting 2019 ensures that the ranking data falls midway within this period, providing a balanced representation of institutional prestige over time.

Given that my focus is on employment affiliation, the QS rankings were the most appropriate choice, as they emphasize institutional reputation and employer perception, making them a suitable proxy for evaluating the status of scholars' employing institutions.

The QS ranking extends up to 1021 institutions in 2019. For universities that were not ranked, I assigned a score of 1022, ensuring they were systematically categorized beyond the lowest-ranked institutions. In cases where institutions were ranked within a range (e.g., 500–600), I assigned the midpoint value of the given range. For instance, an institution ranked between 500 and 600 was given a score of 550 to maintain consistency in the ranking structure.

By applying this standardized approach, I ensured that all institutions, whether explicitly ranked or not, were systematically incorporated into the analysis, allowing for a clear and comparative evaluation of employment affiliation status.

2.3.4 Data analysis

To test my hypotheses, I used the RRI. The RRI is an established measure used for comparing subpopulations that are progressing from one stage to the next within a system. It is a more sensitive measure than percentage method to identify progression through a system because it takes

into account the percentage of the sub-population in the stage directly prior. This becomes important when trying to determine exactly at what stage the sub-populations diverge in progression from one stage to the next (Brown & Steele, 2015). For example, if one population begins with 200 Global North Scholars and 100 GSS, then one would expect a 2:1 ratio of GSN: GSS in the final stage if there were no geographical biases impacting the system. In such a scenario, the RRI of the system would be equal to 1, which represents equality of progression among sub-populations. Thus, the method focuses on a comparison of the proportional advancement of the sub-populations rather than the absolute quantities at each stage. RRI also standardizes the data for ease of interpretation. If the ratio of one sub-population to another is maintained, then the RRI is equal to one, and if not, then one sub-population is being advanced at an increased rate relative to the other. In the context of my study, less than or more than one indicates a smaller or greater number of GSS progressing relative to GNS in the academic society awards system, respectively.

In the context of determining whether the value of RRI is significant or not, the Ministry of Justice Report (2020) in the UK has recommended using the "4/5ths rule" to assess whether a RRI value significantly deviates from parity, indicating underrepresentation. This rule, initially a quick guide for statistical significance, offers a practical indicator of significance. The 4/5ths rule, with lower and upper bounds of 0.8 and 1.25, is widely accepted as the industry standard. A value between 0.8 and 1.25 is called a tolerance zone. To determine underrepresentation for policy intervention, the value of RRI should be both statistically significant and outside this tolerance zone. The interpretation guide suggests three conditions to interpret the underrepresentation.

a. Inside the tolerance zone (presently 0.8 to 1.25) – this signifies no practical disparity.

b. Outside the tolerance zone (presently 0.8 to 1.25) but not statistically significant – this implies that the disparity could well be due to chance.
c. Outside the tolerance zone (presently 0.8 to 1.25) and statistically significant – this implies that we can have confidence that a disparity exists and that our best estimate suggests that it is of a size that is important practically.

2.4 Findings

The findings support the hypothesis that GSS are underrepresented compared to GNS. While some divisions show less underrepresentation than others (e.g., OB and ENT), none achieve parity, and significant underrepresentation is particularly evident in the OMT and STR divisions. As seen in Table 2.1, the overall mean of the RRI across all divisions is 0.67, with a standard deviation of 0.12. This indicates a significant underrepresentation of GSS among academic award winners. However, with a confidence interval (CI) of 95%, the RRI for the overall mean ranges from 0.62 to 0.73, suggesting that underrepresentation is not evenly distributed.

The underrepresentation varies significantly across the four divisions analyzed. In the OMT division the mean RRI is 0.50, which is the lowest among the divisions, indicating substantial underrepresentation. The 95% confidence interval ranges from 0.33 to 0.67, with a margin of error of 0.17. This result strongly supports the hypothesis that scholars from the Global South are underrepresented in this division.

The mean RRI of ENT division is 0.68, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.49 to 0.87. This division shows better representation compared to OMT.

In OB division the mean RRI is 0.78, the highest among the divisions, with a relatively narrow confidence interval of 0.71 to 0.85. This suggests that representation is stronger in this division

compared to others. However, the RRI is still below 1, indicating that scholars from the Global South do not achieve full parity with their Global North counterparts.

The mean RRI of STR division is 0.74, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 0.54 to 0.94. While the upper limit approaches parity, the lower bound reflects significant underrepresentation, demonstrating that disparities persist within this division as well.

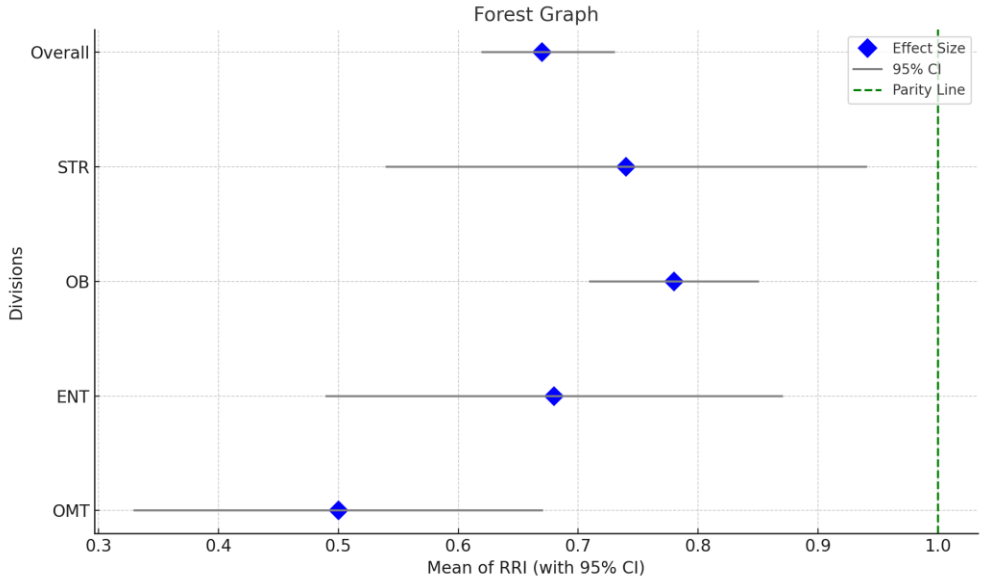
Across all divisions, none achieve an RRI of 1 or higher, indicating that GSS are consistently underrepresented relative to their Global North counterparts, as seen in Figure 2.1. The lowest RRI in the OMT division (0.50) aligns strongly with the hypothesis, while even the OB division (the highest RRI at 0.78) falls short of parity.

The standard deviations across divisions indicate varying degrees of consistency in underrepresentation. For example, OB has the smallest standard deviation (0.07), suggesting relatively stable representation levels, whereas STR and OMT have higher standard deviations (0.22 and 0.19, respectively), reflecting more variability and potential disparities within these divisions.

Table 2. 1: Descriptive statistics and RRI of GSS across divisions

Divisions	Mean of RRI	SD	Confidence Interval (CI)	Margin of error	Lower Limit of CI	Upper limit of CI
OMT	0.50	0.19	0.95	0.17	0.33	0.67
ENT	0.68	0.19	0.95	0.19	0.49	0.87
OB	0.78	0.07	0.95	0.07	0.71	0.85
STR	0.74	0.22	0.95	0.20	0.54	0.94
Total	0.67	0.12	0.95	0.05	0.62	0.73

Figure 0.1: Forest plot showing GSS' representation across the divisions



2.5: Robustness Check

To systematically address the concern regarding the sole reliance on the United Nations South–South Cooperation (SSC) classification, I conducted a robustness check using the World Bank income-based classification system to redefine Global South and Global North categories. Unlike the UNFCSSC framework, the World Bank does not use the terms "Global South" or "Global North" but instead categorizes countries into low-income, lower-middle-income, upper-middle-income, and high-income groups. Following established approaches in the literature (Albanna, Handl & Heeks, 2021), I classified low-income and middle-income countries (both lower- and upper-middle-income) as Global South, and high-income countries as Global North. Using this alternative classification, I recalculated the Relative Rate Index (RRI) for the same sample of award recipients and compared them to test whether the main findings remain consistent across different geopolitical categorization schemes.

Table 2. 2: Comparison of Relative Representation Index (RRI) of Global South Scholars under UN-FCSSC and World Bank Classifications

Division	Year	RRI (World Bank Classification)	RRI (UNFCSSC Classifications)
OMT	2016	0.90	0.83
OMT	2017	0.78	0.47
OMT	2018	0.60	0.32
OMT	2019	0.65	0.45
OMT	2022	0.42	0.42
OB	2016	0.77	0.67
OB	2017	0.93	0.88
OB	2018	0.76	0.81
OB	2019	0.94	0.77
OB	2022	0.70	0.73
ENT	2016	0.30	0.42
ENT	2017	0.33	0.85
ENT	2018	0.81	1.51
ENT	2019	0.78	0.79
ENT	2022	0.79	0.65
STR	2016	1.12	1.06
STR	2017	0.74	0.77
STR	2018	0.71	0.81
STR	2019	0.52	0.59
STR	2022	0.49	0.47

A paired samples t-test was then performed to examine whether the classification system materially alters the representation patterns of Global South scholars. The paired samples correlation indicates a moderate positive association between UN-based and World Bank-based RRIs:

Table 2. 3: Paired Sample Correlations

Paired Samples Correlations					
		N	**Correlation**	**Significance**	
				One-Sided p	**Two-Sided p**
Pair 1	**WB & UN**	20	.523	.009	.018

This suggests that divisions scoring as high or low under one system tend to show similar patterns under the other.

Effect sizes show small and statistically non-significant differences:

Table 2. 4: Pair Samples Effect Sizes

Paired Samples Effect Sizes						
					95% Confidence Interval	
			Standardizer[a]	Point Estimate	Lower	Upper
Pair 1	WB - UN	Cohen's d	.239	-.055	-.492	.385
		Hedges' correction	.249	-.052	-.473	.369

Both confidence intervals include zero, indicating no meaningful divergence between results produced by the two classification schemes.

Although the World Bank classification resolves some economic anomalies in the UNFCSSC framework, the statistical outcomes demonstrate that the core findings of under-representation are robust to the choice of classification system. The relative positions of different divisions remain consistent, reinforcing the validity of the theoretical conclusions drawn regarding structural inequality and recognition bias.

To explore whether the underrepresentation of GSS is driven by differences in ability and motivation, I conducted a post hoc analysis using the rank of employment affiliation as a proxy for ability and motivation. My assumption was that, since the rankings rely heavily on research performance, scholars employed in higher ranked institutions should have both abilities and motivation to produce high quality research. These institutions use research capabilities as recruitment criterion and provide incentives to keep scientific productivity high, in order to keep ranking positions.

Table 2.2 shows mean ranks of employment affiliation for Global North and Global South participants and award winners. As rankings are reverse coded (lower numerical value means higher rank), higher means indicate institutions with lower rank positions.

Table 2. 5: Ranking of employment affiliation institutions

Division	Mean of employment affiliation for Global North participants	Mean of employment affiliation for Global South participants	Difference in means between Global North and Global South participants	Mean of employment affiliation for award winners from Global North	Mean of employment affiliation for award winners from Global South	Difference in means between Global North and Global South award winners
OMT	408.99	498.68	-89.69	536.72	357.26	179.46
OB	476.86	460.26	16.6	492.27	374.69	117.58
ENT	576.34	593.34	-17	646.72	506.93	139.79
STR	381.64	521.06	-139.42	544.46	419.12	125.34

Across most divisions, the mean numerical rank of employment affiliation for participants from Global South is higher than that of their peers from Global North, which means that they come from institutions with lower ranking positions. This reflects the general structure of the academic sector, where institutions located in Global South tend to occupy lower ranking positions. The data indicates that my sample is representative of the broader population of GSS.

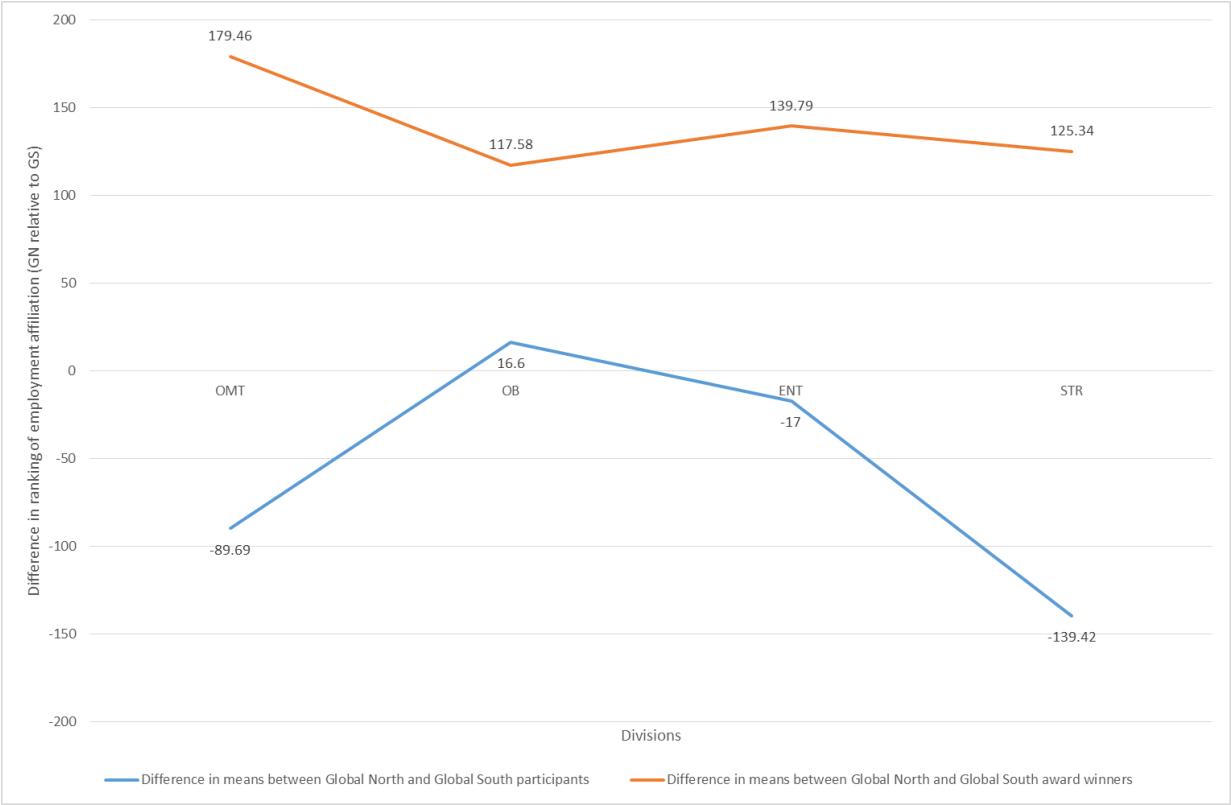
For award winners, however, the trend reverses, with award winners from Global North consistently having higher mean numerical rank of employment affiliations compared to award winners from Global South. It indicates GSS need to associate with comparatively higher ranked institutions to win the award. The difference in trends can be seen in Figure 2.2.

The RRI data showed consistent underrepresentation of GSS across all divisions. This current data on employment affiliation and award winners complements those findings, showing that despite award winners from Global South being affiliated with higher-ranked institutions on average, they are less likely to receive recognition through awards.

In OMT, the RRI for GS scholars was 0.50, the lowest among divisions, and the award winner data here shows the largest disparity, with GN award winners having substantially higher mean affiliations. In OB, while the RRI was relatively higher at 0.78, award winner data reveals that GS scholars still face a gap in representation despite comparable mean employment affiliations. OB appears to be the most equitable division based on the employment affiliation data. Both GS and GN scholars have relatively similar mean affiliations (476.86 vs. 460.26), and while GN award winners still have higher mean affiliations (492.27 vs 374.69), the gap is narrower compared to other divisions. This aligns with OB having one of the highest RRI values (0.68), indicating slightly better representation of GSS scholars compared to other fields.

STR displays a stark contrast, where GS scholars have significantly higher mean employment affiliations (521.06) compared to GN scholars (381.64). Despite this, GN award winners have a higher mean affiliation (544.46) than GS award winners (419.12). This highlights the structural inequities in recognition and award distribution in this division, consistent with its RRI value of 0.74, which indicates underrepresentation of GS scholars.

Figure 0.2 Difference in ranking means between GN and GS participants and award winners



2.6 Discussion

Findings of this study align with previous research on the underrepresentation of GSS in various academic domains (e.g., Collyer 2018; Contreras & Dornberger, 2022). Consistent with prior studies, my findings confirm the persistent geographical bias in reward allocation, highlighting that GSS are less likely to receive academic awards than their Global North counterparts. This echoes earlier observations about limited representation on editorial boards Burgess et al., 2017; Maas et al., 2021; Xue & Xu, 2024), reduced publication (Collyer, 2018) and citation rates (Confraria et al., 2017). These patterns have been attributed to unequal access to resources, networks, and institutional advantages that favor GNS (Sivaramakrishnan & Patel, 2020; Connell,

2007). The results of this study, showing consistently lower RRI scores for GSS scholars and their underrepresentation among award winners, reflect and reinforce these findings. Furthermore, existing research has identified that scholars from the Global South often need to meet higher benchmarks of institutional prestige or publication output to receive comparable recognition (Harris et al., 2021), which is corroborated by the employment affiliation data in this analysis.

While the findings align broadly with literature, they also reveal nuances that deviate from prior studies. Contrary to some literature that suggests GSS tend to be affiliated with lower-ranked institutions (Darwin & Barahona, 2024; Lee & Naidoo, 2020; St. Clair, 2021), this study finds that, in the context of academic awards, GSS are often affiliated with higher-ranked institutions on average compared to their Global North counterparts. This indicates that institutional prestige alone does not bridge the recognition gap for GSS, pointing to systemic biases beyond institutional factors.

The novelty of this study lies in its detailed exploration of underrepresentation at the intersection of employment affiliation and award recognition. It provides a more nuanced understanding of inequities in academic recognition. The integration of RRI data with employment affiliation and award recognition metrics offers a useful lens to examine systemic inequities. This dual approach uniquely captures not only the underrepresentation of GSS but also the structural barriers they face, even when affiliated with high-ranking institutions.

By examining multiple academic divisions (OMT, OB, ENT, STR), the study highlights how systemic inequities can manifest differently across sub-fields. This division-specific focus provides actionable insights for targeting inequities in specific sub-disciplines, a level of granularity often missing in broader analyses.

The focus on award recognition as a metric of inequity is relatively novel, as much of the existing literature focuses on publication output and citations. This study uniquely shows that even when GSS scholars are affiliated with prestigious institutions, they are underrepresented among award winners, pointing to implicit biases in selection processes. However, the finding that Entrepreneurship division of the AOM demonstrates relatively smaller disparities in employment affiliation and award recognition challenges the prevailing narrative of uniform inequities across all fields. This nuance provides an opportunity for future research to investigate why Entrepreneurship sub-field appears to be more equitable and whether lessons from this division can be applied to others.

2.7 Theoretical contributions

The findings of this study contribute significantly to the theoretical framework of Ridgeway's (2014) status bias theory by expanding its applicability to the context of global academic hierarchies, which claim to be firmly rooted in meritocratic principles. This expansion emphasizes the intricate interplay between implicit biases, structural barriers, and the dynamics inherent to specific academic fields. The results infer that scholars from the Global South are required to surpass substantially higher thresholds of institutional prestige to attain recognition comparable to their counterparts in more privileged settings. This observation illustrates the persistence of status hierarchies, even in cases where objective indicators, such as employment affiliation, favor scholars from lower-status groups.

Furthermore, the study's division-specific analysis provides a more granular understanding of how status biases manifest differently across various academic disciplines. The findings indicate that certain fields may exhibit a heightened resistance to global status hierarchies. It suggests variability

in the degree to which these biases influence scholarly recognition. This division-specific variation indicates that the rigidity of status hierarchies may differ across subfields, influenced by factors such as field-specific norms, networks, and evaluative criteria. This contribution refines Ridgeway's theory by suggesting that the strength and effects of status biases are contingent on contextual dynamics within specific domains.

2.8 Policy implications

The findings of this study have significant policy implications for academic institutions and scholarly organizations. First, the systemic underrepresentation of GSS in award distribution calls for a reassessment of the criteria and processes used to determine excellence in academic societies. Policymakers should develop strategies to promote more equitable recognition practices by addressing the possible unconscious biases embedded in the award processes. This could involve increasing representation from GSS on award committees and ensuring that research from these regions is evaluated fairly. Second, my findings also emphasize the need for academic societies and institutions to continue establishing targeted programs which enhance the visibility and competitiveness of GSS. Initiatives could include mentorship programs, travel grants for conferences, and funding for collaborative research projects to integrate GSS into global academic networks.

2.9 Limitations

The limitation of this research lies in its operationalization of GSS based on employment affiliation rather than their country of origin, which may not fully capture the complexity of geographical identity. Additionally, this study exclusively examines Best Paper awards at conferences hosted by academic societies, potentially overlooking other types of recognition within academia.

Recognizing the existence of underrepresentation provides no insight into its underlying causes - a critical issue that is examined in greater depth in the subsequent chapters.

2.10 Directions for future research

Future research should explore the role of country of origin alongside employment affiliation to provide a more nuanced understanding of the geographical disparities among GSS. Expanding the scope to include other forms of academic recognition, such as career-stage awards or grants, could offer a more comprehensive picture of the inequalities within academic awards. Additionally, examining award distributions across different academic fields may reveal variations in underrepresentation based on discipline. Incorporating qualitative approaches, such as interviews with award recipients, could provide deeper insight into the barriers faced by GSS.

Chapter 3

3.1 Introduction

Diversity, equity, and inclusion, with a focus on procedural and distributive justice (Arsel, Crockett & Scott, 2022), are increasingly emphasized within the academic landscape. However, scholars from the Global South continue to face significant underrepresentation in several key academic domains, including peer-reviewed publications (Bai, 2018; Baruch, 2001; Murphy & Zhu, 2012), citations (Confraria et al., 2017), and editorial board membership (Hedding & Breetzke, 2021; Burgess & Shaw, 2010). This chapter explores the mechanisms contributing to the underrepresentation of GSS in the context of academic society awards. These awards, which constitute a form of attention capital (Chan, Johns & Moses, 2018), are important in impacting scholars' motivation, productivity (Chan et al., 2014), and job satisfaction (Hesli & Lee, 2013). Considered a valuable currency within the academic community (Frey & Gallus, 2017), academic society awards confer prestige and status, thereby enhancing a scholar's standing in their academic circles (Van Miegroet & Glass, 2020). Moreover, recognition through research awards is associated with increased access to resources for research teams and future productivity (Zuckerman, 1967; DiPrete & Eirich, 2006; Chan et al., 2014).

Academic society awards, granted by discerning intermediaries or prestigious affiliates, represent external recognition by credible third-party institutions (Pollock, Porac & Wade, 2004). These awards, particularly those bestowed by international academic societies, are crucial in establishing the legitimacy of scholarly achievements. However, scholars from the Global South remain significantly underrepresented among recipients of these awards. Despite the Global South comprising approximately 75% of the global population (World Population Review, 2022),

scholars from this region receive a disproportionately small share of academic accolades. For instance, a ranking developed by Jiang and Liu (2018) of 20 prestigious awards in business and management reveals that, between 2010 and 2020, less than 10% of these awards were conferred upon academics from the Global South. This disparity is even more striking when considering that 36% of the 3,381 institutions publishing in top business and management journals, as documented in the Global Research Performance database (Ryazanova, McNamara & Aguinis, 2017), are located outside of Europe, North America, Australia, and New Zealand. Given these publication patterns, one would expect a greater representation of GSS among award recipients. Yet, this unequal distribution persists across various academic honors, as discussed in chapter 2 of this thesis, which provides empirical evidence of this underrepresentation. Underrepresentation of GSS in external academic awards is a prima facie case of distributive injustice. It begs investigation of its causality mechanism because it is unlikely that an overwhelming proportion of the most meritorious come, "as if by chance," exclusively from Global North. However, there is a paucity of research that has focused on exploring the mechanism of this underrepresentation in external academic awards.

The underrepresentation of GSS in academic society awards is important to address for several reasons. First, extant literature demonstrates that GSS in academia provide findings from the Global South in a more authentic way than scholars from other regions, due to their cultural connection and geographical location (D'Cruz, Noronha, & Katiyar, 2022). Their deep contextual knowledge enables them to capture the realities of the Global South. However, in international peer reviewing process these insights often are not considered generalizable outside the Global South, and thus unsuitable for theory building (Muzanenhamo & Chowdhury, 2021). Research from the social work literature found that theories generated using Global South contexts find it

challenging to navigate through the peer-reviewed journal process (Naidu et al., 2024). Thus, Global South perspectives are largely absent from the literature despite their strong relevance to practice (Pawar, 2015). An increase in Global South award winners would raise the profile of Global South research and theorization, increasing both the familiarity of the reviewing community with this writing style and the impact of theorization from Global South contexts.

Second, GSS experience a credibility deficiency in academia. It occurs when powerful actors do not give enough credit to an individual's representation due to their social identity (or overlapping social identities) based on prejudicial (pre)assumptions (Fricker, 2007). Prejudice infuses judgments with biases, leading to wrongful dismissal and ignoring and overlooking other individuals' knowledge accounts (Fricker, 2007; Medina, 2013). Greater representation of GSS in external academic awards will reduce this credibility deficit towards them. These reasons show the urgency to increase the participation of GSS in academic awards. Hence, this chapter's research question is:

What underlying mechanisms contribute to the systemic underrepresentation of GSS in academic awards?

The main purpose of this chapter is to explore the factors contributing to underrepresentation of GSS among academic society awards recipients, a phenomenon that underscores broader inequalities within academia. Employing an inductive approach, the chapter offers a novel exploration of the mechanisms at play within the context of academic society awards. This research uniquely integrates both demand-side and supply-side perspectives to present a conceptual model of underrepresentation. Additionally, it extends the theory of meritocracy by addressing its paradoxical relationship with diversity. Moreover, I contribute to the discourse on the hegemony of Global North knowledge by identifying and systematizing five key components of academic

gatekeeping practices, derived from interviews with academic gatekeepers, and linking these practices to the underrepresentation of GSS. Furthermore, the research advances the understanding of micro- and macro-level interactions in management research, with a framework that explains how macro-level DEI policies affect individual scholars (top-down processes), and how these scholars, in turn, shape academic societies (bottom-up processes). Awards are typically construed as positive acts (English, 2014), yet their selective and exclusive nature, advantage some while disadvantaging others (Lamont, 2009). My goal is to inform academic societies to bring changes in their award-giving process to foster structural equality and provide legitimacy to the scholarship of Global South.

3.2 Literature review

Underrepresentation denotes the scenario where identifiable demographic groups are disproportionately absent from representative entities and well-being metrics, relative to their population proportion (Encyclopedia.com, 2024). Such groups are often distinguishable by shared disenfranchisement legacies, typically characterized by attributes such as gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and religion (Flynn, 2017). Pitkin's seminal definition (1967) encapsulates representation as the act of 'making present again.' Hence “not present again in the subpopulation” can be summarized as underrepresentation.

Theoretical work has proposed that underrepresentation is multidimensional (Carvalho, & Pradelski, 2022). The multifaceted nature of underrepresentation necessitates diverse definitional approaches. The Labour Market Information Council of Canada (2023) has identified six definitional approaches of underrepresentation (see Table 3.1).

Table 3. 1: Approaches of underrepresentation based on the Labour Market Information Council of Canada (2023)

S.N.	Approaches of underrepresentation	Strength of Approach	Weakness of approach
1.	Underrepresentation in comparison to demographic proportionality	Data are easily accessible and granular	Unable to analyze specific occupations (for example, in (STEM) professions, high-earning positions or management roles)
2.	Underrepresentation against national averages	Facilitates comparative analyses across different demographics	Normative bias because it assumes that national average is normative or ideal
3.	Underrepresentation against 'dominant' demographics	Customized and specialized due to selecting the dominant group.	Implicit bias because selection of dominant group is highly subjective
4.	Underrepresentation against a similar demographic group	Internal validity	Lack of a comparable group for some populations, selection of comparable groups remains highly discretionary, does not allow for the easy comparison of underrepresentation between and among groups.
5.	Underrepresentation within high-status roles	Underrepresentation analysis is on occupations that are deemed ideal.	Normative bias because it assumes that high status roles are goals for each underrepresented group.
6.	Underrepresentation through data scarcity	Straightforward and requires no comparable or dominant group selection.	Issues of self-identification and survey inclusion

The first approach defines underrepresentation in comparison to demographic proportionality, often termed descriptive underrepresentation (Murray, 2024) and is frequently employed in gender disparity studies (Anderson et al., 2023). It presupposes an equitable participation landscape absent of barriers. The second approach compares underrepresentation against national averages, a method utilized by Moore et al. (2019) in examining racial disparities in U.S. unemployment. Despite its normative assumptions regarding national averages, it facilitates comparative analyses across different demographics.

The third approach considers underrepresentation against those of 'dominant' demographics. Brown and Steele (2015) have used this approach in examination of racial underrepresentation in school disciplinary actions. This approach allows for tailored comparisons but is inherently biased by the subjective selection of the 'dominant' group. The fourth method compares underrepresentation against a similar demographic group, yielding more reliable results but is limited by the availability and selection discretion of comparable groups.

The fifth approach focuses on underrepresentation within high-status roles, implying a normative bias towards such positions as success indicators. This perspective's subjectivity can impact consistency across studies. Heddings and Breetzke's (2021) exploration of GSS' editorial board underrepresentation is a good example of this approach. The sixth and final approach identifies underrepresentation through data scarcity, straightforward yet challenged by issues like self-identification reluctance and survey limitations.

Redwood and Gill (2013) categorize underrepresentation into three forms: 'planned exclusion,' 'inadvertent exclusion,' and 'non-participation,' each with distinct causative factors. Planned exclusion is intentional and systematic, inadvertent underrepresentation is unintentional and often due to oversight or unconscious bias, and nonparticipant underrepresentation is due to the choices of the individuals or groups themselves (Gill et al., 2013; Ejiogu et al., 2011).

Underrepresentation is problematic for several reasons. First, it leads to feelings of invisibility among the underrepresented group (Settles et al., 2019). Second, it triggers “stereotype threat,” where underrepresented groups perceive themselves as inferior ability due to stereotype vulnerability & stigma consciousness (Cadaret et al., 2017). Stereotype vulnerability refers to the tendency to expect, perceive, and be influenced by negative stereotypes about one’s social category (Aronson & Inzlicht, 2004). This includes situational responses to conditions in which members

of stigmatized groups can be vulnerable to devaluation based on intellectual performance (Spencer, Logel, & Davies, 2016). Stigma consciousness is an expectation of judgment based on individual's group membership (Pinel, 1999). High levels of stigma consciousness represent the anticipation that others will stereotype a person regardless of that person's behavior.

In extant literature, underrepresentation has been analyzed through various theoretical perspectives. These perspectives can be divided into three categories, namely structural theory, cultural theory and individual level theories. *Structural* theories of underrepresentation emphasize the role of institutional frameworks and societal structures in perpetuating inequality. One of the most influential structural theories is Critical Race Theory (CRT), which posits that racism is embedded in the fabric of social institutions, including education, employment, and the legal system. CRT argues that these institutions are designed to maintain the dominance of privileged groups, thereby systematically marginalizing racial and ethnic minorities (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). This framework can be extended to other forms of underrepresentation, such as gender, class, and ethnic minority groups, where institutional biases create barriers to entry and advancement for marginalized groups. Another important structural theory is the Matthew Effect (Merton, 1968). The Matthew Effect describes how individuals who have already achieved some levels of success are more likely to receive further recognition, while those who have not are increasingly overlooked (Merton, 1968). This creates a self-reinforcing cycle of privilege, where underrepresented groups remain marginalized due to the compounding advantages enjoyed by dominant groups.

Cultural theories of underrepresentation focus on the role of societal norms, values, and beliefs in shaping who is considered deserving of recognition and opportunity. Bourdieu's Theory of Cultural Capital is particularly relevant here. Bourdieu argues that certain forms of knowledge,

behaviors, and skills, which are valued by the dominant culture, serve as "cultural capital" (Bourdieu, 1986). Individuals from privileged backgrounds are more likely to possess this capital, giving them an advantage in educational and professional settings. Underrepresentation occurs when the cultural capital of marginalized groups is devalued or ignored, limiting their access to opportunities (Hofstra et al., 2020). Meritocracy is another cultural concept that is often invoked in discussions of underrepresentation. The meritocratic ideal suggests that individuals succeed based on their talent, effort, and achievements. However, critics argue that meritocracy often masks underlying inequalities, as the criteria for merit are often shaped by those in power (Young, 1958). As a result, meritocratic systems can perpetuate underrepresentation by rewarding those who already possess the cultural capital or resources favored by the dominant group, while excluding those who do not (Lamont, 2019).

