

**GENDERED CAREERS IN CHANGING  
SOCIAL AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXTS:  
CRIMINOLOGY IN THE POST-WWII ERA**

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL  
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA  
BY

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IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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March, 2009



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many people whose support and encouragement were essential to the completion of this project. This work was generously supported by an Anna Welsch Bright Award from the Department of Sociology at the University of Minnesota and a National Science Foundation Dissertation Improvement Grant without which much of my data would not have been collected. I am fortunate to have had an amazing dissertation committee. Sally Gregory Kohlstedt, Ross Macmillan, Phyllis Moen, and Joachim Savelsberg each provided timely substantive, theoretical, and methodological guidance in the development and realization of this project. I am especially indebted to Joachim for asking me to work with him on a project that brought together ideas in the sociology of knowledge and the life course. That experience was a turning point in my intellectual life for so many reasons and marks the beginning of Joachim's unwavering commitment to me. Thank you, Joachim and the rest of my committee, for accompanying me on this journey. I have been surrounded by wonderful people in the Department of Sociology who listened to undeveloped ideas and critiqued more developed ones; all of these conversations moved my work forward. Others have provided friendship which has been crucial during this experience. I was also fortunate to be supported financially by the Minnesota Population Center for several years where I was able to develop and sharpen my data management and analytic skills. Finally, my family has been superb. My parents, sisters, and grandparents have been unconditionally supportive. My husband, David Krage, has been caring and accommodating through it all. Our children, Helene and Gavin, have always welcomed me home with smiles, keeping me grounded and encouraging more efficient work habits toward the goal of having it all.

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## *CHAPTER 1: CONTEXTS*

### INTRODUCTION

This study examines careers of male and female criminologists spanning nearly six decades in the post-WWII United States from a life course perspective. In the spirit of C. Wright Mills, this research considers the “...problems of biography, of history and of their intersections...” (Mills 1959:6). This is simultaneously a study in the sociology of science, especially criminology, the life course, and gender relations in academia. I examine different aspects of careers that unfolded in multiple contexts, focusing on career stages (graduate school and early career), mobility, and trajectories. At the broadest level, social and historical conditions shaped the available career opportunities. As individuals move through institutions of higher education, their lives are shaped by and reciprocally affect institutions. And, because scholars also have lives beyond work, I incorporate elements of personal life into this investigation.

After a brief introduction to this research and the guiding questions, I situate this study in context. I elaborate specifically on the growth of higher education, emergence of criminology, changing gender composition of higher education, and the rise in dual-earner families. Then, I discuss careers and the life course—the approach that frames my work. Finally, I introduce the data sources used here and provide an overview of each chapter.

Rapid growth in the number of colleges and universities in the post-WWII era came to a halt in the mid-1970s and the stagnation continued into the 1980s and 1990s. The growth of higher education was in part related to rising numbers of women seeking undergraduate and graduate degrees. Men and the swell of women who entered higher education in the late 1960s and early 1970s faced a depressed academic market by the time they completed their

training. Yet, criminology followed a somewhat different pattern fueled in part by federal support for training programs in criminology and criminal justice. It began to emerge as distinct from sociology in the 1960s and grew more rapidly beginning in the 1970s and continued into the 1990s. This leads to the first set of guiding questions for the dissertation:

- How does the emergence of criminology in changing institutional contexts influence careers?
- Specifically, to what extent do scholars trained in sociology and other types of departments secure employment in newly emerging departments of criminology and criminal justice and vice versa?
- In the absence of criminology-trained scholars, who filled positions in newly emerging departments of criminology and criminal justice—established, newly-minted Ph.D.s, sociologists, or scholars trained in other types of departments?
- To what extent is the production of criminological knowledge influenced by institutional location?

Parallel to the growth of higher education and criminology in the post-WWII era was the movement of women, especially those who were married, into the paid labor market. The accompanying rise in the number of dual-earner families partially shifted the locus of women's struggles for equality from work to home. With both members of a couple in the labor force, issues surrounding housework, childcare, balance, and career priority took center stage. The negotiation of these issues within families has consequences for women's work careers in particular given the historical link between women and the home (Williams 2000). Men's and women's work careers are typically characterized in different ways, and much of the explanation is rooted in the gendered division of labor, necessitating the study of both work and family to understand gendered careers. This leads to the second set of guiding questions for the dissertation:

- Throughout their careers, how are men's and women's work and family lives similar or different?

- What effects do the described changes in the 1960s and 1970s have on the career patterns of men and women?

## CONTEXTS

### *GROWTH OF HIGHER EDUCATION*

Higher education expanded rapidly in the post-WWII era, resulting in the establishment of new colleges and universities, the formation of new departments and areas of study, and tremendous increases in the number of doctoral degrees conferred. This period of growth led to a transformation of higher education in the United States from an elite to a “mass” system (Trow 1961). That is, higher education became more widely accessible given a high school education and resources to fund attendance (Campbell and Siegel 1967).

In the post-WWII era, the two-year institution emerged as distinctly American, and research universities were distinguished from other institutions by their focus on scholarship (Caplow and McGee 1958; Thelin 2004).<sup>1</sup> Demand for faculty with doctoral degrees was high in the 1950s (Caplow and McGee 1958), while supply was greater than demand in the 1980s (Burke 1988). Much of the growth of higher education occurred in the 1960s and 1970s in two and four-year colleges (Medsker and Tillery 1971; Finkelstein 1984; Finkelstein, Seal, and Schuster 1998). Yet, the pace of growth in the number of doctoral degrees conferred was also dramatic into the 1970s (Lomperis 1992; Bowen and Rudenstine 1992; Cartter 1976; Bowen 1981). Growth slowed by the mid-1970s when institutions of higher education faced precarious financial circumstances, academic labor markets weakened due to oversupply of doctoral recipients, and draft deferments by attending graduate school

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<sup>1</sup> Distinctions between types of academic institutions will be discussed below in more detail.

ended (Bowen and Rudenstine 1992; Cartter 1976; Bowen 1981). Limited academic opportunities continued into the 1980s and 1990s (Burke 1988; Finkelstein, Seal, and Schuster 1998).

Despite falling numbers of students in the 1970s, programs were still being established, especially in professional fields (Bowen and Rudenstine 1992; Haworth 1996; Akers 1992). Like earlier in the century when expansion created opportunities for sociology to institutionalize, expansion in the 1960s and 1970s provided opportunities for the establishment of new fields (Camic 1995). Criminology is an example of an “applied” specialization and “practitioner-oriented” field that flourished during these years, as did applied mathematics and public policy (Haworth 1996). Following a decade of stagnation in the growth of higher education, the number of doctoral degrees conferred grew, albeit slowly, beginning in the mid-1980s (National Research Council 1998).

#### *EMERGENCE OF CRIMINOLOGY*

In the United States, criminology began largely as a specialty within sociology, where sociological approaches were applied to the study of crime. Sociological theories and research on crime proliferated following Edwin H. Sutherland’s seminal work on differential association theory in the 1930s (Akers 1992). For more than three decades, the development of criminology and sociology continued hand in hand, with much of the work on crime being done by sociological criminologists (Akers 1992).

Theories on the social organization of science provide a framework for understanding the emergence of newly formed, independent fields of study. Both push and pull factors contributed to the development of criminology as a field independent from sociology. Push

factors came from within sociology. On the one hand, sociology was growing, and growth in disciplines facilitates competition and scientific change (Abbott 2001; Fuchs 1992, 1993). Growth also leads to the development of specialties, such as criminology, and disciplines are only held together by high levels of mutual dependence between specialties (Fuchs 1992). When a specialty is no longer dependent on other specialties for resources and recognition, fragmentation can occur (Fuchs 1992). That is, a group is able to create its own organizational infrastructures and further decrease its dependence on the discipline. This may be especially likely when the presence of funding encourages differentiation (Abbott 2001; Kuhn 1970).

Pull factors were also at work. The 1964 presidential candidates brought crime control full force into the public arena (Geis and Meier 1978).<sup>2</sup> The topic of crime made its way to center stage in political discussions and figured prominently for years to come (Fagan 1998). President Johnson created the President's Crime Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, which recommended better training for law enforcement officials and more research on crime. The 1968 recommendation was followed and the federal government provided massive amounts of money for research and program development (Feeley and Sarat 1980; Wellford 1998). For criminology, funding was a key factor that contributed to its differentiation as a specialty from sociology. While the development of criminology is different from the development of more established disciplines which occurred decades earlier, the importance of social and political conditions in shaping the development of disciplines is not (Collins 1994, 1998).

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<sup>2</sup> The 1964 presidential election between Lyndon B. Johnson and Barry Goldwater was the first time that issues of crime and crime control figured prominently on the national political agenda.

Specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice sprouted across the country during the growth of higher education into the 1970s. And, while most growth slowed by the mid-1970s, criminology continued to expand through the 1990s at both the undergraduate and graduate levels (Akers 1992). A growing number of graduates and productive scholars in specialized programs are indicative of the level of institutionalization and maturity of the field (Clear 2001). Simultaneously, however, criminological work continues to have a presence in sociology (Ennis 1992; Cappell and Guterbock 1992).

#### *CHANGING GENDER COMPOSITION OF HIGHER EDUCATION*

At the same time as higher education expanded rapidly, the demographic composition of scholars was also transforming. A tremendous increase in the number of women earning doctoral degrees paralleled the expansion of higher education. From 1950 to 1996, the percentage of Ph.D.s awarded to women in the social sciences increased from ten percent to nearly fifty percent (National Research Council 1998). The rapid increase in the number of women earning advanced degrees that began in the 1960s continued into 1980s, though at a slower pace (National Research Council 1998). The decades of feminization in higher education were a product of both an increase in the number of women and a decrease in the number of men (Lomperis 1992; Bowen and Rudenstine 1992).

During the 1950s and 1960s women entered graduate schools and completed doctorates at record numbers despite “discouraging conditions” (Rossiter 1995). Women were relatively well represented in sociology compared to other fields; they earned 14.15% of doctorates in sociology between 1948 and 1961 (Rossiter 1995: 81). Yet, the women who received Ph.D.s during this period worked in vastly different institutional settings than their

male counterparts (Rossiter 1995). They did the invisible work of data collection, library research, and teaching undergraduates, for example, rather than creating knowledge (Deegan 1995:326). Women were primarily in low status positions where they “rarely received any advancement, security, or autonomy, even after years of faithful service” (Rossiter 1982: 210). Advisor-advisee relationships with powerful men allowed some women to avoid the professional marginalization generally experienced by women in sociology (Deegan 1995). Even for women who succeeded in obtaining faculty positions, “an associate professorship was the highest rank to which most women faculty could aspire realistically, regardless of how strong their aging mentor had been or how highly acclaimed their own work was” (Rossiter 1982: 188). Their careers reflect the tremendous barriers they faced.

Marriage to academic spouses contributed to the further marginalization of women in science in the 1940s and 1950s. They experienced hostility and rarely flourished professionally, as nepotism rules kept them out of academic positions (Deegan 1995; Rossiter 1995; for a biographical account see Simon 2002; Rossi 1990). Only twelve women held assistant professorships or higher in sociology at twenty leading universities in 1960 (Rossiter 1995: 132). Exceptions, of course, were made for those outstanding women who happened to be married to a man in a closely related field, though the women were still in positions labeled “volunteer professor,”<sup>3</sup> for example (Rossiter 1995: 138). These were the exceptional women, however; most women earning degrees in the 1950s left the professional world to raise families (Deegan 1995).

By the 1960s a feminist revolution was beginning in the academy (Deegan 1995; Thibault 1987). Academic women organized and challenged their second-rate positions

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<sup>3</sup> “Volunteer” or “voluntary” professor titles were used for scientist-spouses and “meant unpaid, lest someone think that the wife of a well-paid academic man was also earning a full salary” (Rossiter 1995: 138).

(Rossiter 1995; Rossi 1964). Legislation was passed, which provided legal protections for women in employment and education. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited employment discrimination based on sex, and Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments prohibited gender inequality in higher education. The number of women represented in the higher ranks of colleges and universities subsequently increased, albeit not to the extent expected (Chamberlain 1988).

While there was a trend towards feminization in all fields, it was more pronounced in the social sciences (Lomperis 1992). By 1970, women made up 22.58 percent of sociologists (Rossiter 1995: 100). Women's representation increased among faculty members especially in the mid to late 1970s as the growing number of women receiving training sought employment (Finkelstein 1984). Women's representation has continued to increase, though their absence and underrepresentation at the highest ranks is still cause for concern (Hornig 2003; Long 2003; Long, ed. 2001).

#### *RISE IN DUAL EARNER FAMILIES*

Though more women earned advanced degrees and women were better represented in the workforce and in higher education in the 1960s and 1970s than in previous decades, cultural ideas about gender norms lagged behind. Married women made up an increasing share of women in the labor force (Goldin 1990). Yet, lived experiences of middle-class, college-educated women clashed with expectations and ignited the women's movement of the 1960s (Freeman 1975). Betty Friedan's (1963) *The Feminine Mystique*, which described a lack of fulfillment for many women who were exclusively responsible for the home and children, also helped usher in the women's movement. Work and family life were predicated



on a model that became increasingly problematic as greater numbers of men and women found themselves in dual-earner families and no one to focus primarily on the home and children.

Discontented in their roles as mother and wife and dissatisfied with their treatment in the labor force, women rallied around equality (Mason [1988] 2002). They wanted equal opportunities at work and shared responsibilities at home. Legislation such as the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the 1964 Civil Rights Act supported their efforts. Women's increase in labor participation and the rise of the dual-earner family are among the most profound changes in post-WWII United States. Yet, despite economic progress, equality has not been achieved (Goldin 1990). The cultural norms and structural underpinnings of work and family remained largely unchanged. To understand the effect these conditions have for women's careers, it is useful to examine the concept of career, its gendered nature, and to apply it to careers in science.

## CAREERS

Careers are sequences of jobs typically characterized as forming a linear path from school to work to retirement and commonly referred to as the "lockstep" model (Spilerman 1977). The lockstep model is predicated on a gendered division of labor. The lockstep model and the corresponding ideal worker, who was unencumbered by family responsibilities, were supported by the feminine mystique and the gendered division of labor (Williams 2000; Moen and Roehling 2005). The presence of aspiring, educated, middle-class women in the labor force brought to life the cultural underpinnings of the world of work, challenging the definition of women as caregivers and homemakers.

Theoretically, careers are expected to be stable and uninterrupted, though empirically there is considerable variation in career patterning (Moen and Han 2001; Blair-Loy 1999; Han and Moen 1999). Women fought for equality at work by buying into the career mystique of dedication to full-time, life-long, continuous work and the opportunity to climb the career ladder (Moen and Roehling 2005). While many women have succeeded to this end, their strategies have focused primarily on changes in their personal lives rather than changes in the ways we think about and experience work and family life (Mason [1988] 2002; Williams 2000; Moen and Roehling 2005; Blair-Loy 2003; Stone 2007).

In short, careers are predicated on the separation of paid and unpaid work, which is distinctly gendered. Work and family are inseparable inasmuch as the career mystique, which is still pervasive in U.S. society, depends upon and is reinforced by the feminine mystique (Moen and Roehling 2005). The analysis of both work and family life is especially important in a context in which women work and dual-earner families are the exception rather than the rule.

#### *CAREERS IN SCIENCE*

Academic careers are organized into a hierarchy of positions forming an academic career ladder with four rungs. A Ph.D. is required for new entrants into the profession, which entails some combination of teaching and research as defined by specific institutions. The lowest rung on the ladder is the lectureship or instructorship position. This entry portal does not typically set one on a path to ascend the ranks of the academic hierarchy. An assistant professorship is the entry portal which affords most academics the opportunity to climb the academic career ladder. Promotion to associate professor, typically associated with the

granting of tenure, occurs after a trial period of approximately six years. Promotion to full professor is the apex of positions in the academic career hierarchy. Administrative work entails a shift in responsibilities from research and teaching to supervision of the institution and is available to academics who are typically advanced in their careers. This structure of academic careers in the United States was developed in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century in response to the expansion of institutions of higher education and the proliferation of knowledge (Rudolph 1962) and remains largely unchanged into the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

Both competition and stratification are key elements of the intellectual world (Collins 1998; Cole and Cole 1973). The organization of institutions, departments, and academic careers created a spirit of competition among these levels (Rudolph 1962). Competition was tightly coupled with the production of scholarly knowledge, which it both encouraged and sustained. Institutions were differentiated by their working conditions, tasks, and incentives (Clark 1983, 1987; Youn 1992; Cartter 1976; Breneman and Youn 1988a). Institutions at the top of the academic hierarchy cornered the market on doctoral training where the next generation of scholars engaged a body of knowledge and acquired the skills to produce knowledge. Other institutions focused on educating a broader range of students and did not train students for the professoriate. Departments were differentiated by the type of knowledge which was their focus. Scholars often banded together to define their work as distinct from other units at their institutions to create new departments. This led to distinct varieties of scholarship across institutions even within a discipline (Camic 1995). Finally, the production of scholarly knowledge was the mechanism for climbing the academic career ladder. Advancing in rank was an indication of status attainment and was awarded largely based on scholarly contributions (Caplow and McGee 1958). In short, institutions,

departments, and careers were all closely tied to the production of scholarly knowledge toward the advancement of science or humanity. These are the legacies of the professionalization of science which still largely exist today.

Another important aspect of the professionalization of science in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, during the period of major organization of academia, was the proliferation of publication outlets. Journals were founded where scholars could disseminate their contributions to science in the form of articles as were book presses which allowed for the distribution of more lengthy scholarly works. As criminology developed nearly eighty years later, a similar process of journal development occurred to create publication outlets for crime-specific research.

#### *STRATIFICATION OF SCIENCE*

The organization of institutions of higher education and the responsibilities of individuals in the various types of institutions have a defining impact on the careers of academics. Science is a stratified system such that different types of activities are encouraged and rewarded in different types of institutions (Clark 1987; Bowen and Schuster 1986; Cole and Cole 1973). The three main responsibilities of individuals who have careers in science are teaching, research, and service (Boyer 1990). Of these three components, scholars are the most highly rewarded for their contributions to the advancement of knowledge, though most spend the greatest amount of time teaching (Cole and Cole 1973; Clark 1987).

Where careers begin in the hierarchy of academic institutions, with varying emphases on the three types of activities of academics, has consequences for the rest of the career. The strong relationship between scholarly contributions and location in the stratification system

of science translates into a close link between careers and scholarly work. This is at least partially due to the processes of cumulative advantage and disadvantage (Cole 1979; Cole and Cole 1973). Most academics are expected to publish, but research becomes more central as one moves up the academic hierarchy. Therefore, individuals located high in the academic hierarchy where success is more closely linked to publication generally have more resources for publishing, such as time, funding, and research assistance. By using these resources, they are able to be more productive and have increased opportunities to be rewarded for their contributions. Receiving rewards and recognition lead to more resources for conducting research and so the process of accumulating advantage begins and the stratification of science is reinforced (Cole and Cole 1973).

The equitability of stratification in science has been a major focus of research in the sociology of science. That is, the emphasis has been on better understanding the link between inequality in science and the structure of higher education. The norms of science dictate that rewards in science should be distributed based on role performance (teaching, research, and service) and, most importantly, contributions to science (Zuckerman and Merton 1972). The allocation of rewards and recognition should be based on the norm of universalism, which holds that “truth-claims, whatever their source, are to be subjected to *preestablished impersonal criteria...*” (Merton [1942] 1973:270). The use of individual characteristics such as race or sex in the judgment of performance is particularism, the polar opposite of universalism. Universalism and particularism are terms which occupy opposite ends of a continuum; universalism is an ideal to which science aspires but can rarely uphold (Cole and Cole 1973).

## A LIFE COURSE APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF CAREERS AND SCHOLARSHIP

In this dissertation, I take a life course approach to the study of careers and scholarly work of criminologists in the post-WWII era in the United States. The first component of a life course approach that I draw upon is the importance of context (e.g. Elder 1975). The discussion of literature to this point has provided a glimpse into the historical, social, and institutional conditions under which the careers of the criminologists I study have taken place. The conditions were ripe for criminology to emerge as higher education expanded and the federal government provided money specifically for the development of training programs in criminology and criminal justice. The emergence of criminology was paralleled by the unfolding of careers in an increasingly stratified context as higher education became more widely available.

At the same time, the gender composition of higher education also changed as women entered higher education in record numbers (National Research Council 1998). The number of women earning Ph.D.s in the 1970s had again reached the levels of the 1920s (Rossiter 1995). While the number of women in higher education continued to grow and women began to be better represented among the ranks of college professors, their representation was still lower than expected based on the proportion of Ph.D.s being awarded to women per year. The lower participation rate of women in science, especially at advanced levels, is commonly referred to as the “science pipeline” (Berryman 1983).

In this dissertation, I consider the effects of the social and historical context in which the lives under examination unfolded. They did not happen in a vacuum, but were shaped by and contributed to large scale social changes. The expansion and later contraction of higher education, the growth of criminology, and the changing gender composition of higher

education along with broader social changes in women's roles, especially the influx of married women into the labor force, coincide to change both scholarly careers and scholarship on crime and crime control. The linkages between biographical pacing and historical contexts produce heterogeneity in career experiences (Han and Moen 1999).

Scholars have long grappled with issues at the intersection of history and biography, focusing on the particularities of being born and coming of age in particular historical times under the influence of changing meanings, the occurrence of socially significant events, and in varying places<sup>4</sup> (Abrams 1982; Mills 1959; Mannheim [1928] 1952). In his famous essay on generations,<sup>5</sup> Mannheim ([1928] 1952) says that coming of age in a particular period “excludes a large number of possible modes of thought, experience, feeling, and action, and restricts the range of self-expression open to the individual to certain circumscribed possibilities” (291). One's biographical location in the history of society (age and subsequently membership in a cohort) plays a crucial role in defining experiences and knowledge. Structure constrains individuals by defining possibilities but also enables them by providing opportunities, which may be different from those who came before or after them. For example, criminologists who came of age professionally during the 1940s and 1950s had many career opportunities; they were active participants in creating and delineating the parameters under which criminologists work and study (Laub 1983:8). Other research has also documented cohort differences in career trajectories and the timing of transitions (Blair-Loy 1999; Williams and Han 2003; Han and Moen 1999).

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<sup>4</sup> Social psychologists have also addressed the intersections of history and biography with their biographical-historical approach to studying the self and identity in which self-concepts are studied through individual life stories (Gecas and Burke 1995: 44).

<sup>5</sup> In his essay, Mannheim refers to individuals who share their coming of age experiences as “generations.” I use the term cohort in place of generation because of confusion “generation” has caused in the literature (Kertzer 1983).

To understand the effects of changing contexts on careers and scholarly work, I divide my sample into two cohorts based on when respondents earned their Ph.D.s. The first cohort was trained prior to and while these changes were taking place. There were few women; criminology departments were only beginning to be established as independent entities; and there were many jobs available because higher education was expanding. The more recently trained cohort received their degrees in the mid-1970s and later. Women were much better represented among this cohort and criminology continued to expand, yet opportunities in general were considerably more limited than for their colleagues who earned the Ph.D. only a few years earlier during the boom in higher education. Dual-earner families, in which both wives and husbands were in the labor force, were also becoming increasingly more common.

The experience of careers and the production of scholarly knowledge may have been different for these two groups of scholars. Individuals earning their Ph.D.s into the early 1970s were faced with a plethora of opportunities. New positions were available as existing institutions were expanding and new ones were emerging. The stagnant period that followed created greater competition for the positions available to recently minted Ph.D.s. The market was poor and employers were able to be more selective when filling positions while job seekers were forced to be less particular. In addition to possible changes in careers, scholarship on crime and crime control also had the potential to change. The federal government not only supported the development of specialized training programs for practitioners, but they also provided a tremendous amount of research support, which at least partially shaped the types of scholarship produced by scholars of crime and crime control



(Savelsberg and Flood 2004; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002).

The life course tradition also emphasizes the influence of early events on later outcomes (e.g. Elder 1974). In the context of careers, early experiences set individuals on one of several paths that are commonly traveled. The progression of individuals through institutions (i.e. career paths) is often structured and largely dependent upon entry portals. While there are common paths through social institutions, individuals also have agency. That is, they make decisions along the way that influence the direction of their paths. Yet, often these decisions are constrained by the individual's location in the institution. The important point is that one's early experiences largely shape the direction one goes in life. The process of cumulative advantage and disadvantage serves as a good illustration of the importance of entry portals in careers. Theoretically, early resources and recognition in science leads to more resources and recognition and a lack of resources and recognition inhibits the receipt of rewards and recognition later in the career.

Life courses are also gendered by expectations and opportunity structures, resulting in different experiences for men and women (Moen 2001). While previous research has shown clear gender differences in the prevalence and patterning of work (e.g. Han and Moen 1999; Williams and Han 2003), gender may not play as prominent a role in this study. The women in this sample survived and persevered; they are "survivors" (Cole 1979). Relatively fewer women than men have historically earned Ph.D.s and pursued academic careers in part due to the stronger self-selection effects for women than men (Adler 1976; Baird 1990). Women who seek graduate training may be especially driven, competent, and committed to the pursuit of the Ph.D. and scholarly careers compared to their male counterparts, which may

serve to level out the playing field. The scholars whose careers and experiences are the focus of this investigation are somewhat exceptional because they all completed graduate school *and* because they succeeded in publishing in leading scholarly journals.

Finally, life course research also highlights the social interdependency of human lives (Elder 1995). At any given point, individual lives are linked to the lives of others in ways that have consequences. Such relationships often mean that individuals occupy many roles that have the potential to interact with one another. These may be described as “role-sets,” that is one’s role as a faculty member takes different shapes depending on whether one is interacting with students, colleagues, administrators, etc. (Merton 1957). Or, this may be thought of more broadly as separate roles of faculty member and parent, for example. A worker may have to leave work to care for a sick child or an individual may make career decisions based on his family life as well as his work life. In these ways and many others, lives are multidimensional and linked to others. Lives are not one-sided, and the life course approach highlights the importance of considering the multiple, intersecting nature of roles. I focus on work roles throughout this dissertation and also consider parent and spouse roles.

## DATA

I draw on three sources of data in my examination of careers and scholarly work in criminology in the post-WWII era. I began with a dataset containing 1,612 crime and crime control articles published in leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993 that were authored by 1,012 scholars. These data are rich in that they contain detailed information on the substantive, theoretical, and methodological content of the articles. They are sparse regarding information about the scholars who authored the articles, containing

only the information that can be gleaned from the article itself. So, from a sample of authors in this dataset, I conducted surveys to collect educational, career, and family histories. I also conducted in-depth interviews with a yet smaller group of authors in the article dataset.

Together these data enable me to look at careers longitudinally and consider the influences of institutional and historical contexts on careers.

## CHAPTERS

I analyze careers and scholarship in criminology in four empirical chapters. I provide an overview of my data and methods in Chapter 2. I describe the three sources of data in detail, compare the surveyed sample to the population of authors, and introduce analytic techniques.

In the empirical chapters, I take different approaches to modeling temporality in careers. I

analyze both stages (Chapters 3 and 4) and patterns (Chapters 5 and 6) of careers and contributions to scholarly knowledge, using a variety of methods to capitalize on the

strengths of these data. In **Chapter 3**, I examine a set of measures that represent the socializing experience of graduate school. I consider cohort membership, gender, and

graduate department differences in assistantship opportunities, relationships with advisor,

and scholarly work. I use graduate school experience measures in **Chapter 4** to help

understand the allocation of first positions out of graduate school. I use literature in the

stratification of science to frame this examination of initial post-Ph.D. placement and

experiences during the first six years of the career. I consider specifically if (and how) the

allocation of first positions was different during periods of expansion and contraction in

higher education. In **Chapter 5**, I extend the analyses in Chapter 4 by examining patterns of

career mobility. I incorporate ideas about academic labor markets movement within and

between institutions, focusing especially on the relationship between origin and destination institutions as well as broader conditions that may affect opportunities for mobility. **Chapter 6** is the final empirical chapter, in which I draw heavily on life course themes, analyzing work and family trajectories to understand the most common pathways of scholars. This approach reveals the timing and nature of changes in both work and family life and their intersections. Together, my analyses tell a story of the careers of scholars whose work shaped the direction of criminology in changing social, historical, and institutional context.

## CHAPTER 2: DATA AND METHODS

I draw on three sources of data and use a variety of methods to understand the changing nature of careers and scholarship in criminology in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The first source is the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. It identifies the population of male and female first authors whose careers and scholarship I examine. The dataset provides detailed information on the substantive, theoretical, and methodological content of their criminological work that is published in highly visible and prominent journals between 1951 and 1993. The second data source is a set of in-depth interviews conducted with a sample of 37 men and women whose work is represented in the article dataset. The interviews were semi-structured and aided in the development of a survey I conducted. Finally, the *Career Trajectories and Scholarship Survey* includes career histories and additional information for a sample of 445 first authors represented in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. I employ a number of multivariate methods to examine these data including binary and multinomial logit models, repeated event history models, and latent class analysis, which I describe briefly below.

### CRIMINOLOGICAL SCHOLARSHIP CONTENT ANALYSIS DATASET

This article-level dataset is based on content analysis of the population of 1,612 crime, criminal law, and crime control articles published in nine leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993. A relatively large number of general sociology journals were included as thematically relevant articles are relatively rare here, selecting the top four journals in terms of citation frequency (Allen 1990): the *American Journal of*

*Sociology* (N=78)<sup>6</sup>, the *American Sociological Review* (N=134), *Social Forces* (N=85), and *Social Problems* (N=75). Five journals were selected that specialize in criminology or criminal law issues, all were leading in terms of reputation among scholars (Shichor, O'Brien, and Decker 1981): *Criminology* (N=579), *Journal of Criminal Justice* (N=116)<sup>7</sup>, the criminology section of the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology* (N=55), *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency* (N=336), and *Law and Society Review* (N=156). Seven of these journals were associated with or supported by major professional associations throughout or, in one case, at some point during the study period.

From these journals, all research articles or presidential addresses that dealt with crime, delinquency, or social control, including criminal law and justice, directed at crime or delinquency in the contemporary United States were selected and analyzed. Two graduate research assistants specializing in the sociology of crime and social control content analyzed the articles. Intense coder training resulted in high inter-coder reliability.<sup>8</sup> Thus, the full dataset contains the entire population of thematically relevant articles in the nine leading journals (N=1,612). Since the initial data collection, the dataset has been augmented by additional information: the degree granting institution of first authors, the year the degree was conferred, and the institutional affiliation at the time of publication.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> The N relates to the total number of articles analyzed from each of these journals. We included relatively many sociology journals, as the number of specialty journals is small in the early period, and as the number of articles on issues under consideration is relatively small in general sociology journals.

<sup>7</sup> The *Journal of Criminal Justice* was later succeeded by *Justice Quarterly* as the official journal of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. The latter journal is not included in our analysis because its publication began late in our study period (1983), and it was not reflected in the ranking that underlies our selection (Shichor, O'Brien, and Decker 1981).

<sup>8</sup> While rates of coder agreement were not initially recorded, an inter-coder reliability check with students who had not undergone coder training yielded high levels of agreement (political funding: 96%; topical focus: 81%; theories: 97%; recidivism: 85%; drug issue: 87%; white-collar crime: 98%).

<sup>9</sup> For additional detail about the nature of this dataset see earlier publications (e.g. Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004).

The first authors whose work is represented in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset* comprise a highly selective group. They published at least one piece of crime-related scholarship in high ranking journal outlets. Publishing in mainstream academic journals is competitive and the number of scholars who produce a large number of papers is extremely small (Price 1986). The unit of analysis in this study is the individual scholar who was the first author on one or more pieces of crime-related scholarship in a leading sociology or criminology journal published between 1951 and 1993. The population is 1,012 unique first authors of 1,612 such articles. Each first author published at least one and up to 12 articles in the journals examined during the time period studied. This population, then, is not representative of all scholars of crime and crime control, but it does allow me to examine patterns in the careers and scholarly work of scholars in changing social, historical, and institutional contexts whose work shaped the field of criminology. I refer to this group of scholars as criminologists, broadly defined, because of their roles as first authors on scholarly articles focusing on crime-related issues.

#### IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS WITH SCHOLARS OF CRIME AND CRIME CONTROL

Between 2002 and 2005, I conducted 37 in-depth interviews with scholars whose work is represented in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. The interviews were conducted at professional meetings where large numbers of scholars are concentrated in the same location for a few days. Thus, to be interviewed, scholars had to have published an article in a leading sociology or criminology journal on a crime-related issue and had to attend the professional meetings where I interviewed scholars between 2002 and 2005.

I conducted interviews at three major professional meetings where scholars who publish crime-related work in leading sociology and criminology journals participate: Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS), American Society of Criminology (ASC), and American Sociological Association (ASA). I attended the ACJS and ASA annual meetings once each and the ASC annual meetings three times (see Table 2.1). The ASC meetings, more so than ACJS or ASA, draw scholars who study crime-related issues from a variety of disciplines and types of institutions.

In my selection, I recruited a heterogeneous group of respondents in terms of gender and year the Ph.D. was earned. Both men and women who earned their highest degrees in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s were interviewed. Early sets of interviews were geared towards developing a sense of the factors driving careers and scholarship to assist in the design and development of my survey. Broad questions were asked to assess what career and scholarship changes were important to respondents and how they made sense of them. Over time, the nature of the interviews changed to focus on the development and progression of careers, especially the link between careers and scholarship.

#### CAREER TRAJECTORIES AND SCHOLARSHIP SURVEY

I collected survey data from first authors of the articles contained in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. The article dataset contains detailed information on the content of the scholarship, but only limited information on the authors of the articles. The purpose of the survey was twofold. The time period covered by the article dataset spanned periods of major social, historical, and institutional change. An examination of the effects of these changes on careers and scholarship was the first motivating factor. The



second goal was to more thoroughly understand the roles of individual and institutional factors in the production of scholarly knowledge. The resulting dataset, based on the survey allowed for an investigation of the effects of cohort membership, gender, and institutions on careers and scholarship.

I selected for participation only first authors of the articles represented in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. I expected that first authorship was more indicative of an intellectual commitment to criminological scholarship in the case of two or more authors. In addition, to carry out a study on first authors in addition to all collaborators was beyond the scope of this dissertation. Such efforts would have required additional time and financial resources.

The survey was designed to gather information on each first author's education, professional career, scholarship, and family. The interest in understanding the effects of cohort membership, gender, and institutions at various career stages (Chapters 3 and 4) and modeling career mobility (Chapter 5) and trajectories (Chapter 6) facilitated the collection of primarily retrospective data. I collected respondents' educational, employment, marital, and fertility histories. I asked them about their relationship with their graduate school advisor, professional opportunities, work interests and priorities, institutional climate, and work and family integration. Questions regarding scholarship were generally broad in nature due to the detailed information on scholarship in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. Nonetheless, data were collected on the crime-related themes on which the respondent published, important scholars and themes while the respondent was in graduate school, and productivity.

## COLLECTING CONTACT INFORMATION

The search for up-to-date contact information for first authors was conducted over the course of three months during the summer of 2005 using a variety of methods (see Table 2.2 for a summary). Of the 1,012 unique first authors in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*, over seventy percent were identified as living and contact information was collected. Professional membership directories<sup>10</sup> of the major criminology (American Society of Criminology and Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences), sociology (American Sociological Association), and socio-legal (Law and Society Association) associations aided in efficiently retrieving reliable contact information. About 60 percent of the addresses were collected using these sources. The remaining 40 percent of addresses were obtained through internet searches. In many cases, a search on the authors' first and last names (and middle initials where applicable) resulted in links to personal and/or institutional web pages where contact information was provided. In other instances, an institutional affiliation would follow an author's name but not provide a personal or institutional web page. I followed leads like these until they were exhausted. The last-resort internet searching method entailed using any information I had on the author including name and the state of last known institutional affiliation to search *People Pages*.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> Because the journals in which my pool of potential respondents published were criminology and sociology outlets, I relied on membership directories from the major professional associations of criminologists and sociologists: American Society of Criminology (ASC), American Sociological Association (ASA), Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (ACJS), and Law and Society Association (LSA). The ASC has a web-based membership directory which is updated regularly from which contact information was gathered. This was the first membership directory I searched because it likely contained the most recent contact information for individuals listed. I then turned to the published version of the ASA 2003 Directory of Members. This was followed by the 1993-1994 membership directory of the ACJS. Finally, I used the LSA membership directory from the mid-1990s. In addition, the internet was used as a source to confirm and/or update the address from the dated ACJS and LSA membership directories.

<sup>11</sup> People Pages (<http://find.person.superpages.com/>) are part of Super Pages (<http://www.superpages.com/>) provided by the company Verizon. Using People Pages, one can search nationwide for addresses using First Name, Last Name, and/or Location. This method is clearly limited because not everyone chooses to have their phone number and/or address published.

The internet also aided in the identification of first authors who were deceased. In a small number of cases, internet searches yielded obituaries of scholars which included the date of passing. More systematically, I searched ASA obituaries for all scholars whose contact information was still unattained. I also searched death records for the remaining scholars.<sup>12</sup> Overall, my searches for contact information yielded addresses for 73.4 percent of 1,012 unique first authors of crime-related scholarship in leading sociology and criminology journals published between 1951 and 1993.

### *Collecting Survey Responses*

Survey data collection occurred from October 2005 to March 2006. I used a modified version of the Tailored Design Method (Dillman 2000), which has secured high response rates from general and specific populations. Dillman's method emphasizes the importance of regularly scheduled follow-up contacts with respondents. The respondents in my study were initially invited to complete a web-based survey hosted by the Division of Research and Computing Services at the University of Minnesota. Each person was provided with a unique user identification number and password in letters I sent inviting them to participate. Respondents were also given the option of requesting a paper copy if it would be more convenient for them (see Appendix A-E for respondent contact materials and survey).

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<sup>12</sup> Some assumptions were made in searching death records. I used the year the highest degree was earned and subtracted thirty years to obtain an estimated birth year for respondents whose name appeared in the death records. Because death records provide the year of death and the age at death, I determined whether my estimated birth year was close enough to the calculated birth year based on information from the death record to assume that I had indeed found the death record for the correct person. For people with unique names, my level of certainty was higher and I was more likely to assume that I had found the death record of the correct person if the birth years were within two to three years of one another. For more common names, I was very unlikely to assume the person was dead unless the birth years were very close and I had a middle initial to increase my certainty that I had identified the correct person. Because the scholars who authored work in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis* dataset earned their highest degrees between 1925 and 1992, I am quite certain that I have underestimated the number of authors in the dataset who were deceased by the time of data collection even given the likelihood of false negatives in my identification of deceased authors.

Dillman's (2000) recommendation for maximizing survey responses includes an initial contact, followed by a postcard reminder one week later, an additional contact three weeks later, and a final contact seven weeks later. I modified this approach to accommodate the specifics of this study. First, I substituted an additional letter for the postcard reminder. Printing user identification numbers and passwords on postcards would allow respondents to be linked to person-specific identification numbers and thus violate confidentiality. Second, the three initial contacts encouraged respondents to complete the web-based survey. The final mailing included a paper copy of the survey along with a request for respondents to participate in the study.

The study time frame was carefully selected because many of the individuals in the sample are academics. The fall semester was selected over the summer months under the assumption that most academics regularly receive campus mail during the semester when they have teaching and service commitments compared to the summer months when being on campus is often not required. The four contact attempts were made between October and December of 2005. The first three mailings included invitations to participate in the web-based study and specific information regarding how to access the survey. Each letter was personally addressed with unique user identification numbers and passwords. The final mailing included another letter encouraging participation, a paper copy of the survey, and a preaddressed, postage-paid return envelope. Each potential respondent who had not yet participated in the study and for whom I had phone or email information was then contacted one additional time to encourage participation. I began with phone contacts, though very few respondents were reached. While I left many voice mail messages, few responses were obtained with this method. The seeming ineffectiveness of this strategy led me to contact the

remainder of the respondents by email. A summary of the contacts made and responses received at each stage in the process are included in Table 2.3.

The efforts described above yielded a 64 percent response rate; calculations are summarized in Table 2.4. I treat the individuals from whom I have not received any correspondence either in the form of a completed survey or a request to be removed from the study as non-respondents for the purposes of calculating the response rate. Those individuals for whom I received letters back because of wrong addresses are excluded from the calculation of the response rate.

### *Sample Representativeness*

A major concern about survey responses is the representativeness of the sample. This is also a concern in this study, specifically the extent to which survey respondents are a good representation of the population of first authors of crime-related articles published in leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993. Accordingly, I make comparisons between these groups based on measures of sex, year of highest degree, number of articles published, journal outlet, and topic of publication, measures which are available for the majority of first authors in the original article-level dataset (see Table 2.5).

