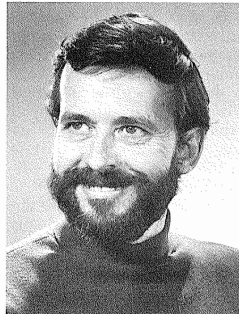




WHO SHALL GOVERN? KNOW YOUR COUNCIL NOMINEES—



Emerson



Fichter



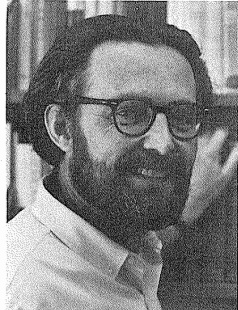
Fox



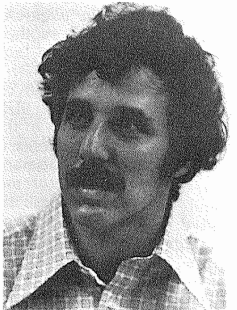
Hirschi



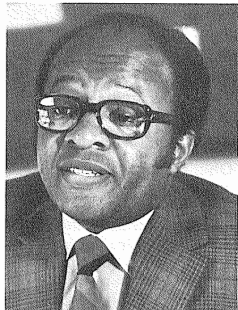
King



Kohn



Marx



McQueen

Each year the voting members of the ASA Elect four members-at-large from a slate of eight nominees to serve three-year terms on the all-important Council of the ASA.

Constitutionally, and in practice, the Council is responsible for the formulation of policy and the direction of the affairs of the Association. This includes the power to make major appointments and to allocate the resources of the ASA.

Persons who are elected to serve on the governing body are required to devote long hours over several meetings (quarterly in 1972-73) each year to policy and management matters. Homework is not uncommon; deliberations are intense; decisions are fateful. No compensation is received other than the

reward of service and stimulation from the combat of ideas generated among colleagues as they shape the direction of the Association.

This year, eight sociologists, each with distinguished professional records, have accepted the call to election from the Committee on Nominations. The ballot, to be sent to the membership during the Winter, will contain information about their achievements. For the present, we merely note the names of the nominees, the place and year of their degree, and their current affiliation:

Richard M. Emerson (PhD, Minnesota, 1955), Professor, University of Washington, Seattle.

Joseph H. Fichter (PhD, Harvard, 1947), Professor, Loyola University of the

South, New Orleans.

Renee C. Fox (PhD, Harvard, 1954), Professor and Chairman, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Travis Hirschi (PhD, UC Berkeley, 1968), Professor, University of California, Davis.

Charles E. King (PhD, Chicago, 1951), Professor, North Carolina Central University, Durham.

Melvin L. Kohn (PhD, Cornell, 1952), Chief, Laboratory of Socio-environmental Studies, NIMH, Bethesda, Maryland.

Gary T. Marx (PhD, UC Berkeley, 1966), Lecturer, Harvard.

Albert J. McQueen (PhD, Michigan, 1959), Associate Professor, Oberlin College.

Candidates for Committee on Committees

The Council of the ASA meeting in New Orleans devoted considerable time to discussing how to improve committee work in the Association. One problem is how to broaden the base for effective participation. The central mechanism for recruiting talent to the effort is the Committee on Committees. This elected body is charged with proposing names of members to the Council who might serve on various committees other than those whose selection is specified in the Constitution or By-Laws. The Council instructed the Executive Officer and the Committee on Committees to solicit from the membership, before each Annual Meeting, suggestions for nominations to committee openings. This will be done at the appropriate time through the columns of *The American Sociologist*.

In the meantime, six new members of the Committee on Committees are to be elected for two-year terms in the 1973 election. The slate of candidates, one to be elected (by all voting members) from each district, as announced by the Nominations Committee, is as follows:

District 1

Phillip E. Hammond (PhD, Columbia, 1960), Professor, University of Arizona

Minako K. Maykovich (PhD, UC Berkeley, 1967), Associate Professor, University of Hawaii

District 2

Nicholas Babchuk (PhD, Washington University, St. Louis), Professor, University of Nebraska

Warner Bloomberg Jr. (PhD, Chicago, 1961), Professor, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee

District 3

Hiram J. Friedsam (PhD, Texas, 1950), Professor, North Texas State University

Donald E. Muir (PhD, Vanderbilt, 1961), Professor, University of Alabama

District 4

Digby E. Baltzell (PhD, Columbia, 1952), Professor, University of Pennsylvania

Eleanor P. Wolf (PhD, Wayne State 1959), Professor, Wayne State University.

District 5

James D. Cowhig (PhD, Michigan State, 1954), Deputy Director, Div. of Social Systems & Human Resources, NSF, Washington, D.C.

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (PhD, Michigan, 1967), Assistant Professor, Brandeis University.

District 6

Elinor G. Barber (PhD, Harvard, 1951), Program Officer, Ford Foundation

Jacques Dofny (PhD, University of Paris, 1971), Professor, University of Montreal

Nominees for Nominations Committee

In the forthcoming election, the voting members of the ASA will elect six new members (one from each district) for two-year terms on the Nominations Committee of the Association. This committee, composed of 12 elected members and chaired by the Vice-President Elect, has the important duty of preparing a slate of candidates for six major offices or committees of the ASA including, President, Vice-President, Secretary, Council, Publications Committee, and the Committee on Committees.

The ballot for 1973 will contain the following two nominees from each district as selected by the At-Large Members of the Council:

District 1

Rodolfo Alvarez (PhD, Washington, 1966), Associate Professor, UCLA

Richard J. Hill (PhD, Washington, 1955), Professor, University of Oregon

District 2

David J. Bordua (PhD, Harvard, 1957), Professor, University of Illinois

Jack Ladinsky (PhD, Michigan, 1962), Professor, University of Wisconsin

District 3

Bruce K. Eckland (PhD, Illinois, 1964), Professor, University of North Carolina

James D. Thompson (PhD, North Carolina, 1953), Professor, Vanderbilt University

District 4

Elton F. Jackson (PhD, Michigan, 1960), Professor, Indiana University

Butler A. Jones (PhD, New York 1955), Professor, Cleveland State University

District 5

Albert D. Biderman (PhD, Chicago, 1964), Research Associate, Bureau of Social Science Research, Washington, D.C.

Helen MacGill Hughes (PhD, Chicago, 1937), Cambridge, Mass.

District 6

Eugene Weinstein (PhD, Northwestern, 1954), Professor, SUNY, Stony Brook

Harriet Zuckerman (PhD, Columbia, 1965), Associate Professor, Columbia

Sociologist Elected to NAS Institute of Medicine

Professor Eliot Freidson of New York University was among the 51 new members recently elected to membership in the Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences. The Institute now has 153 active members.

Members are elected for 5-year terms from within and outside of the health profession, and commit themselves to dedicating a substantial portion of their time to the "protection and advancement of the health of the public."

The Institute now has in progress a series of studies including an examination of the costs of educating health professionals and an exploratory study to identify key issues for study in relationships of health and human values.

PUBLISH AND PERISH—If You Don't Get Permission: Guidelines to Copyright Materials

What rules, requirements, and procedures should you follow if you cite the works of others as you prepare a manuscript for publication? Sociologists frequently ask this question. In response, we offer the following set of guidelines from one leading publisher, Harper & Row, courtesy of their Sociology Editor, Luther Wilson. While practices may vary somewhat from publisher to publisher, it is believed that the following guidelines are generally subscribed to and will be useful for most occasions.

BASIC RULE OF THUMB FOR ALL PERMISSIONS

Under U.S. Copyright law, material copyrighted prior to September, 1906, or published more than 28 years before the present date and for which the copyright has not been renewed, is in the public domain. Material published after September, 1906, and for which the copyright if necessary has been renewed, is still in copyright. Permission to reprint or reproduce such material must be obtained from the copyright holder.

"FAIR USE" DOCTRINE

There is no absolute rule governing the use of quotations because publishers' practices vary so widely. The concept of "fair use" is affected by the relation of the quoted passage to the whole work (if the entire book is very short, the quotation taken from it would thus constitute a more significant part than if the same length quotation was cited from a longer work); the importance of the passage (if the passage is merely illustrative, or if it is a summation of the writer's thoughts); and the purpose for which it is used. In general, we have established the following guidelines:

1. Permission must be obtained for all prose quotations of 300 words or more from any full-length book (either a single citation or several shorter quotations from a single work).
2. Permission must be obtained for all prose quotations of 50 words or more from any periodical (including journals and newspapers).

QUOTATIONS FROM MATERIAL OTHER THAN PROSE

The rules governing drama and poetry extracts provide even fewer exact guidelines. To be certain that the author and the publisher are properly protected, obtain permission for all selections taken from poems, plays, or songs. It is rather common to be denied permission to reprint a scene or act from a play, and therefore it is imperative to check on the disposition of the permission for

every passage from a play. Of course, classics are not protected by copyright, but any editions and translations published after 1906 are liable to the same permission requirements as are original plays. Poetry, too, defies the application of any hard and fast rules. Therefore request permission for all poetry where two lines or more have been cited. When using song lyrics or citing a song title per se, be extremely prudent. It is the policy of most publishers to require permission for all material quoted from a song, and our experience has been that the rights to reproduce lyrics (particularly those of contemporary songwriters) are both difficult to obtain and usually quite costly.

INTERNAL QUOTATIONS

In reprinting articles or long portions of a book (as in an anthology), it is easy to overlook the internal quotations used by the original author. Where material has been cited by the original author and that material (1) was published after 1906, (2) falls outside the "fair use" doctrine for prose, or (3) is a quotation from a song, poem, or play, obtain a separate permission. It is possible that in order to reprint one article, several permissions from several different authors and publishers might be needed.

ART WORK

Obtain permission to reproduce directly all previously printed figures, charts, and tables. To use the data and/or concept of a previously published piece of graphics, request permission to adapt the data (or concept). To reproduce an adapted piece of art, it is necessary to request permission from both the adaptor and the original source. Note that cartoons are bound by the same 1906 date as printed materials. A cartoon that has been reproduced in a newspaper or magazine is protected by the periodical's copyright; when reprinting such a cartoon, permission must be cleared not only with the periodical but often with the cartoonist, his agent, etc. The periodical concerned will usually know to whom to go. All photographs must be accompanied by a release to reprint (that is, a credit line or source must be provided).

NB: Materials published by the United States government are not copyrighted, but if such publications contain previously copyrighted material then permission should be obtained to cite such material.

Remember that your manuscript cannot and will not be processed without the necessary permissions. It is best to approach the permissions not as addenda but as the integral part of the manuscript that they really are.

Oligarchic Complaint Proposes Selective Constraint To Counter Editorial Ecospecies

How are the Editors of the ASR selected?

According to the Constitution of the ASA, The Board of Editors of the ASR shall be composed of an Editor elected by the Council, the Executive Officer, and not fewer than eighteen Associate Editors. Associate Editors shall be appointed by the Committee on Publications on the recommendation of the Editor for three-year terms, at least six of which shall expire each year. The number of Associate Editors beyond eighteen shall be determined by the Council. The Editor shall be selected with a view to technical competence. The Editor shall be Chairman of the Board.

Recently, in New Orleans, dissatisfaction with the alleged results of this procedure surfaced in the first Business session of the Annual Meeting. There, by a vote of 78 to 73 of persons in attendance, the following resolution offered by the Radical Caucus was passed and thus placed on the Council agenda:

WHEREAS sociologists have demonstrated the oligarchic control of editorial positions on the ASR and have demonstrated that increasing the diversity of the composition of editorial boards increased the diversity of authorship, BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED that no more than two of the editors of the ASR may be graduates of the same degree-granting department and that no more than one editor may come from each present academic institution.

This proposed policy stimulated considerable discussion both before and after the close vote was recorded. While

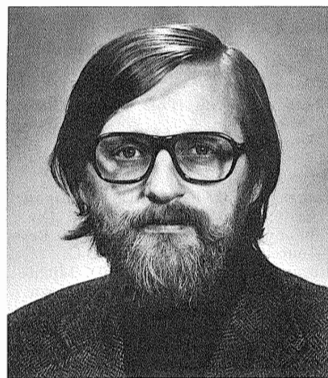
there appears to be general support for broadening the base for editorial participation, the specifics of the resolution pose some unanswered questions. For example, is it fair to place an absolute limit of two persons from each degree-granting institution when we know that the total number of PhD's from graduate departments is highly variable? Or, is diversity really dampened when more than two persons have a degree from the same department but they were awarded the degrees in quite different years, even decades? Or, how do you control for the migratory behavior of sociologists as when Associate Editors may move in the mid-term of their editorial appointments?

Whatever the facts in the case, the response of the Council in New Orleans was to advise the Executive Officer to inform the membership through the TAS that this resolution had been received sympathetically. Further, the membership is urged to send to the Executive Office any suggestions they might have for ASR editorial positions. Six new appointments will be made at the next Annual Meeting in New York. Names received from members will be transmitted to the Publications Committee for their consideration.

The current editor of the ASR is James F. Short, Jr. of Washington State University. He received his PhD at Chicago in 1951. His term as Editor expires in 1974. The following compilation offers the same kind of information about the Associate Editors of the journal:

Associate Editors, ASR, and Year Term Expires	Place and Year of PhD Degree	Present Institution
Phillips Cutright (72)	Chicago, 60	Indiana
Melvin L. Kohn (72)	Cornell, 52	NIMH
Joseph Lopreato (72)	Yale, 60	Texas
Alice Rossi (72)	Columbia, 57	Goucher College
Guenter Roth (72)	UC, Berkeley, 60	Washington
James D. Thompson (72)	North Carolina, 53	Vanderbilt
Charles Wright (72)	Columbia, 54	Pennsylvania
Theodore R. Anderson (73)	Wisconsin, 53	Minnesota
Ernest Q. Campbell (73)	Vanderbilt, 56	Vanderbilt
LaMar T. Empey (73)	Washington State, 55	Univ. S. Calif.
Allen Grimshaw (73)	Pennsylvania, 59	Indiana
Edward O. Laumann (73)	Harvard, 64	Michigan
Arthur L. Stinchcombe (73)	UC, Berkeley, 60	UC, Berkeley
Donald J. Treiman (73)	Chicago, 67	Columbia
Charles E. Bowerman (74)	Chicago, 47	Washington State
Edgar Epps (74)	Washington State, 59	Chicago
Reynolds Farley (74)	Chicago, 64	Michigan
Travis Hirschi (74)	UC, Berkeley, 68	UC, Davis
Lewis Killian (74)	Chicago, 49	Massachusetts
Gwynn Nettler (74)	Stanford, 46	Univ. of Alberta
Charles Perrow (74)	UC, Berkeley, 60	SUNY, Stony Brook
Seymour Spilerman (74)	Johns Hopkins, 68	Wisconsin
Harriet Zuckerman (74)	Columbia, 65	Columbia
William R. Catton, Jr. (75)	Washington, 54	Univ. of Wyoming
Doris Entwisle (75)	Johns Hopkins, 60	Johns Hopkins
Blanche Geer (75)	Johns Hopkins, 56	Northeastern
Norval Glenn (75)	Texas, 62	Texas
Gary Marx (75)	UC, Berkeley, 66	Harvard
Marshall Meyer (75)	Chicago, 67	Cornell

David Heise to Edit SOCIOLOGICAL METHODOLOGY



Professor David R. Heise, University of North Carolina, has accepted an appointment extended by the ASA Council

to serve as Editor of *Sociological Methodology* for three years starting with the 1974 volume.

Sociological Methodology, an official publication of the ASA, published by Jossey-Bass, Inc., is an annual volume that offers original chapters exploring new ventures to advance the knowledge of research methodology in various realms of sociological inquiry. This successful series was inaugurated by the ASA in 1969. Edgar F. Borgatta edited the first two volumes with George W. Bohrnstedt serving as Associate Editor. Herbert L. Costner edited the 1971 and 1972 volumes and is also preparing the 1973 edition.

In a statement of policy, Professor Heise offered the following challenge and invitation to potential contributors: "Sociological Methodology will continue to publish important papers in the established areas of quantitative analysis. In addition, however, I'll be

making an active effort to expand the literature on methods of social taxonomy and on techniques for analyzing sequences of social events. Methodologies for abstracting rules of organization will be sought especially, though they must be empirically oriented. Also, I'll welcome papers presenting advanced developments in 'qualitative' areas like historical methods, content analysis, and ethnography."

Currently, at North Carolina, David Heise is Director of the Quantitative Sociology and Theory Building Training Program. Before receiving both his MA and PhD in Sociology at the University of Chicago, he earned Bachelor's degrees in Journalism and in Mathematics at the University of Missouri.

Professor Heise is a productive scholar with both substantive and methodological interests. Among his publications are numerous articles, three of which appeared in past volumes of *Sociological Methodology*, and two monographs: "Semantic Differential Profiles for 1,000 Most Frequent English Words" (1965), and "The Development of Role Knowledge" (1970). More recently he has edited *Personality and Socialization* (1972), and he has another edited book in press entitled, *Personality: Biosocial Bases*.

In the judgment of the Council, such a profile of experience has developed knowledge of an editorial role that bodes well for the future of *Sociological Methodology*.



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RECENT TRENDS IN GRADUATE TRAINING: PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF A SURVEY

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University of Missouri—Columbia

The American Sociologist 1972, Vol. 7 (November): 3, 5

In the first week of March, 1972, a three-and-a-half-page questionnaire was sent by the author to the 102 United States Ph.D.-granting departments listed on pages 1-167 of the ASA's 1971-72 *Guide to Graduate Departments of Sociology*. Seventy-six of these, about three-fourths, were returned, usually by the director of graduate studies of the responding department, but occasionally by the department chairman.¹ A thorough analysis of the responses is planned, but some obvious patterns are here reported in order to give colleagues some information about recent developments and vagaries of the Ph.D.-terminating graduate programs in the United States. In the past three years:

1. Graduate training programs in sociology have been undergoing change. Almost twice as many departments as are coasting along with present programs are embarking on or have already embarked on programs of substantial change. Of the nearly two-thirds of the departments that are pursuing change, a heavy majority reported change at both the M.A. and the Ph.D. level. Very few departments concerned themselves with the M.A. level only.
2. The changes are almost unbelievably varied. However, three types of change are discernible: (a) minor changes—additions and subtractions—with little planned growth, although some growth might occur through simple accretion; (b) substantial changes that follow program reviews and changing ideas about the character of graduate training and the mission of the department; and (c) development of new fields, new specialties, and on occasion (in about one-seventh of the cases) new degree programs initiated. Attempts to alter programs to take into account disadvantaged minority groups were noted by about one-sixth of the de-

partments reporting.

3. *The ideological grounds for change are varied and multidirectional.* Upgrading, downgrading, diversifying, and streamlining are key descriptive terms. The dominant but by no means only consensus on changing the M.A. degree seems to be to broaden the ways to achieve change and to make the degree quicker if not easier to get—or, in a few cases, to make it of a higher theoretical quality or, conversely, of a more applied nature. In a few cases the M.A. degree has been dropped altogether. Little enthusiasm is shown for abandoning the research-based character of the Ph.D., but reduction of the graduate student "stretch-out" of the training period is a matter of increasing concern, with more than a quarter of the departments admitting efforts to streamline the Ph.D. program and reduce its time-consuming requirements. Despite the hurrying up, a "hard-hat" emphasis on quality for the Ph.D., even strengthening and upgrading it, is the dominant trend, with 50 percent of the departments willing to sacrifice quantity for quality. Almost no departments want to junk their present regular and special programs, however updated, for a simple return to the "good old days" of graduate training.

4. *A willingness to change (tinker?) is accompanied by a noticeable determination to reduce the number of entrants who will be affected by (suffer?) the specific changes.* Nearly all departments have some notion of the number of new entrants that can be accommodated, yet not all departments know by April or May how many graduate students will report for duty. Nevertheless, there is a trend toward restricting enrollment, with not many major departments willing to see more than twenty-five or thirty new faces at the start of the academic year. If it has been the case that the already restrictive "top ten" departments have been the first to cut back, the rest of the departments, for whatever reasons dimly or clearly perceived, are beginning to restrict entry also. The mechanisms for control vary from making requirements for entrance more stringent to cutting back on teaching assistantships or other forms of graduate student support to simply adopting a cut-back figure and, when it has been reached, closing the door to all further applicants. Paradoxically, many of the departments that are cutting back are making special arrangements to admit dis-

advantaged, usually minority, applicants.

5. *Screening devices are fairly heavily used.* The devices vary from "early-warning" qualifying examinations to later-on-weeding-out comprehensive or final examinations that are anything but pro forma. Spotting and eliminating high-risk candidates has become an increasingly absorbing faculty pastime. At some and perhaps at many schools, a student's successful completion of an M.A. degree no longer assures automatic acceptance at that school for work toward the Ph.D. With varying degrees of success, theory and method "core" courses or pro-seminars are relied upon to ground the student in the theoretical essentials of the discipline and/or to screen out unworthies. A counter-trend to the taut-ship, high-standard, hurdle-hopping, laggard-zapping style is seen in efforts of a few (humanitarian) staff members and students to downplay examinations and theses or to develop substitutes that range from creative projects to papers submitted for publication (professionalization with a vengeance!) to the building of individual "portfolios," and the like. Graduate students now face such a salad bowl of courses, styles, models, emphases, procedures, and requirements from the various sociology departments as to confound rational comprehension.

Least in danger of changing, perhaps, is the dominance and the relative autonomy of the student's Ph.D. advisory committee. Area committees and examining committees made up of persons other than those on students' advisory committees are also (increasingly?) getting into the act. In other words, the bureaucratization of the advisory, testing, and evaluational procedure is happening, and, further, nearly a quarter of the respondents report a general departmental bureaucratization, with a proliferation of committees, gatekeepers, functionaries, etc. Specialization may not be rampant but it is likely to increase, with, as an added "specialty," the generalist option precipitating out as the college teachers' alternative.

6. *Multi-faceted programs accommodating a diversity of goals and anticipated end-products are evident.* This observation relates to the willingness-to-tinker syndrome common to most departments. There also seems to be a specialization deniurge that transcends mere change and tends toward structural transformation of many tight little islands of graduate training. In particular, specialty or substantive fields are being added: medical sociology, occupational sociology, political sociology, urban studies, family sociology, deviance, and law and society. Still other specialties, many with outside funding and interdisciplinary involvements (such as training manpower specialists) are reported by many departments, with about one-fifth to one-quarter of the departments involved in certificate or special degree programs. Tolerance of diversity without a clear comprehension of what diversity means or how it is best achieved and reluctance to curtail expansion in the scope, the effort, or the role of the department have been the two dominant responses of departments to the post-Sputnik efflorescence of financial support by governmental and nongovernmental agencies.

7. *Bureaucratization at the departmental level seems less worrisome than might be expected given the expansion and growth of sociology departments.* While nearly three-quarters of the responding departments noted much "time, energy, concern, and headache" expended in the care and management of their graduate training programs, only a small percentage of those departments felt their time wasted or their efforts unproductive. Said another way, graduate faculty, although at times unhappy with their graduate training chores, are not likely to want such drastic alternatives as a return to undergraduate teaching. The minority of faculty less engaged in graduate training is split rather evenly as to whether it wants to think about changes or is content to let the graduate program alone.

8. *Graduate students do not share equally or nearly equally in departmental governance.* Nevertheless, graduate students are "fairly well" represented in governance, particularly on committees, and to a limited extent they participate in decision making. It is as unlikely that students will be "out of it" with respect to departmental affairs as it is that they will have "equal voice in all respects." The noticeable efforts of a few years ago for participatory democracy in governance have subsided among students and apparently among many faculty as well. If there is any direction of faculty mood and behavior regarding governance it is for individual withdrawal as much as individual pushing forward. It remains to be seen whether the faculty and student gains in governance that have been made will persist, given the apparently increasing or unrelieved psychic costs, the aggravations of participation in the everyday matters of graduate training, and the pressures for research and publication.

9. *Faculty mood concerning the immediate future varies from apprehension to a calm and undisturbed view about external influences.* However, a substantial portion of the respondents were concerned with the fact that the public seems to be experiencing a credibility gap about—if not

¹Questionnaires were returned from all of the "top 20" departments in the country with the exception of the University of California at Berkeley. Copies of the questionnaire with numbers of responses totaled in the margin are available from the author.

This mini-research effort was not supported by any granting agency internal or external to the University of Missouri. Donald Cowgill, chairman of the sociology department at the University of Missouri-Columbia is thanked for making available stenographic aid, office supplies, and postage.

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Falling ASA Membership

As a new (1972) and callow international associate member of ASA, may I suggest a possible reason the growth rate of ASA membership has slowed in recent years (Report of the Executive Officer, *The American Sociologist*, August 1972:25)? Assuming that the intellectual stimulation provided by the three main ASA sociology journals, the *American Sociological Review*, *The American Sociologist*, and *Contemporary Sociology*, is the principal benefit of ASA membership, membership may be lagging because not enough eclecticism is shown in two of these journals.

The *American Sociological Review*, although rightly enjoying great esteem, does not currently appear (compared to several British sociological journals) to reflect a number of the concerns of professional sociologists. In particular, general theoretical and methodological articles are lacking, as are reports of research conducted using field-work methods. This may merely reflect a strong American commitment to integrate middle-range theory with meticulous "hard" empirical investigation, but it squares oddly with the rich and extremely varied outpouring of sociology books published in North America.

The American Sociologist, from past reading a most stimulating source of professional debate, has in the last two issues been filled with articles that to a British eye seem curiously parochial. The prestige ratings of sociologists, graduate sociology departments, sociology as against other disciplines, and specialisms within the discipline have naturally a certain fascination, but is this not a bizarre kind of navel-gazing? What has become of the substantive issues raised by the sociology of sociology in recent years?

To a non-American, the content of the above two journals (though not of that excellent innovation *Contemporary Sociology*) is markedly ethnocentric. Sociology in the United States is so large that it can fuel itself. The smaller numbers of professional sociologists in Britain and in other European countries have tended to be more eclectic in their sources of inspiration, and the enrichment from other national sociologies has been correspondingly greater. Judging from the American sociologists who visit Europe, eclecticism occurs at the personal level. Could it not somehow be reflected more adequately in the ASA's journals?