At the *individual* level, theories of underrepresentation often focus on the decision-making processes of gatekeepers, those individuals or committees responsible for selecting who gains access to opportunities, whether in employment, education, or awards. Social Identity Theory, for example, suggests that gatekeepers are more likely to favor individuals who share their own social identities (e.g., race, gender, class) (Turner et al., 1979). This bias, whether conscious or unconscious, leads to the perpetuation of underrepresentation, as individuals from marginalized groups are systematically excluded from consideration. Stereotype Threat is another important individual-level theory. Stereotype threat occurs when individuals from underrepresented groups fear that their performance will confirm negative stereotypes about their group. This fear can lead to anxiety and underperformance, creating a self-fulfilling prophecy that reinforces their underrepresentation (Steele & Aronson, 1995). Over time, the cumulative effects of stereotype

threat can discourage individuals from marginalized groups from pursuing opportunities where they are underrepresented, further entrenching inequality.

Theories of underrepresentation offer critical insights into the complex and multifaceted nature of inequality. Structural theories highlight the role of institutionalized discrimination and systemic biases, while cultural theories draw attention to the ways in which societal values and norms perpetuate exclusion. On the other hand, individual-level theories focus on the decision-making processes that reinforce underrepresentation. Collectively, these theories provide a robust framework for understanding underrepresentation; however, they often operate in silos from one another. Structural and cultural theories primarily address the demand-side factors of underrepresentation, while individual-level theories focus on the supply-side dynamics. The demand-side perspective of underrepresentation emphasizes the biases and preferences in decision-making processes of selectors (Krook, 2010). Conversely, the supply-side perspective focuses on the factors influencing the participation and aspirations of underrepresented groups in specific roles (Campbell & Cowley, 2014). Despite their contributions, a theoretical gap remains as none of these theories fully explain the mechanism by which GSS are underrepresented in the context of academic society awards.

3.2.1 Global South Scholar

Prior to delving into the scholarly discourse surrounding the ‘Global South Scholar,’ it is imperative to explain the foundational term ‘Global South,’ given that it constitutes the core concept within the construct of ‘Global South Scholar.’ Since the turn of the millennium, the term "Global South" has surged in prevalence within political and academic discourse (Gray & Gills, 2016). Amidst intensifying appeals for academia's diversification and decolonization, the integration of 'southern scholarship' has correspondingly ascended in prominence (Perez, 2023),

with research fixated on the 'exotic south' garnering augmented interest from northern counterparts (Haug et al., 2021). Commonly, the 'Global South' is construed as regions plagued by poverty and socio-economic marginalization. The World Bank's income-per-capita index, which categorizes Africa, Latin America, the Caribbean, and Asia as the Global South, serves as a widely accepted proxy, despite critiques regarding its geographical precision.

A pronounced schism in research endeavors bifurcates the Global North and South, discernible through disparities in research funding and capabilities. For instance, between 2005 and 2014, Northern nations allocated an average of 1.44% of GDP to research and development, a stark contrast to the Southern nations' 0.38% (Blicharska et al., 2017). The chasm extends to researcher density—4,351 per million inhabitants in the North versus a mere 713 in the South in 2017 (World Bank, 2020)—and is further evidenced by the lopsided distribution of scientific publications and citations.

The term "Global South Scholar" ideally refers to academics from the Global South; however, this nomenclature is mired in complexity due to varied associations with the region—be it through nativity or employment affiliation. Predominantly, literature favors employment affiliation as the defining criterion for such scholars, positing institutional affiliation as the primary holder of scientific capital over birthplace or nationality (Demeter, 2020). Conversely, another school of thought prioritizes country of origin as a critical axis of differentiation and potential discrimination within academia (Andre & Donkers, 2017).

The scholarly landscape has witnessed an upsurge in attention to the underrepresentation of GSS within academic domains—a response to calls for enhanced equity and inclusivity (Haug et al., 2021). This imbalance permeates various academic dimensions—from journal authorship to editorial board membership—with studies consistently indicating their marginal presence in

prestigious international journals and citation networks (Murphy & Zhu, 2012; Baruch, 2001; Bai, 2018), as well as their scant representation on editorial boards where significant influence resides (Hedding & Breetzke, 2021; Burgess & Shaw, 2010).

3.2.2 Academic society awards

Academic societies are scholarly organizations aimed at advancing and fostering specific academic disciplines or fields of research (Wise & Estelle, 2019). These societies often function as non-profit entities and engage in various activities like publishing, education, accreditation, public advocacy, influencing, training, and conferences (Benade, 2016). Awards bestowed by academic societies are considered highly prestigious because these societies are third party which typically exist externally to and independent from research institutions, such as universities (Boyd & Kannan, 2018). Empirical evidence suggests that third party certifiers always play a vital role in organizing the field (Sharkey et al., 2023). They may act as arbiters of value for both producers (Darnall & Vázquez-Brust, 2018) and the products they produce (Ginsburgh, Radermecker &Tommasi, 2019; Khaire & Wadhwani, 2010).

There are numerous academic society awards in academic landscape. Most awards do not carry the status of a Nobel Prize or Fields Medal but are nevertheless important to shaping careers and rewarding excellence (Frey, 2007; Zhu et al., 2023). In the context of awards, excellence is conceptualized as a zero-sum game, rather than as a threshold (Young, 2015). Zero-sum excellence can be understood as a relative notion of excellence, used in bestowing awards, research funding and rankings. Excellence is defined as the ‘best of the best, which means the most highly evaluated, and ‘rests on the assumption that excellence is a limited resource that is decided by relative and competitive means’ (Young, 2015; p.8). Threshold excellence rests on the assumption that

excellence is an unlimited resource and is not relative to the performance of others, but rather a benchmark anyone should live up to (Scholten et al., 2021).

Awards bestowed by academic societies play an important role in shaping the trajectory of researchers' careers, particularly impacting those in the early stages of their academic journey (Zhu et al., 2023). Awards are an important component of attention capital which elevates the prominence and recognition of academic achievements (Chan et al., 2018). Wang (2024) highlights that receiving such awards can lead to a notable increase in citations, indicating a boost in the academic impact of the awardees. Additionally, Ren (2022) notes that awards contribute to expanding professional networks and fostering collaborations within research teams. The significance of major awards lies not only in the prestige they bestow but also in their function as powerful signals of academic and research excellence (Gallus & Frey, 2017). These accolades serve as markers that enhance the reputation and standing of researchers, facilitating visibility within their field (Seglen, 1992). However, the relationship between academic awards and research productivity is inconsistent. Different studies have yielded varied results regarding the impact of receiving awards on researchers' productivity and publication rates. While Zuckerman (1967) and Borjas and Doran (2015) observed a decrease in productivity following prestigious awards like the Nobel Prize and Fields Medal, Chan et al. (2014) found an increase in productivity among recipients of awards such as the Clark Medal and Econometric Society Fellowship. This inconsistency in outcomes underscores the complex interplay between recognition through awards and subsequent research output.

In my thesis, I start unpacking the multifaceted phenomenon of underrepresentation by studying how GSS are underrepresented among academic society award recipients. This chapter aims to delineate the underlying mechanisms and processes that contribute to this disparity, thereby

advancing our understanding of how cultural, social and structural factors perpetuate the marginalization of scholars from the Global South within the academic community in the context of academic awards.

To achieve this, I develop and propose a conceptual model that serves as a conceptual framework for explaining the mechanism of underrepresentation. This model is designed to capture the intricate interplay of factors—ranging from institutional biases and geopolitical inequities to the differential valuation of scholarly work—that collectively contribute to the underrepresentation of GSS in the context of academic recognition.

Moreover, this research endeavors to scrutinize academic norms and practices in a concrete and systematic manner. By doing so, I seek to explain how the criteria and standards for academic excellence, often rooted in Global North-centric paradigms, differ in their application and impact when applied to scholars from the Global South. Through this exploration, I aim to uncover the implicit biases and normative assumptions that may disadvantage GSS, despite their demonstrable contributions and scholarly excellence.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Research context and data

My aim was to explore the structural dimension of the award giving process which might have been responsible for the underrepresentation of GSS among award winners. To achieve this aim, an inductive approach is adopted. Due to the limited extant research on geographical underrepresentation in the context of academic awards, qualitative research methods are used. Qualitative methods are employed as they are more likely to provide new insights into contemporary events in a real-life context (Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2005).

The setting of this chapter is in international business and management academic conferences. The selection of this setting follows theoretical logic (Miles & Huberman, 1994), as it offers a deliberate and contextually appropriate environment to investigate the underrepresentation of GSS in the context of academic society awards. International academic conferences, organized by prestigious academic societies, serve as authentic platforms where such awards are conferred. This setting is theoretically justified due to its richness in data of authentic phenomena, providing a natural context to examine the dynamics of academic recognition and the structural factors contributing to disparities in representation. Another reason to set this study in academic conferences is that these conferences are generally organized annually, and have a definite timeline for submitting the paper, being nominated, and conferring the award. In this way, there is a higher density of observed phenomenon in this setting.

My sample was purposefully drawn from only those conferences which are organized by prestigious academic societies as source credibility is an important pre-condition of deciding the quality of awards (Ohanian, 1990). The logic of selecting award committee members or chairs for the interview from these academic conferences is that in the award bestowing process, they are in the role of gatekeepers, deciding selection and rejection of the paper. Their role is to select the best paper from an extensive list of papers. This role made them a legitimate authority to give information and share their insights into the underrepresentation of GSS.

Scholars were selected from the award committees of four conferences: AOM, Academy of International Business (AIB), EGOS (European Group of Organization Studies), and EURAM (European Academy of management). Email addresses of the award committee members and chairs were captured from the conference websites and emails were sent to them for the interview.

Participants were recruited via an email sent to the 114 award committee members or chairs. Out of 114, 16 scholars agreed for the interview.

The purpose of the study was phrased broadly to explore the causes responsible for the underrepresentation of GSS among award winners. All participants who signaled their interest were included in the study after filling out the consent form. The 16 scholars who participated had an average tenure of two years with the award committees. Out of 16 participants, 11 were predominantly from the Global North and five were predominantly from the Global South. Seven participants served on the award committee in the capacity of chair, whereas nine served in the capacity of award committee members. Participants' tenure and their designation in the award committee were triangulated from the conference websites. The interviewees' characteristics are presented in table 3.2.

Table 3. 2: Interviewee Characteristics Summary Table (N = 16)

Category	**Details**
Gender	Male: 15, Female: 1
Country of Origin	Germany (3), UK (3), USA (2), India (2), Canada (1), Israel (1), Bulgaria (1), Nigeria (1), Cyprus (1), Brazil (1)
PhD Granting Country	UK (6), USA (4), Germany (2), Canada (1), Israel (1), Belgium (1), Bulgaria (1)
Employment Country	USA (4), UK (3), Australia (3), Italy (1), Netherlands (1), Switzerland (1), Singapore (1), Canada (1), Cyprus (1)
Academic Rank	Professor: 13, Associate Professor: 1, Assistant Professor: 2
Award Committee Role	Chair: 5, Member: 11
Conference Affiliation	AOM: 9, EGOS: 2, BAM: 2, AIB: 2, EURAM: 1

Before conducting the interview, four pilot interviews were also conducted to test the questions (Malmqvist et al; 2019) and refine the interview protocol which is presented in Appendix A4. I received ethical approval of the interview protocol from Maynooth University.

The primary data were collected through in-depth, semi-structured interviews conducted between November of 2022 and June of 2023. Using semi-structured interviews as a primary data source in exploratory research is a well-established methodology (De Jonckheere & Vaughn, 2019). Given that my sample was dispersed around the globe, I conducted interviews over MS Teams. Interviews lasted for approximately 40-45 minutes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed simultaneously with prior permission of the participants. The interview was divided into three sections. The first segment of the interview was focused on gathering demographic information of the participants. The second segment was focused on exploring process-related issues in different steps of award-giving. The questions of the third segment were designed to investigate academic gatekeepers' opinions on the causes of the underrepresentation of GSS among award winners.

3.3.2 Data analysis

I adopted an inductive approach for data analysis, iteratively oscillating between the data, relevant literature, and my evolving theoretical construct. Utilizing the constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998), I systematically compared newly coded passages with previously coded ones, facilitating the identification of both recurring patterns and deviations within the data.

My analysis commenced with comprehensive open coding of interview transcripts, following the methodology outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1998). By examining each transcript line by line, I

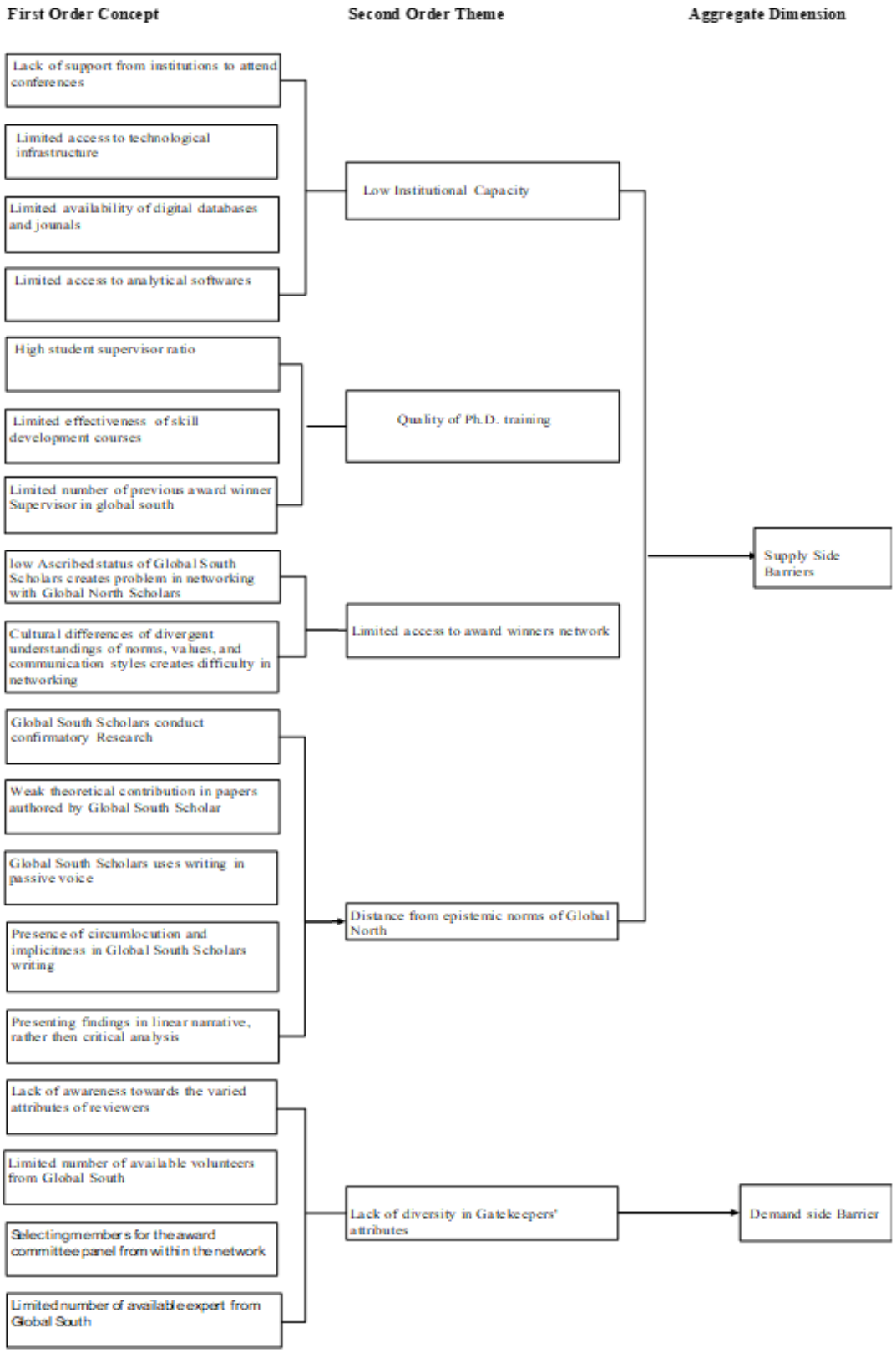
identified recurrent statements and categorized them into first-order codes as described by Locke (2001). As I advanced through the transcripts, I continuously refined my coding schemes, and at various stages, I revisited previously coded transcripts, incorporating insights from relevant literature. For instance, nearing the conclusion of the initial coding phase, I recognized that statements initially classified under the secondary themes “lack of financial resource” and “lack of education resource” could be more effectively consolidated into a singular theme, “inadequate resource for research.” This realization provided a more nuanced interpretation of the data and necessitated the recording of this set of statements.

Throughout each coding round, I undertook numerous minor iterations of code naming and grouping. These iterations involved testing the codes against the data to ensure their appropriateness, and when necessary, recording and regrouping the codes. Following a comprehensive second round of coding, I compiled a list of primary order codes. Subsequently, I revisited each transcript to document the presence of these codes within the data. This documentation was recorded on a summary sheet for each participant, thereby providing a concise overview of the coding process and its outcomes. This rigorous and iterative process ensured the validity and reliability of the coding scheme, contributing to the robustness of the overall analysis.

During the second phase of my analysis, I transitioned to axial coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In this stage, I integrated first-order codes into progressively abstract and theoretical categories. By iteratively grouping and regrouping these codes into antecedents and consequences identified in each participant's interview data, I aimed to uncover causal mechanisms (Maxwell, 2004) for underrepresentation. This analytical phase yielded a set of theoretical categories encompassing the first-order codes.

The final stage of the analysis process involved the distillation of the overarching theoretical framework that is presented in this research. I continually revisited the interview transcripts to ensure that my evolving understanding of the aggregation of theoretical categories was accurately represented in the data (Locke, 2001). The structure of the first-order concepts, second-order themes, and aggregate dimensions are summarized and depicted in Figure 3.1, providing a visual representation of my data analysis process. The analysis concluded with the construction of a model that encapsulates the causal explanation of underrepresentation of scholars from the Global South within the context of academic awards. This model serves as a tangible representation of the findings of this study.

Figure 0.3 Data structure



3.3 Findings

I am presenting the findings of my study in the framework of demand and supply side factors to explain the underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients. The demand-side perspective of underrepresentation emphasizes the biases and preferences in decision-making processes of selectors (Krook, 2010). Central elements influencing this perspective include discrimination, organizational culture, institutional policies, availability of human and social capital and stereotypes (Norris et al., 1992). Conversely, the supply-side perspective focuses on the factors influencing the participation and aspirations of underrepresented groups in specific roles (Campbell & Cowley, 2014). The two key factors that shape the supply side of underrepresentation are (1) resources, like time, money, experience, network and (2) motivation of the participants (Norris & Lovenduski, 1993).

This study identifies institutional resource inadequacies, substandard Ph.D. training quality, and networking limitations as significant supply-side barriers. These factors contribute to a disconnect between GSS and the dominant norms that define academic success and recognition. On the demand side, the lack of diversity in award committees surfaces as a major impediment, reinforcing biases that inherently favor the perspectives and contributions of GNS.

The interaction between supply-side barriers, which distance GSS from prevailing standards, and demand-side barriers, characterized by decision-makers' limited awareness of alternative norms, generates a self-perpetuating cycle of exclusion. This cycle results in the evaluation of GSS' work against criteria shaped by Global North-centric standards, marginalizing their contributions. Importantly, these dynamics are not rooted in deliberate exclusion but arise from systemic oversight and deeply ingrained structural inequities.

3.3.1 Demand side barrier

3.3.1a Lack of diversity in the award committee

Findings of my study indicate that academic societies are not aware of the importance of inclusion of GSS in award committee. The composition of academic award committees remains disproportionately skewed toward representation from the Global North, with minimal inclusion of scholars from the Global South. Gatekeepers frequently justify this imbalance by emphasizing subject-matter expertise over geographical diversity, inadvertently reinforcing exclusionary practices. As a result, the predominance of Global North committee members limits the committees' capacity to appreciate and incorporate diverse global perspectives, leading to evaluative criteria that disproportionately favor scholars from the Global North.

Interviews revealed that most gatekeepers did not perceive an explicit need to include GSS on award committees. One participant rationalized this stance, stating, *"We look for diversity, but not specifically in terms of South or North. If members are from different countries, this is also a kind of diversity"* (Gatekeeper#1). This perspective underscores a prioritization of perceived expertise, often determined within existing networks, over intentional efforts to achieve geographical representation. Another gatekeeper, also a committee chair, explained, *"I appoint people of my network who are the experts. I don't see any reason to appoint specifically somebody from the Global South. Honestly, I didn't search specifically for somebody from the Global South"* (Gatekeeper#4).

Analysis of the data suggests that the exclusion of GSS is not a deliberate act of marginalization but rather the result of systemic oversight. GSS are less visible within the academic landscape, as one gatekeeper remarked: *"I do not think there are any fellows from the Global South in Academies*

Fellowship, so it would not be possible to include them as award gatekeepers" (Gatekeeper#6). Structural constraints further exacerbate this underrepresentation, as certain academic societies designate gatekeepers ex officio, precluding any discretionary inclusion. As one participant explained, *"Composition of the committee is constitutional. It's not at our discretion. Hence there is no scope to include somebody from the Global South"* (Gatekeeper#3).

The lack of diversity among gatekeepers perpetuates a narrow and often exclusionary conception of research excellence. It fails to accommodate the specificities and innovative contributions emerging from the Global South. This dynamic is further constrained by the limited pool of eligible reviewers and gatekeepers from Global South. As a gatekeeper noted, *"Yeah, the total number of participants from the Global South is low. We need to pick reviewers from that group, so there's not much we can do about it"* (Gatekeeper#7).

Consequently, the work of GSS is often evaluated against standards that do not account for the contextual realities of their research. This misalignment not only marginalizes their contributions but also excludes potentially transformative approaches and knowledge systems that challenge the prevailing paradigms established by Global North.

3.3.2 Supply side barrier

3.3.2a Low institutional capacity

Low institutional capacity is a significant structural barrier limiting the ability of GSS to engage with and adapt to prevailing dominant academic norms. This challenge is primarily rooted in financial constraints. The scarcity of financial resources adversely affects institutional capacity in various ways, particularly by constraining technological infrastructure. In many institutions across the Global South, financial constraints result in underdeveloped technological ecosystems, which

form a substantial barrier to research excellence. As one gatekeeper observed, *"Limited access to tech stuff can really put a damper on things, you know? Like, if you're stuck with slow internet or no internet at all, it's a struggle to get anything done"* (Gatekeeper#2). In today's academic landscape, where digital resources and advanced technologies are indispensable, this lack of access places scholars in the Global South at a significant disadvantage compared to their counterparts in resource-rich regions.

Technological infrastructure is not merely a support mechanism but also a determinant of academic success. Many universities in the Global South struggle to provide even basic technological resources due to severe financial constraints. As one gatekeeper remarked, *"I'm aware that there are quite a few universities in the southern region that only have access to PROQUEST and Scopus due to budget constraints. It's a significant financial commitment for these institutions to subscribe to all available resources"* (Gatekeeper#5). Without access to cutting-edge tools and comprehensive databases, scholars are often unable to engage with contemporary academic paradigms, which diminishes their opportunities for global recognition and academic awards.

The financial limitations extend beyond institutional infrastructure to the accessibility of specialized analytical software. Software such as AMOS, STATA, and other advanced programs are often unaffordable for institutions and scholars in the Global South due to their high costs. As a result, many scholars are forced to rely on outdated software, further widening the gap in research quality. As one gatekeeper noted, *"There are plenty of new analytical software options out there, but some scholars are still clinging to SPSS. Someone should tell them to upgrade to the latest tools"* (Gatekeeper#11).

Another critical financial barrier is the prohibitive cost of participating in academic conferences, which are vital for networking, knowledge exchange, and professional development. Scholars

from the Global South face significant challenges in attending these events due to high airfare and unfavorable currency exchange rates. This issue is exacerbated by the geographic concentration of prestigious conferences in the Global North. As one gatekeeper stated, *"Man, it's tough for scholars from the Global South to hit up those conferences because our academic institutions don't have our backs with the cash. Like, they're leaving us high and dry when it comes to funding for these events"* (Gatekeeper#13).

While virtual conferences provide a partial solution, they fail to replicate the benefits of in-person attendance. Issues such as digital fatigue, the absence of informal networking opportunities, and time zone disparities undermine the effectiveness of virtual alternatives (Moss et al., 2021). These challenges further alienate GSS from global academic networks, reinforcing their marginalization.

3.3.2b Ph.D. training quality

Ph.D. programs in the Global South often lack the rigor necessary to achieve competitive academic outcomes, largely due to systemic resource constraints and disproportionately high supervisor-to-student ratios. These structural disparities create significant skill gaps, which diminish the perceived competitiveness of GSS in global academic contexts.

The differences between Ph.D. programs in the Global North and Global South are particularly pronounced with respect to curriculum rigor and the breadth of skills imparted to students. Participants in this study observed that the comparatively less demanding nature of Ph.D. curriculum in the Global South limits students' ability to attain academic excellence and global recognition. Ph.D. programs in the Global North, by contrast, are characterized by comprehensive and demanding curricula that emphasize critical thinking, methodological training, and interdisciplinary approaches. These programs expose students to diverse research methodologies,

robust theoretical frameworks, and advanced academic writing skills, equipping them to address complex research questions and actively participate in the global academic community.

In contrast, many Ph.D. programs in the Global South face persistent challenges such as inadequate funding, limited access to advanced research methodologies, and resource-constrained environments. These deficits directly impact the quality of education and research outputs. As one gatekeeper remarked, *"You can see the difference. When a Ph.D. student gets his degree from Global North Universities, they are equipped with many required skills, and they have at least one quality publication. Can you say the same for Global South? No. So, there is a huge difference"* (Gatekeeper#14).

Another critical issue is the significantly higher supervisor-to-student ratios in Global South institutions. Supervisors in these settings often oversee a disproportionately large number of students, limiting the amount of individualized guidance and mentorship they can provide. As one gatekeeper noted, *"Supervisor-student ratio is too high in Global South. Sometimes one supervisor supervises 9 to 10 students. So, it's obvious that quality suffers"* (Gatekeeper#12). This lack of personalized mentorship hinders students' ability to refine their research skills, engage in constructive academic discourse, and develop high-quality outputs. Consequently, these systemic limitations perpetuate disparities in academic preparation and recognition between Global North and GSS.

Award gatekeepers consider Ph.D. supervisors as an important driver in guiding scholars toward academic excellence and award recognition. However, in the Global South, there is a notable shortage of supervisors who have themselves received prestigious academic awards. This scarcity limits the availability of mentorship capable of navigating the complexities of the award process.

One gatekeeper explained, *"In the Global South, however, there is a significant scarcity of supervisors who have themselves received prestigious academic awards"* (Gatekeeper#3).

Award-winning supervisors possess valuable knowledge and skills, including insights on structuring manuscripts, emphasizing research contributions, and aligning with the expectations of award gatekeepers. This expertise is instrumental in mentoring students to meet the high standards required for academic awards. One gatekeeper emphasized, *"Supervisors are crucial sources of information that can be instrumental in navigating the award process. This information includes insights on how to structure a manuscript, emphasize a research contribution, and align with the expectations of specific journals"* (Gatekeeper#10). As a result, students under the mentorship of award-winning supervisors are more likely to succeed in the competitive landscape of academic awards.

The tacit knowledge that supervisors transmit, often through close mentoring relationships, is critical for preparing scholars to align their work with award committee expectations. This mentorship bridges gaps not addressed by formal education, as another gatekeeper observed, *"Supervisors who've cracked the award process can totally guide their students up with some insider tips and tricks"* (Gatekeeper#14).

3.3.2c Limited networking capital

Participants in this study highlighted that GSS often lack social capital in terms of professional networks. Although award gatekeepers strongly refuted the notion that networking directly influences the award selection process, they acknowledged its indirect significance in addressing the underrepresentation of GSS. Networking was widely perceived as critical for positioning

research effectively. As one gatekeeper remarked, *"They are not doing good research because they lack a good network who can mentor and teach them the rules of the game"* (Gatekeeper#6).

Networking is particularly important in enabling GSS to present their research in a manner that aligns with dominant norms. Without this skill, even well-conducted studies may fail to gain recognition. One participant explained, *"They were not trained to present their problem as the most important question to address. So, it would be unfortunate because they would run a reasonably well-executed study, but due to a lack of presentation skills, they don't get recognition"* (Gatekeeper#10). Networking, therefore, is viewed as a key competency that extends beyond academic expertise, fostering social visibility and enhancing the perceived impact of research. Another gatekeeper emphasized this point, stating, *"Getting an award requires social competency as well, and this goes beyond academic skills. Social networking skills are important for awards. I think it helps in crafting research that contributes to the theory and practice"* (Gatekeeper#10).

Membership in academic societies also emerged as a crucial element of networking. Active participation increases visibility, facilitating opportunities for recognition. As one respondent noted, *"Networking helps them become active members of academic societies. By becoming active members, academic societies will increase their visibility in academia, which will help get them awards"* (Gatekeeper #5). While respondents denied that networks directly influence gatekeepers, they acknowledged that networks function as a resource, indirectly aiding scholars in gaining recognition.

3.3.3 Impact of supply factors in distancing GSS from dominant academic norms

The findings of this study reveal that systemic supply-side limitations significantly contribute to the marginalization of GSS among academic award recipients. Key barriers include institutional resource inadequacies, limited access to award-winning mentors, and subpar doctoral training, all of which create a disconnect between these scholars and dominant academic norms. One of the most critical norms emphasized by award gatekeepers is the rigorous use of theory as a foundation for academic inquiry. In the Global North, theory is perceived as a dynamic tool for generating research questions and interpreting data, often leading to the refinement or creation of theoretical frameworks. In contrast, scholars from the Global South frequently adopt a confirmatory approach, treating theory as a static set of propositions to be empirically tested. As one gatekeeper remarked, *"For me, theoretical contribution is the most important thing in a paper. I am sorry to say, but GSS mostly do confirmatory research."* (Gatekeeper#8). This perceived gap in theoretical engagement diminishes the recognition of Global South Scholarship in academic rankings and awards.

Another significant supply-side challenge is the lack of alignment with established academic writing norms, which serve as benchmarks for evaluating research quality. Participants identified recurring issues such as referencing inaccuracies, incomplete data, and deviations from expected rhetorical conventions. These challenges are often traced to inadequate doctoral training, which fails to equip scholars with the necessary tools to meet global standards. One gatekeeper emphasized, *"Referencing and data quality are not trivial concerns but fundamental aspects of scholarly communication that ensure rigor and reliability."* (Gatekeeper#7). Moreover, the linguistic and cultural norms prevalent in many Global South contexts often conflict with the

writing conventions valued in Global North academia. While rhetorical styles in the Global South may favor indirectness, implicitness, and passive voice, academic writing in the Global North prioritizes directness, clarity, and explicit argumentation. This misalignment further marginalizes GSS, as their work is frequently judged against standards that do not account for regional linguistic and cultural diversity. These systemic supply-side constraints perpetuate the exclusion of GSS from recognition in global academic spaces.