The population represents all of the first authors whose work is represented in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. The first authors of crime-related scholarship in the article-level dataset are primarily male (86.0%) and the mean year of highest degree completion was 1970. They contributed 1.59 articles on average to the dataset and published the majority of their work in specialty journals (75.49%). The substantive

nature of their research was generally either criminal behavior or crime control focused, and less often they published on both criminal behavior and crime control topics (13.74%).

The characteristics of the survey respondents are displayed in the “Sample” column of Table 2.5. The 445 survey respondents were primarily male (83.60%) and the mean year the highest degree was earned was 1973. They published on average 1.7 articles each in the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset*. Over three-quarters of the authors published only in criminology journals (76.18%), 13 percent published only in sociology journals, and 10.79 percent published in both sociology and criminology journals. Finally, the majority of authors published only on crime control (56.40%) or criminal behavior (26.97%), while many fewer published on both topics (16.63%).

Comparisons based on these characteristics of the population and sample yield marginal differences between the sample and the population. The only characteristics on which sample members differ significantly from the population is regarding the year of the highest degree. Sample members are significantly younger than the population as a whole by approximately three years on average. My search for author contact information and notification received from my survey mailings indicated that 87 members of the population were deceased by the time the survey was conducted in 2005. In addition to known deaths, it is also possible that additional members of the population could have been deceased by the time the survey was distributed. Professionally younger scholars may also have been more visible and easier to find to the extent that they are still active in professional life, resulting in a professionally younger sample.

More detailed descriptive statistics on the year of highest degree of population and sample members shows precisely which members of the population were less likely to

respond to the survey. Sample members were less likely than members of the population to earn their highest degrees between 1925 and 1960 than the population (9.20% versus 17.60%, respectively). Conversely, sample members were more likely to earn their highest degrees in more recent years (48.35% of respondents versus 39.56% of the population earned their highest degrees between 1975 and 1992).

## METHODS

I employ a variety of methods appropriate to the nature of the data to maximize the strengths of the datasets. All analyses were estimated in Stata, Version 9.0 (StataCorp 2005). I use ordinary least squares regression for continuous outcome dependent variables in Chapter 3. The formula is as follows:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ik} + \dots + \beta_K x_{iK} + \varepsilon_i,$$

Where  $y$  is the dependent variable, the  $x$ 's are independent variables, and  $\varepsilon$  is an error term.  $\beta_1$  through  $\beta_K$  are coefficients that indicate the effect of a given  $x$  on  $y$ , and  $\beta_0$  is the value of the dependent variable when all independent variables are zero. I interpret the coefficients directly as the effect of a one-unit change in the independent variable on the dependent variable.

Most of the data had discrete outcomes, lending themselves to the use of categorical data analysis techniques. I describe the methods briefly here rather than throughout the text to avoid repetition. In chapters 3, 4, and 5, I use binary logistic regression, which is suited for data where the outcome measure is dichotomous. Binary logistic regression models are of the same form as the linear regression model specified above. However, in contrast to the additive, linear model, the binary logistic regression model is multiplicative, indicating the

relationship of the  $x$ 's to the probability of an event. Multinomial logistic regression models are an extension of binary logistic regression models. Multinomial logistic regression models allow for more than two categories in the dependent variable of interest. Models comparing each set of categories can be estimated and interpreted as binary logistic regression models. Throughout, I interpret the results for both binary and multinomial logistic regression models as odds ratios, comparing two categories on the independent variables with respect to the dependent variables in the case of dichotomous independent variables and interpreting the effect of a one unit increase in the continuous independent variable on the dependent variable.

To examine institutional mobility in Chapter 5, which can involve any given individual changing one or more jobs over the course of the career, I organized the data into job pairs. In contrast to other analyses, this particular method entails examining job pairs rather than individuals. Respondents who did not change employers during the study period contributed one observation to the analysis, while individuals who moved one time contributed two observations to the analysis. For the respondent who moved once, the first observation contains the movement from the first to the second position and the second observation is censored. Each respondent contributes one observation that is censored. That is, the respondent could have changed positions after the period under examination. Respondents contributed between one and nine observations.

Event history analysis is designed for longitudinal data, but is typically used to examine events that only occur once during the observation period. These data, which can contain several jobs per respondent, require using discrete time event history analysis for repeated events (Allison 1995) a variant of event history analysis. I specify binary logit



models in the case of dichotomous dependent variables and multinomial logit models in the case of multi-category unordered dependent variables.

The organization of data in job pairs enables the estimation of the likelihood that an individual will leave an institution or change jobs within a specific institution. The event of interest (changing institutions or jobs within an institution) can only occur at discrete points in time in these data (years). By analyzing job pairs rather than individuals, I consider the effects of time-varying covariates such as marriage, children under 18 in the household, and publication during a particular employment spell among others which may change over time as well as covariates that do not change such as cohort membership, gender, and type of graduate program. Dependency among multiple observations is a concern in these analyses because many of the respondents contribute two or more observations to the analysis. However, options available in Stata allow for specification of within-group correlations. Clustering the data by individual creates the assumption that cases are independent across individuals but not within individuals. In addition, Stata calculates robust standard errors (Huber/White), thus producing more conservative model estimates.

Finally, I use latent class analysis to examine career trajectories, capitalizing on the availability of career and family history data (Chapter 6). This method maximizes the use of available data, using relationships between observed indicators to generate latent classes, which here represent distinct career trajectories in the data. Latent class analysis generates two parameters of interest: latent class probabilities and conditional probabilities. Latent class probabilities indicate the number and relative size of each latent class represented in the latent variable, which sum to one (McCutcheon 1987). Conditional probabilities represent the probabilities that individuals are at particular levels of the observed variables and also sum to

one. Using conditional probabilities, we can depict visually the dominant sequences, timing, and nature of work and family career patterns in the data. For these analyses, the data are organized in a year by year format for each respondent and odd years between one and twenty-nine are included in the model. I refer to the fifteen time points as  $A, B, C, \dots, M, N, O$ , each of which has four categories for both work and family measures. The four categories are indexed separately at each time point by  $aa, bb, cc, \dots, mm, nn, oo$ , respectively. Let  $\pi_{aa, bb, \dots, oo}$  denote the probability that a person is in cell  $(aa, bb, \dots, oo)$  of the cross-classification of the four work roles at the fifteen time points. The latent class model with  $M$  latent classes is, then,

$$\pi_{aa, bb, \dots, oo} = \sum_{M=1}^M \pi_X(m) \pi_{A|X=m}(aa) \pi_{B|X=m}(bb) \dots \pi_{O|X=m}(oo),$$

where  $\pi_X(m)$  is the probability that  $X = m$ , and  $\pi_{A|X=m}(aa)$  is the conditional probability that time point  $A$  is at level  $aa$ , given that latent variable  $X$  is at class  $m$ ; the other conditional probabilities are defined similarly. The researcher estimates several latent class models (in this case,  $M = 1, \dots, 8$ ) and adjudicates between models as described in further detail in Chapter 6 where I provide examples to illustrate.

### *CHAPTER 3: GRADUATE SCHOOL EXPERIENCES*

For those earning advanced degrees, graduate training is a major time investment. Graduate school is an intense period of socialization often lasting five or more years. Participants familiarize themselves with a body of knowledge, acquire skills, and learn the norms and values of the profession for which they are preparing. This chapter examines how gender, cohort, and institutional location are related to graduate school experiences, including employment and training opportunities, years in graduate school, relationship with advisor, and scholarly productivity. It serves as a baseline for examining the careers and scholarly work of criminologists in the rest of the dissertation. To that end, this chapter begins with a brief discussion highlighting previous theory and research on graduate school education and socialization. Literature directly related to the issues examined here is discussed and hypotheses are developed. Finally, results of the analyses are presented and discussed.

#### GRADUATE SCHOOL SOCIALIZATION

Socialization occurs throughout human life in a variety of institutions including the family, schools, and the workplace (Levinson 1967). Socialization teaches new members of groups the “values, norms, knowledge, beliefs, and the interpersonal and other skills that facilitate role performance and further group goals” (Mortimer and Simmons 1978: 422). Through this process, individuals learn how to act in specific contexts. At the same time as individuals are experiencing socialization, they are also active agents in the process. They make decisions about the options available to them during the socialization process that contribute to shaping their experiences.

While most Americans have attended educational institutions, many fewer have pursued advanced degrees and experienced graduate school socialization. Like other periods of education, advanced educational training prepares students for specific professional roles (Austin 2002; Gottlieb 1961; Levinson 1967). Graduate school has been referred to as “one of the most intense socializing experiences American society provides” (Katz 1976:107). Recipients of doctoral degrees are often socialized to become faculty members at educational institutions, especially those trained in the social sciences. During graduate school, a foundation is laid that is built upon throughout the rest of the professional career (Shaw 2005). Students learn the “normative context” (Weidman, Twale, and Stein 2001:iv), in this case the academic craft, consisting of research, service, and teaching on the way to becoming participating members of their disciplines (Boyer 1990). They become conversant in the canonical works of their disciplines, learn the processes for conducting research, and engage in professional life, all in preparation for the next stage of their careers.

The linking of advanced education and adult socialization is well-established (Becker, Geer, Hughes, and Strauss 1961; Kuh and Thomas 1983; Bragg 1976; Stark, Lowther, Hagerty, and Orczyk 1986; Thornton and Nardi 1975). Advanced education serves the interests of both the individual and the organization by preparing the individual being socialized for a career and the group by training the individual in a way that serves the group’s interests. As such, the socialization and experiences that occur during graduate school should be relevant for the rest of the professional career. Conflicts between individual and group interests are, of course, also endemic.

Weidman, Twale and Stein (2001) propose an interactive, nonlinear model of professional socialization. Their model considers both the core socialization experience

within the university and the influences of factors outside of the university, including the individual's background, family and friends, and professional communities. It captures the complexity of graduate school socialization by emphasizing its interactive, continuous, and developmental nature.

While all graduate students undergo an intense period of socialization, the graduate school experience is standardized only to a certain extent. Importantly, there are different types of institutions (e.g. departments) and categories of people (e.g. cohorts, genders). Departments within universities have their own curricula and philosophies for training graduate students. Socializing institutions thus vary across universities and within universities across departments (Weidman, Twale and Stein 2001). Both disciplines and departments contribute to the differentiation of socialization during graduate school. Furthermore, the range of possible experiences changes over time as new types of departments emerge (e.g. criminology and criminal justice) and the goals of graduate education change. Adding to the complexity, people in the same department experience their training based on their social statuses (e.g. gender, race, class).

Importantly for this study, experiences may be related to gender, especially to the extent that for much of the study period, organizations were adapting to the feminization of institutions of higher education. Institutional factors affecting graduate school experiences also vary over time (cohort) and across place (department). In short, "graduate students experience socialization processes that reflect their chosen discipline, the structure and sequence of their academic program, and their university setting" (Weidman, Twale, and Stein 2001:v). This chapter thus investigates the patterning of graduate school experiences by cohort membership, gender, and department affiliation.

## OPPORTUNITIES IN GRADUATE SCHOOL

### *ASSISTANTSHIP OPPORTUNITIES*

Many graduate students hold teaching assistantships, research assistantships, and/or instructorships during graduate school which provide them with financial support as they pursue advanced studies. Assistantship opportunities help to offset graduate school expenses and allow students to earn a living while pursuing their studies full-time. At the same time, assistantships serve as a source of professional socialization, giving them opportunities to “apprentice” as academics (Girves and Wemmerus 1988:170). Assistantships facilitate participation in research, publication, and professional presentations (Breneman 1975) as well as contact with faculty (Gottlieb 1961; Sheridan 1991; Girves and Wemmerus 1988). While assistantships often serve as a socialization mechanism, they also provide institutions with an affordable, capable source of labor (Hinchey and Kimmel 2000). The nature of these opportunities may vary by institution, time, or department.

Assistantships often facilitate the development of different skills, both of which are relevant for students who will become faculty members. Teaching assistantships and instructorships help prepare graduate students for classroom teaching roles. As teaching assistants, students assist professors with teaching responsibilities such as grading papers and/or exams, developing assignments and/or exams, and fielding student questions outside of the classroom. Graduate student instructors are typically more independent, setting the classroom agenda, choosing the material that the course will cover, and delivering the material to undergraduate students. Both graduate teaching assistants and instructors learn the expectations of the teaching role and developing their own expectations for the role. Such

classroom experience can be very helpful for those who enter faculty positions upon completion of the Ph.D., facilitating the development of skills and comfort in the classroom and easing the transition from student to faculty member (Sprague and Nyquist 1989). Research assistantships, on the other hand, entail working with a faculty member on a faculty-initiated research project. Typically there is one-on-one contact between the faculty member and student, thus facilitating relationships, developing research skills, and possibly publishing scholarly work. Students who hold research assistantships versus teaching assistantships or instructorships develop different skills, but are more likely than those without such support to be actively engaged in their departments where graduate student socialization occurs (Girves and Wemmerus 1988).

Most empirical research has focused on the relationship between gender and assistantship opportunities, and findings are inconsistent. Some report very similar assistantship opportunities for men and women (Berg and Ferber 1983; Nettles and Millett 2006). Yet, others have found that graduate assistantships are related to gender in both their receipt (Centra and Kuykendall 1974; Adler 1976) and nature (Brodsky 1974; Adler 1976). According to these studies, men are more likely than women to have any assistantship opportunities and research assistantships in particular. Based on the weakly established relationship between gender and graduate assistantships, I propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3.1: Women should be less likely than men to have teaching assistantships (3.1a), research assistantships (3.1b), and instructorships (3.1c).*

Yet, these differences may be moderated by cohort membership and department. To the extent that the availability of assistantships is related to the institutional development of a field and research funding, I would expect the following differences to exist:

*Hypothesis 3.2: Teaching assistantships (3.2a), research assistantships (3.2b), and instructorships (3.2c) should be a more common experience in established fields compared to specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice.*

I state this hypothesis cautiously as criminology may be an exception due to the role of federal funding in its development. Part of criminology's emergence as an independent unit within universities was due to great demand for teaching at the undergraduate level. As such, graduate students in criminology may have had heightened opportunities for instructorship positions, especially the younger scholars trained in the 1970s and 1980s.

#### *RELATIONSHIP WITH ADVISOR*

Relationships with faculty members are among the most important forms of social capital for graduate students (Hartnett 1976; Lovitts 2001; Girves and Wemmerus 1988). Successful progression through one's program is often related to the cultivation of a personal as well as professional relationship with one's advisor (Committee on Science, Engineering, and Public Policy 1997). Advisor support, especially during the dissertation research and writing phase of graduate school, is crucial for the completion of the program (Lovitts 2001; Tinto 1993). Yet, this relationship may also be among the most disappointing aspects of the graduate school experience (Katz and Hartnett 1976), especially for women who perceive poorer relationships with their advisors and committee members than men (Seagram, Gould, and Pyke 1998). Recent work suggests that a lack of mentoring is still a problem; nearly thirty percent of doctoral students lack a solid relationship with a faculty member, which, for example, has implications for both degree completion and productivity (Nettles and Millett 2006).



Prior research has examined the effect of same-sex and same-race matches between advisors and students on advisor-student relationships (Berg and Ferber 1983; Goldstein 1979; Nettles and Millett 2006; Clark and Corcoran 1986). Because women have been historically underrepresented as faculty members, female graduate students searching for same-sex advisors are at a disadvantage compared to men, which is problematic to the extent that students form closer professional relationships with same-sex faculty (Berg and Ferber 1983). Relationships with advisors, which ranged in quality, may also contribute to cumulative disadvantages for women with academic careers to the extent that these relationships have consequences for careers (Clark and Corcoran 1986). The underrepresentation of women as faculty members has been problematized in previous research, and comparisons of same-sex relationships with sex-differentiated relationships are not possible with the quantitative data in this study.<sup>13</sup> While I do not explicitly address the sex-match between advisor and student, the nature of the relationship between student and advisor is considered. If same sex dyads do indeed lead to more positive interactions between student and advisor, I should expect the following:

*Hypothesis 3.3:* Women should feel less support from their advisors than men.

Yet, the academic climate may have improved over time for women as women have become better represented as faculty members and students. To the extent that this is the case, we should expect the following:

*Hypothesis 3.4:* Women in the first cohort should feel the least support from their advisors compared to women in the second cohort and men in the first or second cohorts.

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<sup>13</sup> Only four percent of my respondents reported having female advisors. Seven percent of the women in my study had advisors who were also women, whereas 97 percent of men in my study had advisors who were also men. Controlling for same-sex match between student and advisor is not feasible in this study because of the small number of respondents who had female advisors.

I augment the quantitative data with illustrations from my in-depth interviews to further understand men's and women's relationships with advisors during graduate school.

#### *GRADUATE SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS*

In addition to considering the perceived nature of the relationship between student and advisor, I also examine patterns of co-authorship with advisors. Co-authored papers with faculty members often result from research assistantships or informal collaborative relationships (Lovitts 2001; Nettles and Millett 2006). Through collaboration with faculty, graduate students "...learn the formal and informal art of the trade..." (Lovitts 2001: 146). Collaborative efforts provide graduate students with experience in the research and publication process, potentially improving their position on the academic job market. Yet, women are less productive than men in graduate school (Seagram, Gould, and Pyke 1998). Female graduate students are more likely to collaborate with female mentors (Reskin and Hargens 1979; Long 1990), which is partially related to their lower productivity in graduate school in the absence of widely available female faculty mentors (Nettles and Millett 2006).<sup>14</sup>

*Hypothesis 3.5: Men (3.5a) should be more likely to co-author a publication with their advisors, and the relationship may be partially explained by having research assistantships (3.5b) and positive relationships with advisors (3.5c).*

While gender may not directly affect collaboration, family circumstances do affect the likelihood of collaborating with advisors. Specifically, the effects of marriage and children on collaborating with one's advisor are insignificant for men, but strong for women who are less likely to collaborate if they have children and more likely if they are married (Long

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<sup>14</sup> An increase in the number of years spent in graduate school and better relationships with advisor were also both related to research productivity in graduate school (Nettles and Millett 2006).

1990). This is especially problematic because gender differences in productivity are mediated by collaboration (Long 1990), suggesting the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3.6:* Women with children should be less likely to collaborate with their advisors than men.

Furthermore, to the extent that publishing during graduate school has become increasingly common, younger scholars should be more likely to have co-authored publications, including publications in leading journals. I propose the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 3.7:* Men (3.7a) and members of the younger cohort (3.7b) should be more likely than women and members of the older cohort to publish on a crime-related issue in a leading sociology or criminology journal during graduate school.

#### *YEARS IN GRADUATE SCHOOL*

The time to completion of the doctoral degree has been studied extensively with an emphasis on understanding the factors that affect the speed of completion (e.g. Nettles and Millett 2006; Abedi and Benkin 1987). Evidence is mixed regarding the existence and prevalence of gender differences. Of particular concern here are the effects of family life and relationship with advisor that may contribute to gender differences in time to completion.

Graduate school attendance often occurs during the same stage in the life course when individuals enter the roles of spouse and parent. These roles are often complementary for men, but may conflict for women (Feldman 1973). While having a spouse or partner in the household decreases the amount of time it takes to complete graduate school, having children increases the time it takes to completion (Nettles and Millett 2006; Abedi and Benkin 1987). In particular, women cite the burden of childcare responsibilities as increasing

their time to degree completion (Maher, Ford, and Thompson 2004). These findings suggest the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3.8:* Respondents, especially women with children, will spend more time in graduate school than those without children.

## DATA AND MEASURES

### *DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS*

This chapter draws on the *Career Trajectories and Scholarship Survey* data and data from the *Criminological Scholarship Content Analysis Dataset* described in Chapter 2. I include only the respondents from the survey dataset who earned doctoral degrees<sup>15</sup> and who had complete information on cohort membership, gender, and graduate department<sup>16</sup>, the three main independent variables in this chapter's analyses. This yields a sample of 400 respondents.

I examine the graduate school experience among criminologists belonging to two scholarly cohorts who were trained in four types of graduate departments. Men and women in the sample were trained either before or after the institutionalization of criminology and the changing gender composition of criminology. They earned their highest degrees in specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice, sociology or psychology departments, and "other" departments. The specific departments that fall into these broad categories are listed in Appendix F. The *Career Trajectories and Scholarship Survey* asked respondents about a variety of graduate school experiences, including employment and

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<sup>15</sup> Five respondents did not report the type of highest degree earned. Twenty-eight respondents are excluded because they did not earn a Ph.D.

<sup>16</sup> Twelve respondents are excluded because they had missing data on either cohort membership, gender, or type of graduate department.

training opportunities, relationship and co-authorship with advisor, amount of time spent in graduate school, as well as important criminological themes during graduate school. Table 3.1 presents statistics describing the prevalence of each experience by cohort membership, gender, and graduate department. I describe the graduate school experiences of cohort and gender groups and department types separately and incorporate in-depth interview material.

The respondents whose careers and scholarly work are examined in this chapter were trained between 1950 and 1996. They are divided into two cohorts based on the period during which they earned their highest degrees.<sup>17</sup> The first cohort (48%) earned their highest degrees between 1950 and 1974; the second cohort earned their highest degrees between 1975 and 1996 (52%). Men in the sample are about evenly divided between the two cohorts, while 74 percent of the women earned their Ph.D.s after 1974. Women comprise 8.9 percent of the first cohort, and their representation increased to 23.6 percent in the second. This reflects their growing presence in higher education and their contributions to mainstream criminological work. Men were more likely than women to be married and have children during graduate school. This tendency, however, has decreased among the younger respondents; 29.3 percent of the younger cohort had children during graduate school as opposed to 46.4 percent of the older cohort. This difference is likely attributable to the larger demographic change in the increase in the age at first marriage throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

We see a marked increase in Ph.D.s conferred to respondents trained in specialty programs as the number of criminology and criminal justice departments grew (83.3% of specialty program-trained respondents were members of the younger cohort). This is also reflected in the percent of respondents trained in each type of department by cohort; 4.7

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<sup>17</sup> More information on how the cohorts were delineated is included in Chapter 1.

percent of the first cohort was trained in specialty departments compared to 21.6 percent of the younger cohort. The percent of respondents trained in sociology was largely unaffected by this shift, though psychology and “other” programs trained fewer of those in the younger cohort. The descriptive statistics suggest that the increase in training in specialized departments translated into a decrease in training in both psychology and “other” departments among criminologists. Women had the largest relative representation in specialized departments at 25.9 percent although 45.5 percent of them earned degrees in sociology programs. The majority of men were also trained in sociology programs (57.8%). This difference is likely the result of the availability of specialty programs when more women were seeking advanced training rather than preferences women have for criminology over sociology.

The length of time spent in graduate school varied little among men and women though members of the younger cohort spent slightly less time in graduate school (5.7 years) compared to members of the older cohort (6.0 years).<sup>18</sup> This may be partly related to being in graduate school continuously without taking a break (76.3% of the younger cohort compared with 70.7% of the older cohort). Respondents trained in psychology spent the most time in graduate school (6.2 years) and were also the most likely to be in graduate school continuously (79.3%).

In terms of funding opportunities, for example holding assistantships or having the opportunity to hold them, there are marginal differences by cohort membership and gender.

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<sup>18</sup> Respondents were asked to list all of their degrees and the years they were earned. Not all respondents did this with the same degree of detail. To account for these differences, I constructed a set of five dummy variables to specify what degrees and (possible) gaps in training are included in the years in graduate school calculation. These variables are included in the multivariate analysis predicting number of years in graduate school, to control for reporting differences. These reporting differences should also be taken into consideration when comparing the estimates of years spent in graduate school in this sample to other samples because the amount of time spent in graduate school may be underestimated in this study.

Women and members of the younger cohort are more likely than men and older respondents to have research assistantships during graduate school. Having an instructorship during graduate school was the least common among all respondents. Differences occur, however, based on the type of department in which respondents were trained. Respondents earning degrees in sociology had the most teaching (62.3%), research (52.9%), and instructor (26.0%) opportunities. Many of the specialty department-trained respondents had research assistantships (46.3%) and instructor (22.2%) opportunities, likely reflecting both the availability of research funds for criminological work and the demand for undergraduate training in criminology and criminal justice. Overall, more of those trained in sociology and psychology had some kind of (as opposed to no) financial support compared to those trained in specialty and “other” departments.

On the majority of the dimensions characterizing the respondents’ relationships with advisors, differences are small. On all measures of the relationship with the advisor, members of the second cohort gave more favorable reports in terms of emotional support, use of power or leverage for the respondent’s benefit, and intellectual exchange than their older counterparts. This is reflected in the percentages on each individual measure and in the summary scale of relationship with advisor<sup>19</sup>. The most substantial gender difference is in terms of intellectual exchange; 87 percent of men reported moderate, much, or very much intellectual exchange with their advisors while only 72.7 percent of women did. Those trained in sociology and psychology departments report receiving slightly more emotional support from their advisors (62.7% and 65.3%, respectively) than those trained in specialty

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<sup>19</sup> Respondents rated their advisors in terms of emotional support, use of power or leverage for the respondent's benefit, and intellectual exchange. These three items were combined into a summary scale to measure the relationship with the advisor overall. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient, which measures how well a set of items measures a latent construct, was .73.

(55.6%) and “other” (58%) departments. Yet, scholars trained in specialty departments report advisors using power or leverage for their benefit to a greater extent (55.6%) than those in all other departments. Overall, respondents overwhelmingly rated their advisors most favorably on intellectual exchange.

Co-authorship with one’s advisor provides an additional indicator of the relationship between student and advisor. Co-authored articles included in this measure may or may not be synonymous with the publications on crime-related issues in leading sociology and criminology journals based on which this sample was selected. More men (34.8%) than women (25.8%) collaborated with their advisors on published scholarship, and 39.9 percent of respondents in the younger cohort published with their advisors compared to 26.2 percent of those in the older cohort. Finally, those trained in psychology departments report collaborating with their advisors during graduate school more so than those who received training in any other department.

Publication in a leading journal during graduate school tells us about the early productivity of respondents. Women were slightly more likely (16.7%) than men (13.6%) to publish in a leading journal during graduate school as were members of the younger cohort (19.7%) compared to those in the older cohort (8.3%). This suggests an increasing tendency to publish early in the career over time. Consistent with this line of thinking, respondents trained in specialty departments (22.2%), and thus almost exclusively in the later time period, were more likely than those trained in all other departments to have a publication in a leading journal during graduate school. Recall that criminology and criminal justice programs emerged later than departments in established fields and that the majority of publications examined here come from specialty journals which would likely be the primary publication



outlet for scholars of crime and crime control. Overall, publication in a leading journal during graduate school was achieved by only a small percentage of respondents.

## RESULTS

As indicated earlier, the intent of this chapter is to understand how gender, cohort, and department affiliation affect the graduate school experience. I use measures of graduate school experience as controls in later chapters where I examine subsequent aspects of careers. In each of the multivariate analyses presented here, specialized departments are omitted to understand how the graduate school experience changed with the institutionalization of criminology.

### *ASSISTANTSHIP OPPORTUNITIES*

The in-depth interviews highlighted the importance of financial support in graduate school. The availability of financial support affected decisions regarding where to attend graduate school and the research respondents engaged in once in graduate school. A male scholar who completed his master's degree, taught for one year at a university, and then left to earn his Ph.D. described how he decided where to attend graduate school (Respondent 031104.01:11). He identified two scholars with whom he wanted to work and applied to the universities where they were teaching. He said:

I applied to both, and I got an assistantship at [university 1] and I didn't get anything—I got accepted, but nothing at [university 2], so that made our choice (Respondent 031104.01:13).

He was married by the time when he was applying to graduate school and earned his Ph.D. in the early 1970s. Financial support was the primary factor in deciding which school he would

attend and where he and his wife would move. Another male scholar applied to Ph.D. programs at three universities and was accepted without funding to all three. Finishing up his senior year as an undergraduate and expecting to attend graduate school in the fall in sociology, he described his situation:

I didn't have any funds, didn't have any money. So I didn't know what I was going to do...The Dean of criminal justice decided to offer a fellowship to anyone on the Wilson list<sup>20</sup> who would come and study criminal justice (Respondent 031104.02:2).

He earned his Ph.D. in criminal justice from the institution that offered him the fellowship despite planning to study in a different area of sociology. A female scholar tells a similar story about the effect of funding that took place in a different historical context. Though she wanted to study criminology, she wound up studying in a different area of sociology. She earned a Master's degree in the early 1960s and taught for a few years after which she decided to return to school for a Ph.D., which she earned in the late 1960s. She said:

I didn't have any money to go to school. They offered me a [omitted] sociology fellowship so I did my Ph.D. in [another field] not in crim, although I was very interested in crim. But they didn't have money at that time (Respondent 112103.02:5).

Clearly she sought training before the widespread expansion of criminology. Yet, like others she studied in a field of less interest to her because of the availability of financial assistance. These passages illustrate the impact of funding on the decision of where to attend graduate school and the field of study. Contrasting the experiences of the male scholar who studied criminal justice and the female scholar who did not study criminology shows how quickly demand for scholars in criminology changed in the 1960s. The female scholar began her

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<sup>20</sup> The massive support from the Ford Foundation for Woodrow Wilson Fellowships was largely discontinued in 1967. Fellows continued to be identified, but support was only provided for a small number of them (Leitch 1978). The respondent reports that the assumption was that Wilson Fellows would be funded by institutions (Respondent 031104.02:2).

Ph.D. program in the early 1960s, before funding for criminology had become readily available, and the male scholar began graduate school in 1968 when criminology was becoming increasingly more visible in higher education.

The in-depth interviews illustrate that financial support during graduate school is important for both financial and intellectual reasons. I examine patterns of funding receipt in the form of graduate assistantships in the quantitative data. Because respondents could have held more than one type of financial support during their graduate school years, teaching and research assistantships and instructor positions are examined separately. The data are coded such that respondents either did or did not have each kind of opportunity while they were in graduate school. Accordingly, I use binary logit models (Table 3.2), which allow us to understand how cohort membership, gender, graduate department, and family circumstances affect the likelihood of having each of the opportunities.<sup>21</sup>

I expected to find gender and graduate department differences in the types of funding respondents received during graduate school. The results show no significant differences between men and women either when controlling for cohort membership, graduate department, and family circumstances<sup>22</sup> or when only gender was included in the model (results not shown). These findings suggest that men and women similarly held teaching, research, and instructorship opportunities. Graduate department differences were also largely absent in contrast to my expectations that respondents trained in criminology/criminal justice would have fewer opportunities (*hypotheses 3.2a-3.2c*). Only sociology-trained respondents

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<sup>21</sup> My primary goal is simply to understand if and how the availability of graduate school employment opportunities differ by cohort, gender, and graduate department. There is a rich literature critiquing these forms of employment in relation to their contributions (or lack thereof) to the professionalization experience, especially teaching opportunities.

<sup>22</sup> I ran these models with interactions between gender and cohort membership and none of the coefficients for the interaction terms were significant. The coefficients and accompanying p-values for the models in Table 3.2 are as follows: Teaching assistantship ( $b=.38, p=0.541$ ); Research assistantship ( $b=.55, p=0.383$ ); Instructorship ( $b=1.35, p=0.225$ ); No opportunities ( $b=-.03, p=0.963$ ).

had higher odds (2.59) of holding teaching assistantships than criminology/criminal justice-trained respondents. Regarding gender and graduate department differences, the results show few differences in the types of assistantships respondents held, suggesting the similarity of graduate school experiences.

For a number of respondents, research assistantships served not only as a source of funding but as an experience that introduced respondents to criminology or reinforced their interest in crime-related issues. A male scholar trained in sociology in the 1970s at a university with criminology as a specialty described becoming involved in a crime-related project, primarily as a methodologist, despite never having taken a criminology class (Respondent 111804.03:1). He said:

Getting involved in a project on drug use seemed very interesting, and I got really steeped in it, immersed myself in the literature on deviance and crime...so I took a seminar in justice and just kind of drifted into doing more and more research on it (Respondent 111804.03:1).

His research assistantship piqued his interest in drug use, which he further developed through coursework. This interest, coupled with poor labor market conditions, led to a career in criminology (Respondent 111804.03:1). For another male scholar trained in sociology in the late 1970s, coursework led to an interest in criminology; an intellectually stimulating research climate heightened his interest (Respondent 111402.02:2). He said:

The intellectual atmosphere was very strong—brown bags, seminars. Graduate students were always there working on projects, hanging out...the graduate student experience was...perhaps bigger than maybe some people assume and doesn't exist perhaps in some other times (Respondent 111402.02:2-5).

The emotional energy (Collins 1998) produced by a group of scholars with similar interests coming together regularly was inspiring for this research assistant. Neither of these

respondents planned to be criminologists, yet their project-related experiences facilitated their careers in this area.

By contrast, other respondents knew that they wanted to study criminology, and assistantships confirmed their interests. A female scholar who spent some time working between her master's degree and Ph.D. said that she returned to graduate school "because [she] wanted to do her own research" (Respondent 111804.01:2). Based on her work experiences, she knew what area of criminology she wanted to study, and she identified the institution she wanted to attend (Respondent 111804.01:2). She received a research assistantship when she entered graduate school, which further solidified her interest in sociology of law, the area in which she would specialize. She worked closely with her advisor as a research assistant and published with him (Respondent 111804.01:3). In her experience, having a research assistantship, a good relationship with her advisor, and publishing with her advisor were tightly bound together.

#### *RELATIONSHIP WITH ADVISOR*

In Table 3.3, I present analyses that consider the respondent's relationship with his or her advisor. The specific measure of intellectual support from one's advisor has two categories: little and very little are collapsed into one category as are moderate, much, and very much.<sup>23</sup> Consistent with my expectations (*hypothesis 3.3*), Model 1 shows that women are .28 times as likely as men to report receiving much intellectual support from their

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<sup>23</sup> Models regressing the advisor summary scale on key independent variables result in poor model fit, suggesting that none of the coefficients are significantly different from zero and the model does not do well explaining the outcome of interest. Similarly, models predicting emotional support and the advisor's use of power or leverage for the respondent's benefit did not yield good model fit. This also indicates that the independent variables considered (cohort membership, gender, graduate program, and family circumstances) do not distinguish between the respondents who perceived receiving and not receiving support from advisors.

advisors. Members of the later-trained cohort, in which women are more than twice as likely to be, have significantly higher odds of receiving intellectual support from their advisors. A gender-cohort interaction in Model 2 reveals no significant differences between men and women by cohort membership ( $b=.12, p=0.87$ ) contrary to *hypothesis 3.4* that women in the earlier-trained cohort would perceive less support from their advisors compared to men in their cohort and more recently-trained respondents. In Model 3, I consider whether women with children report receiving less intellectual support from their advisors. Indeed having children in graduate school reduces perceived intellectual support from advisors for women compared to men. Differences between women and men without children and men who do and do not have children are not significant.

The in-depth interviews provide further insight into the gendered nature of advisor-advisee relationships, especially the importance of historical context. A female scholar trained in the early 1970s did not "...perceive barriers and problems based on gender because [she] always did fine" (Respondent 112103.03:2). There were no female criminologists in her department though she found an advisor who:

...in a general way allowed me to do the kind of things that I wanted to do but yet he provided a lot of good support (Respondent 112103.03:2-3).

She had good support, but missed out on the opportunity to work with one male scholar because of sexual harassment concerns. She said:

People wouldn't even take his class. You not only had to avoid that one, but you missed out on the opportunity to actually be taught by him because you knew it was that bad (Respondent 112103.03:4).

She actively sought out faculty members who would treat her in a gender-neutral way.

Another female scholar trained in the late 1970s and early 1980s was also sexually harassed during graduate school by a faculty member with whom she was working. As the lead

research assistant for the scholar with whom she initially worked when she began graduate school, unwanted sexual advances nearly ended her career:

[We had]...a bit of a falling out over the fact that I would not sleep with him...I ended up dropping out [of graduate school] when it was clear that I...just wasn't going to be able to manage [the situation] (Respondent 112103.01:3).

Graduate school was a lengthy and emotionally challenging process, partially because of the sexual harassment issues she faced. She returned to graduate school, encouraged by a faculty member in the department she left, and received great support from other male faculty members. In short, women had to work harder to find faculty members with whom to work than men did; men just did not face gender-related issues as women. A male scholar trained in the 1970s, speaking about how his advisor encouraged him to stay in graduate school during his first year despite having serious thoughts about leaving, said:

He hired me to work on a research project...and he became my dissertation advisor ...he helped keep me employed, and, in addition, he provided a lot of emotional support... [He] was like a sounding board, a motivator, and a role model all at once (Respondent 031004.02:2).

While this respondent did not publish with his advisor, the relationship was crucial to the respondent for both financial support and encouragement. Another respondent was one of few students his advisor had (Respondent 111402.01:2). They worked closely together, and he learned how to conceptualize problems, how to write. They never published together or had an enduring, close relationship, but this training was invaluable even if not intentional.

#### *LENGTH OF TIME IN GRADUATE SCHOOL*

The results presented in Table 3.4 consider the association between cohort, gender, graduate department, family circumstances, and years spent in graduate school. The baseline

model (Model 1) reveals that neither cohort membership, gender, nor graduate department significantly affect the amount of time spent in graduate school. Model 2 controls for being in graduate school continuously, having no funding opportunities in graduate school, and being married and having children. Being in graduate school continuously decreases the years spent in graduate school by 1.59 years while having children increases the years it takes to finish graduate school by .66 years. Model 2 was run with an interaction term to address *hypothesis 3.8* in which I expected women with children to spend more time in graduate school. The interaction was not significant ( $b=.34, p=0.625$ ) indicating that men and women with children do not take significantly different time to completion compared to their counterparts without children in the home.

#### *GRADUATE SCHOOL PUBLICATIONS*

Table 3.5 reports the results of three models predicting publishing with one's advisor based on collaborative research done in graduate school. In the first model, both cohort membership and gender are significantly related to co-authorship with one's advisor in the directions expected (*hypotheses 3.5a*); specifically, men and members of the later-trained cohort were more likely to co-author a publication with their advisors. A cohort membership-gender interaction term (model not shown) was not significant ( $b=-.11, p=0.881$ ), indicating that there was no difference in the likelihood of publishing with one's advisor for women trained in the earlier versus the later cohort. Model 2 tests *hypothesis 3.5b* regarding research assistantships partially explaining the likelihood of publishing with one's advisor.<sup>24</sup> As expected, respondents who held research assistantships were 2.84 times as likely to publish

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<sup>24</sup> Note that this is a measure of whether or not the respondent ever held a research assistantship. It does not indicate whether the respondent was his or her advisor's research assistant.



with their advisors as those who did not have research assistantships. The inclusion of research assistantship in the model does not substantially change the cohort and gender effects on the odds of publishing with one's advisor.<sup>25</sup>

The final model (Model 3) includes controls for the respondent's relationship with his or her advisor, the number of years spent in graduate school, and family circumstances. I expected that perceiving a more supportive relationship with one's advisor would increase the odds of co-authorship with the advisor, which it does by 40 percent for each one unit increase on the advisor summary scale (*hypothesis 3.5c*). The data lend no support for *hypothesis 3.6* that women with children will be less likely to co-author with their advisors than men with children (results not shown).

Table 3.6 displays the results of an additional analysis of scholarship during graduate school, specifically publishing a crime-related article in a leading sociology or criminology journal.<sup>26</sup> Model 1 yields poor model fit, indicating that cohort membership, gender, and graduate department have little explanatory power. Model 2 shows that when controls are included members of the more recently-trained cohort have higher odds of publishing their crime-related work in leading journals during graduate school compared to their earlier-trained counterparts in support of (*hypothesis 3.7a*). The data do not support *hypothesis 3.7b* that men are more likely than women to publish crime-related articles in leading sociology and criminology journals during graduate school. The results do suggest, however, that each additional year spent in graduate school increases the odds of publishing 16 percent and that those respondents who are married have odds 2.19 times higher than those who are not

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<sup>25</sup> An interaction term between cohort membership and gender was not significant ( $b=-.26, p=0.738$ ).

