



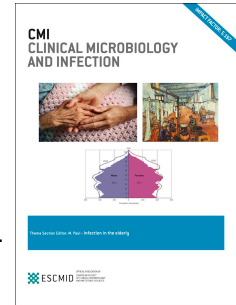
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Gender disparities in COVID-19 clinical trial leadership

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1 **Gender disparities in COVID-19 clinical trial leadership**

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 **Objectives:** We aimed to compare the gender distribution of clinical trial leadership in COVID-19 clinical  
33 trials.

34 **Methods:** We searched <https://clinicaltrials.gov/> and retrieved all clinical trials on COVID-19 from  
35 January 1, 2020 to June 26, 2020. As a comparator group, we have chosen two fields that are not  
36 related to emerging infections and infectious diseases: and considered not directly affected by the  
37 pandemic : breast cancer and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and included studies within the  
38 aforementioned study period as well as those registered in the preceding year (pre-study period:  
39 January 1, 2019 and December 31, 2019). Gender of the investigator was predicted using the  
40 genderize.io API (application programming interface). The repository of the datasets used to collect and  
41 analyse the data available at <https://osf.io/k2r57/>.

42 **Results:** Only 27.8% (430/1548) of principal investigators (PIs) among COVID-19-related studies were  
43 women, which is significantly different compared to 54.9% (156/284) and 42.1% (56/133) for breast  
44 cancer ( $p<0.005$ ) and T2DM ( $p<0.005$ ) trials over the same period, respectively. During this “pre-study”  
45 period, the proportion of PIs who were predicted to be women were 49.7% (245/493) and 44.4%  
46 (148/333) for breast cancer and T2DM trials, respectively and the difference was not statistically  
47 significant when compared to results from the study period ( $p>0.05$ ).

48 **Conclusion:** We demonstrate that less than one-third of COVID-19-related clinical trials are led by  
49 women PIs, half the proportion observed in non-COVID-19 trials over the same period which remained  
50 similar to the pre-study period. These gender disparities during the pandemic may indicate not only a  
51 lack of women's leadership in international clinical trials and involvement in new projects but also may  
52 reveal imbalances in women's access to research activities and funding during health emergencies.

53  
54 **Key words:** COVID-19, coronavirus, pandemic, SARS-CoV-2, novel coronavirus, gender

55

56 **Introduction**

57

58 In addition to the human and financial loss associated with the novel Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-  
59 19) pandemic, COVID-19 has also had a significant impact on both the personal and professional life of  
60 the global workforce, including that of the scientific research community [1-3]. Before COVID-19,  
61 women occupied fewer leadership positions, led a fewer funded studies, and applied for and received  
62 less grant funding than men when they did apply [4-7]. The employment gap that occurs when women  
63 take parental leave impacts the rate of academic advancement and in turn the receipt of institutional  
64 support to apply for and secure funding [6, 7]. These imbalances contribute to systemic inequalities that  
65 hamper women's access to and progress in science [2, 7, 8]. A review of the gender distribution of 24  
66 COVID-19 national task forces suggests that many committees are comprised of less than a quarter  
67 women, indicating that women's voices and expertise have been excluded from decision making during  
68 this unprecedented public health emergency [9].

69

70 For example, emerging data suggest that across all disciplines, despite an increased number of peer-  
71 reviewed articles submitted to journals during the pandemic, women have published fewer papers than  
72 men thus far this year [10]. This may indicate a similarly reduced involvement of women in research  
73 leadership positions and an imbalanced distribution of grants and funding -- important indicators of  
74 advancement in a scientist's academic career [4-7, 10, 11]. Being principal investigator (PI) on a clinical  
75 trial is strongly associated with advancement to full professor among women academics in infectious  
76 diseases [8].

77

78 The COVID-19 pandemic offers numerous opportunities in clinical research. These include trials to assess  
79 the safety and efficacy of medical interventions, with protocols in various stages of implementation.

80 Here, we compare the gender distribution of clinical trial leadership in COVID-19 clinical trials.

81

## 82 **Materials and Methods**

83 We systematically searched <https://clinicaltrials.gov/> and retrieved all clinical trials on COVID-19  
84 registered from January 1, 2020 to June 26, 2020 using “COVID” as a keyword. As a comparator group,  
85 we have chosen two fields that are not related to emerging infections and infectious diseases, and  
86 considered not directly affected by the pandemic: breast cancer and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM).