M. I. A. BULMER
University of Durham, England

A Silent Scientist Speaks

Jerry G. Bode's article, "The Silent Science," (*The American Sociologist*, May 1972:3, 5-6) undoubtedly struck a responsive note in many sociologists. Undoubtedly it aroused the ire and opposition of others.

Of course our discipline is guilty of scholasticism. But identifying sin is not the same as exorcising it. Evangelical calls for repentance are not likely to effect sociological salvation. What sociologist worthy of the name thinks that revivalism can flower in a semantic jungle nurtured by a possessive bureaucracy?

Bode is not the first, nor will he be the last, to remind us that sociology has been weighed and found wanting. Robert Park, C.

Wright Mills, and others have periodically called us back to the big news, the Sociological Imagination. Hardly a president of the ASA or of the regional societies has failed to indulge in the annual ritual of rereading the discipline to purity and to relevance.

But the ole country preacher, after the high-powered evangelist has gone, finds that the folks are pretty much like they were before. Is a sociology convention or a journal article likely to be more instrumental in affecting the direction of things?

I've said all this not because I disagree with Bode but because I think he's beating a dead horse. If sociology is a public cadaver, exhortation will not revive it. Maybe sociology isn't worth saving. But if it is, the best way to do it is not to cajole or intimidate sociologists who labor in the Parsonian vineyard. It does little good to bemoan the status and reward systems in sociology. The sociologist who wants to woo the public should woo it—and should accept the consequences as an autonomous human being. For me, at least, to be an autonomous human still takes priority.

Bode asks (p. 5), "as long as sociological norms assign negative status to anything printed in nonacademic books or journals, who dares publish in them?" I do, for one. I don't like to write journal articles. They bore me, and, frankly, I'm not very good at writing them. But writing for the public excites me beyond description, and I'm reasonably good at it.

So I have accepted my banishment to the sociological hinterland as the price of my contentment and sense of purpose. When I list *Mademoiselle*, *The New Woman*, *Sexology*, *The National Reporter*, *Home Missions*, and *The Student* on my vita, prospective academic employers vanish like cold rain on a hot roof.

If enough sociologists decide that the established reward systems of the discipline are not worth the effort, the public may yet discover that sociology really has something to say worth hearing. Better yet, sociologists may discover that sociology is saying something.

EDGAR R. CHASTEEN
William Jewell College

Undergraduate Training Standards

For several years I have been teaching sociology in small liberal arts colleges and have witnessed such problems as choosing textbooks for courses, justifying budget items to administrations that neither understand nor appreciate the nature of sociology, agitating for improvements in sociology curricula over the objections of ex-ministers who preach a variety of social doctrines under the guise of sociology, and justifying the hiring of persons trained in sociology rather than in social work. I am distressed at the poor status of sociology within colleges and universities and at the difficulties small college sociology departments have in attracting the better students.

Recent events which, in my opinion, are a shameful commentary on our discipline have prompted me to write this letter. A typical case follows (I know of at least two other similar cases):

A small, conservative, church-related liberal arts college that I know had a combined department offering majors in psychology, sociology, and "sociology with a concentration in social work" (scsw). Until a year ago the departmental faculty consisted of two

full-time and two part-time instructors in psychology, two full-time instructors and one part-time instructor in sociology, and one half-time instructor for all the social work courses. The three persons teaching sociology were trained sociologists and the social work teacher had an MSW and a great deal of practical experience. The scsw major consisted of a two-year sequence of courses in social work combined with courses in sociology; the one part-time social work instructor was enough to teach the specific social work courses.

When new standards were imposed by the social work professional organization, the college, in order to be approved, was required (and this was fine) to change the name of the scsw major to "social work" (but not to change any course offerings) and to hire at least one full-time social work teacher. In order fully to utilize the full-time social work teacher, the college assigned him to teach sociology half-time. The department now has two sociology courses a quarter taught by someone not trained specifically in sociology. The sociologists sought to prevent this change, trying to convince the administration (and even the chairman of the department, who was a psychologist) that sociology and social work are different disciplines with different goals, different methods, and different bodies of knowledge—but to no avail.

The ASA has to my knowledge no standards or guidelines for undergraduate training to indicate that it would disapprove an event of this kind. Even the official ASA statement of standards for graduate training is a mealy-mouthed generality. Still, it is better than nothing: it is a start. But isn't it time for our professional society to follow the lead of other professional societies in developing and trying to implement standards for undergraduate training? Are we not self-respecting and mature enough to be able to agree at least on a few basics? Surely we have courage to state officially what we believe in and what we are doing. There should be standards below which we will not tolerate acceptance into the profession.

Professional guidelines would especially benefit persons in colleges where budgeting is tight and departments have to compete for funds, space, equipment, personnel, and students. I suggest that the ASA give this matter serious consideration, and that other sociology teachers make their concern and interest known to the proper committees of our association.

DAVIDA P. GATES, graduate student
University of North Carolina,
Chapel Hill

Correction

Despite my best efforts at proofing my article "Correlates of Prestige Ranking of Graduate Programs in Sociology" (*The American Sociologist*, May 1972), I let at least one error slip through.

On page 13, column 3, line 27 (5th line below table 1) "KV-66" appears. It should be "KV-64."

My apologies for letting this error through.

WARREN E. SOLOMON
State University of New York,
Oswego

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS OF MANUSCRIPTS AND LETTERS

Send manuscripts and letters to Editor, *The American Sociologist*, 815 Cherry Lane, Davis, California 95616.

The American Sociologist reserves the right to exclude or edit all items.

Manuscripts

Submit three copies on white standard paper. Leave wide margins. Double-space all matter including indented passages, footnotes, references, tables.

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ABSTRACT. Include summary of two hundred words or less.

FOOTNOTES. Number consecutively from one and append on separate page. Use for substantive comments, not bibliographic citations.

TABLES. Append on separate pages at end of manuscript. Where appropriate in text, insert a guideline and note "table 1 about here." For headings and forms, see current issues of *The American Sociologist* or *American Sociological Review*.

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REFERENCES IN TEXT AND FOOTNOTES. Document all source citations as shown below. Do not use *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, or *loc. cit.*; instead, repeat previous citation. Examples:

1. "After Mills wrote *The Power Elite* (1956), other writers (Bell, 1967:140-164; Clinard, 1966b:403; Warner, 1957) stated that . . ." (List authors alphabetically, separate authors from year by comma, year from pages by colon, authors from each other by semicolon. Use "a," "b," "c" for more than one work by author in same year.)

2. "It has been found (Roach et al., 1969; Simon and Simon, 1968:218) that . . ." (Use "and" for two authors, "et al." for three or more but include all names in references following text.)

3. "A recent statement by the American Psychiatric Association (1952:12) shows that . . . when occupational data (United States Bureau of the Census, 1963:117-119) are used for . . ." (For institutional authorship, supply minimum identification from beginning of complete citation.)

REFERENCES FOLLOWING TEXT. Double space. List authors alphabetically with their publications in chronological order. Avoid using italics.

Articles. Give last names and initials of authors, year of publication, title of article (lower case, within quotation marks), name of journal, volume number, month, and pagination. For reprinted articles, show original and later dates.

Monographs. Give last names and initials of authors, year of publication, title of book (initial letters capitalized, no quotation marks), place of publication, and name of publisher.

Examples:

- Clinard, M. B.
1966a Shuns and Community Development: Experiments in Self-Help. New York: Free Press.
1966b "Sociologist's quest for respectability." *Sociological Quarterly* 7 (Autumn):399-412.
- Roach, J., L. Gross, and O. Gurslin (eds.)
1969 Social Stratification in the United States. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Simon, L., and R. J. Simon
1968 "Class, status, and savings of Negroes." *American Sociologist* 3 (August):218-219.
- Warner, W. L.
1957 "The study of social stratification." Pp. 221-258 in J. B. Gittler (ed.). *Review of Sociology*. New York: Wiley.

Letters

Type double-spaced with wide margins. Submit two copies and supply a short title. References must be fully documented in text—do not use footnotes.

(Continued from page 3)

antagonism toward—higher education and that a change in public opinion may lead to considerable institutional change. In some states, of course, the intervention of state legislatures into the policy making of universities is already past history. While probably a minority of the responding directors of graduate study or chairmen feels concern about the politicization of intradepartmental and interdepartmental relations, even fewer show concern for potential internal upheavals and/or radical changes initiated for the sake of change itself.

10. Responses are about equally divided on whether to move toward a stronger professional organization, including union organization, or to maintain only the usual AAUP involvement. Only a small minority is currently represented by a union, nearly all in one state university system, but the relatively recent decision of the AAUP to engage in collective bargaining activities for its members is likely to have noticeable effect. The impression gained, partly from a fairly large percentage of "no answers" is that there are mixed feelings within departments and that a chairman or director of graduate study felt (in answering the questionnaire) hesitant to try to generalize for the departmental faculty as a whole. Short of drastic changes, pressures, threats, or assaults on the bastions of occupational security, it is unlikely that the shift to unionization is in the near offing. But in the offing, sometime, it most likely is.

NEW EDITOR OF THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGIST

The Committee on Publications and Council announce the selection of Leon H. Mayhew of the University of California, Davis, to succeed Harold W. Pfautz as editor of *The American Sociologist*.

All manuscripts for forthcoming issues and all letters pertaining to published articles should be addressed to:

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The American Sociologist
 815 Cherry Lane
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QUANTITATIVE AND COLLABORATIVE TRENDS IN AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH

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The American Sociologist 1972, Vol. 7 (November): 5-6

American sociology is characterized by an indefatigable effort on the part of its practitioners toward making it scientific. In the beginning of this century William Graham Sumner regretted the state of sociology when he said, "Sociology seems now to be largely speculative and controversial. I should like to see a group of scholars at work to get it down to normal growth on a scientific method, dealing with concrete things" (quoted in Bernard, 1909). Sumner's statement was a vision, as much as a wish, pointing to collective research and quantification as the directions sociology would take in the decades to follow.

The subject of investigation in the present study is the trend of quantification in sociological research and the extent to which collaboration has emerged along with quantification. A fuller statement of research collaboration—its nature, growth, and rationale—in the seven decades of American sociology may be found elsewhere (Patel, 1967). Here, data on quantification and the relation of quantification to authorship collaboration will be analyzed.

sense means assigning numerical values in accordance with certain rules. It cannot escape being both descriptive and analytical-explanatory: descriptive in reference to numerical data used to illustrate a point and analytical-explanatory in its use for verifying hypotheses. Our contention is that both terms are recognized in scientific output, and it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between them. It remains to be seen to what extent quantitative analysis is found in sociological research literature.

Under the assumption that researchers seek professional journals as vehicles of scientific expression and learning, four representative sociological journals were selected for this study: *American Journal of Sociology (AJS)*, *Social Forces (SF)*, *American Sociological Review (ASR)*, and *Rural Sociology (RS)*. *AJS*, having begun publication in 1895, is the oldest sociological journal; it was the official journal of the American Sociological Society from 1906 to 1936, when *ASR* became the new official journal of the society. *SF* started publication in 1926 and is the official

journal of the Southern Sociological Society. *RS* was founded in 1936 and is the official journal of the Rural Sociological Society. In all, the author examined 7,908 articles. These included all articles in the above four journals from the first issues to the last issues of 1965. For purposes of

analysis the data were divided into seven decades from 1895 to 1965. A simple operational definition of quantification was utilized: if the body of the article contained numerical data, either as tables or in a less formal way, the article was described as quantitative; otherwise it was termed as non-quantitative. Whether each article was single-authored or multiple-authored was also recorded.

Findings

Journal literature in the first three decades (1895-1925) was relatively lacking in "concrete things," that is, quantitative analysis was found in only 14 percent of the articles in the first decade and 18 percent and 11 percent of the articles in the second and third decades respectively (table 1). In the next two decades (1926-45) two of every five articles were quantitative. In the post-war decades the balance tilted in favor of quantitative analysis. Of the total articles in the sixth decade (1946-55) one in every two was quanti-

TABLE 1. QUANTITATIVE ARTICLES IN SOCIOLOGICAL JOURNALS, 1895-1965

Journal	1895-1905		1906-15		1916-25		1926-35		1936-45		1946-55		1956-65		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
<i>American Journal of Sociology</i>	58 (428)	14	64 (351)	18	33 (294)	11	210 (569)	37	161 (471)	34	202 (465)	43	314 (471)	67	1,042 (3,049)
<i>Social Forces</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	308 (725)	42	265 (576)	46	236 (537)	44	342 (504)	68	1,151 (2,342)
<i>American Sociological Review</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	233 (566)	41	379 (621)	61	453 (639)	71	1,065 (1,826)
<i>Rural Sociology</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	116 (248)	47	129 (234)	55	140 (209)	67	385 (691)
Total articles and mean percentages	58 (428)	14	64 (351)	18	33 (294)	11	518 (1,294)	40	755 (1,861)	42	946 (1,857)	51	1,249 (1,823)	69	3,643 (7,908)

Figures in parentheses are the total articles in the journals.

Measuring the Extent of Quantification

Quantification in sociological research is gradually coming of age, despite philosophical reservations and methodological obstacles.¹ The debate today is not whether quantification is or is not essential to a science, or whether it should or should not be restricted to measurable social units at the descriptive level.² Quantification in its generic

form is requisite for sociology or, for that matter, for science in general. More recently Sorokin (1966:101-129) deprecated what he termed "quantomania"; at the same time he welcomed the contributions of mathematical studies and, especially, economic, demographic, and criminological facts as fruitful and tangible since they "have a measurable unit and, therefore, lend themselves more easily to mathematical analysis" (Sorokin, 1966:102). Whereas he played down statistical analysis of demographic and similar data as merely descriptive—"mainly informational, temporary, and local" (Sorokin, 1966:106)—Coleman (1958) has asserted that sociologists have gone beyond the census-taking or social accounting stage to the analytical explanatory stage.

tative, and in the last decade (1956-65) two in every three were quantitative.

The great quantitative upsurge observed from the fourth decade on reflects the survey and scale-building efforts started by scholars working in such areas as status, attitude, and structural change as well as by scholars working on demographic and similar analyses.

Of the four journals, *ASR* leads the quantitative movement (table 1) especially in the 1956-65 decade when 71 percent of its articles included quantitative data compared to around 67 percent for the other three journals. In the fourth decade, 1926-35, *AJS* published 37 percent quantitative articles compared to 11 percent in the previous decade. *SF*, starting publication in 1926, had 42 percent in its first decade and surpassed *AJS* in the quantitative race for the following two decades. This was true also of *RS*, which from the year of its founding (1936) showed a vigorous quantitative activity.

This study was partly funded by the Indiana State University Research Committee, to which I am grateful. I am also grateful to Gregory V. Donnemwerth for reading and critically commenting on the paper.

¹For a classical statement on the quantitative tradition see Lazarsfeld (1961).

²In 1901 Giddings stated the need for a statistical method in sociology, but Ward (1907:48, 143-146), the first president of the American Sociological Society, rejected the claim that quantifica-

TABLE 2. MULTIPLE-AUTHORED ARTICLES IN SOCIOLOGICAL JOURNALS, 1895-1965

Journal	1895-1905		1906-15		1916-25		1926-35		1936-45		1946-55		1956-65		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
<i>American Journal of Sociology</i>	1 (428)	.2	— (351)	—	4 (294)	1	35 (569)	6	35 (471)	7	75 (465)	16	146 (471)	31	296 (3,049)
<i>Social Forces</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	27 (725)	4	50 (576)	9	65 (537)	12	146 (504)	29	288 (2,342)
<i>American Sociological Review</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	55 (566)	10	122 (621)	20	212 (639)	33	389 (1,826)
<i>Rural Sociology</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	34 (248)	14	48 (234)	21	71 (209)	34	153 (691)
Total articles and mean percentages	1 (428)	.2	— (351)	—	4 (294)	1	62 (1,294)	5	174 (1,861)	10	310 (1,857)	17	575 (1,823)	32	1,126 (7,908)

Figures in parentheses are the total articles in the journals.

TABLE 3. TYPES OF ARTICLES IN *American Journal of Sociology*, *Social Forces*, *American Sociological Review*, AND *Rural Sociology*

Type of Article	1895-1905		1906-15		1916-25		1926-35		1936-45		1946-55		1956-65	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<i>Quantitative</i>														
Single-authored	58	100.0	64	100.0	31	93.9	470	90.7	658	84.9	724	76.5	787	63.0
Multiple-authored	—	—	—	—	2	6.1	48	9.3	117	15.1	222	23.5	462	37.0
Total	58	100.0	64	100.0	33	100.0	518	100.0	775	100.0	946	100.0	1,249	100.0
<i>Nonquantitative</i>														
Single-authored	369	99.7	287	100.0	259	99.2	762	98.2	1,029	94.8	823	90.3	461	80.3
Multiple-authored	1	0.3	—	—	2	0.8	14	1.8	57	5.2	88	9.7	113	19.7
Total	370	100.0	287	100.0	261	100.0	776	100.0	1,086	100.0	911	100.0	574	100.0
<i>Multiple-authored</i>														
Quantitative	—	—	—	—	2	50.0	48	77.4	117	67.2	222	71.6	462	80.3
Nonquantitative	1	100.0	—	—	2	50.0	14	22.6	57	32.8	88	28.4	113	19.7
Total	1	100.0	—	—	4	100.0	62	100.0	174	100.0	310	100.0	575	100.0
<i>Single-authored</i>														
Quantitative	58	13.6	64	18.2	31	10.7	470	38.1	658	39.0	724	46.8	787	63.1
Nonquantitative	369	86.4	287	81.8	259	89.3	762	61.9	1,029	61.0	823	53.2	461	36.9
Total	427	100.0	351	100.0	290	100.0	1,232	100.0	1,687	100.0	1,547	100.0	1,248	100.0

The trend toward quantitative articles is greater than the trend toward jointly authored articles. In the three decades from 1895-1925, hardly more than 1 percent of the articles were multiple-authored (table 2), whereas quantitative articles in those decades (table 1) were 14, 18, and 11 percent. In the next two decades (1926-45) multiple-authored articles rose to 5 then to 10 percent, while quantitative articles increased to 40 and then to 42 percent. Multiple-authored articles in the last two decades (1946-65) were 17 and 32 percent, while quantitative articles were 51 and 69 percent. Thus, in the last decade ending in 1965, out of every three articles, two were quantitative and one was multiple-authored. The upsurge in quantification led the upsurge in collaboration by at least two decades.

In table 3, journal articles of quantitative and nonquantitative nature are analyzed according to whether they were written by single or multiple authors. In the first two

decades, no quantitative articles were multiple-authored, but in the third decade (1916-25) two multiple-authored articles appeared. In the fourth decade multiple-authored articles rose to forty-eight—one in every eleven was quantitative—and in the following three decades (1936-65) they continued to rise.

Table 3 also shows that single authors have written most of the journal literature, though they have gradually moved from their preoccupation with nonquantitative articles in the earlier decades to quantitative articles in more recent decades.

Even though single authors pen the bulk of quantitative articles, coauthored articles are increasing. Multiple authors doubled their quantitative output every decade; while their nonquantitative output also increased, it increased at a lower rate. The ratio of quantitative to nonquantitative articles by multiple authors rose, with slight fluctuations, from

no quantitative articles to one nonquantitative article in the first decade to four quantitative to one nonquantitative in the last decade.

On the basis of these data one sees that during the decade 1956-65 80.3 percent of multiple-authored articles, in contrast to 63.1 percent of single-authored articles, contained quantitative analyses. If the present trend continues, quantitative articles by multiple authors are likely to exceed quantitative articles by single authors in less than two decades.

Looking at figure 1, one sees a decided rise in the number of multiple-authored quantitative articles and, at the same time, a diminishment of the less "concrete" products of single authors. Not one quantitative article written by multiple authors appeared in the first decade, which was dominated by single-authored nonquantitative articles forming 86 percent of the total articles examined. In the last decade, single-authored nonquantitative and multiple-authored quantitative articles each constituted 25 percent of all the articles. The rise in multiple-authored quantitative articles is sharper than the rise in single-authored quantitative or multiple-authored nonquantitative articles.

Summary

From a humble beginning, quantification has come to a predominant place in sociology journals—articles using quantitative analyses outnumbered articles without quantitative analyses by a margin of two to one in the last decade. In one out of three cases between 1956 and 1965 quantitative articles were products of a collaborative effort. When authors collaborated the chances were four out of five that their article would be quantitative. This indicates that more and more scholars have started dealing with "concrete things" and teaming up with each other for the advancement of sociology.

Quantification has taken long strides in American sociological research. Our crude measure of quantification has indicated a growth from 14 to 69 percent over a seven-decade period. Though the measure was limited in scope, the trend it reveals is unmistakable. Sociologists and other social scientists confront numerous difficulties in quantification. Some are skeptical of the claims made regarding the desirability of or success in quantifying qualitative variables. However, the quantitative trend found in the four sociology journals reflects a growing emphasis on empirical data in American sociology, although this by itself may not suffice as proof of the transformation of sociology from an animistic to a naturalistic discipline.³

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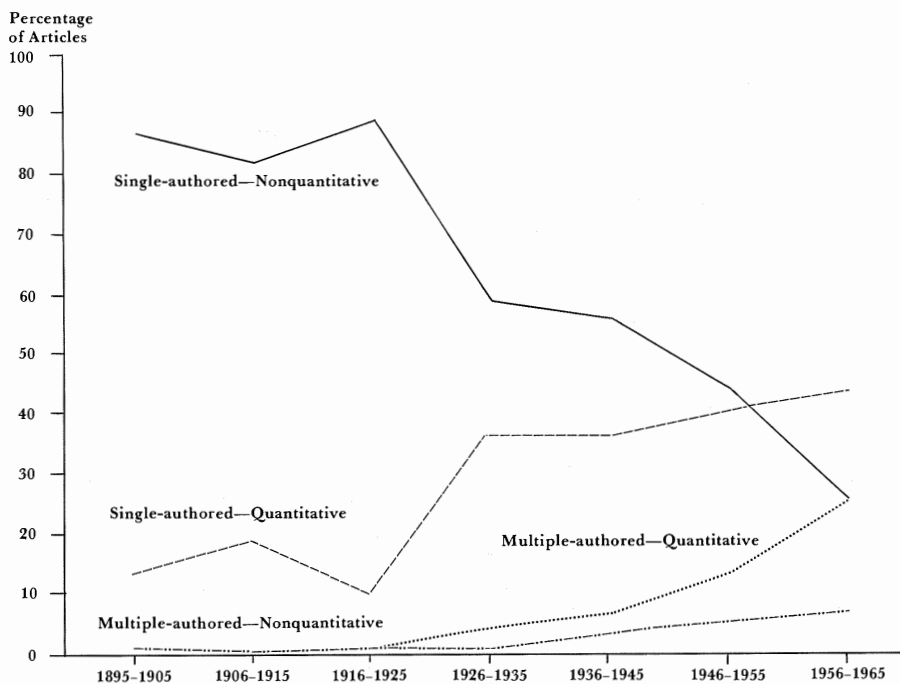


Figure 1. Types of Articles in Sociological Journals, 1895-1965

³In *From Animistic to Naturalistic Sociology*, Catton (1966: 6-9) reviews the trends of naturalism in sociology admitting that, of the four components of naturalism, only empiricism has been widely recognized.

MEASURING SOCIOLOGICAL PRODUCTIVITY: A REVIEW AND A PROPOSAL

FRANK CLEMENTE

*University of Kentucky and University of Wisconsin**The American Sociologist* 1972, Vol. 7 (November): 7-8

One of the focuses of empirical investigations in the sociology of sociology has been publication output. In reading the literature on the productivity of sociologists, however, one becomes aware of a lack of research continuity. While numerous data have been reported, they have been not cumulative but, rather, ambiguous and often contradictory. One of the major obstacles to linking the results of the various studies together is the disparate procedures that have been employed to measure productivity. The present discussion first focuses upon the dilatory effect of the use of discrepant measures of productivity and then attempts to provide some empirical support for a measure we believe would serve as a useful guideline for future research on sociologists' productivity.

Research Background

Table 1 presents ten operational definitions of the productivity of sociologists (two by the same researcher) that have appeared since 1950. As these definitions indicate, one of the few areas of consensus on productivity has been some aspect of publication output. Some studies included both articles and books as measures of productivity while others included only articles. Of the latter, several counted articles in only a few leading journals and one counted articles in only two journals. The confusion generated by the differences in measures is increased by the diverse weighting schemes used. The arbitrary nature of weighting different types of publications, coupled with the fact that some studies used no weights at all, severely restricts linking the findings together.

To illustrate how the diversity of measures hinders empirical generalization, let us examine the consequences in table 1 of applying the diverse measures to the bibliography of a hypothetical sociologist with the following publications:

- a. article in *American Sociological Review (ASR)*
- b. article in *Social Forces (SF)* (coauthored)
- c. article in *Pacific Sociological Review*
- d. article in *Social Problems*
- e. monograph (coauthored, 300 pages)—reviewed in *ASR*
- f. textbook (200 pages)—reviewed in *ASR*
- g. edited book (200 pages)—not reviewed in *ASR*

By calculating the credit the hypothetical sociologist would be granted by the authors of the ten studies depicted in table 1, some light is shed on the noncomparableness of research in this area. In one study (Axelson, 1960) the hypothetical scholar would have only 1.5 articles counted while in others (for example, Stallings and Singhal, 1970) all seven publications would be counted. Further, the seven studies that employ point systems would grant credits that range from 2 to 96.

The discrepancies in and deficiencies of the measures presented in table 1 have not, of course, gone unnoticed in the literature. The proponents of several measures—for example, Axelson (1960) and others—have recognized the limitations of the measures (Kaplan, 1964:867). One of the critical points of discussion is the scope of the measures of productivity. On the one hand, there has been the practice of limiting a measure to only two or three leading general sociological journals (usually *ASR*, *AJS*, and *SF*). This restriction has been criticized on four major grounds: (1) it systematically discriminates against sociologists who publish in specialized journals such as *Demography* or *Marriage and the Family* (Clayton and Tolone, 1970:2-3), (2) it excludes general sociological journals such as *Sociology and Social Research* (Neumeyer, 1969), (3) it is biased in favor of "establishment" sociologists and operates against action-oriented sociologists who use such journals as *Social Problems* to publish their research (Shamblin, 1970:155), and (4) it may generate a spurious correlation between eminence and productivity because only "leading" journals are included (Straus and Radel, 1969:1).