<sup>26</sup> Because so few respondents published during graduate school, I do not have sufficient cases with which to conduct multivariate analyses on the topics examined or theoretical approaches employed.

married to publish a crime-related article in a leading sociology or criminology journal during graduate school.<sup>27</sup>

#### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In this chapter, I set out to establish a baseline of cohort membership, gender, and graduate department differences in the socialization experiences of my sample of criminologists. Findings from the survey coupled with illustrations from the in-depth interviews convey patterns in the receipt and importance of funding, relationships, and scholarly work in preparation for the rest of the career. Cohort differences are the most pronounced, highlighting the importance of historical and institutional context for graduate school experiences. At the same time, the in-depth interviews suggest aspects of the graduate school experience that are clearly gendered. I highlight the main findings.

The majority of respondents received some type of financial support during graduate school in the form of assistantships, which provided opportunities for professional socialization. In particular, research assistantships facilitated the development of human capital by exposing students to the research process before embarking on their post-Ph.D. careers and created opportunities for collaborative publications with advisors (and social capital). Previous work has talked about the importance of assistantships for graduate students (Girves and Wemmerus 1988; Breneman 1975; Sheridan 1991), and these findings highlight the direct influence, especially given the greater likelihood of graduate students who hold research assistantships to publish with their advisors. In-depth interviews reiterate

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<sup>27</sup> Cohort membership-gender interactions were not significant for either model in Table 3.6. The coefficients and p-values are as follows: Model 1 (b=-.22, p=0.776); Model 2 (b=.056, p=0.937).

the significance of research assistantships for piquing the intellectual curiosity of students and facilitating the development of relationships with faculty members.

Previous research has highlighted the importance of graduate student relationships with advisors (Hartnett 1976; Lovitts 2001; Committee on Science, Engineering, and Public Policy 1997; Katz and Hartnett 1976) as do these data. My findings suggest increased levels of intellectual support received from advisors for later-trained scholars compared to their earlier-trained counterparts. By contrast, they show no differences in levels of emotional support or the use of power or leverage for the respondent's benefit. This is significant because graduate training is an intellectual journey on which intellectual support is crucial for socialization as an academic. Respondents who perceived receiving more support from their advisors were also more likely to publish with their advisors, though holding a research assistantship is a stronger predictor of co-authorship with one's advisor. A trend toward publishing earlier either with advisors or as first authors in leading journals is also evident, perhaps pointing to the growth and increasing specialization of the academic enterprise.

The findings suggest that the issues surrounding women's relationships with faculty may have changed over time though they still exist. For example, later-trained women I interviewed did not find themselves up against dominant cultural scripts about the types of jobs women in the academy should hold or the types of institutions in which they should work. Yet, sexual harassment and discrimination were issues they faced, even in developing professional relationships with faculty members. Despite overall higher perceptions of intellectual support from advisors, women still perceived poorer relationships with their advisors than men beyond the effects of cohort membership. This is problematic for many reasons, but especially since academia is an intellectual enterprise.

Finally, the length of time respondents spent in graduate school depended on whether respondents had gaps in their educational careers and whether they had children before completing their degrees. Continuous pursuit of the Ph.D. decreased the time it took to completion by about one year, on average. On the other hand, having children increased the amount of time spent in graduate school for both men and women compared to men without children.

The role of gender in graduate school experiences is relatively small in terms of typically measured aspects of graduate school, yet stronger regarding often unmeasured experiences and subjective evaluations of graduate school. The women in this sample were resilient despite working in “chilly” climates (Hall and Sandler 1982). They persevered despite perceiving less support from their advisors, especially in terms of intellectual support, being less likely to co-author scholarship with their advisors, and circumventing sexual harassment and discrimination in professional life. The extent to which these experiences resulted in consequential differences in social and human capital is not discerned from these analyses. I delve into these issues in Chapter 4 where I examine entry portals in careers and early career experiences.

## *CHAPTER 4: EARLY CAREER*

### INTRODUCTION

Following completion of doctoral degrees, Ph.D. recipients typically begin their careers in academic institutions (Thurgood, Golladay, and Hill 2006). Most of them remain in academic institutions, engaging in the tasks of the professoriate, namely teaching, research, and service, for the duration of their careers (Boyer 1990). Yet, not all academics engage to the same extent in these three primary types of activities, which are differentially emphasized and rewarded in the various types of academic institutions. The varied weight given to these activities in different types of institutions in part shapes the types of scholars people become. For example, where research is prioritized, scholars will publish their findings and ideas. Where teaching is emphasized, scholars will concentrate their efforts on being a good teacher. The relative importance of different tasks in different types of institutions essentially creates multiple academic markets and, consequently, multiple careers (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986; Youn and Zelterman 1986; Allison and Long 1987).

The settings in which Ph.D. recipients are employed are either academic (e.g. colleges and universities) or non-academic. This simple distinction masks the complexities characterizing both types of employment; the professional expectations of individuals working in academic and non-academic institutions are different, and even within each setting there are differences.<sup>28</sup> In academia, institutions are organized hierarchically and differentiated by the extent to which teaching and research are emphasized. Research is most highly valued in top tier institutions and teaching becomes increasingly emphasized further down the academic hierarchy. Because of the stratified nature of higher education (Caplow

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<sup>28</sup> Because only 12 percent of respondents in my sample began their careers in non-academic institutions, I focus primarily on literatures that speak to job allocation processes in academia.

and McGee 1958; Crane 1965; Jencks and Riesman 1968; Clark 1983; Smelser and Content 1980), initial placement in the academic hierarchy is at least partially related to career success (Caplow and McGee 1958; Cole and Cole 1973). The varying degrees of emphasis on research (and teaching simultaneously) in these institutions and the ways in which such specialization of efforts limits career opportunities are the key elements for understanding institutional mobility (Chapter 5) and career pathways (Chapter 6). Therefore, this analysis, based on quantitative and qualitative data, centers on the allocation of first positions of Ph.D. recipients and on the implications of institutional conditions for scholarship in the first six years of scholarly careers.

This chapter builds on the analyses in Chapter 3 by examining the effects of graduate school experiences on early career outcomes. I bring together life course research on careers and literature on the allocation of first positions to highlight the importance of examining the first position and the consequences for scholarly work. I consider the linkages between graduate school and early career experiences while also considering the key independent variables of cohort membership, gender, and graduate institution. Specifically, I ask 1) Who takes faculty positions out of graduate school?; 2) What distinguishes the types of institutions and departments in which people get their first jobs?; 3) Are there patterns in the tendencies for scholars to publish their research in specialty versus sociology journal outlets?

## BACKGROUND

Inequality in academia is created and reinforced by processes of accumulation of advantage and disadvantage (Merton [1942] 1973; Cole 1979). Advantages begin accumulating in graduate school and continue over the course of the career (Long 1990).

Individuals who obtain first positions in institutions with many resources, whether social, intellectual, or financial, have an advantage over colleagues in institutions with fewer resources. Resources, especially time for the production of scholarly knowledge or lack thereof, are crucial for understanding how careers unfold given the heavy emphasis on research for obtaining rewards in academia. Over the course of careers, these relative advantages accumulate resulting in greater inequality than existed at the outset of the career (Cole 1979), thus limiting opportunities for mobility and setting people on a career path (Allison and Long 1987).

The initial job placement of Ph.D. recipients has been described as a “funneling process” (Cole 1979:7). While most Ph.D.s are conferred from institutions at the top of the academic hierarchy, research-oriented institutions make up only a small percentage of all academic institutions. Accordingly, most academic careers are carried out in institutions of lower rank than the institutions from which the Ph.D.s were conferred (Cole 1979; Smelser and Content 1980; Cartter 1976), especially during difficult labor market conditions (Caplow and McGee 1958). Therefore, downward mobility as one moves from the Ph.D. granting institution into one’s first post-Ph.D. position is generally the rule rather than the exception, a trend which has become increasingly prominent in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in a weaker academic labor market (Baldi 1994; Youn 1988a).

According to Merton ([1942] 1973), the process by which people get sorted into positions at various levels of the academic hierarchy should be governed by the norm of universalism.<sup>29</sup> To the extent that universalism is a guiding principle, the allocation of first positions should be determined by merit. Candidates should be evaluated like “truth-claims,

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<sup>29</sup> Universalism’s antithesis is particularism, which is the allocation of rewards and resources based on ascriptive criteria such as gender or race, even prestige of the doctoral granting institution.

whatever their source, ...[by] *preestablished impersonal criteria*" ([1942] 1973: 270). Those who are most able are expected to obtain positions in top ranking institutions, while others find employment in lower ranked research and teaching institutions (Cole 1979), especially in more difficult labor markets (Youn 1988a). However, the norm of universalism is thus not upheld in its purest sense (Long and Fox 1995).

In the absence of information, the evaluation of job candidates on universal criteria may quickly be replaced by evaluation based on functionally irrelevant criteria (Cole 1979; Cole and Cole 1973; Reskin 1979). For example, typically lacking established reputations based on publication record, graduate students are often evaluated based on the prestige of the doctoral granting department (Caplow and McGee 1958; Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979; Long and McGinnis 1981; Youn 1988a; Smelser and Content 1980). Candidates trained in more prestigious departments are typically evaluated more favorably than those trained in less prestigious departments (Crane 1970; Long 1978; Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979; Lewis 1996). Top-tier institutions are most selective, primarily recruiting students from other top-tier institutions to join their faculties (Caplow and McGee 1958; Cartter 1976; Crane 1965; Youn 1988a; Baldi 1994).

There are two competing explanations of the strong effect of graduate department prestige on scholarly careers (Allison and Long 1987; Caplow and McGee 1958; Crane 1965; Hargens and Hagstrom 1967; Cole and Cole 1973; Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979). The first interpretation is that doctoral training at prestigious institutions provides graduates with a competitive advantage in academic labor markets (Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979). Graduates from strong departments are looked upon more favorably as a result of their



training and sponsorship of scholarly elites (i.e. institutional halo effects) (Turner 1960; Baldi 1994; Caplow and McGee 1958). This suggests:

*Hypothesis 4.1:* Being trained at a top-tier institution will lead to positions higher in the academic hierarchy.

By contrast, “contest mobility” links career achievement to individual abilities (Turner 1960). This competing interpretation suggests that the instruction students in top-tier institutions receive may be of higher quality than that received by those trained in lower-ranked institutions, thereby resulting in differences in scientific capital. Specifically, scholars trained in higher ranked institutions may have more scientific capital than those trained in lower ranked institutions (Bourdieu 1975). To the extent that graduates of prestigious institutions have more scientific capital, hiring committees still base their hiring decisions on perceived potential rather than demonstrated ability through publication. Even considering early productivity, empirical evidence suggests that, at best, scholarly productivity and institutional prestige have equal effects on the first position (Hargens and Hagstrom 1967; Cole and Cole 1973). Accordingly, I propose:

*Hypothesis 4.2:* Publishing an article in a leading sociology or criminology journal during graduate school will have similar effects on obtaining a first position in a Research 1 institution as coming from a top-tier institution.

In addition to understanding how graduate training institutions, early productivity, and gender affect the allocation of first positions, the specific historical context is also relevant in this study. The growth of higher education in the 1960s and early 1970s<sup>30</sup> that occurred primarily in two- and four-year institutions created many vacant faculty positions. However, these positions were concentrated in institutions that did not train doctoral students and, therefore, were lower-ranked institutions than those from which newly minted Ph.D.s

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<sup>30</sup> See Chapter 1 for a more detailed discussion of the historical context.

earned their doctoral degrees. This growth period was followed largely by a period of stagnation and limited academic job opportunities. Job searching during a period of expansion meant job seekers could be more selective than those entering a poor academic labor market. Institutions were also able to be more selective in a difficult labor market, resulting in considerable mobility down the academic hierarchy for new graduates (Baldi 1994; Youn 1988a). These specific conditions suggest the relevance of cohort membership in the allocation of first positions.

*Hypothesis 4.3:* Members of the younger cohort (trained 1975-1989) should be more likely to take positions in lower ranked institutions than members of the older cohort (trained 1950-1974).

Despite the overall slowed growth of higher education, criminology continued to expand and develop programs, but usually in two- and four-year institutions. The growth in the number of scholars being trained in specialized programs of criminology and criminal justice combined with the availability of positions in this field suggests a concentration of criminology/criminal justice trained scholars in undergraduate institutions.

*Hypothesis 4.4:* Criminology and criminal justice trained scholars should be disproportionately more likely to take positions in lower ranked institutions than scholars trained in other fields.

Because skills are not equally transferable between academic institutions, between academic and non-academic positions, and because knowledge is so often discipline-specific, the first positions Ph.D. recipients hold have implications for the rest of their careers (Lewis 1996), including career trajectories and scholarly work. For example, individuals whose first positions are in top-tier institutions where there are resources for research are likely to have more publications than those in lower ranked institutions. Because rewards from publications generate recognition on a larger scale than teaching rewards, moving down the academic

hierarchy is more likely than moving up the academic hierarchy (Rosenfeld 1984; Youn and Zelterman 1986; Parsons and Platt 1973). Furthermore, when rewarded scholars obtain additional resources, which can be used to earn more rewards, the process of cumulative advantage is at work. Therefore, to the extent that the initial position dictates the everyday work tasks of faculty members and performance on research tasks determines mobility, career experiences and trajectories are strongly influenced by the first position.

## DATA AND MEASURES

### *DATA*

Beginning with the 400 respondents whose graduate school experiences were analyzed in Chapter 3, forty-four respondents are excluded from this analysis because they did not provide information on their employment histories. This information is necessary for the construction of the dependent variables. Therefore, I present the analyses for the 356 respondents who received a Ph.D. and who reported sufficiently complete career histories. It is possible that the respondents who did not provide their career histories had less familiar careers; they may have been more mobile, have begun their careers in non-academic settings, or had career paths that they thought may have identified them as respondents. Lacking data on career histories, however, it is not an empirical question that can be addressed here.

### *MEASURES*

Table 4.1 describes the relationship between the key dependent and control variables and the key independent variables of cohort membership, gender, graduate department, and graduate institution. “Graduate institution” is created based on the 1987 Carnegie

Classification rank of the institution from which the respondent earned his or her Ph.D.

Because all respondents earned Ph.D.s at doctoral granting institutions, a distinction is made between Research 1 and non-Research 1 institutions.

### *First positions*

The majority of respondents (79.3%) began their careers in faculty positions in academic institutions (Table 4.1).<sup>31</sup> The exception to this pattern is respondents trained in psychology departments of whom only 43 percent took faculty positions out of graduate school. Men (79.3%) were slightly more likely than women (71.4%) to take faculty positions out of graduate school, which may be related to more women than men being members of dual-earner families. Dual-earner couples are less likely to relocate for a better job opportunity for wives than husbands (Bibley and Bielby 1992; Pixley and Moen 2003).

The type of institution in which respondents began their first positions as a faculty member appears at least partially related to cohort membership, graduate department, and graduate institution. This is significant because individuals tend to get “tracked” into certain types of jobs, which have consequences for mobility and scholarly productivity. Respondents in the earlier cohort are more likely to begin their careers in Research 1 institutions (40.0%) compared to respondents trained after 1974 (26.6%). This may reflect the massive growth of higher education, especially criminology, at the undergraduate level. Similarly, respondents trained in specialized (criminology and criminal justice) programs are much more likely to begin their careers in non-Research 1 institutions (84.2%) than respondents trained in other

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<sup>31</sup> While previous studies have made distinctions between types of non-academic employment (Long and McGinnis 1981), the number of respondents working non-academic institutions at any given time point is too small to warrant such detail.

departments. Finally, 41.5 percent of respondents trained in Research 1 institutions and only 12.5 percent of those trained in non-Research 1 institutions began their careers in Research 1 institutions, which is consistent with ideas regarding the funneling of Ph.D. recipients down the academic hierarchy (Cole 1979). Most respondents took positions in institutions of lower rank than the institutions where they were trained.

The majority of respondents in this study and in the subsample of respondents who took faculty positions immediately following graduate school were trained as sociologists. The predominance of sociologists decreased slightly from 61.7 percent of the first cohort to 51.5 percent of the younger cohort as the number of criminology-trained respondents increased three-fold to 30.3 percent of the later-trained cohort. The representation of respondents trained in psychology and “other” departments who publish in leading sociology and criminology journals also declined from the earlier-trained to the later-trained cohort. Women, who are disproportionately members of the younger cohort, are somewhat more likely than men (23.7% versus 19.6%) to begin their careers in specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice and less likely to take positions in sociology departments (47.4% of women versus 57.9% of men). Over 75 percent of respondents took positions in the same type of departments in which they were trained. Among those who did not, there were differences in the fields into which they move. There is little movement into specialized programs except among sociologists (12.9%), little movement into “other” departments, and no movement into psychology. Sociology is the most open, attracting almost 10 percent of respondents from each of criminology/criminal justice, psychology, and “other” departments.

### *Personal Lives*

For many, completing the Ph.D. and navigating the first six years of their careers was accompanied by changes in family life. These variables are included primarily as controls such that any differences in early career outcomes will account for being married or having children. Though the majority of respondents were married by their early career years, fewer women (66.1%) were married than their male colleagues (79.3%), and respondents in the more recent cohort were still slightly less likely to be married (74.2%) than those in the older cohort (80.6%). Gender and cohort differences related to the presence of children are much more pronounced. Considerably more men have children in the home (68.0%) than women (44.6%) by the end of the first six years of the career. The same applies to members of the older cohort (70.6%) compared to members of the younger cohort (58.6%). The gender differences may be related both to decreasing fertility over time and the decision to forgo or delay childbearing because of perceived conflict between work and home. The cohort differences may be related to declining fertility and exaggerated slightly by the greater representation of women, who are less likely to have children, in the younger cohort.

### *Scholarly work*

Published scholarship is the primary yardstick against which rewards are allocated in science (Boyer 1990). The relative weight publications carry, however, varies depending largely upon institutional location and the primary responsibilities of one's position. Scholarly publication in journal outlets has increasingly become a part of academic life as the pressure to publish scholarship and the number of scholarly outlets have grown—60.7

percent of respondents in the younger cohort published at least one crime-related article in a leading sociology or criminology journal during the first six years of the career compared to half of those in the older cohort.<sup>32</sup> The greater tendency for younger respondents, women, and those whose graduate degrees were not from Research 1 institutions to publish in specialty journals is likely related to a trend toward higher productivity and the growth of specialty journals and their reputations as respected outlets for crime-related work (Allen 1990). It was fairly uncommon for non-sociology trained respondents to publish in sociology journals, which is likely a reflection of the more interdisciplinary nature of criminology compared with sociology. Respondents trained in psychology and “other” programs may have published crime-related work in the main journals in their fields where their contributions would have brought greater professional returns than publications in sociology journals given the importance of disciplinary visibility.

As a result, life course changes associated with institutional shifts should also be reflected in the substance of research. Consistent with previous work, there is a move away from criminal behavior research by more recently trained scholars (and women, which may be related to their relative professional youth) and an increase in the representation of scholarship focusing on political “hot-button” issues<sup>33</sup> of drugs and multiple offending (Savelsberg and Flood 2004; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004). Finally, those trained in non-Research 1 institutions are less likely to study criminal behavior (34.5%) than those trained in Research 1 institutions (41.7%), which may well result from changes in training,

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<sup>32</sup> Recall that all crime-related articles published in leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993 were coded based on their content, including topical and theoretical focus. The descriptive statistics regarding topic, theory, and funding source presented in Table 4.1 focus exclusively on the scholarship of respondents who published one or more articles during the first six years of their careers.

<sup>33</sup> Hot-button issues for the purposes of this discussion include those crime issues that attracted political attention. Drugs, white collar crime, and multiple offending all fall into this category.

including more degrees being conferred to members of the more recent cohort who were not trained in Research 1 institutions during a time when criminal behavior research was out of fashion (Savelsberg and Flood 2004).

In terms of theoretical orientation,<sup>34</sup> no one approach stands out as being used more often than the others, though the extent to which theories are employed by the main independent variables does vary. The shifts, for example, from learning theory to control theories most likely reflect a general shift rather than gender- or cohort-specific shifts (Savelsberg and Flood 2004). Psychology-trained respondents are unique in their use of biological theories to explain crime-related issues (22.2%). The relationship between graduate institution and theoretical orientation suggest that there may be a training effect of graduate institution. However, graduate institution may be picking up the effects of influential individuals or sets of individuals who embraced particular theoretical orientations and trained many students.<sup>35</sup>

Funding for criminological research increased in the late 1960s as crime gained national attention, and political funding in particular supported research with certain foci (see Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004). Funding often assists in the process of data collection, analysis, and writing, all in the pursuit of contributing to scholarly knowledge. The efforts of nearly half of women who published a crime-related article in the first six years of their careers (46.9%) were supported by political funding compared to just over one-quarter of men (27.7%). Respondents in the more recent cohort were more likely to publish politically-funded

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<sup>34</sup> These theories were the most commonly employed theories in the research captured in the article dataset.

<sup>35</sup> An example is Ronald Akers, a leading social learning theorist, who spent his career at the University of Florida. See also the impact of Sutherland (Laub and Sampson 1991).



research (33.6%) than members of the older cohort (27.1%) as were respondents trained in Research 1 institutions (34.1% compared to 22.4%).

## RESULTS

### *FACULTY POSITIONS*

Table 4.2 displays multivariate relationships between taking a faculty position out of graduate school and gender, cohort membership, graduate school opportunities, and family circumstances.<sup>36</sup> Each of the models show that being trained in a psychology department decreases the odds of taking a faculty position out of graduate school compared to being trained in a criminology department. None of the other independent variables, including type of graduate institution and having a publication in a leading journal, have significant effects on taking a faculty position versus non-faculty position out of graduate school. When the psychology-trained respondents are removed from the analysis, none of the coefficients are significant. The high tendencies of psychology Ph.D. recipients to work in non-academic settings is also evident in previous work (Rosenfeld and Jones 1988).

While the multivariate analyses show clear disciplinary differences regarding who takes faculty and non-faculty positions out of graduate school, the in-depth interviews help us understand some of the reasons why respondents began their careers in non-academic positions when the majority of their peers pursued faculty positions. A female scholar who was trained in criminal justice in the early 1980s described her decision to take a non-faculty position in a criminology research center after finishing the Ph.D. She said:

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<sup>36</sup> I ran all models with interactions between gender and cohort; none were significant. Coefficients and p-values are as follows: Model 1 (b=-.12, p=0.899); Model 2 (b=-0.09, p=0.918); Model 3 (b=-0.15, p=0.872); Model 4 (b=-.23, p=.817).

...my interests were clearly focused on criminological criminal justice issues, and although there are sociology departments that have large components that deal with crime and criminal justice issues, this particular center for the study of criminology and law...I thought had a lot of potential. I knew the director of the program. He talked to me about his plans for expanding and all the great things that the center was going to do, so I decided to go there rather than go to a sociology department or anywhere else for that matter (Respondent 031104.03:7).

The pull for her to take the research position was the perception that it would be an exciting place to work on substantive issues that held her attention with colleagues who shared her commitment to studying criminology and criminal justice issues. Another female scholar was given an opportunity to focus her efforts primarily on research. For her, a position at the center where she has spent her entire career

...just happened to open up, and I figured I could do research. It didn't matter what the topic was, so I took it (Respondent 112904.01:1).

In her case, the decision to take a research over faculty position was partially because she was presented with an opportunity and partially because she had confidence in her ability to do research regardless of the topic, which, in contrast, was more salient for the previous respondent. In contrast, a third female scholar described her advisor's reaction to her leaning towards a non-academic career. She said:

I struggled when I was in graduate school. I don't know if it's just a female thing, but when I told my thesis advisor...that I wasn't sure I wanted to go into academics, he was so disappointed. He said, 'You're throwing away your degree by not going into an academic path' and he was so upset with me (Respondent 1117004.02:11).

This female scholar describes feeling more uncertain about academia than the previous two women. For her, graduate school difficulties at least partially contributed to the appeal of non-academic positions. She spent her entire career outside of academia in research institutions.<sup>37</sup>

In short, these interview responses offer at least some understanding of why Ph.D. recipients in this sample did not take academic positions when the majority of their counterparts did. For some, ambivalence about careers in academia coupled with research opportunities informed decision-making, while another respondent knew she did not want an academic career. It is likely of course, but not testable here, that ambivalences and research opportunities are socially patterned.

#### *INITIAL PLACEMENT IN THE ACADEMIC HIERARCHY*

To assess the relative impact of graduate training institution and scholarly contributions on the first positions of respondents who took faculty positions, I conducted analyses to understand whether respondents *obtaining first positions in academia* were initially located in Research 1 or non-Research 1 institutions (Table 4.3). Model 1 reveals that the effect of graduate institution on the institutional type of the first position is strong, indicating that respondents trained in Research 1 institutions are 4.17 times as likely as those trained in non-Research 1 institutions to begin their careers in Research 1 institutions, lending support to *hypothesis 4.1*. Model 2 does, however, lend support for *hypothesis 4.4*

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<sup>37</sup> The selection of passages from the in-depth interviews is not intended to speak to the role of gender in first position decision making. Rather, they are used as illustrations of why some respondents did not take academic careers though the majority of respondents in this sample did.

regarding the placement of criminology/criminal justice trained scholars in lower ranked institutions than respondents trained in other types of departments.

In the full model with controls for graduate school experiences and family circumstances, being trained in a Research 1 institution remains the strongest factor affecting whether the first position is in a Research 1 or non-Research 1 institution, in contrast to *hypothesis 4.2*. Publishing in a leading journal during graduate school has no effect on whether respondents obtain faculty positions in Research 1 or non-Research 1 institutions out of graduate school. However, respondents from Research 1 institutions are 4.04 times as likely as those from non-Research 1 institutions to begin their careers in Research 1 institutions. The effects of disciplinary training in Model 2 are explained by being trained in Research 1 institutions. This finding is consistent with *hypothesis 4.4* given the disproportionate representation of specialized training programs in non-Research 1 institutions and the strong relationship between being trained at a Research 1 institution and obtaining a first position in a Research 1 institution. The data show no support for *hypothesis 4.3* regarding cohort differences in first positions out of graduate school.

The strong effect of being trained in a Research 1 institution and the non-significant effect of publishing during graduate school suggest that particularistic criteria are operating in the first position allocation process for respondents who obtained academic jobs out of graduate school. This reaffirms the common understanding that where one is trained has a significant impact on where one gets a job. While there is evidence that particularistic criteria are operating in the form of graduate training institutions, women in this sample were not disadvantaged in their initial placement in the academic hierarchy compared to their male

counterparts,<sup>38</sup> nor were respondents with family responsibilities less likely than their peers to obtain positions in Research 1 institutions.

Despite the insignificance of cohort membership in shaping the allocation of first positions, my in-depth interviews suggest that respondents who finished their graduate work and were looking for positions during the years when academic growth slowed were faced with poorer academic markets and more competition for available positions than their earlier-trained colleagues. These illustrations give us a sense of how the conditions faced by new Ph.D. recipients during both the academic boom and the slow down shaped their career opportunities. A male scholar who was trained at a Research 1 institution and earned his Ph.D. in the 1960s described how he got his first position in a Research 1 institution. He said:

When I finished the Ph.D. in [the early 1960s] the timing couldn't have been better. I had no idea. It's not like this was all planned... There was a lot of luck involved and just as I finished, the whole academic enterprise took off so that there were jobs there. I was expecting to go out and teach in a small college and enjoy genteel poverty in a small town. I didn't have any idea that I was going to make a real living at it, and I didn't really care. I really enjoyed what I was doing. But then I got a job at [a Research 1 institution] and enjoyed more money than I could imagine (Respondent 111502.02:3-4).

The opportunities available to newly minted Ph.D.s during a period of academic growth were in stark contrast to the academic market only a few years later. A respondent who earned his degree in sociology in the mid-1970s described the conditions when he was looking for his first job as “a bit slimmer” compared to just a few years earlier (Respondent 111804.03:1).

The result was a one-year postdoctoral fellowship followed by a tenure-track position.

Despite difficult labor market conditions, a woman trained at a high ranking institution, who earned her PhD in the early 1980s, was poised to accept a position in an institution that

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<sup>38</sup> Models with interaction terms between cohort membership and gender were not significant. Interaction terms were as follows: Model 1 ( $b=-.21, p=.815$ ); Model 2 ( $b=-.39, p=.661$ ); Model 3 ( $b=-.12, p=.896$ ).

would move her close to her family of origin. Before accepting, she received an invitation for an interview from a second institution. She described the circumstances:

...before I accepted it, the [institution omitted] called me up and said ‘Would you come for an interview?’ And I wasn’t going to do it because the last thing I wanted to do was go to a small town in the middle of the Midwest...but someone [in her department] said, ‘you’d be crazy not to try it.’ And so I went and um, interviewed there, and I just loved the place, I loved the department, I loved the people (Respondent 112103.01:6).

On the other hand, some women who earned their Ph.D.s during the boom in higher education but before equal rights legislation were unable to overcome gender stereotypes despite being trained in elite institutions. One female scholar who earned her Ph.D. in the late 1960s described the disconnect between her aspirations and those of her committee members. She said:

I don’t think women’s ideas were taken seriously and certainly I was not encouraged by most of the faculty to go to a high powered Research 1 university. Where they thought I should go was a small teaching college...and they said that specifically. But I didn’t do that...I followed what I wanted to do and not what their advice was (Respondent 112103.02:8).

Though she did what she wanted to do, it was not with the support of her committee members whose ideas about the types of academic institutions in which men and women should work were clearly gendered. A female scholar of the same generation had a similar experience. She said:

...if you were a woman...the faculty decided where you ought to go to school...They were sure I ought to go to a northwestern protective environment... (Respondent 112203.01:2).

Despite some of her professors suggesting the types of institutions and regions of the country where they thought she should seek positions, she had published widely by the time she finished graduate school in the late 1960s and others of her faculty members supported her

efforts to move east. A number of faculty members had written on her behalf to a department in a prestigious university to inquire about open positions. She said:

[They] didn't even get an answer. At that time you could get a letter saying 'we're not interested in females' and that was the state of affairs (Respondent 112203.01:3).

These passages contextualize the experiences of obtaining first positions, thus augmenting the quantitative data. First, market conditions shape the experience of obtaining first positions even if the outcomes are not markedly different. The experience of finding a job when the demand for faculty members was greater than the number of Ph.D.s being produced was characterized by numerous opportunities (for men). By contrast, receiving a job offer, even if it was a temporary one-year position, was encouraging in a depressed market. These experiences may also shape mobility tendencies, which I explore in Chapter 5. Second, men's experiences seem to be more closely tied to market fluctuations than women's experiences, which reflect larger norms and expectations about appropriate careers for women. For example, the passages from the two women in the earlier-trained cohort reflect a disconnect between a gendered career model on the part of the faculty who trained them and career aspirations from the women themselves. My interviews with more recently-trained women suggest that these types of barriers were breaking down by the time they were considering career paths. While the effects of market conditions and gendered experiences may not have patterned the results in the quantitative data, they were an important part of the historical and institutional context that may help us understand institutional mobility (Chapter 5) and career pathways (Chapter 6).

*FOR FACULTY MEMBERS, TYPE OF DEPARTMENT*

Table 4.4 shows the results of two multinomial logit models predicting the department affiliation of respondents whose first positions were as faculty members. Because few psychology-trained respondents took academic positions out of graduate school in departments other than psychology, I exclude them from this analysis. Therefore, I analyze the likelihood of taking a faculty position in sociology, specialty, and other departments. There is a very strong relationship between the department in which respondents were trained and the types of departments where they take their first positions out of graduate school.<sup>39</sup> After controlling for graduate department, more recently trained scholars are significantly less likely to begin their careers in sociology departments (i.e. more likely to be in specialized departments of criminology/criminal justice) than their earlier-trained counterparts. This is a reflection of the greater number of opportunities for faculty positions in criminology and criminal justice in the 1970s and 1980s when members of the younger cohort were looking for their first positions, thus illustrating the relevance of historical context for understanding differences in the career experiences of scholars.<sup>40</sup>

*PUBLICATION IN LEADING SPECIALTY JOURNAL*

The multivariate analyses presented in Table 4.5 show the results of binary logistic regression models predicting the odds of publishing in specialty journals<sup>41</sup> during the first six years of the career. Cohort membership is significant in each of the three models (Models 1-

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<sup>39</sup> Sparseness is a problem in the cross-classification of graduate department and first position department even after excluding the psychology-trained respondents, which is why some of the coefficients for graduate department are so large.

<sup>40</sup> I also ran models (not shown) with interaction terms for cohort membership and gender, but had insufficient numbers of women in the early cohort to conduct such a fine-grained analysis.

<sup>41</sup> I ran parallel models on the substantive and theoretical focus of the articles scholars published during the first six years of their careers as well. The models fit the data poorly and are therefore not presented here.



3) and indicates that more recently trained respondents are more likely to publish in specialty journals during the first six years of the career than their earlier-trained counterparts.<sup>42</sup> This is partially explained by the later emergence of specialized journals as publication outlets for crime-related scholarship. The findings also suggest the importance of the institutional and intellectual development of criminology. Respondents whose first positions were in non-Research 1 institutions were 8.98 times as likely as scholars working in non-academic institutions to publish in specialty journals. The effects are similar when comparing respondents in non-Research 1 institutions to respondents who began their careers in Research 1 academic institutions. This may reflect the disproportionate representation of scholars studying crime-related issues in non-Research 1 academic institutions. Recall that much of criminology's job growth was in two- and four-year colleges. Yet, sociology-trained respondents publish to a greater extent in sociology journals and specialty program-trained respondents publish to a greater extent in specialty journals though both groups of scholars study crime-related issues. The interaction between cohort membership and Ph.D. granting department is not significant, suggesting that the sociology- and cohort-specific differences are not related to the greater number of specialty-trained respondents in the more recent cohort. In short, these findings indicate a shift toward the publication of crime-related issues largely in specialty outlets for respondents trained between 1975 and 1989, especially for respondents who were not trained in sociology.

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<sup>42</sup> I included interactions between cohort membership and gender for each of these three models. The interaction terms were not significant, and therefore are not presented. The coefficients and significance are as follows: Model 1 (b=1.30, p=.324); Model 2 (b=.47, p=.692); Model 3 (b=.48, p=.683).

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Both the allocation of first positions and the early career publication outlets of scholars are patterned by graduate school institutional contexts and historical context. The relevance of the institutionalization of criminology with its own departments and journals is evident as are the effects of graduate institution type and disciplinary affiliation to a certain extent.

Institutional context is closely tied to the allocation of first positions. While all doctoral degree training occurs at institutions that confer Ph.D.s, there are differences among these institutions in reputation if not quality of training. Being trained in a Research 1 institution, which is generally more prestigious and higher-ranking, is nearly requisite for obtaining a faculty position in a Research 1 institution out of graduate school. This is consistent with the idea that the sorting of Ph.D. recipients into faculty positions resembles a funneling process (Cole 1979; Smelser and Content 1980; Cartter 1976). To the extent that the reputation of the institution carries greater weight than the qualifications of the individual, particularism is influencing the allocation of first positions (Crane 1970; Long 1978; Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979; Lewis 1996). This argument is further supported by the insignificance of crime-related publications in leading journals during graduate school on obtaining first positions in Research 1 institutions.

Specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice have been slow to establish advanced specialized training programs in top-ranked institutions. This is evident in these data. Respondents trained in specialized programs are much less likely than other respondents to begin their careers in Research 1 institutions. They were also less likely than

sociology colleagues to be trained in Research 1 institutions. To the extent that most scholars work in the same types of departments as they were trained, this is not problematic.

However, to the extent that they aspire to cross disciplinary boundaries and move into higher ranked institutions, they may be slightly disadvantaged by their entry portal (Caplow and McGee 1958; Cole and Cole 1973; Allison and Long 1987). Such a hypothesis will be examined in the next chapter on career mobility (Chapter 5).

While some women were encouraged to seek faculty positions below their expectations, there is no evidence of gender differences in the allocation of first positions. Rather, as in the previous chapter on graduate school, the measures examined here show that men and women obtained similar types of positions out of graduate school. However, the descriptive data indicate lower likelihoods for marriage and parenthood among women compared to men in this career stage, though differences were not significant in the multivariate models. This is consistent with previous research documenting the gendered familial differences among scientists (Xie and Shauman 2003). Chapter 5 will extend these analyses by examining the effects of gender on career mobility.

Early career characteristics were not significantly related to the substantive focus of crime-related work scholars published in leading sociology and criminology journals during the first six years of the career. Publication outlets were, however, related to institutional locations. Respondents located in non-Research 1 academic institutions were more likely to publish their research in specialized journals of criminology and criminal justice than those scholars in Research 1 institutions. In part, this is related to the different institutional locations and audiences of scholars. Criminology/criminal justice trained scholars are disproportionately located in non-Research 1 academic institutions and their audience is

other similarly-trained scholars. Sociology-trained scholars who are in non-Research 1 institutions, on the other hand, may receive greater rewards for publishing their research in sociology journals. This may account for the tendency of sociology-trained scholars to publish in disciplinary journals above and beyond the effects of their institutional locations. Nonetheless, the results suggest that the institutionalization of criminology has largely occurred in non-Research 1 academic institutions as evidenced by the disproportionate tendency of scholars in these types of institutions to publish their work in specialty journal outlets.

## *CHAPTER 5: CAREER MOBILITY*

...It's an impoverished environment and it's a teaching institution. So it got so that you were reaching into your own wallet when you wanted to go to some of these [conferences], and I can begin to appreciate the fact that some of the people who are from teaching institutions find it very difficult to attend even nearby conventions. It's very expensive for them. And because of that, they get caught in these conflicts between expectation for tenure and promotion and the ability to do meaningful work that will count, at least in putting stamps on the book that they can trade in for promotion or tenure. Environments make a difference (Respondent 030904.01:20).

### INTRODUCTION

Previous research has highlighted the importance of institutional location for scholarly productivity (Long and McGinnis 1981; Xie and Shauman 1998; Allison and Long 1987, 1990; Long 1978; Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979) and the limited effects of knowledge contributions on academic mobility (Allison and Long 1987; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). Faculty members at colleges and universities are the primary producers of scholarly knowledge (i.e. academic journal publications and books), and publications are the primary form of academic currency (Boyer 1990; Caplow and McGee 1958; Hargens and Hagstrom 1967). Yet, not all faculty members have the same time or resources available for research. The implications are critical for understanding mobility both within and between institutions, in particular upward mobility.<sup>43</sup> Considering the local institutional context and scholarly productivity along with demands in personal lives, I examine patterns of career mobility and scholarly work and their reciprocities in changing social and institutional contexts.

In 1958, Caplow and McGee described the “indelible mark” of graduate school selection on scholarly careers (1958:225). Initial employment opportunities are indeed

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<sup>43</sup> I do not examine rank advancement in the academic career. I am more interested, given the changing social and institutional conditions in which these scholars worked, in understanding the relationship between local and macro conditions and institutional and disciplinary mobility.

strongly related to the prestige of training institutions as we saw in Chapter 4. Initial institutional location sets people on a career path, for better or worse, which has specific professional and scholarly expectations associated with it. This chapter extends the work of the previous chapter by considering the competing effects of graduate training, local institutional contexts (i.e. tasks), and scholarly contributions on career mobility. I also examine how cohort membership, gender, and graduate department affect the nature and timing of institutional mobility and the relationship between institutional location and scholarly work.

## BACKGROUND

Academic institutions are hierarchical, differentiated by working conditions, norms governing incentives, and tasks, especially the level of training offered and expectations for teaching and research (Clark 1983, 1987; Youn 1992; Cartter 1976; Breneman and Youn 1988). These differences create inequality in the level of prestige associated with academic institutions (Smelser and Content 1980). Teaching requirements, including the number of hours spent in the classroom and the level of teaching (e.g. first or second year students, advanced undergraduates, graduate students), are the primary factors differentiating faculty responsibilities across academic institutions (Clark 1987; Breneman and Youn 1988). Yet, the academic hierarchy is based on the centrality of the research role to science (Caplow and McGee 1958). Faculty in the most prestigious universities spend the most time in research while those in two-year institutions spend the least time in research, if any at all (Clark 1987). Simply put, but without suggesting a simple zero-sum relationship, time spent in teaching reduces the time available for research. The combination of differentiation in the

tasks of faculty at various levels of the academic hierarchy and publication, resulting from research efforts, as the primary form of academic currency is the contradiction of the academic system (Clark 1987). Clear expectations for acquiring prestige and varying support for creating the knowledge that is rewarded with prestige is a central explanation for stratification in academia (Cole and Cole 1973).