87 We retrieved all clinical trials related to these comparator conditions registered at

88 <https://clinicaltrials.gov/> within the aforementioned study period as well as those registered in the  
89 preceding year (pre-study period: January 1, 2019 and December 31, 2019). We retrieved the names of  
90 investigators listed; study director, principal investigator (PI) (the person who is responsible for the  
91 scientific and technical direction of the entire clinical study) and study chair (whose role involve toxicity  
92 and accrual monitoring). Gender of the investigator was predicted using the genderize.io API

93 (application programming interface). This tool has been used to predict the gender of first names in  
94 studies regarding gender bias [12, 13] and achieves a minimum accuracy of 82%, with an F1 score

95 (weighted average of precision and recall) of 90% for women and 86% for men [14]. Clinical trials were  
96 excluded if i) investigator information was not provided; ii) the genderize.io API could not predict any of  
97 the investigators’ gender from their first name; or iii) organization or company names were provided as  
98 the investigator. The number of studies that were excluded for the above reasons are reported in the  
99 supplementary flow diagram. An exploratory temporal analysis was conducted with the available data.

100 Categorical variables were summarized by frequencies and percentages. We compared groups using Chi-  
101 square testing for equality of proportions with continuity correction [15]. The analysis was performed

102 using R (Version 4.0.2). The repository of the datasets used to collect and analyse the data available at  
103 <https://osf.io/k2r57/>.

104

## 105 **Results**

106 We identified 2 345 COVID-19-related clinical trials. Of those, 1 448 had at least one investigator listed  
107 (i.e., principal investigator, study director, or study chair) whose gender could be predicted. In the  
108 comparator group, we identified 449 trials on breast cancer and 272 on T2DM that were registered. Of  
109 those, 274 breast cancer studies and 139 T2DM studies had at least one investigator whose gender  
110 could be predicted.

111

112 Overall 27.8% (430/1548) of PIs among COVID-19-related studies were predicted to be women, which is  
113 significantly different compared to 54.9% (156/284) and 42.1% (56/133) for breast cancer ( $p<0.005$ ) and  
114 T2DM ( $p<0.005$ ) trials over the same period, respectively (Table 1). While there has been a small  
115 increase in the proportion of PIs who were predicted to be women in May 2020, clinical research  
116 leadership for COVID-19 among this group was below 25% for the remainder of the study period  
117 (Supplementary Material). While 31.4% (76/242) of study chairs were predicted to be women in COVID-  
118 19-related studies, 32.1% (9/28) ( $p=0.7$ ) and 63.6% (7/11) ( $p<0.01$ ) were predicted to be women in  
119 breast cancer and T2DM trials, respectively. Proportion of study chairs were not significantly different  
120 across the three fields.

121

122 We also reviewed comparator group studies registered before January 1, 2020 to determine whether  
123 the pandemic might have affected gender distribution of trial leadership. We identified 839 clinical trials  
124 related to breast cancer and 533 on T2DM over a 12-month period prior to January 1, 2020. Of those,  
125 573 breast cancer studies and 359 T2DM studies yielded at least one investigator whose gender could

126 be predicted. During this “pre-study” period, the proportion of PIs who were predicted to be women  
127 were 49.7% (245/493) and 44.4% (148/333) for breast cancer and T2DM trials, respectively and the  
128 difference was not statistically significant when compared to results from the study period ( $p>0.05$ ).

129

### 130 **Discussion**

131 In this study, we demonstrate that less than one-third of COVID-19-related clinical trials are led by  
132 women PIs, half the proportion observed in non-COVID-19 (breast cancer and T2DM) trials over the  
133 same period. The proportion of PIs in breast cancer and T2DM studies also remained similar to the pre-  
134 study period. These gender disparities during the pandemic may indicate not only a lack of women’s  
135 leadership in international clinical trials and involvement in new projects, but also may reveal  
136 imbalances in women's access to research activities and funding during health emergencies [2, 16].

137

138 The COVID-19 pandemic offers numerous opportunities for research and leadership that could equalize  
139 opportunity in a new field, but our results suggest the opposite. The pandemic has reinforced the  
140 prevailing gender norms in which men continue to be allocated a disproportionate share of the funding,  
141 as well as leadership and authorship roles [9, 10, 16]. One potential contributor for this discrepancy is  
142 the speed demanded by the research agenda during the pandemic. The sense of urgency in starting  
143 clinical trials may lead to an abandonment of any checks and balances around equality and inclusion  
144 that would have otherwise encouraged the involvement of women scientists. Many women scientists  
145 have already raised concerns about institutional funding distribution lacking gender balance or being left  
146 out of research activities despite their expertise [2, 16]. During COVID-19 pandemic, a UK study showed  
147 that women were more than twice as likely to take on childcare and schooling responsibilities of  
148 children than men, while male academic counterparts leverage professional relationships and networks  
149 more effectively [1, 2, 16].