On the other hand, there has been the practice of including articles published in any journal. This procedure was followed by Babchuk and Bates (1962) and resulted in the counting of articles in journals as marginal to sociology as *Scandinavian Review* and the *Journal of American Folklore*. Some compromise between the two extremes seems to be in order.

In addition to the criticism of the scope of the various measures, doubt has been raised regarding the utility of the different weighting schemes. The Manis (1950) procedure of assigning 1 point for an article and 18 points for a book, because the average book has eighteen chapters, has been criticized by Straus and Radel (1969:1) as giving disproportionate credit to book publications. The weighting system proposed by Knudsen and Vaughan (1969) has been criticized in several discussions. Kovit and Heeren (1969) argue that there is no objective basis for saying an article in *ASR* is worth two articles in *SF*. Glenn and Villemez (1970:244) point out that the Knudsen-Vaughan index is the result of subjective judgment and does not represent a consensus of sociologists. The proponents of a third weighting scheme (Stallings and Singhal, 1970:142) readily admit to the arbitrary nature of their scale but justify it on the basis of the argument that even a subjective weighting system is better than using no weights at all since it is "obvious that different types of publication should receive differential credit."

The Measure

We believe an effort to attain consensus on an index of sociological productivity is overdue. One measure with potential as an index of publication quantity was developed by Glenn and Villemez (1970; see also Glenn, 1971) in research concerned with the productivity of American Gradu-

The respondents were told that a weight of 10 had been arbitrarily assigned to an article in the *ASR* and they were asked to assign weights to other types of publications using the average "importance to the discipline" of an *ASR* article as their standard.

Table 2 presents the categories of publications and the weights assigned by Glenn and Villemez. The GVCI generates six distinct indexes of publication productivity: (1) number of articles, (2) number of books, (3) total publications (articles plus books), (4) article points, (5) book points, (6) total points (article points plus book points).

A number of arguments can be made for the use of the GVCI as a measure of productivity. One is that it is composed of a broad range of journals and circumscribes most general sociological work as well as important specialty areas within the discipline. Another argument for its use is that it has a considerably wider scope than most previous indexes and yet is not eclectic. In an attempt to anticipate the criticism that the GVCI discriminates against some specialties, we have drawn data from our ongoing study of the productivity of 2,205 members of the ASA (1970) who received a Ph.D. in sociology during the period 1950-66. The twenty-two journals in the GVCI were searched by the author for the years 1940-70. Over five thousand publications were counted. The breakdown for the 2,205 sample members by the thirty-three areas used by the ASA (1970: viii) to classify its members is presented in table 3.

TABLE 1. MEASURES OF PRODUCTIVITY APPLIED TO BIBLIOGRAPHY OF A HYPOTHETICAL SOCIOLOGIST

Productivity Study	Operational Measure	Hypothetical Bibliography	
		Publications Counted ^a	Credit Granted
Manis (1950)	1 point for articles and edited books, 18 points for single-authored books, partial credit for coauthored books	a, b, c, d, e, f, g	32 points
Lazarsfeld and Thielens (1958)	1 point each for (a) dissertation, (b) publishing 1 or more articles, (c) publishing 1 or more books, (d) reading at least 3 papers at professional meetings	a, b, c, d, e, f, g	2 points
Axelson (1959)	Articles in <i>ASR</i> , <i>AJS</i> , <i>SF</i> ; partial credit for coauthored articles. Books listed in <i>Library of Congress Catalog</i>	a, b, e, f, g	1.5 articles 3 books
Axelson (1960)	Articles in <i>ASR</i> , <i>AJS</i> , <i>SF</i> ; partial credit for coauthored articles	a, b	1.5 articles
Babchuk and Bates (1962)	Articles in 113 different journals	a, b, c, d	4 points
Straus and Radel (1969)	1 point for articles in <i>ASR</i> , <i>AJS</i> ; for books reviewed in <i>ASR</i> : 2 points if edited, 4 points if joint authored, 6 points if sole authored	a, e, f	11 points
Knudsen and Vaughan (1969)	17 points for articles in <i>ASR</i> ; 12 points for articles in <i>AJS</i> ; 8 points each for articles in <i>SF</i> or research notes in <i>ASR</i> . For books reviewed in <i>ASR</i> : 16 points if edited, 24 points if text, 48 points if nontext	a, b, e, f	96 points
Stallings and Singhal (1970)	15 points for book, 12 points for coauthored book, 9 points for edited book, 7 points for coedited book, 3 points for article, 2 points for coauthored article	a, b, c, d, e, f, g	47 points
Glenn and Villemez (1970)	Weighted scale of 22 journals (see Glenn and Villemez, 1970:246). For books reviewed in <i>ASR</i> : 30 points if monograph, 15 points if text, 10 points if edited	a, b, c, d, e, f	75 points
Lightfield (1971)	1 point for articles, 1 point for edited book, 1 point per 100 pages of original book	a, b, c, d, e, f, g	11 points

^aSee text for key to hypothetical publications.

ate departments of sociology. The Glenn-Villemez Comprehensive Index (henceforth GVCI) was designed to cover a wider range of publications than most previously published indexes had covered. As originally formulated, the GVCI included all articles in twenty-two journals of sociology and allied fields and all books reviewed in *ASR*. By means of a mailed questionnaire to a sample of professors of sociology Glenn and Villemez (1970: 245) derived a system of weighting the various types of publications:

As the data in table 3 indicate, no area of competence appears to be markedly overrepresented or underrepresented on the GVCI. The difference between publishers and nonpublishers is greater than 2 percentage points for only three areas and reaches 3 percent for only one specialty: applied sociology. Since applied sociology is the first choice of only 2.7 percent of the total sample we do not see this difference to be a major problem. Rather, we would argue that these data strongly support the position that the GVCI

Part of this research was supported by the National Institute of Mental Health. I am indebted to Richard B. Sturgis for comments and suggestions.

adequately represents most special areas within sociology.

Though the fact that one-third of the sample did not have any publications on the GVCI implies that the measure misses a lot of publication activity we are not disturbed with this finding. Previous research in the area of scholarly productivity (Babchuk and Bates, 1962; Price, 1963; Shockley, 1957) has demonstrated that most members of most disciplines are low publishers or nonpublishers. Thus, even if the measure were expanded, the distribution in general would likely remain the same.

A third argument for the use of the GVCI is made by Glenn and Villemez themselves (1970:247). They point out that, unlike previous weighting systems, the GVCI represents a consensus among a group of professional sociologists rather than the arbitrary opinion of one or two researchers.

Finally, the GVCI is flexible. Both the book and journal aspects of the measure can be expanded. In fact, the book index should probably be expanded to include all books received for review by *ASR* as well as those actually reviewed. Olsen and Turk (1970) have pointed out that a number of important books were never reviewed in *ASR* and Pullum and Anderson (1970) found only a 24 percent overlap between books reviewed in *ASR* and books reviewed in *AJS*. Using books received would merely expand the measure, not change it, because books reviewed in *ASR* (or now in the new book review journal, *Contemporary Sociology*) are taken only from books received (Olsen, 1970).

Just as the book dimension of the index is readily expandable, so the article dimension is flexible. In a recent paper, Glenn (1971) reported additional data and weights for sixty-three journals. For the researcher who wants more scope than that afforded by the original list of twenty-two journals there is now a set of weights for almost three times as many journals.

One cautionary remark which must be made in regard to the GVCI is that it is a measure primarily of quantity of output rather than of quality. Although Glenn and Villemez (1970:245) told their respondents to use "importance to the discipline" as a guide in assigning weights, the mea-

TABLE 2. WEIGHTS OF TYPES OF PUBLICATIONS^a

Type of Publication	Weight used in Glenn-Villemez Comprehensive Index
Books Reviewed by <i>American Sociological Review</i> :	
Research and Theoretical Monographs	30
Textbooks (including revisions)	15
Edited Books	10
Articles in:	
<i>American Sociological Review</i>	10
<i>American Journal of Sociology</i>	10
<i>Social Forces</i>	8
<i>Sociometry</i>	8
<i>British Journal of Sociology</i>	7
<i>Social Problems</i>	7
<i>Public Opinion Quarterly</i>	7
<i>Demography</i>	6
<i>Rural Sociology</i>	6
<i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	6
<i>Journal of Marriage and the Family</i>	6
<i>Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly</i>	6
<i>American Sociologist</i>	6
<i>Sociology of Education</i>	5
<i>Sociological Quarterly</i>	5
<i>Journal of Health and Social Behavior</i>	5
<i>Social Science Quarterly</i>	5
<i>Sociology and Social Research</i>	5
<i>Sociological Inquiry</i>	5
<i>Pacific Sociological Review</i>	5
<i>Sociological Analysis</i>	4
<i>Phylon</i>	4

^aFrom table 1 of Glenn and Villemez (1970:246).

sure is only a very gross indicator of quality. A far better index of quality would be the number of citations a sociologist's work receives in the literature. Unfortunately, the implementation of citation counts has been inhibited by pragmatic considerations (Bayer and Folger, 1966). As the Coles (1967:378) point out, there seems to be no practicable way to employ citation counts for a large number of individuals.

TABLE 3. DISTRIBUTION BY AREA OF COMPETENCE FOR SAMPLE, ALL PUBLISHERS AND NON-PUBLISHERS (in percent)

Area of Sociological Competence	Sample ^a (N=2,205)	Publishers ^b (N=1,413)	Non-Publishers ^c (N=741)
Applied Sociology	2.7	1.7	4.7
Collective Behavior	1.7	1.8	1.6
Community	2.5	2.4	2.7
Comparative Sociology	1.6	1.8	1.2
Crime and Delinquency	4.6	4.4	5.4
Cultural Sociology	.8	.6	1.2
Demography	5.2	5.9	3.9
Deviant Behavior	3.6	4.2	2.3
Education	3.5	3.4	3.6
Formal and Complex Organizations	3.4	3.6	3.0
Human Ecology	1.2	1.3	1.1
Industrial Sociology	1.9	2.0	1.9
Law and Society	.5	.7	.1
Leisure, Sports, etc.	.3	.3	.4
Marriage and Family	7.5	7.2	8.3
Mathematical Sociology	.7	.8	.5
Medical Sociology	6.6	6.3	6.7
Methodology and Statistics	5.6	6.0	4.8
Military Sociology	.1	.1	.0
Occupations and Professions	2.2	2.5	1.6
Political Sociology	2.4	2.8	1.6
Race and Ethnic Relations	5.0	4.5	6.2
Religion	3.1	2.7	3.6
Rural Sociology	2.1	1.8	2.7
Small Groups	1.1	1.3	.7
Social Change	2.9	2.9	3.0
Social Control	.5	.5	.4
Social Organization	3.2	3.5	2.7
Social Psychology	7.9	8.9	6.3
Sociology of Knowledge and Science	.8	.8	.8
Stratification and Mobility	3.0	3.3	2.4
Theory	7.1	6.4	8.2
Urban Sociology	4.6	3.5	6.4

^aMembers of ASA (1970) who received Ph.D. during period 1950-1966.

^bSociologists in sample who have at least one publication on GVCI.

^cSociologists in sample who have no publications on the GVCI.

The time and funds required to collect such data are beyond the scope of most projects. Recently, however, the compilers of the *Science Citation Index* have begun to include in it the major sociology journals (see Cole and Cole, 1971). This applies to only a few of the most prestigious journals, however, and reliance upon this limited range may generate the spurious relations between eminence and productivity discussed earlier (see Straus and Radel, 1969:1).

Conclusion

The use of disparate measures has operated to stultify empirical generalization of the productivity of sociologists. We have demonstrated that diverse and misleading conclusions are generated by the use of discrepant measures. An attempt has been made to provide some empirical justification for the GVCI as a measure of the quantity of sociological output. Hopefully, future research in the area will incorporate the GVCI or a similar measure, and then progress toward the real goal of the study of productivity—grounded sociological theory—will begin.

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ADDENDA TO LIST OF PH.D.S.

Alberta, University of

1969-70

(Omit name of L. E. Larson who was correctly listed under the University of Oregon in the August listing.)

California, University of; Berkeley

1969-70

COMPARATIVE DIFFERENCES AND CHANGES IN LEVELS OF ILLEGITIMACY. S. F. Hartley. (M.S., San Jose State College)

STIGMA IN PUBLIC HOUSING: INTERNATIONAL COMPARISONS. E. Huttman. (M.A., Cornell University)

Michigan, University of

1970-71

DISCRIMINATION IN QUALITY OF METROPOLITAN HOUSING. G. S. Bonham. (B. Arch., Univ. of New Mexico; M.A., Univ. of Michigan)

PATTERNS OF LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION: A MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS. M. Hartman. (B.A., Hebrew Univ.)

Mississippi State University

1970-71

A TYPOLOGY OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS. H. N. Mookherjee. (B.Sc. and M.Sc., Univ. of Calcutta)

Several persons have notified us that their names were missing from our list of recent Ph.D. recipients ("Ph.D.s in Sociology, 1969-70 and 1970-71," *The American Sociologist*, November 1972: 3-23). Upon checking, we have learned that the names of these persons were inadvertently omitted by their departments. The departments, and we, regret these omissions, and we list below the persons who should have been included.

We have also learned that in at least one instance the list sent to us by a sociology department included persons who received degrees in June 1969, which was prior to the specified academic year 1969-70.

Editor

THE FAILURE OF 100 DIVIDED BY 3 TO EQUAL 33-1/3

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Clifford E. Landers

Jersey City State College

The American Sociologist 1972, Vol. 7 (November): 9

In studies dealing with the productivity of sociologists and the evaluation of academic departments of sociology, the relative values of solo and joint authorship of scholarly publications have varied, but jointly authored publications invariably appear to yield more credit for authors and departments than would be the case were publications assigned a finite value to be divided among the authors and departments. Stallings and Singhal (1970), for example, gave solo and joint authors, respectively, 15 and 12 points for books and 3 and 2 points for articles; coauthorship credit did not vary with the number of coauthors. Using a more common means of handling coauthored publications, Glenn and Villemez (1970:245) gave full credit to an institution if an article or book was authored or coauthored by one of the institution's sociologists because "a department probably derives almost as much prestige from a publication one of its members has coauthored as from a publication one of its members has authored alone." Lightfield (1971) also gave each coauthor full credit for joint publications.

In light of the quantification of evaluation in the above-mentioned studies, coauthored publications appear to glisten as brightly, or nearly as brightly, on a scholar's vita as do solo publications. It is the purpose of this paper to provide data on the validity of this assumption by presenting the reactions of professional sociologists to a mail questionnaire.

Sample and Method

A random sample of members of the American Sociological Association was drawn from the *ASA Directory of Members, 1970*. Excluded from the sample were student members, emeritus members, members residing outside the United States and Canada, and persons unaffiliated with a department of sociology. Of 225 questionnaires sent in January 1972 to members of the sample (with stamped, self-addressed return envelopes) 148 were returned in time for processing. Of these 148 returned questionnaires, 6 had not been delivered to the addressees and 16 were unusable, leaving a working sample of 126, or 56 percent of the target sample.

Data on publishing background, age, possession of doctorate, and rank of respondent were requested in the questionnaire. Similar data were compiled from the *ASA Directory of Members, 1970* for nonrespondents.

Members of the sample had a median of 6.5 publications. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were associate or full professors compared to 55 percent of nonrespondents. The median age of respondents was 43; for nonrespondents it was 45. Seventy-eight percent of the respondents and 71 percent of the nonrespondents had earned doctorates. Seventy-three percent of respondents were teaching in departments that granted graduate degrees, but only 59 percent of nonrespondents were affiliated with such departments (as listed in the *ASA Guide to Graduate Departments of Sociology, 1971-72*). Nonrespondents' institutional affiliations, of course, were obtained from the 1970 directory, while data on respondents were obtained from the questionnaire, which in a number of cases had been forwarded to respon-

dents' new locations. Some respondents (and nonrespondents) can be assumed to have moved to graduate departments after receiving their doctorates, which would account for much of the discrepancy between figures for respondents and nonrespondents.

In all cases, differences between respondents and nonrespondents were small (in no case exceeding 14 percentage points), and these differences may be at least partially artifactual. We believe that the sample of respondents was representative of both the target sample and the ASA population in which we were interested.

Respondents to the questionnaire were asked to make the following assumptions: (1) the quality of an article is independent of the number of authors, (2) all authors are professional sociologists; none is a student, and (3) the article gives no information about the actual contribution of each author of a coauthored publication, but the authors' names are not in alphabetical order. The key passage was:

ASSUME that a SOLO article is worth 100 points to a man.¹ But it is NOT necessary for the total number of points for an article to equal 100. That is, you might wish to give the senior (first listed) author of a two-man publication 100 points and the junior author 70. Or you can give the senior author 70 points and the junior author 60. Or you can give both authors 90 points, 60 points, 40 points, or any other amount of credit.

Respondents were then asked to give the value of an article to (1) the senior author and (2) the junior author of a two-author article and to (3) the senior author, (4) the second author, and (5) the junior author of a three-author article.

Hypotheses and Results

Hypotheses were tested by means of one-tailed t-tests, with statistical significance defined in terms of the .05 level of probability.

The first hypothesis—that coauthored publications would yield a total of more than 100 points for the team of authors—was strongly supported. The mean sums for two-author and three-author articles were, respectively, 151.04 ($s = 39.25$) and 195.88 ($s = 77.97$), both of which differ significantly from 100. Only one respondent awarded less than 100 points for coauthored publications, while 79 percent gave a total of more than 100 points for two-author articles and 83 percent gave a total of more than 100 points for three-author articles. A modal 29 percent gave the maximum of 200 points for two-author and 300 points for three-author articles.

The second hypothesis—that senior and junior authors of two-author publications would receive more than 50 points apiece—was also supported. They received mean sums of 81.67 ($s = 18.58$) and 68.40 ($s = 25.03$) respectively, both of which differ significantly from 50 points.

The third hypothesis—that senior authors of two-author

¹Our apologies to the ladies. As three respondents correctly pointed out to us, use of the term "man" was inappropriate.

publications would receive more credit than junior authors—was supported, for 81.67 is significantly higher than 68.40.

The fourth hypothesis—that senior, second, and junior authors of three-author publications would receive more than 33-1/3 points apiece—was supported. They received mean sums of 74.38 ($s = 23.46$), 61.74 ($s = 28.34$), and 58.17 ($s = 30.23$) respectively, all of which are significantly higher than 33-1/3 points.

The fifth hypothesis—that senior authors of three-author publications would receive more credit than second authors, who in turn would receive more credit than junior authors—received partial support. Significantly more credit was awarded to the senior author than to either of the other authors, but the junior author was awarded virtually the same credit the second author was awarded.

The sixth hypothesis—that evaluation of the worth of a publication to coauthors would vary positively with the proportion of evaluators' publications that were coauthored—received minimum support. Restricting the analysis to the eighty-seven individuals with four or more publications, the proportion of coauthored publications ($\bar{X} = .34$; $s = .26$) correlates .18 and .08 with credit to senior and junior authors of two-author articles and .13, .07, and .09 with credit to senior, second, and junior authors of three-author articles. All correlations were positive, as predicted, but most were trivial and only the highest was statistically significant.

Conclusion

Whether one considers the modal response of 29 percent of the sample giving a full 100 points of credit to all coauthors of an article or the mean sums of 151 and 196 points given to coauthors of two-author and three-author articles, the conclusion is clear: coauthorship is an efficient form of academic gamesmanship. As long as publication credit is expandable to fill the talent, the scholar-gamesman must conclude that it is expeditious to collaborate with colleagues, in form if not in fact. That is, even though an article is the work of only one author, sharing authorship with colleagues is a useful strategy, resulting in a mean credit gain of 96 percent for every three publications "coauthored."

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JOURNAL PRODUCTIVITY OF PH.D. SOCIOLOGISTS

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The American Sociologist 1972, Vol. 7 (November): 9-11

Academicians in various disciplines are perennially interested in assessments of the publication patterns of persons in their own field. For sociologists, such assessments are not only intrinsically interesting, but they contribute to the literature concerning the sociology of occupations and the sociology of complex organizations. Research by the authors explores sociological productivity as measured by the publication of journal articles by Ph.D. sociologists.

Review

Wanderer (1966) found that in an eleven-year period almost 40 percent of all articles in the *American Sociological*

Review were the work of graduates of four major graduate departments. Based on the productivity of Ph.D. graduates during that period, twenty-one departments had ranked, at least one year, among the top ten departments that contributed articles and research notes to the *American Sociological Review*. Lewis (1968) studied the top seventeen departments as ranked by Wanderer. He collected information on faculty productivity and compared the rankings of productivity to the number of Ph.D. graduates as well as to the subjective rankings of departmental prestige by Keniston (1959) and Cartter (1966).

Knudsen and Vaughan (1969) also focused on produc-

tivity, but for a shorter span of time, 1960-64. Their measure of productivity included articles not only in the *American Sociological Review* but in the *American Journal of Sociology* and *Social Forces*; it also included books reviewed in *ASR*, and it employed a system of weights for the journals and for different types of books to determine productivity.

In updating and expanding Knudsen and Vaughan's research, Glenn and Villemez (1970) evaluated the productivity of sociologists at forty-five American universities in the four-year period 1965 through 1968. Glenn and Villemez updated and slightly modified the Knudsen-Vaughan index, and they developed a comprehensive index of their

own based on authors' publications in books and in twenty-two journals. Their weights for journals and books were based on responses to a questionnaire they sent to professors and associate professors of sociology. Many changes were observed in the standings of departments when Glenn and Villenez compared their index with the Knudsen-Vaughan index. The per-sociologist level of productivity struck them as being surprisingly low.

In a different vein, Oromaner (1970) divided sociology departments into prestige categories in order to determine "analytical properties" of varying prestige levels. He found staff recruitment to be much influenced by the prestige of the department where doctoral training was acquired; almost three-fourths of the faculty in "distinguished" departments, for example, received their degrees from "distinguished" departments.

Published too late to influence our research was a contribution by Lightfield (1971). Lightfield's focus was on the relation between productivity and the course of individual careers. From a sample of two hundred sociologists who earned their Ph.D.s between 1954 and 1963, Lightfield collected complete publication records; he then accorded equal weight to articles in various journals and variable weights for different types of books. In addition, he obtained qualitative ratings for each sociologist through the technique of counting citations of published works. He concluded that the sociological recognition system operates less consistently than has been presumed: peer recognition, for instance, was influenced more by quantity of output than by quality of output; the prestige of a person's academic appointment was influenced by the prestige of the department of graduate training and by the quality, rather than the quantity, of research output. In both quantitative and qualitative terms, sociologists trained in the more prestigious departments were more likely than others to be productive. Sociologists unproductive during their first five years following receipt of the Ph.D. seldom became productive in the next five years.

Method

First, we make no assumption that "productive" is synonymous with "meritorious." We acknowledge important roles for academic sociologists who do not publish. We do assume, however, that publication, as the most visible professional activity, tends to influence peer recognition and is important in prestige perceptions of individuals and departments.

Questionnaires for our study were sent to the chairmen of the twenty top graduate departments of sociology as ranked by Cartter (1966). Each chairman was asked to list the five journals and/or periodicals in which he would most like to see his staff members publish; he was then asked to designate the next five outlets in which he would like to see articles by members of his department. Responses were received from half the chairmen.

In the questionnaires returned, twenty-nine journals were mentioned. Unless a journal was listed at least twice, we did not consider it; journals not in continuous publication during the 1959-68 period also were not considered—altogether seventeen journals were not considered. Each of the remaining twelve journals was allocated two points each time it was listed among the five most preferred journals and one point each time it appeared on the list of the second order of preference. The points were total and used as weights in determining productivity scores. The resultant weights are:

<i>American Sociological Review</i>	20
<i>American Journal of Sociology</i>	20
<i>Social Forces</i>	17
<i>Sociometry</i>	13
<i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	9
<i>British Journal of Sociology</i>	8
<i>Social Problems</i>	6
<i>Public Opinion Quarterly</i>	4
<i>Sociology and Social Research</i>	3
<i>Sociological Quarterly</i>	3
<i>Social Science Quarterly</i>	3
<i>Pacific Sociological Review</i>	2

In a study made by Babchuk and Bates (1962), eight of our twelve journals accounted for about 55 percent of all the journal articles produced by 262 sociologists. If this ratio still holds, our twelve journals publish more than three-fifths of the sociology articles written by American-trained sociologists currently affiliated with Ph.D.-granting departments in the United States and Canada.