An academic labor market perspective coupled with an emphasis on tasks performed in institutions at different levels of the academic hierarchy suggests the reinforcing nature of institutional locations, especially initial positions (Youn 1988b). Initial positions are so central because of the link between these entry portals and resources, which facilitate scholarly productivity (Allison and Stewart 1974). For example, prestige of the doctoral granting institution is the strongest predictor of initial institutional prestige; but, for individuals who take postdoctoral positions, the prestige of the postdoctoral institution is more strongly related to the prestige of the first position than the doctoral granting institution prestige (Long, Allison, and McGinnis 1979). To the extent that this pattern persists, we see common types of mobility and careers that are distinguished by the types of tasks primarily emphasized and rewarded in institutions (i.e. teaching versus research) (Youn and Zelterman 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). The effects of doctoral origin on career mobility, if any, are minimal when considering movement beyond the initial position (Youn and Zelterman 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986).

*Hypothesis 5.1: Origin institution should be a stronger predictor of destination institution than being trained in a Research I institution.*

Furthermore, to the extent that multiple academic labor markets exist (Youn and Zelterman 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986), certain types of career mobility will be more common than others. For example, because organizational context plays such an important

role in scholarly productivity (Crane 1965; Long 1978; Long and McGinnis 1981) and the expectations vary across institutions (Reskin 1977), institutional mobility should be related to both scholarship and origin institutions. Movement from teaching-oriented institutions to research-oriented institutions is typically limited (Stinchcombe 1979; Parsons and Platt 1973). Downward mobility is more common (Cartter 1976; Caplow and McGee 1958; Brown 1967), though scholars who change institutions typically move horizontally (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). To the extent that barriers to mobility exist, there is evidence of segmented labor markets (Rosenfeld 1992).

Academic careers are most common for social scientists, eighty-three percent of whom took academic positions out of graduate school during the period 1970-1974 (Thurgood, Golladay, and Hill 2006). Ph.D. recipients also have opportunities to work outside of academia. Because the expectations of those working outside of academia are quite different from the reward systems of faculty (Chubin, Porter, and Boeckmann 1981), movement into academia may be limited. Entry into academia after working in non-academic positions is not common (Rosenfeld and Jones 1988).

*Hypothesis 5.2: Horizontal mobility should be more common than other types of mobility, regardless of origin institution and scholarly productivity.*

Mobility is also tied to the larger social and institutional contexts in which careers unfold and is thus partially related to labor market conditions (Crowley and Chubin 1976; Brown 1967; Cartter 1976; Smelser and Content 1980). For example, during a period of expansion, Ph.D. recipients can fill vacancies within academia and move back into academia even if they had previously worked in non-academic institutions as in the 1950s and 1960s when the demand for Ph.D.s was greater than the supply (Caplow and McGee 1958; Crowley and Chubin 1976; Brown 1967). Such patterns may exist among the members of the earlier-



trained cohort who largely earned their Ph.D.s when there were more vacant faculty positions than there were Ph.D.s to fill them. In a period of contraction, however, more Ph.D.s are conferred than there are positions available in colleges and universities (Bowen 1981; Burke 1988). Under such conditions, mobility is limited; scholars are more likely to remain in their current positions rather than move (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986).

*Hypothesis 5.3: Members of the younger cohort should be less mobile than members of the older cohort.*

In addition to the existence of academic labor markets which represent a division of labor in terms of teaching and research and impact career mobility, disciplinary labor markets also exist (Lewis 1996; Clark 1987). Academics have disciplinary training and are generally affiliated with disciplinary associations—that is, their fields of study unite them with disciplinary colleagues and distinguish them from colleagues with different training. In this research I consider differences between scholars who received one of four types of training: 1) criminology/criminal justice, 2) sociology, 3) psychology, and 4) other fields. The particular history of criminology and the subject-matter of crime makes criminology somewhat different from other social science fields in that it is more policy-oriented. Yet, psychologists are distinguished from other social scientists in that many are clinicians and work outside of academia (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). Therefore, I expect that:

*Hypothesis 5.4: Training in psychology, followed by criminology/criminal justice training, will increase the likelihood of being employed in the non-academic sector compared to training in other social science fields.*

Institutional location is widely regarded as a key predictor of scholarly productivity (Long and McGinnis 1981). It is less clear, however, how the substantive nature of scholarly work is related to institutional location. Previous research has found that crime-related research published in specialized journals of criminology and criminal justice is more likely

to focus on issues of crime control compared to criminal behavior (Savelsberg and Flood 2004; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004). The effects of specialization are similar for specific political hot-button issues (e.g. drugs and multiple offending); in addition, this type of research is also more likely to be funded by political agencies (Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004).

The inclusion of institutional location in these examinations may show little effect on the type of scholarly work. For example, funding (including that from political agencies) may be more often pursued by scholars who are rewarded by their institutions for publishing. To the extent that this is the case, we would expect to see greater likelihoods of scholars in research-oriented institutions (i.e. Research 1 and Other Doctoral Granting institutions) to pursue (and receive) such funding compared to scholars in more teaching-oriented institutions. On the other hand, to the extent that political agencies fund more policy-oriented work, scholars in the highest ranking institutions may not pursue this type of funding because the resulting research may not be rewarded by their institutions (Petersilia 1991). Accordingly, specialization may also be related to the types of institutions in which people work. Scholars in the highest ranking institutions may be less likely to publish their work in specialty journals because the rewards are lower and thus operate through journal selection.

## RESULTS

In this section, I analyze departmental and institutional mobility drawing on quantitative data to describe the patterns and qualitative data to further understand their

meaning to respondents. I examine departmental affiliation at years one and fifteen<sup>44</sup> in the career to provide a sense of moves between types of departments for those who remain in academia and of who moves into and out of academia between the early and mid-career. Descriptive analyses of institutional mobility consider both the timing and nature of moves from one type institution to another over the course of the career. Finally, multivariate analyses explain patterns of institutional mobility and indicate relationships between institutional location and the substantive nature of scholarly work in criminology.

The operationalization of variables is presented in Table 5.1. Descriptive statistics are not available for some of the variables because they are time-varying. That is, they have the potential to change at each observed time point. For example, individuals may change institutions or types of job over time. They may marry, become parents, or terminate a marriage. These measures are time-dependent. One's institutional location, for instance, depends on *when* in one's biography institutional location is being measured. Conversely, the measures of cohort membership, gender, graduate department, and graduate institution are consistent for these purposes over the course of careers. Because all of the measures have been discussed in previous chapters, I briefly introduce some terminology that will reappear throughout this chapter.

I consider three types of mobility in this chapter based on the institutional types in the modified Carnegie Classification<sup>45</sup> scheme presented in Table 5.1. Possibilities are vertical, horizontal, and into or out of institutions. *Vertical mobility* occurs within the U.S. academic

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<sup>44</sup> The youngest respondents in the sample have post-Ph.D. careers of fifteen years at the time of data collection. In all, fewer than half of the respondents have spent thirty or more years post-Ph.D. In addition, mobility is most common in the early stages of the career. It steadily declines through the fifteenth year of the career and largely continues to decline thereafter.

<sup>45</sup> See Chapter 3 for a more detailed discussion of the Carnegie Classification.

hierarchy<sup>46</sup>, specifically between Research 1, Other Doctoral Granting, and Master's/Teaching academic institutions. Respondents who begin at the top of the U.S. academic hierarchy in Research 1 institutions may by definition only move down the hierarchy. Conversely, given this Carnegie-based operationalization, those who begin in Master's/Teaching institutions, which are at the bottom of this hierarchy, may only move up the U.S. academic hierarchy. Respondents in Other Doctoral Granting institutions may either move up or down the academic hierarchy (into Research 1 or Master's/Teaching institutions, respectively). *Horizontal mobility* occurs when respondents move from a given type of institution into an institution of the same type (i.e. Other Doctoral Granting to Other Doctoral Granting). Finally, respondents may move *into or out of* institutions within the U.S. academic hierarchy, unranked academic institutions, or non-academic institutions. This comprehensive yet broad institutional classification scheme facilitates a meaningful examination of institutional mobility given the constraints of the data.

#### *DEPARTMENTAL MOBILITY*

Table 5.2 shows the pattern of mobility between types of departments at the outset of the career (year one) and mid-career (year fifteen) for all respondents. Departments are not ranked; respondents either remain in the same type of department at career outset and mid-career, change departments, or leave or enter academia. Because departmental affiliation is only recorded for respondents working in academic institutions, a “non-faculty” category is included for both time points to account for those who left or entered academia between early

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<sup>46</sup> Institutions in the academic hierarchy for the purposes of this discussion include Research 1, Other Doctoral Granting, and Master's/Teaching. Though Unranked Academic also includes academic institutions, they are not ranked in the Carnegie Classification largely because they are outside of the United States.

and mid-career. The “missing” category for faculty departmental affiliation is included to account for respondents for whom some data is not available.

Over two-thirds of respondents are in the same type of department at mid-career as they were at the outset of the career, which would be expected given the degree of specialization even within fields (Cappell and Guterbock 1992). Nearly half of respondents who began their careers outside of academia moved into academic positions by mid-career with most moving into either criminology/criminal justice (16.9%) or sociology (20.0%). Respondents who began their careers in specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice are the most likely to be in the same type of department at mid-career (79.7%). Those who changed departments by mid-career moved either into sociology (11.9%) or out of academia (8.5%). Career outset sociologists were the only group of respondents whose members moved into all types of departments by mid-career. Respondents who left psychology departments moved equally into “other” departments and out of academia by mid-career (18.2% each). Similarly, those who began in “other” departments moved in similar numbers into specialized departments of criminology and criminal justice (7.1%) and sociology (9.5%) as well as out of academia (9.5%). Regarding movement between types of departments, this snapshot indicates relatively little crossover between departments, highlighting perhaps the salience of disciplinary identity and/or strength of disciplinary divides.

While disciplinary lines of demarcation may well be present, the boundaries between disciplines are not impermeable. While movement between types of departments is certainly less common than intra-disciplinary moves, there is crossover between departments. Sociology and Criminology/Criminal Justice have the most substantial evidence of

reciprocity. The respondents in criminology/criminal justice departments at career outset who changed departments by mid-career moved exclusively into sociology departments; more than half of those who began in sociology and changed institutions moved into criminology and criminal justice programs by mid-career. To the extent that many specialized programs grew out of sociology departments (Akers 1992) and early criminological work was largely done by sociologists (Akers 1992; Laub 1983), the reciprocity between sociology and specialized programs is expected.

Yet, despite a shared intellectual foundation for criminology and sociology, my in-depth interviews suggest that for some who began as sociologists the decision to move from sociology to criminology/criminal justice departments was not straightforward and uncomplicated. Some respondents expressed concern that a move from sociology to a specialized department would be inconsistent with their scholarly identities. Others viewed their moves from sociology to criminology as less closely tied to their identities and more in terms of a change in working environment. The following examples highlight both the link between sociology and criminology and the perceived distinctions between them.

The first set of passages from the in-depth interviews illuminate tensions between sociology and criminology during the establishment of independent departments of criminology as reflected in the career decision-making of scholars of crime and crime control. One male scholar who earned his degree in the late 1970s was hesitant to move from sociology to a specialized program. He said:

...the reason I didn't apply for...any criminal justice positions [was] because my identity was a sociologist, and that's how I did see myself. I did crime and punishment issues from a sociological standpoint, not as a criminologist or a social justice researcher. I just saw that as a lower calling that I wasn't ready for yet... (Respondent 031004.01:19).

His description reveals the salience of his identity as a sociologist who studied crime as opposed to a criminologist and his concern over leaving a position in sociology, which he perceived as more prestigious, for one in criminology. This concern echoes larger tensions between sociology and criminology as criminology developed as a field distinct from yet historically tied to sociology (Savelsberg and Sampson 2002). Hesitancy also characterized thoughts surrounding the move from sociology to criminology for a woman trained in the 1970s who was pondering a departmental change. She very much identified as a sociologist, which provoked feelings of uncertainty regarding the opportunity to move into a criminology department. For her, moving from sociology to criminology was:

...not an easy thing to have done because I think of myself as a sociologist and not a criminologist, but...there's no one there that's trained in criminology...so it's very interdisciplinary and it's a nice place to work (Respondent 112103.01:12).

To a certain extent, the prospect of being in a *criminology* department was less relevant than who else was in the department since it was an interdisciplinary environment. Having colleagues with whom to work on crime-related issues weighed more heavily than the type of department. However, at the same time, because it was interdisciplinary, she could preserve her disciplinary identity as a sociologist while being in a criminology department. Another female scholar trained in the 1970s shared concerns she had when contemplating a move from sociology to criminology about losing her disciplinary identity:

It was a big change for me. I talked to several people about whether I should make that switch and because I had always been interested in stratification issues, I was afraid I would leave that part of myself behind...It was a big decision for me and once I made the decision I felt fairly comfortable with it...I think the attraction was that they were a very dynamic and engaging group of people who were there (Respondent 112003.01:6).

As with the previous respondent, this woman's quandary over changing departments was tied to the meaning associated with the specialized department label. Fearing a loss of disciplinary identity was a huge concern, yet she was attracted to the department by the people who were in the department she decided to join. Each of these respondents moved from sociology to criminology departments and none expressed regret over their decisions to do so even if they struggled with concerns over losing their disciplinary identities prior to making their decisions.

Disciplinary identity was less salient for others who were more chameleon-like, shifting their identities depending on their surroundings. For example, a female scholar trained in the 1960s who moved from sociology to a criminal justice program did not describe any difficulty deciding to make the shift with respect to her disciplinary identity.

When asked if she considered herself a sociologist or a criminologist, she said:

Both. If I'm talking to criminologists, I'm a sociologist. If I'm talking to sociologists, I'm a criminologist (Respondent 112203.01:3).

For her, department affiliation was a label. It was less important to be affiliated with one type of department or another; what was more essential was to be in an environment where she could do the research she wanted. Similarly, a male scholar who was trained in sociology in the 1970s and began his career in sociology and moved into a criminal justice program contrasted his status in both types of departments. He said:

...when I left...I was known as the criminologist. When I went to [the criminal justice program] I was known as the sociologist. And it's a whole other world in a criminal justice department because the way people think in criminal justice is not the way they think in sociology (Respondent 111402.01:11).

The struggle over disciplinary identity described in the accounts of the first three scholars is contrasted by this scholar who nonchalantly described his status as an intellectual outsider in



both the sociology department in which he began his career and the criminal justice program to which he went. Similar to the two previous scholars for whom disciplinary identity was of marginal importance in affecting their moves from sociology to specialized programs, a female scholar trained in the 1960s who moved several times between sociology and specialized programs was also not concerned over departmental affiliation. Yet, she shifted her identity as a scholar from a sociologist to a criminologist in part because of the marginalized place of criminology in sociology. She said:

I'm a criminologist. I no longer identify as a sociologist even though I'm in a soc department now. I'm a criminologist with sociology as the background (Respondent 112103.02:10).

Despite the incongruity between her identity as a criminologist and her institutional location in a sociology department, she was certain about her identity. Based on her actions and what was implied in her statement, she did not struggle with her scholarly identity as she changed departments. Each of these respondents, in contrast to those above who were concerned about losing their disciplinary identity, placed less emphasis on their scholarly identities as affecting their department switching decisions.

The in-depth interviews serve two purposes here. The first is to highlight the individual experience of changing departments. The quantitative data show that between the first position and mid-career few people switched departments. Yet, it was a theme that was touched upon in several in-depth interviews as I sought to understand how specific institutional conditions affected careers. The respondents here are perhaps the exception to the rule regarding mobility between departments. Yet their stories highlight for some the complexity of the decision to change departments for others the relative ease. The first set of respondents discussed the cognitive dissonance associated with crossing disciplinary

boundaries based on their understanding of who they were intellectually. The latter set of respondents was less concerned with permeating disciplinary boundaries; their scholarly identity was more internal and less tied to a department label than their counterparts.

The differences here may in part be related to the conditions surrounding the development of criminology as a field distinct from sociology. Several institutional forces may have been at work, including the increasing specialization of science, the growing presence of criminology with its own departments, journals, and associations, and the marginalization of criminology in sociology. These may have increased the strength of disciplinary identities for those being trained under these conditions (cohort effect) or influenced all scholars (period effect). While I do not tease out these effects here, the in-depth interviews allude to the importance of larger institutional conditions. Disciplinary identity may have increased in salience as the lines between sociology and criminology became clearer. Yet, at the same time, current institutional conditions emphasize the importance of interdisciplinarity, which may shape the relevance of disciplinary identity in the next generation of scholars.

To summarize, the quantitative data provide snapshots of department affiliation of respondents at two points in time—the first job post-Ph.D. and mid-career (year 15). The findings suggest the relative stability of departmental affiliation with over two-thirds located in the same types of departments at both time points. Yet, there is a particular reciprocity between sociology and criminology, elaborated upon by a number of interview respondents. For some, the transition was characterized by a challenge to their scholarly identities and for others an easy move to have made. I argue that by linking these experiences to institutional conditions, we can better understand the struggles and ease surrounding transitions from

sociology to criminology departments. At the same time, the links between disciplinary identity and departmental shifts needs to be further considered. I suggest possible explanations for the link between institutional conditions and disciplinary identities that emerge from my data but do not consider them in greater detail here.

### *INSTITUTIONAL MOBILITY*

In contrast to the section above on departmental mobility, this sections focuses on mobility between types of institutions, which are distinguished by the size, highest degree awarded, and grant money obtained by scholars at the institution. While the focus of the previous section was on two points in time—the career outset (year 1) and mid-career (year 15)—this section focuses on the timing and nature of institutional mobility. Following these descriptive presentations of the data, I present the findings from multivariate analyses of institutional mobility.

#### *Timing of Mobility*

This section examines patterns of institutional mobility between career outset and mid-career years (1-15). Figure 5.1 shows the frequency of movement from one institution to another during the first fifteen years of the career.<sup>47</sup> The lines represent the proportion of respondents in the sample who change positions, by year, from career outset to mid-career.<sup>48</sup>

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<sup>47</sup> I ran these models separately by cohort membership, gender, and graduate department and tested for significant differences in the proportions changing institutions per year. The results did not yield substantial between group differences, therefore I do not show group-specific figures. No cohort or graduate department differences were significant. Significant differences in the proportion of men and women changing positions were as follows: year 13 (men=.048, women=.167,  $z=-3.19$ ).

<sup>48</sup> I examine the first fifteen years of the career only because all respondents were post-Ph.D. fifteen or more years when I surveyed them. Extending these figures beyond fifteen years in the career would result in increasing amounts of missing data as the figures extended further away from the year of the Ph.D.

In general, mobility is most common in the earliest part of the career when twelve to fifteen percent of the sample changes institutions per year. Between years four and five there is a decrease that continues rather steadily into the middle years of the career. By the last five years in this figure (years 11-15), the proportion of respondents changing institutions per year appears relatively stable at approximately .05. These patterns are consistent for earlier and later trained respondents, men and women, and individuals with different training backgrounds.

### *Nature of Mobility*

Figure 5.1 indicates when respondents changed institutions, but they do not provide any information on the nature of institutional mobility (i.e. where respondents moved to or from). Table 5.3 displays detailed institutional moves between early and mid-career (years 1-15). Panels A-D decompose the nature of institutional mobility for respondents who changed institutions during the first fifteen years of their careers for up to four moves. In contrast to Figure 5.1 which indicated the proportion of respondents who changed institutions per year in the aggregate and facilitated our thinking about when mobility occurs, Table 5.3 moves us toward thinking about careers in terms of job pairs and the relationship between institutions of origin (institutions being left) and destination institutions (institutions being entered). The origin institutions are in the left-hand column and the destination institutions are listed across the top of each panel. The “no change” columns—split between “ever” and “before year 15”—provide a sense of which institutions (listed down the left-hand column) respondents are the least likely to leave through the data collection period and through the first fifteen years of the career even if they left during the latter years of the career.

Panel A of Table 5.3 indicates the proportion of respondents who started their careers in one of five types of institutions (described above and in Chapter 4 in more detail) and either stayed for fifteen or more years or changed institutions during the first fifteen years of the career. For those who changed institutions, the nature of moves from the first to the second institution given the type of institution in which the respondent began his or her career is also detailed. The “ever” column shows that mobility decreases looking down the U.S. academic hierarchy. It is the least prevalent for those who begin their careers in Unranked Academic institutions (40.6% do not change institutions during the reporting period). Non-academics are the least likely to remain in the institutions where they began their post-Ph.D. careers at 14.3 percent.

Second, nearly three-quarters of respondents change institutions at least once. This figure is somewhat higher than in other work (Youn and Zelterman 1988), though this may be attributable to having more complete career histories in these data and sample characteristics. Respondents in Research 1, Other Doctoral Granting, and Unranked Academic institutions move in similar proportions within their types of institutions (30.3%, 22.9%, and 25%, respectively), and respondents who begin in Master’s/Teaching institutions are slightly less likely to make horizontal moves (18.3%). Nearly 35 percent of respondents who begin their careers in Master’s/Teaching institutions move up the academic hierarchy into Other Doctoral Granting and Research 1 institutions (20.0% and 15%, respectively).<sup>49</sup> Roughly similar proportions of respondents who begin in Other Doctoral Granting institutions move into Master’s/Teaching (15.6%) and Research 1 institutions (12.5%).

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<sup>49</sup> The relatively large percentage of respondents who begin their careers in Master’s/Teaching institutions and move up the academic hierarchy as they enter their second positions may partially be related to the size of this group (N=60). This finding may also be related to the relative achievement of the scholars in this sample compared to a more general sample.

Finally, nearly 30 percent of respondents who begin in Research 1 institutions move down the academic hierarchy into Other Doctoral Granting and Master's/Teaching institutions.

Panels B, C, and D describe moves respondents made from the second, third, and fourth institutions during the first fifteen years of the career. Nearly half of respondents whose second positions after earning the doctoral degree are in academic institutions made no additional moves within the first fifteen years of the career and about 20 percent did move again, but not during the first fifteen years. The mobility patterns between the second and third institutions are largely similar to the patterns observed in changes between the first and second institutions and described in detail above. Though fewer than thirty percent of respondents work in three or four institutions during the first fifteen years of the career (see Panel C), respondents in Research 1 institutions appear especially mobile compared to their counterparts within the U.S. academic hierarchy. Respondents in Non-academic institutions continue to move in high numbers. Finally, respondents who move four or more times during the first fifteen years of the career are largely moving horizontally.

In short, though nearly 75 percent of respondents do change institutions at least one time, frequent mobility is rather uncommon. Horizontal moves from one type of institution into the same type of institution are most prevalent, which is consistent with previous research (Rosenfeld and Jones 1988). There is evidence of mobility up and down the U.S. academic hierarchy as well as into and out of the hierarchy. Respondents who move from Non-academic institutions appear to move most often, though they often make horizontal moves. The destination institutions of those who move into the academic hierarchy often grant doctoral degrees (i.e. either Research 1 or Other Doctoral Granting institutions). Leaving academia is relatively uncommon, and no clear exit patterns emerge based on the

institution of origin. The next section of this chapter examines whether institutional mobility is patterned by factors including cohort membership, gender, and graduate department.

#### MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES

The multivariate analyses consider the career in its entirety thus maximizing the use of the data available on institutional mobility in contrast to the descriptive analyses presented above. This entails extending and modifying the approach taken in the previous section on the nature of institutional mobility. I organize the data into job pairs such that, for each move made, the institution being left becomes the institution of origin and the institution being moved to becomes the destination institution.<sup>50</sup> For the last move (or the first institution if no move is observed), the destination institution is missing and coded as “no move.” This approach is consistent with previous research on academic career mobility (Youn and Zelterman 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986, 1988).

Table 5.4 shows the number of positions respondents held between the year the highest degree was earned until the time of data collection in 2005. The proportion changing institutions indicates the ratio of respondents who did change institutions to the number in sample who could have changed institutions.<sup>51</sup> As long as individuals work, they are “at risk” of changing institutions. But, because observations are censored at the time of data collection—that is, no information is available beyond the date they responded to this survey—the number of respondents at risk to change institutions decreases with each subsequent move considered. The number at risk of leaving the second institution is

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<sup>50</sup> This entails shifting the analytic focus from individuals to institutional moves. Each move made by a respondent contributes one record to the data. For additional details, see Chapter 2.

<sup>51</sup> This is also called an estimated hazard rate. For ease of presentation, I use “proportion changing institutions.” While hazard rates sometimes consider covariates, the rates in this table do not.

equivalent to the number of respondents who left an institution during the observation period (250 in this sample). The 87 individuals<sup>52</sup> who did not leave an institution during this period could have changed after the period under examination, though we do not know from the data available. The last column of Table 5.4 shows the proportion of respondents who changed institutions for each set of job pairs. Notice that the number of respondents at risk of moving decreases with each additional pair of jobs under examination.

To examine mobility using job pairs, I employ discrete time event history analysis for repeated events<sup>53</sup>, which allows for consideration of time-varying covariates such as marriage, children under 18 in the household, and publications while at an institution before moving to another institution (i.e. in each job pair). Discrete time event history analysis leverages the data in ways not possible using methods employed thus far when the data are organized by individual rather than by job pair. For example, if a male respondent began his career in a Research 1 institution and married and then left for a Non-academic institution where he finished his career and began a family with his wife, he would contribute two observations to the dataset, which would be coded as follows:

*Observation 1*

Move:	Yes
Origin Institution:	Research 1
Destination Institution:	Non-academic
Married:	Yes
Child:	No

*Observation 2*

Move:	No
Origin Institution:	Non-academic
Destination Institution:	n/a
Married:	Yes
Child:	Yes

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<sup>52</sup> Number at Risk minus Number Changing Institutions for Institution 1.

<sup>53</sup> See Chapter 2 for a discussion of this method. See also Soule and Olzak 2004; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986, 1988; Youn and Zelterman 1988.



As in the example above, some respondents contribute more than one observation to the dataset because they change institutions one or more times. Accordingly, the data are clustered by individual such that cases are independent across but not within individuals.

#### *MOVING VERSUS NOT MOVING*

Table 5.5 displays the results of multivariate analyses of changing positions conducted using discrete time event history models for repeated events. Independent variables include career characteristics, scholarship, and family circumstances. The first model considers the effects of having a crime-related publication in a leading journal on changing positions while all subsequent models (Models 2-8) consider the effects of specific characteristics of scholarly work on the likelihood of changing positions.<sup>54</sup>

The models indicate the importance of cohort membership, gender, and graduate department for the prevalence of mobility. Cohort membership and graduate department both show significant effects on mobility though gender does not.<sup>55</sup> Members of the younger cohort are less likely than respondents in the older cohort to change positions net of all other factors, consistent with *hypothesis 5.3*. This may at least partially be related to the poor academic market in the 1970s and 1980s following the period of growth in the 1960s and early 1970s as well as their shorter risk period.

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<sup>54</sup> I run these models separately rather than as a set of dummy variables because respondents may have a publication on more than one topic during a given spell.

<sup>55</sup> Cohort membership and gender interaction terms were included in each model, yielding no significant results. The coefficients and p-values are as follows: Model 1 (b=.38, p=.328); Model 2 (b=.28, p=.487); Model 3 (b=.20, p=.621); Model 4 (b=.19, p=.641); Model 5 (b=.09, p=.812); Model 6 (b=.27, p=.501); Model 7 (b=.23, p=.571); Model 8 (b=.28, p=.474).

My in-depth interviews with scholars doing crime-related work illustrate the tremendous mobility of earlier-trained respondents. An abbreviated version of one respondent's mobility follows:

...I finished my dissertation [and] I went [into] sociology ...From there, I went [into another] sociology [department] and I shaped up their criminal justice program. Enrollments were going down, and they wanted to figure out some way of bolstering their enrollments, and they figured students taking criminal justice as a minor would give them a little lift, so I put together what I thought was a curriculum and minor and they bought it and away it went...shortly after that I went back...the Dean said, 'Why don't you come on down here in criminal justice?' and so I did...And then...there was a job opportunity as head of department...[so] I went down there (Respondent 111302.02:2).

This male scholar's mobility was partially driven by a plethora of opportunities.

Strengthening a criminal justice program gave him the experience early in his career to later be called upon to join a criminal justice department. A female scholar tells a similar story of mobility. She left her first position in sociology to build a criminal justice program, which entailed a move down the academic hierarchy. She said:

Basically I established a criminal justice program there. They had a small one when I got there, two people. When I left two and a half years later, there were seven people and a whole new crew had come in... (Respondent 112103.02:2).

From there she continued to move. This woman's story, like so many of the men's in her cohort, was laden with moves from institution to institution, which she noted saying:

I did a lot of stuff. It's a fairly unusual career path. Most people seem to stay long times and you know, once they're established, they don't move a lot (Respondent 112103.02:3).

The massive growth of criminology translated into opportunities for institution building—establishing new departments and instituting advanced degree programs of criminology and criminal justice—that were more commonly available to and pursued by

members of the earlier-trained cohort. Despite much of the growth in criminology occurring in the 1970s and 1980s when many members of the more recently trained cohort were making their way into academia, these opportunities were less frequently available to them. This may be explained by the relative establishment of the older generation of scholars when opportunities for institution building were available. One would expect more experienced scholars to be called upon to lead program development efforts during a period of growth in contrast to scholars who were less proven in part because they had less career experience, time to build their scholarly reputations. Though there are likely other explanations, these data suggest that opportunities to establish new programs at least partially translated into greater mobility for the earlier-trained cohort of scholars.

Despite the greater likelihood of moving among members of the earlier-trained cohort, the odds of changing institutions are substantially smaller beyond the first move, indicating that frequent mobility is the exception rather than the norm. Each additional year spent in a position decreases the odds of changing positions. Regarding graduate department, sociology trained respondents are more mobile than criminology/criminal justice trained respondents.

Beyond the factors of cohort membership, gender, and graduate department, the data show that publishing in a leading journal on a crime-related topic facilitates greater mobility.<sup>56</sup> All types of publications, especially those focused on crime control and published in specialty journals, facilitate mobility except for publishing crime-related work on political hot-button issues in leading sociology and criminology journals, which has no significant

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<sup>56</sup> Note that while all respondents published at least one article in a leading journal during the time period studied, this does not mean that respondents had a publication during each job spell. For example, a respondent who published one article between 1951 and 1993 but held three different positions would only have a publication in a leading journal during one of his or her employment spells. Furthermore, he or she may have published in a leading journal on a crime-related topic after 1993, which would not have been included in this dataset.

effect on changing positions. Neither gender nor family circumstances significantly affect institutional mobility in these analyses.

#### *INTERINSTITUTIONAL MOBILITY*

The analyses presented in Table 5.6 use logistic regression to capture the nature of mobility.<sup>57</sup> That is, they indicated the likelihood of movement into destination institutions based on origin institutions net of other factors. Despite clear differences in the frequency of mobility between members of the earlier and later-trained cohorts in Table 5.5, there are no cohort differences in interinstitutional mobility; nor are there gender differences.<sup>58</sup>

The nature of mobility is related to the type of program in which respondents were trained and origin institutions (Table 5.6); I present effect-coded coefficients<sup>59</sup> in Table 5.7 for ease of interpretation. Psychology-trained respondents are .30 times as likely to move into Master's/Teaching institutions as criminology/criminal justice-trained respondents. "Other"-trained respondents are less likely and criminology/criminal justice-trained respondents are more likely to move into these types of institutions compared to other groups. Compared to respondents trained in other types of departments, those trained in sociology are more likely to move into Unranked Academic institutions. Finally, psychology-trained respondents are more likely to move into non-academic institutions in support of *hypothesis 5.4*, though

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<sup>57</sup> I also conducted these analyses using a multinomial logistic regression model. The results were similar to those presented in Table 5.6. For ease of interpretation, I describe mobility patterns using a set of binary logistic regression models.

<sup>58</sup> I ran models with cohort-gender interactions and none were significant. There were no women in the earlier-trained cohort who moved into Unranked Academic institutions (Model 4). The interactions for the other models were as follows: Model 1 (b=-.51, p=.491); Model 2 (b=-.15, p=.816); Model 3 (b=-.12, p=.906); Model 5 (b=1.47, p=.077).

<sup>59</sup> Effect-coded variables are an alternative way to present dummy coded variables (i.e. graduate department in Table 5.6) and do not change the overall results (Hardy 1993: 67). Rather than compare sociology, psychology, or "other"-trained respondents with those trained in criminology/criminal justice, effect coding compares a given group with all groups in the sample (Hardy 1993: 67).<sup>59</sup> "All groups in the sample" represents "the unweighted mean of the expected values for all subgroups" (Hardy 1993: 67).

criminology/criminal justice-trained scholars show no evidence of being more likely to move into non-academic institutions than those trained in sociology or “other” departments.

The models provide strong evidence of horizontal interinstitutional mobility (Table 5.7), consistent with *hypothesis 5.2*. They also provide evidence of vertical mobility, especially into Other Doctoral Granting institutions. Upward mobility (for respondents leaving Master’s/Teaching institutions) and downward mobility (for respondents leaving Research 1 institutions) into Other Doctoral Granting institutions are not statistically different from horizontal mobility within Other Doctoral Granting institutions (Model 2 in Table 5.6). Other Doctoral Granting institutions are the *only* place where tendencies for horizontal and vertical mobility are not statistically different among this sample. Respondents leaving Research 1 and Master’s/Teaching institutions were significantly more likely to make horizontal moves than are scholars leaving other institutions to move into those types of institutions, respectively. Despite the strength of origin institutions on mobility, having a publication(s) in leading sociology or criminology journals enhances the odds of moving into Research 1 institutions.<sup>60</sup> Yet, the limited impact of publications indicates the greater importance of origin institutions in shaping career mobility. Finally, the effect of the doctoral granting department has little effect on career mobility in support of *hypothesis 5.1*, thus further emphasizing the importance of the initial position out of graduate school for shaping career mobility.

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<sup>60</sup> The limited sample size does not allow me to test for the interaction between origin institution and publication on movement into Research 1 institutions.

### *INSTITUTIONAL LOCATION AND SCHOLARLY WORK*

This set of analyses considers how institutional environments affect scholarly work on crime-related issues. These analyses extend previous work on the topic (see Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004) while incorporating information about the scholar's current (position characteristics) and previous institutional locations (graduate department) to consider the extent to which these factors contribute to the knowledge scholars produce.

In Table 5.8, I specifically examine two types of scholarship: 1) criminal behavior versus crime control research; and, 2) research on hot-button issues, such as white-collar crime, drugs, and recidivism, versus non hot-button issues. Models 1 and 3 mimic analyses conducted in earlier work (see Savelsberg and Flood 2004) for the articles published by the respondents of my survey. The findings in Model 1 are consistent with earlier research regarding the decreased likelihood of articles published in specialty journals compared to those published in sociology journals to focus on issues of criminal behavior (Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004). Yet, the enhancing effect of political funding on publishing criminal behavior research does not reach significance in the first model ( $b=.345, p=.106$ ). Also in contrast to previous work, the tendency of scholars trained in more recent years to author crime control as opposed to criminal behavior research does not reach statistical significance ( $b=-.12, p=.57$ ), though the results are in the expected direction.

The results in Model 2 represent the extension of earlier work. Controlling for the authors' cohort membership, gender, graduate training, and institutional location,

criminological specialization no longer differentiates between the likelihood of publishing on issues of criminal behavior versus crime control ( $b=-.26, p=.343$ ). The results also show that respondents trained in “other” departments were .18 times as likely to focus on criminal behavior research as criminology-trained respondents. These results suggest that disciplinary training matters for the type of research scholars do net of other aspects of scholars’ institutional environments.

Regarding research on political hot-button issues, as in previous research, politically funded research is 1.96 times as likely to focus on hot-button issues as that which is not politically funded (see Model 3 in Table 5.8) (Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002). The effect of political funding on hot-button issues is slightly less pronounced when controlling for the authors’ cohort membership, gender, graduate training, and institutional location; Model 4 shows that politically funded research is 1.68 times as likely to focus on hot-button issues as that which is not funded by political agencies. Women are 1.91 times as likely as men to focus on political hot-button issues as men, though it is not clear why this is the case. The data do not support the possibility that women publish more on hot-button issues as a result of the parallel increase in attention to these topics and the presence of women in academia. While I cannot directly assess this possibility, it may have been easier for women to participate in research surrounding hot-button issues where “invisible colleges” were not already in place (Price 1986; Crane 1972; Rossiter 1982). In areas of scholarly inquiry that were only recently getting attention, women could—at least theoretically—enter networks and participate in “interaction rituals” which generate emotional energy and provide the stimulus to produce knowledge (Collins 1998).

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This chapter builds on the previous chapter regarding early career experiences by extending beyond analysis of the first post-Ph.D. position to understand how careers unfold. I examined the prevalence and nature of mobility. While over two-thirds of respondents changed institutions during the observation period, frequent mobility was the exception rather than the norm in contrast to the image of the “mobile professor” (Brown 1967). The findings consistently showed that members of the younger cohort (Ph.D. earned 1975-1989) were less likely to move than their earlier-trained counterparts (Ph.D. earned 1950-1974). This is consistent with previous work linking career mobility to historical and institutional conditions, especially relevant during periods of contraction (Bowen 1981; Burke 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986) and expansion (Caplow and McGee 1958; Brown 1967; Cartter 1976). The expansion of higher education, particularly in the 1960s, and the continued growth of criminology into the 1990s is a key aspect of the historical context shaping the careers of early-trained respondents, which have been previously cited as affecting scholarly careers (Crowley and Chubin 1976; Cartter 1976; Smelser and Content 1980).

Patterns surrounding the nature of mobility also surfaced in terms of disciplinary training with psychology-trained respondents consistently more likely to move into and between non-academic institutions. There are also differences in the nature of mobility, especially related to the type of institutions being left. Finally, this chapter also extends current understandings regarding the production of crime-related knowledge published in leading sociology and criminology journals by taking into account the effects of gender, disciplinary training, and institutional location.



The growth of criminology, which really took off in the 1970s when many of the older respondents were becoming established in their careers, provided opportunities for mobility if respondents wanted it. Many respondents trained in sociology before specialized training was widely available were called upon to build programs of criminology and criminal justice, an example of how the institutional context, specifically the sociological foundation of criminology, shaped the careers of individuals (Savelsberg and Sampson 2002; Akers 1992). For many, this turned out to be a defining part of their careers and an aspect that differentiated their experiences from their colleagues. Their younger colleagues were less fortunate; many began their careers in a time of worsening labor markets. Perhaps members of the more recent cohort had few opportunities to move.

By contrast, the prominence of institution building in the careers of earlier-trained respondents may partially be a reflection of the changing norms and historical circumstances surrounding careers in academia and in general. Laub's (2003) interviews with prominent criminologists and the interviews I conducted with individuals trained before the emergence of criminology programs hinted at less concrete ideas of what post-Ph.D. careers would look like than the later-trained respondents I interviewed. A number of the earlier-trained respondents perceived an emphasis these days on the importance of having a plan and knowing the next move, which they did not perceive as being important when they were in graduate school and at the beginning of their careers. Rather, they cited the existence of seemingly endless availability of good jobs and opportunities for career mobility.

The findings generally reflect the existence of segmentation in the academic labor market (Rosenfeld 1992) and reiterate the importance of origin institutions for career mobility (Youn and Zeltermann 1988; Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). My data provide little

evidence of upward mobility, suggesting a differentiation of tasks and incentives in different types of institutions and limited opportunities to move up the academic hierarchy (Stinchcombe 1979; Parsons and Platt 1973). Horizontal mobility was most prevalent, underscoring the lasting impact of entry portals on careers (Rosenfeld and Jones 1988). Moves down and out of academia were less common though they did occur albeit with different likelihood depending on the origin and destination institutions. Scholarly productivity enhanced opportunities for mobility into Research 1 institutions, though origin institutions were consistently strong predictors of the nature of mobility. The limited effect of publications for mobility into non-Research 1 institutions further illustrates the relative weight of publications in Research 1 institutions compared to other types of institutions.

This chapter also furthers our understanding of the relationship between institutional environments and scholarly work by building on previous research on the topic (Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004). Different aspects of the institutional environment matter for different types of research. While criminal behavior research is more likely to be published in general sociology compared to specialized journals, graduate department largely accounts for this. Because scholars working in academia primarily worked in the same departments as they were trained, this suggests that scholars in sociology, psychology and criminology to a greater extent focus on issues of criminal behavior than those in “other” departments. By contrast, political funding enhances the likelihood of doing research on political hot-button issues net of other factors, though its effect is slightly attenuated by the inclusion of additional controls. In short, institutional environments shape scholarly work in different ways depending on the substantive focus of the work. The incorporation of these social and

institutional location variables at least partially helps us further understand the conditions under which criminological scholarship is produced.