150

151 As a community, we must recognise that there is a tendency to “turn to men” in times of crisis both for  
152 leadership and scientific expertise [2, 3, 16, 17], highlighting the need to challenge this culture. Research  
153 and academia are already competitive; being in the central decision-making group is often challenging  
154 due to gender norms, along with roles and rules on how these groups are established and maintained;  
155 during health emergencies, these same authoritative circles become more difficult for women scientists  
156 to join [2, 16]. Our findings suggest that there is a need for transparency in opportunities and funding  
157 that requires actively identifying and addressing the structurally implicit and unconscious biases that  
158 favour men. For example, in recent years, the campaign against MANELs (Male-only Panels) has already  
159 met considerable support in the scientific community and several influential journals have published  
160 policies and editorials in support of women in science and medicine.

161

162 The evidence while sparse indicates that teams that are diverse in terms of gender, ethnicity, and social  
163 background produce better health science, are more highly cited, generate a broader range of ideas and  
164 innovations, and better represent society [2, 16, 18, 19]. Not only can these women drive discovery and  
165 innovation, but they can act to address health disparities and provide role models for the next  
166 generation of women scientists [2, 16, 18, 19]. Ensuring gender representation would also reflect the  
167 commitment of the global community to promoting gender equality in academic medicine and research:  
168 inclusion, diversity, representation, progression, and success for all. Therefore, the disadvantage not  
169 only affect women themselves and their research career but has much more profound implications for  
170 the wider society especially given the disproportionate burden of such outbreaks for communities who  
171 are marginalized due to their gender, sexuality, class, ethnicity, and ability [20-22].

172

173 Our analysis has some limitations. We could include only ~50-75% of trials for which an investigator's  
174 gender could be algorithmically predicted because the majority of studies had no investigator  
175 information, or the investigator names were not distinguishable (supplementary material). Furthermore,  
176 while such algorithms allow for the rapid analysis of gender disparities such as those conducted here,  
177 they can also be exclusionary to gender non-conforming, non-binary, and trans individuals. Beyond  
178 these limitations, although there were several observational studies in our dataset, clinicaltrials.gov may  
179 be biased towards randomised control trial registration and women may be more likely to be involved in  
180 observational studies, which still demonstrates gender disparities in types of trials women lead. Also, we  
181 did not consider studies that received private funding, which may not have been registered on  
182 clinicaltrials.gov; however, it is worth noting that clinicaltrials.gov is an international database with  
183 widespread international representation. Finally, while we attempted to provide a comparison with two  
184 other fields, a potential for bias could arise from the difference of gender distributions of researchers  
185 working in the fields of infectious diseases, breast cancer and diabetes.

186

187 In summary, while the COVID-19 pandemic has thus far provided many new opportunities for research,  
188 with numerous clinical trials initiated worldwide, a disproportionate proportion of PIs leading COVID-19  
189 related studies are predicted to be men, despite women accounting for 70% of the global health  
190 workforce [16]. Our demonstration of gender differences in trial leadership argue for revised policies  
191 and strategies that encourage the participation and leadership of women in pandemic research. This  
192 may include setting up review committees that are gender balanced, available funding to be provided to  
193 equal number of PIs, or funding gender balanced trial teams, and overall ensuring that funding agencies  
194 are aware of the lack of women leadership in clinical trials.

195

196 **Authors contributions**

197 MC: conceptualisation, methodology, investigation, literature review, data curation, writing – original  
198 draft. SH and MM: investigation, data curation, formal analysis, writing – review and editing; JS, KK, PS:  
199 methodology, writing – review and editing, supervision. CO: conceptualisation, methodology,  
200 investigation, literature review, writing – original draft, supervision.

201

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204

**205 Conflict of interests**

206 MC, SH, JS, MM have none to disclose. CO has received honoraria, fees for lectures, and advisory boards  
207 from Gilead, MSD, Viiv, and Janssen. She has also received research grants to her institution from the  
208 above-mentioned companies. PES has received honoraria, fees for lectures, and advisory boards from  
209 Gilead, Merck, Janssen, and ViiV; he has also received research grants to his institution from Gilead and  
210 ViiV. KK has received personal fees from GSK, outside the submitted work.

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215

	Jan 1, 2020 - June 26, 2020					before Jan 1, 2020		
	COVID-19	Breast Cancer	p value	T2DM	p value	Breast Cancer	T2DM	p value
<b>PI</b>	27.8% (430/1548)	54.9% (156/284)	<0.01	42.1% (56/133)	<0.01	49.7% (245/493)	44.4% (148/333)	0.215
<b>Study Director</b>	28.7% (72/251)	48.9% (23/47)	<0.01	22.2% (4/18)	0.75	30.5% (29/95)	47.6% (40/84)	0.02
<b>Study Chair</b>	31.4% (76/242)	32.1% (9/28)	1	63.6% (7/11)	0.98	33.3% (26/78)	40.4% (19/47)	0.54

228 ship in clinical trials between January 1, 2020 and June 26, 2020 and before January 1, 2020

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237

238 **Supplementary material:**

239 Flow diagram of process of selection

240 Gender distribution over time (months)

241

242

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