Each issue of the twelve journals was examined, and all articles, whether singly or jointly authored, were recorded on a card created for each author. Two productivity scores were tabulated for each individual and for each department. The first, referred to as the "standard productivity score," allocated the full weights each time the name of the individual was listed as author or coauthor. The second, the "modified productivity score," divided the journal weight for each entry by the number of authors of the article, using the nearest whole number in case of fractions.¹

Names of the sociologists we studied were obtained from the American Sociological Association's *Guide to Graduate Departments of Sociology, 1970*. Of the 1,896 sociologists listed in the guide, we recorded the names of those who had received a Ph.D. from a Canadian or United States university and who were listed in the guide as being affiliated with

TABLE 1. MEASURES OF SOCIOLOGISTS' PRODUCTIVITY, 1959 THROUGH 1968

University Where Sociologist Received Ph.D.	Number of Productive Ph.D.s	Total Score	Mean Score ^a	Modified Score ^b
Chicago	99	3,868	39	2,870
Columbia	66	2,234	34	1,786
Michigan	42	2,131	51	1,613
North Carolina	36	2,119	59	1,604
Harvard	57	1,913	34	1,454
Wisconsin	36	1,462	41	1,012
Ohio State	25	1,237	49	727
California at Berkeley	32	1,087	34	958
Minnesota	31	937	30	687
Yale	26	886	34	689
Washington (Seattle)	33	882	27	577
Cornell	22	756	34	579
Texas	9	742	82	499
Michigan State	21	673	32	459
UCLA	20	516	26	403
Northwestern	20	481	24	330
Vanderbilt	12	476	40	315
Oregon	11	454	41	335
Pennsylvania	15	420	28	299
New York University	13	363	28	273
Washington (St. Louis)	14	362	26	221
Illinois	13	327	25	239
Iowa (Iowa City)	12	296	25	211
Washington State	14	280	20	146
Princeton	9	269	30	249
Pennsylvania State	7	266	38	227
Indiana	11	255	23	192
Southern California	9	242	27	172
Stanford	9	227	25	190
Purdue	7	190	27	140
Nebraska	5	179	36	136
Johns Hopkins	6	178	30	144
Louisiana State	9	177	20	137
Brown	6	165	28	123
Duke	6	156	26	94
Syracuse	5	152	30	92
Kentucky	6	148	25	93
American	1	143	143	111
Maryland	1	114	114	52
Wayne State	3	112	37	89
Missouri	8	96	12	69
Notre Dame	2	80	40	53
Pittsburgh	3	76	25	59
New School for Social Research	4	66	17	54
Florida State	4	62	16	50
SUNY, Buffalo	1	60	60	40
Boston	3	57	19	31
Catholic University of America	3	57	19	37
California at Santa Barbara	1	55	55	51
Iowa State	7	47	7	34
Kansas	2	47	24	39
Massachusetts	1	40	40	40
Tennessee	2	37	19	27
Colorado	2	32	16	31
Case Western Reserve	2	23	12	23
Utah	2	22	11	12
Tulane	3	18	6	13
Rutgers	1	17	17	17
Mississippi State	2	6	3	5
Connecticut	1	3	3	3
St. Louis	1	3	3	3
Southern Illinois	1	3	3	3

^aTotal score divided by the number of productive Ph.D.s.

^bAdjusted for joint authorship.

TABLE 2. INTRA- AND INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES RELATING TO SOCIOLOGISTS' JOURNAL PRODUCTIVITY (SPEARMAN'S RHO) FROM DISTRIBUTIVE PERSPECTIVE (N=835)

	Total Journal Articles	Total Articles Jointly Authored	Total Journal Points	Number of Modified Points	Chronological Age	Professional Age	Prestige of Degree-Granting Department ^a
Total Journal Articles	1.00	.54 ^b	.81 ^b	.77 ^b	.04	.23 ^b	.25 ^b
Total Articles Jointly Authored		1.00	.46 ^b	.21 ^b	-.02	.06 ^c	.13 ^b
Total Journal Points			1.00	.94 ^b	.02	.18 ^b	.30 ^b
Number of Modified Points				1.00	.03	.19 ^b	.23 ^b
Chronological Age					1.00	.84 ^b	-.05
Professional Age						1.00	.05
Prestige of Degree-Granting Department ^a							1.00

^aBased on Roose and Andersen (1970).

^bp < .001.

^cp < .05.

a United States or Canadian Ph.D.-granting sociology department. There were 835 such sociologists whom we classified as "productive," that is they had published in one or more of the twelve journals. As it turned out, all of the productive sociologists were trained in Ph.D.-granting departments in the United States.

Our interest lay in assessing the productivity of Ph.D. sociologists in relation to the institution from which they received their degree. We recorded the age of each productive sociologist, the institution that granted his degree, and his professional age, that is, the number of years that had elapsed between 1970 and the year the Ph.D. was received. The *ASA Directory of Members, 1970* provided these data in most instances. When this was not the case, we obtained the information from other published sources or by correspondence. For each productive sociologist we also computed a "journal prestige index," the total standard points credited to the sociologist divided by the number of articles from which these points were derived.

Departmental productivity was based on the points earned by each department's Ph.D. graduates. Two indexes of departmental productivity were developed for each department: (1) total standard points accrued by all sociologists who received a Ph.D. degree from that department and were currently affiliated with a Ph.D.-granting institution in the United States or Canada and (2) total modified points accrued by the same persons. The number of productive Ph.D. sociologists affiliated with doctoral-granting departments in the two nations in 1970 was 854. However, because 19 of them received their Ph.D. outside the United States or Canada, our computations were based on 835 sociologists.

Results

Glenn and Villenez (1970), Babchuk and Bates (1962), and Lightfield (1971) commented upon the relatively low productivity of sociologists. The present study confirms their findings. Only 45 percent of the sociologists with a Ph.D. and employed in Ph.D.-granting departments had published as much as a single article in any of the twelve leading journals during a decade. Of course, many sociologists, "nonproductive" by our measure, published in other journals or wrote books, but it appears that many sociologists neither publish nor perish. This is not a uniquely sociological finding. Cole and Cole (1967), for example, discovered that 37 percent of the physicists they surveyed were low in both quantity and quality of publications.

Fifty of the 112 departments produced no Ph.D. who was productive by our definition, in the decade studied. Table 1 presents the findings of the other 62 departments on the basis of three criteria: total scores of productivity for Ph.D. sociologists currently affiliated with Ph.D.-granting sociology departments, mean score per productive Ph.D., and modified score of productivity. In addition, the table shows the number of productive graduates from each of the 62 Ph.D.-granting universities.

Eleven departments have each produced 25 or more "productive" Ph.D. sociologists. The University of Chicago has produced the most and, not surprisingly, accumulated the highest total score. Chicago is followed by Columbia, Michigan, North Carolina, and Harvard. In terms of average productivity, North Carolina graduates have the highest mean score (59 points per productive graduate), followed by Michigan (51), Ohio State (49), Wisconsin (41), and Chicago (39).

The population of our study was viewed from two perspectives: distributive and collective. Research from the distributive perspective examined variables concerning sociologists who received Ph.D. degrees from United States universities, and research from the collective perspective examined the departments from which persons in the study received their degrees.

Table 2 focuses on the distributive level, presenting the intra- and intercorrelations (Spearman's rho) between variables relating to the journal productivity of individual soci-

¹The most obvious flaw in our measures of productivity is the omission of books, monographs, bulletins, and journals other than the twelve we used. The task of compiling a complete list of publications for so large a number of individuals seemed prohibitive.

TABLE 3. INTRA- AND INTERCORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES RELATING TO DEPARTMENTS' JOURNAL PRODUCTIVITY (SPEARMAN'S RHO) FROM COLLECTIVE PERSPECTIVE (N = 112)^a

	Total Journal Articles	Total Journal Points	Number of Modified Points	Number of Productive Ph.D. Sociologists	Prestige of Degree-Granting Department ^b	Mean Productivity of Degree-Granting Department	Mean Number of Articles of Degree-Granting Department
Total Journal Articles	1.00	1.00	1.00	.99	.84	.92	.90
Total Journal Points		1.00	1.00	.99	.85	.93	.91
Number of Modified Points			1.00	.99	.85	.93	.91
Number of Productive Ph.D. Sociologists				1.00	.84	.88	.86
Prestige of Degree-Granting Department ^b					1.00	.73	.70
Mean Productivity of Degree-Granting Department						1.00	.95
Mean Number of Articles of Degree-Granting Department							1.00

^aAll rhos significant, $p < .001$.

^bBased on Roose and Andersen (1970).

ologists.² The closely linked variables of total journal points and modified points and the closely linked variables of age and professional age show high coefficients. Real age fails to show significant association with most other variables. Coefficients involving professional age, despite their generally low level, are statistically significant.

Table 3 shifts the focus from individuals to departments—the collective perspective. All coefficients in the table are seen to be equal to or greater than .70 ($N = 112$, $p < .001$). The smallest rho of .70 is between prestige (as measured by the Roose-Andersen [1970] evaluation) and the mean number of articles produced by graduates of degree-granting departments. Exceptionally high coefficients, approaching unity, were found between the number of Ph.D. sociologists, total journal points, and the modified points of the departments. It may be of interest to future researchers that the rhos between our total journal points and modified points were so high (.94 in distributive computations; .99—or, by

rounding, 1.00—in collective computations) that it seems of little importance to differentiate between single and joint authorship.

Summary and Discussion

We constructed an original measure based on weighted allocation of points for articles in twelve journals in an effort to study the productivity of Ph.D. sociologists. Despite acknowledged problems in measuring productivity, we are convinced that our procedure has certain strengths lacking in previous research on productivity. One strong point is that our research covered a decade of publications in twelve important sociological journals, a longer time span than that covered in most previous research. Our research is unique in covering all the United States and Canadian universities that had Ph.D. programs in sociology in 1970.

Our selection of twelve journals, but our exclusion of other journals and of books, makes our measures of productivity more inclusive than the measures reported in some previous research but less inclusive than the measures reported in other research. Flaws in our method of weighting journals may come to light; however, the journals to which we assigned the most points likewise were weighted most heavily in some previous research and provided the entire basis for the productivity scores in some other earlier research.

Our research confirms previous findings of generally low productivity of sociologists. More than half the Ph.D.s employed in Ph.D.-granting departments had not published an article in any of the twelve journals during the decade

studied. A hypothetical scholar, were he to publish two articles, one in *Social Forces*, the other in *Social Problems*, would receive an individual productivity score just higher than the mean score of the sociologists who were productive by our measure.

Concerning individual productivity, there are low but significant relations between a number of variables we examined, variables such as professional age, departmental prestige, prestige of graduate department, and journal productivity. On the basis of departmental totals, there were significant intra- and intercorrelations. The "collective perspective" when examined in terms of Ph.D. graduates of departments yielded coefficients that were not only significant but quite high.

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PUBLISH OR PERISH: BOOK PRODUCTIVITY AND ACADEMIC RANK AT TWENTY-SIX ELITE UNIVERSITIES

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One of the continuing debates in higher education concerns the validity of the publish-or-perish doctrine. Despite the fact that the sociology of education has been more concerned with research in higher education than with research in other substantive areas (Snyder, 1968:240, table 4), academicians have been criticized for their lack of empirical interest in investigating the validity of the publish-or-perish doctrine (Lewis, 1967).

While some observers argue that professional advancement depends heavily (if not exclusively) upon the quality and quantity of scholarly publication, others argue that authorship has little or no relation to the speed or extent of an instructor's climb up the academic ladder.

The only point on which both sides agree is the need for convincing evidence of the correlation, or lack of correlation, between scholarly publication and vertical academic mobility. The purpose of the present study is to suggest methods of obtaining the evidence necessary to bring the argument toward empirical closure.

Key questions about the publish or perish doctrine are: (1) In which academic institutions, in which academic ranks, and in which academic disciplines is the doctrine most crucial? (2) How much recognition is given to the doctrine by

faculty, administrators, trustees, and the general public? (3) How do publication norms vary with (a) prestige of the department or institution and (b) selected characteristics of faculty members, such as age, years since receiving the Ph.D., teaching effectiveness, etc.? (4) What differences can be observed in career patterns between persons who publish frequently and persons who do not?

Background

The 1964 study of graduate schools by Cartter (1966) supports the belief that the departments that enjoy the most prestige among scholars are the departments whose members publish most widely and most frequently. In political science, for example, Cartter (1966:101) found that the departments with high scores on quality tended to rank high on an index of faculty publications.

Cartter's rankings of sociology departments were re-evaluated by Knudsen and Vaughan (1969), whose indexes of productivity have in turn been re-evaluated by Glenn and Villemez (1970).

The present paper suggests a method of relating productivity to changes in academic rank, a dimension overlooked by previous studies.

Paul Woodring (1964) summarizes well the argument that publication is essential to upward academic mobility. He cites the celebrated case of Assistant Professor Woodrow

Wilson Sayre, who was dismissed from the faculty of Tufts University in 1964 for failing to fulfill "the promise of scholarly publication." Woodring (1964:45) claims that "each spring, faculty members on hundreds of campuses are dismissed or denied promotion for the same reason and no one ever hears about it." He finds that most institutions of higher education "continue to promote or retain faculty members largely on the basis of publications" and that even a "top-flight teacher is held back if he does not publish."

Caplow and McGee (1965:69-70) have written along similar lines:

It is neither an overgeneralization nor an oversimplification to state that in the faculties of major universities in the United States today, the evaluation of performance is based almost exclusively on publication of scholarly books or articles in professional journals as evidence of research activity.

Throughout the interviews for their study Caplow and McGee found productivity explicitly defined in terms of publication. Respondents often specifically excluded from productivity such routine faculty duties as administrative work, institutional service, and even teaching.

In a study of 802 faculty members at Indiana University between 1885 and 1937 A. B. Hollingshead (1940:385)

I am grateful for the critical comments of Jane Mercer, Terry Scout, Len Beeghly and Marilynne Hampton.

found the chances approximately "four to one that a person appointed to the faculty below the full professorial rank will not be promoted before he leaves the university." Hollingshead concluded that publication, while not very critical in general, was more critical in promotion from associate professor to full professor than from instructor to assistant professor or from assistant to associate professor. The higher the rank, the more likely a person was to have published.

Stallings and Singhal (1970) computed a Research Productivity Index (RPI) for a sample of 249 faculty members at two midwestern universities. The RPI was a weighted count of faculty publications. At one university, RPI correlated .26 ($p < .01$) with academic rank. Only two product moment correlations between RPI and seventeen other variables at the second university were significant; one of them was academic rank ($r = .20$, $df = 118$, $p < .05$). The authors concluded: "As might have been expected from the 'publish or perish' selection process, there was at both institutions a significant relationship between academic rank and RPI" (Stallings and Singhal, 1970:143).

Lewis (1967) articulated the opposing view, which perceives academic retention and promotion as relatively independent of publication activity. Citing articles by Hollingshead, Gouldner and Sprehe, Balyeat, and Babchuk and Bates, Lewis concluded that the publish-or-perish doctrine is nothing more than a "myth perpetrated by the notoriety given a few cases" and that "if the publish-or-perish policy is in operation . . . it will have to be concluded that about one-half of academe is about to perish or has already done so" (Lewis, 1967:88).

Lazarsfeld and Thielens (1958) found that 56 percent of the 2,451 social scientists in their study had published three or more papers and that 35 percent of their sample had published a book. Lewis (1967:87) cited these figures to show that the "publication record of most academicians is pretty skimpy." He maintained that the rule of "publish-or-perish is very seldom applied; in spite of a lack of substantial evidence, a myth has been perpetuated and has become a received doctrine."

Lewis conceded that if the publish-or-perish policy operates at all, it does so "only under special conditions." He added that until academicians take an interest in investigating the validity of the publish-or-perish dictum and supply evidence to the contrary, the data he cited must suffice (Lewis, 1967:87-88).

One function of the present paper is to demonstrate an approach to investigating the validity of the publish-or-perish dictum. A sample of "elite" institutions was selected for this study because if the dictum is carried out anywhere it will be carried out most likely by elite universities. Elite institutions should render norms for maximum expected productivity among professional sociologists in an academic setting.

Another purpose of this study is to find out how productivity varies at elite institutions when productivity is a function of academic rank. If status is defined largely in terms of publication, it would seem prudent for young sociologists who aspire to maximum heights in the profession to make publication their immediate aim.

Young sociologists with Ph.D.s from non-elite institutions are handicapped in achieving upward professional mobility, according to Gross (1970:27): "For non-top twenty Ph.D. recipients, the chances of obtaining a teaching position in the top five seem very slim indeed."

Schichor (1970:157), in substantiating Gross's conclusions, notes one exception: the general pattern of downward mobility does not apply to "new graduates who have already published extensively enough to establish a reputation in the field."

Cassel (1969:191) sees no reason graduate students should not be encouraged to write articles, even books, if they are so inclined. He goes so far as to suggest that faculty members be promoted according to the "level, degree, and quality of productivity of their students."

Publication may thus be one way for graduates of non-elite departments to attain elite status in the profession. The productivity norms disclosed in the present study will partly answer the question "How much publication?"

For the sake of clarity I have constructed six hypotheses that my data should deny or confirm. Hypotheses about age and rate of professional advancement are intended to define, in a general way, the career patterns of sociologists in the departments studied.

Hypothesis 1. There is no relation between a person's academic rank and the number of books that person has in print.

Hypothesis 2. Older professors have more books in print than younger professors.

Hypothesis 3. Full professors who received their Ph.D.s at an early age have more books in print than do full professors who received their Ph.D.s later in life.

Hypothesis 4. The more productive departments have younger full professors on their staffs.

Hypothesis 5. The average sociologist at an elite university achieves the rank of full professor within fifteen years after acquiring the Ph.D. degree.

Hypothesis 6. Highly productive sociologists climb the academic ladder faster than less productive sociologists.

Method

Selection of the twenty-six elite sociology departments was based on the productivity rankings of Glenn and Vil-

lemec (1970:249-250, table 3, col. 5) who had updated Knudsen and Vaughan's (1969) earlier listing of forty-five high-scoring institutions. The *Guide to Graduate Departments of Sociology, 1971-72* (American Sociological Association) estimates that 184 sociology departments offer graduate degrees in the United States. The sample of 26 elite departments is roughly 14 percent of the 184 departments.

The list of faculty members was compiled from the 1971-72 ASA guide. Only names of full-time departmental faculty members were put on the list and they totaled 530. *American Men of Science* (eleventh edition) and the *ASA Directory of Members, 1970* yielded the year of birth of the sociologists and the year the Ph.D. degree was attained. For full professors, the year full professorship began was also noted. Thirty-two (16 percent) of the 227 full professors in the sample had to be dropped because of ambiguous, missing, or incomplete biographical data. Biographical data were missing also for fifteen (16 percent) of the associate professors and for sixty-five (35 percent) of the assistant professors. Approximately 23 percent of the assistant professors were listed in the ASA directory as students or Ph.D. candidates. Full biographical data were acquired for 418 of the 530 sociologists.

The 195 full professors with complete biographies had a mean age of 50 ($s = 8.7$ years), received their Ph.D. at a mean age of 30 ($s = 4.0$ years), attained full professorship ten years after receiving the Ph.D. degree ($s = 4.3$ years), and had 1.8 books in print ($s = 1.6$ books) (table 1). The associate professors for whom data were available had a mean age of 39.0 and the assistant professors, a mean age of 33.2. Like the full professors, men in the lower ranks received their Ph.D. at about age 30.

TABLE 1. VARIABLES CONCERNING BOOK PRODUCTIVITY OF 195 FULL PROFESSORS OF SOCIOLOGY

Variable	Mean	Year of Birth	Pearson's r			
			Year Ph.D. Acquired	Year Full Professorship Attained	Age When Ph.D. Acquired	Years Between Ph.D. and Full Professorship
Year of Birth	1922					
Year Ph.D. Acquired	1952	.89				
Year Full Professorship Attained	1962	.82	.87			
Age When Ph.D. Acquired ^a	30.3	-.23	.24	.12		
Years Between Ph.D. and Full Professorship ^b	10.3	-.50	-.63	-.18	-.29	
Number of Books in Print	1.8	-.14	-.15	-.26	-.03	-.12

^a Computed by subtracting year of birth from year Ph.D. acquired.

^b Computed by subtracting year Ph.D. acquired from year full professorship attained.

Names of the 530 persons from the twenty-six departments in the sample were looked up in the 1970 author index of *Books in Print* in order to establish book publication scores. Each faculty member was assigned one point for each book singly authored or edited. One-half point was assigned for each book coauthored or coedited. No faculty member was allowed to earn more than six points, even if he had written more than six books. Without this upper limit the mean productivity scores for some departments would have been inflated excessively by one or two "stars" who had edited a lengthy series of books. Only 7 cases out of 530 were affected by the maximum score restriction.

It is important to note that this study defines productivity solely in terms of book publication. Equally legitimate forms of productivity were not studied. My basic purpose was to compare productivity across academic ranks, not to question the legitimacy or improve upon the effectiveness of previous measures of productivity (see Glenn and Villemec, 1970). Presumably there is as much difference between high and low producers of articles as between high and low producers of books.

It is also important to note that the publication score does not indicate all the books that a given individual has written—only books written and still in print according to the publishers' 1970 trade list. Limiting the selection to these books permitted making meaningful comparisons of productivity between young sociologists and older sociologists.

Findings

Hypothesis 1. The findings on book productivity are summarized in table 2. The total number of books the 227 full professors had in print is 381.5 (sum of col. 8); 91 associate professors had 40.0 books in print (col. 9), and 185 assistant professors had 22.5 books in print (col. 10).

The mean productivity of full professors is 1.68, fourteen times that of assistant professors (0.12). The mean productivity of associate professors is 0.44.

(Mean productivity is computed by dividing the total number of books in print for a given rank by the total number of professors who are of that rank. For example, to obtain the mean productivity coefficient for full professors, divide the total of 381.5 books in print by the total of 227 full professors.)

Full professors, who made up 43 percent of the sample, produced 85 percent of the books; and assistant professors,

who made up 35 percent of the sample, produced 5 percent of the books.

Only 24 percent of the full professors had no books in print, while 65 percent of the associate professors and 89 percent of the assistant professors had no books in print. Nearly half of the full professors had two or more books in print.

At least as far as the 26 elite institutions are concerned, there is little doubt that writing and academic rank are positively correlated to a high degree (far below the .001 level of significance), thus supporting hypothesis 1.

In table 2, column 1 shows the rank Glenn and Villemec (1970:249-250, table 3, col. 5) gave each department for book productivity during the period 1965-1968. The Glenn and Villemec rankings that appear in column 1 have been converted from the authors' original 45-point scale to a 26-point scale because I studied only the top 26 of the 45 institutions that were studied by Glenn and Villemec. The rankings that were obtained by Glenn and Villemec (col. 1) correlated .60 with the rankings that were obtained in the present study (col. 5). A Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient of .60 is surprisingly high when one considers that the samples and methods were quite different in the two studies. Were Princeton, Brandeis, and Texas to be eliminated, my rankings would have correlated .77 with the rankings of Glenn and Villemec.

Column 2 of table 2 shows the per-person productivity rankings Glenn and Villemec gave the departments in their study (1970:251, table 4). Again, the discrepancies in rank owe to my having converted the rankings to a 26-interval scale. There is a Spearman correlation of only .11 between columns 2 and 7 of table 2. Glenn and Villemec warned that their per-person rankings were "subject to considerable

error." The same is true of mine.

Column 4 of table 2 presents the sum of the book productivity in columns 8, 9, and 10 plus the book productivity of other full-time departmental faculty members (instructors, lecturers, etc.) listed in the 1971-72 ASA *Guide*. The figures in column 6 are the figures in column 4 divided by the number of full-time faculty members in each department. Since each figure is an arithmetic mean, it is subject to distortion by small numbers of atypical cases. Columns 6 and 7 must therefore be interpreted with caution.

Columns 4 and 5 of table 2 tend to be distorted by the size of the department: one would expect high total productivity from a large department like Wisconsin, with forty-nine members. Moreover, the indexes tend to be higher for departments with a high proportion of full professors, who are more productive than faculty in lower ranks.

Hypothesis 2. The correlation between year of birth and number of books in print (table 1) is $-.14$ for the sample of 195 full professors. Those born before 1914 ($N = 39$) had a mean of 1.95 books in print; those born after 1929 ($N = 38$) had a mean of 1.41 books in print, a difference significant at the .14 level. Hypothesis 2 is thus supported.

Hypothesis 3. As seen on table 1, the correlation between age when Ph.D. was acquired and number of books in print is $-.03$. Full professors who received their Ph.D.s before age 28 ($N = 45$) had a mean of 1.87 books in print; those who received Ph.D.s after age 32 ($N = 46$) had a mean of 1.58 books in print. Differences between the two groups are significant only at the .38 level. The evidence supports hypothesis 3 but not at a statistically significant level.

Hypothesis 4. The mean age of full professors in the four most productive departments—California (Berkeley), Chicago, Pennsylvania, and Columbia (table 2, col. 5)—is 52.6 years; in the four least productive departments—Washington (St. Louis), Stanford, New School, and Washington State—is 51.5. Using per-person rankings from column 7 of table 2 to determine mean ages, full professors in the most productive departments of Harvard, California (Berkeley), Pennsylvania, and Columbia are 53.2 years old; full professors in the least productive departments of California (Los Angeles), Washington (St. Louis), Stanford, and Washington State are 52.5. The difference in age between professors at the most productive departments and professors at the least productive departments is too small to be significant. There is no support for hypothesis 4 in these figures.

TABLE 2. BOOK PRODUCTIVITY OF 530 SOCIOLOGISTS AT 26 ELITE UNIVERSITIES

Department	Per-Person Productivity	Name of Institution	Book Productivity Index and Rank ^a						
			Department		Per-Person		Full Professor Index	Associate Professor Index	Assistant Professor Index
			Index	Rank	Index	Rank			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
6	17	California (Berkeley)	45.5	1	1.90	2	37.0	2.0	5.0
4	3	Chicago	32.5	2.5	1.30	6	27.0	1.0	2.0
11	26	Pennsylvania	32.5	2.5	1.63	3	29.5	3.0	0
1	5	Columbia	32.0	4	1.60	4	31.5	0.5	0
5	9	Wisconsin	28.5	5	0.58	18	24.5	3.5	0.5
2	1	Harvard	24.5	6	2.23	1	22.5	2.0	0
12	10.5	New York University	21.5	7	1.43	5	14.5	4.0	3.0
3	4	Michigan	21.0	8	0.68	15	18.0	3.0	0
26	18	Texas	19.5	9	0.85	9	18.5	1.0	0
13	12.5	Washington (Seattle)	19.0	10	0.70	14	17.0	2.0	0
16	21	Minnesota	18.5	11	0.58	18	15.5	3.0	0
10	19	Illinois	16.5	12	0.57	20	14.0	2.5	0
22	20	Johns Hopkins	14.5	13.5	1.12	7	11.0	3.5	0
14	25	Cornell	14.5	13.5	0.97	8	13.5	0	1.0
20.5	24	California (Santa Barbara)	13.5	15.5	0.54	21	11.5	2.0	0
9	22	Yale	13.5	15.5	0.84	10	12.0	1.0	0.5
17.5	16	California (Los Angeles)	12.5	17	0.40	23	5.0	1.0	5.5
8	6	Princeton	11.5	18	0.82	11	9.0	2.0	0.5
24	15	North Carolina	11.0	19	0.58	18	11.0	0	0
25	7.5	Northwestern	10.0	20	0.77	12	9.0	0	1.0
19	12.5	California (Davis)	9.0	21.5	0.75	13	6.0	2.0	1.0
7	7.5	Brandeis	9.0	21.5	0.64	16	7.0	0	2.0
17.5	23	Washington (St. Louis)	7.5	23	0.39	24.5	6.0	1.0	0.5
20.5	10.5	Stanford	5.5	24	0.39	24.5	5.5	0	0
15	2	New School for Social Research	3.5	25	0.50	22	3.5	0	0
23	14	Washington State	2.0	26	0.17	26	2.0	0	0
Total			449.0				381.5	40.0	22.5

^aSee text for explanation of column headings and numerical modifications.