Gender differences in the frequency and nature of mobility are negligible. This is a significant difference from previous work, which highlights differences in men's and women's opportunities for geographic mobility (Xie and Shauman 2003; Rosenfeld and Jones 1987; Marwell, Rosenfeld, and Spilerman 1979). The lack of gender differences in career mobility may in part be because women in this sample are less likely than their male colleagues to have children and to be tied movers (Xie and Shauman 2003; Marwell, Rosenfeld, and Spilerman 1979).

## *CHAPTER 6: CAREER PATHWAYS*

...high-achieving women aspire to do both [have careers and families]...[and] at any given time, the majority of educated women are, in fact, doing so...[but] the burden of accommodation is borne almost exclusively by women themselves (Stone 2007: 217)

### INTRODUCTION

A large body of work examines the “greedy institutions” of work and family (Coser and Coser 1974) and the structural and cultural bases of conflicts between these domains (e.g. Williams 2000; Blair-Loy 2003). As an extension of this literature, much prior research on gender and academic careers has considered the tensions between work and family life for a variety of outcomes including, for example, productivity (Grant, Kennelly, and Ward 2000) and career advancement (Spalter-Roth and VanVooren 2008; Xie and Shauman 2003; Mason and Goulden 2002; Perna 2001; Mason and Goulden 2004). These efforts to investigate gender differences in science have in part been a response to a rich autobiographical literature documenting academic career experiences (for sociology see Laslett and Thorne, eds. 1997; Goetting and Fenstermaker, eds. 1995; Orlans and Wallace, eds. 1994; Rossi 1990, for criminology see Geis and Dodge, eds. 2002; Laub 1983), which highlight the role of gender in discontinuities, delays in careers, and perceived and experienced work and family conflicts.

This chapter focuses on both work and family to further investigate the role of gender in scholarly careers. The analyses extend largely from those conducted in Chapters 4 and 5 which focused on the impact of institutional locations (both graduate school and origin institutions) along with cohort membership, gender, and graduate departments on first positions and career mobility. The previous chapters considered career stages and changes

and incorporated scholars' personal lives as controls in multivariate models. Here I explicitly address time, timing, and transitions in both work and family life, examining more closely the intersection of these domains over the course of careers. I model work and family trajectories and consider work-family pathways, specifically by conducting latent class analyses of work and family roles over time and examining their intersections. I locate these analyses in historical context as well as family life context by analyzing the relationship between family circumstances and gender and cohort membership. I consider the extent to which work and family lives are shaped by cohort membership, gender, and graduate department. Finally, I examine the ways in which men and women combine work and family.

## BACKGROUND

A growing body of quantitative empirical work reaffirms the gendered stories told in autobiographical essays and qualitative interviews. For example, Xie and Shauman's (2003) work on women's scientific career trajectories shows that being a parent is a key factor in understanding differences between men's and women's careers. The double-bind of work and family is more problematic for women's careers than it is for men's. Women more often than men have to "choose" between careers and family when they have children, resulting in women dropping out at various stages in the career process or not having children (Xie and Shauman 2003; Mason and Goulden 2002; Spalter-Roth and VanVooren 2008; Perna 2001). Gendered tensions between work and family exist even for men and women who remain in academic careers (Spalter-Roth and VanVooren 2008).

A life course perspective provides insight into the ways in which work and family roles interact over time to create heterogeneity in life courses. The key concepts

characteristic of life course processes are trajectory, transition, and duration (Elder 1985). Sequences of events and transitions are the building blocks of trajectories, which are representations of the long term dynamics of life course states. For example, getting married and later getting divorced are transitions within one's marriage trajectory. Being married, then divorced, are transitions and states, for example, that are linked together to form trajectories. States also have durations, for instance, how long one is married before getting divorced. A life course perspective, therefore, emphasizes the interlocking nature of states over time. At the same time, this perspective also recognizes the link between states at specific times. For example, a woman who never worked while she was married may enter the labor force after she gets divorced in order to support herself in the absence of her former husband's income. The timing of the transition from married to divorced in turn is related to the timing of the transition from not working to working. We can better understand the timing and nature of transitions by considering the interaction between multiple domains.

While there is a tendency to examine work and family independently, a more thorough understanding of life course dynamics is achieved by considering the intersections of these domains. For example, the lockstep model, which entails following a linear path from school to work to retirement without interruption, assumes a linear work trajectory, resigning family life to the periphery (Spilerman 1977). Yet, women's work experiences often deviate from these assumptions, and part of the explanation is tied to their family life experiences (Moen 2003; Moen and Han 2001). This interdependency between work and family domains is "...played out over time and in relation to others" (Elder 1985: 32). The interlock between the trajectories of work and family life represents pathways through the life course (Macmillan and Eliason 2003). While these pathways are structured by cultural

models of behavior, individuals are purposeful actors, making choices that shape their lives even if constrained by cultural ideas and structural conditions (Macmillan and Copher 2005). Decisions about both work and family life are made in the context of ideas about appropriate behaviors and perceived and real constraints.

The remainder of this section highlights the cultural and structural contexts in which the respondents experienced their careers. I begin with a discussion of the organization of work, which helps us understand the underlying assumptions about workers. Then I move into a discussion of the dual-earner family, which challenged the ideal worker norm. Finally, I briefly describe major demographic trends in family life. These short discussions provide background for understanding the context in which the work-family experiences I later analyze occurred.

#### *ORGANIZATION OF WORK*

Market work is organized around an ‘ideal’ worker whose life is dedicated to full-time work (Williams 2000). This ideal worker is unencumbered by family and caregiving responsibilities. This particular organization of market work makes it difficult, if not impossible, for caregivers to perform as ideal workers. Gender is implicit in the organization of market work. It creates images of the individuals who are supposed to fill both work and family roles (Kanter 1977). Men are expected to earn a wage to support their families while women are expected to maintain the home, raise children, and support their husbands’ paid work efforts. Paid and unpaid work are not to interfere with one another—both require high levels of commitment and dedication in terms of time and emotion from participants (Blair-Loy 2003). This division of paid and unpaid labor resulted in what Acker (1990) terms

“gendered” institutions. That is, social institutions that assume a division of labor between men and women and separation between public and private spheres. This organization of work and family persists today as do the gender norms that reinforce the distinctions between work and family (Hochschild 1989).

#### *DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS IN WORK AND FAMILY LIFE*

Women’s labor force participation, especially of married women, increasingly approaches levels similar to men’s engagement in market work (Goldin 2006). A large and highly visible group of women have been able to make significant inroads into high powered, male-dominated occupations. These women were the primary benefactors of equal rights legislation, which Mason (2002 [1988]) argues has had limited impact.<sup>61</sup> For example, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination against women on the basis of sex, but at the same time equal rights legislation did not make any accommodations for working mothers. Equal pay for equal work implies that women need to “act like men” to be treated like men. While women have embraced the opportunities provided by equal rights legislation and climbed to the top of the career ladder by embodying the ideal worker norm, highly educated women have become increasingly likely to delay childbearing or forgo childbearing altogether (Rindfuss, Morgan, and Offutt 1996; Martin 2000). These specific strategies partially reflect the failure of equal rights legislation to push for change in the organization of market and family work (Mason [1988] 2002).

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<sup>61</sup> Many women were largely unaffected by equal rights legislation because they were working and continued to work in female-dominated occupations even after these laws took effect. In these occupations, their peers were primarily women and, consequently, there were no men with whom to be treated equal; men who worked in female-dominated occupations were usually superiors.



Delayed marriage and fertility have become increasingly common with the rise of women's labor force participation (Rindfuss, Morgan, and Offutt 1996; Goldstein and Kenney 2000). These family life "choices" are often strategies pursued for dealing with or avoiding work-family conflict. Some women "opt out" of the labor force (Stone 2007) while others interrupt their careers (Han and Moen 1999), have children early or delay childbearing (Blair-Loy 2003), or forgo marriage or children entirely (Xie and Shauman 2003; Blair-Loy 2003). These strategies are indicative of a "choice gap," which is

...the difference between the decisions or "choices" women could have made about their careers in the absence of caregiving, especially mothering, responsibilities, and the decisions they actually make to accommodate these responsibilities in light of the realities of their professions and those of their husbands. It's the difference between the work-related decisions of workers encumbered by family caregiving responsibilities and those of workers who are unencumbered... (Stone 2007:112).

Stone's (2007) articulation of the choice gap highlights the gendered nature of work and family and the ways in which women's experiences at the intersection of these institutions are different from men's experiences. The disconnect between structure, culture, and individual lives often results in women making choices between work and family. The majority of research in this area examines the consequences of children on careers (but see Wolfinger, Mason, and Goulden 2008). Drawing on life course tradition, I consider the reciprocal nature of work and family over prime childbearing and career building years in the careers of academics rather than trying to disentangle causality.

#### *DUAL-EARNER FAMILIES*

Dual-earner families have increased markedly since the 1960s making this among the most profound changes for the family in the last 50 years (Waite and Nielsen 2001). This

trend has directly challenged the organization of market work, resulting in ample scholarly attention (e.g. Moen and Roehling 2005; Blair-Loy 2003; Williams 2000). While the needs and circumstances of families have been changing, work and family structures and norms have been slower to adjust. The ideal worker norm is still the dominant scheme informing expectations of worker performance. The marginalization of caregiving and the notion that women are better suited for child rearing still exists. Mothers who work outside of the home directly challenge both the ideal worker norm and the expected role of women as caregivers. The outdated organization of work and family becomes transparent when married women, especially mothers, work (Williams 2000; Moen and Roehling 2005). At the same time, when mothers do work, they face a “motherhood penalty” in hiring and pay decisions (Correll, Benard, and Paik 2007). Meeting the expectations of both work and family is at one extreme so burdensome that women “choose” to deal with the seeming incompatibilities by opting out of the labor force to care for children full time (Stone 2007). Yet, on the other hand, this competition makes clearly visible the problematic nature of the organization of work and family (Williams 2000). In short, the roots of the difficulties working families have balancing their work and family lives are both structural (gendered institutions) and cultural (gendered norms and expectations).

#### ANALYTIC METHOD

In this chapter, I begin by presenting bivariate analyses of cohort membership, gender, and graduate department with questions that get at work-family interfaces. Using these as a baseline for understanding the work-family circumstances of respondents, I then

model trajectories and examine associations between trajectories and cohort membership, gender, and graduate department.

I use career history data to construct and model work and family life trajectories using latent class analysis. I examine work (i.e. institutional location-type of work) and family (i.e. marriage-parenthood) statuses at fifteen time points over twenty-nine years to reveal a parsimonious set of trajectories. Year one in the career is defined as the first full year of the career after graduate school. Every odd year of the career from one to twenty-nine is a data point. Because the youngest person in the dataset completed the Ph.D. by 1992, each respondent has at least fifteen years of career history. Specifically, I conduct latent class analyses (McCutcheon 1987; Clogg 1995) of institutional location and type of position as well as marital and parental statuses of respondents using full information maximum likelihood latent class estimation methods with the statistical package Mplus (Muthén and Muthén 1998-2004).

Latent class analysis is an appropriate method for understanding the underlying patterns of change in work and family lives over the course of a career. With over one billion possible categories (4 employment or family arrangements at 15 time points), only the most common trajectories can be discerned through direct observation. The specific goal of a latent class analysis is to group similar transition sequences into groups such that differences between groups exceed differences within groups. These groups are considered latent in the data because they are unable to be clearly seen by simply examining the cross-classification work and family statuses at fifteen points in time (every other year from 1-29).

To understand professional career patterns, I combined the institutional locations of respondents and the roles and responsibilities into one four-category variable. This is a

simplified version of the institution coding scheme employed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Respondents are grouped into three categories based on institutional location and type of work as shown in Table 6.1: 1) Research 1; 2) Non-Research 1 academic institutions; and 3) Non-academic. I make a distinction between Research 1 and Non-Research 1 academic institutions because repeated movement between these types of institutions is uncommon (see results in Chapter 5). In addition, because not all individuals in academic institutions are faculty members (i.e. some are administrators or hold research positions), I also distinguish between faculty and non-faculty members. While the responsibilities of administrators and researchers may overlap with those of faculty members, much of their effort is spent in other types of activities. Faculty may serve as administrators in the form of deans, who serve as liaisons between faculty and the college or university president. Within departments, there are also heads or chairs who are the liaisons between departments and deans. Administrative positions are akin to managers in non-academic settings. While administrators and researchers may be quite different from one another, the goal of this analysis given this sample is to reveal the most common patterns in the data and is best accomplished given the limitations of these data with this approach.<sup>62</sup> This additional distinction results in a fourth category: Non-faculty at academic institutions.

The same logic described for defining work statuses at specified time points also applies to family life statuses. Table 6.1 shows the coding scheme applied to all respondents at odd years of the career between one and twenty-nine. Respondents are coded into one of four categories: 1) Married with children; 2) Married without children; 3) Not married with children; and 4) Not married without children. Note that respondents are considered to have

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<sup>62</sup> Ideally researchers and administrators would be in separate categories but the small number of each in these data do not permit this distinction.

children only if the child is under 18. The timing of births and of children reaching age 18 and by definition no longer being considered a child for whom substantial caregiving is required may both be captured in these models. For example, models may display the transition from not being a child to being a parent in the event of a birth.

For both work and family trajectories, each respondent is assigned to one of the four specified categories in odd years between one and twenty-nine based on his or her combination of statuses. To the extent that statuses changed over time, respondents will be categorized differently. For example, consider the hypothetical work experience of a person who began his or her career in a faculty position in a Master's level institution (code 2), moved to a faculty position in a Research 1 institution in the fourth year of the career (code 1), and moved into administration in that Research 1 institution (code 4) during the nineteenth year of the career and remained in this position until retirement forty years after earning the Ph.D. This would be coded as follows:

<i>Year:</i>	1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17	19	21	23	25	27	29
<i>Code:</i>	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	4	4	4	4	4

Note that the data are truncated after twenty nine years. For only one half of the respondents is information available about their work (and family) lives beyond the thirtieth year in the career. The remainder of respondents are too young to have data for 30 years post-Ph.D. The further the trajectory is extended from the Ph.D., the more data become unavailable for an increasing number of respondents.

Respondents who are too young to have complete histories beyond the fifteenth year of the career are assigned a missing code of 99. For example, a person who began his or her career in a faculty position in a Research 1 institution (code 1), moved to a faculty position in

a Doctoral Granting institution in the fifth year of the career (code 2), and stayed there until the fifteenth year in the career, which was also the year the data were collected. This would be coded as follows:

*Year:* 1 3 5 7 9 11 13 15 17 19 21 23 25 27 29

*Code:* 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 99 99 99 99 99 99 99

Again, the missing data code of 99 is assigned for the years in the career that the respondents had not yet experienced. Respondents with missing codes contribute only to the segment of the patterns that emerge from the data where they have non-missing values. That is, the program uses only the non-missing data at any given time point to determine the contribution of that time point to the shape of the trajectory.

After estimating work and family trajectories, I select models using a combination of model fit statistics. I identify the minimum number of latent classes needed to estimate the underlying (latent) structure that best represents the observed association of work and family roles over time in the data. No clear gold-standard exists for choosing among the many standard model fit statistics. Smaller Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) values indicate more parsimonious model fit to the data than models with larger BIC values (Raftery 1995). The Lo-Mendell-Rubin (LMR) likelihood ratio test indicates a good model fit when the p-value is greater than 0.05 (Lo, Mendell, and Rubin 2001). When the measure of entropy is close to 1, it indicates that latent classes are very distinct from one another and thus the model fits well.

## RESULTS

### *FAMILY CIRCUMSTANCES: COHORT AND GENDER DIFFERENCES*

As highlighted earlier, this work is situated in changing contexts at various levels, specifically the institutionalization of criminology, changing gender composition of higher education, and also broader changes surrounding work and family. In this section, I present bivariate relationships between gender, cohort membership, and family circumstances. These analyses provide insight into the personal contexts in which negotiations about work occurred, helping us to better understand the work and family trajectories that follow.<sup>63</sup> The cross-classifications of cohort membership, gender, and gender-specific cohort membership with four measures of family circumstances are included in Table 6.2.

Panel 1 examines the relationship between cohort membership and gender with a measure of childcare responsibilities.<sup>64</sup> Specifically, this measure indicates who the primary caregiver was of sick children. The results indicate a shift towards shared childcare responsibilities over time. One quarter of respondents in the more recently trained cohort reported that they were the primary caregivers of sick children compared to only 5.6 percent of respondents in the older cohort. Respondents in the earlier-trained cohort were more likely to report having a spouse who was primarily responsible for the care of sick children (57.3%).<sup>65</sup> Panel 1b shows gender differences in childcare responsibilities with women being more likely than men to report begin the primary caregivers of sick children (45.5% versus

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<sup>63</sup> The measures I present here show no significant association with the work and family trajectories that follow. This suggests that the relationships between these variables and the trajectories are related to the relationships between these variables, gender, and cohort membership. Multivariate analyses are necessary to tease out these effects, though such analyses are not conducted here.

<sup>64</sup> Respondents with children were asked the following question: If your child is/was sick and could not go to regularly-scheduled daytime activities, who most often stays/stayed home to care for the child?

<sup>65</sup> Recall that men are disproportionately more likely to be members of the earlier-trained cohort than women.

10.9%). Among women, there was a greater tendency to share childcare responsibilities with spouses (45.5%) than among men (31.1%). Gender-specific cohort tabulations of childcare responsibility show a pronounced shift towards greater responsibility for children among men in the more recently-trained cohort, though there is still greater reliance on the spouse for the care of children than among women.

Panel 2 indicates whether the respondents' spouses were employed at any point during their careers.<sup>66</sup> The majority of respondents had spouses who were also employed at some point during the respondent's career—86.4 percent of the older cohort and 96.8 percent of the younger cohort were in dual-earner relationships. All women in the sample were in dual-earner households and 90.3 percent of men had spouses who worked. More men in the more recently-trained cohort had spouses who worked outside of the home (96.0%) compared to their earlier trained colleagues (85.4%). Dual-earner families were extremely common among the respondents in this sample, highlighting the importance of considering family circumstances along with work.

Panel 3 addresses the issue of career prioritization<sup>67</sup> for respondents and their spouses, most of who were in dual-earner families. The data reveal a modest shift towards greater shared prioritization of careers among respondents and their spouses, specifically 31.8 percent of respondents in the more recently trained cohort compared to 20.8 percent of respondents in the earlier-trained cohort report equal priority of the careers of both members of the couple. Women are twice as likely as men to report neither career being prioritized

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<sup>66</sup> Respondents who were married or partnered in a long-term relationship were asked the following question: Has your spouse/partner worked in paid employment at any point in your career when decisions had to be made?

<sup>67</sup> Respondents who were married or partnered in a long-term relationship were asked the following question: Think about all the major decisions that you and your spouse/partner have made since you have been together, such as changing jobs, having children, going back to school or moving. Overall, whose career was given more priority in these decisions--your's or your spouse's/partner's?



(48.8% versus 22.6%, respectively). The gender-specific results (Panels 3c and 3d) suggest change over time for both men and women, but are only marginally significant. Over time there is movement towards equally prioritizing careers for men and their spouses (18.1% versus 27.7% for members of the later-trained cohort). Women in the more recently-trained cohort increasingly report their careers being prioritized over their husbands' careers (40.6% versus 9.1%, respectively). In short, collectively the results indicate a shift away from prioritizing husbands' careers that predominated in past generations even among dual-career academics, which is consistent with previous work (Pixley and Moen 2003; Ferber and Loeb 1997; McNeil and Sher 1999; Cutler 1995; Tesch et al 1992).

Panel 4 cross-classifies cohort membership and gender with respondents' work-family priorities.<sup>68</sup> Respondents in the more recently-trained cohort are slightly more likely to report being primarily a career person (17.8%) than earlier-trained respondents (10.5%), though they almost equally prioritize career over family (55.6% in the younger cohort versus 58.6% in the older cohort). Women are considerably more likely to consider themselves primarily a career person than men (28.9% versus 11.5%, respectively). None of the women in the sample considered themselves primarily a family person compared to 6.7 percent of men. This suggests a greater tendency among women to view their careers as all encompassing compared to men, which is perhaps a partial explanation for their career success comparable to that of their male colleagues.

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<sup>68</sup> Respondents were asked the following question: During your associate and early professor years, which of the following would have best described you and your day-to-day priorities?

## *TRAJECTORIES*

To determine the best models for work and family trajectories in the absence of a gold-standard, I examined all goodness-of-fit measures, valuing more parsimonious models. The top panel of Table 6.3 shows model fit statistics for the latent class analysis of work trajectories and the bottom panel shows the statistics for family trajectories. After evaluating all of the model fit statistics, I selected the six-class models for both work and family trajectories. The BIC values suggest six-class models and the entropy measures indicate strong distinctions between the classes in each model. The six-class model for both work and family are superior over models with more classes because additional classes described few cases or showed substantively muddled results. The chosen LCA models – depicted and discussed below – provide good fit to the data and offer a parsimonious set of empirically based classifications of changes in work and family over the course of careers.

Respondents are probabilistically assigned to work and family trajectories. To use these LCA results for further analysis, I use these model parameter estimates and modal assignment to assign each respondent to the latent class (or “trajectory”) that best describes his or her pattern of work and family life changes over the fifteen time points. While modal assignment is not always preferable, in these models, the average probability of correct assignment is very high for each trajectory. Minimum average latent class probabilities are 0.998 for work trajectories and 0.984 for family trajectories, meaning that there is high certainty that respondents are assigned to the trajectories that best fit their actual experiences (99.8 percent for work trajectories and 98.4 percent for family trajectories). The latent class analyses reveal a parsimonious but diverse set of common work and family trajectories that fit the data well, thus revealing the most common patterns in these data.

### *Work Trajectories*

Respondents' work trajectories follow one of six patterns depicted in Figure 1. These patterns are: (6.1a) Non-Research 1 Faculty (44.8% of respondents); (6.1b) Research 1 Faculty (24.3%); (6.1c) Non-academics (9.8%); (6.1d) Early Transitioners (7.1%); (6.1e) Late Transitioners (7.1%); and (6.1f) Administrators (6.8%). Figures 6.1a-f show trajectory-specific probabilities of engaging in particular types of work in specific types of institution during each year of the career. For example, in the fifth year of the career, respondents in trajectory 6.1c have a .67 probability of working in a Non-academic institution, a .15 probability of working as a faculty member in a Non-Research 1 institution, a .15 probability of working as an academic administrator or researcher in an academic institution, and a .03 probability of working as a faculty member in a Research 1 institution. Overall, respondents in this trajectory have high probabilities of being in Non-academic institutions in year 5 of the career, which increase in the middle of the career and decrease slightly to the initial levels towards the end of the 29 year period. People who began their careers in academia, left after a few years, and returned late in their careers are represented by this trajectory.

Figures 6.1a and 6.1b – both of which represent *working as faculty consistently in the same kind of academic institution* for the 29 year period – account for 69 percent of respondents. These respondents remained largely in the same types of institutions (Non-Research 1 and Research 1, respectively) for their entire careers, though they may have moved from one university to another. In both figures, the probabilities of being in a faculty position in the specified type of institution are extremely high (near one for the majority of the years). These trajectories very clearly represent stability and consistency in the types of

institutions in which people are employed along the major distinction between Research 1 and Non-Research 1 institutions. A male scholar described what kept him at his current non-Research 1 institution where he spent his entire career:

Colleagues, colleagues, and colleagues... They [the institution] haven't given me a lot, but they've given me everything I've asked for. I haven't asked for a lot... You've got good students. You've got great graduate students. It's just a very nice environment... (Respondent 031304.01:21).

The Research 1/non-Research 1 demarcation also partially captures the distinction between criminology and other types of departments because very few specialized programs are in Research 1 institutions. I asked one male scholar, who changed institutions once in his career though he remained in Research 1 institutions, whether he ever had any interest in leaving sociology for criminology:

Oh no. When I was younger I used to get job offers, but now I don't anymore, of course, once you're past the threshold and people know you're aging rapidly. But even then, there was never any push to leave... if you're earning a decent living, it really doesn't matter where you are. And I'm very fortunate in that we've always been very happy (Respondent 111704.01:8).

While there was never any push to leave, there were pulls to stay—his family was happy and settled. For both of these respondents, satisfaction with professional career circumstances and familial happiness with the area limited their career mobility.

Figure 6.1c represents 9.8 percent of respondents *who spent much of their careers in non-academic institutions*. In contrast to the trajectories displayed in 6.1a and 6.1b, the trajectory representing the experiences of non-academics is less clear-cut; there is more variability. The distinguishable yet modest and somewhat variable pattern reflects mobility between academic and non-academic institutions, faculty and non-faculty positions. Some interview respondents had careers that would be classified into this trajectory. I asked those who worked in non-academic institutions if they ever thought about moving into academia

and those who did move into academia why they did so. One female scholar began her career in an academic research position and moved into a position in a non-academic institution within a few years of earning her Ph.D. She explained why she did not take an academic position, linking her decision in part to her perceptions of her father's experience as an academic.

My father had been a university professor. I knew what that life was like. I wasn't sure I wanted that life...I wasn't really enamored by the academic model, frankly, but I didn't know what I wanted to do... (Respondent 111704.02:3).

Her childhood experiences with her father who was a professor colored her perceptions of an academic career. She chose instead to spend her career in research positions both within and outside of university settings. This proved to be a good strategy for her family as well, giving her the opportunity to easily move when her husband had new career opportunities. Yet, she was aware of the effect of funding streams on her current employment and the demands placed on her by her job, both of which provoked thoughts about looking for a faculty position. She said:

I have thought to myself, 'I don't think I can do this for 20 years.' I mean, some people have done it for that long, but I just can't see myself doing it... (Respondent 111704.02:6).

She was somewhat ambivalent as to whether she would spend the rest of her working life doing the type of work she was doing at the time of the interview. Her experience illustrates why some scholars who spend much of their careers in non-faculty positions and remain active in academic life may move into academic institutions years into their careers. While I do not spend greater attention to the issue here, continued professional involvement and scholarly productivity are important activities for continuing to have options to move into academia.

Figure 6.1d shows the movement of respondents *from faculty positions in Research 1 institutions into faculty positions in non-Research 1 academic institutions* (7.1%). Movement from a Research 1 to a non-Research 1 institution may occur by choice, while others may have to move because they did not (or expected that they would not) get tenure. I provide examples of both pushes and pulls from my interview data. One respondent who began his faculty career in a Research 1 institution did not get tenure. He moved into a non-Research 1 institution in a specialized program, and it turned out to be a good fit. Another respondent left her faculty position in a Research 1 institution for one in a non-Research 1 institution to live in a more urban area. She said:

I thought this was my chance to do that, and I knew I was going to be taking about 100 steps down in terms of the status, the prestige of the institution...but it was a really good offer (Respondent 111804.01:7-8).

For her, a lucrative offer and being in a large urban area were important as were professional factors including being able to contribute to the development of a newly established department and being recognized for her strong publication. In both cases, moves down the academic hierarchy meant lower prestige but resulted in good fit for different reasons.

Figure 6.1e shows the movement of respondents *from faculty positions in non-Research 1 institutions into faculty positions in Research 1 institutions and administrative roles late in the career* (7.1%). The movement into administrative roles or up the academic hierarchy occurs relatively late in the career for the respondents in this trajectory, likely once they have established themselves professionally. There are examples of upward mobility and movement into administrative positions later in the career from interview respondents. One respondent moved from a non-Research 1 sociology department to a Research 1 institution post-tenure and played a major role in establishing a criminal justice program. He says:

...it was a fluke that I ended up there...[but]...building the organization, trying to leave a legacy in terms of a department of criminal justice, that's been the other half of my career (Respondent 111402.01:13).

He had established himself as a key contributor to the field of criminal justice and continued to move in that scholarly direction despite his roots in sociology. The move reaffirmed the direction he was already taking with his scholarly work and was an environment where he was surrounded by a group of scholars who had similar concerns about the criminal justice system. It also entailed a move into a higher ranked institution, which he described as a fluke, but would not have been likely without a solid reputation among other scholars in the field.

Finally, Figure 6.1f highlights the movement of respondents *into administrative positions irrespective of the type of position and institutional location during the early years of the career* (6.8%). One male scholar hesitantly took an administrative position; he described what he liked and disliked about working in administration. He said:

I found that I loved it. I feel more connected to a place when I'm involved in some kind of administrative relationship to it. It does eat up your time and it's frustrating, but it grounds you in a place. It makes you a part of a place in a different way than a faculty member... (Respondent 031004.02:16).

Academic administrators are a critical part of college and university operation. For some administrative roles are relatively brief, while others serve for more extended periods of time. The respondents whose administrative experiences are captured in this work trajectory spent a good portion of their careers in administration.

The left hand panel of Table 6.4 displays the relationships between work trajectories and cohort membership, gender, and graduate department. The differences between work trajectories are not significant by cohort membership or gender, indicating that the work paths men and women take are largely similar and stable over time. However, differences by graduate department are significant. Respondents trained in psychology and 'other'

departments have higher representation among non-academics (*F6.1c*) than respondents trained in sociology and criminology/criminal justice. Sociologists and criminologists are more likely to have non-Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1a*) careers than respondents trained in other types of programs (46.9%, 59.0%, other [36.9%], and psychology [28.2%], respectively). This pattern is consistent with relatively higher representation of sociologists and criminologists in specialized programs which are primarily located in non-Research 1 institutions.

### *Family Trajectories*

Generally speaking, family trajectories reflect one of six patterns depicted in Figure 6.2. These patterns are: (*6.2a*) Parents at Career Outset (33.5% of respondents); (*6.2b*) Early Career Parents (22.6%); (*6.2c*) Married and Childless (15.4%); (*6.2d*) Mid-Career Parents (12.2%); (*6.2e*) Singles (9.2%); and (*6.2f*) Single Parents (7.1%). Figures 6.2a-f shows the within-class probability of having particular types of family arrangements during each odd year of the career.

Figures 6.2a, 6.2b, and 6.2d capture the personal life patterns of 68.3 percent of respondents. Each of these figures shows that respondents with these trajectories are married with children for the majority of the career, though they are differentiated primarily by the timing of family formation. Figure 6.2a represents 33.5 percent of respondents who *began their careers married with children*. The married with children and married without children lines in the figure cross in year 19, a pattern which represents continued status as married and the aging of children out of the home. By mid-career, the probability of having children under 18 in the home decreases until year 23 in the career when there are no more young



children in the home. Figure 6.2b represents Early Career Parents—respondents who were *primarily married when they began their careers, some with children and some without*. The probability of having a child under 18 in the home increases most dramatically between years three and five in the career and continues to rise, albeit more slowly, until around year nine where it largely levels off until year 23 in the career. Children begin aging out of the home by the end of the 29-year period under study. Figure 6.2d represents Mid-Career Parents; that is, respondents who *begin having children between years 5 and 7 in the career*. The probability of having children under 18 in the home increases dramatically until year 11 in the career and thereafter remains high until the end of the observation period.

The timing of marriage and children is the key factor differentiating these patterns. During the in-depth interviews, some women talked about the timing of children in their careers. A woman who earned her degree in the 1970s talked about this in the following context:

R: So I have a single child. I was, I think, 30 years old, and I was, I either, I guess I had tenure or I knew I was going to get tenure or something, so it was around that in terms of career...

I: Was it a conscious decision to wait until you almost had tenure?

R: I think—it wasn't like 'Oh, now I have tenure.'...I kind of got a little bit of the early career thing out of my system, of running around, going to meetings, publishing, this, that, and the other...it was more like a gradual process of a lot of different things (Respondent 112103.03:10-12).

This woman does not make sense of her experience in terms of a conscious choice to delay childbearing until she had tenure. Simultaneously, she does reference the intensity of early career demands for faculty members in her elaborations on the timing of childbearing even if it only partially contributed to her fertility decisions. After having her child, she felt fortunate to have good childcare. She did not perceive her situation as more challenging than other

working mothers. By contrast, a female scholar trained in the 1960s tells a story riddled with greater work-family conflict. She described her apprehension about her colleagues' reactions at the prospect of being a professor and a mother:

There were enormous barriers...I didn't have children until very late in life because I knew that if I even considered that I would never get tenure... I didn't have my son, I only have one child, and the reason I only have one child is partially because I waited until I was almost 40 to have a child, until I was established, until they couldn't really do much to me (Respondent 112103.02:6).

This woman was explicit about waiting to have children until she felt secure in her career.

The career risks that she anticipated would follow the birth of a child were too great to chance before she had established herself.

While the timing of births was an issue only women talked about in the interviews, both men and women talked about the difficulties they had combining work and family. One male scholar said:

My daughter once said to me, 'Oh, I remember my childhood. That's when you were upstairs in your study with the door closed.' I said, 'Yeah, that's the price you pay.' I was upstairs in my study with the door closed. You just can't do everything, and what gets sacrificed, of course, is your family too often. If I had to do it over again, I'd probably do it a little differently, but at the time I didn't know it. It's what you have to do (Respondent 111704.01:11).

This academic breadwinner felt the tensions between work demands and family time, and his family felt them, too. Despite telling about how his daughter remembered him working often during her childhood, he talked about how he was always concerned with striking the right balance between work and home. To encourage this balance, his family spent summers together at a retreat in the country. He would work for part of the day and spend time with his family for the rest of the day. This strategy allowed him to be with his family during the summer when there was less competition from work for his time. Another male scholar

described how he combined work and family. His story reveals greater integration between work and family, which he achieved by setting stricter work boundaries.

It's a balance that you have to make. You know, if you look at my career in terms of publications as opposed to some other folks, it's not the same. It's much less, but I think, you know, I've had a good life. My feeling was that family trumps everything, and if it came down to the difference between whether I was going to get that other publication or whether I was going to take my daughter out for a walk, guess what? I took my daughter for a walk, so I don't regret a bit. You know, I never got into this occupation feeling I was going to be number one. I was just going to do the things that I really enjoyed to do, and that's what I've done. (Respondent 031304.01:19).

Another male scholar, who became a parent during graduate school, described the tensions he felt between work and family:

I felt the conflict between being a parent and trying to be an active scholar and trying to get tenure...I felt it all the time, and it was hard balancing that. I often rationalized, you know, the one thing I don't want to do is be an adult and resent my kids because I gave up something for them that I now want...I went out, and I tried to do as many things as I could do. I now see that as not a way of getting things but of depleting yourself, losing things, and every time a door closes, another opens (Respondent 031004.02:22).

This male scholar perceived that he needed to be very active and visible during the early years of his career. To that end, he traveled extensively; he missed birthdays and anniversaries. He prioritized his work demands, which often kept him away from home, while his wife had primary responsibility for their children. This scholar's marriage ended, but in a second marriage, he pursued different strategies for combining work and family. In part, this scholar drew on his earlier experiences and made a decision to do things differently the second time around. Simultaneously, he was also in a position to be more selective about his professional pursuits in his second marriage.

These passages from the in-depth interviews illustrate the role of timing in women's fertility and the integration of work and family for respondents with children. There is a

consciousness among women about the competing demands of work and family. Early career life is demanding and so are children and marriages. Some female scholars were conscious if not deliberate about when was a good time in their careers to have a child. Men, on the other hand, spoke to issues surrounding their time spent with children. In short, both men and women devised strategies for achieving balance in their work and family lives.

Figure 6.2c depicts the family arrangements of respondents who *primarily remain married but without children in the home*, representing 15.4 percent of the sample. This trajectory combines both respondents who never had children and those whose children were aging out of the home by the time they were beginning their careers. In a continued effort to understand the relationship between work and family decision-making, I asked respondents who married but never had children whether they had wanted children since most people do (Thornton and Young-DeMarco 2001). One female scholar responded this way:

When we first got married, it was the 1970s, and there was this nuclear dread. We sort of put it off, you know, not bringing a child into the world. And then later on, career got in the way, and then later on I just got old. I wouldn't really say career got in the way. I would say it was more a matter of just never making an active decision and then the clock running out (Respondent 112904.01:15).

Historical circumstances along with ambivalence about the best time to have a child and biological age are factored into this woman's fertility (in)decision. In addition to the importance of time at historical, institutional, and biological levels, it again suggests a tension between perceived work and family demands.

Figure 6.2e best describes 9.2 percent of respondents who *primarily remain unmarried without children* over the course of the career. The probability of being married or having children is negligible for the majority of the career. Even for scholars who did not have the family demands that exist with a spouse and children, work-family balance was an

issue. One woman who never married or had children described the balance between her work and family life:

I think the work career has really gotten in the way basically is the answer. I'm single so I don't have the sort of responsibility of managing a husband and children and that sort of thing at the same time I'm managing a career...Where it has gotten in the way is being integrated in the extended family life because it's just the work itself is always there. Academic work is 24 hours a day if you allow it and you want it. And so since there is always work to be done, I don't spend nearly enough time as far as I'm concerned with my extended family...And because no one drives me away from it, it's to the neglect of other more important things or equally important things (Respondent 112103.04:15).

This woman recognizes the challenges associated with combining work and family among those who are married and have children and also illustrates that work and family competition can be an issue for individuals without a spouse and children. Yet, such competition is not necessarily part of her everyday life experiences.

Figure 6.2f represents respondents who were *unmarried for the majority of the career with children under 18 in the home during the early part of the career* who later aged out of the home. A single parent when she began her first job, this woman talked about the barriers she faced.

I: Were your colleagues supportive of your dual role?

R: I don't think it's true today and I know it wasn't true when my kids were younger...I also had a department chair, to his great credit, who gave me courses, the timing of the courses only when the kids were in school. I do remember the first year when I came up for either getting a higher salary or not. He wrote me a letter saying, 'I'm sorry I haven't raised your salary, but you don't have a wife and children to support.' I was a single mother, and it was the last time he did that because the 1968 law had come in. The ruling had come in saying that you couldn't discriminate on the basis of sex. And I was supporting children even though I didn't have a wife. It didn't happen a second time, but when you talk about colleagues being particularly considerate, I'd say not really. I mean they were to the extent that the environment permitted it... (Respondent 112203.01:11).

This woman experienced blatant discrimination in her job, which she attributes largely to expectations about who workers, especially academics, were supposed to be and what their families were supposed to look like. Consistent with Williams' (2001) concept of the "ideal worker," this female scholar was different because she was a woman and was both breadwinner and primary caregiver. Her work and family life did not match the assumptions undergirding the expectations of either men or women in the academy, which with the rise of married women, especially mothers, in the labor force quickly became a world of work based on outdated gender roles and expectations. Because she had her children before beginning her post-Ph.D. career, the conditions for women, especially those with children, were more prominent for her than issues of the timing of childbearing.

The right hand panel of Table 6.4 shows the relationship between family trajectories and cohort membership, gender, and graduate department. Gender differences in family trajectories are of large enough magnitude to be detected by a chi-square test. Closer examination of women's and men's family life trajectories reveal considerable differences in the likelihood of being a spouse and parent. Over two-thirds of respondents are married with children for the majority of their careers (*F6.2a*, *F6.2b*, *F6.2d*). Yet, these trajectories represent the experiences of fewer than half of the women (44.2% versus 72.6% of men). Men and women have similar tendencies of having children early in their careers (*F6.2b*) or by mid-career (*F6.2d*), but women are considerably less likely than men to begin their careers with children (*F6.2a*) (11.5% versus 37.5%, respectively). Women are nearly twice as likely than men to be single (*F6.2e*) (15.4% versus 8.1%, respectively) and married and childless (*F6.1c*) (30.8% versus 12.6%, respectively). The ways in which women and men combine their family lives with their work reveals a dramatic gender difference. The interview

material used previously to provide context for understanding fertility timing and historically and institutionally located experiences at the intersection of work and family help us understand why women in this sample were less likely to combine children with academic careers.

#### *WORK AND FAMILY TRAJECTORIES*

The gender differences in family life experiences raise curiosity about the ways in which men and women combine their work and family. Men's and women's work and family experiences similar, yet their personal lives were quite distinct. This is consistent with previous work that shows the career obstacles faced by women with families (e.g. Xie and Shauman 2003; Grant, Kennelly, and Ward 2000; Deegan 1995) and the family lives historically forgone by high achieving women in science (e.g. Rossiter 1982). This sample provides an opportunity for investigation into issues surrounding the intersection of work and family for successful academic women and men. The remainder of the discussion that follows is based on a cross-classification of the work and family trajectories (i.e. work-family pathways) (Table 6.5). The six by six cross-classification of work and family trajectories gives us a sense of the most common pathways followed by respondents. While the table is sparse, it illuminates the most typical experiences of successful scholars.