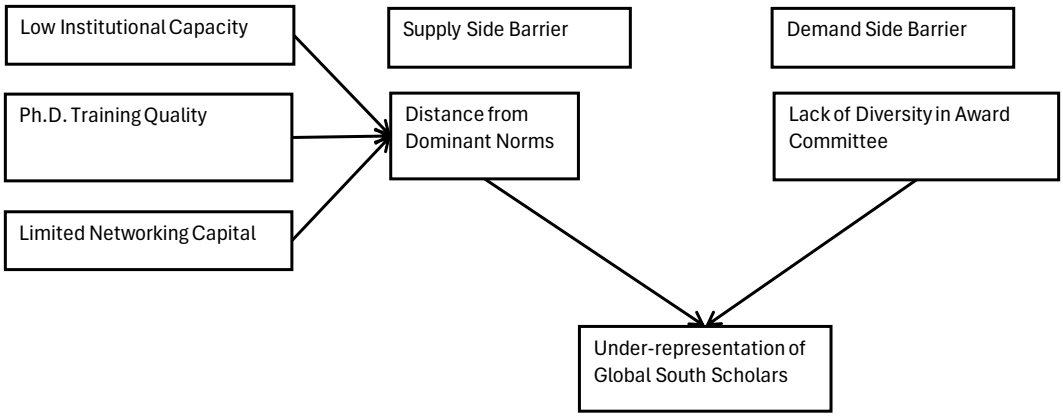
3.3.4 Interaction of demand side factor and supply side factor

The underrepresentation of GSS in academic awards stems from the interaction between their distance from dominant academic norms and demand-side barriers like evaluative biases among gatekeepers. Scholars from the Global South often approach academic work with methodologies, theoretical frameworks, and rhetorical styles that diverge from the dominant norms established by Global North institutions. This distance is shaped by systemic resource inadequacies, suboptimal doctoral training, and limited access to global academic networks, leaving their work less aligned with the expectations of gatekeepers. On the demand side, decision-makers often rely on evaluative criteria rooted in Global North-centric standards, such as theoretical rigor, critical analysis, and stylistic conventions, to assess scholarly contributions. Consequently, the divergence from these norms amplifies biases, as the work of GSS may be perceived as lacking sophistication or alignment with the "global" academic discourse, even when it holds significant contextual relevance.

This interaction creates a cycle of exclusion where distance from dominant norms and demand-side biases reinforce one another. The perceived misalignment of GSS' work with evaluative criteria not only marginalizes their contributions but also influences the composition of award committees, perpetuating a lack of representation from Global South. Without diverse gatekeeping

perspectives, these norms remain unchallenged, further disadvantaging scholars whose academic practices are shaped by local contexts and resource constraints. This cyclical dynamic ensures that the underrepresentation of GSS is both reproduced and normalized, leaving little room for structural changes that might bridge the gap between diverse scholarly traditions and the evaluative frameworks of global academia. Based on the findings as discussed above, a conceptual model of underrepresentation of Global South Scholar among academic award recipients is developed (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 0.4: A conceptual model for showing the mechanism of underrepresentation of GSS



3.4 Discussion

The findings of this study strongly align with the existing body of research on the systemic underrepresentation of GSS in academic awards and gatekeeping processes. Previous scholarship in the context of publication has highlighted how academic gatekeeping is predominantly shaped by Global North perspectives, reinforcing hegemonic power structures and marginalizing diverse viewpoints (Collyer, 2018; Connell, 2014). The study corroborates this by showing that academic gatekeepers often prioritize subject-matter expertise at the expense of geographical diversity, a phenomenon also documented by prior studies (Baccini & Re, 2024; Habibie & Hultgren, 2022;

Mählck, 2018). Notably, gatekeepers generally do not see any problems with this approach, because it aligns with the cultural perception of meritocracy as the main dominant logic of academia. The findings of this chapter show that such practices perpetuate Global North standards as the benchmark for academic excellence, further sidelining GSS.

The study also resonates with prior research on the challenges posed by low institutional capacity in the Global South. Altbach and Salmi (2011) and Teferra and Altbach (2004) have emphasized how financial constraints, inadequate research infrastructure, and limited technological access hinder the research productivity of institutions in these regions. This study builds on these insights by revealing specific challenges, such as the limited access to advanced analytical tools and the prohibitive costs of attending international conferences, which constrain the visibility and recognition of GSS.

While the alignment with existing literature is evident, this study offers a departure by framing the underrepresentation of GSS as a result of systemic oversight rather than deliberate marginalization. Previous research has often portrayed this exclusion as a deliberate act of marginalization rooted in historical and epistemological biases (e.g., Bhambra, 2014). However, the findings here suggest that structural constraints, such as the constitutional composition of committees and the limited visibility of GSS within global academic networks, inadvertently exclude these scholars. This reframing shifts the focus from intentional discrimination to the structural barriers embedded in academic systems.

Another notable deviation lies in the exploration of social and supervisory capital. While the role of networks and mentorship in academic success has been widely acknowledged (Burt, 2005; Granovetter, 1973), this study highlights the specific difficulties faced by GSS in accessing award-winning supervisors and establishing professional networks. By detailing how these limitations

impact their ability to gain recognition, the study provides a more granular understanding of the structural barriers to academic success for scholars from the Global South.

The study makes a novel contribution by integrating systemic oversight and structural barriers into the discourse on the underrepresentation of GSS, offering a nuanced perspective that goes beyond existing explanations of deliberate marginalization. This reframing introduces the concept of "systemic oversight," a lens through which to understand how entrenched structures in academic gatekeeping processes unintentionally exclude scholars from underrepresented regions.

Furthermore, the study introduces a fresh perspective on the role of academic norms as unwritten rules that dictate what is considered valid and rigorous scholarship. By connecting these norms to resource asymmetries and historical patterns of global knowledge production (Connell, 2020; Mignolo, 2014), it highlights how scholars from the Global South struggle to align their work with these norms due to differing research contexts, resource constraints, and distinct epistemological traditions. This connection provides a more comprehensive explanation of how structural inequities are perpetuated in academia.

Lastly, the detailed examination of the role of social and supervisory capital adds a new dimension to the discourse. The study explains how limited access to prominent networks and mentors—key sources of symbolic and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1988)—exacerbates the underrepresentation of GSS. By focusing on the interplay between resource disparities, gatekeeping biases, and the structural invisibility of these scholars, the study offers actionable insights for creating more inclusive academic systems.

3.5 Theoretical contributions

The findings of my study offer a more multidimensional explanation of the reasons why GSS are underrepresented among academic society award winners. Distance from norms emerges as an underlying mechanism for underrepresentation. The unique feature of this construct is that it resides at the individual level but originates at the organizational level because of the crucial influence of organizational factors, such as the quality of Ph.D. granting institutions, lack of resources to support research and limited networking opportunities provided by Global South academic institutions. These findings contribute to the theory of meritocracy in two ways: by explaining its contradiction with distributive justice and by explaining its relationship with diversity.

My findings of distance from the norms serve as a critical integrative framework that bridges structural, cultural, and individual theories of underrepresentation. The proposed concept of "Distance from the norms" extends structural theories by showing how these organizational factors (the quality of Ph.D. granting institutions, resource inadequacies, and limited networking opportunities) not only sustain systemic inequities but also cascade into individual-level disadvantages, shaping perceptions of merit and inclusion. It also illustrates how meritocratic ideals are culturally biased, rewarding those already aligned with dominant norms and penalizing those who are not. Thus, my findings bridge the cultural dimension with structural realities by demonstrating that the cultural devaluation of GSS is rooted in structural inequities, which define their distance from globally dominant academic norms. At the individual level, my findings explain why gatekeepers may favor scholars whose institutional and cultural affiliations align with their own, exacerbating the underrepresentation of GSS. By locating Distance from the Norms at the intersection of individual perceptions and organizational realities, my findings show how structural

and cultural forces manifest in individual experiences, creating a feedback loop that reinforces underrepresentation.

The first contribution addresses the inherent contradictions of meritocracy, which promote procedural justice but often results in distributive injustice (Castilla & Benard, 2010; Castilla & Poskanzer, 2022; Hellerstedt et al., 2024; Konrad et al., 2021). This study explains the gap between procedural fairness and equitable outcomes in the context of academic awards. Although these systems claim procedural justice, they fail to achieve fair outcomes, revealing systemic barriers such as resource inadequacies, training disparities, and biases among gatekeepers. These barriers perpetuate hidden inequities, as procedural norms disproportionately favor scholars with training and affiliations in the Global North. For example, the alignment of procedural standards with Global North resources and cultural norms allows these scholars to succeed more readily, while GSS are excluded—not due to a lack of merit, but because procedural justice fails to account for structural inequities. This study underscores that procedural justice, if not designed to address systemic inequalities, cannot achieve distributive justice. These findings have broader implications for theories of justice in organizational and institutional contexts, emphasizing the importance of addressing systemic barriers in defining fairness.

The second contribution of this study is that it integrates the demand side and supply side perspectives of underrepresentation. The discourse surrounding the underrepresentation of GSS is broadly categorized into two streams: one that emphasizes demand-side factors related to gatekeepers' perceptions and behaviors, and another that highlights demand side factors concerning scholars' perspectives and actions. Supply-side factors include restricted accessibility to networks (Tol, 2024; Davies et al., 2020) and inadequate research funding (Schmaling & Gallo, 2023; Larregue, & Nielsen, 2024), which significantly limit the visibility of GSS, ultimately

leading to their underrepresentation in academia. On the other hand, demand-side factors encompass the biases and perspectives of gatekeepers, which further entrench the marginalization of scholars from the Global South (Anjum & Aziz, 2024; Cerioli, 2024).

This research proposes that these factors do not operate in silos. The significant contribution of this study lies in its integration of both demand-side and supply-side factors, as well as their sequential interplay, to provide a more nuanced and comprehensive view of the underrepresentation phenomenon. This study synthesizes these two perspectives, offering an integrated framework that considers both the systematic oversight in demand-side dynamics and the resource inadequacies, networking limitation and sub-standard Ph.D. quality of supply-side experiences. By examining the interplay between these perspectives and their sequential relationship, this study provides a more nuanced and holistic understanding of the mechanisms driving underrepresentation. This integrated approach not only bridges existing gaps in literature but also offers a novel relationship between underrepresentation and dominant norms.

As a third contribution, this study advances the literature on Global North knowledge hegemony (Carrozza & Benabdallah, 2022; Marginson & Xu, 2023; Pascale, 2016). Global North knowledge hegemony refers to the dominant practices by which knowledge is produced, validated, and disseminated primarily by Western nations, often marginalizing or disregarding contributions from the Global South. These hegemonic practices result in a skewed understanding of global issues, privileging perspectives from the Global North while underrepresenting those from the Global South. Despite the pervasive impact of these practices, there has been a lack of systematic analysis in literature that delineates and examines them comprehensively.

The study addresses this gap by systematically identifying and categorizing five key components of these hegemonic practices, derived from interviews with academic gatekeepers. It critically

analyzes how these components contribute to the underrepresentation of GSS, providing a structured framework that links these hegemonic practices to broader patterns of academic exclusion. The findings underscore the theoretical significance of understanding how knowledge hegemony operates through mechanisms such as the prioritization of strong theoretical contributions, the use of active voice, the avoidance of circumlocution and ambiguity, the preference for critical analysis over linear narratives, and the emphasis on novelty in research. By presenting these insights in a systematic and critical manner, this study offers a novel contribution to the discourse on global knowledge production and its inequities.

3.6 Policy implications

In addition to explaining the mechanism of disseminating underrepresentation in academia, this chapter offers critical practical implications for decision-makers within academic societies and professional organizations. The first major implication pertains to the composition of award committees within these societies. The study highlights the necessity of including scholars from the Global South in these committees, a step that is essential for enhancing their representation in academic awards. By diversifying the membership of award committees, these societies can broaden the range of theoretical, methodological and stylistic approaches considered, thereby ensuring that the unique contributions of GSS are recognized and valued.

This paper identifies that financial constraints, networking limitations and substandard quality of Ph.D. are the main supply side barriers that create distances from the dominant norms. The study urges academic organizations and societies to establish funding mechanisms to support scholars from the Global South. These mechanisms should prioritize equitable access to resources such as grants, fellowships, and scholarships, ensuring that early-career researchers are empowered to

compete on an equal footing with their Global North counterparts. Programs aimed at capacity building should focus on providing training in academic publishing, grant writing, and leadership for GSS to enhance their participation in competitive academic platforms.

Academic societies should also take initiatives to establish high-impact academic journals in the Global South, allowing regional scholars to publish their work with their own academic norms. Strengthening regional publication networks would counter the hegemony of Global North norms and make the academic world multipolar. It will expand criteria for excellence and will include local impact, community engagement, and contributions to regional development, which are often overlooked in prevailing excellence metrics.

By implementing these recommendations, academic societies and professional bodies can play a pivotal role in dismantling the systemic barriers that contribute to the underrepresentation of GSS. This, in turn, will promote a more diverse and globally representative academic community, where excellence is recognized across all geographical and cultural contexts.

3.7 Limitations and directions for future research

As with any attempt to develop theory inductively from data collected at academic conferences, this study faces challenges related to generalizability. While the insights gained are valuable, they may not fully capture the broader dynamics of academic awards, which are also granted by academic journals and government organizations. Ideally, interviews would have included gatekeepers from these additional contexts to provide a more comprehensive perspective. The extent to which the findings of this study can be applied to other settings remains an open question, necessitating further research to assess their broader applicability.

A related consideration is that while I identified academic gatekeepers at conferences as the most theoretically appropriate respondents for our research question, we recognized them as the primary authorities in making award decisions. Consequently, we did not include award winners, non-winners, finalists, or other conference participants in our study, as they were viewed as passive agents in the award process. Future research would benefit from capturing the perspectives of these additional populations to both complement and validate the findings of this study.

As is common in research, this study raises at least as many questions as it answers. One particularly important area for future investigation is to empirically test whether increasing the representation of GSS in award gatekeeping and reviewing roles leads to greater representation among academic awards recipients. Another promising avenue for research is a comparative analysis of the perceived capabilities of different categories of GSS. Specifically, it would be valuable to explore whether those who are affiliated with Global North institutions for their education or employment are perceived differently from those who remain affiliated with Global South institutions. Additionally, examining the experiences of scholars who have studied at Global North institutions but are employed in the Global South and vice versa could provide further insights into these dynamics.

This study has documented how inadequate resources for research and networking results in distance from dominant academic norms for GSS. However, this analysis is limited to conferences associated with Global North. A fruitful direction for future research would be to examine gatekeepers from conferences in the Global South, as well as to consider disciplinary variations in conference practices. Moreover, exploring the role of international conferences, workshops, and joint research projects in fostering cross-regional collaboration is critical to understanding how these activities can bridge the gaps in representation.

In addition, it is essential to consider intersectional factors such as gender and socioeconomic status in the pursuit of academic awards. How these factors intersect with regional disparities in academia warrants closer examination. For instance, it is important to investigate whether gender disparities are more pronounced for women scholars from the Global South in the context of academic awards. In sum, future research should aim to explore and propose evidence-based solutions, and advocate for a more inclusive and equitable academic landscape.

Chapter 4

4.1 Introduction

There has been a significant rise in scholarly focus on the biases against GSS and these scholars' limited presence in various facets of the academic realm (Gray & Gills, 2016; Horner & Nadvi, 2018). This heightened focus is in response to the growing demand for equality, diversity, and inclusion in academic landscape (Haug et al., 2021). GSS have garnered interest due to the belief that they face disadvantages compared to their Global North counterparts (Collyer, 2018). Moreover, the distinctive characteristics of GSS, including their unique epistemology, ontology, and methodology, highlight the importance of their inclusion in academia to promote diversity (Connell et al., 2022). The inclusion and representation of GSS are crucial for advancing meaningful and impactful scholarships. This significance arises from their cultural connections and geographical locations, which enable them to provide insights into organizational realities of Global South (D'Cruz et al., 2022). Their perspectives and research findings contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the world, encompassing diverse contexts and experiences and furthering knowledge development.

A major challenge in promoting the inclusion of GSS lies in the lack of clarity regarding the criteria that define them. In the existing literature, GSS have been defined based on their employment affiliation in Global South (Hedding & Breetzke, 2021; Cummings & Hoebink, 2017). Despite early critiques of this conceptualization, such as those by Altman and Laguecir (2012), it persists in contemporary research. For instance, Hedding and Breetzke (2021) applied this conceptualization when examining the underrepresentation of GSS on editorial boards, while others used it to analyze publishing patterns (Bai, 2018; Cummings & Hoebink, 2017). The

continued reliance on this method is often justified by the belief that scientific capital is linked to institutional affiliation rather than an individual's origin (Demeter, 2020). I argue that the classification of GSS based solely on employment affiliation is increasingly problematic due to three factors. First, the argument that scientific capital is solely linked to employment affiliation ignores the rich and diverse cultural capital that scholars from the Global South bring. Second, growing mobility within the global academic workforce has decoupled employment affiliation from an individual's nationality, cultural background, or country of origin. Consequently, many academics at Global North institutions are nationals of Global South countries, and vice versa, raising concerns about the validity of using employment affiliation as a proxy for categorization. Third, scholars originated from the Global South face significant structural biases, even when employed at Global North institutions (Badejo, 2022). The structural effects of scholars' origin influence their status within the global academic landscape (Fry & MacGarvie, 2024). Therefore, I argue that there is a need to treat the concept of GSS as more complex than hitherto.

The ambiguity surrounding the identification of GSS significantly impacts policymakers and researchers, influencing them in two distinct ways. Firstly, decision-makers tend to prioritize individuals who can be unequivocally identified as GSS, aligning with their goals of promoting diversity and inclusion. Consequently, their efforts are primarily directed toward a limited subset of GSS. As a result, their policy frameworks tend to be shaped by the characteristics and expertise of these particular scholars, potentially overlooking valuable perspectives and contributions from other types of GSS. Focusing on a narrower subset of GSS inadvertently leads to an incomplete representation and understanding of the diverse range of scholars and their challenges. Thus, the ambiguity surrounding the identification of GSS affects policymakers and decision-makers by driving them to prioritize the specific inclusion of a limited subset of GSS and by influencing their

policy frameworks to focus on a specific type of GSS potentially excluding other underrepresented and marginalized groups.

Second, the ambiguity surrounding the identity of GSS also poses challenges for researchers—the lack of clear boundaries for the term GSS hinders testing existing theories related to their underrepresentation and marginalization. Without being able to specify which types of GSS proposed theory should apply, it becomes difficult to evaluate and validate these theories. For instance, should theories developed while studying scholars of Global South origin affiliated with institutions in the Global South also be applied to scholars of the same origin affiliated with Global North institutions? Does the affiliation of GSS with Global North institutions mean they are no longer considered GSS? Conversely, does it imply that GSS located in the Global South are more marginalized than commonly assumed?

My thesis examines the underrepresentation of GSS in the context of academic awards conferred by scholarly societies. This chapter addresses the ambiguity surrounding the construct 'GSS'. The ambiguity in defining 'GSS' arises primarily from two factors. Firstly, existing literature often relies solely on employment affiliation with Global South institutions to identify such scholars. This approach is inadequate, as it neglects the intricate interactions of cultural capital, systemic barriers, and individual backgrounds. Secondly, the assumption of homogeneity within the Global South scholar population is flawed. In reality, this group is heterogenous, with scholars associated with two main institutions—such as their PhD-granting and current employment institutions—resulting in inconsistent categorical statuses. In these premises, I am addressing the ambiguity in the definition of GSS in two steps. In the first step, based on ascribed status theory, I argue that a scholar’s country of origin should serve as a fundamental criterion for distinguishing GSS from their Global North counterparts (Badejo et al., 2023; Ghosn, 2023). In second step, I am proposing

a systematic classification of GSS based on geographical location of Ph.D.-granting institutions and employment affiliations.

4.2 Context of the study

The focus of this thesis is on the "Best Paper" awards granted during academic conferences organized by academic societies. It has been argued that the current process for selecting award recipients fails to promote transparency, inclusivity, and openness in science (Lagisz et al., 2024). According to Lagisz et al. (2024), the process lacks sufficient details regarding who is recognized (with respect to gender and country affiliation), how (through clear policies and procedures), and why (based on explicit criteria). Although the existing literature on this issue is sparse and often limited in scope, the findings from discipline-specific investigations raise significant concerns. For instance, studies in computer science (Ghobady & Robey, 2017) and ecology and evolution (Lagisz et al., 2023) have pointed to opaque award criteria and decision-making processes. In the field of economics, Mixon et al. (2022) reported that a majority of award recipients are linked to institutions in the United States. In some fields of business research, particularly among those honored for advancing women's enterprise development, awardees were more frequently associated with institutions based in the United Kingdom and Canada (Weeks & Duffy, 2011). In the fields of ecology and evolution, awards aimed at early- and mid-career researchers rarely consider equitable eligibility and assessment criteria (Lagisz et al., 2023). Lack of transparency around the award policies and processes can act as an insidious form of gatekeeping, which may inadvertently enable biases via personal preferences and connections (ACOLA, 2023). These award policies can reinforce biases that favor scholars from well-resourced Global North institutions while disadvantaging those from underrepresented backgrounds, particularly from the Global South.

In management academia, leading academic societies, including AOM, AIB, EURAM, EGOS, and SMS, employ rigorous protocols for bestowing Best Paper Awards.

The AOM and AIB emphasize impartiality through a double-blind review process for all award submissions, ensuring that neither reviewers nor authors have knowledge of each other's identities. This practice seeks to mitigate potential biases and allow for an objective assessment of scholarly merit. At EURAM, the award process is similarly rigorous, with each Strategic interest group selecting a single paper for final evaluation. These submissions are then reviewed by a dedicated committee that assigns scores from 1 to 10, based on robust criteria including theoretical and empirical contributions, methodological rigor, relevance, clarity, and potential social impact. This structured scoring approach facilitates comparability and fairness in recognizing impactful research. However, in EGOS, sub-theme convenors are tasked with nominating a maximum of one paper for Best Paper awards from the full papers submitted within their respective sub-theme. This process is not double blind, as convenors know the names of the authors.

The award procedures in these societies also vary regarding self-nomination practices. For instance, some AOM divisions permit optional self-nominations; however, double blind peer review by track reviewers is generally the standard practice, minimizing direct self-nomination. In such cases, nominators, typically program or track chairs, review a compilation of peer-reviewed submissions to identify potential awardees. Although nominators may have access to author information in specific cases, such as named nominations in symposia or awards for Organizational Behavior (OB) at AOM, this information is largely concealed in conference submissions.

Final award decisions remain largely impartial, with award committees typically conducting evaluations without knowledge of the authors' identities. Research committee chairs play a pivotal role in ensuring that the blind review process is adhered to, promoting transparency and fairness

in award distribution. By enforcing these rigorous practices, these organizations seek to maintain the academic integrity of their award processes, fostering an equitable platform for scholars worldwide to be recognized on the basis of scholarly excellence. However, the question remains whether, even in the context of double-blind peer review, the scholarship produced by researchers from Global South can be identified by reviewers and assessed differently than scholarship produced by their peers in Global North.

4.3 Conceptualization of GSS

For this research, I propose that GSS should primarily be conceptualized on the basis of their country of origin. This approach is particularly relevant given the research setting of this study, which explores diversity and inclusion in the context of academic awards. In this domain, country of origin is recognized as a primary source of differentiation and, unfortunately, discrimination (Andre & Dronkers, 2017). Scholars' country of origin is a primary marker of their categorical status. Zhao & Zhou (2011) argue that country of origin has lasting implications for how individuals are perceived and treated. There is empirical evidence of biases in hiring on the basis of a candidate's country of origin (Arseneault, & Roulin, 2024, Derous et al., 2012; Petersen & Dietz, 2005; Veit & Thijsen, 2021). A wealth of research corroborates this, indicating that country of origin is a significant source of bias in peer evaluations (Tavoletti et al., 2022). There is also evidence of this bias in the academic landscape. Biases based on the country-of-origin manifests in other forms also. For example, despite the notable rise in scientific output in China since the 1990s, reports of fraudulent science and misconduct have been highly publicized, damaging the global reputation of Chinese scientists (Hvistendahl 2013). This became a source of anxiety among Chinese scholars. Zhang (2021, p.9) quotes a Chinese geneticist who was concerned about how the creation of human-rabbit embryos "had been turned into an emblem of China's 'barbarian

biology' and how regional and institutional differences in policy enforcement are ignored abroad. These broad- brush views have damaged Chinese scientists' chances of publication, collaboration, and fellowships". Quantitative evidence also shows that papers by East Asian–named authors are significantly less likely to be accepted at a top journal (Peng et al., 2021).

The systemic inequalities between the Global North and Global South persist even when scholars from the Global South are affiliated with Global North institutions, demonstrating that employment affiliation alone is insufficient to overcome origin-based biases. Fry and MacGarvie (2024) show that U.S.-affiliated preprints authored by teams with Asian-ethnicity names receive significantly less attention compared to those without such teams, underscoring this bias. Similarly, Hofstra et al. (2020) found that minority PhD holders, even from Global North countries, often have their contributions overlooked, preventing them from advancing to influential academic positions. GSS employed in Global North face heightened scrutiny, underrepresentation, and exclusion from professional and social networks. They are frequently denied career progression opportunities, receive lower compensation, and are exploited as tokens in their institutions (Minefee et al., 2018; Settles et al., 2019). These scholars remain marginalized despite their employment in high-status institutions. These types of evidence suggest that biases based on country of origin override institutional affiliations in determining scholarly recognition.

Country of origin has served as a cornerstone for cross-cultural comparisons in international business and management for over half a century (e.g., Haire et al., 1966; Schooler, 1965). It underpins all major cross-cultural theories in the field, including those of Hofstede (1981, 1991), Schwartz (1994, 1999), and the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) project (Dorfman et al., 2012).

Recent conceptual literature supports this perspective. Chagas-Bastos et al. (2023) argue that scholars should be identified based on their country of origin irrespective of their current institutional affiliations. Similarly, Badejo et al. (2022) define a Global South scholar as someone indigenous to a foreign country, originating from the emerging economies of the Global South, and identifying as a person of color with a distinct cultural and linguistic background. These definitions reinforce the notion that a scholar's country of origin is not merely a peripheral detail but a foundational criterion for identifying GSS. Based on these premises, the typology of GSS developed in this chapter uses the country of origin as a fundamental classification criterion.

4.4 Typology of GSS

I propose the typology of GSS in the context of their underrepresentation among the academic award recipients. This typology is grounded in their institutional affiliations, specifically focusing on the location of their Ph.D. granting institutions and their employment affiliations. My qualitative research identified that underrepresentation of Global South Scholar among academic award recipients is driven by disparities in Ph.D. training, access to resources, awareness of dominant academic norms, and institutional resources. Awareness of dominant norms and resource availability are closely tied to the prestige of the Ph.D.-granting institution and employment affiliation; hence I am choosing these two bases for developing the typology. I am not including networking as a base for developing typology as it represents an individual-centered, fluid construct. In contrast, Ph.D.-granting institutions and employment affiliations are organizational-centered constructs and provide more stable and structured bases for typology.

There are three other reasons to select these bases for developing the typology. First, all scholars, irrespective of origin, are necessarily linked to both a Ph.D. institution and an employment

affiliation, making these metrics universal for comparison across academia. Second, these two institutions are formal institutions, with established rules and norms. These formal institutions constitute and define an established order that governs behavior and enforces academic norms and cultural standards, influencing their academic trajectories (Tolbert & Zucker, 1996). Prestige and institutional culture play a role in shaping scholars' ability to conform to or challenge academic norms, directly impacting their success and visibility in academia. Third, these two formal institutions provide scholars with access to resources, mentorship, and visibility, which influences their career prospects and academic success, reinforcing the importance of institutional affiliation in predicting scholarly achievement (Ejermo & Sofer, 2024; Hottenrott & Lawson, 2022; Long et al., 1998; Long et al., 2009; Williamson & Cable, 2003)

In extant literature, institutions are considered as indispensable bases for status orders by providing shared value and meanings, setting evaluation criteria, and stratifying actors (Durkheim and Mauss, 1963; Zhou, 2005). In particular institutionalized categories in a classification system embody social values, formalize social boundaries, and create status hierarchies. Institutional categorization defines actors as "similar to or different from, as 'better' or 'worse' than members of other groups" (Tajfel & Turner, 2003, p.16). Zhao and Zhou (2011) conceptualized this type of status based on institutional classification as categorical status. Embodying social values and beliefs, institutionalized categorisations (e.g., gender, race) legitimate claims to deference and specify which group is entitled to a higher social status. Although such group-based categorical status usually does not require demonstration of an individual's special quality performance, it influences the social perception and evaluation of the focal actor (Corell and Ridgeway, 2003). In the marketplace, categorical status based on institutionalized classification system affects product evaluation (Zhao & Zhou, 2011). Based on these theoretical premises, below I offer a detailed

discussion of each of these institutional affiliations and their influence on the scholar's status within the academic community.

4.5 Ph.D. granting institution

Existing literature highlights Ph.D.-granting institutions as a significant dimension of status of GSS. In the realm of academia, the reputation of the university from which an individual obtains their Ph.D. significantly influences the trajectory of their professional journey (Bedeian et al., 2010). The level of prestige associated with the institution where a doctoral degree is earned directly impacts the esteem of the graduate's initial academic placement (Mihut, 2022). Extensive examinations of the networks involved in faculty recruitment, which depict the relationships between those who hire graduates as faculty members, undeniably reveal that esteemed departments disproportionately contribute to the pool of faculty members across various disciplines (Wapman et al., 2022). These renowned universities generate valuable resources for their students in terms of imparting superior training, positioning and status (Hirsch, 1976). Consequently, there is a widespread and persistent demand for enrollment in these prestigious academic institutions in order to access these advantageous positions (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012).

Nonetheless, empirical findings provide indications that, when considering institutions ranked below the upper echelon, the prominence of the institutional brand carries diminished significance compared to the reputation of the nation on a broader scale (Marginson, 2006). For prospective students hailing from Global South, their determinants in selecting a study destination, in descending order of importance, encompass the country of study (constituting 54 percent), the specific academic program (comprising 18 percent), the educational institution itself (comprising 17 percent), and the urban locale (amounting to 10 percent) (OECD, 2004a). Within the academic

milieu, an observable trend has emerged, where the perceived quality of higher education is intricately linked to the overall standing of education within a particular nation, as opposed to the singular standing of an individual academic institution (OECD, 2004b). Consequently, in the context of higher education, stakeholders invested in the realm of academia tend to stratify nationalities, rather than individual institutions, into distinct echelons of reputation (Marginson, 2006). Guided by these foundational premises, I posit that even universities situated within the Global North that may not hold exceedingly high ranks, still command a greater degree of prestige than any university within the Global South. This assertion stems from the overarching tendency for assessments of quality by academic stakeholders to be predominantly shaped by perceptions of the nation itself, rather than being confined to the evaluation of a specific educational institution.

GSS graduated from Global North universities are commonly perceived as possessing superior training and greater expertise in comparison to those GSS who have earned their degree from the Global South (Montal et al., 2022). Marginson (2006, p.24) aptly captures this phenomenon by stating, "For individuals with foreign degrees returning to their home countries such as Thailand or Tajikistan, degrees obtained from reputable foreign institutions inherently carry significant positional value." Further supporting this notion, Muller et al. (2018) demonstrated the existence of a systematic correlation between the location of one's PhD training and the perceived quality of a researcher's scholarly contributions as evaluated by their fellow peers.

Recent times have witnessed a subgroup of scholars from the Global South who exhibit positive deviance by surpassing the academic achievements of their counterparts from the Global North (Albanna et al., 2021). Intriguingly, a noteworthy majority of these exceptional individuals have acquired their education within North American, British, and European institutions (Oztig, 2022). Montal et al. (2022) have discerned that individuals from the Global South who pursued their

educational endeavors in countries of the Global North possess an enhanced likelihood of achieving publication success compared to their counterparts who undertook their studies within the Global South. This advantage emerges due to the exposure of these scholars to prevalent norms and valuable insights during their graduate training. While the notion that high-impact journals serve as the anticipated venues for disseminating research remains largely unquestioned within academic circles of the Global North, such a norm does not universally prevail within the Global South (Breuning et al., 2018). In addition to this, the transmission of norms and knowledge travels through professional networks. Scholars originating from the Global South who have completed their Ph.D. studies within universities of the Global North are able to amass social capital within the Global North, thereby benefiting from the dissemination of these established norms and valuable information facilitated by the channels of professional networking (Metz & Jäckle, 2017).

The available empirical evidence implies that scientific communities within the Global South exhibit segmentation. Within this context, a distinct subgroup of scholars from the Global South who have obtained their doctoral degrees from institutions situated in the Global North enjoy high status compared to their counterparts. These scholars possess the capability to engage with higher-impact journals, hold authoritative positions through gatekeeping roles, and garner greater visibility within the academic realm. As a result, we contend that GSS can be categorized into two distinct types based on their educational background: those who were educated within the Global South and those who pursued their studies within the Global North. While both segments originate from the Global South, they diverge significantly in terms of their status.