Hypothesis 5. The average sociologist at an elite institution achieves the rank of full professor within ten years after acquiring a Ph.D. degree (table 1). Previous studies of less prestigious departments have reported higher figures. Hollingshead (1940:387) found the mean years in his sample to be fifteen. Oromaner (1970:241-242), who studied 508 sociologists in forty-nine departments with diverse prestige ratings, found that less than 10 percent of his sample had achieved the rank of full professor within ten years after acquisition of the Ph.D. degree. Today nearly 50 percent of the full professors in elite sociology departments can lay claim to this achievement. Hypothesis 5 is thus off by five years.

One unexpected discovery was the correlation of -.63 between year Ph.D. was acquired and number of years before attainment of full professorship. Further analysis disclosed a trend toward more rapid climbing of the academic ladder than was possible in the past. Sociologists who earned their Ph.D.s before 1946 (N=38) became full professors fourteen years later on the average (substantiating Hollingshead's finding). For those who earned Ph.D.s after 1959 (N=41), however, the waiting time was cut in half; they became full professors within seven years of receiving the degree (p<.001).

Hypothesis 6. On table 1 the correlation between number of books in print and number of years before attainment of full professorship is -.12. Professors with more than 2.5 books in print achieved full professor status 9.5 years after finishing the Ph.D., while professors with no books in print achieved full professor status 10.9 years following receipt of the degree. While 1.4 years is a small portion of a person's career, the difference is significant at the .13 level. When the variables were reversed, fast climbers—persons who achieved full professorship less than 7 years after receiving a Ph.D. (N=31)—had a mean of 2.4 books in print; slow climbers—persons who did not become full professors until more than 13 years after acquiring a Ph.D. (N=41)—had only 1.5 books in print. This difference is significant at the .05 level, which gives strong support to hypothesis 6.

Table 3 was constructed in an effort to minimize the variable of age without reducing the sample size of any academic

rank to an unacceptable level. (Matched sampling was not feasible because of the close relation between rank and age.)

Extrapolating data from tables 2 and 3, we find that the ratio of mean productivity between full professors and assistant professors is greater for the 218 sociologists who received the Ph.D. after 1959 (table 3) than for the entire population of 530 sociologists (table 2). The ratio for mean number of books in print between full professors and assistant professors listed in table 3 is 1.44 to .09, or 16:1. The ratio between full professors and assistant professors listed in table 2 is 1.68 to .12, or 14:1.

My research shows that even in a sample of recent Ph.D.s it is difficult to separate the effects of age on academic rank from the effects of productivity on academic rank. The question still unanswered is to what extent academic retention and promotion are a function of productivity and to what extent they are a function of seniority or a reward for teaching or other dedicated service to the department or to the discipline.

Professors with the greatest mean number of books in print (2.4 books) tend to fall into two groups (not mutually exclusive): (1) fast academic climbers—persons who attain full professorship within seven years after acquiring a Ph.D.—and (2) long-time full professors—persons who have been full professors more than fifteen years.

One of the most difficult qualities for department chairmen to assess in evaluating applicants for instructional positions is publication potential (Caplow and McGee, 1965). The data from my study suggest that a sociologist's publication potential is established in the first six to eight years after attainment of the Ph.D. The volume of publications produced by a person during this period shows the level of productivity likely to persist throughout that person's professional career.

Conclusions

This study has suggested an empirical approach to resolving differences of opinion concerning the relation between scholarly publication and academic mobility, and it has described some personal and professional characteristics of high and low academic producers. Productivity, as measured by the number of books in print, was found to be significantly higher for full professors than for associate professors and significantly higher for associate professors than for assistant professors. Fast academic climbers were seen to be more productive than slow academic climbers, and recent Ph.D.s were seen to become full professors faster than persons who received Ph.D.s longer ago. Productivity and academic rank are highly correlated, and both are positively correlated with age.

I conclude that the publish or perish hypothesis is supported by inference though not entirely by fact. Let me

elaborate. With the data at hand there is no way to determine how many "elite" assistant professors of yesteryear are no longer employed at elite universities. Our data cannot prove that assistant professors who departed did so by default any more than our data can prove that the professors who remained did so because they had fulfilled "the promise of scholarly publication." Nor do we know what percentage of elite full professors in our sample began as elite assistant professors (intramural upward mobility) or what percentage of full professors were recruited into the elite circle from non-elite institutions (extramural upward mobility).

We also do not know whether any elite assistant professor will actually produce the mean predicted 1.4 books so as to advance to the rank of elite full professor within the mean predicted time of six years. Is the increase in publication that accompanies the increase in rank typical of most assistant professors at elite institutions or is this characteristic of only a few, while others—who do not meet the desired publication norms—quietly drop out of the elite institutions?

If we accept the intramural upward mobility hypothesis, then we should expect, *ceteris paribus*, most of today's assistant professors (age 33) to produce a mean 1.35 books between now and the time they become full professors (age 40).

A definitive test of the publish-or-perish hypothesis would be to follow the careers of the 185 assistant professors in this study throughout the next eight years, noting for each the changes in academic rank, employing institution, and book productivity. A reverse approach would be to obtain lists of the persons who were assistant professors at the leading twenty-six universities of eight years ago and trace their career patterns in a similar manner. It would also be enlightening to compare the findings for a sample of elite institutions with the findings for a sample of non-elite institutions.

Hopefully future research will more fully answer our questions on publish or perish.

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TABLE 3. PRODUCTIVITY OF ELITE SOCIOLOGISTS WHO RECEIVED A PH.D. AFTER 1959

Academic Rank	Mean Year		Mean Number of Books In Print
	Ph.D. Acquired	Mean Age	
Full Professor (N=41)	1962	41.1	1.44
Associate Professor (N=67)	1964	37.8	.49
Assistant Professor (N=110)	1968	33.2	.09

UNIVERSITY AND DEPARTMENTAL DETERMINANTS OF THE PRESTIGE OF SOCIOLOGY DEPARTMENTS

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One topic of professional interest to sociologists that has been studied extensively is the ranking of departments of sociology in the United States. Hughes (1925), Keniston (1959), Cartter (1966), Gourman (1967), Wanderer (1966), Lewis (1968), Knudsen and Vaughan (1969), Glenn and Villemez (1970), and Roose and Andersen (1970) have rated departments of sociology in terms of quality. Oromaner (1970) has extended the analyses by attempting to explain subjective quality ratings in terms of objective departmental characteristics. Indicators or explanations that have been used to determine departmental quality are subjective quality ratings, research productivity, Ph.D. output, publications of graduates, publications per faculty member, faculty size, average age of faculty, and academic origins of faculty. The first goal of this paper is to attempt to ascertain the effects of departmental research productivity, doctoral output, and size of faculty on the quality ratings of a cross-section of sociology departments in the United States. However, in sociological inquiry particular events are best interpreted when considered as parts of a more encompassing whole. The use of only departmental characteristics to account for quality ratings treats departments in a contextual vacuum. The just-mentioned objective characteristics of sociology departments do not include contextual characteristics, which might be any dimension of the university, community, region, or society in which a department is located that has a bearing on a departmental rating. This paper will therefore also consider the effects of university characteristics on the quality ratings of sociology departments.

Departmental Characteristics and Prestige

Objective characteristics and reputational characteristics are used in stratification research. Research based on objective characteristics—such as studies utilizing data on education and income as dimensions of socioeconomic status—takes ascriptive data and performance data, either separately or combined into an index, as the measures of stratification. A more useful conception of prestige is that prestige is the value a socially meaningful object has for an actor (Davis, 1949:93); prestige is thus reputational or subjective by definition. Using this conception, objective data are significant primarily in accounting for subjective ratings, a source of explanation that is lost when objective characteristics are defined as prestige.

The Roose and Andersen (1970) ratings of sociology departments constitute the measure of departmental prestige used in this paper. The reasons for using the Roose and Andersen ratings are that they are reputational and the data on which they are based were systematically collected under the auspices of a widely respected educational research foundation. Roose and Andersen used a research design that essentially replicated the Cartter (1966) design. For both studies, the adequacy of graduate faculty in a cross-section of universities and departments in the United States was assessed by judges from each discipline. The Cartter report included twenty-nine disciplines; the Roose and Andersen report, thirty-six.

The graduate faculty of a department in a university was rated by Cartter as distinguished, strong, good, adequate plus, or unrated. Roose and Andersen (1970) collapsed the first two categories (distinguished and strong) and kept the remaining categories essentially the same. The collapsing of the distinguished and strong categories meant less precision in differentiating departments, but there was sufficient information in the Roose and Andersen report to maintain Cartter's original distinction between distinguished and strong departments. Both Cartter and Roose-Andersen ranked the departments. Cartter designated five departments of sociology as distinguished. I have consequently considered the top five departments in the Roose-Andersen study as also distinguished. Although the membership could vary, the distinguished and strong categories were maintained. The ratings were weighted from five to one—distinguished departments being rated five—for purposes of statistical analysis.

The most complete published study of the research productivity of sociology departments in the United States is that of Glenn and Villemez (1970). Glenn and Villemez rated forty-five departments, from which I selected thirty-six for my study. For my purposes these thirty-six also had to be in the Roose and Andersen survey. Because one of the independent variables to be considered was departmental teaching productivity as represented by output of Ph.D.s, I excluded four departments listed by Glenn and Villemez because they had no doctoral programs or the programs had just been established. Another department was excluded

because it had not been included in the Roose and Andersen survey. A department in a religious university was excluded because my study was restricted to secular institutions, and three departments were excluded because of other data limitations. No claim is made that this is a probability sample. The thirty-six departments may be described as a generic class; they are the leading sociology departments that have established Ph.D. programs in secular universities in the United States.

Table 1 reports the Pearsonian zero-order correlations among seven reputational and objective departmental indexes developed by Cartter (1966), Gourman (1967), Knudsen and Vaughan (1969), Glenn and Villemez (1970) and Roose and Andersen (1970) for various periods in the 1960s. One question pertinent to the rating of a department is whether it is the faculty that is evaluated or the effective-

ness of the departmental program that is evaluated. As seen in the table, Cartter's report showed little distinction between quality of graduate faculty and effectiveness of graduate program; the correlation is .90.

Another question in rating departments is which journals are to be selected as indicators of productivity. The Knudsen and Vaughan index is based on articles and books reviewed in the three elite sociology journals: *American Sociological Review*, *American Journal of Sociology* and *Social Forces*. Glenn and Villemez added to the three elite journals nineteen specialized and regional journals, which, one would expect, might result in a more valid assessment of research productivity. However, for the 1965-68 period, Knudsen and Vaughan's faculty publications index¹ and Glenn and Villemez's Comprehensive Publications Index have an extraordinarily high correlation (.98). Knudsen and Vaughan's more easily constructed index apparently leads to the same inferences regarding rankings as does Glenn and Villemez's more laboriously constructed index.

Oromaner (1970) has published findings indicating that the Cartter ratings of sociology departments reflected variations in the size of the faculty and in the age and academic

quality. The number of doctorates conferred is only slightly less effective than research productivity in accounting for departmental quality ratings: the number of doctorates conferred from 1964 to 1968 correlates .64 with the Roose-Andersen ratings. Faculty size is weakly associated with the quality ratings, correlating .24 with the quality ratings. It is not the size of a department that contributes to ratings, it is what the members do that counts. The departmental characteristics considered above account for 57 percent of the unexplained variation in departmental ratings. A more complete departmental analysis might include such characteristics as age of the department, number of sociology graduate students, number of faculty "stars," activities of the faculty in professional associations and in journalistic capacities, and academic origins and other personal characteristics of faculty members.

When asked to assess the standing of an academic department in a particular university, what is the referent that serves as the means to make a judgment? Does the referent

TABLE 1. CORRELATIONS OF RATINGS OF SOCIOLOGY DEPARTMENTS

Departmental Rating Index	Period Covered by Study	Departmental Rating Index						
		Quality of Graduate Faculty (Cartter)	Effectiveness of Graduate Program (Cartter)	Departmental Rating (Gourman)	Faculty Publications (Knudsen-Vaughan)	Faculty Publications (Knudsen-Vaughan)	Comprehensive Publications Index (Glenn-Villemez)	Quality of Graduate Faculty (Roose-Andersen)
Quality of Graduate Faculty (Cartter)	1964	1.00	.90	.75	.72	.70	.72	.91
Effectiveness of Graduate Program (Cartter)	1964	.90	1.00	.77	.79	.76	.79	.89
Departmental Rating (Gourman)	1967	.75	.77	1.00	.61	.60	.57	.77
Faculty Publications (Knudsen and Vaughan)	1960-64 ^a	.72	.79	.61	1.00	.76	.77	.67
Faculty Publications (Knudsen and Vaughan)	1965-68 ^b	.70	.76	.60	.76	1.00	.98	.68
Comprehensive Publications Index (Glenn and Villemez)	1965-68	.72	.79	.57	.77	.98	1.00	.70
Quality of Graduate Faculty (Roose and Andersen)	1969	.91	.88	.77	.67	.68	.70	1.00

^aData corrected on basis of note in *The American Sociologist*, August 1969:252.

^bData collected by and reported in Glenn and Villemez (1970:248).

TABLE 2. CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN DEPARTMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS AND DEPARTMENTAL RATINGS

Departmental Characteristic	r	r ²	R ²
Research productivity (1965-68)	.70	.49	—
Doctorates conferred (1964-68)	.64	.41	—
Full-time and joint faculty (1969)	.24	.06	—
All of above	—	—	.57

origins of faculty members. I have considered, in addition to faculty size, the effects of departmental research productivity and doctoral output on quality ratings. The findings are shown in table 2.

The Glenn and Villemez Comprehensive Publications

TABLE 3. CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN UNIVERSITY CHARACTERISTICS AND DEPARTMENTAL RATINGS

University Characteristic	r	r ²	R ²
Research productivity	.57	.32	—
Doctorates conferred (June 1967)	.58	.34	—
Full-time faculty (1966-67)	.31	.10	—
Prestige	.86	.74	—
All of above	—	—	.79

derive from an image of a department or from an image of the university of which the department is a part? The correlation coefficients shown in table 3 indicate for the thirty-six departments in the study the effects of research productivity, doctorates conferred, full-time faculty, and overall prestige of the university as a whole on the sociology department ratings.

The first three variables are conceptually equivalent to

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¹The data were developed by Glenn and Villemez (1970) using Knudsen and Vaughan's (1969) procedures.

the departmental characteristics shown previously, but now the referent is the university rather than the department. Because these variables pertain to the university as a whole, they are contextual to a sociology department. Data on the number of doctorates conferred in June 1967 and on the number of full-time faculty for the academic year 1966-67 were obtained from Singletary (1968).

The index of university research productivity was based on the twenty-nine disciplines included in the Cartter (1966) report. The most prestigious journal edited in the United States was selected for each discipline (several journals were selected if there was no single representative journal) and the number of articles attributed to each university through the institutional affiliation of the author(s) was ascertained for the 1968 volume of each journal. The scores for the twenty-nine disciplines were aggregated into five areas: humanities, social sciences, biological sciences, physical sciences, and engineering. Because the output from these five areas varies, a weighting procedure was applied to give each area equal weight. An aggregate index was obtained by summing the weighted output of the five areas for each university.² The resulting index is incomplete for at least two reasons, however. One reason is that it did not include all the departments of most universities. Its usefulness must rest on the assumption that performance in the twenty-nine disciplines is representative of the performance of universities as a whole. One test of the representativeness of the twenty-nine disciplines is to ascertain the share of doctorates they conferred. For the years 1963-66, Singletary (1968:1,694) reported that 61,884 doctorates were conferred by American universities. Of this total, 58.7 percent were conferred by the twenty-nine disciplines included in the Cartter report. Research output in disciplines such as law, education, business, and medicine would be difficult to ascertain not only because of the "knowledge explosion" but because such disciplines are considered to be colleges rather than departments. The second reason the index of research productivity is incomplete is that it did not include all forms of published research. It included only research reported in elite journals and excluded research reported in monographs and less prestigious journals.

To construct indexes of a university's prestige, either of two methods may be used. In one, judges are asked to rate entire universities; in the other, they are asked to rate the particular department or departments about which they have special competence. Because few persons are competent judges of fields other than their own, the latter method was selected for my study. The index of university prestige was based also on data collected by Roose and Andersen (1970) on the twenty-eight disciplines (excluding sociology) that comprised the list of disciplines studied by Cartter (1966). Because the university prestige index will be used to account for sociology ratings, ratings of sociology departments are

²For a more complete discussion of the construction of the index, see Abbott and Barlow (1972:410-412).

excluded in order to prevent contaminating effects. The ratings are weighted from five to one (distinguished, strong, good, adequate plus, unrated) and the sum of the ratings for the twenty-eight disciplines is designated as the prestige score of a university; the scores range from 28 to 140.

A comparison of the correlations between departmental and university characteristics and departmental ratings indicates that faculty size does not account for substantial variation in departmental ratings. The r between full-time and joint departmental faculty and departmental ratings is .24, while it is .31 for full-time university faculty—not a substantial difference. Doctorates conferred on the departmental and university level are also of essentially equal importance in accounting for departmental ratings (the Pearsonian correlation coefficients are .64 and .58 respectively). Departmental research productivity more adequately accounts for departmental ratings than the university-level equivalent—not a surprising finding. However, of all the university and departmental correlates of departmental ratings university prestige is the highest with an r of .86. Seventy-four percent of the unexplained variance in departmental ratings may be accounted for on the basis of this one variable. University prestige thus accounts for departmental ratings more than do departmental research, doctorates, and faculty size combined.

Are ratings of departments based on departmental performance (which is a valid basis for assessment) or are ratings of departments based on the prestige of the university in which the department is located (which is a non-professional basis for departmental assessment)? The multiple-partial coefficients of determination shown below make possible a comparison of the effects university and departmental characteristics have on departmental ratings.

Independent Variables	Coefficient of Determination
Departmental characteristics	.57
University characteristics	.79
Departmental and university characteristics	.86
Departmental characteristics, adjusting for university characteristics	.33
University characteristics, adjusting for departmental characteristics	.67

The multiple-partial coefficient is analogous to the partial correlation coefficient and indicates the net effectiveness of a given set of independent variables in accounting for variation in a dependent variable in relation to variation unexplained by the set of "control" variables. The higher the ratio is, the relatively more useful one set of independent variables is in comparison with another set. (See Blalock [1960:350] for calculating procedures.) Taking departmental and university characteristics as the explanatory and control variables respectively, the multiple-partial coefficients of determination are .33 and .67, indicating that departmental ratings are more effectively accounted for by

university variables than by departmental variables. The rating of a sociology department is thus not a function of what is happening within a department in isolation from the larger university context. Whether this holds true for other departments might be learned from comparative research. Future ratings of sociology departments based on reputational data-collecting procedures should include the criteria used by respondents in making judgments about departmental standings.

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SOCIOLOGISTS ON THE MOVE

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It is often asserted that professionals are among the most mobile persons in a society.¹ Their mobility is explained by the intrinsic characteristics of their occupation and by the extrinsic characteristics of a society that needs a large professional class. The process of socialization into the status of professional supposedly inculcates in the individual a loyalty to his or her profession rather than to an institution or organization. Consequently, if an opportunity for advancement arises, the professional person is sociopsychologically prepared to move. In a society with insufficient numbers of professionals to fill the demand, there are frequent opportunities for advancement.

Mobility among sociologists, however, may not indicate advancement. Because most sociologists are in academia, a change in location sometimes reflects that a person has published too little or has given unsatisfactory performance in such duties as teaching, serving on committees, or serving the community. Mobility of sociologists thus may have nega-

tive as well as positive implications.

This paper examines the mobility of sociologists just when the extrinsic and intrinsic factors leading to great mobility may have passed their peak. Specifically, it asks: (1) What are some of the factors causing horizontal mobility among sociologists? (2) Do sociologists who move horizontally also move vertically? and (3) What are the implications of mobility for sociologists?

Method

The sample was drawn randomly from the names of fellows and active members of the American Sociological Association listed in the ASA's 1967 directory. The number of fellows and active members listed in the directory was 3,423. From these, a sample of 500 (14.6 percent) was obtained. Persons who became active ASA members after 1967 were not considered because some of them might have been students or associate members in 1967. The analysis therefore has an underrepresentation of persons new to the profession.

Horizontal mobility is defined as the move of a sociologist from one institution to another. In order to determine the amount of a sociologist's horizontal mobility, the institutional affiliation of each individual in the sample was noted for 1967. The 1970 ASA directory was then consulted in order to determine where members of the sample were in 1970. If the institutional affiliation of a member had

changed between the two years, the individual was classified as a mover; if not, he was classified as a nonmover. Some persons in the sample did not report institutional affiliation and some failed to renew their ASA membership. The horizontal mobility of 117 such individuals could not be determined; this "nonresponse rate" was roughly 23 percent. A comparison between respondents and nonrespondents as to age, academic rank, and institutional affiliation showed no significant differences.²

For vertical mobility, we noted the institutional affiliation of persons in 1967 and the institution with which they were affiliated in 1970. These institutions were given one of three rankings: the highest (rank 1) was given to institutions with graduate departments rated "acceptable plus" or higher in the report by Cartter (1966); the next lower (rank 2) was given to institutions with graduate departments not rated by Cartter; the lowest (rank 3) was given to institutions without graduate programs in sociology. To determine the extent of overall vertical mobility among movers for a particular institutional level, differences were obtained between the number of within-level movers and without-level movers for the institutional level. These differences were then divided by the total number of movers from that level.

¹Some authors have suggested that professionals have low mobility rates (Reiss, 1955), but several recent studies conclude that professionals and managers, especially if young, are more mobile than persons in lower occupational groups (see, for example, Goldscheider, 1971:320). In fact, as Caplow and McGee (1961:44) have pointed out, young professionals receive higher salaries than older men in an accelerating market because the former, generally speaking, are more mobile.

²Chi-square was the statistical test used to assess significance at the .05 level.

Findings

A verified hypothesis in mobility studies is that people move in search of better opportunities.³ Movers tend to be persons whose opportunities are exhausted at the place they have been employed and who see greater opportunities at a new post. However, an individual's propensity to move is not determined solely by push or pull forces. Individual characteristics, needs, or desires must also be taken into account. One well-documented contention is that mobility is influenced by the stage an individual has reached in his life cycle (Thomas, 1938:11; see also Goldscheider, 1971:320). Another explanation of mobility is a person's seeking higher ranking. Though it is difficult to determine the effects age and rank have on mobility, our findings nevertheless have implications for the isolated effects these two variables have on horizontal mobility.

Table 1 shows that of the 383 sociologists in our sample for whom mobility could be determined, 128 were movers and 255 were nonmovers. Thus, one out of three sociologists experienced horizontal mobility in a three-year period. However, horizontal mobility varied from one age cohort to another. The younger the sociologist, the greater his mobility—41 percent of the sociologists born after 1930 were movers. Thus, mobility appears to be a monotonic function of age, a fact found also in studies of other professional aggregates.

Why are younger sociologists more horizontally mobile? Are they less attached to the institution? Are they aiming for higher ranking? Or are they released by their departments for lack of productivity? The answer may lie in any or all of these factors. We did not examine the "attached" or "productivity" variables for this report, but we did examine the influence of academic rank on mobility.

TABLE 1. BIRTH DATE AND ACADEMIC RANK OF MOVER AND NONMOVER SOCIOLOGISTS

Year of Birth	Number of		Total	Percentage of Movers
	Movers	Nonmovers		
1910 or earlier	10	41	51	19.6
1910-19	36	73	109	33.0
1920-29	47	89	136	34.6
1930 or later	32	46	78	41.1
Unknown	3	6	9	33.3
Total	128	255	383	

Professional Rank in 1967	Number of		Total	Percentage of Movers
	Movers	Nonmovers		
Full Professor	28	88	116	24.1
Assoc. Professor	29	60	89	32.6
Assist. Professor	16	23	39	41.0
Instructor	5	7	12	41.7
Government sociologist or other	7	2	9	77.8
Unknown	43	75	118	36.4
Total	128	255	383	

Ordinarily, associate and full professors are protected by a tenure system and their rank is relatively secure. For assistant professors, instructors, or persons in government or research institutions, a struggle for higher rank seems to be an inevitable process and results in considerable movement of persons. The percentages shown in table 1 support this generalization.

Table 2 focuses on the relative importance of age and academic rank on horizontal mobility. When the variable of rank is controlled, we observe less of a tie between age and horizontal mobility than was observed in table 1. Among full professors horizontal mobility increases from the 1910 or earlier age cohort to the 1910-19 age cohort but decreases thereafter. For associate professors, the younger they are, the less they move, and for assistant professors, age does not appear to be associated with horizontal mobility.⁴

The tie between rank and horizontal mobility, on the other hand, is greater with a control for age. In almost every age group the lower academic ranks show more horizontal mobility than do the upper ranks, and we conclude that academic rank is more significant than age in horizontal mobility among sociologists.

If the contention is true that sociologists tend to move for the sake of improving their academic rank, movers should experience more vertical mobility than nonmovers. Table 3 shows our findings on this contention. Of the persons who

were associate professors in 1967, for example, 65.2 percent of those who moved and 66.0 percent of those who did not move had by 1970 become full professors—nonmovers had an edge over movers in improving their rank. This finding is not altogether unexpected because, as suggested previously, horizontal mobility may reflect a department's or institution's desire to keep an individual. If a person is perceived as an asset, he experiences vertical mobility; if not, he is encouraged to leave, he is not promoted, or he is released.