Each of the work-family pathways is taken by at least some respondents except for combining a non-academic career with single parenthood. I discuss four sets of findings from Table 6.5. First, careers are managed along with marriage and parenthood for 68 percent of respondents in the sample. These pathways represent the prototypical image of people who 'have it all' – successful careers, a spouse, and children. Yet, the cohort and gender-specific

tabulations in Table 6.4 indicate that these pathways are less common for women and younger respondents. Large scale demographic trends regarding marital and fertility timing, the changing gender composition of the professoriate, and the structural and cultural contradictions of women as workers and mothers may in part explain gender and cohort differences in work-family pathways.

Second, although many respondents have careers and families, there are differences in the prevalence of work-family pathways. For example, nearly 70 percent of respondents who are Non-Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1a*), Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1b*), Non-academics (*F6.1c*), and Early Transitioners (*F6.1d*) have both spouses and children. In contrast, slightly more than half of respondents who are Late Transitioners (*F6.1e*) and Administrators (*F6.1f*) are both married and have children. Though these data cannot disentangle the direction of the causality between work and family life, the patterns suggest different family circumstances for respondents who pursue careers in academic administration or move into higher ranked academic institutions late in their careers compared to those who are Non-academics or consistently in faculty positions.

Third, respondents who spend the majority of their careers as faculty members (*F6.1a*, *F6.1b*, and *F6.1d*) combine work and family life differently. Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1b*) and the Early Transitioners (*F6.1d*) are much more likely to wait to have children until they have begun their careers (Early Career Parents [*F6.2b*]) than to begin their careers with children (Parents at Career Outset [*F6.2c*]) compared to non-Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1a*). In addition to differences in work and family life at the outset of the career, having a family (*F6.2c*) and beginning the career in a Research 1 institution (*F6.1b*) is a pathway taken only by men in this sample (see Table 6.6) and is only half as common among men in



the younger cohort (17.1% versus 34.0%). By contrast, the six women who were Parents at Career Outset (*F6.2c*) pursued either non-academic (*F6.1c*) or non-Research 1 faculty (*F6.1a*) careers. It is possible that women may perceive non-Research 1 faculty positions or jobs outside of academia as less demanding and therefore better environments for them to balance their competing commitments. Yet, recall the importance of first positions for institutional mobility and the cumulative advantages that accrue to scholars with initial advantages discussed in previous chapters.

Likely a reflection of large scale demographic trends surrounding delayed childbearing and fertility patterns of women in academia in particular, pathways combining faculty careers and family life at career outset are less common for members of the more recently trained cohort compared to the earlier trained cohort. Recall that members of the more recently trained cohort were similarly as likely to be Parents at Career Outset (*F6.2a*) as they were to be Early Career Parents (*F6.2b*) (see Table 6.4), while respondents in the earlier-trained cohort were more likely to begin their careers married with children (*F6.2a*). For respondents in the more recently trained cohort, there is a sharper distinction between the work trajectories of Parents at Career Outset (*F6.2a*). Though being a Parent at Career Outset (*F6.2a*) is less common among members of the younger cohort, those in the younger cohort who are parents when they begin their careers are only half as likely to spend their careers in Research 1 institutions (*F6.1b*) as those in the earlier-trained cohort. Nearly twice as many scholars with families spend their careers in non-Research 1 institutions (32.9%) compared to Research 1 institutions (17.1%). Half of the women who are married with children are Early Career Parents (*F6.2b*) and one quarter either begin their careers with children (*F6.2a*) or wait until mid-career (*F6.2d*). By contrast, half of their male counterparts begin their careers

with children already in the home (*F6.2a*), 30 percent have children early in their careers (*F6.2b*), and 20 percent begin their families by mid-career (*F6.2d*). Again, for those who have children, women seem to wait until they are more established in their careers before starting families compared to men who generally have children when they begin or very early in their careers.

Finally, some work trajectories appear more conducive than others for being Parents at Career Outset (*F6.2f*). Respondents who are married with children when they begin their careers are disproportionately more likely to be Non-academics (*F6.1a*) or Non-Research 1 Faculty (*F.2d*). Over half of respondents in work trajectories Non-Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1a*), Research 1 Faculty (*F6.1b*), and Non-academics (*F6.1c*), begin their careers with children or have them early in their careers, though respondents with children when they begin their careers are slightly less likely to work in Research 1 institutions. As mentioned previously, perhaps the perceived demands and expectations of a Research 1 faculty career is one of work and family incompatibility, which would explain why many scholars in this work trajectory wait a few years after beginning their careers to have children. Or, perhaps what I have characterized as an incompatibility is actually a choice by respondents to be in certain types of work environments and pursue particular family lifestyles.

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

...That's a hard job. You're going to find out. It's hard. There are a lot of demands made of you, and you are going to have colleagues who don't quite appreciate the fact that you're a mother and that you have special responsibilities as a mother, and they're going to think, 'Is she a mother or a professor? She's got to make a choice. Is she going to be here, or is she going to be there with her kid? If she's with her kid, then she should out and leave this position for someone who can work on it full time.' And I've gone

through that with a lot of female faculty members in our department (Respondent 111704.01:16).

The findings in this chapter span up to thirty years of work and family experiences of my respondents. The analyses reveal how work lives are structured and the intersection of work and family life, telling a story of career success in the context of gendered family arrangements. The latent class analyses reveal a parsimonious set of six work and family trajectories, displaying the unfolding of careers. The majority of respondents (nearly 90%) spent most of their careers in academic institutions with little change in the type of institution or the nature of work.

The work trajectories that exist in the data reflect the organization of science and academic hierarchies. Mobility between Research 1 and non-Research 1 institutions was not common in these data and therefore did not emerge as a common trajectory. The exception is the switch from a Research 1 institution to a non-Research 1 institution early in the career, which captures movement down the academic hierarchy. The prevalence of this type of mobility in contrast to upward mobility is consistent with prestige hierarchies in science. Though Chapter 5 reported mobility between types of institutions, upward mobility is not common enough to stand out as a distinctive pathway in this set of parsimonious work trajectories.

The findings also lend support for ideas about the importance of entry portals and cumulative processes in science (Cole 1979; Cole and Cole 1973). As argued in chapters 4 and 5, the point of entry in careers has a lasting impact on the pathways through academic institutions over the course of careers. There is little variation by gender in contrast to much scholarship on women's work (but see Blair-Loy 1999), which highlights the differences from men's work experiences (Han and Moen 1999; Williams and Han 2003; Moen 1985;

Moen and Han 2001). There is also little evidence for changes in the prevalence of work trajectories over time despite social and institutional changes (Dannefer and Uhlenberg 1999). Instead, the routes through academic and non-academic institutions are often traveled by both men and women over time. By contrast, graduate department differences are more accurately understood as a reflection of criminology's location in academic institutions rather than a difference related to the quality of training in different types of departments.

The family trajectories reveal that most respondents had spouses and/or children (nearly 90%). While work and family certainly did co-exist for most respondents, gender and cohort differences are evident in the details. First, women's successes in having careers akin to those of their male colleagues are tempered by their familial sacrifices (Mason [1988] 2002). The large percentage of women in this sample without children (46.2%), especially in comparison to the percentage of men without children (20.7%), is indicative of the choices women made between careers and children, consistent with a number of other studies that have examined marriage and parenthood among academics (Perna 2001; Mason and Goulden 2002; Xie and Shauman 2003; Spalter-Roth and VanVooren 2008; Wolfinger, Mason, and Goulden 2008). The primary difference between this and previous work is the striking similarity between the work trajectories of men and women. These women were acutely aware of the challenges ahead if they combined their careers with parenthood, especially at the wrong time. To the extent that women have "chosen" to arrange their lives this way, their choices have been constrained.

Second, women express concerns about the timing of childbearing in their careers and are more likely than men to delay childbearing. This finding is also consistent with previous research on parenthood and careers in science (Xie and Shauman 2003; Wolfinger, Mason,

and Goulden 2008). Coupled with women's greater caregiving responsibilities and membership in dual-earner families, their decisions also signal their agency. Rather than find themselves in situations in which they feel like they need to choose between the demands of work and family life, many women planned their family lives around their work, waiting to have children until they were established in their careers and the demands of work were more manageable.

Both men and women are agentic in their efforts to combine work and family. While the timing of children was explicitly mentioned by women, delayed family formation was also more common for more recently trained men than their older counterparts. Later-trained men more often than their earlier-trained colleagues were in dual-earner families where expectations for their family involvement increasingly approached the levels of their spouses and partners. Delayed family formation may also then have been a strategy for meeting the competing demands of work and family.

Despite the reality of "competing devotions" for both men and women, aspects of the gendered nature of work and family life still remain. Disproportionate childlessness among women is one indicator. Another is the greater responsibility of women to care for children. Finally, the stories of women perceiving or actually experiencing colleagues questioning their commitment to their work are also indicative of gendered expectations about work and family. The social structures and cultural assumptions undergirding work and family life to a greater extent challenge women's intersecting roles in these domains than men's (Blair-Loy 2003; Stone 2007; Williams 2000; Grant, Kennelly, and Ward 2000). As one female scholar said:

...the discrimination ran very deeply and by very decent human beings in every other way. But there was just a conviction that women did not belong in

the workplace, at least in the kind of job that you and I have (Respondent 112203.01:5).

Women, especially those with children, do not fit the image of the successful career person who is a male, ideal worker without demands beyond work. While the structural and cultural arrangements surrounding work and family are being reorganized, change is slow, and structural lag is problematic.

## *CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS*

In this dissertation, I draw on three data sources to understand academic careers and scholarly work in criminology in the post-WWII era. I study careers stages and career trajectories, considering the extent to which there are differences by cohort membership, gender, and graduate department affiliation. It is informed by the life course approach, specifically the relevance of specific historical, social, and institutional contexts for lives; the interlock of work and family domains; and the importance of early career experiences for institutional mobility and career trajectories. It further documents the social situatedness of scholarship in this field of scholarly knowledge. I briefly describe the data, contributions, and limitations of this dissertation as well as recommendations for future research.

### DATA SOURCES

I study the careers of a sample of scholars whose research contributed to the development of criminology and shaped the directions of the field. All respondents were first authors of crime-related research published in leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993. A select portion of their work is included in an article-level dataset that contains information on the substantive, methodological, and theoretical aspects of the articles. Rich in many ways, the dataset contained little information on the authors of these journal articles.

Augmenting the article dataset are data I collected by surveying a sample of first authors (N=445) from the former data source. Respondents completed a career-centered survey, providing information about their career, educational, and marital histories as well as

scholarly activities, interests, and work environments. This data source facilitated detailed analyses of the careers of influential scholars in criminology in the post-WWII United States.

I collected the final data source by conducting in-depth interviews with a number of scholars in the article-level dataset. They told me the stories of their careers and scholarly work, helping me to understand the most salient factors shaping the contours of their careers, including changes and shifts in institutions and scholarly work. I include interview material throughout Chapters 3-6 to illustrate quantitative patterns, to provide greater context for understanding patterns, and, where possible, to unpack patterns by hearing the respondents' voices regarding decision-making and perceptions of situations.

These three data sources are woven together throughout to tell a story about careers and scholarship in changing environments. The influential men and women, whose careers I studied, were trained in the United States with a few from other countries, such as, Australia, Canada, and Germany. They are a multi-disciplinary group, receiving Ph.D.s between 1943 and 1992 in anthropology, criminology, criminal justice, psychology, law, sociology, political science, and education, to name a few. They worked in many institutions, academic and non-academic, over the courses of their careers. Their careers spanned decades in the post-WWII era, allowing us to understand the influences of historical, social, and institutional contexts.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Broadly, the findings of this study of cohort membership, gender, and department affiliation effects on the careers of leading scholars in the field of criminology contributes to our knowledge about the history and sociology of criminology, careers and the life course,



and stratification in science. Cohort membership illuminates how large scale changes affected individual opportunities and experiences while simultaneously showing stability in types of career mobility and trajectories over time. Gender initially appeared to play a limited role in the careers of male and female scholars, both during graduate school and the early career years and regarding institutional mobility, except as it operated to create a “chilly climate” for women. Yet, explicit attention to work *and* family life in the analysis of career trajectories demonstrated how the lives of scholars are clearly gendered at their intersection. Finally, graduate department differences reflected both the concentration of specialized training programs in non-Research 1 institutions and the career opportunities available.

This investigation revealed the theoretical importance of contexts, linked lives, and early experiences for careers. The contexts in which these careers unfolded—the expansion of higher education and the influx of women, the development of criminology, the rise of dual-earner families, and changing gender norms—all contributed to the work and family experiences of these scholars. Though situated in changing contexts, men’s and women’s work lives were similar and the pathways through institutions were unchanged in nature even if more or less prevalent over time. What did change were family lives for later-trained compared to earlier-trained scholars. This reflects large scale social changes, including women’s access to work, dual-career families, and social norms.

Regarding cohort membership, there are clear distinctions in career opportunities available to earlier and later-trained scholars. Their opportunities were shaped by various layers of influence, including political and economic conditions and institutions, which affect disciplinary and intellectual development (Collins 1994, 1998; Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2003, 2004).

Because scholars are embedded in institutions and are the producers of ideas, both of which contribute to the creation of careers, this previous work partially informs my examination of careers in context. My work specifically highlights the importance of considering the intersection of biographies and contexts.

The timing and career stage of respondents, particularly during the expansion and contraction of higher education, had defining impacts on career experiences. For example, crime-related employment opportunities were available to members of both cohorts, though under different circumstances (Chapter 4). Earlier-trained respondents with an interest in crime-related issues, who were looking for post-graduate school employment when higher education was expanding rapidly, benefitted from these institutional conditions and federal support for the development of specialized programs of criminology and criminal justice. The academic job market was good and career opportunities were plentiful (Caplow and McGee 1958). Their more recently trained colleagues, however, faced a depressed academic market. The growth of higher education came to a halt, and jobs were scarce (Burke 1988; Finkelstein, Seal, and Schuster 1998). Yet, demand for faculty in criminology and criminal justice continued, resulting in employment opportunities in recently created departments of criminology and criminal justice for newly minted Ph.D.s with crime-related interests even if they were trained in other types of departments. Partially a reflection of the general and criminology-specific conditions, more recently trained respondents were more likely to begin their careers in non-Research 1 institutions compared to those in the earlier-trained cohort.

These conditions also provided opportunities for career mobility, especially among earlier-trained respondents (Chapter 5). Members of the earlier-trained cohort, who were established enough to be reputable candidates for starting or growing specialized programs of

criminology and criminal justice, had opportunities to engage in institution-building during the expansion of criminology. Many of the senior scholars I interviewed talked about institution-building as an important part of their careers, which often facilitated career mobility. The quantitative data indeed show a greater tendency for members of the earlier-trained cohort to move from faculty positions into administration than those more recently trained (Chapter 6). They also show the growth of criminology through the changing distribution of scholars' training backgrounds and mobility. The movement of sociology-trained scholars into specialized departments reflects the demand for faculty members to teach in these newly established programs and the common foundations of sociology and criminology (Akers 1992; Savelsberg and Sampson 2002).

While most respondents changed positions at least once, much career mobility was horizontal (i.e. into the same type of institution as was left) (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986). Both the career mobility (Chapter 5) and work trajectory (Chapter 6) analyses underscore the importance of the first position, especially the institutional type, for the rest of the career (Caplow and McGee 1958; Cole and Cole 1973; Lewis 1996). The skills developed and honed in Research 1 institutions, for example, are more transferrable than those developed in non-Research 1 institutions, resulting in different opportunities for mobility and career paths (Rosenfeld and Jones 1986; Youn and Zelterman 1986; Allison and Long 1987; Rosenfeld 1984; Parsons and Platt 1973). Different career opportunities, resulting from different emphases on teaching and research, reflect the segmentation of academic labor markets (Brown 1967; Clark 1987).

While contexts affected career experiences, career paths and the nature of mobility were stable over time, reflecting the well-established hierarchies in academia. The deeply

ingrained career lines in academia help us understand the lack of change over time and the absence of gender differences in career patterns (Clark 1987). There is little room for deviation from the well-worn paths in the pursuit of normatively successful academic careers.

Yet, careers were gendered in ways beyond career mobility and trajectories. The women in this sample persevered in the face of sexual harassment, discrimination, and isolation in the academy; they are “survivors” (Cole 1979). While women have become more visible, their scarcity as faculty members affected who these scholars, especially women, could take classes with, how integrated they felt in their departments, and the perceptions of women as colleagues; all had the potential to affect their career success. Few men or women had access to female mentors or had female faculty colleagues early in their careers, though this has changed over time as more women earned Ph.D.s and worked in faculty positions (Chapter 3). Women in the sample felt like they received less intellectual support from their advisors (Chapter 3), which is problematic given that most graduate students are trained for professional roles in an intellectual enterprise (Hartnett 1976; Lovitts 2001; Girves and Wemmerus 1988).

For the women in my study, survivorship and success in professional life was not without sacrifice. Many women prioritized their work and abstained from marriage and parenthood (Xie and Shauman 2003; Mason and Goulden 2002; Spalter-Roth and VanVooren 2008; Perna 2001; Mason [1988] 2002). While women were less likely to be married and have children at each stage of their careers, the trajectory approach in Chapter 6 clearly showed differences in the ways men and women combine their work and family lives. Family trajectories that include marriage and parenthood were more common for men,

whereas women were more likely to be single or married and childless. These differences may be partially attributable to the growing trend towards delayed marriage and childbearing, but family lives are distinctly different even among the more recently trained scholars. While both men and women with spouses and children combined work and family life, the burden of synchronizing these competing roles fell more squarely on women (Blair-Loy 2003; Stone 2007; Williams 2000; Grant, Kennelly, and Ward 2000).

Finally, I also investigated scholarly work in careers, focusing on both the impact of productivity on careers and institutional locations on publication outlets and substantive topics. Scholarly productivity during graduate school was relatively uncommon and did not differentiate the types of jobs respondents received out of graduate school or the substantive topics of scholarship (Chapter 4). Publishing articles in leading journals facilitated career mobility, but only enhanced the likelihood of moving into Research 1 institutions where research is most highly valued (Chapter 5). Early location in the academic hierarchy did, however, impact the selection of publication outlets early in the career, reflecting the institutionalization of criminology in primarily non-Research 1 institutions (Chapter 4). Institutional location was not a significant indicator of the substantive nature of scholarly work, though disciplinary training had modest effects. Consistent with previous work, criminological specialization and political funding did affect topical foci, but the effects were reduced by the inclusion of gender, disciplinary training, and institutional location (Savelsberg, King, and Cleveland 2002; Savelsberg, Cleveland, and King 2004; Savelsberg and Flood 2004).

## LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The scholars whose careers I have examined have succeeded in publishing in the leading sociology and criminology journals in the United States. The respondents in my sample were the producers of the scholarship that defined criminology in the post-WWII era. Many of them not only contributed to the advancement of criminological knowledge, but also to the institutional development of criminology and criminal justice. Some of them were the scholars who were called upon to serve on President's Crime Commissions and lead the professional associations of criminology and criminal justice, and their scholarship exemplified criminology in the post-WWII era. They are indeed a select group. Their careers have been continuous and characterized by stability, reflecting the institutionalized career pathways in academia. The federal backing of the development of criminology in many ways created opportunities that may not have been available to aspiring scholars in other fields during other times or even the same times. Furthermore, my sample does not include the men and women who never published in leading journals and instead published their work in book form, those who never published and instead focused their energies exclusively on teaching, administration, or followed non-academic career paths without contributing scholarly publications, those whose careers were not full-time and continuous, or those who self-selected out of science.

Regarding the ability to speak to issues surrounding the production of scholarly knowledge, the compiled datasets now lack comprehensiveness on the scholarly work of sample members. The intersection of careers, especially mobility, and scholarly productivity would be more effectively examined if the existing data were augmented with information

about all of the scholarship produced by the authors. Data of this sort could be collected from the Social Science Citation Index, which includes details about articles including title, additional authors, journal outlet, and year of publication as well as citation counts. Additional information of this sort on the scholarship produced by these scholars would increase the ability of these data to link together careers and scholarship. Tracking the development of individual scholarly ideas over the course of careers and mapping publication trajectories onto career trajectories may provide more insight into the reciprocal relationship between careers and scholarly work, especially the operation of processes of cumulative advantage and disadvantage and inequality in science. Incorporating information on impact (i.e. citation frequency) may also be fruitful for understanding trajectories of ideas. Perhaps the effects of historical, social, and institutional conditions that affect the type of work people do also affect future avenues of inquiry. They may prompt shifts in individual trajectories of scholarship as they shape of careers of individuals and the scholarly work of a field.

This work also underscores the importance of collecting information about family life as well as work histories and the use of longitudinal data to understand gender and careers. The ways in which the similarities between men's and women's work careers are coupled with gendered family lives is seen clearly by examining the intersections of work and family trajectories. Membership in dual-earner families adds another dimension of complexity to the negotiation of work and family life, especially for workers, like academics, who are in a national job market. Studying gender inequality in professions where careers are rigidly structured, such as academia, is important as new generations of dual-earner families navigate work and family in increasingly uncertain work environments. Future research would benefit by considering the work lives of spouses and partners over time in detail,

which could yield more insight into the linkages between careers within families. Gender equality continues to be a worthy cause that requires careful consideration of the organization of work and family life and concerted efforts to change the existing underpinnings of these institutions.



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## APPENDICES



## APPENDIX A: FIRST ROUND LETTER WITH INSTRUCTIONS FOR WEB SURVEY

October 10, 2005

Address 1

Address 2

Address 3

Dear XXX,

I am writing to ask for your help in a National Science Foundation supported dissertation study of careers and publications by scholars working on crime and social reactions to crime. Below you will find a URL and unique UserID and password to access a survey over the Web. This study is part of an effort to understand the production of scholarly knowledge on crime and crime control as it occurs in the context of professional and personal careers.

According to our data you have published at least once on a crime related issue in a leading sociology or criminology journal between 1951 and 1993. I am thus contacting you to ask about your career experiences and scholarly work. Should I be wrong, and you have not published a crime related article between 1951 and 1993, please email me at [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu). In that case your name will be removed from my contact list.

We have recently used a data set based on content analysis of 1,612 journal articles to examine conditions of criminological knowledge. Yet, we know little about the articles' authors, especially their career patterns. By completing the survey, you help us understand the factors shaping careers and subsequently criminological knowledge. You may find it helpful to have a copy of your Curriculum Vitae or résumé available for easy reference when completing the survey.

Your answers are completely confidential. They will be linked to your crime related article(s) in the existing dataset. For this purpose we will use the unique UserID provided to you below for completion of the survey via the web. These random identifiers, included in a code sheet, have been assigned to you only for the purposes of this study. The code sheet will be kept in a locked file cabinet and then destroyed upon the completion of data collection. There will thus be no way of connecting your name with any of the information from the survey.

This survey is voluntary. However, your participation will help us shed light on the relationship between scholarship and careers under the changing conditions of criminology. It will be crucial for the completion of my dissertation project.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I am happy to talk with you. My phone number is (612) 624-4300, and my e-mail address is [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu); or you can write to me at the address on the letterhead.

To complete the survey, please go to: <https://survey.cla.umn.edu/crimstudy>

Your unique UserID is: XXXX

Your unique password is: XXXXXX

If you have any problems completing the survey via the web or prefer to complete a paper copy, please contact me at [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu). Thank you very much for helping with this important study.

Sincerely,

Sarah M. Flood  
Ph.D. Candidate

APPENDIX B: SECOND ROUND LETTER WITH INSTRUCTIONS FOR WEB SURVEY

October 31, 2005

Address 1  
Address 2  
Address 3

Dear XXX,

I recently sent you a letter inviting you to complete a survey over the web about your career history and scholarly work. The survey is for my National Science Foundation funded dissertation project in which I examine careers and scholarship. It takes approximately 15-25 minutes, on average. Below you will find a URL and unique UserID and password to access the survey. You may find it helpful to have a copy of your Curriculum Vitae or résumé available for easy reference when completing the survey.

Your name was gathered from a list of authors whose publications on crime-related issues (very broadly defined) appeared in leading sociology and criminology journals between 1951 and 1993. An article dataset containing 1,612 content analyzed articles already exists. Yet, we know little about the articles' authors, especially their career patterns. I am writing you again because by completing the survey, you help us understand the career trajectories and scholarly work of these authors, who may have published only one or several articles on crime related issues.

Your answers are completely confidential. They will be linked to your crime related article(s) in the existing dataset. For this purpose I will use the unique UserID provided to you below for completion of the survey via the web. These random identifiers, included in a code sheet, have been assigned to you only for the purposes of this study. The code sheet will be kept in a locked file cabinet and then destroyed upon the completion of data collection. There will thus be no way of connecting your name with any of the information from the survey.

The Institutional Review Board has approved this study. Completing this survey is voluntary. However, your participation will help us shed light on the relationship between scholarship and careers under the changing conditions of criminology. It is crucial for the completion of my dissertation project.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I am happy to talk with you. My phone number is (612) 624-5818, and my e-mail address is [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu); or you can write to me at the address on the letterhead.

To complete the survey, please go to: <https://survey.cla.umn.edu/crimstudy>

Your unique UserID is: XXXX

Your unique password is: XXXXXX

If you have any problems completing the survey via the web or prefer to complete a paper copy, please contact me at [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu). Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Sarah M. Flood  
Ph.D. Candidate

APPENDIX C: THIRD ROUND LETTER WITH INSTRUCTIONS FOR WEB SURVEY

November 21, 2005

Address 1  
Address 2  
Address 3

Dear XXX,

I am writing to you about my study of career trajectories and scholarship. I see that you have not yet completed the online survey.

The number of responses already received is very encouraging. But, whether I will be able to accurately describe the career patterns and scholarly work of the authors of articles in my existing dataset depends upon you and the others who have not yet responded. This is because those of you who have not yet completed the survey may have quite different career experiences from those who have.

This is the only study I know of that examines the relationship between career trajectories and scholarly work on a large scale. The usefulness of these results depends on how accurately I am able to describe the careers of scholars like you. In case my other correspondence did not reach you, I am again providing the survey URL, unique userID and password.

To complete the survey, please go to: <https://survey.cla.umn.edu/crimstudy>  
Your unique UserID is: XXXX  
Your unique password is: XXXXXX

May I urge you to complete the survey as quickly as possible. The National Science Foundation has made this dissertation study possible. Please be reminded that this study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board. I assure you that confidentiality is very important to me, and your survey results will not be able to be linked back to you. If you have any questions or comments about this study, I am happy to talk with you. My phone number is (612) 624-5818, and my e-mail address is [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu); or you can write to me at the address on the letterhead.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be appreciated greatly.

Sincerely,

Sarah M. Flood  
Ph.D. Candidate  
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APPENDIX D: FINAL ROUND LETTER

December 12, 2005

Address 1  
Address 2  
Address 3

Dear Dr. XXX,

I am again writing to you about my study of career trajectories and scholarship. I see that you have not yet completed the online survey. For ease of completion I have enclosed a paper copy of the survey. My hope is that you will find this format more convenient and accessible. A self-addressed stamped envelope has been provided to return the completed survey.

Your participation in my National Science Foundation funded dissertation study of careers and scholarship is important for accurately describing the career patterns and scholarly work of authors in my existing dataset. You and others who have not yet completed the survey may have quite different career experiences from those who have.

The survey should only take you 15-25 minutes to complete, on average. May I urge you to complete it as quickly as possible. Please be reminded that this study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board. Your answers are completely confidential. I have put a unique ID number on the back cover of the survey and on the return envelope. This random identifier, included in a code sheet, has been assigned to you only for the purposes of this study. The code sheet will be kept in a locked file cabinet and then destroyed upon completion of data collection. There will thus be no way of connecting your name with any of the information from the survey.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I am happy to talk with you. My phone number is (612) 624-5818, and my e-mail address is [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu); or you can write to me at the address on the letterhead.

Your contribution to the success of this study will be appreciated greatly.

Sincerely,

Sarah M. Flood  
Ph.D. Candidate

**Gender, Life Course, and Institutions  
in the Production of Criminological Careers and Scholarship**

Welcome to the Criminological Scholarship and Careers survey. I appreciate your participation in this dissertation research. This study considers the production of scholarly knowledge on crime and crime control as it occurs in the context of professional and personal careers.

This survey should take approximately 15-25 minutes to complete, on average.

Thank you for your time and effort. Your participation is extremely valuable and appreciated!

**Gender, Life Course, and Institutions  
in the Production of Criminological Knowledge and Careers: Consent Form**

You are invited to be in a dissertation research study of criminological knowledge and careers, conducted by Sarah Flood (advisor: Joachim Savelsberg) of the Department of Sociology at the University of Minnesota. You have been selected to participate because you have contributed criminological knowledge in leading sociology and/or criminology journals between 1951 and 1993. Participation is of course voluntary. You may print this page to keep for your records.

**Background Information**

The purpose of this study is to examine (1) the factors shaping criminological knowledge, (2) the career trajectories of authors of criminological work, and (3) the relationship between knowledge production and career trajectories. The research will link an existing dataset of criminological articles with the career experiences and broader scholarly accomplishments. If you agree to be in this study, I ask that you complete the following web-based questionnaire. It should take approximately 15-25 minutes, on average.

**Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study**

There is no risk to you if you agree to be in this study. Although there may be no benefit of your participation to you personally, your participation will increase our knowledge of the relationship between careers and scholarship, on issues of crime and crime control.

**Confidentiality**

Your confidentiality will be protected by procedures to ensure that information you give cannot be traced back to you. Questionnaires will be given a personalized code that can only be linked to individual respondents through a code sheet which will be kept secure. The code sheet will be destroyed upon completion of data collection. The results of this study may be published in a book or scientific journal or presented at scientific meetings, but will never identify any specific study participant.

**Voluntary Nature of the Study**

If you decide to participate, you can refuse to answer any question or withdraw at any time.

**Contacts and Questions**

If you have questions, you may contact Sarah Flood by e-mail at [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu) or by phone at (612) 624-4300 or Joachim Savelsberg by email at [savelsbg@socsci.umn.edu](mailto:savelsbg@socsci.umn.edu) or by phone at (612) 624-0273. If you would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, contact the Research Subjects Advocate Line, D-528 Mayo, 420 Delaware Street S.E., Minneapolis, Minnesota, 55455; telephone (612) 625-1650.

**Statement of Consent**

I have read the above information and consent to participate in the study.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

**I. Educational Background: You may find it useful to have a copy of your CV close by for reference purposes.**

**Q1-1. On the following list, please circle the number corresponding to each degree you have earned. DO NOT include honorary degrees. Next to each degree, write the type of degree, year, and institution that conferred this degree.**

Type, Year, College/University

- 1 Doctoral Degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2 First-professional degree (M.D., J.D., etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 Master of Social Work (M.S.W.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 Other master's degree (M.A., M.B.A., M.Ed., etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 Bachelor's degree (B.A., A.B., B.S., etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 6 Associate's degree or equivalent (A.A., A.S., etc.) \_\_\_\_\_
- 7 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q1-2. Did you begin graduate training immediately after earning your undergraduate degree?**

- 1 Yes (*skip to Q1-5 on Page 4*)
- 2 No

**Q1-3. How many years passed before you began graduate school?**

\_\_\_\_\_ years

**Q1-4. What was your main activity (or activities) prior to enrolling in graduate school? (select all that apply)**

- 1 Cared for children
- 2 Traveled
- 3 Worked for pay (please list occupation/s) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q1-5. From what type of program did you earn the degree that is most relevant to your current work? (*select the best response*)**

- 1 Criminal justice
- 2 Criminology
- 3 Criminology and Criminal Justice
- 4 Economics
- 5 Law
- 6 Political science
- 7 Psychology
- 8 Sociology
- 9 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q1-6. What year did you begin graduate school toward that degree?**

19\_\_\_\_\_

**Q1-7. Were you in school continuously until you completed the degree?**

- 1 Yes (*skip to Section II on Page 6*)
- 2 No



**Q1-8. What was your main activity (or activities) during the time you were not in graduate school after you began but before you completed your degree? (*select all that apply*)**

- 1 Cared for children
- 2 Traveled
- 3 Worked for pay (please list occupation/s) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q1-9. Did you ever take any leave of absence from your program?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No

**Q1-10. If you answered yes for either Q1-7 or Q1-9, please indicate for each instance in which you took a leave of absence whether it was formal or informal, the duration, and the reason.**

	Formal or Informal?	Duration	Reason
1 <sup>st</sup> instance		From: To:	
2 <sup>nd</sup> instance		From: To:	
3 <sup>rd</sup> instance		From: To:	
4 <sup>th</sup> instance		From: To:	
5 <sup>th</sup> instance		From: To:	

## II. Graduate School Opportunities

**Q2-1. Which of the following funding opportunities did you have during graduate school? (select all that apply)**

- 1 University fellowship
- 2 University fellowship
- 3 Graduate school fellowship
- 4 Department fellowship
- 5 Any other fellowship
- 6 University dissertation research funding
- 7 Graduate school dissertation research funding
- 8 Department dissertation research funding
- 9 National Science Foundation Dissertation Improvement Grant
- 10 National Institute of Justice Graduate Research Fellowship
- 11 Any other dissertation research funding (*please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

**Q2-2. Which of the following teaching or research opportunities did you have during graduate school? (select all that apply)**

- 1 Teaching development seminars
- 2 Instructorship
- 3 Teaching assistantship
- 4 Research assistantship

**III. Please answer the following questions about your advisor during the time you were pursuing your graduate degree most relevant to your current work.**

**Q3-1. What was the sex of your primary graduate school advisor?**

- 1 Female
- 2 Male

**Q3-2. What was the highest rank held by your advisor while you were in graduate school?**

- 1 Assistant professor
- 2 Associate professor
- 3 Full professor

**Q3-3. How many publications did you co-author with your advisor as a result of collaborative work during graduate school?**

- 1 0
- 2 1
- 3 2-3
- 4 4 or more

**Q3-4. How many publications did you co-author with your advisor during graduate school?**

- 1 None
- 2 1
- 3 2-3
- 4 4 or more

**Q3-5. To what extent did your advisor provide the following types of support during graduate school? (*check the appropriate box*)**

	Not at all	Very little	Moderate	Much	Very much
Emotional support	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Use of power or leverage for your benefit	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Intellectual exchange	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**IV. We would next like to ask you about personally relevant and important scholarship.**

**Q4-1. In your view, what were the most important themes in the study of crime or crime control when you were in graduate school? (select up to three)**

- |                      |                      |                         |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 Aggression         | 14 Deterrence        | 27 Prisons/jails        |
| 2 Alcohol            | 15 Deviance          | 28 Punishment           |
| 3 Capital punishment | 16 Domestic violence | 29 Race/ethnicity       |
| 4 Careers            | 17 Drug crimes       | 30 Rape                 |
| 5 Class              | 18 Evaluation        | 31 Recidivism           |
| 6 Community          | 19 Gangs             | 32 Rehabilitation       |
| 7 Comparative        | 20 Gender            | 33 Sentencing           |
| 8 Corrections        | 21 Homicide          | 34 Theory development   |
| 9 Courts             | 22 Incapacitation    | 35 Theory testing       |
| 10 Crime causation   | 23 Juveniles         | 36 Victimization        |
| 11 Criminal justice  | 24 Law               | 37 White collar crime   |
| 12 Criminal law      | 25 Life Course       | 38 Other (please list): |
| 13 Delinquency       | 26 Police            | _____                   |

**Q4-2. Who were the authors who were most influential for your intellectual career? (list up to three)**

Author 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Author 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Author 3: \_\_\_\_\_

**V. In this section you will be asked about your employment after earning your highest degree. You may find it useful to have a copy of your CV close by for reference.**

**Q5-1. Have you been continuously employed full-time since you earned your highest degree?**

1 Yes

2 No

**Q5-2. Please list each organization/institution you have worked for since graduate school including your employment status, the duration, job title, organization/institution name, and department (if applicable).**

	Employment Status (check appropriate box)			Duration (mo/yr)	Job Title	Organization/ Institution	Department (if applicable)
	FT	PT	Not for pay				
1				From: To:			
2				From: To:			
3				From: To:			
4				From: To:			
5				From: To:			
6				From: To:			
7				From: To:			
8				From: To:			
9				From: To:			

**Q5-2 Continued.**

	Employment Status (check appropriate box)			Duration (mo/yr)	Job Title	Organization/ Institution	Department (if applicable)
	FT	PT	Not for pay				
10				From: To:			
11				From: To:			
12				From: To:			
13				From: To:			
14				From: To:			
15				From: To:			
16				From: To:			
17				From: To:			
18				From: To:			
19				From: To:			
20				From: To:			

**Q5-3. What is your current employment status? (select the best response)**

- 1 Part-time
- 2 Full-time
- 3 Phasing out
- 4 Retired
- 5 Not employed

**Q5-4. What best characterizes the type of work you do or did with your current or most recent employer? (*select all that apply*)**

- 1 Faculty member
- 2 Research staff
- 3 Administration
- 4 Other (please list) \_\_\_\_\_

**Q5-5. Since earning your highest degree, have you worked in any of the following settings doing research related tasks? (*select all that apply*)**

- 1 Educational institution (college, university)
- 2 For-profit business or industry
- 3 Government (federal, state, local) or military organization
- 4 Foundation or other non-profit organization
- 5 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q5-6. Have you worked in an educational institution teaching or as a faculty member at any point after graduate school?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (*skip to Section VII on Page 16*)



**VI. Academic Employment**

**Q6-1. Please report the number of years you held the following ranks. Round to the nearest full year.**

\_\_\_\_\_ Years **Pre-tenure track 1 (check appropriate position)**

- Postdoc position
- Instructor/adjunct professor
- Non tenure track professor
- Other

\_\_\_\_\_ Years **Pre-tenure track 2 (check appropriate position)**

- Postdoc position
- Instructor/adjunct professor
- Non tenure track professor
- Other

\_\_\_\_\_ Years **Assistant Professor**

\_\_\_\_\_ Years **Associate Professor**

\_\_\_\_\_ Years **Full Professor**

**Q6-2. Please select the activity you valued most overall at each rank you have held. (check the best response)**

	Teaching	Service	Research	Clinical	N/A
Pre-tenure track 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pre-tenure track 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assistant Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Associate Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Full Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q6-3. In terms of your personal interests, please select where your interests lay at each rank you have held. (select the best response)**

	Very heavily in research	In research and teaching, but leaning toward research	In research and teaching, but leaning toward teaching	Very heavily in teaching
Pre-tenure track 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pre-tenure track 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assistant Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Associate Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Full Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q6-4. What percent of time were you involved in administrative work at each of the following ranks you have held? (fill in percentage)**

- Pre-Tenure Track 1 \_\_\_\_\_ %
- Pre-Tenure Track 2 \_\_\_\_\_ %
- Assistant Professor \_\_\_\_\_ %
- Associate Professor \_\_\_\_\_ %
- Full Professor \_\_\_\_\_ %

**Q6-5. What is your current employment status?**

- 1 Part-time
- 2 Full-time
- 3 Phasing-out
- 4 Retired
- 5 Not employed

**Q6-6. In terms of your own personal goals, please rate the importance of each of the following to you when considering your scholarly work overall. (*select the best response*)**

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not important at all
To make use of my knowledge and skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To increase my knowledge of my field	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To work with colleagues of high technical competence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To work with students of high technical competence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To build my professional reputation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To work on difficult and challenging problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
To contribute new ideas to my field	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**VII. Next we would like to ask you about your career and family priorities. For the next set of questions, think back to your associate and early full professor years.**

**Q7-1. During your associate and early professor years, which of the following would have best described you and your day-to-day priorities? (select the best response)**

- 1 I am primarily a family person
- 2 I am a family and career person but lean a bit more towards family
- 3 I am a career and family person but lean a bit more towards career
- 4 I am primarily a career person

**Q7-2. During your associate and early full professor years, if a better career opportunity opened up in a different state, would you have applied for the position?**

- 1 Yes (*skip to Q7-4 on this page*)
- 2 No

**Q7-3. If you would not have applied, why not? Please explain briefly.**

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**Q7-4. During your associate and early full professor years, if you would have been offered a research fellowship that would take you far away from your residence for the following lengths of time, would you have accepted it? If not, why not?**

	Yes	No	If no, why not?
1 2 weeks or less	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
2 One Semester	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____
3 One year	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

**Q7-5. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about importance and satisfaction in life and work? (select the appropriate box)**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The major satisfactions in my life come from my career	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The most important things that happen to me involve my career	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The major satisfactions in my life come from my family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The most important things that happen to me involve my family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q7-6. At any point since earning your highest degree, have you been married or partnered in a long term marriage-like relationship?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (*skip to Q8-8 on Page 20*)