4.6 Employment affiliation

Employment affiliation of a scholar refers to the academic, research, or professional institutions to which the scholar is affiliated. Scholars utilize their employment affiliation to define their self-concepts (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). As individuals are motivated by self-enhancement needs, they tend to identify with institutions that confer positive qualities upon them (Dutton et al., 1994). Theoretically, the relationship between prestige and affiliation is well-established in the social identity literature. According to the social identity literature, the greater the prestige of the institution, the more likely the individual is to identify with the institution because the connection with the institution enhances their self-esteem (Smidts et al., 2001). That is, being a member of an institution that has positive, socially valued characteristics leads people to believe they share those positive, socially valued characteristics (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). Therefore, people identify with prestigious institutions as a means of gaining personal status (March & Simon, 1958). Empirical research has shown that prestige is linked to stronger identification with institutions (Dukerich et al., 2002; Smidts et al., 2001; Wan-Huggins et al., 1998).

In the academic landscape, employment affiliation establishes the credibility and trustworthiness of the research. Affiliations with top institutions add weight to the author's work and indicate a higher level of expertise and academic rigor (Sverdlichenko et al., 2022). At the macro level, descriptive studies observe a noticeable skew of published research toward high-income countries (HICs) and institutions of significant scientific repute (Maggio et al., 2021). Indeed, a Global North-South research gap still exists, with most scientific contributions originating from the U.S, the UK, Canada, and Australia (Cash-Gibson et al., 2018) and a remarkably high spatial concentration of scientific activity in Europe (Bornman et al., 2014). North America and Europe receive 42.3% and 35.3% of the world's citations, respectively, while the total contribution of the

world's citations from Africa and South America is lower than 5% (Pan et al., 2018). Citation counts increase exponentially with increasing gross domestic product (GDP) (Tahamtan & Bornman, 2019). Although this may be due to scientific capability, research production, and the quality of research, it is possible that research from low-and-middle-income country (LMIC) contexts is being discounted prematurely and unfairly due to a bias against the country from which the research originates. Many argue that a significant portion of the world is being overlooked when it comes to scientific contributions (Pan et al., 2018; Keiser et al., 2004). Bias may occur at any stage in the review and publication process (Haffar, 2019).

Heuristics, or mental shortcuts, offer a possible explanation for this skew of scientific research (Siler et al., 2015). Research articles possess intrinsic and extrinsic cues as to their quality (Godey et al., 2012). Internal cues are attributes that cannot be changed, such as research methods (Godey et al., 2012). The quality may be judged, for example, by adherence to the stated methods and the strength of the evidence in research, i.e., by its internal validity. External cues are informal stimuli that may be used, even unwittingly, to make judgments about a given research article, most notably as it relates to its quality (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). In such scenarios, country development status, an external cue, is used to infer product quality. High income countries evoke an image of technologically advanced societies, and in the consumer's mind, this technological advancement is necessary to produce high-quality goods. Conversely, certain consumers associate products from low- and medium-income group countries with poorer quality, increased risk of bad performance, and dissatisfaction, due to the lower degree of economic development (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). If research articles are considered a product, albeit an intellectual one, it is possible that an author's affiliation effect may affect the perception of reviewers.

Peters and Ceci's (1982) experiment to test the impact of employment affiliation in peer review process was the first to highlight this issue. By altering the authorship of 12 research papers to fictional or unknown institutions, they found that only one of the 12 papers resubmitted to the same journals that had previously published them a few years earlier was accepted for publication (Peters & Ceci, 1982). Peters and Ceci's (1982) experiment highlights the bias towards the prestige of employment affiliation. Similar to how the origin of a product can impact a consumer's decision to buy it, the geographical location of the author's affiliated institution in a scientific manuscript might sway a reviewer's or reader's perception of the research. Extrinsic cues, such as author's employment affiliation may guide the decision-making process. Studies have found that unconscious bias against research from Low- and Middle-income Countries is prevalent (Harris et al., 2017). Recently, McGillivray & De Ranieri (2018) found that articles submitted to Nature journals were less likely to progress through the publication process if the authors were from low-prestige institutions. Studies examining citation counts show that publication and citation frequency are skewed toward High income countries. Skopec et al. (2020) found that the prevalence of bias towards the geographical location of employment affiliation plays a role in this skewness. Due to geographic bias, consumers of research (whether editors, peer reviewers, or readers) tend to judge the research on its external cues as opposed to, the relevance or quality of the research (Skopec et al., 2020).

The perpetuation of geographic bias towards location of employment in the evaluation of scholarly work amplifies pre-existing disadvantages encountered by scholars from the Global South. This, in turn, exacerbates challenges pertaining to the augmentation of publication portfolios, securing research grants, attaining accolades, and accruing citations for this cohort. Notably, GSS linked with institutions in the Global North exhibit acceptance rates for publication that approximate

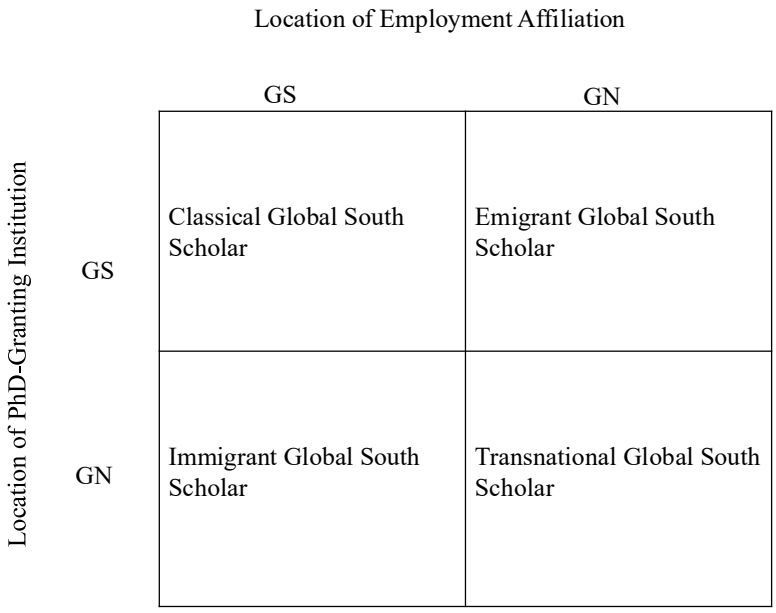
those of their US-based counterparts (Breuning et al., 2018). This phenomenon underscores a nuanced aspect: GSS affiliated with institutions in the Global North appear to encounter distinct advantages vis-à-vis their compatriots operating within their domestic spheres. This pattern indicates underlying disparities in resource allocation, research avenues, and professional networking. Hence, predicated on the prism of employment affiliation, GSS can be bifurcated into two discernible subsets: firstly, those affiliated with institutions within the Global South, and secondly, those affiliated with institutions in the Global North.

4.7 Development of typology

Building upon the interplay of the two aforementioned factors, the geographical location of the institution conferring the Ph.D. and the location of the scholar's employment affiliation, I propose a typology that categorizes GSS into four distinct types. At the core of this classification lies the scholar's country of origin, which serves as the fundamental characteristic differentiating GSS from their Global North counterparts.

The proposed typology recognizes that while the country of origin is the defining core element, the geographical locations of the Ph.D. granting institution and employment affiliation are two important dimensions of social identity of a Global South Scholar which generates differential status to the scholars. These dimensions allow for a nuanced categorization of GSS, acknowledging that their scholarly experiences and recognition may vary depending on where they have been educated and where they are currently employed. This framework (see Figure 4.1) is intended to facilitate a more precise and meaningful discussion about the underrepresentation of GSS in global academic awards, by capturing the diversity within this group and the multifaceted nature of their academic experiences.

Figure 0.1: Typology of GSS



- *Classic Global South Scholar (Classical GSS):* Scholars whose Ph.D.-granting and employment institutions are both located in Global South.
- *Immigrant Global South Scholar (Immigrant GSS):* Scholars from the Global South who attain their Ph.D. degrees from institutions in the Global North and are employed in the Global South.
- *Emigrant Global South Scholar (Emigrant GSS):* Scholars who obtain their Ph.D. degrees from institutions in the Global South and are employed in Global North.
- *Transnational Global South Scholar (Transnational GSS):* Scholars from Global South whose Ph.D.-granting and employment institutions are both located in Global North.

4.8 Types of Global South Scholar and their differential representation

I argue that the four distinct subgroups of GSS experience varying degrees of underrepresentation among academic award recipients. This argument is grounded in the theory of status inconsistency. The concept of status inconsistency originates from the Weberian approach to social stratification. Unlike unidimensional theories, such as Marx's focus on the relationship to the means of production as the determinant of social class, Weber's (1946) perspective acknowledges multiple dimensions of stratification within society that are only partially correlated. This implies that individuals may hold inconsistent positions across different social hierarchies, ranking high in one dimension while being lower in another. Such individuals experience status inconsistency.

However, it was not until the work of Gerhard Lenski in the 1950s that sociological interest in status inconsistency gained momentum. Lenski proposed that status inconsistency, initially framed as low crystallization of status, leads to psychological stress, social isolation, and liberal political attitudes. He urged sociologists to consider not only vertical hierarchies but also the non-vertical aspects of social stratification. His empirical work supported the connection between status inconsistency, social participation, and political attitudes (Lenski, 1956).

A few seminal studies have further explored the consequences of status multiplicity, examining how multiple hierarchies emerge from different external constituencies (D'Aveni, 1996). Dominance in primary versus complementary roles in social interactions (Bothner, Kim, & Lee, 2015), various status signals associated with products (Zhao & Zhou, 2011), and membership in multiple horizontal market categories (Jensen, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Wang & Jensen, 2019) were the main source of status multiplicity of a product. A key finding in the literature is that individuals generally prefer consistency in their status positions (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944), and status

inconsistency can induce cognitive stress, prompting individuals to adopt attitudes and behaviors aimed at altering the status quo (Stryker & Macke, 1978).

Several scholars, such as Kovács and Liu (2016) and McMahan and Shor (2024), have utilized the term "status multiplicity" to describe situations where an actor's status fluctuates across different audiences. However, Jensen and Wang (2018) contend that "status inconsistency" is a more precise concept, as it reflects unequal rankings across various dimensions of status. In contrast, "status multiplicity" may suggest uniformly high status across multiple contexts. For example, a firm that enjoys high status in three distinct markets exhibits status multiplicity, but not status inconsistency. In line with this argument, I also adopt the term "status inconsistency" for greater conceptual clarity.

4.9 Testing representation of sub-groups of GSS

Research demonstrates that scholars from the Global South face systemic biases in the global academic community, where their work is often undervalued or overlooked due to their national or regional origins (Hofstra et al., 2020). I am arguing that these biases are especially pronounced when scholars' educational and employment affiliations are also tied to the Global South, reinforcing perceptions of intellectual inferiority. Classical GSS are particularly disadvantaged because all three dimensions, country of origin, education, employment, and signal lower status. Scholars trained at institutions in the Global South often carry a mark of lower prestige due to their affiliation with less-resourced, lower-ranked universities (Bedeian et al., 2010). They are often perceived as lacking the same intellectual rigor as scholars from the Global North (Melin, 2000).

My foundational argument is that the status consistency of Classical GSS made them the most underrepresented group among award recipients. The justification for this is that alignment among

various status indicators reinforces each other, augmenting overall status whatever it is. Drawing on the theoretical framework of status consistency, I am arguing that the alignment of low status across the key academic dimensions — country of origin, Ph.D. affiliation, and employment affiliation — creates a cumulative disadvantage, leading to the highest level of underrepresentation for Classical GSS among academic awards recipients. Hence my first hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 1: Classical GSS, characterized by consistent low status across their country of origin, Ph.D. training, and employment affiliation, are the most underrepresented subgroup among academic award recipients compared to other Global South Scholar subgroups.

Unlike Classical GSS, Emigrant GSS experience status inconsistency. While their employment affiliations enhance their perceived status, their country of origin and the institution from which they obtained their Ph.D. contribute to a lower status. This incongruity complicates how they are perceived, as interlocutors cannot easily categorize them as their status markers are inconsistent. Research by Benjamin & Podolny (1999) demonstrates that the status of an actor's affiliates positively impacts the rewards they receive, further enhancing returns on prior quality achievements. Similarly, higher-status affiliations are associated with an increased likelihood of producing high-quality outputs (Piazza & Castellucci, 2014). Qualitative findings from chapter three of this research suggest that Ph.D. affiliation plays a comparatively more important role in disseminating dominant academic norms than any other factor in attaining zero-sum excellence. Accordingly, I argue that Emigrant GSS will be more represented than Classical GSS, among the academic award recipients. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 2: Emigrant GSS exhibits higher representation among academic award recipients compared to Classical GSS.

Similar to Emigrant GSS, Immigrant GSS also experience status inconsistency. Their Ph.D. affiliation from Global North institution confers them elevated academic status, while their employment affiliation and country of origin are linked to lower status, thereby generating status inconsistency. Findings from the qualitative component of this research emphasize the critical role that the location of the Ph.D.-granting institution plays in securing zero-sum excellence, where competitive advantage is sharply defined. Given that Immigrant GSS benefit from the status conferred by their Global North Ph.D. training, I argue that Immigrant GSS, whose PhD equips them with superior skills, will be more prominently represented in academic awards compared to both Classical and Emigrant GSS.

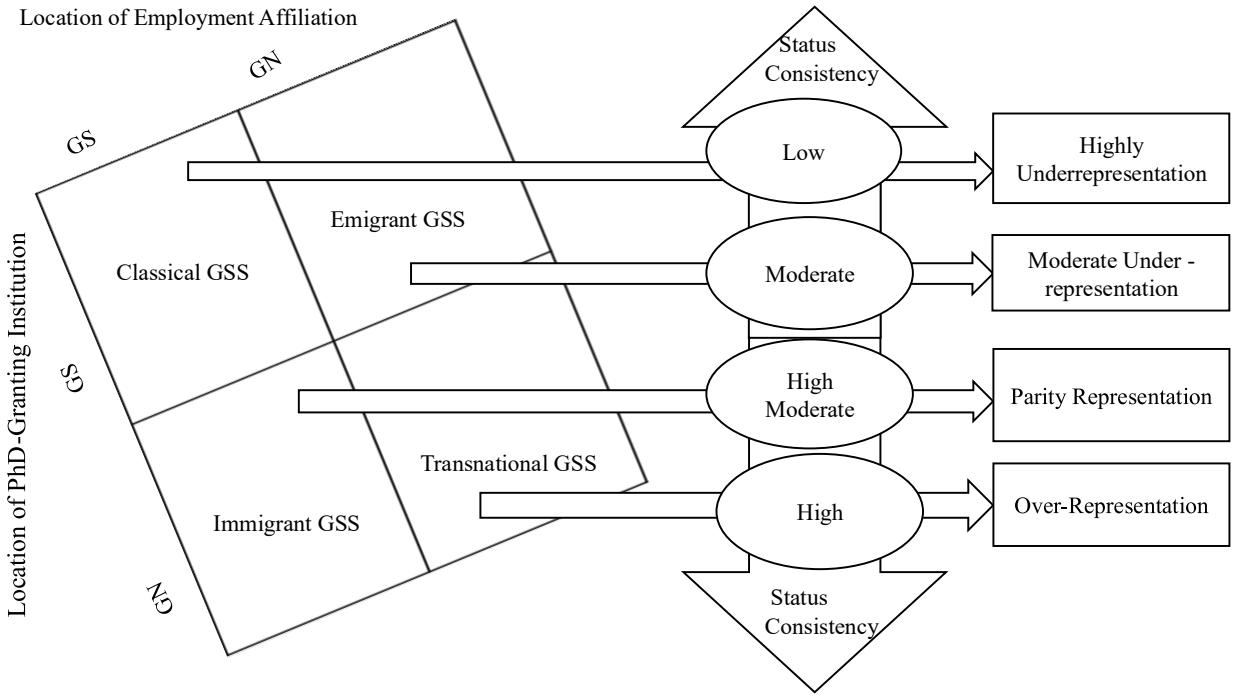
Hypothesis 3: Immigrant GSS exhibit higher representation among academic award recipients compared to Classical GSS.

Transnational GSS exhibits a relatively consistent status characterized by high prestige derived from both their Ph.D. granting institution and employment affiliation, resulting in synergistic benefits. Their immersion in academic norms and information during doctoral training facilitates their pursuit of academic awards while their employment location affords them access to superior resources, augmenting their likelihood of securing awards. Therefore, I posit that scholars in this category are the most represented among all groups.

Hypothesis 4: Transnational GSS represents the most represented subgroup of GSS in terms of academic award recipients.

All the above four hypotheses are conceptualized in a model (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 0.2: Conceptual model showing types of GSS and their level of underrepresentation



4.10 Methods

4.10.1 Operational definition of the constructs

Global South: In this study, I used the same variables and operationalization as in Chapter 2 (section 2.3.1).

Global South Scholar: This term is operationalized as scholars with country of origin in the Global South, as per the list by the United Nations Finance Center for South-South Cooperation (2024). The study uses Namsor, a machine learning tool that categorizes names by country using naive Bayes algorithms, to determine the likely country of origin of individuals. This tool has been utilized in various research and reports, including those by the European Commission (2016) and the United Nations, and is used in prior studies (Krishnan et al., 2023; Kryzanowski et al., 2023) for identifying ethnicity, gender, and nationality.

In this thesis, I rely on the NamSor onomastic classification tool to infer scholars' country of origin based on their first and last names, enabling their categorization into Global South or Global North, following the UNFCSSC framework. The validity and reliability of this tool are essential to the credibility of the findings, particularly because this research examines patterns of underrepresentation at the regional (Global South/Global North) level rather than the national level.

NamSor has demonstrated strong reliability, particularly in its ability to generate consistent, reproducible classifications across large datasets. For instance, in a large-scale evaluation of over 90,000 researchers from 22 countries with low internal migration, Sebo (2022) found that NamSor's continent-level misclassification rate was less than 1% after removing low-confidence results (below 50%). This demonstrates that the tool performs well when used to make broad regional distinctions—a feature that directly supports the reliability of its application in this thesis, where the core analytical unit is the Global South vs. Global North, not individual countries.

In terms of validity, particularly construct validity, NamSor has been shown to meaningfully capture demographic origins that align with actual behaviors and patterns. For example, in a study of over 800,000 charitable donations, Bursztyn et al. (2022) used NamSor to infer donor ancestry and found that these inferences predicted real-world giving behavior towards recipients' ancestral countries, affirming the tool's external validity for demographic categorization at scale. Additionally, in a benchmark study comparing NamSor's name-based predictions with self-reported demographic data from 250,000 individuals in the North Carolina voter file, NamSor produced less than 1% false positives, reinforcing its accuracy and face validity in distinguishing broad population groups.

A critical reason why NamSor's limitations do not compromise this study is that errors in country-of-origin prediction are generally confined within regions, not across them. For example, Sri Lankan names may sometimes be classified as Indian, or Ghanaian as Nigerian, yet all of these countries fall within the Global South. Similarly, misclassifications among countries such as Ireland and the UK, or between Germany and Austria, do not affect the Global North classification. The structure of the UNFCSSC Global South/Global North framework, where entire continents or subregions are grouped (e.g., all of Africa and Latin America are in the Global South; all of Europe except Bosnia and Herzegovina is in the Global North), absorbs these minor intra-regional errors and prevents them from impacting the binary classification central to this thesis.

However, in the pilot testing phase, I observed that NamSor frequently misclassified Latin American names, and classify them as either Spanish or Portuguese name. To minimize this error in the final dataset, I implemented an additional verification step. For authors identified as Spanish or Portuguese, I cross-checked their bachelor's degree institution, and their country of origin was assigned based on that verified bachelor degree information rather than relying solely on name-based inference. This ensured greater accuracy in categorizing the geographical origins of Latin American scholars and strengthened the validity of the classification approach used in this study.

To further support the validity and reliability of NamSor-based classification in this study, I implemented several safeguards: (1) excluding records with NamSor confidence scores below 80%, (2) triangulating inferred origin with institutional data where possible, and (3) conducting all analysis at the group level, avoiding inferences about individual identity. These steps align with best practices from the validation literature and ensure that NamSor serves as a robust, valid, and reliable tool for identifying broad patterns of geographical representation among scholars in this thesis.

Employment Affiliation: Operationalization of this variable refers to the positions held by GSS as faculty members at the time of submitting papers to the AoM.

Ph.D.-granting Institution: This variable refers to the universities from which scholars receive their PhD degrees. In cases of dual degrees or degrees from multiple institutions, the study considers institutions from the Global North as the primary degree-granting entities.

4.10.2 Population and sample

The population of this study is the same as in Chapter 2 (section 2.3.2).

4.10.3 Data collection

I collected data from the archive of the AOM Annual Conference. A published online list of AOM participants and award winners representing five years of data (2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2022) (see Table 4.1) was accessed from the AOM website. I did not collect the data for the years 2020 and 2021 as these were Coronavirus-affected years. Information regarding participants' names, employment affiliation, and their awards was captured from the AOM website. Information regarding their Ph.D. granting institution was accessed on their personal websites or captured from available CVs from their institutions' websites. The year wise numbers of Classical GSS and Immigrant GSS are in Appendix 2. The numbers of Emigrant GSS and Transnational GSS are in Appendix 3.

Table 4. 1: Participation of sub-group of GSS

Year	Division	No. of Participants	No. of GSS (in %)	% of Classical GSS	% of Immigrant GSS	% of Emigrant GSS	% of Trans-national GSS
2016	OMT	858	199 (23.19)	22.11	13.56	6.53	63.31
2017	OMT	754	178 (23.60)	11.23	11.23	3.93	71.91
2018	OMT	616	134 (21.75)	8.20	12.68	1.49	76.86
2019	OMT	613	134 (21.85)	14.92	5.97	0.74	76.11
2022	OMT	634	176 (27.76)	17.04	11.93	2.27	68.75
2016	STR	949	348 (36.67)	22.41	24.71	0.57	52.01
2017	STR	959	343 (35.76)	23.32	17.78	2.62	56.26
2018	STR	936	360 (38.46)	30.83	13.05	2.5	53.61
2019	STR	907	307 (33.84)	27.03	14.66	3.58	54.39
2022	STR	1073	429 (39.98)	27.50	17.02	2.09	53.38
2016	OB	1335	506 (37.90)	39.13	17.786	2.77	39.13
2017	OB	1257	522(41.52)	32.18	19.92	9.00	39.08
2018	OB	1229	441(35.58)	41.49	17.69	1.59	39.23
2019	OB	1160	527 (45.43)	52.94	11.57	3.41	31.69
2022	OB	1462	702 (48.01)	61.25	10.68	3.56	24.50
2016	ENT	1044	186 (17.81)	25.26	26.34	6.98	90.86
2017	ENT	1116	228 (20.43)	25.87	34.21	11.40	68.42
2018	ENT	958	204 (21.29)	11.27	31.37	7.84	82.84
2019	ENT	1041	248(23.82)	21.77	28.22	9.27	75
2022	ENT	1364	300 (21.99)	25	35.33	9.67	83.67

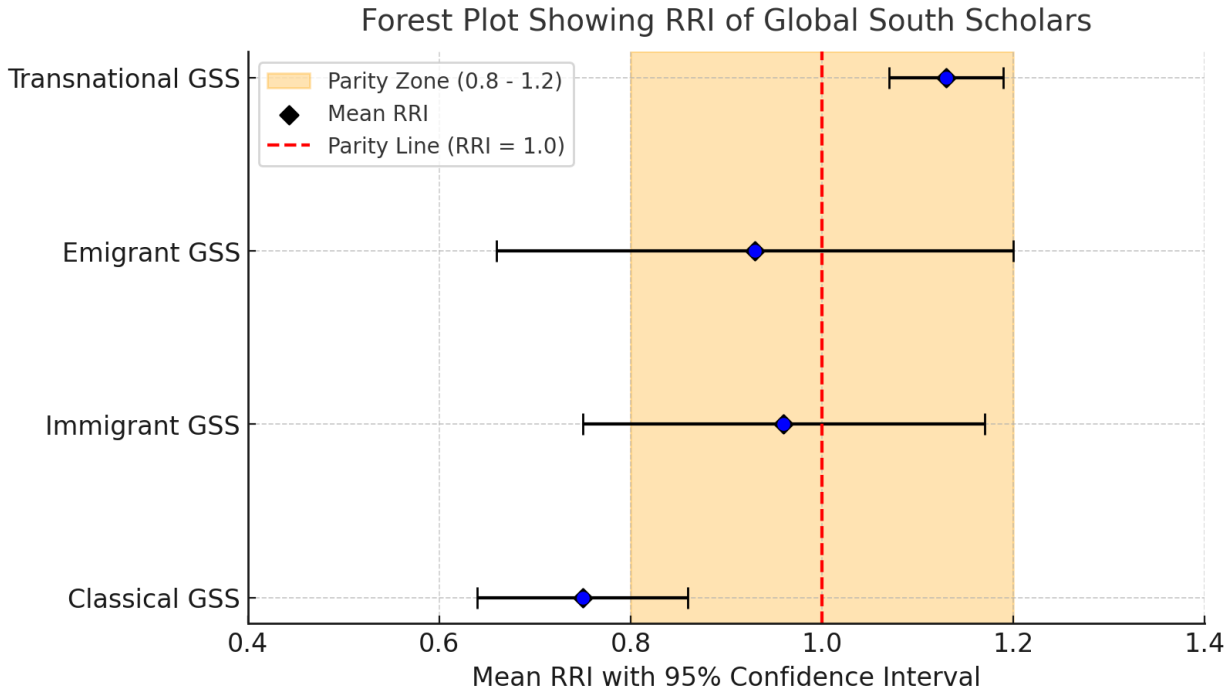
4.10.4 Data analysis and findings

To test my hypotheses, I used RRI method, consistent with chapter 2. The findings of data analysis are presented in table 4.2 and graphically represented in figure 4.1.

Table 4. 2: RRI of sub-sets of GSS

Types of GSS	Mean of RRI	Confidence Interval	Margin of Error	Upper Limit of RRI	Lower Limit of RRI
Classical GSS	0.75	95%	0.11	0.86	0.64
Immigrant GSS	0.96	95%	0.21	1.17	0.75
Emigrant GSS	0.93	95%	0.27	1.2	0.66
Transnational GSS	1.13	95%	0.06	1.19	1.07

Figure 4.3: Forest plot representation of different sub-sets of GSS



The results provide empirical support for my first hypothesis, as Classical GSS demonstrate the lowest mean RRI (0.75) among the four categories. The confidence interval (0.64–0.86) indicates that their representation in academic awards remains consistently lower relative to other subgroups.

Similarly, my second hypothesis is validated, as Emigrant GSS exhibits a higher mean RRI (0.93) compared to Classical GSS (0.75). The confidence interval (0.66–1.2) suggests that their increased representation is likely attributable to their employment affiliation in Global North despite their Ph.D. from Global South

The findings support my third hypothesis, as Immigrant GSS have an RRI of 0.96 (Table 4.2), which is higher than that of Classical GSS (.75).

Finally, my fourth hypothesis is corroborated, as Transnational GSS attained the highest RRI (1.13) among all groups. The narrow confidence interval (1.07–1.19) further underscores their relative advantage in receiving academic awards.

After exploring the overall underrepresentation trends of different sub-sets of GSS through the RRI, I further examined division-wise variations to uncover potential disparities across different academic domains. This granular analysis allows for a deeper understanding of whether the patterns observed at the aggregate level persist uniformly across divisions or if specific fields exhibit distinct dynamics in the underrepresentation of GSS.

4.11 Division-wise analysis

To address the nature of cross-divisional differences in Global South scholar representation, I systematically analyzed all four divisions separately. This division-wise examination enables a more granular understanding of how under-representation varies. Additionally, during data preparation, it became evident that Chinese scholars constitute a dominant proportion of the Global South sample, which could disproportionately influence the observed trends. Therefore, alongside the main analysis, I also present a re-analysis of each division with Chinese scholars excluded. This two-tiered approach, division-wise analysis, and analysis excluding China, ensures that the

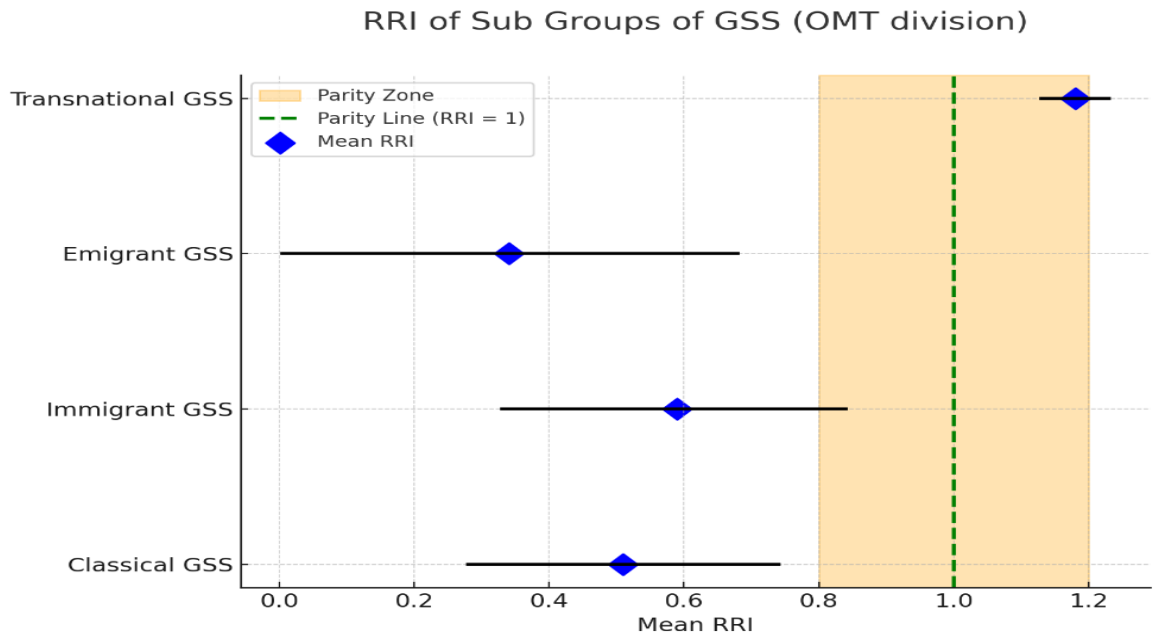
findings capture both the overall patterns and the specific under-representation experienced by Global South scholars beyond China.

4.11.1 OMT Division:

Table 4. 3: RRI of sub-sets of GSS in OMT division

Types of Scholars	Mean of RRI	Confidence Interval	Margin of Error	Upper Limit of RRI	Lower Limit of RRI
Classical GSS	0.51	95%	0.23	0.74	0.28
Immigrant GSS	0.59	95%	0.26	0.84	0.33
Emigrant GSS	0.34	95%	0.34	0.68	0.004
Transnational GSS	1.18	95%	0.05	1.23	1.13

Figure 4. 4: Forest plot representation of different sub-sets of scholars in OMT division



The OMT division exhibits the strongest and most persistent under-representation of Global South Scholars. Classical GSS show severe disadvantage (RRI = 0.51), and both Immigrant (0.59) and Emigrant GSS (0.34) remain far below parity, indicating that affiliation with even one high-status

institution is insufficient for receiving awards in this division. Only Transnational GSS reaches parity (1.18), suggesting that full alignment with Global North norms is a prerequisite for award success in this division.

Table 4. 4: RRI of sub-sets of GSS (Excluding Chinese Scholar) in OMT division

Types of Scholars	RRI	Confidence Interval	SD	Margin of Error	Upper limit of RRI	Lower limit of RRI
Classical	0.44	95%	0.36	0.32	0.75	0.12
Immigrant	0.64	95%	0.37	0.33	0.97	0.32
Emigrant	0.15	95%	0.31	0.27	0.42	-0.12
Transnational	1.08	95%	0.12	0.10	1.19	0.98

Table 4.4 shows that when Chinese scholars are excluded from the analysis, representation declines further for Classical (0.44), Immigrant (0.64), and especially Emigrant GSS (0.15), revealing that even the limited visibility observed originally was partially dependent on the growing presence of China. In OMT, the under-representation faced by Global South scholars is therefore the most pronounced and the least mitigated by inconsistent status academic pathways.