Vertical mobility entails more for a sociologist than promotion from assistant to associate to full professor. It may occur entirely within one institution or it may occur between institutions, that is, it may include horizontal mobility. For example, does a move from assistant professor at a "strong" department to associate professor at a "weak" department constitute upward or downward mobility? Though we do not resolve the value problem in this question, we offer a description of movers' institutional origins and destinations.

TABLE 2. HORIZONTALLY MOBILE SOCIOLOGISTS, BY YEAR OF BIRTH AND ACADEMIC RANK

Year of Birth	Academic Rank					
	Professor		Associate Professor		Assistant Professor	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1910 or earlier	24	8.3	8	75.0	— ^a	— ^a
1910-19	51	35.3	26	57.7	8	62.5
1920-29	31	22.6	35	25.6	19	52.6
1930 or later	— ^a	— ^a	18	9.2	11	55.2

^aLess than 5, so not considered.

As already stated, institutions were given one of three ranks. While colleges such as Dartmouth, Reed, Oberlin, and Antioch were ranked 3 (institutions without graduate departments), a move to such institutions could hardly be considered downward. Fortunately this problem was insignificant in our analysis.

Looking at table 4, we see that 39.1 percent of the persons at rank 1 institutions in 1967 were still at rank 1 institutions in 1970, 34.8 percent had moved to rank 2 institutions, and 26.1 percent had moved to rank 3 institutions. Intra-level mobility for persons in rank 2 institutions was much higher: 57.1 percent. Only 17.8 percent of the movers in rank 2 institutions experienced downward mobility. This may not be a significant finding, however, because increasing numbers of departments are establishing some kind of graduate program. Moreover, there may not be much difference in status between departments with graduate programs not ranked by Carter and departments without graduate programs.

TABLE 3. CHANGES IN RANK OF SOCIOLOGIST MOVERS AND NONMOVERS (in percent)

1967 Rank	1970 Rank			Total
	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	
<i>Full Professor</i>				
Mover	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0 (N=21)
Nonmover	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0 (N=78)
<i>Associate Professor</i>				
Mover	65.2	34.8	0.0	100.0 (N=23)
Nonmover	66.0	34.0	0.0	100.0 (N=53)
<i>Assistant Professor</i>				
Mover	14.3	50.0	35.7	100.0 (N=14)
Nonmover	10.0	70.0	20.0	100.0 (N=20)

More interesting is the finding that 25.1 percent of the movers advanced to first-rank institutions. For aspiring sociologists, second-rank institutions may be testing grounds in the sense that the individual there proves himself then moves to his "rightful" position in one of the first-rank institutions. This statement is empirical, however, and not supported by our data.

Sociologists in the "better" sociology departments show more downward than intra-level mobility. In unranked graduate departments, there was some mobility to first-rank and second-rank sociology departments but there was much more intra-level mobility. Movers from third-rank institutions overwhelmingly moved to second-rank insti-

TABLE 4. MOVER SOCIOLOGISTS AND THEIR INSTITUTIONAL AFFILIATIONS, 1967, 1970 (in percent)

Rank of Institution with which Affiliated, 1967	Rank of Institution with which Affiliated, 1970			Total Percentage
	1	2	3	
1	39.1	34.8	26.1	100.0 (N=23)
2	25.1	57.1	17.8	100.0 (N=28)
3	7.2	33.3	59.5	100.0 (N=42)

Rank 1 institutions had graduate departments ranked acceptable plus or higher in Carter (1966) report, rank 2 institutions did not have graduate departments ranked by Carter, and rank 3 institutions had no sociology graduate programs.

tutions but, as we have suggested, it is difficult to assert that such mobility is upward.

The net mobility rate computed from data in table 4 shows the "gaining" pattern of the rank 2 institutions as 35.7 percent. Rank 1 institutions lost 17.4 percent of their sociologists, and rank 3 institutions lost 14.3 percent. The overall results of sociologists' horizontal mobility appear to benefit the manpower needs of the lesser-known graduate departments of sociology.

With regard to vertical mobility within institutional ranks, two associate professors and two assistant professors in the sample were horizontally mobile within first-rank institutions and all achieved vertical mobility. At rank 2 institutions, three out of five associate professors and two out of three assistant professors were (upward or downward) vertically mobile. At rank 3 institutions, intra-level horizontal mobility was reported for eight associate professors; five of the eight experienced vertical mobility.

Though firm conclusions cannot be drawn from these data, intra-level horizontal mobility seems to be accompanied by vertical mobility. This is more pronounced for first rank institutions.

Summary

Though young sociologists appear to be quite mobile horizontally, when academic rank is controlled, they are seen to be not so mobile. Full and associate professors are more horizontally mobile than their younger colleagues. At the assistant professor level, sociologists born in 1920-29 move some; those born in 1930 or after move more, and the most mobile are those born in 1910-19. These findings are more meaningful when considered in conjunction with the finding that movers experience less vertical mobility than nonmovers in terms of change in academic rank.

Generally, horizontal movers are destined for institutions ranked low in the Carter report. When rank is controlled, horizontal mobility occurs more often among older sociologists who have not moved vertically from their initial positions. However, horizontal mobility often does not mean vertical mobility with respect to academic rank or alignment. Where horizontal mobility takes place within institutional levels, there may also be vertical mobility, though this is not a definitive finding.

As the supply of sociologists increases, academic rank may become a predictor of horizontal mobility and, commensurately, movement may become less associated with a change in academic rank. The implications of such a trend are (1) an increase in the number of very capable sociologists in second-rank and third-rank sociology departments, (2) more stringent requirements for a change in academic rank and initial appointments, and (3) a general upgrading of sociology departments throughout the United States.

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³Caplow and McGee (1961:42) point out that the search for opportunity in academia will be influenced by the academic rank of the professional.

⁴Caplow and McGee (1961:42) found that associate professors were less mobile than assistant professors or full professors, a fact not confirmed in our study.

OUTCOME MEASURES AND SOCIAL ACTION EXPERIMENTS: AN IMMODEST PROPOSAL FOR REDIRECTING RESEARCH EFFORTS

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Large-scale action research experiments are not new (Caro, 1971:262-275; Freeman and Sherwood, 1970:70-83), but fiscal support for them is increasing, as is interest in how they are conducted and in what results they are getting. Virtually every domestic and international governmental program in the human services area is under pressure to demonstrate efficacy and efficiency. Increasingly, innovative programs stand little chance of support unless they contain provisions for evaluation (Wholey et al., 1970). Large-scale experimental research and evaluation studies are perhaps the only areas in social science for which there are significant increases in federal expenditures; substantial funds for these activities are being provided by state and local governments and by private foundations. We may not be there yet, but we are moving in the direction of becoming an experimenting society (Campbell, 1969).

The upsurge of interest in social action experiments has been accompanied by increased concern with the development of refined and improved procedures and strategies. While much must be learned about implementing field experiments, certainly current and future evaluation efforts will result in important contributions to the knowledge-building enterprise. But unless there is more concern with the selection of the dependent variables of large-scale experimental studies (the criteria, or outcome measures as they are often called), the usefulness of the studies will continue to be limited.

I suggest a radical shift in the use of dependent variables. Neither normative social indicators nor psychological properties, the common outcome variables now employed, provide the most useful criteria for action experiments. Evaluation research must center on universal social systems processes. It must develop criteria that will allow the outcomes of field experiments to be measured in terms of the competence of individuals to negotiate their social environments—criteria that, for want of a better term, will be referred to as *social viability*.

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Current Sources of Outcome Measures

The impetus for large-scale field experiments comes from two sources. One source is the policy makers, social planners, and influential citizens deeply concerned with the lack of progress in the improvement of human well-being and dismayed and frustrated at their inability to find the means to remedy the vast social ills that confront all contemporary communities. The other source is the social and behavioral scientists and colleagues in allied professions who regard large-scale intervention trials either as critical extensions of or vital substitutions for laboratory research. The argument that field experiments are substitutes for laboratory research is usually based on pragmatic considerations or on judgments that certain laboratory investigations are immoral or unethical.

It would be naive, of course, to disregard the possibility that selfish political considerations—the lure of funds to support practice and research programs; the interpersonal relations among policy makers, research investigators, and grant-managers; and sheer momentum—account for the direction of much of the work that is undertaken. Nevertheless, the pressures for finding efficacious intervention approaches and for additional scientific knowledge have stimu-

lated the growth of large-scale intervention programs and developed the current climate of receptivity to them.

Present studies reflect concern for social well-being, on the one hand, and interest in behavioral science knowledge, on the other. Typical field experiments now employ ratings that are operationalized measures of normative sociological phenomena, of individual psychological properties, or of a combination of the two. A cursory review of outcome criteria of existing experimental programs finds the use of such sociological measures as frequency of court appearance, educational achievement, and job satisfaction as well as the use of tests of individual properties such as cognitive functioning, motor skills, and interpersonal attractiveness. Each of these variables has obvious limitations.

Sociologically Normative Measures. Basically, all outcome measures are normative. But in this paper my focus is on the criteria of social change or of social worth. Social change and social worth are variables defined by societal values, on which persons' hierarchical rankings are determined by normative priorities. The sociological measures used as outcome variables in evaluation studies are not derived from a systematic sociological and ideological analysis of a community's values and goals. Rather, they reflect concerns made salient as part of a political process in which elected officials, entrepreneurial academics, business and union leaders, and representatives of the religious sector—although perhaps not in that order—exercise influence. Undesirable social conditions, deviant behavior, and personal dissatisfactions are the general categories of outcome measures employed in studies with a normative sociological orientation.

The charge is often made that these criteria reflect middle-class values of what is right and proper, and certainly there is merit in this indictment. Indeed, in many cases the variables used as outcome measures reflect the researcher's interest in limiting societal change or in producing conformity. Regardless of how the individuals affected feel about the appropriateness of current social norms, system maintenance, not the success of individuals in dealing with their environment, often becomes the underlying frame of reference in developing measures for intervention studies.

Probably more often than not in intervention studies, cultural diversity is explained by special operational definitions. For example, some years back a large number of cities supported by federal funds undertook action experiments to reduce criminal behavior among youths. No two of the cities used exactly the same set of outcome measures. After all, it was held, behavioral and value norms differ between Cleveland, Los Angeles, and Boston (and maybe they do!). The diversity of operational definitions is greater, of course, when countries and localities that differ markedly in ethnic, religious, or other social orientations are involved in parallel action programs. But to adapt measures to accommodate cultural differences, particularly when validity studies are not made, raises serious questions about the generalization potential of findings and the comparability of studies.

Identification of individuals in normative sociological measures depends largely on the workings of the social control and treatment systems that operate where the individuals live. These systems differ in effectiveness and in services available not only in different communities and groups, but also within the same population, where there are often marked variations in persons of different social, ethnic, and economic backgrounds. The result is that researchers cannot collate their findings, which, of course, limits the worth of the findings.

It bears emphasis that it is foolish to argue against the utilization of normative sociological ratings as variables in experimental studies. Pragmatic considerations of providing human services require responses to immediate, often emotionally laden, demands for new and expanded programs in particular areas. Certainly it is better to respond to the demands with programs that include evaluation than to respond with action efforts that do not. But to begin a study with such diffuse concepts as educational success, delinquency, and job satisfaction and to develop measures for the study to reflect the views of middle-income, supposedly socially integrated community members are approaches that should not be overpromoted in the selection of dependent variables.

Psychological properties. Another commonly used source of dependent variables is properties of individuals; such variables purportedly measure the outputs of internal

processes. They, too, are open to criticism. All individual measures are rooted in a relatively non-empirical, or at least unobservable, system. While properties such as manual dexterity are derived from well-established neurological maps, other properties are not so anchored and are strongly influenced by sociological variations. This is the case for many interpersonal characteristics, such as empathy and autonomy, which often are regarded as important criteria. Most individual properties, then, have the same potential cultural bias that the normative sociological measures have. Even phenomena that are not "social" in the usual sense are contaminated because the operational means of measuring them is culturally determined. Keeping in mind the current concern about "white men's tests" of cognitive development, little more need be said on this matter.

"Given the opportunity to rank individuals within their own environments, the issue becomes whether or not a particular intervention program modifies the rankings."

Measures selected as outcome variables usually are chosen because of their presumed links to social competencies of one sort or another—indexes of intellectual development, for example, are chosen because of their association with educational and interpersonal performance. In many cases—certainly on a cross-cultural basis—the links are hypothetical rather than demonstrable. This is the case, for example, when ratings on tests of infant cognitive development are employed as predictors of future social achievement.

As it is foolish to argue against the use of normative sociological ratings as variables in experimental studies, so it is foolish to argue against continued use of individual psychological properties as outcome measures. As there are both political and disciplinary concerns with respect to normative sociological phenomena, so there are humanistic and academic investments in the individual properties of persons. In any etiological scheme, these individual properties undoubtedly are important explanatory factors in the social performance and role behavior of individuals. But the object of most action programs is to promote people's effective engagement with their social environment, not merely to enhance the psychological properties of individuals.

Both sets of measures, then, suffer from related defects that inhibit the accumulation of findings and make it difficult for investigators to offer strong policy judgments or to develop social and behavioral science knowledge. Each action experiment is an idiosyncratic activity possible neither to be replicated nor to be built upon in subsequent research—clearly an undesirable if not a chaotic state of affairs.

The solution to this state of affairs is expensive and time-consuming. It requires the development of parallel, culture-bound measures that provide rankings of individuals in social systems processes that cut across groups, communities, and nations. In the same way that Kluckhohn (1953) argued for cultural anthropology, evaluation researchers should use the common points of reference supplied by the biological, psychological, and social-situational "givens" of human life as the criteria of outcome. Impact, then, comes to be measured in terms of the order of individuals before and after an effort has been made to alter them.

Social Systems Properties as Outcome Measures

The social systems properties approach to outcome measures holds that there is limited likelihood of developing useful outcome ratings across different locales, groups, and cultures. It holds, rather, that criteria measures should consist of the ranking of individuals (or groups of individuals such as families) within defined geo-cultural units. The impact of intervention programs is measured in terms of whether or not there is a redistribution of the rankings of persons or units in the target group compared with essentially little reordering in parallel groups unexposed or treated with alternate means.

Pivotal to this approach is the identification of and consensus on a finite number of social systems properties that are endemic to all groups, locales, and cultures that consti-

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tute the potential arenas for parallel programs or for related intervention programs. The premise that there is a uniform set of underlying dimensions is admittedly controversial. Certainly the intent is not to promote an elitist doctrine holding that all cultures must value the same set of psychological and sociological attributes. As anthropologists have emphasized, each culture has its unique characteristics. Nevertheless, there are competencies acknowledged by all cultures which, although reflected in different public behaviors, result from a common biology and from basic human psychological and social properties.

For example, it is reasonable to suggest that all cultures value alertness as a psychological trait, even though various groups manifest alert behavior in different ways. In the United States alertness is judged in part by the quality of a person's school performance; in a Guatemalan village it is judged by how quickly a young boy learns to cut coffee with his father.

The starting point advocated is that there are a finite number of valued attributes among cultures, at least among cultures that have been exposed to some degree of modernization. These attributes order members of communities; they reflect the ability of persons to participate successfully in the activities of their cultures and to exploit the resources valued by their communities. From setting to setting they may be phenotypically different, but they are genotypically the same.

Rather than to use sociologically normative phenomena or invariant psychological properties as outcome criteria, I suggest the usefulness of seeking out the genotypic characteristics of the criteria. For example, in most, if not all, societies there is some process of economic exchange; it might be a highly complex, computerized system of accounts and credits, a relatively simple bartering process, or some system intermediate in complexity. In the United States, the economic system is manifested by the earning, saving, and exchanging of dollars. Such manifestations would be inappropriate criteria to use in studying the economic position of Bushmen living in the Kalahari Desert. In order to study the economic exchange of Bushmen, it would be necessary to identify a parallel set of criteria relevant to Bushmen. In both cultures, however, individuals cope differently and derive rewards and benefits unequally. Given the opportunity to rank individuals within their own environments, the issue becomes whether or not a particular intervention program modifies the rankings.

The above example makes the applicability of parallel outcome measures seem plausible—but I do not pretend that a comprehensive list of such outcome measures is now available. Certainly there are other examples: for instance, all localities, communities, groups, and cultures have some political process in which individuals are differentially engaged and from which they differentially receive benefits. Similarly, whether sophisticated or unsophisticated by our standards, there are human resources services in many different settings and there are differences in access to the services, whether the service is as uncomplicated as obtaining the attention of a single folk practitioner or as bedeviling as trying to make a way through the specialty clinics of a large urban hospital. Ability to participate, cope, and derive benefits from the human resource services within a geo-cultural boundary, it may be argued, is an important attribute of mastery of the environment. Of course, individual achievement and benefit may result in less than desirable collective gains for a community, and the frame of reference should be individuals, not collectivities.

Two matters should be made clear. First, I am ignoring the old anthropological argument about whether or not there are universals in value or in processes, a matter well reviewed elsewhere (LeVine, 1970). Pragmatically, I contend that, given the impact of modernization and industrialization on communities, virtually all of the different locales, cultures, and groups that are subject, domestically and internationally, to intervention programs of an experimental character are going to be characterized by a finite number of social systems processes. No study will look at all possible social systems properties; rather, selections will

"Regardless of how the individuals affected feel about the appropriateness of current social norms, system maintenance, not the success of individuals in dealing with their environment, often becomes the underlying frame of reference in developing measures for intervention studies."

be made, as they are in deciding upon dependent variables from any frame of reference. If a person's successful engagement with the environment becomes the critical selection characteristic in determining the outcome variables, the investigator should look for the variables that pertain to the situation and are reasonably common, if not universal, between one population and another.

I emphasize the importance of examining social systems variables not across the board but in relation to the particular intervention program being implemented. Regardless of the source of the outcome measures, the temptation is great to regard each intervention program as affecting

all aspects of the lives of participants. The social systems properties approach does not eliminate the need for a theoretical posture regarding the associations between intervention inputs and outcome measures. Indeed, as I shall discuss presently, perhaps it is even more urgent that an etiological perspective, an impact model, be always present.

The second matter I wish to make clear is that the detailed mapping-in of the specific markers that identify the

"The central question for the evaluation researcher—indeed, for all behavioral scientists—is whether or not the same or similar causal pathways or sequences are associated with individuals' rankings along social systems properties regardless of the markers that order these properties from one locale, group, or culture to another."

ordering of individuals along particular social systems properties is very important in the application and development of the approach advocated for selecting outcome measures. In many cases, familiarity with the particular locale, group, or culture makes the mapping-in a feasible task; if ethnographic information is available, the mapping-in may also be relatively simple, but in some cases it will be difficult to identify the markers that distinguish persons in a particular aspect of a social system.

Important in this scheme is the adequate characterization of the particular population under study, that is, the specification of sufficient parameters to unambiguously define who is being studied. Indeed, the mainstay of the approach is the ability to delineate populations. Otherwise, for each new study the researcher would have to develop markers to order the populations, thus removing an important part of the approach, the opportunity to use comparative inferences.

An Illustration

Let me discuss an aspect of the work being undertaken in two action programs on nutrition. I choose nutrition studies because I know them fairly well, not because they are more faulty than the average intervention experiment—indeed, they may be better. One study is being conducted under the auspices of the Institute of Nutrition of Central America and Panama (INCAP) and the other by the Department of Nutrition of the Harvard School of Public Health in collaboration with other universities and with government groups in Colombia. In both studies, based on hypotheses with partial empirical support, an effort is being made to assess the impact of improved nutritional status on young children. In the INCAP study in Guatemala, children in experimental villages receive daily, on a mass feeding basis, a protein supplement. At the end of the experiment, the children in the experimental villages will be compared to children in control villages who have not received the protein supplement. In the Harvard study, Colombian families with clearly malnourished children are provided a supplement of protein and other nutrients for their children, and these children are being compared with their less malnourished siblings and with children in control families whose members do not receive a food supplement. In both these studies, batteries of mental development tests constitute the outcome measures.

I shall not discuss the limitations of the designs. It is not even important, I suppose, that there is only partial overlap in the tests, a matter related to the different conceptual positions of the investigators and the inapplicability of the entire battery of tests to both situations. What I do assume is that in both situations the tests are measuring the same phenomenon, the same mosaic, of cognitive development.

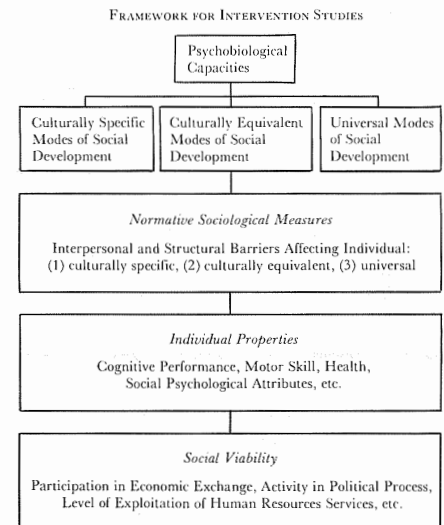
What is important is whether or not cognitive development matters. That is, as the children of both experimental populations mature, is the improved nutrition of the children going to have an impact on their participation in the economic process, the political system, or the use of human resource services? As of now, the most that both studies have come up with is a statement that on only partially standardized and different measures of cognitive development there are changes in experimental groups not found in control groups.

A Framework for Intervention Studies

Apart from disciplinary considerations, a behavioral science investigator has limited alternatives to choose from in designing his research. One alternative is to concern himself with the ways individuals cope within their environment, to study aspects of what I call social viability. The other alternative is for the investigator to become an advocate of the particular set of behaviors he and his peers hold as desirable and prescribed, that is, to confine his research activities to a narrow set of variables that have no meaning *ex cathedra* to his close-knit, trimly trained, reference group.

The central question for the evaluation researcher—indeed, for all behavioral scientists—is whether or not the same or similar causal pathways or sequences are associated with individuals' rankings along social systems properties regardless of the markers that order these properties from one locale, group, or culture to another. My position is that to a large extent the underlying etiological pattern is the same.

Whether or not this hypothesis holds universally is unimportant provided it encourages continuity of effort among large-scale intervention studies. Cases of non-support become the entry points for additional conceptual development and specification of refined generalizations. For example, common elements of mental development may run through all geo-cultural groups; identification of these persistent elements permits investigators to seek out the different social-structural components idiosyncratic to particular populations that are associated with variability between populations. Put another way, in all groups, in all locales, it is possible to rank individuals on dimensions of social viability; individuals who rank high on the dimensions valued in one milieu would rank high also on parallel dimensions valued by participants in other milieux, providing they had the same opportunities to "learn the ropes." A person ranked high in dimensions of social viability in middle-class America would rank high in a black city slum, in a small town in Poland, or in an isolated Central American village if he were given the functionally equivalent opportunities he had in his middle-class American environment. In some ways the discussion has come full circle, for now I am arguing that normative sociological measures—essentially reflectors of interpersonal and structural barriers to the social development of an individual—and individual properties of a sociopsychological and biopsychological character have to be taken into account in any analytical scheme that opts for the notion of a generic cluster of dimensions conceptualized under such a rubric as social viability. For example, an individual labeled a delinquent and institutionalized for a considerable period of time has little potential for optimizing his individual properties and consequently little likelihood of high social viability. Obviously, too, an individual with severe health problems is unlikely to be an active participant in most settings.



The chart above summarizes the framework for intervention studies. The chart and discussion oversimplify matters, however. Normative sociological measures interact with one another as do individual properties, but the location of these two sets of measures on the chart could have been reversed and, indeed, interposed between psychobiological capacities and the boxes characterizing social development. In the chart the two sets of variables commonly regarded as sufficient outcome measures are placed as intermediate variables, nodes in an explanatory process leading to a consideration of what I contend to be the neglected focuses of large-scale intervention programs.

Concluding Remarks

My plea for new directions in social action experimentation is an immodest proposal but one that can be initiated in a modest way without disrupting present activities. In many ways it is, or comes close to being, irreligious. It downgrades current efforts to use ratings of various sorts as the key dependent variables and places them in a subordinate status. It brings into notice the view that there are certain common, genotypic social properties that have importance. It proposes a specific organization for social experimentation that is unlikely to be viewed favorably by all investigators, many of whom prefer to examine their own narrow bands of variables. The development work necessary even to evaluate the scheme in terms of research results is enormous.

It is important to redirect interest in outcome measures to a different set of dimensions, dimensions I refer to as reflections of an individual's social viability. I see normative sociological variables and individual properties as interstitial in an overall framework. This does not mean they are not worthy of study in their own right; it merely suggests that the components of social viability should be examined. Indeed, unless this is done, a researcher has no way of estimating whether or not there is payoff in pursuing a particular individual property or a particular normative sociological measure.

The concept of social viability requires a thorough examination of considerable literature including ethnographic reports. Even the mapping of the markers—the specific measuring devices that are going to allow for the ranking

of individuals—is yet to be realized. Only after these activities are undertaken and particular action intervention studies are tried as a means of providing case illustrations will the scheme make sense. But investigators should not remain content with the two sets of dimensions—normative sociological measures and psychological properties—that are presently employed.

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VARIATIONS IN INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES

HOWARD D. SCHWARTZ AND CARY S. KART
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The American Sociologist 1972, Vol. 7 (November):19-20

One off-shoot of the burgeoning interest in sociology as a major and as a career is concern with teaching undergraduate sociology. Recently the American Sociological Association established a committee to review undergraduate teaching and to suggest improvements. The ASA Council at its 1971 meetings in Denver approved the creation of a section called Undergraduate Education in Sociology. And a new journal, *The Teaching of Sociology*, commenced publication early in 1972.

Particular interest has been focused upon the teaching of introductory sociology. *The American Sociologist* has published a number of articles on the subject (Baker and Behrens, 1971; Farley, 1970; Gates, 1969; Jobu and Pollis, 1971; Reid and Bates, 1971; Stoll, 1970) and two papers have been devoted to it at ASA annual meetings (Mullins, 1971; Richard, 1971). In this paper we present the results of a survey administered to discover how much concern there is with teaching sociology at the introductory level in United States and Canadian sociology departments. Our findings indicate that, contrary to feelings expressed in previous articles (Reid and Bates, 1971:174-175), sociology departments are grappling with the problem of making beginning sociology a more relevant intellectual experience for students with an ever-growing range of interests and expectations. Our survey asked what we consider to be a more fundamental question than has been asked previously concerning the adaptability of introductory sociology to the changing needs of today's students. While most previous studies dealt with how to present material (through mass lectures or small sections) or how to judge student performance (with or without grades), we asked what material should be presented and to whom.