**VIII. Career and Family**

**Q8-1. Think about all of the major decisions that you and your spouse/partner have made since you have been together, such as changing jobs, having children, going back to school or moving. Overall, whose career was given more priority in these decisions - your's or your spouse's/partner's? (select the best response)**

- 1 Your career
- 2 Spouse's/partner's career
- 3 Neither

**Q8-2. Please indicate for each marriage or partnership since you began graduate school the duration and the status of the relationship.**

	Duration	Status of Relationship				
		Married/ Partnered	Widowed	Separated	Divorced	Break-up
1 <sup>st</sup> relationship	From: To:					
2 <sup>nd</sup> relationship	From: To:					
3 <sup>rd</sup> relationship	From: To:					
4 <sup>th</sup> relationship	From: To:					
5 <sup>th</sup> relationship	From: To:					

**Q8-3. Has your spouse/partner worked in paid employment at any point in your career when career decisions had to be made?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (*skip to Q8-8 on Page 20*)

**Q8-4. Please list your spouse's/partner's employment status held for the majority of the time you held each academic rank.**

Academic Rank	Employment Status		
	Full-time	Part-time	Not working for pay
Pre-Tenure Track 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pre-Tenure Track 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Instructor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assistant Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Associate Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Full Professor	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q8-5. Please list your spouse's/partner's employment status held for the majority of the time you held non academic positions. (select the best response)**

Non-Academic Positions	Employment Status		
	Full-time	Part-time	Not working for pay
Position 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 9	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Position 10	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q8-6. At any point during your career was your spouse's/partner's career interrupted for an extended period of time?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (*skip to Q8-8 on this page*)

**Q8-7. If so, please list the relevant dates.**

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**Q8-8. Do you have children?**

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (*skip to Section IX on Page 22*)

**Q8-9. How many children do you have?**

\_\_\_\_\_ children

*Continue to the next page...*



**Q8-10. Please list their birth/adoption years. (For any additional children, please list birth years in the blank space to the right.)**

	Birth Year	Adoption Year
Child 1		
Child 2		
Child 3		
Child 4		
Child 5		
Child 6		
Child 7		
Child 8		

**Q8-11. If your child is/was sick and could not go to regularly-scheduled daytime activities, who most often stays/stayed home to care for the child? (select the best response)**

- 1 Me
- 2 My spouse/partner
- 3 Evenly split between my spouse/partner and me
- 4 Family member/relative
- 5 Other caretaker

**IX. Next we are going to ask you some questions about association participation and funding.**

**Q9-1. What number of times did you present a paper at each of the following types of professional meetings since earning your highest degree?**

Professional Meeting	Number of Times Presented					
	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+
Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American Economic Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American Political Science Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American Psychological Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American Society of Criminology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
American Sociological Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Law and Society Association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Society for the Study of Social Problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
National Institute of Justice or Bureau of Justice Statistics Conferences	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q9-2. If you presented a paper at any other association meeting (regional, international, women's associations, etc.), please list the names and number of times you presented.**

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**Q9-3. Of which associations have you been a member since earning your highest degree? (select all that apply)**

- 1 Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences
- 2 American Economic Association
- 3 American Political Science Association
- 4 American Psychological Association
- 5 American Society of Criminology
- 6 American Sociological Association
- 7 Law and Society Association
- 8 Society for the Study of Social Problems
- 9 Any Regional Association meeting
- 10 Any International Association
- 11 Any Women's Association

**Q9-4. Which of the following best describes your primary disciplinary identity? (select the best response)**

- 1 Criminologist.
- 2 Criminal justice scholar.
- 3 Economist.
- 4 Political scientist.
- 5 Psychologist.
- 6 Sociologist.
- 7 Social scientist.
- 8 Other \_\_\_\_\_

**Q9-5. From which of the following bodies have you or your project received research support since earning your highest degree? (*select all that apply*)**

- 1 University/college
- 2 Department
- 3 NSF
- 4 NIH/NIMH
- 5 NIJ/LEAA
- 6 OJJDP
- 7 Other Federal Agency
- 8 State government agency
- 9 Local government agency
- 10 Private foundation
- 11 Private industry
- 12 Other

**X. Now we want to ask you some questions about your scholarly work. *You may find it useful to have a copy of your CV close by for reference.***

**Q10-1. How many of each of the following types of scholarship have you published since earning your highest degree?**

Articles in refereed academic or professional journals	Alone _____	In Collaboration _____
Articles in non-refereed academic or professional journals	Alone _____	In Collaboration _____
Chapters	Alone _____	In Collaboration _____
Books edited	Alone _____	In Collaboration _____
Books authored	Alone _____	In Collaboration _____

**Q10-2. On what major criminological themes have you published? (*select all that apply*)**

- |                      |                      |                         |
|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 Aggression         | 14 Deterrence        | 27 Prisons/jails        |
| 2 Alcohol            | 15 Deviance          | 28 Punishment           |
| 3 Capital punishment | 16 Domestic violence | 29 Race/ethnicity       |
| 4 Careers            | 17 Drug crimes       | 30 Rape                 |
| 5 Class              | 18 Evaluation        | 31 Recidivism           |
| 6 Community          | 19 Gangs             | 32 Rehabilitation       |
| 7 Comparative        | 20 Gender            | 33 Sentencing           |
| 8 Corrections        | 21 Homicide          | 34 Theory development   |
| 9 Courts             | 22 Incapacitation    | 35 Theory testing       |
| 10 Crime causation   | 23 Juveniles         | 36 Victimization        |
| 11 Criminal justice  | 24 Law               | 37 White collar crime   |
| 12 Criminal law      | 25 Life Course       | 38 Other (please list): |
| 13 Delinquency       | 26 Police            | _____                   |

**XI. Our next concern is with institutional climate. *If you have never worked in a faculty position, please skip to Section XII and begin with question Q12-1.***

**Q11-1. After reading the following statements, please indicate how often, in your experience do students or colleagues engage in the following behaviors.**

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
In professional setting, males are assumed to be professors whereas females are not	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Female professors are addressed by their first name or in terms of endearment, but male professors are referred to in a more formal manner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Comments are made about the personal appearance of female professors when no such comments are made about male professors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jokes or demeaning remarks are made about women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Men gain respect more easily than women in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q11-2. After reading the following statements, please indicate how often, in your experience do students or colleagues engage in the following behaviors.**

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
In professional setting, whites are assumed to be professors whereas racial minorities are not	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Professors who are racial minorities are addressed by their first name, but white professors are referred to in a more formal manner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Jokes or demeaning remarks are made about racial minorities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Whites gain respect more easily than racial minorities in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**XII. Finally, we are going to ask you some questions about yourself to help interpret the results.**

**Q12-1. What year were you born?**

19\_\_\_\_\_

**Q12-2. What is your sex?**

1 Female

2 Male

**Q12-3. What is your race or national origin? (*select all that apply*)**

1 Caucasian

2 African American

3 American Indian

4 Asian or Pacific Islander

5 Hispanic

6 Other\_\_\_\_\_

**Q12-4. Did you serve in the armed services?**

1 Yes →                      Year entered 19\_\_\_\_\_

                                    Year discharged 19\_\_\_\_\_

2 No

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated. If there is anything else you would like to tell us about this survey, please do so in the space provided below.

If you would like to receive a report on the findings of this research, please provide the best mailing address or email address where they should be sent.

One last request: If you have an electronic copy of your C.V. or résumé that you could send me at [floo0017@umn.edu](mailto:floo0017@umn.edu), I would be very appreciative.

**PLEASE RETURN YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED**



APPENDIX F: GRADUATE DEPARTMENT CODING

<b>Final (recoded) Graduate Department</b>	<b>Original Graduate Department</b>	<b>N</b>
<i>Specialized</i>		
	Criminal Justice	26
	Criminology	20
	Criminology and Criminal Justice	8
	Law	24
	Other	3
	Joint degree with Criminology	
	Minor in Law	
<i>Sociology</i>		
	Sociology	223
	Other	11
	Anthropology	
	Social Work	
<i>Psychology</i>		
	Psychology	49
	Other	6
	Human Development	
	Social Psychology	
<i>Other</i>		
	Economics	11
	Political Science	28
	Other	28
	Education	
	History	
	Interdisciplinary	
	Policy	
	Statistics	
		<b>Total: 437</b>

*TABLES*

**Table 2.1.**

*Number of Interviews Conducted with Scholars at Professional Conferences*

<i>Conference</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
American Society of Criminology	2002	8	0
American Society of Criminology	2003	0	7
Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences	2004	6	2
American Society of Criminology	2004	4	5
American Sociological Association	2005	3	2
	<b>Total</b>	21	16

**Table 2.2.**  
*Search Results and Source of Contact Information for First Authors of Criminological Scholarship*

<b>First Author Status</b>		
	<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<i>Unique First Authors</i>		
Contacted	743	73.42
Deceased	84	8.30
Unknown	185	18.28
<b>Total</b>	<b>1012</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Source of Contact Information</b>		
	<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
<i>Membership Directories</i>		
American Society of Criminology	292	39.30
American Sociological	77	10.36
Academy of Criminal Justice	43	5.79
Law and Society Association	29	3.90
<i>Internet Searches</i>	302	40.65
<b>Total</b>	<b>743</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 2.3.***Survey Contact Schedule, Method, Contacts Made, and Responses Received*

<b>Contact Schedule</b>	<b>Contact Method</b>	<b>Number of Contacts Made</b>
<i>Week 1: October 10, 2005</i>	Letter with Instructions for Web Survey (Appendix A)	743
<i>Week 4: October 31, 2005</i>	Letter with Instructions for Web Survey (Appendix B)	545
<i>Week 7: November 21, 2005</i>	Letter with Instructions for Web Survey (Appendix C)	446
<i>Week 10: December 12, 2005</i>	Letter and Paper Survey (Appendix D & E)	333
<i>Week 18: December 12, 2005</i>	Phone Calls	43
<i>Week 19: December 16, 2006</i>	Email Messages	148
<b>Total Number of Responses Received</b>		<b>445</b>

*Note: 743 is the number of contacts I initially made. 693 is the number who were actually contacted.*

**Table 2.4.**

*Calculation of Survey Response Rate with Detailed Information about Denominator and Numerator*

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*Denominator (Potential Respondents)*

Letters Sent	747
- Wrong Address	43
- Wrong Person	8
- Deceased	3
= <b>Final Denominator</b>	<b>693</b>

*Numerator (Number of Respondents)*

Possible Respondents	693
- Declined to Participate	20
- Non-responses	228
= <b>Final Numerator</b>	<b>445</b>

<b>Survey Response Rate</b>	64.21%
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**Table 2.5.***Comparisons of Population and Sample Characteristics*

Variable	Population (mean/%)	Sample (mean/%)	
	N=1,012	N=445	
<b>Author sex (N=936)</b>			
Male	86.00	83.60	n.s.
<b>Mean year of highest degree (N=814)</b>			
1925-1960	17.60	9.20	***
1961-1968	16.22	15.01	
1969-1974	26.66	27.48	
1975-1992	39.56	48.35	
<b>Mean number of articles published</b>			
1	73.10	66.10	n.s.
2 to 3	20.06	25.84	
4 or more	6.82	8.09	
<b>Journal Outlet</b>			
Sociology only	15.50	13.00	n.s.
Criminology only	75.49	76.18	n.s.
Both Sociology and Criminology	8.99	10.79	n.s.
<b>Broad Topic of Publication</b>			
Crime Control	55.60	56.40	n.s.
Criminal Behavior	30.63	26.97	n.s.
Both Crime Control and Criminal Behavior	13.74	16.63	n.s.

*Note: One sample t-tests to compare sample and population characteristics.*

\* p<.05

\*\* p<.01

\*\*\* p<.001

**Table 3.1.**  
*Descriptives Statistics and Variable Descriptions.*

Variable	Cohort		Gender			Graduate Department		
	Percent/ Mean (sd) Cohort 1	Percent/ Mean (sd) Cohort 2	Percent/ Mean (sd) Male	Percent/ Mean (sd) Female	Percent/ Mean (sd) Specialty	Percent/ Mean (sd) Sociology	Percent/ Mean (sd) Psychology	Percent/ Mean (sd) Other
<b>Cohort</b>								
Highest degree earned 1950-1974	--	--	52.4	25.8	16.7	49.8	58.5	58.6
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	--	--	47.6	74.2	83.3	50.2	41.5	41.43
<b>Gender</b>								
Female	8.9	23.6	--	--	25.9	13.5	20.8	15.7
<b>Family During Graduate School</b>								
Married	71.4	63.5	69.5	56.1	64.8	69.1	66.0	64.3
Children	46.4	29.3	39.5	27.3	37.0	41.7	28.3	31.4
<b>Graduate Department</b>								
Specialty	4.7	21.6	12.0	21.2	--	--	--	
Sociology	57.8	53.9	57.8	45.5	--	--	--	
Psychology	16.2	10.6	12.6	16.7	--	--	--	
Other	21.4	13.9	17.7	16.7	--	--	--	
<b>Length of Time in Graduate School</b>								
Years	6.0 (2.7)	5.7 (2.2)	5.8 (2.5)	5.9 (2.1)	5.6 (2.5)	5.8 (2.2)	6.2 (2.7)	5.9 (2.8)
Continuously in Graduate School	70.7	76.3	73.7	73.4	68.5	74.8	79.3	69.6
<b>Graduate School Opportunities</b>								
Teaching Assistantship	54.2	57.2	56.6	51.5	40.7	62.3	52.8	48.6
Research Assistantship	42.2	57.2	48.8	56.1	46.3	52.9	50.9	42.9
Instructorship	19.8	26.9	24.0	21.2	22.2	26.0	24.5	15.7
None	27.6	24.0	26.1	24.2	35.2	19.7	26.4	37.1
<b>Relationship with Advisor</b>								
Emotional Support	59.6	62.7	61.1	61.5	55.6	62.7	65.3	58.0
Use of power or leverage for your benefit	46.8	53.8	50.8	48.5	55.6	48.8	48.0	52.9
Intellectual Exchange	79.2	89.7	87.0	72.7	81.5	86.4	82.7	82.6
Summary Scale	3.0 (.99)	3.3 (.92)	3.2 (.95)	3.0 (1.0)	3.1 (1.0)	3.2 (.94)	3.1 (1.0)	3.2 (.89)
<b>Coauthorship with Advisor</b>								
Yes	26.2	39.9	34.8	25.8	29.4	33.3	48.1	24.6
<b>Publication in a Leading Journal During Graduate School</b>								
Yes	8.3	19.7	13.8	16.7	22.2	12.6	13.2	14.3



**Table 3.1 continued.**  
*Descriptives Statistics and Variable Descriptions.*

	<i>Description</i>
<b>Cohort</b>	
Highest degree earned 1950-1974	Coded 1 if the respondent earned his/her highest degree between 1975 and 1996; 0 otherwise.
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	
<b>Gender</b>	
Female	Coded 1 if the respondent was female; 0 otherwise.
<b>Family During Graduate School</b>	
Married	Coded 1 if the respondent was married at any time during graduate school; 0 otherwise.
Children	Coded 1 if the respondent was a parent at any time during graduate school; 0 otherwise.
<b>Graduate Department</b>	
Specialty	Coded 1 if the respondent received his/her highest degree from a specialized department; 0 otherwise.
Sociology	Coded 1 if the respondent received his/her highest degree from an other department; 0 otherwise.
Psychology	Coded 1 if the respondent received his/her highest degree from a sociology department; 0 otherwise.
Other	Coded 1 if the respondent received his/her highest degree from a psychology department; 0 otherwise.
<b>Length of Time in Graduate School</b>	
Years	The difference between the year the respondent reported earning his/her degree that is most relevant to his/her current work and the year the respondent reported beginning graduate school toward that degree.
Continuously in Graduate School	Coded 1 if the respondent was in school continuously until he/she completed his/her highest degree; 0 otherwise.
<b>Graduate School Opportunities</b>	
Teaching Assistantship	Based on responses to the following question: "Which of the following teaching or research opportunities did you have during graduate school (select all that apply)?"
Research Assistantship	
Instructorship	
None	
<b>Relationship with Advisor</b>	
Emotional Support	Based on responses to the following question: "To what extent did your advisor provide the following types of support during graduate school?" Coded 1 if the response was moderate, much, or very much; 0 if the response was not at all or very little.
Use of power or leverage for your benefit	
Intellectual Exchange	
Summary Scale	Scale constructed by summing responses to three items asking respondents the extent to which their graduate school advisor provided support and dividing by the number of items over which the sum is calculated. Range=1 (least support) to 5 (greatest support), alpha=0.74.
<b>Coauthorship with Advisor</b>	
Yes	Based on responses to the following question: "How many publications did you co-author with your advisor as a result of collaborative work during graduate school?" Coded 1 if the response was one or more; 0 otherwise.
<b>Publication in a Leading Journal During Graduate School</b>	
Yes	Based on publications included in the <i>Criminological Scholarship and Content Analysis Dataset</i> : Coded 1 if any publications occurred in the years leading up to and including the year the PhD was earned; 0 otherwise.

**Table 3.2.**  
*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Types of Assistantship Opportunities, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, and Family Circumstances*

	Teaching Assistantship			Research Assistantship			Instructorship		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	0.23	0.22	1.26	0.61 **	0.22	1.84	0.38	0.26	1.46
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	-0.22	0.28	0.80	0.13	0.28	1.14	-0.28	0.34	0.76
<b>Graduate Department</b>									
Sociology	0.95 **	0.32	2.59	0.51	0.32	1.66	0.31	0.37	1.37
Psychology	0.58	0.40	1.78	0.45	0.40	1.56	0.24	0.47	1.27
Other	0.39	0.38	1.48	0.12	0.38	1.13	-0.33	0.48	0.72
<b>Family Circumstances</b>									
Married	-0.30	0.24	0.74	-0.26	0.23	0.77	0.15	0.27	1.16
Children	-0.03	0.23	0.97	-0.12	0.23	0.89	-0.48	0.28	0.62
Constant	-0.31	0.37		-0.48	0.37		-1.44 ***	0.45	

*Data:* Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

*Model fit statistics:*

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	14.14 *	15.16 *	10.00 n.s.
df	7	7	7
n	400	400	400

**Table 3.3.**

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Perceived Intellectual Support from Advisor, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, and Family Circumstances*

<i>Cohort</i>	<b>Model 1</b>			<b>Model 2</b>			<b>Model 3</b>		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	1.21 ***	0.34	3.35	1.18 **	0.39	3.25	1.19 ***	0.34	3.30
<i>Gender</i>									
Female	-1.26 ***	0.36	0.28	-1.33 *	0.53	0.26	-0.70	0.45	0.49
<i>Cohort*Gender</i>									
	--	--	--	0.12	0.72	1.13	--	--	--
<i>Gender*Children</i>									
	--	--	--	--	--	--	-1.56 *	0.72	0.21
<i>Graduate Department</i>									
Sociology	0.64	0.44	1.90	0.64	0.44	1.90	0.66	0.44	1.94
Psychology	0.50	0.55	1.65	0.49	0.55	1.64	0.59	0.55	1.80
Other	0.47	0.52	1.60	0.47	0.52	1.60	0.57	0.53	1.76
<i>Family Circumstances</i>									
Married	-0.08	0.34	0.92	-0.08	0.34	0.92	-0.09	0.33	0.91
Children	-0.06	0.32	0.95	-0.05	0.33	0.95	0.31	0.37	1.37
Constant	1.02 *	0.50		1.03 *	0.50		0.84	0.51	

*Data:* Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

*Model fit statistics:*

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	23.39 **	23.42 **	28.23 ***
df	7	8	8
n	396	396	396

**Table 3.4.**

*Summary of Ordinary Least Squares Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Years Spent in Graduate School, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances*

	<b>Model 1</b>		<b>Model 2</b>	
	<b>B</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>SE</b>
<b><i>Cohort</i></b>				
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	-0.21	0.26	0.03	0.24
<b><i>Gender</i></b>				
Female	0.16	0.35	0.16	0.32
<b><i>Graduate Department</i></b>				
Sociology	0.17	0.38	0.38	0.36
Psychology	0.52	0.48	0.89 *	0.45
Other	0.25	0.46	0.38	0.43
<b><i>Graduate School</i></b>				
Continuously	--	--	-1.59 ***	0.32
<b><i>Graduate School Opportunities</i></b>				
None	--	--	0.40	0.33
<b><i>Family Characteristics</i></b>				
Married	--	--	-0.23	0.26
Child(ren)	--	--	0.66 *	0.26
Constant	5.74 ***	0.40	6.40 ***	0.52

*Data:* Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

*Model fit statistics:*

F	0.51	8.66
df	5	13
n	391	391

**Table 3.5.**

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Co-authorship with Advisor, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances*

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	0.79 ***	0.24	2.21	0.63 *	0.25	1.87	0.59 *	0.26	1.80
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	-0.59	0.33	0.55	-0.65	0.33	0.52	-0.62	0.34	0.54
<b>Graduate Department</b>									
Sociology	0.38	0.35	1.46	0.25	0.36	1.28	0.23	0.36	1.26
Psychology	1.16 **	0.44	3.18	1.08 *	0.45	2.95	1.10 *	0.46	3.00
Other	-0.03	0.43	0.98	-0.09	0.44	0.91	-0.12	0.45	0.89
<b>Graduate Opportunities</b>									
Research Assistantship	--	--	--	1.04 ***	0.24	2.84	1.03 ***	0.24	2.80
<b>Relationship with Advisor</b>									
Summary Scale	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.34 **	0.13	1.40
<b>Years in Graduate School</b>									
	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.02	0.05	1.02
<b>Family Circumstances</b>									
Married	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.05	0.27	1.05
Children	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.08	0.27	1.09
Constant	-1.38 ***	0.37		-1.75 ***	0.39		-3.00 ***	0.68	

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

likelihood-ratio chi-sq

df

n

20.55 ***	40.56 ***	48.07 ***
5	6	10
374	374	374

**Table 3.6.**

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Publishing Crime-Related Scholarship in Leading Journals During Graduate School, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances*

	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>						
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	0.82 *	0.34	2.28	0.90 *	0.36	2.47
<b>Gender</b>						
Female	-0.18	0.41	0.83	-0.05	0.42	0.95
<b>Graduate Department</b>						
Sociology	-0.54	0.40	0.58	-0.61	0.42	0.54
Psychology	-0.23	0.54	0.79	-0.38	0.56	0.69
Other	-0.45	0.52	0.64	-0.52	0.53	0.59
<b>Graduate Opportunities</b>						
Research Assistantship	--		--	0.11	0.32	1.12
<b>Relationship with Advisor</b>						
Summary Scale	--		--	0.09	0.16	1.09
<b>Years in Graduate School</b>						
	--		--	0.15 *	0.06	1.16
<b>Family Circumstances</b>						
Married	--		--	0.78 *	0.40	2.19
Children	--		--	0.14	0.34	1.15
Constant	-1.89 ***	0.45		-3.79 ***	0.86	

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	9.99	n.s.	22.09 *
df	5		10
n	376		376

**Table 4.1.**  
*Descriptive Statistics and Variable Descriptions*

Variable	Cohort		Gender		Graduate Department			Graduate Institution	
	Percent Cohort 1	Percent Cohort 2	Percent Male	Percent Female	Percent Speciality	Percent Sociology	Percent Psychology	Percent Research 1	Percent non-Research 1
<b>Career Related Measures</b>									
<b>First Position</b>									
Faculty member	79.4	76.9	79.3	71.4	79.2	83.3	43.2	77.4	80.0
Type of institution (N=278)									
Research 1	40.0	26.6	33.6	30.0	15.8	32.9	52.6	41.5	12.5
Other Academic	60.0	73.4	66.4	70.0	84.2	67.1	47.4	58.5	87.5
Type of department (N=252)									
Criminology and/or Criminal Justice	9.2	30.3	19.6	23.7	79.0	12.9	0.0	13.7	34.7
Sociology	61.7	51.5	57.9	47.4	13.2	83.9	17.7	58.3	50.7
Psychology	8.3	2.3	4.7	7.9	0.0	0.0	76.5	6.6	2.7
"Other"	20.8	15.9	17.8	21.1	7.9	3.2	5.9	21.4	12.0
<b>Family Related Measures</b>									
<b>Family</b>									
Married	80.6	74.2	79.3	66.1	75.0	77.0	84.1	79.4	73.0
Children	70.6	58.6	68.0	44.6	60.4	67.7	54.55	65.0	63.8
<b>Scholarly Work Publications</b>									
<b>Number</b>									
None	50.0	39.3	44.7	42.9	35.4	41.2	59.1	45.7	42.0
One	39.4	43.0	41.7	39.3	39.6	41.2	36.4	42.8	39.0
Two or more	10.6	17.7	13.7	17.9	25.0	17.7	4.6	11.5	19.0
<b>Publication Outlet</b>									
Specialty Journal	77.7	90.3	83.1	93.8	96.8	78.3	100.0	81.8	93.1
<b>Topic</b>									
Criminal Behavior	48.2	36.3	41.0	43.8	41.9	45.0	44.4	41.7	34.5
Drug Related	12.9	15.9	13.3	21.9	19.4	15.0	11.1	15.2	13.8
White Collar Crime	11.8	11.5	10.8	15.6	16.1	12.5	5.6	10.6	13.8
Multiple Offending	5.9	12.4	9.0	12.5	12.9	9.2	11.1	7.6	13.8
Deterrence	12.9	7.1	10.8	3.1	6.5	12.5	0.0	10.6	5.2
<b>Theory</b>									
Learning	14.1	3.5	9.0	3.1	6.5	10.8	0.0	8.3	8.6
Control	8.2	15.9	11.5	18.8	16.1	15.8	0.0	11.4	17.2
Anomie/Strain	18.8	16.8	18.7	12.5	12.9	23.3	5.6	15.2	24.1
Labeling	9.4	5.3	7.2	6.3	6.5	10.0	0.0	6.1	8.6
Drift	3.5	3.5	4.2	0.0	3.2	5.0	0.0	3.0	3.5
Biological	9.4	7.1	7.2	12.5	3.2	8.3	22.2	9.1	3.5
Conflict	5.9	8.0	6.0	12.5	0.0	10.8	0.0	6.8	8.6
<b>Funding</b>									
Political Agency	27.1	33.6	27.7	46.9	29.0	31.7	44.4	34.1	22.4

**Table 4.2.** Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Obtaining a First Position as a Faculty Member, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1989	-0.47	0.33	0.62	-0.49	0.34	0.61	-0.45	0.34	0.63
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	-0.19	0.39	0.83	-0.21	0.39	0.81	-0.22	0.39	0.80
<b>Graduate School</b>									
Graduate Department									
Sociology	0.35	0.44	1.41	0.34	0.44	1.40	0.27	0.45	1.30
Psychology	-1.73 ***	0.52	0.18	-1.72 ***	0.52	0.18	-1.81 ***	0.53	0.16
Other	0.66	0.57	1.94	0.69	0.58	1.98	0.63	0.58	1.87
Graduate Institution									
Research 1	-0.38	0.36	0.68	-0.38	0.36	0.68	-0.35	0.36	0.70
<b>Experience</b>									
Research assistantship	--	--	--	0.16	0.30	1.17	0.15	0.30	1.16
Relationship with advisor (summary scale)	--	--	--	-0.05	0.15	0.95	-0.05	0.15	0.96
Years in graduate school	--	--	--	-0.06	0.06	0.94	-0.05	0.06	0.95
Publication during graduate school	--	--	--	--	--	--	-0.45	0.40	0.64
<b>Family during Graduate School</b>									
Married	--	--	--	--	--	--	-0.39	0.36	0.67
Children	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.11	0.33	1.12
Constant	1.85 ***	0.49	2.30	2.30 **	0.77	2.30	2.31 **	0.78	2.31

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	35.02 ***	36.34 ***	37.60 ***	38.81 ***
df	6	9	10	12
n	324	324	324	324



**Table 4.3.** Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Obtaining a Faculty Position in a Research I Institution out of Graduate School, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1989	-0.28	0.31	0.75	-0.52	0.30	0.60	-0.31	0.33	0.73
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	0.11	0.43	1.12	0.12	0.42	1.13	0.19	0.44	1.20
<b>Graduate School</b>									
Graduate Department									
Sociology	0.82	0.59	2.26	1.25 *	0.58	3.50	0.80	0.61	2.21
Psychology	1.50	0.79	4.48	2.01 **	0.76	7.43	1.56	0.80	4.78
Other	0.77	0.65	2.16	1.35 *	0.63	3.85	0.75	0.66	2.12
Graduate Institution									
Research I	1.43 ***	0.41	4.17	--	--	--	1.40 ***	0.41	4.04
<b>Experience</b>									
Research assistantship	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.26	0.30	1.30
Relationship with advisor (summary scale)	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.00	0.16	1.00
Years in graduate school	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.04	0.06	1.04
Publication during graduate school	--	--	--	0.20	0.43	1.22	0.11	0.46	1.12
<b>Family during Graduate School</b>									
Married	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.47	0.37	1.60
Children	--	--	--	--	--	--	-0.07	0.32	0.93
Constant	-2.49 ***	0.66		-1.73 **	0.60		-3.16 ***	0.97	-3.16

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	30.93 ***	16.41 *	33.54 **
df	6	6	12
n	254	254	254

**Table 4.4.** Summary of Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting First Job Department Type, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances

	Base Model											
	Sociology vs. Specialty			Other vs. Specialty			Other vs. Sociology					
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>												
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	-0.97 *	0.49	0.38	-0.81	0.72	0.44	0.16	0.63	1.18			
<b>Gender</b>												
Female	0.48	0.61	1.61	0.75	0.83	2.12	0.27	0.77	1.32			
<b>Graduate School</b>												
Graduate Department												
Sociology	0.25	1.13	1.28	-5.03 ***	1.17	0.01	-5.28 ***	0.71	0.01			
Specialty	-3.15 **	1.23	0.04	-5.84 ***	1.30	0.00	-2.69 **	1.01	0.07			
Graduate Institution												
Research I	0.15	0.47	1.16	-0.29	0.78	0.75	-0.44	0.73	0.65			
<b>Experience</b>												
Research assistantship	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
Relationship with advisor (summary scale)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
Years in graduate school	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
Publication during graduate school	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
<b>Family during Graduate School</b>												
Married	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
Children	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--			
Constant	2.04	1.21		4.11 **	1.31		2.08 *	0.84				

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.  
 Model fit statistics:  
 likelihood-ratio chi-sq 190.77 \*\*\*  
 df 10  
 n 218

**Table 4.4 continued.**

*Summary of Multinomial Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting First Job Department Type, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate School Experiences, and Family Circumstances*

	Full Model								
	Sociology vs. Specialty			Other vs. Specialty			Other vs. Sociology		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	-1.14 *	0.53	0.32	-1.01	0.76	0.36	0.13	0.65	1.14
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	0.54	0.65	1.71	1.06	0.90	2.88	0.52	0.82	1.68
<b>Graduate School</b>									
Graduate Department									
Sociology	0.17	1.14	1.18	-5.44 ***	1.23	0.00	-5.61 ***	0.77	0.00
Specialty	-3.17 *	1.25	0.04	-6.02 ***	1.37	0.00	-2.85 **	1.07	0.06
Graduate Institution									
Research 1	0.05	0.50	1.05	-0.41	0.81	0.66	-0.46	0.75	0.63
Experience									
Research assistantship	0.26	0.46	1.30	0.50	0.69	1.64	0.23	0.61	1.26
Relationship with advisor (summary scale)	0.17	0.23	1.19	0.39	0.34	1.48	0.22	0.31	1.25
Years in graduate school	0.09	0.11	1.10	0.14	0.17	1.16	0.05	0.15	1.05
Publication during graduate school	-0.43	0.64	0.65	-1.38	1.01	0.25	-0.96	0.93	0.38
Family during Graduate School									
Married	0.35	0.54	1.42	1.58	0.88	4.86	1.23	0.80	3.42
Children	-0.32	0.50	0.72	-0.30	0.76	0.74	0.02	0.68	1.02
Constant	1.02	1.57		1.32	2.08		0.30	1.73	

*Data:* Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

*Model fit statistics:*

likelihood-ratio chi-sq	198.38 ***
df	22
n	218

**Table 4.5.**

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Publishing in Specialty Journals During the First Six Years of the Career, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate School Experiences, Early Career Characteristics, and Article Characteristics*

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>									
Highest degree earned 1975-1989	0.95 *	0.39	2.59	0.85 *	0.36	2.35	0.86 *	0.36	2.37
<b>Gender</b>									
Female	0.26	0.54	1.30	0.37	0.54	1.45	0.43	0.57	1.53
<b>Graduate Department</b>									
Sociology	-0.81	0.64	0.45	-1.54 *	0.77	0.21	-1.58 *	0.74	0.21
Psychology	1.38	1.13	3.96	1.57	1.04	4.82	1.55	1.04	4.70
Other	0.66	0.91	1.94	-0.09	1.01	0.91	-0.16	0.98	0.85
<b>Graduate School Characteristics</b>									
Graduate Institution									
Research 1	-0.23	0.40	0.80	0.25	0.43	1.28	0.28	0.43	1.33
<b>Early Career Characteristics</b>									
Institutional Type									
Research 1	--	--	--	1.04	0.70	2.83	1.08	0.68	2.95
Non-Research 1	--	--	--	2.19 ***	0.64	8.98	2.15 ***	0.64	8.58
<b>Article Characteristics</b>									
Political Funding	--	--	--	--	--	--	-0.36	0.36	0.70
Constant	1.35	0.72	1.35	0.16	0.68	0.16	0.27	0.67	0.27

*Data:* Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

*Model fit statistics:*

Wald chi-sq	16.63 *	37.04 ***	39.92 ***
df	6	8	9
n	259	259	259

**Table 5.1.**  
*Operationalization and Descriptive Statistics*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Cohort Membership	Year Ph.D. was earned: Years 1950-1974=0; Years 1975-1989=1	51.03
Gender	Male=0; Female=1	15.34
Graduate Department	Type of department from which respondent earned highest degree	
Specialized	Criminology/Criminal Justice=1; Others=0	12.98
Sociology	Sociology=1; Others=0	58.11
Psychology	Psychology=1; Others=0	11.8
Other	Other (including political science, law, public policy)=1; Others=0	17.11
Graduate Institution	Research 1 institution granted degree=1; Other research or doctoral granting institution granted degree=0	71.56
Institutional Type	1987 Carnegie Classification of U.S. academic institutions based on amount of federal funding received and type and number of degrees awarded (coded for each of years 1-15 in respondent careers)	
	Research 1 (Research Universities I: at least 50 Ph.D. degrees awarded annually, high priority to research, \$33.5 million in federal support)=1; Others=0	--
	Other Doctoral Granting (Research Universities II, Doctorate-Granting I & II Universities: at least 20 Ph.D. degrees annually)=1; Others=0	--
	Other Academic (All other U.S. institutions in existence in 1985-86)=1; Others=0	--
	Unranked Academic (All academic institutions outside of the U.S.)=1; Others=0	--
	Non-academic (All institutions except colleges and universities)=1; Others=0	--
Faculty Member	Faculty position (any rank of professor or instructor) during the first year after earning the Ph.D.: 1=Faculty position; 0=Non-faculty position	--
Publication	Publication in a leading sociology or criminology journal on a crime-related topic: Publication=1; No publication=0	--
Family Circumstances	Interaction between the presence of spouse and children under 18 during the year before the respondent changed institutions or during the fifteenth year of the career if the respondent did not change institutions	
Married with children	Married, with child under 18=1; Other=0	--
Married without children	Married, without child=1; Other=0	--
Not married with children	Not married, with child under 18=1; Other=0	--
Not married without children	Not married, without child=1; Other=0	--

**Table 5.2.**  
*Cross-classification of Department Type at Years One and Fifteen*

<b>Year One</b>	<b>Year Fifteen</b>						<b>N</b>
	<b>Faculty Departmental Affiliation</b>						
<i>Faculty</i>	<i>Criminology/ Criminal Justice</i>	<i>Sociology</i>	<i>Psychology</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Missing</i>	<i>Non-faculty</i>	
<i>Criminology/ Criminal Justice</i>	0.797	0.119	--	--	--	0.085	59
<i>Sociology</i>	0.105	0.720	0.014	0.063	0.007	0.091	143
<i>Psychology</i>	--	--	0.636	0.182	--	0.182	11
<i>Other</i>	0.071	0.095	--	0.738	--	0.095	42
<i>Missing</i>	--	0.053	--	0.684	0.263	--	19
<i>Non-faculty</i>	0.169	0.200	0.031	0.062	--	0.538	65
	76	128	11	59	6	59	339

*Note: Rows sum to 100%.*

**Table 5.3.**

*Detailed Institutional Mobility Between Years One and Fifteen*

<b>Panel A: First to Second Institution</b>								
<b>Origin Institution</b>	<b>Destination Institution</b>							<b>N</b>
	No Change		Research 1	Other Doctoral Granting	Master's/ Teaching	Unranked Academic	Non-academic	
	Ever	Before Year 15						
<i>No Change</i>	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
<i>Research 1</i>	0.220	0.073	0.303	0.202	0.092	0.055	0.055	109
<i>Other Doctoral Granting</i>	0.250	0.188	0.125	0.229	0.156	0.010	0.042	96
<i>Master's/Teaching</i>	0.333	0.050	0.150	0.200	0.183	0.033	0.050	60
<i>Unranked Academic</i>	0.406	0.125	0.063	0.063	0.063	0.250	0.031	32
<i>Non-academic</i>	0.143	0.071	0.214	0.119	0.048	0.024	0.381	42
								339

<b>Panel B: Second to Third Institution</b>								
<b>Origin Institution</b>	<b>Destination Institution</b>							<b>N</b>
	No Change		Research 1	Other Doctoral Granting	Master's/ Teaching	Unranked Academic	Non-academic	
	Ever	Before Year 15						
<i>No Change</i>	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	87
<i>Research 1</i>	0.506	0.205	0.096	0.084	0.036	0.024	0.048	83
<i>Other Doctoral Granting</i>	0.541	0.176	0.122	0.095	0.014	0.000	0.054	74
<i>Master's/Teaching</i>	0.475	0.150	0.050	0.075	0.225	0.000	0.025	40
<i>Unranked Academic</i>	0.524	0.190	0.048	0.095	0.048	0.095	0.000	21
<i>Non-academic</i>	0.088	0.176	0.147	0.206	0.059	0.029	0.294	34
								339

<b>Panel C: Third to Fourth Institution</b>								
<b>Origin Institution</b>	<b>Destination Institution</b>							<b>N</b>
	No Change		Research 1	Other Doctoral Granting	Master's/ Teaching	Unranked Academic	Non-academic	
	Ever	Before Year 15						
<i>No Change</i>	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	203
<i>Research 1</i>	0.386	0.295	0.182	0.114	0.000	0.023	0.000	44
<i>Other Doctoral Granting</i>	0.622	0.135	0.081	0.054	0.054	0.027	0.027	37
<i>Master's/Teaching</i>	0.600	0.150	0.050	0.100	0.050	0.000	0.050	20
<i>Unranked Academic</i>	0.375	0.250	0.125	0.125	0.000	0.125	0.000	8
<i>Non-academic</i>	0.222	0.185	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.000	0.481	27
								339

<b>Panel D: Fourth to Fifteenth Year Institution</b>								
<b>Origin Institution</b>	<b>Destination Institution</b>							<b>N</b>
	No Change		Research 1	Other Doctoral Granting	Master's/ Teaching	Unranked Academic	Non-academic	
	Ever	Before Year 15						
<i>No Change</i>	--	--	0.288	0.345	0.201	0.110	0.057	264
<i>Research 1</i>	--	--	0.762	0.143	0.095	0.000	0.000	21
<i>Other Doctoral Granting</i>	--	--	0.174	0.478	0.348	0.000	0.000	23
<i>Master's/Teaching</i>	--	--	0.000	0.375	0.500	0.000	0.125	8
<i>Unranked Academic</i>	--	--	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	4
<i>Non-academic</i>	--	--	0.053	0.053	0.053	0.053	0.789	19
								339

*Rows sum to 1.00*

**Table 5.4.**

*Distribution of Number of Institution Changes for 337 Criminologists*

---

<b>Institutions</b>	<b>Number Changing Institutions</b>	<b>Number at Risk</b>	<b>Proportion Changing Institutions</b>
1	250	337	0.742
2	135	250	0.540
3	74	135	0.548
4	41	74	0.554
5	18	41	0.439
>6	14		

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**Table 5.5.** Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Changing Positions, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Career Characteristics, Publication Characteristics, and Family Circumstances