The possible reason for the highest underrepresentation in this division might be because of disciplinary norms. Findings from chapter 3 suggest that Global South scholars face barriers in contributing to theorization aligned with dominant Global North epistemic traditions. In this division, theoretical originality functions as the main criterion of excellence. It seems therefore the GSS are the most under-represented here. Status inconsistency fails to generate advantage here. Neither high-status PhD training alone (Immigrant GSS) nor Global North employment alone (Emigrant GSS) is sufficient for legitimacy in award evaluations. The sharper decline in representation once Chinese scholars are removed further indicates that OMT's narrow criteria reward only those Global South scholars embedded in resource-rich geopolitical contexts. Under-

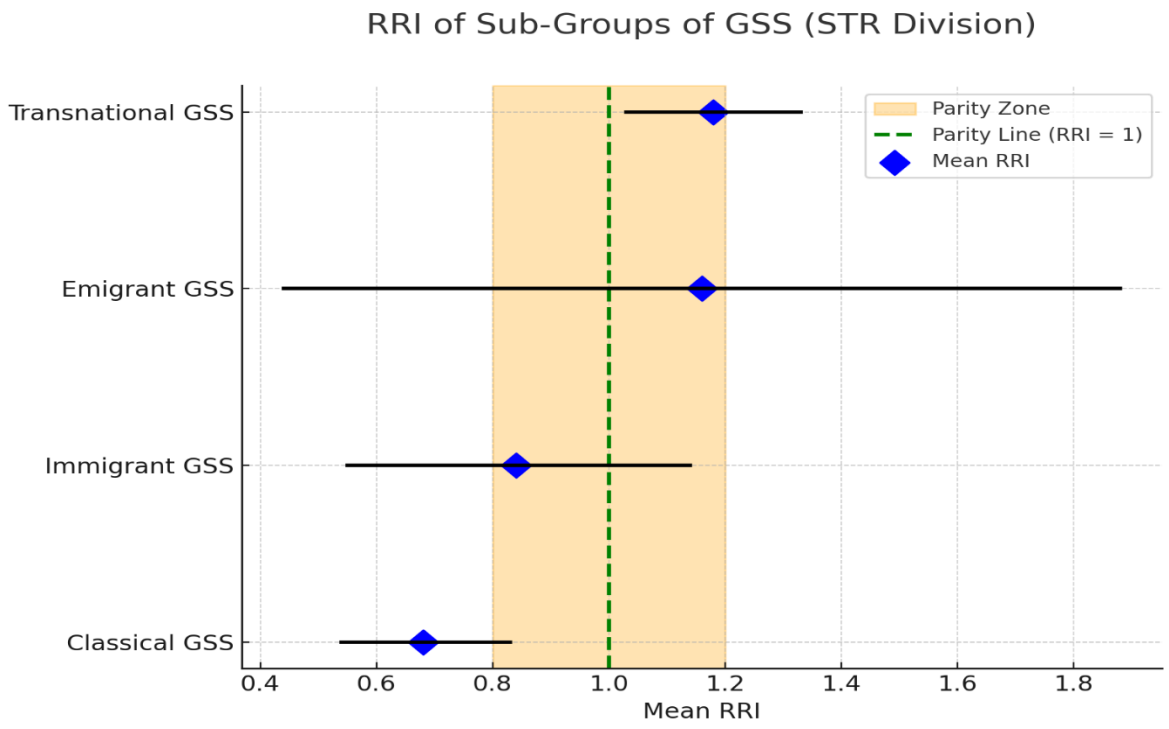
representation in OMT is thus structurally produced through epistemic gatekeeping that privileges only those fully aligned with Global North theoretical dominance.

4.11.2 STR Division

Table 4. 5: RRI of sub-sets of GSS in STR division

Types of Scholars	Mean of RRI	Confidence Interval	Margin of Error	Upper Limit of RRI	Lower Limit of RRI
Classical GSS	0.68	95%	0.14	0.83	0.54
Immigrant GSS	0.84	95%	0.29	1.14	0.55
Emigrant GSS	1.16	95%	0.72	1.88	0.44
Transnational GSS	1.18	95%	0.15	1.33	1.03

Figure 4. 5: Forest plot representation of different sub-sets of scholars in STR division



The STR division shows a more uneven pattern of representation across Global South subgroups, suggesting conditional rather than consistent inclusion. Before removing Chinese scholars, Transnational (1.18) and Emigrant GSS (1.16) exceed parity, while Classical (0.68) and Immigrant (0.84) GSS remain underrepresented.

Table 4. 6: RRI of sub-sets of GSS (Excluding Chinese Scholar) in STR division

Types of Scholars	STR Division	Confidence Interval	SD	Margin of Error	Upper limit of RRI	Lower limit of RRI
Classical	0.60	95%	0.20	0.17	0.77	0.43
Immigrant	0.69	95%	0.27	0.23	0.92	0.46
Emigrant	0.22	95%	0.41	0.35	0.57	-0.14
Transnational	1.24	95%	0.21	0.18	1.42	1.06

When Chinese scholars are excluded, Emigrant GSS experience a dramatic collapse in recognition (falling from 1.16 to 0.22). This pattern reveals that the earlier appearance of stronger Global South representation was significantly driven by scholars who were employed in Global North institutions but had received their Ph.D. training from Chinese universities. Their comparatively advantageous employment positions elevated the overall representation metrics. It masked deeper structural under-representation affecting scholars from the rest of the Global South. Classical GSS also declines further (0.60), while Transnational GSS remain slightly above parity (1.24), indicating that only scholars fully integrated into Global North training and employment structures maintain recognition in this division. Overall, STR's recognition patterns appear superficially balanced but are structurally dependent on the singular influence of China.

Under-representation in this division is tied to location of employment affiliation. Strategic management scholarship is deeply intertwined with macroeconomic performance, innovation ecosystems, and market influence. It creates a natural bias toward institutions situated in powerful economies which are generally located in Global North. This helps explain why Emigrant GSS

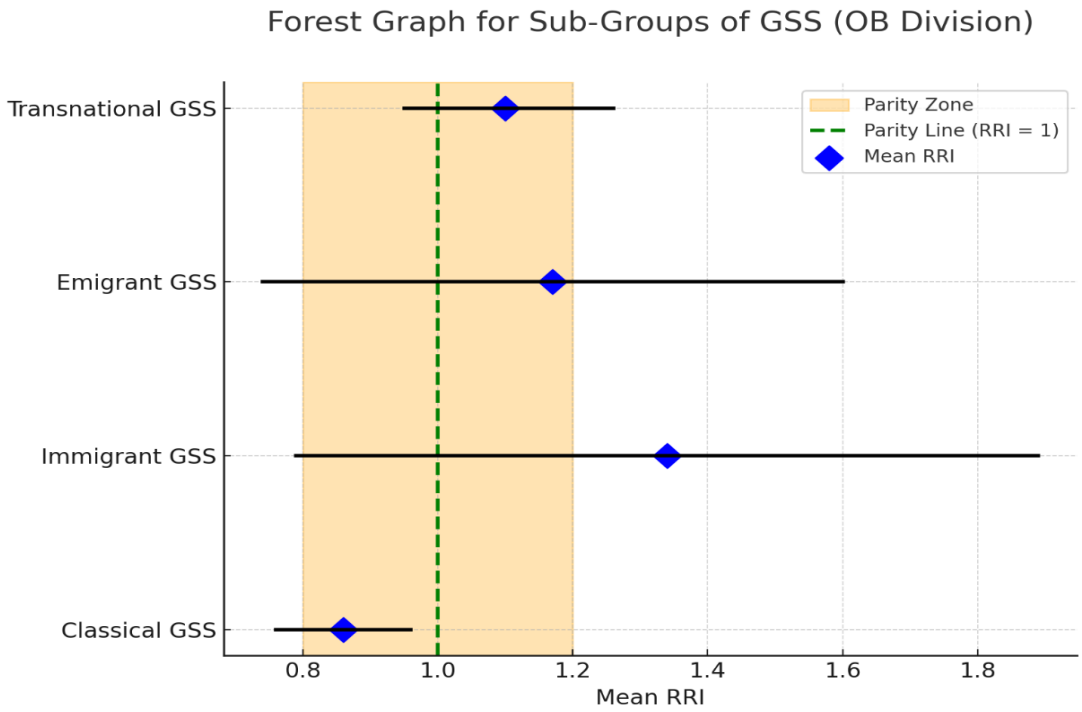
appear successful only when affiliated with Chinese universities, whose global surge in research funding, rankings, and citation power elevates their perceived strategic relevance. Meanwhile, scholars trained or employed in Global South contexts without such geopolitical leverage struggle to signal academic excellence. Findings of Chapter 3 also suggest that GSS often face challenges in producing theoretically dominant contributions, and STR's stronger alignment with organization level study and generalized theory increases this disadvantage. Status inconsistency benefits only those whose academic excellence signals clearly align with emerging centers of academic capital; for others, meritocratic norms continue to reproduce Global North dominance. Consequently, under-representation in STR is less visible at first glance but remains structurally embedded through Global North based meritocratic norms.

4.11.3 OB Division

Table 4. 7: RRI of sub-sets of GSS in OB division

Types of Scholars	Mean of RRI	Confidence Interval	Margin of Error	Upper Limit of RRI	Lower Limit of RRI
Classical GSS	0.86	95%	0.1	0.96	0.76
Immigrant GSS	1.34	95%	0.55	1.89	0.79
Emigrant GSS	1.17	95%	0.43	1.6	0.74
Transnational GSS	1.1	95%	0.15	1.26	0.95

Figure 4. 6: Forest plot representation of different sub-sets of scholars in OB division



The OB division demonstrates the most inclusive pattern of representation among Global South Scholars, with all subgroups approaching or exceeding parity when Chinese scholars are included. Immigrant GSS show notably strong overrepresentation (1.34), and both Emigrant (1.17) and Transnational GSS (1.10) also remain above expected levels, while Classical GSS (0.86) still fall slightly short of parity. Once Chinese scholars are excluded, however, this pattern shifts noticeably: Immigrant GSS fall below parity (0.78), and Emigrant GSS experience a substantial decline (1.17 → 0.19), revealing that the surface inclusivity of OB was partly a product of Chinese scholarly presence. Nevertheless, OB remains more balanced than OMT and STR, with Classical and Transnational GSS continuing to hover close to parity. Overall, OB reflects a comparatively more permeable boundary to Global South representation, though still reliant on contributions from a single dominant Global South academic hub.

Table 4. 8: RRI of sub-sets of GSS (Excluding Chinese Scholar) in OB division

Types of Scholars	OMT Division	Confidence Interval	SD	Margin of Error	Upper limit of RRI	Lower limit of RRI
Classical	0.79	95%	0.19	0.17	0.96	0.63
Immigrant	0.78	95%	0.61	0.53	1.31	0.24
Emigrant	0.19	95%	0.23	0.20	0.39	-0.01
Transnational	1.02	95%	0.23	0.20	1.22	0.82

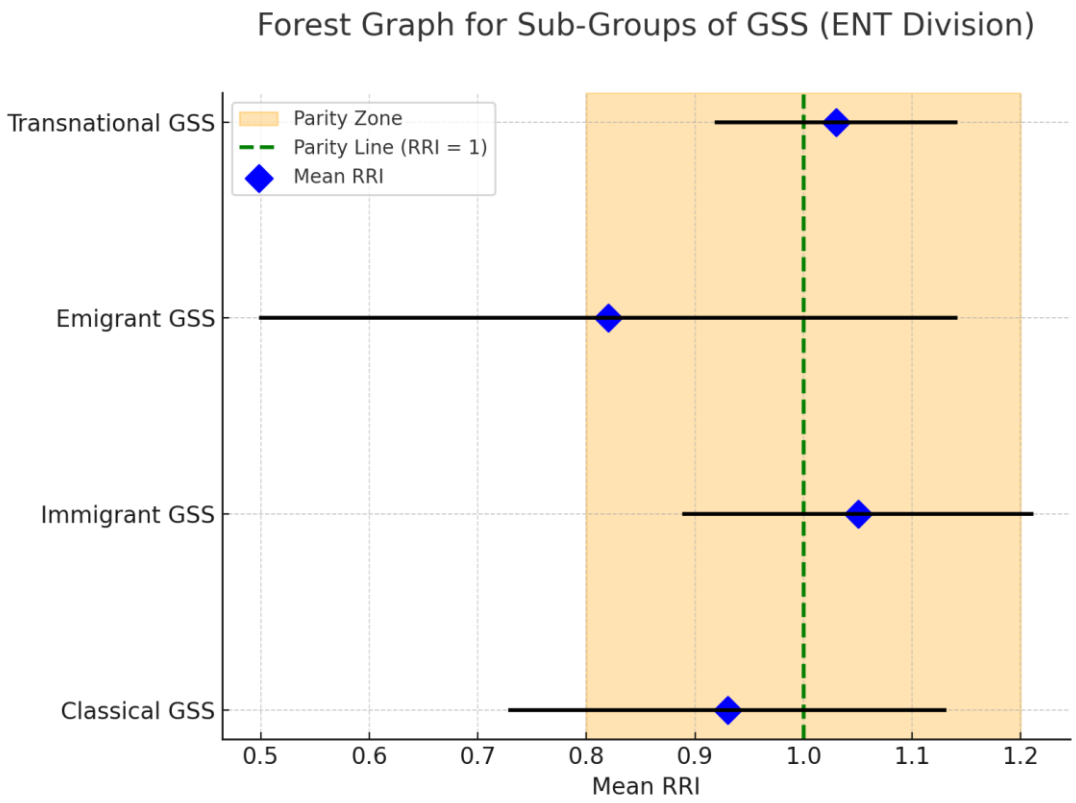
OB's recognition practices are distinctively shaped by its focus on human-centered behavioral insights, identity dynamics, and lived organizational experiences. These characteristics create a greater receptiveness to context-rich and socially grounded scholarship, areas where GSS often contribute authentically. As established in Chapter 3, while theorization barriers exist, Global South scholars frequently introduce novel perspectives on inclusion, leadership, and cultural dynamics that align more directly with OB's theoretical interests. Status inconsistency generates notable advantage in this division: Immigrant GSS thrive because prestigious PhD training carries significant evaluative weight in OB, while employment-based prestige alone is less influential. OB's stronger institutional engagement with Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion discourse further reduces penalties for alternative epistemic origins compared to more rigid theoretical domains. However, decline in representation without Chinese scholars indicates that OB's openness remains structurally fragile. It reveals that broad Global South inclusion has yet to be firmly institutionalized. Recognition remains possible, when Global South insight complements, rather than challenges, dominant behavioral theory.

4.11.4 ENT Division

Table 4. 9 RRI of sub-sets of GSS in ENT division

Types of Scholars	Mean of RRI	Confidence Interval	Margin of Error	Upper Limit of RRI	Lower Limit of RRI
Classical GSS	0.93	95%	0.2	1.13	0.73
Immigrant GSS	1.05	95%	0.16	1.21	0.89
Emigrant GSS	0.82	95%	0.32	1.14	0.5
Transnational GSS	1.03	95%	0.11	1.14	0.92

Figure 4. 6: Forest plot representation of different sub-sets of scholars in ENT division



The ENT division presents the most balanced representation of Global South Scholars across the four AOM divisions. With Chinese scholars included, all subgroups cluster closely around parity, with Immigrant GSS (1.05) and Transnational GSS (1.03) slightly exceeding expected levels,

while Classical (0.93) and Emigrant GSS (0.82) fall only marginally below parity. After excluding Chinese scholars, the shifts remain modest compared to other divisions: Classical GSS drop from 0.93 to 0.82, Immigrant GSS from 1.05 to 0.86, while Emigrant GSS actually improve from 0.82 to 0.93, and Transnational GSS remain stable (1.03 to 1.04). These patterns indicate that ENT is the division least dependent on Chinese representation for Global South visibility and the most consistent in recognizing scholars across all subgroups. Under-representation exists, but it is significantly less severe and less rigidly structured than in OMT and STR.

Table 4. 10: RRI of sub-sets of GSS (Excluding Chinese Scholar) in ENT division

Types of Scholars	STR Division	Confidence Interval	SD	Margin of Error	Upper limit of RRI	Lower limit of RRI
Classical	0.82	95%	0.51	0.45	1.27	0.37
Immigrant	0.86	95%	0.15	0.13	0.99	0.72
Emigrant	0.93	95%	0.74	0.65	1.58	0.28
Transnational	1.04	95%	0.21	0.18	1.21	0.85

The relative inclusivity of the ENT division can be attributed to its practical knowledge orientation and stronger valuation of contextual diversity. Entrepreneurial research frequently focuses on localized challenges, resource scarcity, informal institutions, and emerging market dynamics, placing Global South contexts at the center of theoretical relevance rather than at its periphery. This lowers the epistemic penalties associated with being positioned outside elite academic centers. As noted in Chapter 3, Global South scholars often excel in providing empirically rich, context-driven insights, which ENT is structurally better positioned to value compared to more theoretically rigid divisions. Additionally, status inconsistency is less consequential here because entrepreneurial scholarship is less tied to meritocratic norms around theory development and more connected to the novelty and practical implications of the research setting. The limited effects observed after removing Chinese scholars further reinforce that ENT is the division where Global

South knowledge gains the most independent recognition, suggesting the presence of more equitable evaluative norms.

Taken together, these four divisions illustrate that the under-representation of Global South Scholars is highly contingent on the disciplinary logics that define excellence in different way. OMT and STR, where theoretical abstraction and elite institutional prestige carry greater evaluative weight, display the most severe and structurally entrenched exclusion of Classical, Immigrant, and Emigrant scholars, especially once Chinese scholars are removed from the data. In contrast, OB and ENT show comparatively greater recognition of Global South scholarship, yet this inclusivity is uneven and partially dependent on a single nation's dominance rather than reflecting widespread structural change. These variations confirm that under-representation is not simply a general phenomenon, but one that is produced through the interaction of status-based expectations and domain-specific epistemic norms. Divisions more willing to value contextual knowledge, identity-relevant contributions, and applied insights provide clearer pathways for Global South recognition, whereas divisions tied closely to Global North theoretical paradigms reward only those who can fully assimilate into dominant academic institutions. The cross-divisional landscape thus reveals a stratified meritocracy in which the legitimacy of Global South knowledge depends not only on scholarly quality, but on whether the division's normative boundaries allow it to count as "theory."

To examine significant difference in the RRI across subgroups of GSS (GSS), I conducted the Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by pairwise comparisons among Classical, Immigrant, Emigrant, and Transnational GSS.

Table 4. 11: Summary of hypothesis testing

	Hypothesis	Test	Sig.[a,b]	Decision
1	GSS is a heterogeneous population.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	0.004	Supported
a. The significance level is .050.				
b. Asymptotic significance is displayed.				

Table 4.11 suggests that GSS is a heterogeneous population. There is a existence of sub-sets in this population.

Table 4. 12: Pairwise comparisons of RRI among sub-sets of GSS

Sample 1 - Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Significance
Classical GSS-Immigrant GSS	-8.94	7.25	-1.23	.21
Classical GSS-Emigrant GSS	-9.91	7.25	-1.36	.17
Classical GSS-Transnational GSS	-25.47	7.16	-3.55	<.001
Immigrant GSS-Emigrant GSS	-.974	7.35	-.13	.89
Immigrant GSS-Transnational GSS	-16.53	7.25	-2.27	.023
Emigrant GSS-Transnational GSS	-15.56	7.25	-2.14	.032

From table 4.12 it can be inferred that there are no statistically significant differences in recognition between Classical, Immigrant, and Emigrant GSS. This suggests that Immigrant and Emigrant GSS do not experience substantially different recognition outcomes compared to Classical GSS, indicating that status inconsistency—manifested through either a Global North Ph.D. or employment affiliation—does not inherently confer a recognition advantage.

Conversely, Transnational GSS exhibit significantly higher recognition than all other subgroups (see Table 4.8). These findings lend empirical support to the hypothesis that possessing both a Global North Ph.D. and employment affiliation yields the greatest recognition advantage, as evidenced by their significantly higher RRI scores.

Moreover, the most pronounced disparity in recognition is observed between Classical and Transnational GSS, underscoring the considerable disadvantage faced by Classical GSS and reinforcing their status as the most underrepresented group.

Finally, the differences in recognition between Immigrant and Emigrant GSS are minimal, suggesting that their respective status configurations do not produce substantial variation in recognition outcomes (see table 4.8).

I also conducted a post hoc analysis to examine the relationships between the RRI for different types of GSS, the ranking of their employment affiliations and the ranking of their Ph.D.-granting institutions. I am considering Rankings of the employment and Ph.D. institutions can be considered a proxy for the research capability of a scholar. The key assumption is that more prestigious institutions do not hire scholars with low research capabilities. Hence, it can be argued that scholars in higher-ranked institutions are, on average, more research-capable due to institutional selection processes. Taking research capability into account is important in the light of the gatekeepers' perception that award-giving is a fully meritocratic process (as discussed in Chapter 3).

The ranking of Ph.D.-granting institutions and employment affiliations were taken from the 2019 QS rankings, consistent with the approach used in Chapter 2. Institutions are ranked from 1 to 1021, with Rank 1 representing the highest prestige and Rank 1021 the lowest. Institutions not

included in the QS ranking are assigned a rank of 1022. Consequently, a higher numerical rank indicates lower prestige, while a lower numerical rank signifies higher prestige.

Table 4.9 compares the variation of RRI with the variation of average rank of employment affiliation for different types of GSS across divisions. Figures 4.8 and 4.9 illustrate the difference in trends.

Table 4. 13: Rank of employment affiliations and RRI of GSS types across divisions*

Division	RRI type 1	Average rank for type 1	RRI type 2	Average rank for type 2	RRI type 3	Average rank for type 3	RRI type 4	Average rank for type 4
OMT	0.51	591.8	0.59	474.3	.34	341.7	1.18	372.3
OB	0.86	478.9	1.34	407.9	1.17	429.5	1.1	432.6
ENT	0.93	693.5	1.05	540.3	0.82	606.1	1.03	558.8
STR	0.68	544.0	0.84	433.5	1.16	487.4	1.18	435.2

*Type 1 – Classical GSS, type 2 – Immigrant GSS, type 3 – Emigrant GSS, type 4 – Transnational GSS

Figure 0.3: Rank of employment affiliation across divisions

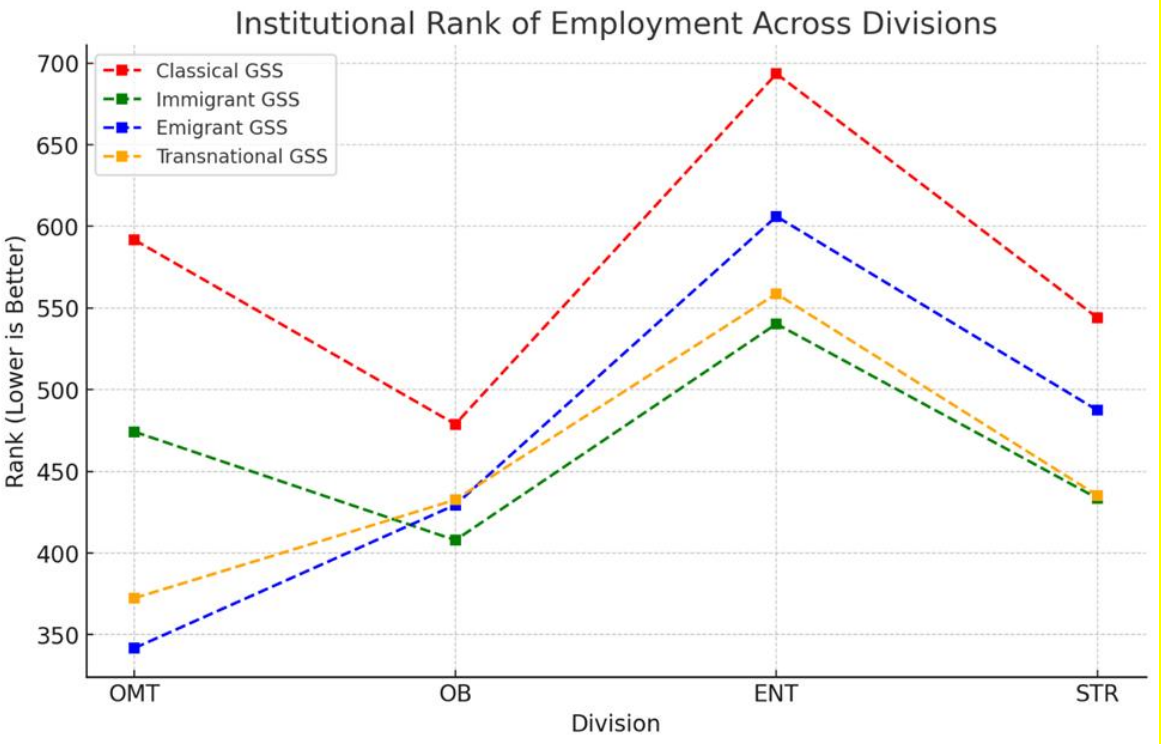


Figure 0.4 RRI of different subsets of GSS across divisions

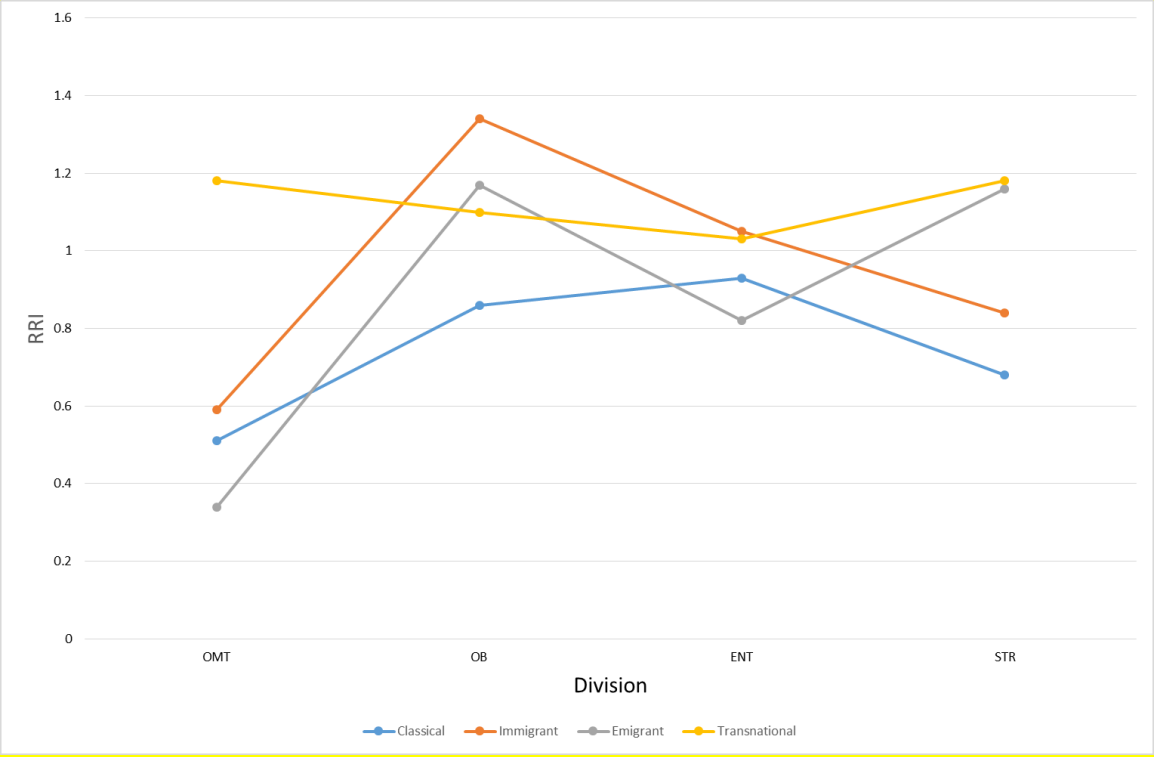


Table 4.9 indicates that Classical GSS consistently have the lowest institutional prestige (highest numerical rank) across all divisions, confirming their placement in low prestige institution. This broadly aligns with their lowest representation among award winners across all divisions except ENT, where they are in the second lowest place. Immigrant GSS hold more prestigious employment affiliations than other types of GSS in all divisions except OMT, where they come from more prestigious institutions than Classical GSS but less prestigious than Emigrant and Transnational GSS (See table 4.9 and figure 4.8). The trend of RRI, however, shows that the prestige of employment affiliation does not align with award outcomes in STR division (where they lag behind Emigrant and Transnational GSS) and in OMT division, where they outperform Emigrant GSS despite coming from lower prestige institutions (See figure 4.9). Emigrant GSS come from more prestigious institutions than Classical GSS in all divisions (See figure 4.9). Transnational GSS are employed in institutions that are more prestigious than Classical and Emigrant GSS in ENT and STR divisions, and high second highest ranking in OMT and OB divisions (see Table 4.9). Again, their RRI trend is not fully aligned with prestige trend – they significantly outperform other GSS in OMT awards despite not coming from the most prestigious institutions (see Figure 4.9). Overall, this analysis shows that, if the prestige of employment affiliation is taken as a proxy for a scholar's research capability, the award outcomes do not seem to be driven purely by meritocratic principles. This analysis further validates the distinctiveness of the GSS typology and highlights the complex, non-linear relationship between institutional prestige and underrepresentation in the context of academic awards.

In my qualitative analysis in Chapter 3, the role of Ph.D.-granting institutions was highlighted by award gatekeepers. The basic premise was that a scholar's Ph.D. institution is responsible for their exposure to dominant academic norms. The Ph.D. institutions with greater prestige are assumed to

have deeper integration into dominant (Global North) academic standards. To investigate the role of Ph.D. institutions in shaping award outcomes, I conducted an analysis similar to the comparative analysis above. The results of this analysis are presented in table 4.10 and in Figure 4.10.

Table 4. 14: Rank of Ph.D. granting institutions and RRI of GSS across divisions*

Division	RRI type 1	Average rank for type 1	RRI type 2	Average rank for type 2	RRI type 3	Average rank for type 3	RRI type 4	Average rank for type 4
OMT	0.51	567.7	0.59	175.7	0.34	392.3	1.18	241.3
OB	0.86	372.8	1.34	280.4	1.17	340.7	1.1	304.9
ENT	0.93	553.4	1.05	282.6	0.82	639.5	1.03	395.8
STR	0.68	465.7	0.84	238.3	1.16	262.3	1.18	292.1

*Type 1 – Classical GSS, type 2 – Immigrant GSS, type 3 – Emigrant GSS, type 4 – Transnational GSS

Figure 0.5: Rank of PhD granting institution across divisions

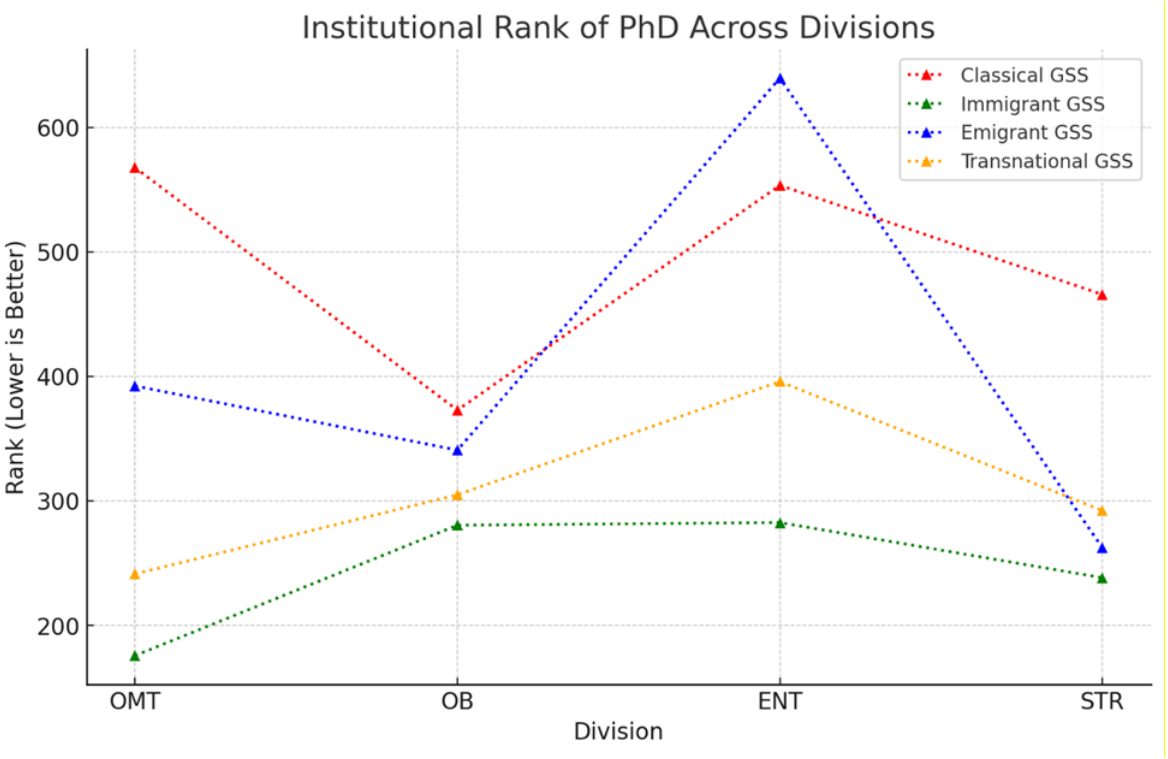


Table 4.14 indicates that Classical GSS have the lowest Ph.D. prestige (highest numerical rank) across all divisions, except ENT, where they are in the second lowest place, confirming their limited exposure to Global North norms. Immigrant GSS have the most prestigious Ph.D. institutions (lowest numerical rank), confirming their alignment with Global North academic training. Emigrant GSS hold moderate Ph.D. ranking. Transnational GSS consistently hold high-status Ph.D. affiliations, reinforcing their strong ties to Global North academic norms. Notably, for all divisions, the PhD affiliation of Transnational GSS is lower than that of Immigrant GSS. RRI patterns do not always align with Ph.D. prestige, suggesting that other structural barriers influence research recognition.