Method

A two-page questionnaire was sent to 126 of the 167 United States and 17 Canadian sociology departments listed in the *ASA Guide to Graduate Departments of Sociology, 1971-72*. We felt that this particular group of colleges and universities, as much as any group, would be facing the demands resulting from an increased interest in sociology. It should thus reflect whether, or in what ways, sociology departments are changing to meet the changing demands. The choice of the 126 departments was made with an eye toward having as widely representative a group of schools as possible—schools private and public, located in diverse regions, and with sociology departments of all sizes.

Each questionnaire was sent to the chairman of the sociology department accompanied by two letters. One letter, addressed to the chairman, explained the purpose of the survey and requested him to give the second letter, reproduced below, to the undergraduate advisor or some other person concerned with the introductory course.

Dear Staff Member:

We are interested in the type of course offerings through which introductory sociology is presented to beginning students. More specifically, we are interested in finding out the extent to which the conventional single basic course format has given way to a multi-course format at the introductory level (by multi-course format we refer to a situation where at least two different contents are offered and not to a situation where several sections of the same course are offered). In line with this, we would appreciate your taking a moment to fill out this short questionnaire.

The key question of the questionnaire was:

Which of the following basic course formats do you have at your school (check one):

- _____ a. one basic course for all students.
- _____ b. two basic courses; one geared to majors and potential majors; the other geared to non-majors.

- _____ c. three basic courses; one geared to majors and potential majors; a second geared to sociology related careers (e.g., social work); a third geared to students who fall into neither of the first two categories (e.g., natural science majors).
- _____ d. other format (specify): _____

Among the other formats specified by respondents were the following:

1. Honors format. Some departments have an honors section along with a conventional one-course format at the introductory level. The honors sections are small; one department, for example, limits its enrollment to not more than 5 percent of its undergraduate students. Some process of selection is involved—in one case it is "based on entrance or other exam scores." The honors sections are often tied to university-wide honors programs. As one respondent indicated, "When the university adopted an honors system, we responded by developing an honors introductory course."

2. Sequential format. The introductory sociology course at some universities consists of a sequential series of courses that may include theory and concepts, research methods, and substantive material from particular areas. One department has "a three-quarter sequence open to all students: first course, basic concepts; second course, sociological research; third course, social problems."

A different sequence is "a first term of principles and for the second and third term the students select two out of six sections, each dealing with some substantive area." One department considered to be among the elite offers a unique sequence: "The first course in sociology is the transformation of society in the 19th and 20th century; the second course deals with the individual and the social structure."

3. Specific area format. In some departments the emphasis at the introductory level is on substantive areas. In a few cases the "Introduction to" course is offered in a specific area format. Where this is true, it is an alternative to courses in substantive areas or follows them. In contrast, in the sequential format the "introductory" material precedes the substantive area material. A prime example is a department in which "five problem-oriented courses are open to freshmen (Marriage and the Family, Contemporary American Society, Problems of American Minority Groups, Social Disorganization, and Introduction to World Population) and one Introduction to Sociology course is open to sophomores or second-semester freshmen with a previous

sociology course." An unusual variation, where introductory courses are based on career goals, is "one basic course for major and general use. Education majors have a special course: 'Education Society, and Culture' [with] Medical Sociology for pre-meds."

An additional aim of our survey was to learn how long a department's format had been in existence. If a change in format had been made recently, we asked, "What factors influenced the decision to change?" and "Has the new format been a successful innovation?" Of departments that had not made recent changes in the introductory format, we asked "Is there any feeling in the department that a change would be beneficial?" and "Do you contemplate any change in the near future?" Information was also requested about enrollment in introductory sociology classes and the proportion of faculty allocated to teach introductory sociology.

The return rate was 76.9 percent (97 out of 126) for the United States sample and 58.8 percent (10 out of 17) for the Canadian sample. We shall deal with the data derived from the United States departments in the main body of the paper and present a brief summary of the findings from the Canadian departments at the end. Included among those returning questionnaires were all of the top 15 and 22 of the top 29 American departments of sociology as determined by Cartter (1966).

Findings

In our survey, 71.1 percent (69) of the United States sociology departments had the conventional one-course format in the 1971-72 academic year while 28.9 percent (28) had some other format. Because sociology is undergoing such rapid growth, we also wanted to find out the degree to which schools were contemplating change in the future. Accordingly, we derived two additional categories from the data: one for schools that indicated a plan to change formats in the immediate future and the second for schools that were thinking about change but, for one reason or another, had made no definite plans for it.

When we consider all departments falling within these three categories of format change (already changed, to be changed soon, and thinking about change), the tendency toward change from the one-course format is impressive. Table 1 shows that slightly more than half (51.5 percent) of the departments fall into one of the change categories.

TABLE 1. DEPARTMENTS COMMITTED TO FORMAT CHANGE FOR INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES

Current Format or Format-to-be	Status of Format									
	No Change Planned		Already Changed		To Be Changed Soon		Change Being Considered		Total Departments	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
One-course	47	100.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	47	47.5
Two-course	0	0	9	32.1	7	63.6	5	38.5	21	21.2
Three-course	0	0	3	10.7	0	0	0	0	3	3.0
Honors	0	0	7	25.0	1	9.1	1	7.7	9	9.1
Sequential	0	0	4	14.3	0	0	1	7.7	5	5.1
Specific Area	0	0	5	17.9	3	27.3	0	0	8	8.1
Eliminate Course	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	15.4	2	2.0
Not specific	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	30.8	4	4.0
Total	47	100.0	28	100.0	11 ^a	100.0	13 ^b	100.1	99 ^c	100.0

^a The 10 actual departments became 11 by counting one department with two formats twice.

^b The 12 actual departments became 13 by counting one department with two formats twice.

^c The 97 actual departments became 99 by counting two departments with two formats twice.

Table 1 also indicates that of the departments that recently changed formats, 32.1 percent presently have a two-course format, 10.7 percent have a three-course format, 25.0 percent have an honors format, 14.3 percent have a sequential format, and 17.9 percent have a specific area format. The two-course format is the most popular change from the traditional beginning course. Twenty-one of the 97 departments (21.6 percent) have recently effected a change or are considering a change to the two-course format.

Two respondents indicated they were thinking about eliminating their basic course, and four respondents did not specify the nature of the change they were contemplating.

fall of 1966. It may be of some significance that all changes to the "specific area" format have taken place since the fall of 1966.

Table 3 shows the relation of format changes to size of enrollment in introductory sociology courses in the fall of 1971. Universities with the largest enrollments are seen to be most likely to change. Thirty-seven universities had undergraduate sociology student enrollments of less than 600, and of these, only 16 (43.2 percent) had implemented changes in their introductory format or were considering implementing them. Of the 58 universities with enrollments of 600 or more, 33 (56.9 percent) had made changes or were

introductory sociology.

As indicated earlier, we did not solicit information about how sociology was taught, but some of our respondents dealt with this issue. In some universities, mass lectures, taught by faculty members, constitute the basic course; the large lectures are commonly supplemented by small discussion groups led by graduate students. In other universities the small section is the vehicle through which introductory sociology is taught; normally a small section is conducted by a faculty member, a graduate student, or both. One respondent remarked that his department had moved to smaller sections of basic sociology, "some taught by graduate students, some by senior majors."

In Canadian universities, the distribution of formats is similar: six of the ten respondents had the conventional one-course format, two had the two-course format, one allowed an option of introductory or specific areas, and one planned a change to the three-course format in the near future.

TABLE 2. TIME PERIOD OF FORMAT CHANGE FOR INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY COURSES

Period When Format Changed	New Format										Total Changes	
	Two-Course		Three-Course		Honors		Sequential		Specific Area			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Fall 1969-Spring 1972	2	22.2	0	0	1	14.3	3	75.0	2	40.0	8	28.6
Fall 1966-Spring 1969	2	22.2	1	33.3	2	28.6	0	0	3	60.0	8	28.6
Before Fall 1966	4	44.4	2	66.6	4	57.2	1	25.0	0	0	11	39.3
Unknown	1	11.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3.6
Total	9	99.9	3	99.9	7	100.1	4	100.0	5	100.0	28	100.1

Because the surge of undergraduate enrollments in sociology is a recent phenomenon, we were interested in finding out when the changes in the introductory course format came about. As seen in table 2, 28.6 percent of the United States sociology departments in our sample changed their formats after the fall of 1969 and 28.6 percent changed their formats between the fall of 1966 and the spring of 1969, meaning that more than half of the schools (57.2 percent) have changed their introductory sociology courses since the

considering doing so. Universities with large enrollments probably experience the most pressure because of the more diverse backgrounds and needs of their students.

Table 4 suggests that the higher the percentage of faculty members teaching introductory sociology, the less likelihood there is for format changes. The difference between departments planning change and not planning change is most pronounced between departments with 20 percent or less and with 21 percent or more of their faculty teaching

TABLE 3. RELATION OF FORMAT CHANGES TO ENROLLMENT IN SOCIOLOGY COURSES, FALL 1971

Number of Students Enrolled	Status of Format						Total Changes Implemented or Being Considered	
	One-Course: No Change Planned		Changed or To Be Changed Soon		Change Being Considered			
	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent
0-199	4	8.5	2	5.3	0	0	2	4.0
200-599	17	36.2	10	26.3	4	33.3	14	28.0
600-999	11	23.4	11	29.0	2	16.7	13	26.0
1,000 or more	14	29.8	14	36.9	6	50.0	20	40.0
Unknown	1	2.1	1	2.7	0	0	1	2.0
Total	47	100.0	38	100.2	12	100.0	50	100.0

TABLE 4. RELATION OF FORMAT CHANGES TO PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY TEACHING INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY, FALL 1971

Percentage of Faculty Teaching Introductory Course	Status of Format						Total Changes Implemented or Being Considered	
	One-Course: No Change Planned		Changed or To Be Changed Soon		Change Being Considered			
	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent	Number of Departments	Percent
10 or less	18	38.3	15	39.5	3	25.0	18	36.0
11-20	17	36.2	8	21.1	5	41.7	13	26.0
21-50	4	8.5	8	21.1	3	25.0	11	22.0
50 or more	2	4.3	5	13.2	1	8.3	6	12.0
Unknown	6	12.8	2	5.3	0	0	2	4.0
Total	47	100.1	38	100.2	12	100.0	50	100.0

Summary

Some critics feel that sociology departments have failed to adapt their course formats to changing student needs. Baker and Behrens (1971:317) feel this way and state that "it is imperative that we . . . respond to the plurality of students' abilities, interests, and expectations." Our survey indicates that this pessimism represents a metaphysical pathos and that, in fact, United States and Canadian departments of sociology are facing the demand for change. Not surprisingly, we found that it is the schools that feel these pressures most acutely—those with the largest enrollments—that have shown the greatest predilection toward change. Perhaps the most telling evidence of departments' commitments to deal with changing student needs is in the departmental responses. One respondent stated that the two-course and three-course formats are "probably useful in reducing student alienation." Another remarked that the one-course format had been "too restrictive for both students and faculty." Another replied, "We want to make the resources of sociology easily available to any student, where his or her interests lie. Let's face it, most people don't want to and don't need to be sociology majors, and most 'Introduction to' courses turn people off." "Besides," he said, "it's more fun this way."

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IC SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

GUSTAVUS

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st 1972, Vol. 7 (November):21

Students also had the option of expressing their ideas.

They were told that verbosity would be originality and good application. Projects were always submitted, graded over the weekend, and discussed in class meeting.

Students reacted with mixed feelings. It was a matter of freedom; but, being graded, it would pay off. After the first project was submitted and evaluated, most fears seemed to try to outdo one another in the function of the assignment, and the aimless absorption of the means.

Presenting at least one visual discrete choreographic presentation, a drawing, a sculpture, collages, and a show-and-tell item, there were no marks for merit. One pre-dental student who waited together were less than those who waited for the role bodily heat or cold.

One student, who had taken as that of applying the personal experience. One student, who had submitted the diary he had written in the mountains and had experienced what he had learned in the events he had looked at current events like the India-Pakistan conflict, rules of political campaigns as illustra-

tions of attitude change techniques, and rioting were all topics of essays.

Grading problems, though present, were not insurmountable. No attempt was made to evaluate art or music as contributions to their disciplines; rather, artistic endeavors were graded on the basis of their portrayal of the concepts. If I could not interpret a project, the entire class took part in explanation and evaluation. Students also had the opportunity to explain and defend their own work, and if I remained uncertain as to whether or not a student had mastered the concept, a short conference was usually sufficient to reveal the student's understanding. Only a few projects were hastily done or reflected little originality.

There was one unanticipated result of the projects: instead of lacking understanding of the concepts or lacking a feeling for their relevance, students became almost overzealous in their use. They developed a tendency to label behavior blithely and then to assume that the behavior was explained.

Such a tendency, of course, is not desirable even for introductory students. The problem can be corrected by several lectures on the abstractness of concepts, on the difference between propositions and concepts, on the multi-causal nature of social behavior, and on the tentativeness of research findings. Examples of research now seen to be in error and examples of concepts now discarded also help to keep students from oversimplistically labeling behavior.

Obviously the teaching of sociological concepts through the assignment of these projects is not suitable for large classes because of insufficient time for students to present their projects and insufficient time for grading the projects. Nevertheless, for a willing instructor with less than forty students, such projects are a useful technique for teaching basic sociological concepts.

and his acceptability is checked out with the appropriate organizations and spokesmen. That an ideological element goes with the status is already clear in the case of race: the agency or other institution wanting a black is likely to want one who is approved by militant or even extreme black groups—not just one who is a member of the race. (In the same issue of THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGIST, Williams College advertises for a faculty member. It is not very definite about its requirements, but it does indicate that it will "consider" an "Afro-American". One suspects that a candidate identifying himself as a "Negro" would run a poor second.) With race, it is clear that not simply a status, but a status-cum-ideology is involved. With sex, the ideological fusion has not yet gone so far, and one could probably still meet NIMH's sex criterion by simply being "female". But the logic—and the pressures—behind the incorporation of sex are the same as those behind the incorporation of race and ethnicity, and in principle there is no reason why, in time, the acceptability of a female candidate should not have to be checked out with NOW, a women's caucus, or whatever organization or clique claims to speak for the sex—as, in more and more settings, racial and ethnic candidates are cleared with, and even named by, whatever vocal or militant groups claim to speak for the race or ethnic minority. Once irrelevant criteria are admitted, where does one draw the line? Or why draw any line at all?

But the simplest, the most basic, reason for refusing to respond to such announcements or solicitations, is that they are demeaning. In the name of equality, they create a mark of inferiority. Women complain, often with jus-

tice, that they are not seen—as men are—as scientists, doctors, lawyers; but as women scientists, women doctors, women lawyers. The present policy, with its open adoption of a sexual category ("female Ph.D. sociologists"), although it favors rather than excludes women, perpetuates and reinforces the attitudes that women have for so long deplored. For women—as for blacks and all others—professional equality involves the right to be recruited and evaluated on the basis of appropriate professional characteristics; not the right to be drawn from, and evaluated in reference to, sexual, racial and ethnic pools.

Sincerely yours,

Florence A. Ruderman,
Assistant Professor,
Brooklyn College

Editors Note:

The reference in the above letter to an advertisement in TAS from Williams College prompts the following note: The Publications Committee of the ASA, confronted with problems about such ads, adopted, in New Orleans, the following two motions which now stand as ASA policy:

- (1) The list of vacancies in the Employment Bulletin should not include as qualification in applying for a position race, ethnic origin, religion, sex, or age characteristics.
- (2) When the Executive Officer receives vacancy listings that appear to be objectionable under the rules just established, the Executive Officer will inform the advertiser that the strongest wording permitted is "Minority Applicants Encouraged."

a new guise. Discrimination and "reverse discrimination" are two sides of the same coin. At best, "reverse discrimination" creates a numerical "balance"; true equality—of merit: knowledge, skill, dedication—is neither reflected nor created in this way. In fact, for both the individual and the group, such selection robs what might otherwise be an achievement of its meaning, since some members of the group must now be chosen simply to demonstrate a required "balance". And it widens the professional gap between the "minority" professional and the "majority" one, since for the latter the

One might also note that the legitimization of any irrelevant criteria opens the door to all. Although sex, race, ethnic background, are ascribed statuses, and one is or is not, a woman, a black, or a Mexican-American, inevitably ideological and political elements are attached, and these, too, become part of the process of recruitment and selection. With such criteria, an NIMH committee becomes like a political ticket, which must have racial, ethnic, and religious "balance". On a political ticket it is understood that the Catholic, the Jew, etc., must be not simply a member of the group, he must also be acceptable to—

News and Notes on Minorities and Women

FELLOWSHIPS FOR PUERTO RICAN GRADUATE STUDENTS

Fellowships (preferably in sociology) are available for 1973-1974 to Puerto Rican graduate students for research on social problems. Fellows are required to write a paper on research dealing with Puerto Ricans in the United States. They must also attend 3 week-end seminars relating to research and career development during the year. Stipends \$3,500 annually and \$400 for each dependent. Financial need considered. For application and further information write: Dr. Maria Mercedes Diaz, Puerto Rican Research and Resources Center, Inc., 1519 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 10036. (202) 667-7940.

POSTDOCTORAL FELLOWSHIPS FOR 1973-1974 TO STUDY ETHNIC MINORITIES

National Endowment for the Humanities announces fellowships for historical social or cultural studies of U.S. ethnic minorities to young scholars and teachers who have just completed graduate work or professional training or expect to complete it before September, 1973. Fellows will study under senior scholars of their own choice. Arrangements will be made for full access to libraries and auditing privileges in courses.

Applicants must be U.S. Citizens or native residents of its territorial possessions.

Maximum stipend \$10,000. Fellows may supplement the award with small grants from other sources or may have sabbaticals or grants from their employing institutions.

Applications may be submitted directly to: Division of Fellowships, National Endowment for the Humanities, 806 15th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20506.

VITAE OF MINORITY SOCIOLOGISTS

The Council of the ASA has approved a recommendation of The Committee on the Status of Racial and Ethnic Minorities in the Profession instructing the executive Specialist to collect vitae of sociologists from minority groups who wish their vitae to be on file for professional and employment reference. Interested members are invited to send material to ASA office.

WOMEN SOCIOLOGISTS SERVE AS PRESIDENTS

Current records of various national and regional sociological organizations indicate that the following women sociologists have been elected to positions of top leadership: Mirra Komarovsky, President, American Sociological Association; Dorothy K. Newman, President, D.C. Sociological Society; and Gertrude J. Selznick, President, Pacific Sociological Association. In addition, the following women have been elected as President-Elect: Alice S. Rossi, Eastern Sociological Society, and Caroline Rose, Midwest Sociological Society.

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SOCIOLOGISTS ADVANCE ON AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE

The 1972 Annual Meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held in the Sheraton-Park Hotel in Washington, D.C. from December 26-31.

Participation by sociologists in the program was initiated when President Mirra Komarovsky appointed Dr. Eleanor Sheldon, President of the Social Science Research Council, to accept responsibility for sessions in Section K of the meeting. Dr. Sheldon has announced the following two sessions: (1) "Historical Sociology of Science," organized by Harriet Zuckerman of Columbia University, and (2) "Methods of Social Indicator Analysis," organized by Kenneth Land of the Russell Sage Foundation. Arnold Thackray of the University of Pennsylvania will present a major paper in the history session and Seymour Spillerman of the University of Wisconsin will present the key paper on indicator analysis.

Several sociologists will also participate in a session on "The Future of Collective Violence: Societal and International Perspectives," organized by Joseph Ben-Dak for the Section on Social and Economic Sciences. Among the participants are Paul Peachy, Chairman of the Department of Sociology at Catholic University, Kurt Finsterbusch, University of Maryland, and William Gamson, University of Michigan.

This Annual Meeting will also mark the point where James Coleman of Johns Hopkins University will succeed Daniel Moynihan as the elected chairman of Section K and Vice-President of AAAS.

Other Organizations

• **THE INSTITUTE FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND THE CENTER ON HUMAN POLICY CALL FOR PAPERS:** Third Annual Symposium on Current Issues in Community Psychology, April 12-14, 1973. Topic: Alternatives to Institutionalization. Papers should relate to alternatives to total institutional structures for people of all ages having special needs, including the emotionally disturbed, retarded, delinquent and criminal. Deadline January 15. For further information write: Dr. Robert Cohen, Institute for Community Development, 110 Harvard Place, Syracuse, New York 13210.

• **THE THIRD ANNUAL ALPHA KAPPA DELTA SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH SYMPOSIUM** will be held March 22-24, 1973 at the Delta Chapter, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia. Papers are solicited on any aspect of social science research. Send to: Rhonda Zingraff, Chairman, Program Committee, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23220.

• **THE SOUTHERN ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY** has announced the annual James Mooney Award of \$1,000 for the book-length manuscript that best describes and interprets the people or culture of a distinctive New World population. The subject may be prehistoric, historic, or contemporary. Submissions can be about people belonging to major social, racial, or ethnic groups, or about people belonging to obscure or heretofore unknown groups. The deadline for submission each year is December 31. The award also includes publication of the manuscript by The University of Tennessee Press. Write: Charles Hudson, Chairman, SAS Awards Committee, Dept. of Anthropology, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga. 30601.

• **INSTITUTE FOR EUROPEAN HEALTH SERVICES RESEARCH** created at Leuven University in Belgium. The purpose of the Institute is to contribute to the improvement of European health and other social welfare services through research and to organization financing and administration, and through the professional growth of those who develop and implement public welfare policy at all levels.

CALENDAR OF FORTHCOMING MEETINGS

- November 19-25 American Society of Criminology, International Meeting, Caracas, Venezuela. Barbara R. Price, Law Enforcement and Corrections Services, 106 Human Development Bldg., Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa. 16802.
- November 20-25 International Institute of Sociology, Twenty-third Congress, Caracas, Venezuela. Institute International de Sociologie, Apartado Postal 51806, Caracas 105, Venezuela.
- November 26-29 National Association of Social Workers, Symposium on Social Justice and Social Work Practice, New Orleans, La. Papers solicited. Symposium, NASW, 2 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016.
- April 5-8 The American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama, Annual Meeting, Hotel Barbizon Plaza, New York, N.Y.
- April 6 Michigan Sociological Association, Spring Meeting, Ann Arbor. Cora Bagley Marrett, Dept. of Sociology, Western Michigan University 49001.
- April 26-28 Population Association of America, Annual Meeting, New Orleans, La. 70125.

ASA Subcommittee on Liaison With East European Sociologist

This committee would like to increase working contact between American and East European sociologists. American colleagues who have an interest in doing sociological research in collaboration with sociologists from Eastern Europe should send a brief description of the topic and country they are most interested in pursuing through a collaborative endeavor to: Arnold S. Tannenbaum, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, P.O. Box 1248, RM. 5136, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106.

SECTION NEWS

• **Sociology of Sex Roles:** In the October issue of *TAS* Pauline Bart was listed as person to whom Sex Roles Section annual meeting papers should be sent. In addition, papers may be sent to the following persons:

Sexism and Racism—Doris Wilkinson, Macalister College, St. Paul, Minnesota 55105

Sex Roles in Everyday Life—Rita Seiden Miller, Bloomfield College, Bloomfield, N.J.

Sexism and Sexuality—Diana Russell, Mills College, Oakland, California 94613. These papers should be limited to ten pages since the session will include informal discussion.

EMPLOYMENT BULLETIN

FORMAT: Please list in the following order.

For vacancy listings:

1. Title or rank of position
2. Description of work to be done and/or courses to be taught
3. Abilities, training, experience and any other qualifications desired in applicant
4. Geographic region
5. Approximate salary range
6. Address to which applicants can write
7. Starting date

For applicant listings:

1. Type of position desired
2. At least two areas of competence
3. Highest degree
4. Awards
5. Experience
6. Publications
7. Location desired
8. Age, family status
9. Date available

DEADLINES FOR SUBMISSIONS:

Deadline for submission of listings is the 15th of the month prior to publication of the newsletter.

INSTITUTIONS CURRENTLY UNDER AAUP CENSURE

As an endorsee of the 1940 Statement of Principles of Academic Freedom and Tenure of the Association of American Colleges and the American Association of University Professors, the American Sociological Association will periodically publish a listing of institutions currently under censure by the A.A.U.P. Individuals are invited to refer to prior issues for such listings and to consult the A.A.U.P. directly.

FEES:

PAYMENT MUST ACCOMPANY LISTINGS
Vacancy listing \$15.00
Applicant listing \$ 5.00

CONDITIONS:

Applicants and employers are responsible for the accuracy and completeness of their listings. The ASA reserves the right to edit or exclude all items. Please type the listing (double spaced) and send it with a check for the appropriate amount to: Employment Bulletin, The American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Anonymity will be preserved except where specific permission is given to reveal names. Persons listing vacancies (replying to applicant listings should not write to applicants' employers without permission.

RESPONSES:

Replies to listings with box numbers should be individually addressed, stamped, and sent to the appropriate box number in care of the American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. These replies will be forwarded, unopened, to the individuals, institutions, or organizations which have placed the listings. Responses must be received in the Executive Office within two months of the date of publication.

VACANCIES

Teaching

University of Maryland. The Department of Sociology, cooperating with the ASA's policy urging open listing, announces that it has five positions to fill for 1973-74, primarily at senior levels. Highly qualified candidates with publications and actively engaged in research are sought for this developing and expanding department. Capitalizing on its location in the Washington, D.C. area, the department is interested in building its program in urban sociology and demography, political sociology, and sociology of education, but appointments are not limited to these areas. Write: Edward Dager, Chairman of the Staff Development Committee, Department of Sociology, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland 20742.