Finally, I conducted correlation analysis of RRI, average rank of employment affiliation and average rank of Ph.D.-granting institution. In the pooled sample (with all four GSS types), correlations were small and not statistically significant (see Table 4.15), except the correlation between the rank of PhD and the rank of employment, which was positive and significant.

Table 4. 15: Correlation matrix of RRI, employment rank, and Ph.D. rank

	RRI	Rank of employment (average)	Rank of PhD (average)
RRI	1		
Rank of employment (average)	.16	1	
Rank of PhD (average)	-.07	.53*	1

*Correlation marked with * is significant at 5%*

Similar correlation analysis for each division shows the absence of significant correlation between RRI and the ranks of employment and PhD for all divisions, except STR. In the STR division, there is a positive and significant correlation of r=0.53 between the RRI and the rank of employment affiliation. Given that higher rank corresponds to lower institutional prestige, this is a surprising finding which might be worth a follow-up investigation.

4.12 Discussion

The findings provide evidence that GSS (GSS) are not a homogeneous population but rather a diverse group with distinct trajectories and recognition outcomes. By subdividing GSS into four typologies—Classical, Immigrant, Emigrant, and Transnational—it becomes evident that their representation in academic awards varies significantly across these categories. However, this variation is not uniform across divisions, suggesting that the underrepresentation of GSS among academic award recipients is also discipline dependent.

One consistent pattern across all divisions is the parity representation or overrepresentation of Transnational GSS across divisions. These scholars, who have both their Ph.D. and employment affiliation in the Global North, enjoy the highest levels of academic recognition. The findings strongly suggest that Global North affiliation throughout one's career confers the greatest recognition advantage, reinforcing the idea that institutional prestige—rooted in both Ph.D. and employment affiliation—plays a central role in shaping visibility and legitimacy within academic award systems.

These findings align with prior research on institutional prestige and academic stratification, which argues that scholars from high-status institutions receive disproportionate recognition (Collyer, 2018; Contreras & Dornberger, 2022; Xue & Xu, 2024). The advantage of emigrant and immigrant GSS supports literature on status mobility, where scholars who transition into higher-status institutional environments gain greater access to opportunities and visibility (Ferreira et al; 2023; He et al., 2024; Holding et al., 2024). The findings also support research on the geographical concentration of elite networks in the Global North (Confraria et al., 2017), reinforcing the role of high-status employment in shaping career outcomes.

However, the study deviates from traditional perspectives by demonstrating that the prestige of one's Ph.D. granting institution is not sufficient to determine academic career trajectory; instead, employment institutions carry more weight. Existing work often emphasizes the role of doctoral training in shaping career trajectories (Bedeian et al., 2010; Wapman et al.,2022), but findings of this study challenge that assumption, showing that scholars who transition into Global North employment gain greater recognition than those who hold Global North Ph.Ds. but remain employed in the Global South. This divergence suggests that institutional prestige is dynamic rather than static, with employment serving as a more powerful status marker in academic recognition.

This study contributes novel insights by developing a typology of GSS and demonstrating how institutional affiliations interact with disciplinary variations to shape award outcomes. By moving beyond a binary Global North–South framework, this research reveals the nuanced effects of status inconsistency, particularly how different institutional pathways impact academic recognition.

The correlation matrix of the different subsets of GSS underscores the primacy of geographical location over institutional ranking in shaping research impact. Institutional ranking alone does not fully account for variations in research influence; rather, geographical embeddedness plays a more decisive role. Classical GSS and Immigrant GSS demonstrate the capacity to produce award winning research despite affiliations with lower-ranked institutions, suggesting that institutional prestige is not the sole determinant of scholarly recognition.

Conversely, the findings for Emigrant GSS highlight that employment location exerts a greater influence on research than the prestige of their Ph.D. granting institution. Securing an academic position in the Global North significantly enhances research opportunities, whereas the prestige of the doctoral institution alone does not confer the same advantage.

Transnational GSS exemplify the compounded benefits of geographical embeddedness and institutional prestige. Their success is primarily driven by their location in the Global North, where access to resources, networks, and recognition mechanisms reinforce their research visibility. Institutional prestige in this context serves as an amplifying factor rather than the fundamental driver of scholarly influence, affirming the structural significance of geographical location in academic stratification.

Overall, these findings provide a more granular understanding of underrepresentation in academic awards, offering empirical evidence that institutional prestige, particularly employment affiliation in the Global North, remains a dominant factor in academic recognition systems.

4.13 Theoretical contributions

This chapter advances the understanding of GSS by constructing a typology that offers a systematic classification of its conceptual variants. By dissecting and logically combining different constructs, typology seeks to clarify the often ambiguous and fluid nature of the Global South Scholar category. Through this approach, the chapter provides a more granular and refined conceptualization of the phenomenon, identifying and rigorously justifying the dimensions that differentiate its various forms. This effort addresses a crucial gap in the literature by offering a precise framework that not only organizes complex relationships but also reveals the distinct consequences of these variants on scholarly representation in prestigious, zero-sum excellence contexts such as academic awards.

The first theoretical contribution of this chapter is that it demonstrates four distinct types of GSS, each characterized by unique set of dimensions of Ph.D. affiliation, employment affiliation, and country of origin. In doing so, it moves beyond simple classification systems by articulating the

relationships between these constructs, facilitating testable hypotheses regarding their differential representation in academic recognition systems. As Doty and Glick (1994) argue, typologies are not merely organizational tools but frameworks that enable the development of causal explanations. In this regard, the proposed typology goes beyond correlation, accommodating asymmetric causal relationships that explain the mechanisms driving unequal representation in academic awards.

Second, this study also contributes to status inconsistency theory by providing new insights into how different forms of institutional status—Ph.D.-granting institution and employment affiliation—interact to shape academic recognition. Traditional status inconsistency theory suggests that individuals with inconsistent status markers (e.g., high education but low occupational prestige) experience social and professional disadvantages (Jensen & Wang, 2018; Ra & Kim, 2024; Smith & Zhang, 2023; Zhang, 2020). However, this study presents a counterintuitive finding: rather than being penalized for inconsistency, scholars with inconsistent status affiliations (Immigrant and Emigrant GSS) are better represented in academic awards than Classical GSS. This finding refines status inconsistency theory by showing that not all forms of inconsistency are disadvantageous.

The study also indicates that Status inconsistency is asymmetrical. While Emigrant GSS benefit from upward mobility through Global North employment, Immigrant GSS do not experience the same advantage despite their high-status Ph.D. training. This highlights a structural bias in which current institutional affiliation outweighs past institutional pedigree in shaping recognition.

4.14 Policy implications

The findings of this study have significant policy implications for academic societies, universities, funding agencies, and international education policymakers. Academic societies should take concrete steps to increase the representation of different types of GSS in award selection committees. A more inclusive panel would make other gatekeepers aware of Global South norms. This will ensure fairer recognition of scholarly contributions. Additionally, societies should expand award categories to include scholars addressing Global South issues and those working in resource-constrained environments.

This study also suggests that Universities must actively promote transnational mentorship programs. It would allow GSS to gain research and teaching experience in Global North institutions without requiring permanent relocation. Cross-institutional collaborations would help in understanding the dominant norms.

Funding agencies, including UNESCO, the World Bank, and national research foundations, must address systemic barriers faced by GSS in securing research grants. Increasing targeted funding opportunities for scholars in Global South institutions would reduce dependency on affiliations with Global North universities. Providing fellowships for research conducted in Global South institutions would help retain talent and strengthen local academic infrastructure. Efforts should also focus on improving the global standing of Global South universities through benchmarking initiatives, enhancing research infrastructure, and improving institutional rankings to increase competitiveness in academic award systems.

Policymakers should advocate for greater recognition of diverse institutional rankings and address biases in academic evaluation processes. Many Global South institutions are undervalued, limiting their scholars' visibility in global academic networks. Developing policy guidelines for academic societies and journals would help prevent implicit biases in evaluation criteria. Facilitating transnational faculty mobility through cross-regional research hubs would strengthen collaboration between Global North and Global South institutions. Additionally, indexing bodies such as Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar should work on their algorithms towards expanding the visibility of research from Global South universities. It will ensure that contributions from diverse institutional backgrounds receive appropriate recognition in global academic discourse.

4.15 Limitations and directions for future research

While this study provides valuable insights about the different subsets of GSS and their comparative representation, it is not without its limitations. One key limitation is the data source, which is exclusively drawn from the AOM conference. While the AOM is a prestigious and influential academic forum, its focus on business and management may limit the generalizability of the findings to other academic disciplines. Expanding the dataset to include scholars and award recipients from a broader range of academic conferences, particularly those representing diverse fields, would enhance the robustness and external validity of the conclusions. Such data would offer a more comprehensive understanding of how representation dynamics unfold across disciplines with varying evaluation criteria and gatekeeping structures.

Moreover, the study is confined to a single stream of academic excellence—representation in academic conferences. Future research should incorporate data from other streams of scholarly recognition, such as grants, fellowships, and research funding opportunities. These zero-sum

contexts, where resources are highly competitive and limited, play a significant role in shaping academic careers and status. Including data from these alternative arenas of scholarly achievement would provide a more holistic view of how different subsets of GSS are positioned within the broader landscape of academic excellence and recognition.

This chapter also opens several important avenues for future research, each of which could further enrich the theoretical framework and offer new empirical insights into the complex dynamics of representation in academic contexts.

First, future research should empirically test the proposed typology of GSS across different academic disciplines and global contexts. While typology provides a structured framework, its application may vary across fields that differ in terms of gatekeeping mechanisms, award criteria, and disciplinary hierarchies. Comparative studies that explore the representation of Classical, Immigrant, Emigrant, and Transnational GSS in fields such as the natural sciences, social sciences, and humanities would help to validate and refine the typology's explanatory power.

Second, further research should examine the evolving role of different types of GSS in shaping global academic standards and recognition systems. As academic networks and institutions become increasingly transnational, there is a need to understand how the mobility of scholars across Global North and Global South boundaries influences their representation in academic awards. This could involve longitudinal studies tracking the academic trajectories of scholars who transition between Global South and Global North affiliations, analyzing how these transitions impact their recognition and visibility in global academic forums.

Division wise analysis also suggests some directions for future research. First, future research should conduct a qualitative content analysis of award criteria, reviewer guidelines, and calls for

submissions across divisions to examine how evaluative language encodes certain forms of theoretical contribution as legitimate while marginalizing others. By comparing how divisions articulate concepts such as "rigor," "novelty," and "generalizability," it may be possible to identify the specific epistemic expectations that advantage Global North actors and constrain scholarly recognition to GSS.

Second, additional research should examine how the composition of award committees shapes recognition outcomes. Mapping the geographic, institutional, and career-stage profiles of gatekeepers may reveal whether divisions with more diverse evaluators exhibit more inclusive recognition patterns. Such an approach could help address whether under-representation is driven by structural biases embedded in disciplinary norms or by the demographic composition of award gatekeepers.

Third, the China-effect identified in this analysis demands deeper theoretical attention. Future research should assess whether increased Chinese representation signals a true redistribution of academic authority or simply concentrates visibility within a small group of highly resourced Chinese institutions. A longitudinal analysis can show whether scholars from other Global South regions also gain visibility or whether inequality remains hidden behind improved overall numbers.

Finally, future work could incorporate recipient-level qualitative inquiry, interviewing both recognized scholars and those who remain underrepresented to better understand evaluation experiences, perceptions of fairness, and invisible barriers to recognition. Such inquiry would help illuminate how scholars navigate the "rules of the game" within each division and how these rules interact with structural differences in theoretical training and institutional affiliation. Together,

these avenues can further disentangle the organizational mechanisms through which academic recognition reproduces or challenges global inequalities in knowledge production.

Chapter 5

5.1 Discussion

The findings of this thesis align with existing research on the systemic underrepresentation of GSS across various academic domains (e.g., Collyer, 2018; Contreras & Dornberger, 2022). Consistent with prior studies, the results confirm a persistent geographical bias in the allocation of academic awards, with GSS being significantly less likely to receive recognition compared to their Global North counterparts. This pattern mirrors previous observations regarding their limited presence on editorial boards (Cummings & Hoebink, 2017; Maas et al., 2021; Xue & Xu, 2024), reduced publication (Collyer, 2018) and citation rates (Confraria et al., 2017). These disparities have been attributed to systemic inequalities in resource access, professional networks, and institutional advantages that disproportionately benefit GNS (Sivaramakrishnan & Patel, 2020; Connell, 2007). The consistently lower RRI scores observed for GSS highlight their continued underrepresentation among award recipients. Moreover, the employment affiliation data reveal that GSS must achieve higher institutional prestige to attain comparable recognition.

Against this backdrop of systemic underrepresentation, this study delved deeper into the specific mechanisms shaping these disparities, examining how institutional prestige, employment affiliation, and disciplinary variations intersect to influence academic award outcomes.

5.1.1 Institutional prestige and systemic biases

While, in general, the findings corroborated existing empirical evidence on inequality in academia, they also reveal complexities that challenge certain prevailing assumptions. Although the study aligned with the extant literature that GSS are predominantly affiliated with lower-ranked institutions (Darwin & Barahona, 2024; Lee & Naidoo, 2020; St. Clair, 2021), it also finds that,

those GSS who receive awards tend to be affiliated with relatively higher-ranked institutions. This suggests that GSS must secure positions in more prestigious institutions to be considered for academic recognition. In contrast, GNS do not face this requirement, as even those from lower-ranked institutions in the Global North receive awards at a higher rate.

A key contribution of this thesis lies in its detailed examination of underrepresentation at the intersection of institutional affiliation and award recognition. By integrating RRI data with institutional affiliation metrics, the study offers a robust framework for analyzing systemic inequities in academic recognition. This dual-lens approach captures both the underrepresentation of GSS and the structural barriers that persist even among those with affiliations to low-ranking (high prestige) institutions.

Further, the thesis highlights disciplinary variations in inequities across academic divisions of the AOM, demonstrating that systemic disparities manifest differently across sub-fields. This division-specific focus provides actionable insights into addressing inequities at a granular level, a perspective often absents in broader analyses. Notably, the ENT division of the AOM exhibits relatively smaller disparities in employment affiliation and award recognition, challenging the assumption of uniform inequities across all fields. This anomaly suggests that further investigation is needed to determine whether specific disciplinary norms or practices contribute to a more equitable recognition system and whether such lessons can be applied to other fields.

5.1.2 Academic gatekeeping and implicit biases

The findings of the thesis reinforce existing literature on the dominance of Global North epistemology in academic gatekeeping (Collyer, 2018; Connell, 2014). The results indicate that the award committee constitution processes prioritize subject-matter expertise while neglecting

geographical diversity. This results in perpetuating hegemonic power structures and marginalizing diverse perspectives (Baccini & Re, 2024; Habibie & Hultgren, 2022; Mählck, 2018). Additionally, the study highlights how academic gatekeepers often perceive practices deeply rooted in Global North academic standards as meritocratic. These findings emphasize that existing academic norms continue to privilege Global North standards as the benchmark for excellence, further sidelining scholars from underrepresented regions.

The study also extends research on institutional constraints faced by GSS (Altbach & Salmi, 2011; Teferra & Altbach, 2004). Financial limitations, restricted research infrastructure, and technological disparities have been widely documented as impediments to research productivity in these regions. This study builds upon these insights by highlighting how award gatekeepers see specific challenges (such as limited access to advanced analytical tools and prohibitive costs associated with attending international conferences) as reasons restricting the visibility and recognition of GSS.

5.1.3 Reframing underrepresentation: Systemic oversight vs. deliberate marginalization

While previous research has often framed the exclusion of GSS as an act of deliberate marginalization rooted in historical and epistemological biases (Bhambra, 2014), this thesis proposes a shift in perspective. The findings suggest that underrepresentation is primarily driven by systemic oversight rather than intentional exclusion. Factors such as the composition of award selection committees and the limited integration of GSS into global academic networks inadvertently contribute to their exclusion. This reframing shifts the focus from active discrimination to structural constraints embedded within academic systems.

Additionally, the study emphasizes the role of social and supervisory capital in supporting success in academic award competitions. While the importance of professional networks and mentorship has been widely acknowledged (Burt, 2005; Granovetter, 1973; Heffernan, 2021; Van den Brink & Benschop, 2014), this study highlights the unique challenges GSS face in accessing award-winning supervisors and integrating into elite academic networks. The study provides a more comprehensive understanding of the structural barriers impeding the success of GSS.

5.1.4: Summary of limiting factors

To summarize the structural and institutional mechanisms underpinning the underrepresentation of GSS in academic awards, Table 5.1 presents a synthesized list of key factors that limit their recognition. These factors were identified through cross-divisional analysis, interview evidence, and theoretical integration in this study. Each factor captures a distinct yet interconnected dimension of disadvantage, ranging from institutional location and training background to evaluative gatekeeping and epistemic norms, that collectively shape under-representation of GSS among academic award recipients.

5. 1: List of factors limiting representation and their relative importance and consequences

Serial No.	Factors	Importance and Consequence
1	Employment Affiliation in Global South	It significantly diminishes the likelihood of receiving academic awards due to lower institutional status, fewer resources, and limited visibility.

2	Ph.D. from Global South Institutions	Doctoral training shapes alignment with dominant theories and methods. Graduates from Global South universities are often perceived as less rigorous or less familiar with mainstream academic norms, reducing their recognition chances.
3	Status Consistency of Disadvantage	When scholars' origin, Ph.D., and employment all signal lower status, these disadvantages reinforce each other, creating compounded bias that severely limits award outcomes.
4	Award Committee Composition	Committees dominated by Global North scholars reproduce familiar standards and biases, which narrows the recognition of diverse epistemic traditions and disadvantages Global South scholars.
5	Disciplinary Norms	Disciplinary norms privilege Western theories and methodologies, excluding alternative approaches from the Global South and diminishing their visibility in award decisions.
6	Lack of Mentorship and Network Access	Lack of mentorship and access to influential academic networks limits Global South scholars' visibility, guidance, and sponsorship within

		award-granting circles, thereby reducing their likelihood of winning academic awards.
7	Language and Communication Norms	Language and communication norms rooted in Global North academic conventions disadvantage Global South scholars, as deviations in writing style, framing, or discourse may be perceived as lack of rigor or clarity, thereby lowering their chances of receiving academic awards.

5.1.5 Typology of GSS

A major contribution of this research is the development of a typology of GSS, which shows significant variations in their representation among academic award recipients. The findings demonstrate that:

- Classical GSS (Ph.D. and employment in the Global South) experience the highest levels of underrepresentation, indicating that institutional prestige and geographical affiliation are critical determinants of academic recognition.
- Transnational GSS (Ph.D. and employment in the Global North) consistently achieve parity or overrepresentation, suggesting that continuous Global North affiliation confers the greatest recognition advantage.

- Emigrant GSS (Ph.D. from the Global South, employment in the Global North) outperform Immigrant GSS (Ph.D. from the Global North, employment in the Global South), reinforcing the idea that employment affiliation in the Global North plays a more decisive role in academic recognition than doctoral training institution.

Thus, by moving beyond a binary Global North–South framework, this study provides a nuanced understanding of the interplay between institutional affiliations, disciplinary variations, and award recognition. The findings reinforce that academic recognition systems are deeply shaped by institutional prestige. Employment affiliation in the Global North serves as a dominant determinant of visibility and legitimacy.

Building on these findings, this study offers important theoretical contributions that extend existing frameworks on status inconsistency, academic meritocracy, and institutional biases in recognition systems.

5.2 Theoretical contributions

5.2.1 Expanding meritocracy theory

This study advances meritocracy theory by unpacking the complexities surrounding the conceptualization and application of merit in academia. While prior research has established that merit is distinct from ascriptive characteristics such as social class, family privilege, and demographic attributes (Castilla, 2008; Scully, 1997, 2000), its conceptualization and operationalization remain ambiguous and contested (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2010; Posselt, 2016; Stryker, Danielson, & Schrank, 2011). By examining how academic gatekeepers—key actors in implementing merit-based practices—interpret and apply merit in awarding academic recognition, this study reveals that these interpretations are shaped by dominant academic norms. These

dominant academic norms often favor scholars from elite institutions (Merton, 1968; Musselin, 2018) which are mostly located in Global North.

The study identifies “distance from dominant norms” as a mechanism driving the underrepresentation of GSS in academic recognition. It further illustrates that meritocratic ideals are culturally biased, rewarding those already aligned with dominant norms while marginalizing others. While this construct operates at the individual level, it is rooted in structural organizational factors, such as the prestige of Ph.D.-granting institutions (Confraria et al., 2017), resource limitations (Collyer, 2018), and networking constraints (Montal et al., 2022), which systematically disadvantage GSS. This finding contributes to the broader literature on meritocracy by highlighting its contradictions with distributive justice (Castilla & Benard, 2010; Rivera, 2012) and its implications for diversity and inclusion (Cummings &Hoebink, 2017).

5.2.2 Bridging demand-side and supply-side perspectives on underrepresentation

Another significant contribution of this study is its integration of demand-side and supply-side perspectives on the underrepresentation of GSS. The literature broadly categorizes this issue into two perspectives:

- Supply-side constraints: Limited research funding, restricted access to elite networks, and suboptimal Ph.D. training (Schmaling & Gallo, 2023; Larregue & Nielsen, 2024).
- Demand-side biases: Gatekeepers' preferences and evaluative practices that systematically disadvantage GSS (Anjum & Aziz, 2024; Cerioli, 2024).

This study argues that these factors do not operate in isolation. Instead, it presents an integrated framework that links systemic oversight in demand-side dynamics with the structural constraints

in supply-side experiences. By examining the interplay between these forces, this study provides a more nuanced and comprehensive understanding of how underrepresentation manifests in academic recognition systems.

5.2.3 Advancing research on Global North knowledge hegemony

This study also contributes to the discourse on Global North knowledge hegemony (Carrozza & Benabdallah, 2022; Marginson & Xu, 2023; Pascale, 2016). This hegemonic practice refers to the prioritization of knowledge production, validation, and dissemination by Global North institutions, often marginalizing Global South contributions. Despite the extensive impact of this phenomenon, there remains a lack of systematic analysis delineating its components.

To address this gap, this study identifies five key mechanisms of Global North knowledge hegemony, derived from interviews with academic gatekeepers. These mechanisms include:

1. Prioritization of strong theoretical contributions.
2. Lack of circumlocution and implicitness in academic texts.
3. Preference for critical analysis over linear narratives.
4. Emphasis on novelty in research.
5. Structural exclusion of alternative epistemologies.

By categorizing these practices, this study presents a structured framework linking these hegemonic mechanisms to broader patterns of exclusion, thereby expanding the theoretical scope of academic gatekeeping research.

5.3 Policy implications

This study has several important policy implications. The findings of this study serve as a call to action for academic institutions, funding bodies, and scholarly societies to critically examine their practices and work towards creating a more inclusive and equitable academic landscape. First, they call for structural changes in how academic excellence is defined and evaluated. Broadening the criteria for awards is essential, particularly to include diverse research paradigms and methodologies that are often more prevalent in Global South Scholarships. The findings advocate for a culturally sensitive approach in the evaluation of scholarly work, recognizing diverse knowledge systems and methodologies. Only through such reforms can a more equitable and inclusive academic landscape be realized.

Second, policymakers should employ a multifaceted approach to address underrepresentation, considering factors such as employment affiliation, Ph.D. granting institutions and country of origin. Diversity-enhancing policies must be specifically designed to tackle specific aspects of underrepresentation, rather than applying one-size-fits-all solutions. GSS are not a homogenous group. Different sub-groups have different sets of problems. Therefore, the study highlights the need for customized interventions toward different sub-groups. Different types of interventions may include mentorship programs, enhanced funding for research and conference participation, and fostering networks that encourage collaboration between GSS and GNS.

Third, these findings have significant implications for policymakers in academic institutions and scholarly organizations. A key insight emerging from this study is lack of awareness regarding the representation of GSS as gatekeepers within award committees. The absence of GSS from these committees exacerbates existing biases, as award decisions are shaped by evaluators who may lack exposure to or appreciation of the intellectual contributions emerging from the Global South. This exclusion results in a cycle of invisibility, where GSS remain underrepresented not only among

award recipients but also in the very structures that determine academic prestige. Without representation in decision-making roles, the criteria for excellence remain disproportionately aligned with Global North epistemic traditions, methodologies, and research priorities, sidelining the diverse scholarly contributions of GSS.

The study emphasizes the need for academic discourse to address the issue of academic norms and standards in globalized academia. Should GSS continue to maintain and develop their indigenous epistemologies, or should they adapt to Western frameworks in order to align with existing academic standards? At present, dominant academic norms are coercing the “Sanskritization” of GSS. The concept of Sanskritization, originally introduced by M.N. Srinivas (1958), refers to the process through which lower castes in India adopt the cultural traits of the upper castes to get acceptance. In the contemporary academic context, Global South might adopt the dominant intellectual frameworks, languages, and methodologies of Global North to gain recognition and validation within global academia. This "academic Sanskritization" is a critical issue deserving discussion, as it holds both advantages and disadvantages.

5.4 Limitations and directions for future research

The thesis acknowledges a limitation in its generalizability, due to its focus on the AOM conferences, which offered a large and diverse sample of scholars, but within one disciplinary field (Business and Management). This specificity, while informative, limits the ability to apply findings to broader academic award processes. However, there remains a need to explore whether similar patterns of underrepresentation exist in other academic fields and their conferences, especially those that vary in size. Investigating other academic disciplines could reveal systemic issues in

underrepresentation and help inform policy changes that are applicable across the academic landscape.

A longitudinal analysis tracking the representation of GSS among award recipients over time would provide critical insights into whether inclusion efforts are improving or whether disparities remain stagnant. This data could highlight long-term trends and indicate where progress is being made or where interventions are still necessary. Complementing this quantitative approach with qualitative research on the lived experiences of GSS during the award processes could deepen the understanding of exclusion mechanisms and offer tangible strategies for greater inclusion.

Additionally, future studies could adopt an intersectional approach, examining how geographical location intersects with other critical factors such as gender, race, and career stage. These intersecting factors could influence the likelihood of receiving academic awards and reveal additional layers of inequality that may not be immediately visible when focusing solely on geography.

References

Abrahams, L., Burke, M., Gray, E., & Rens, A. (2008). *Opening access to knowledge in Southern African Universities*. SARUA, Pretoria, ZA.

ACOLA. (2023). *Research assessment in Australia: Evidence for modernisation*. Chief Scientist, Australian Government. https://www.chiefscientist.gov.au/ResearchAssessment

Akça, S., & Şenyurt, Ö. (2023). Geographical representation of editorial boards: a review in the field of library and information sciences. *Scientometrics*, *128*(2), 1409-1427.

Albanna, B., Handl, J., & Heeks, R. (2021). Publication outperformance among global South researchers: An analysis of individual-level and publication-level predictors of positive deviance. *Scientometrics*, *126*(10), 8375-8431.

Albanna, B., Handl, J., & Heeks, R. (2021). Publication outperformance among global South researchers: An analysis of individual-level and publication-level predictors of positive deviance. *Scientometrics, 126*, 8375-8431.

Altbach, P. G., & Salmi, J. (Eds.). (2011). *The Road to Academic Excellence: The Making of World-Class Research Universities*. The World Bank: Washington DC.

Altman, Y., & Laguecir, A. (2012). Leadership in the academic field of business and management and the question of country of origin: A commentary on Burgess and Shaw (2010). *British Journal of Management*, *23*(4), 589-597.

Alvares, C. (2011). A critique of Eurocentric social science and the question of alternatives. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 72-81.

Anderson, C., Hildreth, J. A. D., & Howland, L. (2015). Is the desire for status a fundamental human motive? A review of the empirical literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, *141*(3), 574-601.

Anderson, N., Robinson, D. G., Verhagen, E., Fagher, K., Edouard, P., Rojas-Valverde, D., ... & Belavy, D. L. (2023). Under-representation of women is alive and well in sport and exercise medicine: what it looks like and what we can do about it. *BMJ Open Sport & Exercise Medicine, 9(2)*, e001606.

André, S., & Dronkers, J. (2017*).* Perceived in-group discrimination by first and second generation immigrants from different countries of origin in 27 EU member-states*. International Sociology,* 32(1), 105-129

Anjum, G., & Aziz, M. (2024). Advancing equity in cross-cultural psychology: embracing diverse epistemologies and fostering collaborative practices. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *15*, 1368663.

Aronson, J. and Inzlicht, M. 2004. The ups and downs of attributional ambiguity: Stereotype vulnerability and the academic self-knowledge of African American college students. *Psychological Science, 15(12),* 829-836.

Arsel, Z., Crockett, D., & Scott, M. L. (2022). Diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in the Journal of Consumer Research: A curation and research agenda. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 48(5), 920-933.

Arseneault, R., & Roulin, N. (2024). Examining discrimination in asynchronous video interviews: Does cultural distance based on country-of-origin matter? *Applied Psychology, 73(1),* 185-214.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14(1)*, 20-39.

Askarzadeh, F., Lewellyn, K., Fainshmidt, S., & Judge, W. Q. (2025). Entrepreneurial orientation and underconformity to female board representation norms. *Journal of Management Studies, 62(2),* 539-564.

Assefa, S., Rorissa, A., & Alemneh, D. (2021). Digital readiness assessment of countries in Africa: Case study research. *Proceedings of the Association for Information Science and Technology, 58(1)*, 400-404.

Baccini, A., & Re, C. (2024). Who are the gatekeepers of economics? Geographic diversity, gender composition, and interlocking editorship of journal boards. *Review of Political Economy*, 1-28.

Bádéjọ, F. A., Appau, S., Zainuddin, N., & Kariippanon, K. (2022). Can the subaltern (s) speak? Amplifying the voices of GSS in the Australasian marketing academy. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 30*(3), 195-201.

Bai, Y. (2018). Has the Global South become a playground for Western scholars in information and communication technologies for development? Evidence from a three-journal analysis. *Scientometrics*, *116*(3), 2139-2153.

Baldi, S. (1998). Normative versus social constructivist processes in the allocation of citations: A network-analytic model. *American Sociological Review*, 63(6), 829-846.

Baruch, Y. (2001). Global or North American? A geographical based comparative analysis of publications in top management journals. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, *1*(1), 109-126.

Bastian, G. (2017). Looking into Pandora's Box: The Content of Sci-Hub and its Usage. *F1000Research*, *6*.

Bedeian, A. G., Cavazos, D. E., Hunt, J. G., & Jauch, L. R. (2010). Doctoral degree prestige and the academic marketplace: A study of career mobility within the management discipline. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *9*(1), 11-25.

Bedeian, A. G., Taylor, S. G., & Miller, A. N. (2010). Management science on the credibility bubble: Cardinal sins and various misdemeanors. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 9(4),* 715-725.

Beiter, K. D. (2023). Access to scholarly publications in the global North and the global South—Copyright and the need for a paradigm shift under the right to science. *Frontiers in Sociology*, *8*, 1277292.

Benade, L. (2016). Learned Societies, Practitioners and their 'Professional' Societies: Grounds for developing closer links. *Educational Philosophy and Theory, 48(14)*, 1395-1400.

Benjamin, B. A., & Podolny, J. M. (1999). Status, quality, and social order in the California wine industry. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*(3), 563-589.

Benoit-Smullyan, E. (1944). Status, status types, and status interrelations. *American Sociological Review*, *9*(2), 151-161.

Berger, C. J., Cummings, L. L., & Heneman III, H. G. (1975). Expectancy theory and operant conditioning predictions of performance under variable ratio and continuous schedules of reinforcement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *14*(2), 227-243.

Berger, J., & Webster, M., Jr. (2006). Expectations, Status, and Behavior. In P. J. Burke (Ed.), *Contemporary social psychological theories* (pp. 268–300). Stanford University Press.

Berger, J., Cohen, B. P., & Zelditch, M. (1972). Status characteristics and social interaction. *American Sociological Review, 37*(3), 241–255.

Bhambra, G. K. (2014). *Connected Sociologies*. London: Bloomsbury.

Bhambra, G. K., & Holmwood, J. (2021). *Colonialism and modern social theory*. Cambridge, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Biegert, T., Kühhirt, M., & Van Lancker, W. (2023). They can't all be stars: The Matthew effect, cumulative status bias, and status persistence in NBA all-star elections. *American Sociological Review, 88*(2), 189-219.

Bilkey, W. J., & Nes, E. (1982). Country-of-origin effects on product evaluations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *13*, 89-100.

Blicharska, M., Smithers, R. J., Kuchler, M., Agrawal, G. K., Gutiérrez, J. M., Hassanali, A., ... & Mikusiński, G. (2017). Steps to overcome the North–South divide in research relevant to climate change policy and practice. *Nature Climate Change*, *7*(1), 21-27.

Boatcă, M. (2021). Thinking Europe otherwise: lessons from the Caribbean. *Current Sociology*, *69*(3), 389-414.

Borjas, G. J., & Doran, K. B. (2015). Prizes and productivity: How winning the fields medal affects scientific output. *Journal of Human Resources*, *50*(3), 728-758.

Bornmann, L., Stefaner, M., de Moya Anegón, F., & Mutz, R. (2014). What is the effect of country-specific characteristics on the research performance of scientific institutions? Using multi-level statistical models to rank and map universities and research-focused institutions worldwide. *Journal of Informetrics*, *8*(3), 581-593

Botelho, T. L., & Gertsberg, M. (2022). The disciplining effect of status: Evaluator status awards and observed gender bias in evaluations. *Management Science*, *68*(7), 5311-5329.

Bothner, M. S., Kim, Y. K., & Lee, W. (2015). Primary status, complementary status, and organizational survival in the US venture capital industry. *Social science research*, *52*, 588-601.

Bothner, M. S., Podolny, J. M., & Smith, E. B. (2011). Organizing contests for status: The Matthew effect vs. the Mark effect. *Management Science*, *57*(3), 439-457.

Bourdieu, P. (1988). *Homo academicus*. Stanford University Press

Bourdieu, P. (2011). The forms of capital (1986). *Cultural theory: An anthology*, *1*(81-93), 949.

Boyd, D. E., & Kannan, P. K. (2018). (When) Does third-party recognition for design excellence affect financial performance in business-to-business markets? *Journal of Marketing, 82(3),* 108-123.

Breetzke, G. (2025) "The Under-Representation of the Global South on Editorial Boards in Criminology", *International Journal for Crime, Justice and Social Democracy*. doi: 10.5204/ijcjsd.3719.

Breuning, M., Feinberg, A., Gross, B. I., Martinez, M., Sharma, R., & Ishiyama, J. (2018). How international is political science? Patterns of submission and publication in the American Political Science Review. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 51(4), 789-798.

Brown, D. J. (2015). *Access to scientific research: Challenges facing communications in STM*. Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.

Brown, K. E., & Steele, A. S. (2015). Racial discipline disproportionality in Montessori and traditional public schools: A comparative study using the relative rate index. *Journal of Montessori Research,* 1(1), 14-27.

Burford, J., Eppolite, M., Koompraphant, G., & Uerpairojkit, T. (2021). Narratives of 'stuckness' among North–South academic migrants in Thailand: Interrogating normative logics and

global power asymmetries of transnational academic migration. *Higher Education*, 82, 731-747.

Burgess, D. J., Joseph, A., van Ryn, M., & Carnes, M. (2017). Does stereotype threat affect women in academic medicine? *Academic Medicine*, 87(4), 506-512.

Burgess, T. F., & Shaw, N. E. (2010). Editorial board membership of management and business journals: A social network analysis study of the Financial Times 40. *British Journal of Management*, 21(3), 627-648.

Burgess, T., Grimshaw, P., Huatuco, L., & Shaw, N. (2017). Mapping the Operations and Supply Chain Management field: a journal governance perspective. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 37, 898-926.

Bursztyn, L., Haaland, I. K., Rao, A., & Roth, C. P. (2020). *Disguising prejudice: Popular rationales as excuses for intolerant expression* (No. w27288). National Bureau of Economic Research.

Burt, R. S. (2005). *Brokerage and Closure: An Introduction to Social Capital*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cadaret, Michael C., Paul J. Hartung, Linda M. Subich, and Ingrid K. Weigold.2017. Stereotype threat as a barrier to women entering engineering careers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 99,* 40-51.

Campbell, A., & Neff, E. (2020). A Systematic Review of International Higher Education Scholarships for Students from the Global South. *Review of Educational Research*, 90, 824 - 861.

Campbell, R., & Cowley, P. (2014). The representation of women in politics, addressing the supply side: Public attitudes to job-sharing parliamentarians. *British Politics, 9*, 430-449.

Carrozza, I., & Benabdallah, L. (2022). South–South knowledge production and hegemony: searching for Africa in Chinese theories of IR. *International Studies Review, 24(1*), viab063

Carvalho, J. P., & Pradelski, B. S. (2022). Identity and underrepresentation: Interactions between race and gender. *Journal of Public Economics, 216*, 104764.

Carvalho, J. P., & Pradelski, B. S. (2024). The representation dynamic and the "normalization" of group differences. *The Journal of Law, Economics, and Organization*, 00, 1-29, ewae014.

Cash-Gibson, L., Rojas-Gualdrón, D. F., Pericàs, J. M., & Benach, J. (2018). Inequalities in global health inequalities research: A 50-year bibliometric analysis (1966-2015). PloS one, 13(1), e0191901.

Castilla, E. J. (2008). Gender, race, and meritocracy in organizational careers. *American Journal of Sociology*, 113(6), 1479-1526.

Castilla, E. J., & Benard, S. (2010). The paradox of meritocracy in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 55(4), 543-576.

Castilla, E. J., & Poskanzer, E. J. (2022). Through the front door: Why do organizations (still) prefer legacy applicants? *American Sociological Review, 87(5),* 782-826.

Castro Torres, A.F., & Alburez-Gutierrez, D., (2022). North and South: Naming practices and the hidden dimension of global disparities in knowledge production. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *119*(10), p.e2119373119.

Cech, E. A., & Blair-Loy, M. (2010). Perceiving glass ceilings? Meritocratic versus structural explanations of gender inequality among women in science and technology. *Social Problems*, 57(3), 371-397.

Cerioli, L. (2024). Neoclassical realism, global international relations, and the unheard echoes of realist practices from the South. *The British Journal of Politics and International Relations*, 13691481241230858

Chagas-Bastos, FH, Resende, E., Ghosn, F., & Lisle, D. (2023). Navigating the Global South landscape: insights and implications for representation and inclusion in ISA journals. *International Studies Perspectives*, *24* (4), 441-466.

Chan, H. F., Gleeson, L., & Torgler, B. (2014). Awards before and after the Nobel Prize: A Matthew effect and/or a ticket to one's own funeral? *Research Evaluation*, *23*(3), 210-220.

Chan, J., Johns, F., & Moses, L. B. (2018). Academic metrics and positioning strategies. In B. Ajana (Ed.), *Metric culture: Ontologies of self-tracking practices* (pp. 177–195). Emerald Group.

Chan, L., & Costa, S. (2005). Participation in the global knowledge commons: challenges and opportunities for research dissemination in developing countries. *New library World*, *106*(3/4), 141-163.

Collyer, F. (2018). Global patterns in the publishing of academic knowledge: Global North, global South. *Current Sociology*, 66, 56 - 73.

Colorado Division of Criminal Justice. (2009). *Disproportionate minority contact technical assistance manual.* Retrieved from https://cdpsdocs.state.co.us/ccjj/Resources/DMC/NTTAC-DMC_TA-Manual.pdf

Confraria, H., Godinho, M. M., & Wang, L. (2017). Determinants of citation impact: A comparative analysis of the Global South versus the Global North. *Research Policy*, *46*(1), 265-279.

Connell, R. (2007). *Southern Theory: The Global Dynamics of Knowledge in Social Science*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Connell, R. (2007). The northern theory of globalization. *Sociological Theory*, *25*(4), 368-385.

Connell, R. (2014). Using southern theory: Decolonizing social thought in theory, research and application. *Planning Theory*, 13(2), 210-223.

Connell, R. (2017). Southern theory and world universities. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *36*(1), 4-15.

Connell, R. 2020. *Southern theory: The global dynamics of knowledge in social science*. (1st ed.), London: Routledge.

Contreras, F., & Dornberger, U. (2022). Sustainable entrepreneurship as a field of knowledge: Analyzing the global south. *Sustainability*, *15*(1), 31.

Correll, S. J., & Ridgeway, C. L. (2003). Expectation states theory. In *Handbook of social psychology* (p. 29-51). Boston, MA: Springer Us.

Cummings, S., & Hoebink, P. (2017). Representation of academics from developing countries as authors and editorial board members in scientific journals: does this matter to the field of development studies? *The European Journal of Development Research, 29*, 369-383.

D'Cruz, P., Noronha, E., & Katiyar, S. 2022. Meaningfulness and impact of academic research: Bringing the global south to the forefront. *Business & Society, 61(4)*, 839- 844.

Dardas, L. A., Malkawi, A. M., Sweis, S., Sweis, N., Al-Khayat, A., & Sawair, F. A. (2023). Mapping two decades of research productivity in the middle eastern and Arab countries: A comprehensive bibliometric analysis. *Publications*, *11*(4), 48.

Darnall, N., Ji, H., & Vázquez-Brust, D. A. (2018). Third-party certification, sponsorship, and consumers' ecolabel use. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *150*, 953-969.

Darwin, S., & Barahona, M. (2024). Globalising or assimilating? Exploring the contemporary function of regionalised global university rankings in Latin America. *Higher Education*, *87*, 287-304.

Darwin, S., & Barahona, M. (2024). Institutional prestige and academic recognition: A global perspective. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 43(3), 567-582.

D'Aveni, R. A. (1996). A multiple-constituency, status-based approach to interorganizational mobility of faculty and input-output competition among top business schools. *Organization Science*, *7*(2), 166-189.

Davies, J., Yarrow, E., & Syed, J. (2020). The curious under-representation of women impact case leaders: Can we disengender inequality regimes? *Gender, Work & Organization*, *27*(2), 129-148.

De Jonckheere, M., & Vaughn, L. M. (2019). Semi structured interviewing in primary care research: a balance of relationship and rigour. *Family Medicine and Community Health, 7(2), e000057*

De Vaan, M., Stark, D., & Vedres, B. (2015). Game changer: The topology of creativity. *American Journal of Sociology*, *120*(4), 1144-1194.

Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2017). Chapter II. Hallmark critical race theory themes. In *Critical Race Theory (Third Edition)* (pp. 19-43). New York University Press.

Demeter, M. (2020). *Academic knowledge production and the global south: Questioning inequality and under-representation*. London : Palgrave Macmillan.

Derous, E., Ryan, A. M., & Nguyen, H. D. (2012). Multiple categorizations in resume screening: Examining effects on hiring discrimination against Arab applicants in field and lab settings. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*(4), 544-570.

Desai, V. M. (2018). Third-party certifications as an organizational performance liability. *Journal of Management, 44*(8), 3096-3123.

DiPrete, T.A., & Eirich, G.M. (2006). Cumulative advantage as a mechanism for inequality: A review of theoretical and empirical developments. *Annual Review of Sociology, 32(1)*, 271–297.

Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty-year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business, 47(4),* 504-518.

Doty, D. H., & Glick, W. H. (1994). Typologies as a Unique Form of Theory Building: Toward Improved Understanding and Modeling. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(2), 230-251.

Dukerich, J. M., Golden, B. R., & Shortell, S. M. (2002). Beauty is in the eye of the beholder: The impact of organizational identification, identity, and image on the cooperative behaviors of physicians. *Administrative science quarterly*, *47*(3), 507-533.

Durkheim, E., & Mauss, M. (2009). *Primitive classification (Routledge revivals)*. Routledge.

Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*,*39(2),* 239-263.

Ejermo, O., & Sofer, Y. (2024). When colleges graduate: Micro-level effects on publications and scientific organization. *Research Policy,* 53(6), 105007.

Ejiogu, N., Norbeck, J. H., Mason, M. A., Cromwell, B. C., Zonderman, A. B., & Evans, M. K. (2011). Recruitment and retention strategies for minority or poor clinical research participants: lessons from the healthy aging in neighborhoods of diversity across the life span study. *The Gerontologist*, *51*(suppl_1), S33-S45.

Encyclopedia (2024). Underrepresentation. *International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*. Accessed from https://www.encyclopedia.com/social-sciences/applied-and-social-sciences-magazines/underrepresentation Retrieved on May 15, 2024

English, J. F. (2014). The economics of cultural awards. In *Handbook of the Economics of Art and Culture* (Vol. 2, pp. 119-143). Elsevier.

Environmental Studies Association of Canada (2014) *What is a Learned Society* [online]. Accessed from http://www.esac.ca/about/what-is-a-learned-society/ Retrieved on 26 July, 2021

European Commission. (2016). *Annual activity report 2016*. Accessed from https://commission.europa.eu/publications/annual-activity-reports-2016_en. Retrieved on May 17, 2024.

Ferguson, S., Brace-Govan, J., & Martin, D. M. (2020). Gender status bias and the marketplace. *Journal of Business Research, 107*, 211-221.

Ferreira, M., Costas, R., Servedio, V., & Thurner, S. (2023). Scientific mobility, prestige and skill alignment in academic institutions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.06426*.

Fisher, R. J., & Wakefield, K. (1998). Factors leading to group identification: A field study of winners and losers. *Psychology & Marketing*, *15*(1), 23-40.

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(6), 878–902.

Fiss, P. C. (2011). Building better causal theories: A fuzzy set approach to typologies in organization research. *Academy of Management Journal*, *54*(2), 393-420.

Flynn A. (2017). *Disenfranchisement: A historical tool of racial exclusion*. Roosevelt Institute.

Foladare, I. S. (1969). A clarification of “ascribed status” and “achieved status.” *Sociological Quarterly, 10*, 53–61

Frey, B. S. (2007). Awards as compensation. *European Management Review, 4(1),* 6-14.

Frey, B. S., & Gallus, J. (2017). Towards an economics of awards. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, *31*(1), 190-200

Frey, B. S., & Neckermann, S. (2009). Awards: A view from economics. In *The economics of ethics and the ethics of economics*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Fricker, M. (2007). *Epistemic injustice: Power and the ethics of knowing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fry, C., & MacGarvie, M. (2024). Author country of origin and attention on open science platforms: Evidence from COVID-19 preprints. *Management Science, 70(8),* 5426-5444.

Gallus, J. (2017). Fostering public good contributions with symbolic awards: A large-scale natural field experiment at Wikipedia. *Management Science*, *63*(12), 3999-4015.

Gallus, J., & Frey, B. S. (2017). Awards as strategic signals. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *26*(1), 76-85.

Galtung, J. (1964). A structural theory of aggression. *Journal of Peace Research, 1,* 95–119.

George, G. (2014). Rethinking management scholarship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(1), 1-6.

Gewin, V. (2023). Pack up the parachute: why global north-south collaborations need to change. *Nature, 619(7971)*, 885-887.

Ghobadi, S., & Robey, D. (2017). Strategic signalling and awards: Investigation into the first decade of AIS best publications awards. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems, 26(4)*, 360-384.

Ghosn, F., (2023). navigating the Global South landscape: insights and implications for representation and inclusion in ISA journals. *International Studies Perspectives*, *24*(4), 441-466.

Gilbert, N. (1997). A simulation of the structure of academic science. *Sociological Research Online*, *2*(2), 91-105.

Gill PS, Plumridge G, Khunti K, Greenfield S. Under-representation of minority ethnic groups in cardiovascular research: a semi-structured interview study. *Family Practice 2013*; 30(2), 233–241.

Ginsburgh, V., Radermecker, A. S., & Tommasi, D. (2019). The effect of experts' opinion on prices of art works: The case of Peter Brueghel the Younger. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 159*, 36-50.

Gioia, D.A., Corley, K.G. and Hamilton, A.L., 2013. Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research: Notes on the Gioia methodology. *Organizational Research Methods*, *16*(1), pp.15-31.

Glänzel, W., Debackere, K., & Mayer, M. (2008). 'Triad' or 'tetrad'? On Global changes in a dynamic world. *Scientometrics,* 74(1), (2008) 71-88

Glaser B. G., Strauss A. (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Chicago: Aldine de Gruyter.

Go, J. (2020). Race, empire, and epistemic exclusion: Or the structures of sociological thought. *Sociological Theory*, *38*(2), 79-100.

Godey, B., Pederzoli, D., Aiello, G., Donvito, R., Chan, P., Oh, H., ... & Weitz, B. (2012). Brand and country-of-origin effect on consumers' decision to purchase luxury products. *Journal of Business Research, 65(10)*, 1461-1470.

Granovetter, M. (1973). The Strength of Weak Ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(6), 1360-1380.

Gray E. (2009). National Environmental Scan of South African Scholarly Publishing. *Report of the Opening Scholarship Project funded by the Shuttleworth Foundation.* Cape Town: Centre of Educational Technology, University of Cape Town

Gray, K., & Gills, B. K. (2016). South–South cooperation and the rise of the Global South. *Third World Quarterly*, *37*(4), 557-574.

Grosfoguel, R. (2013). Epistemic racism/sexism, Westernized universities and the four genocides/epistemicides of the long sixteenth century. *Tabula rasa*, (19), 31-58.

Habibie, P., & Hultgren, A. K. (Eds.). (2022). *The inner world of gatekeeping in scholarly publication*. Springer Nature.

Haffar, S., Bazerbachi, F., & Murad, M. H. (2019). Peer review bias: a critical review. In *Mayo Clinic Proceedings, 94(4),* 670-676.

Haire, M., Ghiselli, E. E., & Porter, L. W. **(**1966). *Managerial Thinking: An International Study*. New York: Wiley.

Hamermesh, D. S., & Pfann, G. A. (2012). Reputation and earnings: The roles of quality and quantity in academe. *Economic Inquiry, 50*(1), 1-16.

Han, J. H., & Pollock, T. G. (2021). The two towers (or somewhere in between): The behavioral consequences of positional inconsistency across status hierarchies. *Academy of Management Journal, 64*(1), 86-113.

Hardy III, J. H., Tey, K. S., Cyrus-Lai, W., Martell, R. F., Olstad, A., & Uhlmann, E. L. (2022). Bias in context: Small biases in hiring evaluations have big consequences. *Journal of Management*, *48*(3), 657-692.

Hardy, C. L., & Van Vugt, M. (2006). Nice guys finish first: The competitive altruism hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *32*(10), 1402-1413.

Harris, M., Macinko, J., Jimenez, G., & Mullachery, P. (2017). Measuring the bias against low-income country research: an Implicit Association Test. *Globalization and Health*, *13*, 1-9.

Harris, M., Marti, E., & Schotter, A. P. J. (2021). Institutional Prestige and the Underrepresentation of GSS. *Research Policy*, 50(9), 104328.

Harrison, B., & Jepsen, D. M. (2015). The career impact of winning an external work-related award. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *89*, 21-31.

Harzing, A. W., & Metz, I. (2013). Practicing what we preach: The geographic diversity of editorial boards. *Management International Review*, *53*, 169-187.

Haug, S., Braveboy-Wagner, J., & Maihold, G. (2021). The 'Global South' in the study of world politics: examining a meta category. *Third World Quarterly, 42(9)*, 1923-1944.

He, Y., Huang, Y., Tian, C., Xiang, S., & Ma, Y. (2024). Neural embeddings of scientific mobility reveal the stratification of institutions in China. *Information Processing & Management*, *61*(3), 103702.

Hedding, D. W., & Breetzke, G. (2021). "Here be dragons!" The gross under-representation of the Global South on editorial boards in Geography. *The Geographical Journal, 187(4)*, 331-345.

Heffernan, T. (2021). Academic networks and career trajectory: There's no career in academia without networks. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *40*(5), 981-994.

Hellerstedt, K., Uman, T., & Wennberg, K. (2024). Fooled by diversity? When diversity initiatives exacerbate rather than mitigate bias and inequality. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 38(1)*, 23-42.

Hesli, V. L., & Lee, J. M. (2013). Job satisfaction in academia: Why are some faculty members happier than others? *PS: Political Science & Politics*, *46*(2), 339-354.

Hirsch, F. (1976). *Social Limits to Growth*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press

Hofstede, G. (1981). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 10(4),* 15-41.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. McGraw-Hill.

Hofstra, B., Kulkarni, V. V., Munoz-Najar Galvez, S., He, B., Jurafsky, D., & McFarland, D. A. (2020). The diversity–innovation paradox in science. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *117*(17), 9284-9291.

Holding, B. C., Acciai, C., Schneider, J. W., & Nielsen, M. W. (2024). Quantifying the mover's advantage: transatlantic migration, employment prestige, and scientific performance. *Higher Education*, *87*(6), 1749-1767.

Horner, R., & Nadvi, K. (2018). Global value chains and the rise of the Global South: unpacking twenty-first century polycentric trade. *Global Networks*, *18*(2), 207-237.

Hottenrott, H., & Lawson, C. (2022). What is behind multiple institutional affiliations in academia? *Science and Public Policy*, 49(3), 382-402.

Huber, J., Inoua, S., Kerschbamer, R., König-Kersting, C., Palan, S., & Smith, V. L. (2022). Nobel and novice: Author prominence affects peer review. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 119*(41), e2205779119.

Hunt, J., Garant, J. P., Herman, H., & Munroe, D. J. (2013). Why are women underrepresented amongst patentees? *Research Policy, 42*(4), 831-843.

Hvistendahl, M. (2013) China's publication bazaar. *Science 342(6162)*: 1035–1039.

Inman, M. L., Huerta, J., & Oh, S. (1998). Perceiving discrimination: The role of prototypes and norm violation. *Social Cognition*, *16*(4), 418-450.

Jensen, M., & Wang, H. (2018). The Mechanisms of Status Advantage: Evidence from the International Venture Capital Industry. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(4), 1351-1384.

Jensen, M., & Wang, P. (2018). Not in the same boat: How status inconsistency affects research performance in business schools. *Academy of Management Journal*, *61*(3), 1021-1049.

Jensen, M., Kim, B. K., & Kim, H. (2011). The importance of status in markets: A market identity perspective. *Status in Management and Organizations*, *48*(2), 87-113.

Jiang, F., & Liu, N. (2018). The hierarchical status of international academic awards in social sciences. *Scientometrics, 117(3),* 2091-2115.

Jin, C., Ma, Y., & Uzzi, B. (2021). Scientific prizes and the extraordinary growth of scientific topics. *Nature Communications*, *12*(1), 5619.

Kalkstein, D. A., Hook, C. J., Hard, B. M., & Walton, G. M. (2023). Social norms govern what behaviors come to mind—And what do not. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *124*(6), 1203-1229.

Keiser, J., Utzinger, J., Tanner, M., & Singer, B. H. (2004). Representation of authors and editors from countries with different human development indexes in the leading literature on tropical medicine: survey of current evidence. *BMJ, 328(7450)*, 1229-1232.

Khaire, M., & Wadhwani, R. D. (2010). Changing landscapes: The construction of meaning and value in a new market category—Modern Indian art. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(6), 1281-1304.

Kim, J. W., & King, B. G. (2014). Seeing stars: Matthew effects and status bias in Major League Baseball umpiring. *Management Science, 60*(11), 2619-2644.

Klein, G., Shtudiner, Z., & Zwilling, M. (2021). Uncovering gender bias in attitudes towards financial advisors. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *189*, 257-273.

Konrad, A. M., Richard, O. C., & Yang, Y. (2021). Both diversity and meritocracy: Managing the diversity-meritocracy paradox with organizational ambidexterity. *Journal of Management Studies,* 58(8), 2180-2206.

Korkeamäki, Laura., Late, E., Pölönen, J., Ryynänen-Karjalainen, L., & Syrjämäki, S. (2019). Learned societies in Finland 2018. *Web Publications of the Federation of Finnish Learned Societies*, *8*.

Kovács, B., & Liu, C. (2016). Audience structure and status multiplicity. *Social Networks*, *44*, 36-49.

Krishnan, G.V., Singer, Z. and Zhang, J. (2023). Audit partner ethnicity and salient audit phenomena. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 107, 101440.

Krook, M. L. (2010). Beyond supply and demand: A feminist-institutionalist theory of candidate selection. *Political Research Quarterly, 63*(4), 707-720.

Kryzanowski, L., Wu, Y., & Zhou, T. (2023). Conflicts of interest and agent heterogeneity in buyer brokerage. *Real Estate Economics*, 51(1), 130-169.

Kuzhabekova, A., & Temerbayeva, A. (2018). The role of conferences in doctoral student socialization. *Studies in Graduate and Postdoctoral Education, 9(2),* 181-196.

Labour Market Information Council (2023). *Understanding Under-Representation in Canada's Labour Market: An Analysis of Definitions and Approaches*. Ottawa: LMIC.

Lagisz, M., Aich, U., Amin, B., Rutkowska, J., Sánchez-Mercado, A., Lara, C. E., & Nakagawa, S. (2023). Little transparency and equity in scientific awards for early-and mid-career researchers in ecology and evolution. *Nature ecology & evolution*, *7*(5), 655-665.

Lagisz, M., Rutkowska, J., Aich, U., Ross, R. M., Santana, M. S., Wang, J., ... & Nakagawa, S. (2024). "Best Paper" awards lack transparency, inclusivity, and support for Open Science. *PLoS Biology*, *22*(7), e3002715.

Lamont, M. (2009). *How professors think: Inside the curious world of academic judgment.* Harvard University Press.

Lamont, M., & Huutoniemi, K. (2011). Comparing customary rules of fairness. *Evaluative Practices in Various Types of Peer Review Panels*. S, 209-232.

Lamont, M., Beljean, S., & Clair, M. (2014). What is missing? Cultural processes and causal pathways to inequality. *Socio-Economic Review*, *12*(3), 573-608.

Larregue, J., & Nielsen, M. W. (2024). Knowledge hierarchies and gender disparities in social science funding. *Sociology*, *58*(1), 45-65.

Larson, Z. (2017). Making freedom: Apartheid, squatter politics, and the struggle for home by Anne-Maria Makhulu. *Journal of Global South Studies, 34(2),* 251-253.

Lawson, N. (2023). What citation tests really tell us about bias in academic publishing. *European Economic Review, 158*, 104534.

Lee, J. T., & Naidoo, R. (2020). Complicit reproductions in the global south: Courting world-class universities and global rankings. In S. Rider, M. A. Peters, & T. Besley (Eds.), *World Class Universities: A Contested Concept* (pp. 77-91). Springer.

Lenski, G. E. (1956). Social participation and status crystallization. *American Sociological Review*, *21*(4), 458-464.

Liao, H., Feng, Q., Zhu, L., & Guan, O. Z. (2023). The award goes to… someone else: A natural quasi-experiment examining the impact of performance awards on nominees' workplace collaboration. *Academy of Management Journal*, *66*(5), 1303-1333.

Lin, N. (1999). Social networks and status attainment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *25*(1), 467-487.

Lin, N. (2017). Building a network theory of social capital. *Social Capital*, 22(1), 28-51

Linton, R. (1936). *The study of man: An introduction.* New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Liverpool, L. (2021). Researchers from Global South Under-Represented in Development Research. *Nature, https://www.sabinai-neji.com/articles/d41586-021-02549-9.pdf*

Locke K. (2001) *Grounded Theory in Management Research*. London: Sage.

Long, R. G., Bowers, W. P., Barnett, T., & White, M. C. (1998). Research productivity of graduates in management: Effects of academic origin and academic affiliation. *Academy of Management Journal, 41(6)*, 704-714.

Long, R., Crawford, A., White, M., & Davis, K. (2009). Determinants of faculty research productivity in information systems: An empirical analysis of the impact of academic origin and academic affiliation. *Scientometrics, 78(2)*, 231-260.

Lor, P. J. (2019). *International and Comparative Librarianship: Concepts and Methods for Global Studies.* Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Saur.

Ma, Y., & Uzzi, B. (2018). Scientific prize network predicts who pushes the boundaries of science. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *115*(50), 12608-12615.

Maas, B., Pakeman, R. J., Godet, L., Smith, L., Devictor, V., & Primack, R. (2021). Women and Global South strikingly underrepresented among top-publishing ecologists. *Conservation letters*, *14*(4), e12797.

Maggio, L. A., Ninkov, A., Costello, J. A., Driessen, E. W., & Artino Jr, A. R. (2021). Knowledge syntheses in medical education: Meta-research examining author gender, geographic location, and institutional affiliation. *PLoS One*, *16*(10), e0258925.

Mählck, P. (2018). Vulnerability, gender and resistance in transnational academic mobility. *Tertiary Education and Management*, *24(3)*, 254-265.

Malmqvist, J., Hellberg, K., Möllås, G., Rose, R., & Shevlin, M. (2019). Conducting the pilot study: A neglected part of the research process? Methodological findings supporting the importance of piloting in qualitative research studies. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods,* 18, 1-11.

March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. *Higher education*, *52*, 1-39.

Marginson, S., & Xu, X. (2023). Hegemony and inequality in global science: Problems of the center-periphery model. *Comparative Education Review, 67*(1), 31-52.

Marquardt, J. (2018). Worlds apart? The Global South and the Anthropocene. In Thomas Hickmann, Lena Partzsch, Philipp Pattberg, and Sabine Weiland (Eds), *The Anthropocene Debate and Political Science*:200-218, Routledge.

Marques-Pereira, B., & Siim, B. (2002). Representation, agency and empowerment. *Contested concepts in gender and social politics*, 170-194.

Martell, R. F., Emrich, C. G., & Robison-Cox, J. (2012). From bias to exclusion: A multilevel emergent theory of gender segregation in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *32*, 137-162.

Maxwell, J. A. (2004). Causal explanation, qualitative research, and scientific inquiry in education. *Educational Researcher, 33(2),* 3-11.

Mazzarol, T., & Soutar, G. N. (2012). Revisiting the global market for higher education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics,* 24(5), 717-737.

McGillivray, B., & De Ranieri, E. (2018). Uptake and outcome of manuscripts in Nature journals by review model and author characteristics. *Research Integrity and Peer Review*, *3*, 1-12.

McMahan, P., & Shor, E. (2024). Status ambiguity and multiplicity in the selection of NBA awards. *Sociological Science*, *11*, 680-706.

Medina J. (2013). *The Epistemology of Resistance: Gender and Racial Oppression, Epistemic Injustice, and Resistant Imaginations* (Online ed.) New York: Oxford University Press.

Melamed, D., Munn, C. W., Barry, L., Montgomery, B., & Okuwobi, O. F. (2019). Status characteristics, implicit bias, and the production of racial inequality. *American Sociological Review*, *84*(6), 1013-1036.

Melin, G. (2000). Pragmatism and self-organization: Research collaboration on the individual level. *Research Policy*, *29*(1), 31-40.

Merton, R. K. (1968). The Matthew effect in science: The reward and communication systems of science are considered. *Science*, *159*(3810), 56-63.

Metz, T., & Jäckle, S. (2017). Patterns of publishing in political science journals: an overview of our profession using bibliographic data and a co-authorship network. *PS: Political Science & Politics,* 50(1), 157-165.

Mignolo, W. D. (2014). Spirit out of bounds returns to the East: The closing of the social sciences and the opening of independent thoughts. *Current Sociology*, *62* (4), 584-602.

Mihut, G. (2022). Does university prestige lead to discrimination in the labor market? Evidence from a labor market field experiment in three countries. *Studies in Higher Education*, 47(6), 1227-1242.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.), Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication.

Minefee, I., Rabelo, V. C., Stewart IV, O. J. C., & Young, N. C. J. (2018). Repairing leaks in the pipeline: A social closure perspective on underrepresented racial/ethnic minority recruitment and retention in business schools. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *17*(1), 79-95.

Ministry of Justice, UK. (2020). *Methodology Review Report: Statistical Reporting from a Diversity Perspective*.

Missouri Juvenile Justice Association. (2012). *How to calculate relative rate index.* [PDF document]. Accessed from https://mjja.org/images/resources/dmc/how-to-calculate-relative-rate-index.pdf Retrieved on March 2, 2022

Mixon Jr, F. G., Torgler, B., & Upadhyaya, K. P. (2022). Committees or markets? An exploratory analysis of best paper awards in economics. *Economies*, *10*(5), 110

Montal, F., Pauselli, G., & Yamin, P. (2022). Segmented communities in the Global South: Where Do IR Argentine scholars publish and why?. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 55(3), 519-524.