Fort Hays Kansas State College. Assistant professor to teach introductory, methods and statistics, social psychology, majority-minority relations; background in theory and social change also desirable; ABD, near PhD, or PhD; 4 year liberal arts college of 5,000; salary \$10,875; write: Dr. W. Nevell Razak, Chairman, Department of Sociology, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays, Kansas 67601; mid-January, 1973.

Vanderbilt University. Two positions at assistant professor rank; substantive interests in demography, the family, social change or social psychology and micro-social processes; one of the two positions will be filled by a person with teaching and research interests and field experience in Latin America; PhD and/or publications required; minorities and women are encouraged to apply; graduate and undergraduate teaching; compensation: AAUP "1" range; write: Professor Mayer N. Zald, Chairman, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Box 1811, Station B, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee 37235.

University of Tennessee at Chattanooga. Two or three positions at associate or assistant professor levels to teach introductory sections plus specialty; particularly interested in urban sociology, criminology, deviance, family and theory; PhD with experience for senior position, PhD for others; salary competitive; possible summer teaching; excellent fringe benefits; write: Dr. Richard C. Thurston, Chairman, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee 37401; fall, 1973.

Old Dominion University. Teaching and opportunities for research at assistant or associate professor rank; methodology and statistics, urban, crime and delinquency, and the family; prefer PhD and pub-

lications; nominations and inquiries invited; salary open; write: Dr. George M. Stabler, Chairman, Department of Sociology, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia 23508; September, 1973.

Universiti Sains Malaysia. Senior lecturers and lecturers in the fields of economics, sociology/social psychology, social anthropology, and political science; senior lecturers must have PhD from well-established and recognized university, with several years experience in research and teaching at the university level, together with publications; salary for senior lecturers \$7,932-\$10,680, depending upon experience, qualifications, and family circumstances; lecturers should have at least an MA with suitable teaching and research experience; salary for lecturers \$5,984-\$9,420, dependent upon experience, qualifications, and family circumstances; write: The Registrar, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Minden, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia. The closing date of receipt of applications is January 1, 1973.


Clarion State College. Associate professor to teach introduction to sociology, methodology, sociological theory, and any other advanced courses in criminology, formal organizations, demography, and comparative sociology; PhD with or without previous teaching experience; approximate salary range \$12,400, negotiable; write: Dr. Ngo Dinh Tu, Chairman, Department of Social Science, Clarion State College, Clarion, Pennsylvania 16214; spring, 1973.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Associate or full professor to teach courses in social welfare and closely related fields of sociology and to direct the well-established undergraduate concentration in social welfare within the Department of Sociology and Anthropology; PhD in sociology or social work, and education and experience in both social welfare and sociology; salary dependent upon rank and experience; include vita with letter of application; write: Alvin H. Scaff, Head, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Graham 337A, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Greensboro, North Carolina 27412; position begins August, 1973.

University of Redlands. Assistant professor; urban studies with other areas open, possibly including methodology, comparative sociology, introductory; PhD preferred; also, one year position in intergroup relations and introductory, possibly methods; teaching experience preferred; salary for both dependent on qualifications; small liberal arts college in Southern California with emphasis on undergraduate teaching; an equal opportunity employer; write: Nancy Glandon, Sociology Department Coordinator, University of Redlands, Redlands, California 92373; September, 1973.

2

important
texts by
**Elmer H.
Johnson**
Southern Illinois University



SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF URBAN MAN

Oriented to bridge the gap between theory and practice, Johnson has grouped theories around two major approaches to social problems—social deviance and social disorganization—and has adopted urbanization and technological change as central to the sources of these problems, regardless of specific patterns and content.

Common themes are provided as the text moves from the summary of theoretical approaches per se to deal with each of these two problems sources specifically. Can be used on a one- or two-semester basis.

CRIME, CORRECTION, AND SOCIETY

Third Edition

Consistent with Johnson's long-held view that theoretical studies should be relevant to the issues of the day, this edition continues to strike the proper balance between these two objectives. The author has thoroughly revised and reorganized his material to include more recent research findings and criminological literature, emphasizing intensive questioning of the system of criminal justice, the distinctions between sociological and individualistic theories of criminal behavior, and investigation of the correctional institution as a "people-changing organization."

Both editions will be ready in early 1973.

Write **THE DORSEY PRESS, HOMEWOOD, ILLINOIS 60430** for your examination copy.

DORSEY
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Bowling Green State University. Two openings for Assistant professors: one to teach undergraduate and graduate level theory courses; the other to teach criminology and delinquency courses; 8 hour teaching load per quarter on 9 month contract with possible summer teaching; PhD; salary competitive and negotiable; write: Dr. Joseph B. Perry, Recruitment Committee, Department of Sociology, Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Ohio 43403; starting date is open.

Princeton University. Assistant professor to teach on undergraduate and graduate levels with major interest in one of the following fields: public opinion and communications, mathematical sociology, ethnomethodology; applicant should have PhD or strong likelihood of having it by June, 1973; women and minorities are encouraged to apply; beginning salary \$10,000 to \$11,500; write: Chairman, Department of Sociology, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08540; September, 1973.

Jacksonville University. Professor who holds the PhD or will receive the degree by fall of 1973; rank and salary would depend upon education and experience; an individual with a newly awarded PhD and no teaching experience could expect the rank of assistant professor and a minimum of \$9,400 for 10 months; an interest in urban sociology would be useful in the University's Urban Studies Program; write: Frederick S. Aldridge, Chairman, Division of Social Sciences, Jacksonville University, Jacksonville, Florida 32211.

Princeton University. Assistant professor, major interest in political sociology; teaching on undergraduate and graduate levels; applicant should have PhD degree or strong likelihood of having it by June 1973; beginning salary \$10,000 to \$11,500; write: Chairman, Department of Sociology, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey 08540; September, 1973.

University of Colorado at Colorado Springs. Assistant professor with specialization and competence in one or more of the following areas: statistics and research methods, formal organizations, theory or criminology; PhD or near PhD preferred; salary dependent upon qualifications; equal opportunity employer; write: Dr. Barbara Lorch, Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Colorado, Colorado Springs, Colorado 80907.

Eastern Michigan University. Opening for head of Sociology Department; seasoned scholar-teacher with administrative ability in department with a complement of 25 positions offering sociology major and MA degree, undergraduate program in social work and minor in anthropology; send vita or credentials to: Selection Committee, Department of Sociology, Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197.

Berry College. One full-time permanent position in small liberal arts and science college, rank commensurate with training and experience; share

teaching load in a flexible situation where the needed areas of expertise include introductory, social organization, social theory, cultural anthropology and demonstrate interest in team teaching; excellent opportunity for research and involvement in college and local community; PhD or near preferred; located in esthetically appealing northwest Georgia; approximately 1 hour northwest of Atlanta; salary competitive; write: Dr. N. Gordon Carper, Chairman, Department of Social Science, Berry College, Mount Berry, Georgia 30149; September, 1973.

University of Pittsburgh. Several positions at the rank of assistant professor. Special consideration will be given to theoretically and methodologically skilled sociologists; however, area of special interest is open; write: Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15213.

Wayne State University. Professor or associate professor, with specialization in one or more of the following areas: medical sociology, industrial sociology, social stratification, urban sociology, criminology; PhD and experience required; will be actively engaged in research, also teach graduate and undergraduate courses in area of specialization; equal opportunity employer; salary competitive; write: Dr. Constantina Sofilos-Rothschild, Chairman, Personnel Committee, Department of Sociology, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan 48202.

State University of New York, Oswego. Assistant or associate professor with interest and expertise in teaching mass lecture introduction to sociology course, as well as specialty area (stratification, methods, criminology or penology, theory, sociology of social welfare, etc.); PhD required; salary \$12,000-\$14,000, according to experience; write: David M. H. Richmond, Chairman, Department of Sociology—Anthropology, SUNY/Oswego, Oswego, New York 13126; January, 1973.

Ball State University. Assistant professor to teach introductory sociology and/or urban sociology, social psychology; PhD and teaching experience required; salary \$12,650 and up for 10 months; equal opportunity employer; write: L. E. Hewitt, Chairman, Department of Sociology, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana 47306; September, 1973.

Northern Illinois University. Temporary one-semester and one-year openings, preferably at the assistant professor level, occasioned by faculty leaves in a 32-person graduate and undergraduate department; methodologists, experimental social psychologists, and deviancy specialists preferred, but most other specialists except for sociologists of religion can be considered; PhD required; 60 miles from Chicago; salary and other conditions competitive; equal opportunity employer; write: S. Frederick Seymour, Chairman, Department of Sociology, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois 60115; area code 815-753-0365; January or August, 1973.

[VACANCIES, Con't.]

Lakehead University. Two positions at the senior level; teaching and research in areas of theory, religion, organizations, family, social movements, Canadian society, also to aid in development of graduate program; PhD with experience and publications; a public university in Northwestern Ontario on shores of Lake Superior; salary range dependent upon rank and experience; September, 1973. Write: Dr. C. L. French, Chairman, Dept. of Sociology, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, "P", Ont., Canada.

V 129 Assistant or associate professor to teach three courses per semester, ordinarily only two preparations, with optional summer teaching; two of these five areas: ethnic relations, cultural sociology, research and statistics, social psychology, social welfare; possible liaison with Office for Minority Students; PhD in sociology; located in upper Midwest. SMSA of 150,000 persons; competitive salary and fringe benefits; women and minorities are encouraged to apply; summer or fall, 1973.

V 130 Three associate or assistant professors needed to teach social psychology, methods, theory, deviance, and principles; regional campus of Midwestern university; excellent salaries with optional summer teaching or funded research; PhD's with considerable undergraduate teaching experience preferred; summer or fall, 1973.

RESEARCH

Ohio State University. Associate to full professor to become director of the Latin American Studies Program; position involves a 50% commitment to the Department of Sociology (one course per quarter) and a 50% administrative commitment to the Latin American Studies Program; candidate must possess a PhD in sociology and a research interest in South America, especially Brazil; salary dependent upon training and experience, equal opportunity employer; write: Edward C. McDonagh, Chairman, Department of Sociology, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210; September, 1973.

National Science Foundation. The National Science Foundation, the Federal agency created to advance the state of science and science education in the United States, has several Science Program Manager positions for advanced-level physical and social scientists and engineers. These are stimulating and challenging positions involving the review and evaluation of research proposals and the administration of supporting grants. They are located in Washington, D.C., have a salary range of \$21,060 to \$33,260 per annum and attractive fringe benefits.

The vacant positions are located in the Foundation's Directorate of Research Applications which is responsible for supporting activities seeking to increase understanding of social and environmental problems and their underlying causes, and identifying opportunities and means for applying science and advanced technology for the benefit of society. The scope of the research proposals often involves the combined efforts of physical, biological, engineering, and social scientists, as well as significant contributions from nonscientists. Candidates should have a PhD or equivalent scientific training and both research and administrative experience. In addition to a high degree of competence in one field of science or technology there should be a broad awareness of general science and its applications.

If you are interested in being considered for a position with the Foundation and believe you have the requisite background education and experience, please forward a current resume to the Personnel Officer, National Science Foundation, 1800 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20550.

Abt Associates, Inc. Under contract with the Experimental Schools Program of the National Institute of Education, Abt Associates is currently seeking 5 persons experienced in anthropological or sociological field work for immediate assignment to a 5-year project studying social and educational change in American rural communities. Positions are available in Craig, Alaska; Constance, Michigan; New Augusta, Mississippi; Myrtle Creek, Oregon; and Quilcena, Washington. Salaries are highly competitive with additional provision being made for field expenses. Persons interested should send resumes to: Dr. Robert E. Herriott, Senior Social Scientist, Abt Associates, Inc., 55 Wheeler Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

ADMINISTRATION

St. Joseph's College. Chairman, Sociology Department, at 4-year undergraduate Jesuit liberal arts college. Day and evening programs with total of 250 majors. Terminal degree in field, appropriate college level teaching experience and administrative ability required. Equal Opportunity Employer. Fuller details supplied upon request. Write: Dr. James E. Dougherty, Executive Vice-President, St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19131.

Southwest Minnesota State College. President; a multi-purpose undergraduate institution with 2,400 students; part of 7 college Minnesota State College System; fully accredited; new campus. Desirable qualifications include evidence of highly developed analytical and problem-solving skills; sophisticated interpersonal sensitivities; ability to provide strong, effective leadership through consultative decision-making process; commitment to innovation in higher education and evidence of an awareness of new educational trends, ideas, and concepts; and educational and administrative experience. To assume office: July 1, 1973. Applications from women and minority persons are welcome. Letters of application and nominations should be sent, by December 1, 1972, to: Dr. Garry D. Hays, Vice Chancellor

for Academic Affairs, Minnesota State College System, 407 Capitol Square Building, 550 Cedar Street, St. Paul, Minnesota 55101.

URBAN STUDIES SPECIALIST

Millersville State College. Urban studies specialist to develop program in urban studies; PhD in urban studies or a related field as well as some experience in program development are required; position open at associate or assistant professor's rank; College is located near Lancaster, Pennsylvania in the heart of Pennsylvania Dutch country, a rural setting close to eastern metropolitan centers; salary open, depending upon qualifications; write: Dr. M. K. Hamid, Dean, Social Sciences Division, Millersville State College, Millersville, Pennsylvania 17551.

APPLICANTS**PhD With Experience**

A 290 Research and/or teaching; population studies, research methods, evaluation of action programs, others; PhD; AKD; 9 years research and teaching experience, and resident consultantship in Southeast Asia; publications; location open; 33, married; June, 1973.

A 291 Teaching and/or research; criminology, methodology, sociology of law; PhD; PBK, NIMH-NORC Training Fellow; 4 years undergraduate and graduate teaching experience, research in criminology and youth studies, study director, several ongoing projects; publications with several more submitted and in progress; location open; 28, married; June, 1973.

A 292 Teaching and research; family, urban sociology, social change, field methods; PhD; 2 years research, 8 years teaching experience; 6 articles; 39, married; December, 1972 or later.

A 293 Research and/or teaching; deviance, mass communications, methodology, theory, program development, evaluation; PhD; AKD and other honors; government and university research and teaching experience, both undergraduate and graduate, in U.S. and Great Britain; publications and thesis supervision; location open; 32, married, 1 child; fall, 1973.

A 294 Teaching and/or research and/or administration; recent courses: introductory, urban, industrial, complex organizations, social change, research methods; PhD; 6 fellowships and grants; 18 years full-time teaching, 6 in graduate programs, 10 years part-time teaching, Senior Fulbright and other foreign assignments, 3 chairmanships, research and consulting contracts with business, government and non-profit agencies; 1 monograph, contributions to Readers, journals articles; 54, married, 3 children; earliest summer, 1973.

A 295 Teaching and/or research; complex and formal organizations, social change and socio-economic development, stratification and poverty, community (including rural, developmental, voluntary participation, "evaluation" methodology, introductory, social problems; PhD; Woodrow Wilson Fellow, NIMH Predoctoral Fellow; 7 years teaching and research, including 3 as half-time member of applied research institute; published articles in deviance, political socialization, complex organizations; book in preparation on role of co-ops in socio-economic development; location open; 36, married, 2 children; June or September, 1973.

A 296 Research and teaching or research administration in the health care field, interest and experience in evaluative research of health care services, administration of research programs; teaching experience in the areas of medical sociology, methodology, and social psychology; PhD; AKD, other awards, on professional advisory boards, publications, several in progress; 7 years research and teaching, developed and presently head social research unit at major New York Hospital; Greater New York area, New Jersey, or Connecticut desired; 36, married, children; winter, 1972 or spring, 1973.

A 297 Professor in university or college; culture and personality, social psychology, social problems, interdisciplinary approaches in social and cultural anthropology and comparative sociology; PhD; fellowships, research grants, elected and appointed professional positions; 14 years teaching, research, administration; book, articles, research reports; medium-sized city or small town; 1 child; very strong teaching, research, and administrative credentials; September, 1973.

A 298 Teaching and/or research; occupational sociology, urban, rural, rural sociology of India, population studies, family and marriage, stratification, theory of structure and change, social anthropology, social psychology, social problems and social organization, South Asia, and industrial sociology; PhD; research assistantship, UNESCO Research Fellowship, Monash Research Scholarship, and University Lecturer; 8 years teaching and research experiences in India and Australia; 6 research papers published in various academic journals; location open; 34, married, 2 children; available immediately.

A 299 Research; 11 years research experience, including supervising field interviewing and coding staff, statistical analysis, research design, and report writing; experience on government and university sponsored studies in marriage and family, emotionally disturbed child, population, urban redevelopment; experience with field survey and experimental laboratory research techniques; BA in journalism (Phi Beta Kappa), full-time experience as newspaper reporter and information director; publications; consider part-time consulting on significant research in relevant area; available immediately, eastern U.S. only.

A 300 Teaching, administration, and/or research at associate professor level; demography, comparative, social change, development and modernization, area studies; comparative, interdisciplinary approach preferred; PhD; 7 years teaching, 2 years applied research experience; publications; married; fall, 1973.

A 301 Teaching and research, possibly chairman at a university or liberal arts college; methodology, social psychology, statistics, deviance, others; PhD; 12 years teaching at graduate and undergraduate levels; considerable research and administrative experience; 2 books, numerous articles; location open; 41, married; June or September, 1973.

A 302 Director of evaluative research; research methodology, social psychology; PhD; 14 years research experience, currently full professor; books, articles; available full-time April-August, flexible availability September-March.

A 303 Professor and chairman; social interaction and methodology; PhD; full professor at eastern university; 3 books, 20 papers.

A 304 Teaching and research; naturalized European sociologist with American degrees and scholarly interests seeks relocation from an existing graduate program; preference for places which emphasize teaching; sociology seminars; demography, urban sociology, sociological theory (classical and contemporary); interdisciplinary seminars; social ecology, early social theories; analogous undergraduate courses; PhD; experienced non-academic administrator; 5 years in the field; foreign languages preferred for preparation: French, German, Dutch, Spanish; pre- and post-doctoral NSF; publications; salubrious climate and intellectual atmosphere preferred; interested in evolving graduate programs; will consider teaching outside the continental U.S.; married; fall, 1973.

A 305 Teaching as professor or visiting lecturer; rural sociology, cultural anthropology, industrial sociology, sociology of South Asia (Indian subcontinent); PhD; 6 years teaching experience at undergraduate and graduate levels, publications, papers, awards, widely traveled in India; New York area, New England, West Coast, or Canada; 39, married, 1 child; June or September, 1973.

A 306 Research and/or teaching; evaluative research, social indicators in health, medical sociology, methodology, attitude measurement; PhD; PBK, Faculty Fellowship; 2 years research, lecturing; journal publications, coauthor of forthcoming book; location open, but prefer San Francisco, Boston, New York, or Los Angeles metropolitan; 28, single; June or September, 1973.

A 307 Teaching; marriage and family, social psychology, small groups; 12 years university teaching experience; publications; winter or fall, 1973.

A 308 Teaching; marriage and family, social psychology, small groups; 12 years university teaching experience; publications; winter or fall, 1973.

A 309 Teaching and research; introductory, political, social problems, social change, peasant society, South Asia; PhD; 9 years teaching and research experience; articles and other publications; 35, married; location open; January, 1973.

A 309 Chairman/professor; marriage and family, ethnic minorities and race relations, methodology, specialties flexible; PhD; NSF grant and fellowships; 23 years teaching and administration, 16 years chairman; prefer Middle or South Atlantic, will consider others; 57, married; June or September, 1973.

A 310 Teaching or teaching and research; methods, sociology of religion, urban, family, political; PhD; 5 years university teaching experience with some administrative responsibilities; articles, reviews; location open; 33, September, 1973.

A 311 Teaching and/or research, especially interdisciplinary work; social psychology, social structure and personality, group process and structure; PhD; NIMH Predoctoral Fellowship, other awards; 9 years university teaching and research experience; articles, papers; 35, married; fall, 1973.

A 312 Teaching; social and cultural anthropology, ethnological theory and method, Latin American culture, world ethnography; PhD; NIMH Fellowship, Wenner Gren Foundation field grant; 4 years museum curator, 6 years teaching experience, undergraduate and graduate, 20 months ethnographic fieldwork, Chiapas, Mexico; 4 journal articles, monograph in preparation; location open, U.S. or Canada; special interests in program and library development in anthropology; will attend American Anthropological Association meetings in Toronto in late November; fall, 1973.

A 313 Research directorship or teaching/research; population, family, sexual behavior, program evaluation; PhD; 12 years teaching and research; widely published; now professor at major university; experienced in administration of large-scale research; 44, married; June, 1973.

A 314 Teaching and research; fields of dominant research interest: concepts of the social sciences (methodology of integrated social sciences), social linguistics, social theory; teaching experience: introductory sociology, classical and contemporary social theory, stratification, methodology, social philosophy, interdisciplinary courses; PhD; teaching experience in German and English universities and in an American college; several publications; universities preferred; 32, single; September, 1973.

A 315 Teaching/research; sociology of work (including industrial sociology), character and social structure, social stratification and stratification, urban sociology, minority group problems, American social institutions, social problems; PhD; Grant Squires Prize (Columbia University), City College of New York Fellowship, Who's Who in America; 4 years university teaching, undergraduate and graduate, 12 years director of research projects, 12 years federal government service, policy-making, research and administration; major publication by leading foundation; location open; summer or fall, 1973.

A 316 Teaching generalist with inter-disciplinary interests preferably in joint sociology-anthropology situation; social and cultural theory, group and organizational processes, ethnic relations, family; PhD+; PBK, fellowships; 10 years teaching, 8 years social service experience; East or upper South; 46, married, children.

MA or Near PhD

A 320 Teaching or teaching and research; religion, social stratification, social problems, introductory; MS+; 1 year teaching experience, 20 years experience in communications media, electronic and print; location open; 45, single; summer or fall, 1973.

A 321 Teaching; urban, religion, human ecology, social stratification, juvenile delinquency, introductory; MA; some limited college teaching experience; Southern states preferred; 23, single; December, 1972.

A 322 Teaching and research or community programs opportunities; several introductory courses including inquiry, also complex organization, urban, sociology of education; 2 MAs, ABD, dissertation in progress; awards; 5 years teaching, also social planning and consulting; applied research reports, Midwest location; 30, married, 2 children; May, 1973.

A 323 Teaching and research at assistant professor level; political sociology, stratification, race and ethnic relations, economic sociology, China and Southeast Asia; MA; NDEA IV (Chinese language study), Woodrow Wilson Dissertation Fellowship; 2 years research assistant, teaching experience at university level, presently engaged in field research in Far East; monograph in progress, articles submitted, paper; location open; married, 1 child; September, 1973.

A 324 Teaching and/or research; complex organizations, medical sociology, societal evolution, interdisciplinary interests; PhD by June, 1973; NIMH Mental Health Trainee; research and 7 years teaching experience; publication; South or Southwest preferred; 34, married, children; summer or fall, 1973.

A 325 Teaching, administration, research, or combination; introductory, organizations, community-urban, religion, methods; MA, near PhD, dissertation by January 1973; NDEA and Hill Fellowships; 7 years teaching, 1 year chairman, 2 years director of computer center; publications; location open; married, 3 children; January, 1973 or later.

A 326 Teaching with opportunity for research; military sociology, social psychology, social control, deviance, qualitative research methods (critical theory), social movements, stratification, industrial sociology; MA, PhD expected late 1972; fellowships, honoraries; 3 years university teaching with graduate seminar experience, natural science background; urban location or foreign; 28, married, 1 child; June or September, 1973.

A 327 Research, writing, editing and/or teaching; family, stratification, methods, social psychology, population; MA (ABD); pre-doctoral fellowship; 8 years research, 2 years editing, 2 years university teaching; articles; West Coast or Rocky Mountain; 38; January, 1973.

A 328 Teaching and/or research; research methods, statistics, deviance and social issues, population/ecology, social welfare and social work, social stratification, other courses in social organization and social change; dissertation defense in December; 10 years teaching experience, 2 years research director for UCS; location open; 38; June or September, 1973.

A 329 Teaching, assistant professor; introductory, social institutions, sociology of religion, race and minorities, social stratification, social change; MA, ABD, AKD, Safford Fellow; 7 years teaching experience; married, 1 child; fall, 1972.

A 330 Teaching and/or research; social change (theory and measurement), demography (esp. mortality), urban sociology, methodology and statistics, stratification; MPH, MA, candidate; University of Michigan; NSF and Population Council Fellow; upperclassmen-graduate teaching and 6 years research experience, including survey work abroad; journal publications and research reports; U.S. or abroad; will consider 1 or 2 year position; 27; September, 1973 or January, 1974.

A 331 Teaching and research; urban studies, political sociology, power and stratification, social psychology, organizations, deviance, and historical sociology; MA (ABD); NIMH Fellow and grant award from Department of Labor for dissertation; 3 years teaching experience and 3 years research; publications, article and book in process; location open, but metropolitan area preferred; 35, married, 1 child; September, 1973.

A 332 Teaching or research; introductory, criminology-corrections-deviance combination, social problems, family, theory, social statistics, social psychology, and minority relations; MA+, doctorate expected; teaching fellow, AKD, PDK, NSF National Teaching Fellow; 7 years college teaching, 1 year social science division chairman, now department head; articles and reviews, papers presented, research in preparation; prefer Midwest, will consider others; 33, married; September or summer, 1973.

A 333 Research and/or teaching; survey design, administration and analysis, population research (demography); MA pending, PhD in progress; 7+ years survey research, 1+ years demographic research, 1 year teaching; New York Metropolitan Area desired; 41.

A 334 Teaching; religious organizations and professionals, social psychology, formal organizations, statistics, standard introductory courses in theory and methods; MA, near PhD; regional paper award; experience in large-scale research project (2 years), part-time university teaching; 3 non-journal publications, article pending, others in preparation; location open; 25, married; September, 1973.

SOCIOMETRY

A Journal of Research
in Social Psychology

Genuinely interdisciplinary in the presentation of works by both sociologists and psychologists.

Recent issues have dealt with:

The Development of Trust and Mistrust in Mixed-Motive Games

Entrepreneurial Environments and the Emergence of Achievement Motivation in Adolescent Males

Class, Power, and Alienation

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