Moore, K., Ghilarducci, T., & Webb, A. (2019). The inequitable effects of raising the retirement age on blacks and low-wage workers. *The Review of Black Political Economy*, *46*(1), 22-37.

Morgan, A. U., Chaiyachati, K. H., Weissman, G. E., & Liao, J. M. (2018). Eliminating gender-based bias in academic medicine: more than naming the "elephant in the room". *Journal of general internal medicine*, *33*, 966-968.

Moser, P., & Nicholas, T. (2013). Prizes, publicity and patents: Non-monetary awards as a mechanism to encourage innovation. *The Journal of Industrial Economics*, *61*(3), 763-788.

Moss, V. A., Adcock, M., Hotan, A. W., Kobayashi, R., Rees, G. A., Siégel, C., ... & Trenham, C. E. (2021). Forging a path to a better normal for conferences and collaboration. *Nature Astronomy*, *5*(3), 213-216.

Müller, M., Cowan, R., & Barnard, H. (2018). On the value of foreign PhDs in the developing world: Training versus selection effects in the case of South Africa. *Research Policy*, 47(5), 886-900.

Murphy, J., & Zhu, J. (2012). Neo-colonialism in the academy? Anglo-American domination in management journals. *Organization*, *19*(6), 915-927.

Murray, R. (2024). The substantive representation of men: Intersectionality, masculinities, and men's interests. *European Journal of Political Research*. https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6765.12684

Musselin, C. (2018). The transformation of academic career paths in Europe. *Higher Education*, 75(5), 625-645.

Muzanenhamo, P., & Chowdhury, R. (2021). Epistemic injustice and hegemonic ordeal in management and organization studies: advancing black scholarship. *Human Relations, 76(1),* 3-26

Myrick, K., Mills, J.H., and Mills, A.J. (2013). History-making and the Academy of Management: An Anti-History Perspective. *Management & Organizational History*, 8(4), 345-370.

Nadler, J. T., & Clark, M. H. (2011). Stereotype threat: A Meta-Analysis comparing African Americans to Hispanic Americans 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *41*(4), 872-890.

Nagendra, H., Bai, X., Brondizio, E. S., & Lwasa, S. (2018). The urban south and the predicament of global sustainability. *Nature Sustainability*, *1*(7), 341-349.

Naidu, T., Cartmill, C., Swanepoel, S., & Whitehead, C. R. (2024). Shapeshifters: GSSand their tensions in border-crossing to Global North journals. *BMJ Global Health*, *9*(4), e014420.

Napoletano, T. (2024). Meritocracy, meritocratic education, and equality of opportunity. *Theory and Research in Education*, *22*(1), 3-18.

Norris, P., & Lovenduski, J. (1993). 'If only more candidates came forward': Supply-side explanations of candidate selection in Britain. *British Journal of Political Science, 23(3)*, 373-408.

Norris, P., Vallance, E., & Lovenduski, J. (1992). Do candidates make a difference? Gender, race, ideology and incumbency. *Parliamentary Affairs, 45(4*), 496-517.

OECD (2004b), *Education at a Glance 2004: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2004-en.

OECD. (2004a). Internationalisation and trade in higher education. *Opportunities and Challenges*.

Ohanian, R. 1990. Construction and validation of a scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. *Journal of Advertising, 19(3),* 39-52.

Ōmae, K. (1985). *Triad power: The coming shape of global competition*. New York: Free Press.

Oyserman, D., & Destin, M. (2010). Identity-based motivation: Implications for intervention. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *38*(7), 1001-1043.

Ozbilgin, M. (2004). “International” Human Resource Management: Academic Parochialism in Editorial Boards of the “Top” 22 Journals on International Human Resource Management. *Personnel Review, 33(2*), 205-221.

Ozkazanc-Pan, B. (2019). On agency and empowerment in a# MeToo world. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *26*(8), 1212-1220.

Oztig, L. I. (2022). The Global North/South inequalities in the IR discipline: Some reflections and insights. *Alternatives*, *47*(2), 123-127.

Paasi, A. (2005). Globalisation, academic capitalism, and the uneven geographies of international journal publishing spaces. *Environment and Planning A*, *37*(5), 769-789.

Page, S., Cantor, N., & Lewis, E. (2019). *The diversity bonus: How great teams pay off in the knowledge economy*. Princeton University Press

Pan, R. K., Kaski, K., & Fortunato, S. (2012). World citation and collaboration networks: uncovering the role of geography in science. *Scientific Reports, 2(1)*, 902.

Pan, X., Yan, E., Cui, M., & Hua, W. (2018). Examining the usage, citation, and diffusion patterns of bibliometric mapping software: A comparative study of three tools. *Journal of informetrics*, *12*(2), 481-493.

Pascale, C. M. (2016). Discourses of the North Atlantic: Epistemology and hegemony. *Qualitative Inquiry,* 22(4), 219-227.

Patton, Michael Quinn. (2014). (4th ed.) *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice*. Los Angeles: Sage publications

Pawar, M. (2015). Action research on social work knowledge creation and dissemination from the global south. *British Journal of Social Work*, *45*(4), 1357-1364.

Peng, H., Teplitskiy, M., & Jurgens, D. (2024). Author mentions in science news reveal widespread disparities across name-inferred ethnicities. *Quantitative Science Studies*, *5*(2), 351-365.

Perez, V. R. (2023). The 'Global South' is a concept well past its sell-by date. *LSE Higher Education* Accessed at https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/highereducation/2023/09/29/the-global-south-is-a-concept-well-past-its-sell-by-date/ Retrieved on November 27, 2024

Peters, D. P., & Ceci, S. J. (1982). Peer-review practices of psychological journals: The fate of published articles, submitted again. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *5*(2), 187-195.

Petersen, L. E., & Dietz, J. (2005). Prejudice and enforcement of workforce homogeneity as explanations for employment discrimination. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *35*(1), 144-159.

Peterson, R. A., & Jolibert, A. J. (1995). A meta-analysis of country-of-origin effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *26*, 883-900.

Piazza, A., & Castellucci, F. (2014). Status in organization and management theory. *Journal of Management*, *40*(1), 287-315.

Pinel, E. C. (1999). Stigma consciousness: the psychological legacy of social stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76(1)*, 114.

Pitkin, H. (1967). *The Concept of Representation*, Los Angeles: University of Press.

Pollock, T. G., Porac, J. F., & Wade, J. B. (2004). Constructing deal networks: Brokers as network "architects" in the US IPO market and other examples. *Academy of Management Review, 29(1)*, 50-72.

Posselt, J. (2016). *Inside graduate admissions: Merit, diversity, and faculty gatekeeping*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

Prato, M., Ertug, G., Castellucci, F., & Zou, T. (2024). The status of status research: A review of the types, functions, levels, and audiences. *Journal of Management*, 01492063241226918.

Prato, M., Kypraios, E., Ertug, G., & Lee, Y. G. (2019). Middle-status conformity revisited: The interplay between achieved and ascribed status. *Academy of Management Journal*, *62*(4), 1003-1027.

PwC Middle East. (2017). *Advancing academic research in the GCC*. PricewaterhouseCoopers. https://www.pwc.com/m1/en/publications/advancing-academic-research-in-gcc/advancing-academic-research-in-gcc.pdf

Quijano, A. (2000). Coloniality of power and Eurocentrism in Latin America. *International Sociology*, *15*(2), 215-232.

Quiroga-Garza, A., Garza-Cisneros, A., Elizondo-Omaña, R., Vílchez-Cavazos, J., de-Oca-Luna, R., Villarreal-Silva, E., Guzmán-López, S., & González-González, J. (2022). Research barriers in the Global South: Mexico. *Journal of Global Health*, 12. https://doi.org/10.7189/jogh.12.03032.

Ra, E., & Kim, K. (2024). Status inconsistency and job satisfaction among academics: Evidence from South Korea. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 46(1), 89-105.

Ramírez-Castañeda, V. (2020). Disadvantages in preparing and publishing scientific papers caused by the dominance of the English language in science: The case of Colombian researchers in biological sciences. *PloS one*, *15*(9), e0238372

Redwood, S., & Gill, P. S. (2013). Under-representation of minority ethnic groups in research—call for action. *British Journal of General Practice*, *63*(612), 342-343.

Ren, J., Shi, Y., Shatte, A., Kong, X., & Xia, F. (2022, June). The significance and impact of winning an academic award: A study of early career academics. In *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM/IEEE Joint Conference on Digital Libraries* (pp. 1-11).

Ridgeway, C. L. (2014). Why status matters for inequality. *American Sociological Review*, 79(1), 1–16.

Ridgeway, C. L., & Correll, S. J. (2006). Consensus and the creation of status beliefs. *Social Forces*, *85*(1), 431-453.

Ridgeway, C. L., Backor, K., Li, Y. E., Tinkler, J. E., & Erickson, K. G. (2009). How easily does a social difference become a status distinction? Gender matters. *American Sociological Review*, *74*(1), 44-62.

Rivera, L. A. (2012). Hiring as cultural matching: The case of elite professional service firms. *American Sociological Review*, 77(6), 999-1022.

Rozycki, W., & Johnson, N. H. (2013). Non-canonical grammar in Best Paper award winners in engineering. *English for Specific Purposes*, *32*(3), 157-169.

Ryazanova, O., McNamara, P., & Aguinis, H. (2017). Research performance as a quality signal in international labor markets: Visibility of business schools worldwide through a global research performance system. *Journal of World Business, 52(6):* 831-841.

Schmaling, K. B., & Gallo, S. A. (2023). Gender differences in peer reviewed grant applications, awards, and amounts: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Research Integrity and Peer Review*, *8*(2), 2-13.

Schnore, L. F. (1961). Social mobility in demographic perspective. *American Sociological Review, 26:* 407–423.

Scholten, W., Franssen, T. P., van Drooge, L., de Rijcke, S., & Hessels, L. K. (2021). Funding for few, anticipation among all: Effects of excellence funding on academic research groups. *Science and Public Policy*, *48*(2), 265-275.

Schooler, R. D. (1965*). Product bias in the Central American common market***.** *Journal of Marketing Research***,** *2(4)***,** 394-397.

Scully, M. A. (1997). Meritocracy and organizational justice. *In Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 19, pp. 109-142). Elsevier.

Scully, M. A. (2000). A rainbow coalition or separate wavelengths? The implications of multiple perspectives on justice for the study of social justice movements. *Social Justice Research*, 13(3), 211-224.

Sebo, P. (2022). NamSor's performance in predicting the country of origin and ethnicity of 90,000 researchers based on their first and last names.

Seglen, P. O. (1992). The skewness of science. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, *43*(9), 628-638.

Sessions, H., Nahrgang, J. D., Baer, M. D., & Welsh, D. T. (2022). From zero to hero and back to zero: The consequences of status inconsistency between the work roles of multiple jobholders. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *107*(8), 1369.

Settles, I. H., Buchanan, N. T., & Dotson, K. (2019). Scrutinized but not recognized: (In)visibility and hypervisibility experiences of faculty of color. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 113*, 62-74.

Sharkey, A., Kovacs, B., & Hsu, G. (2023). Expert critics, rankings, and review aggregators: The changing nature of intermediation and the rise of markets with multiple intermediaries. *Academy of Management Annals, 17(1)*, 1-36.

Shepard, R. N. (1964). Attention and the metric structure of the stimulus space. *Journal of Mathematical Psychology, 1*(1), 54–87

Shih, M., Pittinsky, T. L., & Ambady, N. (1999). Stereotype susceptibility: Identity salience and shifts in quantitative performance. *Psychological Science*, *10*(1), 80-83.

Siler, K., Lee, K., & Bero, L. (2015). Measuring the effectiveness of scientific gatekeeping. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *112*(2), 360-365

Silverman, D. (Ed.) (2020). *Qualitative research*. 5th Editon, Sage Publications.

Sivaramakrishnan, K., & Patel, R. (2020). Unequal Access: The Global South and the Making of Knowledge in the Social Sciences. *Global Social Policy*, 20(3), 343-360.

Skopec, M., Issa, H., Reed, J., & Harris, M. (2020). The role of geographic bias in knowledge diffusion: A systematic review and narrative synthesis. *Research Integrity and Peer Review, 5(1),* 1-14.

Smidts, A., Pruyn, A. T. H., & Van Riel, C. B. (2001). The impact of employee communication and perceived external prestige on organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal, 44(5)*, 1051-1062.

Smith, W. K., & Zhang, Y. (2023). Status Inconsistency and Its Impact on Academic Collaboration. *Research Policy*, 52(4), 104678.

Spencer, S. J., Logel, C., & Davies, P. G. (2016). Stereotype threat. *Annual Review of Psychology, 67(1)*, 415-437.

Srinivas, M. N. (1956). A note on Sanskritization and Westernization. *The Far Eastern Quarterly*, *15*(4), 481-496.

Srinivasan, N., Jain, S. C., & Sikand, K. (2004). An experimental study of two dimensions of country-of-origin (manufacturing country and branding country) using intrinsic and extrinsic cues. *International Business Review*, *13*(1), 65-82.

St. Clair, R. S. T. (2021). Marginalizing the marginalized: How rankings fail the Global South. In M. Stack (Ed.), *Global University Rankings and the Politics of Knowledge*. University of Toronto Press

Stahl, G. K., Akkan, E., Reiche, B. S., Hajro, A., Zellmer-Bruhn, M., Lazarova, M., ... & Zander, L. (2024). Linking institutional context to the community and career embeddedness of skilled migrants: The role of destination-and origin-country identifications. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1-20.

Steele, C. M., & Aronson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(5), 797-811

Strauss A., & Corbin J. (1998) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stryker, R., Danielson, M. L., & Schrank, Z. (2011). Race and workplace integration: A politicized issue or a measure of organizational competence? *American Behavioral Scientist*, 55(3), 361-388.

Stryker, S., & Macke, A. S. (1978). Status inconsistency and role conflict. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *4*, 57-90.

Sud, N., & Sánchez-Ancochea, D. (2022). Southern discomfort: Interrogating the category of the global south. *Development and Change*, *53*(6), 1123-1150.

Sverdlichenko, I., Xie, S., & Margolin, E. (2022). Impact of institutional affiliation bias on editorial publication decisions: A bibliometric analysis of three ophthalmology journals. *Ethics, Medicine and Public Health, 21*, 100758.

Tahamtan, I., & Bornmann, L. (2019). What do citation counts measure? An updated review of studies on citations in scientific documents published between 2006 and 2018. *Scientometrics*, *121*(3), 1635-1684.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2003). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 16-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Tang, G., Cai, H., & Jia, J. (2024). Status bias in Chinese scholarly publishing: an exploratory study based on mixed methods. *Accountability in Research*, *31*(3), 241-257.

Taşkın, Z., Pölönen, J., Kulczycki, E., & Laakso, M. (2024) Mapping the publisher types and collaborations behind Web of Science indexed journals. SocArXiv. Available from: https://osf.io/preprints/socarxiv/8skzg

Tavoletti, E., Stephens, R. D., Taras, V., & Dong, L. (2022*).* Nationality biases in peer evaluations: The country-of-origin effect in global virtual teams*.* *International Business Review***,** *31(2)***,** 101969.

Teferra, D., & Altbach, P. G. (2004). African Higher Education: Challenges for the 21st Century. *Higher Education*, 47(1), 21-50.

Thomas-Hunt, M. C., & Phillips, K. W. (2011). The malleability of race in organizational teams: A theory of racial status activation. In J. L. Pearce (Ed.), *Status in management and organizations*: 238–266. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

Tol, R. S. (2024). The Nobel family. *Scientometrics*, *129*(3), 1329-1346.

Tolbert, P. S., & Zucker, L. G. (1996). The institutionalization of institutional theory. In S. R. Clegg, C. Hardy, & W. R. Nord (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Studies* (pp. 175-190). London: Sage.

Tung, R. L. (2006). North American research agenda and methodologies: Past imperfect, future—Limitless possibilities. *Asian Business & Management*, *5*, 23-35.

Turner, J. C., Brown, R. J., & Tajfel, H. (1979). Social comparison and group interest in ingroup favouritism. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *9*(2), 187-204.

United Nations Finance Center for South-South Cooperation. (2024). *South-South Countries*. http://www.fc-ssc.org/en/partnership_program/south_south_countries Retrieved on March 5, 2022

Van den Brink, M., & Benschop, Y. (2012). Gender practices in the construction of academic excellence: Sheep with five legs. *Organization*, 19(4), 507-524.

Van den Brink, M., & Benschop, Y. (2014). Gender in academic networking: The role of gatekeepers in professorial recruitment. *Journal of Management Studies*, *51*(3), 460-492.

Van Miegroet, H., & Glass, C. (2020). Recognition through awards: a source of gender inequality in science? *International Journal of Gender, Science and Technology*, *12*(2), 289-315.

Van Vugt, M., & Joshua M. T. (2016). The Evolutionary Foundations of Hierarchy: Status, Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership. In *Handbook of Evolutionary Psychology*, 2nd ed., edited by David M. Buss. New York: Wiley.

Veit, S., & Thijsen, L. (2021). Almost identical but still treated differently: hiring discrimination against foreign-born and domestic-born minorities. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, *47*(6), 1285-1304.

Verlegh, P. W., & Steenkamp, J. B. E. (1999). A review and meta-analysis of country-of-origin research. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 20(5),* 521-546.

Wallerstein, I. (2010). A world-system perspective on the social sciences. *The British Journal of Sociology, 61*(Supplement 1), 167–176.

Wang, P., & Jensen, M. (2019). A bridge too far: Divestiture as a strategic reaction to status inconsistency. *Management Science*, *65*(2), 859-878.

Wang, Y. (2024). Comparison of citation impact between pre-and post-publication peer-selected best papers: the case of Best Paper Awards recipients at computer science conferences. *Scientometrics*, *129*(1), 641-662.

Wan-Huggins, V. N., Riordan, C. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (1998). The development and longitudinal test of a model of organizational identification. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28(8),* 724-749.

Wapman, K. H., Zhang, S., Clauset, A., & Larremore, D. B. (2022). Quantifying hierarchy and dynamics in US faculty hiring and retention. *Nature*, *610*(7930), 120-127.

Weber, M. (1946). *Class, status, party*. In Gerth, H. H and Mills, C. W. (Eds.), From Max Weber. New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 180–195

Weeks, J. R., & Duffy, S. G. (2011). Seven years of the ICSB-IJGE-NWBC Best Paper Award for women's entrepreneurship research: What have we learned? *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 3(1)*, 79-82.

Whitmeyer, J. M. (2000). Effects of positive reputation systems. *Social Science Research*, *29*(2), 188-207.

Willer, R. (2009). Groups reward individual sacrifice: The status solution to the collective action problem. *American Sociological Review*, *74*(1), 23-43.

Williamson, I. O., & Cable, D. M. (2003). Predicting early career research productivity: The case of management faculty. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(1), 25-44.

Wise, A., & Estelle, L. (2019). Learned societies, the key to realising an open access future. *LSE Impact Blog*.https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/impactofsocialsciences/2019/06/24/learned-societies-the-key-to-realising-an-open-access-future/ Retrieved on January, 11,2023

World Bank (2020). Science & Technology Indicators. *World Bank*. Accessed at https://data.worldbank.org/topic/14 Retrieved on January 10, 2023

World Population Review (2022). Global South countries. Accessed at https://worldpopulationreview.com/country-rankings/global-south-countries Retrieved on August 27, 2023

Xue, Y., & Xu, L. (2024). Editorial Board Composition and the Global South: An Empirical Study. *Scientometrics*, 129(1), 123-145.

Xue, Y., & Xu, Q. (2024). Gender and geographic representation in editorial boards of education journals. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *15*, 1330316.

Young, M. (1958). *The Rise of the Meritocracy 1870-2033: An essay on education and society*. London: Thames and Hudson.

Young, M. (2015). Shifting policy narratives in Horizon 2020. *Journal of Contemporary European Research, 11*(1), 16–30.

Young, Michael. (1958). *The Rise of Meritocracy, 1870–2033.* London: Thames and Hudson.

Zhang JY (2021) World view. *Nature 591*:9.

Zhang, L. (2020). Status inconsistency and job satisfaction among Chinese academics. *Chinese Education & Society*, 53(5-6), 365-380.

Zhang, Q., & Chen, S. (2025). Double standards in roadshows: the impact of investors' dynamic gender-based bias on the financing performance of women entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*. volume ahead of print.

Zhao, W., & Zhou, X., (2011). Status inconsistency and product valuation in the California wine market. *Organization Science, 22(6)*, pp.1435-1448.

Zhou, X. (2005). The institutional logic of occupational prestige ranking: Reconceptualization and reanalyses. *American Journal of Sociology*, *111*(1), 90-140.

Zhu, W., Jin, C., Ma, Y., & Xu, C. (2023). Earlier recognition of scientific excellence enhances future achievements and promotes persistence. *Journal of Informetrics*, *17*(2), 101408.

Zuckerman, H. (1967). Nobel laureates in science: Patterns of productivity, collaboration, and authorship. *American Sociological Review*, 391-403.

Zulfiqar, G., & Prasad, A. (2021). Challenging social inequality in the Global South: Class, privilege, and consciousness-raising through critical management education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *20*(2), 156-181.

Appendices

Appendix 1: **Distribution of scholars and award winners (based on their employment affiliation)**

Division	Year	Total Scholar	GNS (Based on Employment Affiliation)	GSS (Based on Employment Affiliation)	Total Award winners	Award winners GNS	Award winner GSS	Rate for GN Scholar	Rate for GS Scholar	RRI
OMT	2016	859	753	106	238	213	25	0.28	0.23	0.83
OMT	2017	754	695	59	154	148	6	0.21	0.10	0.48
OMT	2018	616	578	59	96	91	3	0.15	0.05	0.32
OMT	2019	613	555	58	131	125	6	0.22	0.10	0.46
OMT	2022	634	562	72	135	128	7	0.22	0.09	0.42
OB	2016	1335	969	366	280	223	57	0.23	0.15	0.67
OB	2017	1257	899	358	291	215	76	0.23	0.21	0.88
OB	2018	1229	932	251	251	206	45	0.22	0.17	0.81
OB	2019	1160	789	375	252	184	68	0.23	0.18	0.77
OB	2022	1463	853	610	214	140	74	0.16	0.12	0.73
ENT	2016	1044	899	145	186	174	12	0.19	0.08	0.42
ENT	2017	1116	953	163	203	177	26	0.18	0.15	0.85
ENT	2018	958	855	103	201	170	31	0.19	0.30	1.51
ENT	2019	1041	882	159	248	217	31	0.24	0.19	0.79

ENT	2022	1364	1147	217	300	267	33	0.23	0.15	0.651
STR	2016	949	755	194	182	143	39	0.18	0.20	1.06
STR	2017	959	773	186	209	176	33	0.22	0.17	0.77
STR	2018	936	761	175	227	191	36	0.25	0.20	0.81
STR	2019	907	725	182	201	175	26	0.24	0.14	0.59
STR	2022	1073	836	237	228	201	27	0.24	0.11	0.47

Appendix 2 Distribution of sub-sets of GSS (Classical and Immigrant) across divisions

Year	Division	GSS Rate	Classical GSS	Classical GSS Award winners	Classical GSS Rate	Classical GSS RRI	Immigrant GSS	Immigrant GSS Award winners	Immigrant GSS Rate	Immigrant GSS RRI
2016	OMT	0.31	44	10	0.22	0.73	27	9	0.33	1.07
2017	OMT	0.22	20	3	0.15	0.66	20	2	0.1	0.445
2018	OMT	0.15	11	1	0.09	0.61	17	1	0.059	0.39
2019	OMT	0.16	20	0	0	0	8	1	0.12	0.76
2022	OMT	0.18	30	3	0.1	0.55	21	1	0.048	0.26
2016	STR	0.23	78	11	0.14	0.59	86	27	0.31	1.33
2017	STR	0.18	80	10	0.12	0.68	61	13	0.21	1.16
2018	STR	0.22	111	25	0.23	0.99	47	7	0.15	0.65
2019	STR	0.21	83	9	0.11	0.50	45	5	0.11	0.52
2022	STR	0.17	118	13	0.11	0.64	73	7	0.09	0.56
2016	OB	0.18	198	32	0.16	0.89	90	16	0.18	0.98
2017	OB	0.21	168	26	0.15	0.74	104	26	0.25	1.19
2018	OB	0.17	183	26	0.14	0.86	78	9	0.12	0.69
2019	OB	0.19	279	59	0.21	1.06	61	16	0.26	1.31
2022	OB	0.13	430	44	0.10	0.77	75	25	0.33	2.51
2016	ENT	0.12	47	4	0.08	0.72	49	5	0.10	0.85
2017	ENT	0.22	59	12	0.20	0.93	78	20	0.25	1.17
2018	ENT	0.25	23	8	0.34	1.37	64	22	0.34	1.35
2019	ENT	0.19	54	9	0.16	0.84	70	13	0.18	0.93
2022	ENT	0.17	75	10	0.13	0.78	106	17	0.16	0.94

Appendix 3 **Distribution of subsets of GSS (Emigrant and Transnational) across divisions**

Division	GSS Rate	Emigrant GSS	Emigrant GSS Award winners	Emigrant GSS Rate	Emigrant GSS RRI	Transnational GSS	Transnational GSS Award winners	Transnational GSS Rate	Transnational GSS RRI
OMT	0.31	13	3	0.23	0.74	126	43	0.34	1.09
OMT	0.22	7	1	0.14	0.63	128	34	0.26	1.18
OMT	0.15	2	0	0	0	103	18	0.17	1.17
OMT	0.16	1	0	0	0	102	21	0.21	1.25
OMT	0.18	4	1	0.25	1.37	121	27	0.22	1.22
STR	0.24	2	1	0.5	2.12	181	43	0.24	1.00
STR	0.18	9	3	0.33	1.81	193	37	0.19	1.04
STR	0.23	9	3	0.33	1.46	193	47	0.24	1.07
STR	0.21	11	1	0.09	0.42	167	51	0.31	1.42
STR	0.17	9	0	0	0	229	54	0.24	1.37
OB	0.18	14	4	0.28	1.57	198	42	0.21	1.17
OB	0.21	47	11	0.23	1.12	204	55	0.27	1.29
OB	0.16	7	2	0.28	1.73	173	36	0.21	1.26
OB	0.19	18	4	0.22	1.12	167	27	0.16	0.81
OB	0.13	25	1	0.04	0.30	172	23	0.13	1.01
ENT	0.12	13	2	0.15	1.29	169	22	0.13	1.09
ENT	0.22	26	2	0.08	0.35	156	36	0.23	1.05
ENT	0.25	16	5	0.31	1.23	169	34	0.20	0.79
ENT	0.19	23	3	0.13	0.66	186	41	0.22	1.11
ENT	0.17	29	3	0.10	0.60	251	49	0.19	1.14

Appendix 4: Questionnaire for semi structured interview

Exploring the Causes of Underrepresentation of GSS among Academic Society Award Winners

Interview Protocol

Socio-demography

1. What is the name of your native country?
2. Name of the country where you earned your Ph.D. degree?
3. Name the country where you are employed?
4. Name of the academic societies in which the award committee you are associated?
5. What was your designation in the award committee? (Board members/Scientific committee member/Award committee member/ Award committee chair)?
6. What was your total duration on the award committee?

A. **Award-giving Process-related**

1. How do you promote and advertise external academic awards?
2. What are the eligibility criteria?
3. Who is responsible for nomination: or who nominates the finalists?
4. What is the role of the sponsor organization in the award-giving process?
5. Who selects the chair of the Award committee and its member? What are the criteria for choosing them?
6. What is the role of award committee members and chair in decision-making?
7. What is the criterion for judging the paper? Relevance of research question, language, literature review, method, contribution

8. What are the challenges in bestowing the award?

B. Underrepresentation

1. What is the strongest part of any award-winning paper that enables it to get the award?
2. Do you think the paper based on global south issues has a higher/lower chance of getting the award?
3. What are the probable reasons for the underrepresentation of GSS in external academic awards?
4. Can you suggest some institutional structures and processes that should be in place to encourage the GSS to win the award?
5. In your opinion, what are the implications for this underrepresentation of GSS in terms of the type of impact generated for academia?

Appendix 5 List of Global South Countries

Afghanistan	Equatorial Guinea	Mauritania	South Africa
Algeria	Eritrea	Mauritius	South Sudan
Angola	Eswatini	Micronesia	Sri Lanka
Antigua and Barbuda	Ethiopia	Mongolia	Sudan
Argentina	Fiji	Morocco	Suriname
Bahamas	Gabon	Mozambique	Syria
Bahrain	Gambia	Myanmar	Tajikistan
Bangladesh	Ghana	Namibia	Tanzania
Barbados	Grenada	Nauru	Thailand
Belize	Guatemala	Nepal	Timor-Leste
Benin	Guinea	Nicaragua	Togo
Bhutan	Guinea-Bissau	Niger	Tonga
Bolivia	Guyana	Nigeria	Trinidad and Tobago
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Haiti	North Korea	Tunisia
Botswana	Honduras	Oman	Turkmenistan
Brazil	Hong Kong	Pakistan	Uganda
Brunei	India	Palestine	United Arab Emirates
Burkina Faso	Indonesia	Panama	Uruguay
Burundi	Iran	Papua New Guinea	Vanuatu
Cambodia	Iraq	Paraguay	Venezuela
Cameroon	Ivory Coast	Peru	Vietnam
Cape Verde	Jamaica	Philippines	Yemen
Central African Republic	Jordan	Qatar	Zambia
Chad	Kenya	Republic of the Congo	Zimbabwe
Chile	Kiribati	Rwanda	
China	Kuwait	Saint Kitts and Nevis	
Colombia	Laos	Saint Lucia	
Comoros	Lebanon	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	
Costa Rica	Lesotho	Samoa	
Cuba	Liberia	Sao Tome and Principe	
Djibouti	Libya	Saudi Arabia	
Dominica	Madagascar	Senegal	
Dominican Republic	Malawi	Seychelles	
DR Congo	Malaysia	Sierra Leone	
Ecuador	Maldives	Singapore	
Egypt	Mali	Solomon Islands	
El Salvador	Marshall Islands	Somalia	

Appendix 6: List of Global North Countries

Albania	Luxembourg
Andorra	Malta
Armenia	Mexico
Australia	Moldova
Austria	Monaco
Azerbaijan	Montenegro
Belarus	Netherlands
Belgium	New Zealand
Bulgaria	North Macedonia
Canada	Norway
Croatia	Palau
Cyprus	Poland
Czech Republic	Portugal
Denmark	Romania
Estonia	Russia
Finland	San Marino
France	Serbia
Georgia	Slovakia
Germany	Slovenia
Greece	South Korea
Hungary	Spain
Iceland	Sweden
Ireland	Switzerland
Israel	Turkey
Italy	Tuvalu
Japan	Ukraine
Kazakhstan	United Kingdom
Kyrgyzstan	United States
Latvia	Uzbekistan
Liechtenstein	Vatican City
Lithuania	

Appendix 7: List of Global South and Global North countries according to World Bank classification

Global South	Global North
Angola	American Samoa
Argentina	Andorra
Azerbaijan	Aruba
Belize	Bahamas, The
Benin	Bahrain
Bhutan	Barbados
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bermuda
Botswana	British Virgin Islands
Bulgaria	Canada
Burundi	Channel Islands
Cameroon	Curaçao
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Finland
Congo, Rep.	France
Ecuador	Guyana
Egypt, Arab Rep.	Hong Kong SAR, China
Eritrea	Ireland
Eswatini	Isle of Man
Guatemala	Lithuania
Guinea-Bissau	Macao SAR, China
Haiti	Malta
Honduras	Monaco
India	Nauru
Korea, Dem. Rep.	Portugal
Lao PDR	Romania
Lesotho	Saudi Arabia
Liberia	Seychelles
Libya	Singapore
Maldives	Spain
Marshall Islands	St. Martin (French part)
Mauritania	Sweden
Mauritius	Switzerland
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	Trinidad and Tobago
Morocco	United States

Namibia	
Nepal	
Nicaragua	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	
Paraguay	
Peru	
Russian Federation	
Sierra Leone	
Somalia, Fed. Rep.	
Sri Lanka	
Syrian Arab Republic	
Tajikistan	
Tanzania	
Thailand	
Turkmenistan	
Viet Nam	