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.
<b>Cohort</b>								
Highest degree earned 1975-1989	-1.48 ***	0.21	0.23	0.20	-1.40 ***	0.20	0.25	0.20
			exp(B)		exp(B)		exp(B)	
			0.94	0.94	0.88	0.88	0.80	0.80
<b>Gender</b>								
Female	-0.06	0.24	-0.06	0.22	-0.13	0.23	-0.08	0.22
<b>Graduate School</b>								
Graduate Department								
Sociology	0.66 *	0.31	0.60 *	0.29	0.70 *	0.29	0.65 *	0.28
Psychology	0.59	0.38	0.53	0.36	0.60	0.36	0.57	0.36
Other	0.18	0.34	0.11	0.32	0.08	0.31	0.05	0.31
Graduate Institution								
Research 1	-0.12	0.20	-0.12	0.20	-0.11	0.20	-0.11	0.20
<b>Career Characteristics</b>								
Origin Institution								
Other Doctoral Granting	-0.03	0.26	-0.05	0.25	0.00	0.25	-0.06	0.25
Master's/Teaching	0.10	0.28	0.09	0.28	0.06	0.27	0.05	0.28
Unranked Academic	-0.50	0.34	-0.46	0.33	-0.59	0.34	-0.52	0.32
Non-academic	0.61	0.41	0.58	0.39	0.54	0.40	0.52	0.38
Faculty Member	-0.36	0.31	-0.20	0.29	-0.37	0.30	-0.23	0.29
Years	-0.14 **	0.05	-0.09 *	0.04	-0.11 **	0.04	-0.08 *	0.04
Years-squared	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 ***	0.00	0.00 ***	0.00	0.00 ***	0.00
Position 2	-2.05 ***	0.35	-2.31 ***	0.35	-2.28 ***	0.36	-2.40 ***	0.36
Position 3	-2.95 ***	0.36	-3.30 ***	0.35	-3.16 ***	0.35	-3.37 ***	0.35
Position 4	-2.82 ***	0.39	-3.20 ***	0.38	-2.98 ***	0.39	-3.26 ***	0.38
Position 5+	-3.82 ***	0.39	-4.09 ***	0.39	-4.03 ***	0.39	-4.19 ***	0.39
Publication	1.75 ***	0.33	0.70 *	0.28	1.11 ***	0.28	0.04	0.26
5.77			5.77		2.02		3.04	
<b>Family Circumstances</b>								
Married	-0.31	0.19	-0.26	0.18	-0.30	0.19	-0.25	0.18
Minor Child	0.02	0.16	0.06	0.15	0.05	0.15	0.08	0.15
Constant	5.18 ***	0.56	5.33 ***	0.56	5.34 ***	0.56	5.40 ***	0.56
<b>Data:</b> Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.								
<b>Model fit statistics:</b>								
Wald Chi-Square	181.34 ***		200.34 ***		195.85 ***		209.38 ***	
df	20		20		20		20	
n	838		838		838		838	
R-square	0.50		0.48		0.48		0.47	

**Table 5.5 continued.**  
*Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Changing Positions, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Career Characteristics, Publication Characteristics, and Family Circumstances*

	Model 5		Model 6		Model 7		Model 8	
	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.
<b>Cohort</b>								
Highest degree earned 1975-1989	-1.40 ***	0.20	-1.46 ***	0.20	-1.38 ***	0.20	-1.43 ***	0.20
<b>Gender</b>								
Female	-0.06	0.22	-0.09	0.24	-0.06	0.22	-0.12	0.22
<b>Graduate School</b>								
Graduate Department								
Sociology	0.59 *	0.29	0.74 *	0.32	0.60 *	0.28	0.61 *	0.28
Psychology	0.49	0.36	0.60	0.38	0.54	0.35	0.45	0.36
Other	0.07	0.32	0.14	0.34	0.08	0.31	0.01	0.31
Graduate Institution								
Research 1	-0.13	0.20	-0.07	0.20	-0.13	0.20	-0.13	0.20
<b>Career Characteristics</b>								
Type of Institution								
Other Doctoral Granting	-0.06	0.25	-0.02	0.26	-0.07	0.25	-0.03	0.25
Masters/Teaching	0.07	0.28	0.11	0.28	0.06	0.28	0.14	0.28
Unranked Academic	-0.58	0.34	-0.49	0.34	-0.49	0.32	-0.41	0.32
Non-academic	0.59	0.39	0.67	0.41	0.51	0.38	0.62	0.39
Faculty Member	-0.26	0.29	-0.28	0.31	-0.28	0.29	-0.21	0.30
Years	-0.09 *	0.04	-0.13 **	0.04	-0.08 *	0.04	-0.09 *	0.04
Years-squared	0.00 ***	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 ***	0.00	0.00 ***	0.00
Position 2	-2.32 ***	0.36	-2.11 ***	0.35	-2.40 ***	0.36	-2.35 ***	0.36
Position 3	-3.26 ***	0.35	-3.04 ***	0.35	-3.36 ***	0.35	-3.31 ***	0.35
Position 4	-3.15 ***	0.38	-2.87 ***	0.39	-3.26 ***	0.38	-3.20 ***	0.39
Position 5+	-4.08 ***	0.39	-3.93 ***	0.39	-4.17 ***	0.39	-4.14 ***	0.39
Publication	0.78 **	0.28	1.61 ***	0.32	0.64 *	0.31	0.82 **	0.32
<b>Family Circumstances</b>								
Married	-0.27	0.18	-0.34	0.19	-0.25	0.18	-0.26	0.18
Minor Child	0.04	0.15	0.03	0.16	0.07	0.15	0.06	0.15
Constant	5.38 ***	0.56	5.11 ***	0.55	5.44 ***	0.56	5.40 ***	0.57

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

Wald Chi-Square	197.62 ***	188.57 ***	199.24 ***	198.64 ***
df	20	20	20	20
n	838	838	838	838
R-square	0.48	0.50	0.47	0.48

**Table 5.6.** Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Movement into Destination Institutions, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Career Characteristics, and Family Circumstances

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.
<b>Cohort</b>										
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	-0.32	0.22	0.72	0.20	0.78	0.30	0.63	0.40	0.75	0.31
			exp(B)		exp(B)		exp(B)		exp(B)	
			0.92	0.26	1.00	0.41	1.02	0.46	0.96	0.36
<b>Gender</b>										
Female	-0.08	0.29	0.00	0.26	1.00	0.41	1.02	0.46	0.96	0.36
<b>Graduate School</b>										
Graduate Department										
Sociology	0.39	0.40	1.47	0.29	1.57	0.34	0.48	0.52	1.90	-0.65
Psychology	-0.04	0.49	0.96	0.39	1.23	1.22 *	0.30	1.02	0.26	1.13 **
Other	0.46	0.46	1.59	0.39	1.52	-1.80	0.63	0.66	1.25	0.30
Graduate Institution										
Research 1	-0.02	0.27	0.98	0.21	1.13	0.05	1.05	0.41	0.32	0.46
<b>Career Characteristics</b>										
Origin Institution										
Research 1	--	--	--	0.24	0.55	-1.85 ***	0.37	0.16	0.11	-1.38 **
Other Doctoral Granting	-0.73 **	0.26	0.48	--	--	-0.93 **	0.32	0.39	-3.24 ***	0.72
Masters's/Teaching	-1.38 ***	0.34	0.25	0.28	0.75	--	--	--	-3.14 ***	0.78
Unranked Academic	-1.65 **	0.53	0.19	0.48	0.25	-1.65 **	0.61	0.19	--	--
Non-academic	-1.20 **	0.46	0.30	0.44	0.34	-1.87 ***	0.54	0.15	-1.80 *	0.85
Faculty Member	-0.10	0.32	0.90	0.31	0.96	-0.03	0.34	0.97	1.00	-0.43
Years	0.02	0.04	1.02	0.04	1.00	-0.05	0.05	0.95	-0.06	0.08
Years-squared	0.00 **	0.00	1.00	0.00 *	1.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
Number of institutional moves	0.02	0.07	1.02	0.06	0.96	-0.02	0.08	0.98	-0.09	0.11
Publication	0.94 ***	0.23	2.57	0.22	1.75	0.53	0.26	1.69	-0.05	0.45
<b>Family Circumstances</b>										
Married	0.05	0.27	1.06	0.21	0.84	-0.02	0.30	0.98	-0.65	0.44
Minor Child	-0.13	0.19	0.88	0.20	1.38	-0.23	0.24	0.80	0.49	0.38
Constant	-0.71	0.64	-1.63 **	0.57		-1.15	0.77	-1.70	1.63	1.02
<b>Number of Transitions</b>	157		153		89		37		96	

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.  
Model fit statistics:

Wald Chi-square	97.77	75.72	226.90	151.64
df	17	17	17	17
n	838	838	838	838
R-square	0.16	0.17	0.27	0.33

**Table 5.7.**  
*Effect-coded Graduate Department and Type of Institution based on Table 5.6 Results Regarding the Nature of Institutional Mobility*

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5							
	B	S.E. exp(B)	B	S.E. exp(B)	B	S.E. exp(B)	B	S.E. exp(B)	B	S.E. exp(B)						
<b>Graduate Department</b>																
Sociology	0.18	1.20	0.18	0.14	1.20	0.20	0.21	1.23	0.76	**	0.26	2.14	-0.84	***	0.23	0.43
Psychology	-0.24	0.27	0.79	-0.06	0.94	-0.28	0.33	0.76	-1.22		0.66	0.30	0.93	***	0.21	2.54
Other	0.26	0.24	1.30	0.15	1.16	-0.86	*	0.42	0.34		0.40	1.40	0.10		0.29	1.11
Specialized	-0.20	0.30	0.82	-0.27	0.76	0.94	**	0.30	0.12		0.47	1.12	-0.20		0.31	0.82
<b>Origin Institution</b>																
Research 1	0.99	***	0.21	2.70	0.07	-0.59	*	0.27	0.56		0.39	0.86	-0.28		0.31	0.76
Other Doctoral Granting	0.26	0.20	1.30	0.68	***	0.33	0.23	1.39	-1.16	*	0.53	0.31	-0.58		0.33	0.56
Masters/Teaching	-0.39	0.27	0.68	0.38	1.47	1.26	***	0.25	3.53		0.56	0.35	-0.16		0.38	0.85
Unranked Academic	-0.66	0.41	0.52	-0.71	0.49	-0.39		0.48	0.68		0.45	8.01	-0.09		0.52	0.92
Non-academic	-0.20	0.35	0.81	-0.41	0.66	-0.61		0.42	0.54		0.55	1.32	1.10	**	0.35	3.01

**Table 5.8.** Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Types of Scholarly Work, Controlling for Cohort Membership, Gender, Graduate Department, Career Characteristics, and Article Characteristics

	Criminal Behavior				Hot Button Issues							
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4				
	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)	B	S.E.	exp(B)
<b>Cohort</b>												
Highest degree earned 1975-1996	-0.12	0.22	0.88	-0.13	0.25	0.88	0.10	0.20	1.11	0.04	0.23	1.04
<b>Gender</b>												
Female	--	--	--	-0.20	0.30	0.82	--	--	--	0.65 *	0.26	1.91
<b>Graduate School</b>												
Graduate Department												
Sociology	--	--	1.68	0.52	0.31	1.68	--	--	--	0.42	0.30	1.52
Psychology	--	--	1.20	0.18	0.41	1.20	--	--	--	0.38	0.42	1.47
Other	--	--	0.18	-1.71 **	0.57	0.18	--	--	--	-0.54	0.45	0.58
<b>Position Characteristics</b>												
Institutional Type												
Other Doctoral Granting	--	--	0.82	-0.19	0.28	0.82	--	--	--	-0.08	0.27	0.92
Masters'/Teaching	--	--	0.87	-0.13	0.32	0.87	--	--	--	-0.32	0.31	0.73
Unranked Academic	--	--	0.48	-0.73	0.45	0.48	--	--	--	-0.67	0.52	0.51
Non-academic	--	--	0.89	-0.12	0.39	0.89	--	--	--	0.37	0.31	1.45
Faculty Member	--	--	1.34	0.29	0.28	1.34	--	--	--	-0.30	0.26	0.74
<b>Article Characteristics</b>												
Criminological Specialization	-0.60 *	0.26	0.55	-0.26	0.27	0.77	0.27	0.23	1.30	0.36	0.25	1.43
Political Funding	0.35	0.21	1.41	0.41	0.25	1.51	0.67 **	0.22	1.96	0.52 *	0.22	1.68
Constant	-0.02	0.24		-0.62	0.45		-1.41 ***	0.24		-1.46 ***	0.46	

Data: Criminological Careers and Scholarship Survey.

Model fit statistics:

Wald Chi-square	9.11 *	31.31 **	10.5 *	36.02 ***
df	3	12	3	12
n	540	540	540	540
R-square	0.02	0.07	0.02	0.05

**Table 6.1.**  
*Work and Family Trajectories Coding*

*Work Trajectories*

<i>Type of Work</i>	<i>Type of Institution</i>		
	<i>Academic</i>		Non-academic
	Research 1	Non-Research 1	
Faculty	1	2	x
Non-Faculty	4	4	3

*Family Trajectories*

<i>Child(ren) Under 18</i>	<i>Married</i>	
	Yes	No
Yes	1	3
No	2	4

**Table 6.2.**  
*Cross-classifications of Cohort Membership and Gender with Family Circumstances*

**Childcare Responsibilities**

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**Panel 1a: Cohort Membership**

	Me	My spouse	Evenly split	Other caretaker	Total
<i>Cohort Membership</i>					
1: 1950-1974	5.6	57.3	32.9	4.2	143
2: 1975-1989	25.8	39.1	32.8	2.3	128
Total	41	132	89	9	271

$X^2=23.52***, df=3, p=.000$

**Panel 1b: Gender**

	Me	My spouse	Evenly split	Other caretaker	Total
<i>Gender</i>					
Male	10.9	55.0	31.1	2.9	238
Female	45.5	3.0	45.5	6.1	33
Total	41	132	89	9	271

$X^2=41.61***, df=3, p=.000$

**Panel 1c: Cohort Membership (Males)**

	Me	My spouse	Evenly split	Other caretaker	Total
<i>Cohort Membership</i>					
1: 1950-1974	3.0	62.1	31.1	3.8	132
2: 1975-1989	20.8	46.2	31.1	1.9	106
Total	26	131	74	7	238

$X^2=20.33***, df=3, p=.000$

**Panel 1d: Cohort Membership (Females)**

	Me	My spouse	Evenly split	Other caretaker	Total
<i>Cohort Membership</i>					
1: 1950-1974	36.4	0.0	54.6	9.1	11
2: 1975-1989	50.0	4.6	40.9	4.6	22
Total	15	1	15	2	33

$X^2=1.35, df=3, p=.72$

Note: Table displays row percentages.

**Table 6.2 continued.**

*Cross-classifications of Cohort Membership and Gender with Family Circumstances*

**Spouse's Employment**

**Panel 2a: Cohort Membership**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Yes	No	Total
1: 1950-1974	86.4	13.6	154
2: 1975-1989	96.8	3.2	157
Total	285	26	311

$X^2=11.09***$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=.001$

**Panel 2b: Gender**

<i>Gender</i>	Yes	No	Total
Male	90.3	9.7	268
Female	100.0	0.0	43
Total	285	26	311

$X^2=4.55*$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=.03$

**Panel 2c: Cohort Membership (Males)**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Yes	No	Total
1: 1950-1974	85.4	14.6	144
2: 1975-1989	96.0	4.0	124
Total	242	26	268

$X^2=8.47**$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=.004$

**Panel 2d: Cohort Membership (Females)**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Yes	No	Total
1: 1950-1974	100.0	0.0	10
2: 1975-1989	100.0	0.0	33
Total	43	0	43

Note: Table displays row percentages.



**Table 6.2 continued.**

*Cross-classifications of Cohort Membership and Gender with Family Circumstances*

**Couples' Career Priorities**

**Panel 3a: Cohort Membership**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Your career	Your spouse's/ partner's career	Neither	Total
1: 1950-1974	73.8	5.4	20.8	149
2: 1975-1989	61.6	6.6	31.8	151
Total	203	18	79	300

$X^2=5.29, df=2, p=.07$

**Panel 3b: Gender**

<i>Gender</i>	Your career	Your spouse's/ partner's career	Neither	Total
Male	73.5	3.9	22.6	257
Female	32.6	18.6	48.8	43
Total	203	18	79	300

$X^2=32.08^{***}, df=2, p=.00$

**Panel 3c: Cohort Membership (Males)**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Your career	Your spouse's/ partner's career	Neither	Total
1: 1950-1974	79.0	2.9	18.1	138
2: 1975-1989	67.2	5.0	27.7	119
Total	189	10	58	257

$X^2=4.57, df=2, p=.10$

**Panel 3d: Cohort Membership (Females)**

<i>Cohort Membership</i>	Your career	Your spouse's/ partner's career	Neither	Total
1: 1950-1974	9.1	36.4	54.6	11
2: 1975-1989	40.6	12.5	46.9	32
Total	14	8	21	43

$X^2=5.10, df=2, p=.08$

Note: Table displays row percentages.

**Table 6.2 continued.**

*Cross-classifications of Cohort Membership and Gender with Family Circumstances*

<b>Work-Family Priorities</b>					
<b>Panel 4a: Cohort Membership</b>					
	I am primarily a family person	I am a family and career person, but I lean toward family	I am a career and family person, but I lean toward career	I am primarily a career person	Total
<b>Cohort Membership</b>					
1: 1950-1974	7.2	34.2	48.0	10.5	152
2: 1975-1989	4.1	40.2	37.9	17.8	169
Total	18	120	137	46	321
$X^2=6.99, df=3, p=.07$					
<b>Panel 4b: Gender</b>					
	I am primarily a family person	I am a family and career person, but I lean toward family	I am a career and family person, but I lean toward career	I am primarily a career person	Total
<b>Gender</b>					
Male	6.7	37.6	44.2	11.5	269
Female	0.0	36.5	34.6	28.9	52
Total	18	120	137	46	321
$X^2=13.56**, df=3, p=.004$					
<b>Panel 4c: Cohort Membership (Males)</b>					
	I am primarily a family person	I am a family and career person, but I lean toward family	I am a career and family person, but I lean toward career	I am primarily a career person	Total
<b>Cohort Membership</b>					
1: 1950-1974	7.8	33.3	48.2	10.6	141
2: 1975-1989	5.5	42.2	39.8	12.5	128
Total	18	101	119	31	269
$X^2=3.21, df=3, p=.36$					
<b>Panel 4d: Cohort Membership (Females)</b>					
	I am primarily a family person	I am a family and career person, but I lean toward family	I am a career and family person, but I lean toward career	I am primarily a career person	Total
<b>Cohort Membership</b>					
1: 1950-1974	0.0	45.5	45.5	9.1	11
2: 1975-1989	0.0	34.2	31.7	34.2	41
Total	0	19	18	15	52
$X^2=2.66, df=2, p=.26$					

Note: Table displays row percentages.

**Table 6.3.***Model Fit for the Optimal Number of Latent Classes****Work Trajectories***


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Classes	LMR LRT <sup>a</sup>	<i>p</i> -value	BIC <sup>b</sup>	Entropy
1			11280.10	
2	3664.29	0.00	7883.54	0.997
3	1930.91	0.62	6463.24	0.998
4	1047.28	1.00	6011.35	0.999
5	396.46	0.92	5897.59	0.991
6	442.21	0.28	5845.61	0.997
7			5928.18	0.994

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***Family Trajectories***


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Classes	LMR LRT <sup>a</sup>	<i>p</i> -value	BIC <sup>b</sup>	Entropy
1			10792.06	
2	2228.88	0.00	8830.91	0.998
3	1238.82	0.20	7874.93	1.000
4	1208.10	0.77	7121.92	0.985
5	435.67	0.78	6968.05	0.989
6	319.99	0.31	3829.41	0.999
7			7014.03	0.991

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<sup>a</sup>Lo-Mendell-Rubin Likelihood Ratio Test.<sup>b</sup>Bayesian Information Criterion.

**Table 6.4.***Distribution of 29 Year Trajectories by Cohort Membership, Gender, and Graduate Department*

<b>Cohort</b>	<i>F6.1a</i> Non-Research 1 Faculty	<i>F6.1b</i> Research 1 Faculty	<i>F6.1c</i> Non-academics	<i>F6.1d</i> Early Transitioners	<i>F6.1e</i> Late Transitioners	<i>F6.1f</i> Administrators	
1: 1950-1974	43.9	28.7	10.4	6.7	6.1	4.3	164
2: 1975-1992	45.7	20.2	9.3	7.5	8.1	9.3	173
	<i>151</i>	<i>82</i>	<i>33</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>23</i>	
$X^2=6.23, df=5$							
<b>Gender</b>	Non-Research 1 Faculty	Research 1 Faculty	Non-academics	Early Transitioners	Late Transitioners	Administrators	
Male	46.3	24.9	8.8	7.4	6.3	6.3	285
Female	36.5	21.2	15.4	5.8	11.5	9.6	52
	<i>151</i>	<i>82</i>	<i>33</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>23</i>	
$X^2=5.70, df=5$							
<b>Graduate Program</b>	Non-Research 1 Faculty	Research 1 Faculty	Non-academics	Early Transitioners	Late Transitioners	Administrators	
Criminology/ Criminal Justice	59.1	22.7	2.3	6.8	4.6	4.6	44
Sociology	46.9	25.0	3.6	8.2	7.7	8.7	196
Psychology	28.2	18.0	38.5	2.6	7.7	5.1	39
Other	37.9	27.6	17.2	6.9	6.9	3.5	58
	<i>151</i>	<i>82</i>	<i>33</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>23</i>	
$X^2=56.91^{***}, df=15$							

Note: Tables display row percentages.

**Table 6.4 continued.***Distribution of 29 Year Trajectories by Cohort Membership, Gender, and Graduate Department*

<b>Cohort</b>	<i>F6.2a</i> Parents at Career Outset	<i>F6.2b</i> Early Career Parents	<i>F6.2c</i> Married and Childless	<i>F6.2d</i> Mid-Career Parents	<i>F6.2e</i> Singles	<i>F6.2f</i> Single Parents	
1: 1950-1974	41.5	20.7	12.8	10.4	7.3	7.3	164
2: 1975-1992	26.0	24.3	17.9	13.9	11.0	6.9	173
	<i>113</i>	<i>76</i>	<i>52</i>	<i>41</i>	<i>31</i>	<i>24</i>	
$X^2=9.99, df=5$							
<b>Gender</b>	Parents at Career Outset	Early Career Parents	Married and Childless	Mid-Career Parents	Singles	Single Parents	
Male	37.5	22.8	12.6	12.3	8.1	6.7	285
Female	11.5	21.2	30.8	11.5	15.4	9.6	52
	<i>113</i>	<i>76</i>	<i>52</i>	<i>41</i>	<i>31</i>	<i>24</i>	
$X^2=21.41***, df=5$							
<b>Graduate Program</b>	Parents at Career Outset	Early Career Parents	Married and Childless	Mid-Career Parents	Singles	Single Parents	
Criminology/ Criminal Justice	27.3	18.2	25.0	13.6	6.8	9.1	44
Sociology	34.2	25.0	14.3	10.7	8.7	7.1	196
Psychology	30.8	20.5	20.5	18.0	10.3	0.0	39
Other	37.9	19.0	8.6	12.1	12.1	10.3	58
	<i>113</i>	<i>76</i>	<i>52</i>	<i>41</i>	<i>31</i>	<i>24</i>	
$X^2=13.68, df=15$							

Note: Tables display row percentages.

**Table 6.5.**  
*Work-Family Pathways*

	<i>Family Trajectories</i>						Total
	<i>F6.2a</i> Parents at Career Outset	<i>F6.2b</i> Early Career Parents	<i>F6.2c</i> Married and Childless	<i>F6.2d</i> Mid-Career Parents	<i>F6.2e</i> Singles	<i>F6.2f</i> Single Parents	
<i>F6.1a</i> Non-Research I Faculty	39.1	18.5	15.9	11.3	6.6	8.6	151
<i>F6.1b</i> Research I Faculty	26.8	30.5	11.0	15.9	11.0	4.9	82
<i>F6.1c</i> Non-academics	42.4	24.2	15.2	9.1	9.1	0.0	33
<i>F6.1d</i> Early Transitioners	25.0	33.3	16.7	8.3	12.5	4.2	24
<i>F6.1e</i> Late Transitioners	20.8	16.7	16.7	16.7	12.5	16.7	24
<i>F6.1f</i> Administrators	30.4	13.0	26.1	8.7	13.0	8.7	23
Total	113	76	52	41	31	24	337

Note: Table displays row percentages.

$\chi^2=25.1, df=25, p=.457$

**Table 6.6.**  
*Work-Family Pathways by Cohort Membership and Gender*

<b>Panel 1a: Cohort 1 (1950-1974)</b>	<b>Family Trajectories</b>						Total
	<i>F6.2a</i> <i>Parents at Career Outset</i>	<i>F6.2b</i> <i>Early Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2c</i> <i>Married and Childless</i>	<i>F6.2d</i> <i>Mid-Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2e</i> <i>Singles</i>	<i>F6.2f</i> <i>Single Parents</i>	
<b>Work Trajectories</b>							
<i>F6.1a Non-Research 1 Faculty</i>	45.8	15.3	13.9	12.5	4.2	8.3	72
<i>F6.1b Research 1 Faculty</i>	34.0	27.7	12.8	8.5	10.6	6.4	47
<i>F6.1c Non-academics</i>	52.9	17.7	11.8	11.8	5.9	0.0	17
<i>F6.1d Early Transitioners</i>	36.4	36.4	18.2	0.0	9.1	0.0	11
<i>F6.1e Late Transitioners</i>	30.0	20.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	20.0	10
<i>F6.1f Administrators</i>	42.9	14.3	14.3	0.0	14.3	14.3	7
Total	68	34	21	17	12	12	164

Note: Table displays row percentages.

$\chi^2=17.62, df=25, p=.86$

<b>Panel 1b: Cohort 2 (1975-1989)</b>	<b>Family Trajectories</b>						Total
	<i>F6.2a</i> <i>Parents at Career Outset</i>	<i>F6.2b</i> <i>Early Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2c</i> <i>Married and Childless</i>	<i>F6.2d</i> <i>Mid-Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2e</i> <i>Singles</i>	<i>F6.2f</i> <i>Single Parents</i>	
<b>Work Trajectories</b>							
<i>F6.1a Non-Research 1 Faculty</i>	32.9	21.5	17.7	10.1	8.9	8.9	79
<i>F6.1b Research 1 Faculty</i>	17.1	34.3	8.6	25.7	11.4	2.9	35
<i>F6.1c Non-academics</i>	31.3	31.3	18.8	6.3	12.5	0.0	16
<i>F6.1d Early Transitioners</i>	15.4	30.8	15.4	15.4	15.4	7.7	13
<i>F6.1e Late Transitioners</i>	14.3	14.3	28.6	14.3	14.3	14.3	14
<i>F6.1f Administrators</i>	25.0	12.5	31.3	12.5	12.5	6.3	16
Total	45	42	31	24	19	12	173

Note: Table displays row percentages.

$\chi^2=21.25, df=25, p=.68$

**Table 6.6 continued.**  
*Work-Family Pathways by Cohort Membership and Gender*

<b>Panel 2a: Men</b>	<b>Family Trajectories</b>						Total
	<i>F6.2a</i> <i>Parents at Career Outset</i>	<i>F6.2b</i> <i>Early Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2c</i> <i>Married and Childless</i>	<i>F6.2d</i> <i>Mid-Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2e</i> <i>Singles</i>	<i>F6.2f</i> <i>Single Parents</i>	
<b>Work Trajectories</b>							
<i>F6.1a Non-Research 1 Faculty</i>	41.7	18.2	12.9	11.4	6.1	9.9	132
<i>F6.1b Research 1 Faculty</i>	31.0	29.6	9.9	15.5	9.9	4.2	71
<i>F6.1c Non-academics</i>	48.0	20.0	16.0	12.0	4.0	0.0	25
<i>F6.1d Early Transitioners</i>	28.6	38.1	9.5	9.5	9.5	4.8	21
<i>F6.1e Late Transitioners</i>	27.8	22.2	16.7	11.1	11.1	11.1	18
<i>F6.1f Administrators</i>	38.9	16.7	16.7	11.1	16.7	0.0	18
Total	107	65	36	35	23	19	285

Note: Table displays row percentages.

$\chi^2=19.92, df=25, p=.75$

<b>Panel 2b: Women</b>	<b>Family Trajectories</b>						Total
	<i>F6.2a</i> <i>Parents at Career Outset</i>	<i>F6.2b</i> <i>Early Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2c</i> <i>Married and Childless</i>	<i>F6.2d</i> <i>Mid-Career Parents</i>	<i>F6.2e</i> <i>Singles</i>	<i>F6.2f</i> <i>Single Parents</i>	
<b>Work Trajectories</b>							
<i>F6.1a Non-Research 1 Faculty</i>	21.1	21.1	36.8	10.5	10.5	0.0	19
<i>F6.1b Research 1 Faculty</i>	0.0	36.4	18.2	18.2	18.2	9.1	11
<i>F6.1c Non-academics</i>	25.0	37.5	12.5	0.0	25.0	0.0	8
<i>F6.1d Early Transitioners</i>	0.0	0.0	66.7	0.0	33.3	0.0	3
<i>F6.1e Late Transitioners</i>	0.0	0.0	16.7	33.3	16.7	33.3	6
<i>F6.1f Administrators</i>	0.0	0.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	40.0	5
Total	6	11	16	6	8	5	52

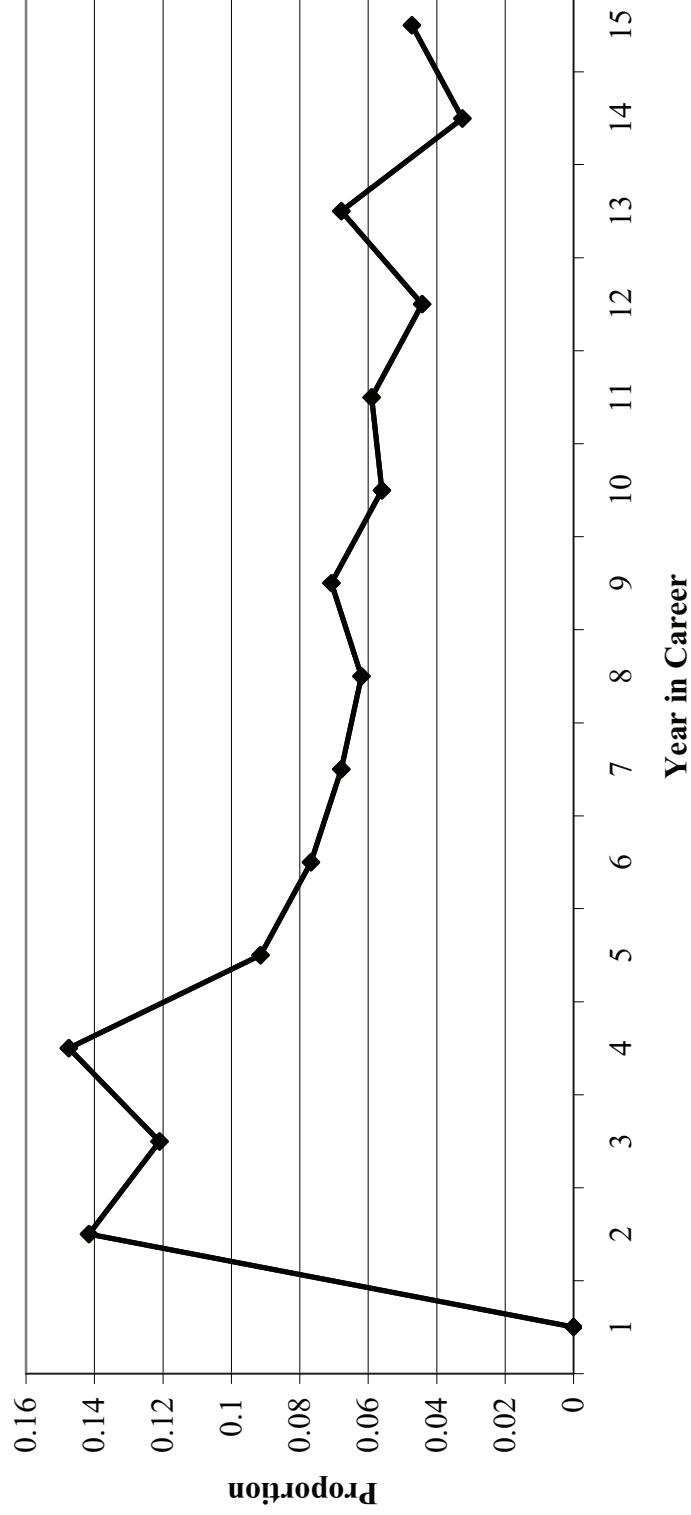
Note: Table displays row percentages.

$\chi^2=33.68, df=25, p=.12$

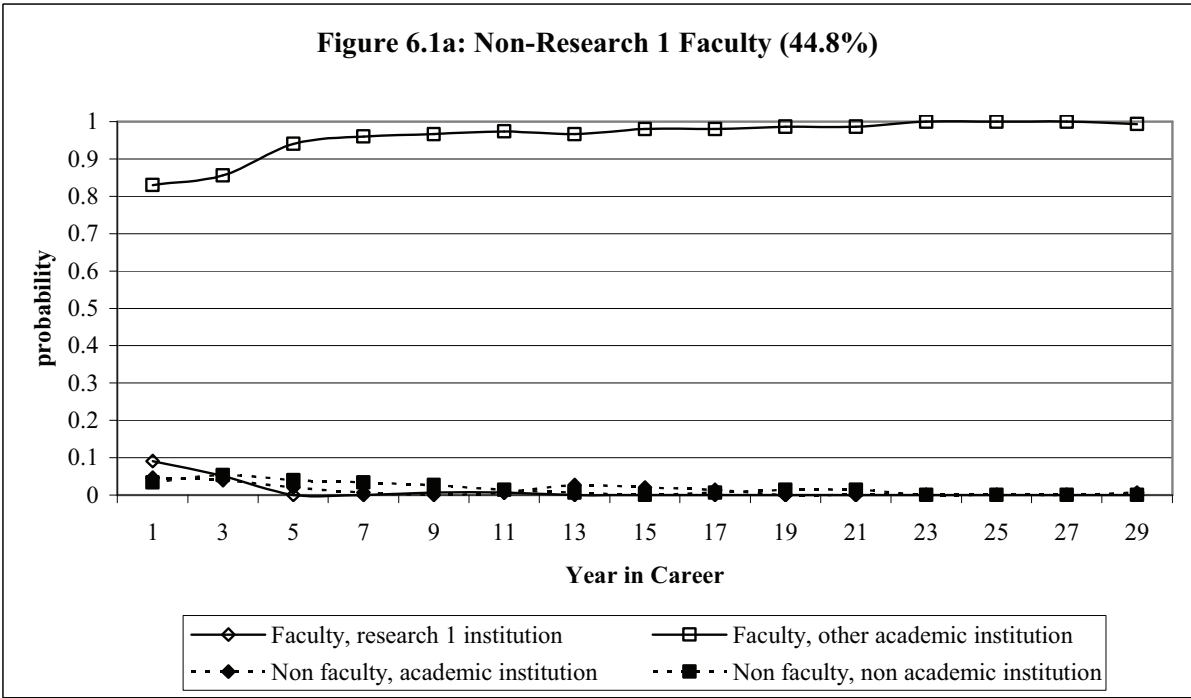


*FIGURES*

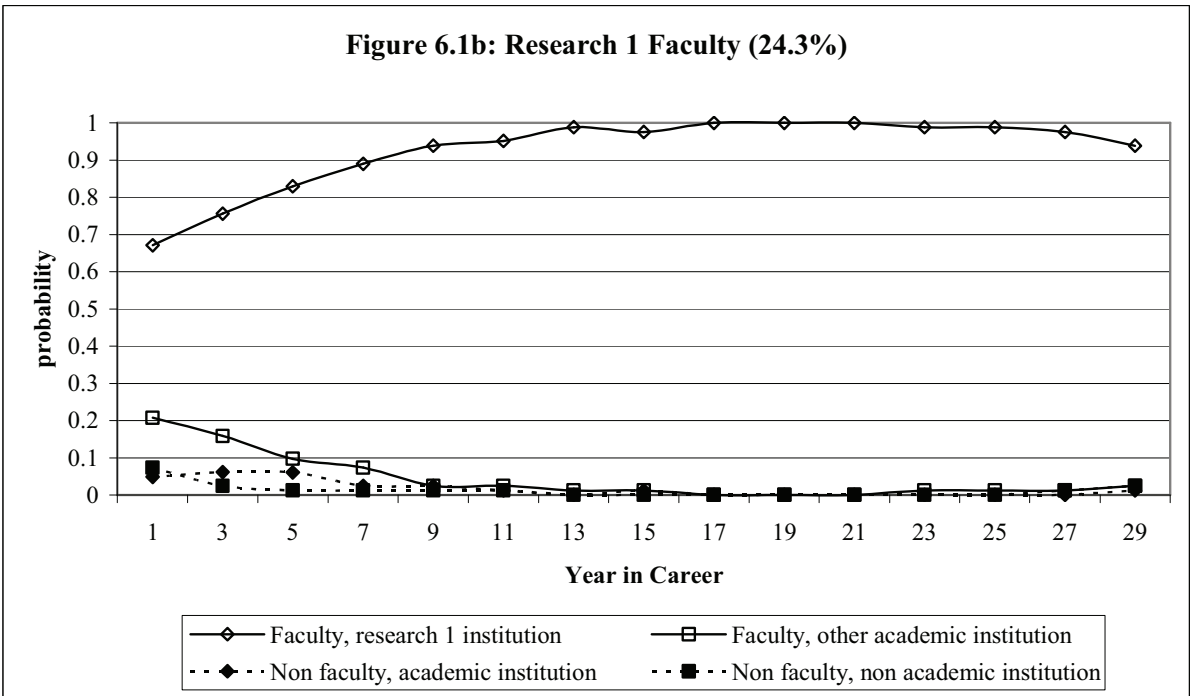
**Figure 5.1: Proportion of Respondents who Change Institutions in Years One through Fifteen**



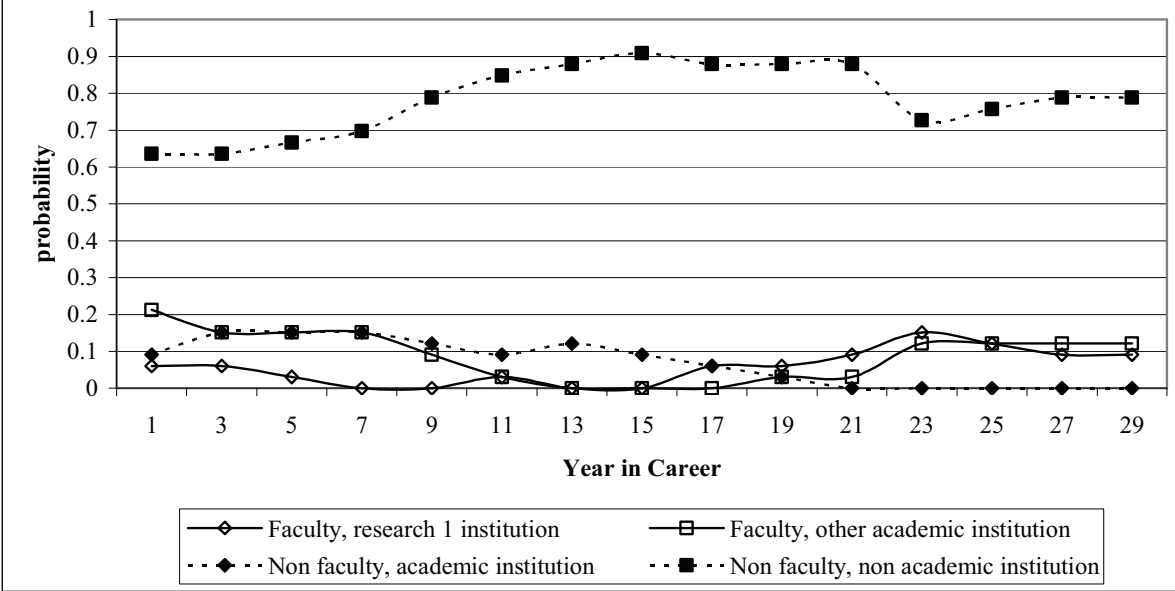
**Figure 6.1a: Non-Research 1 Faculty (44.8%)**



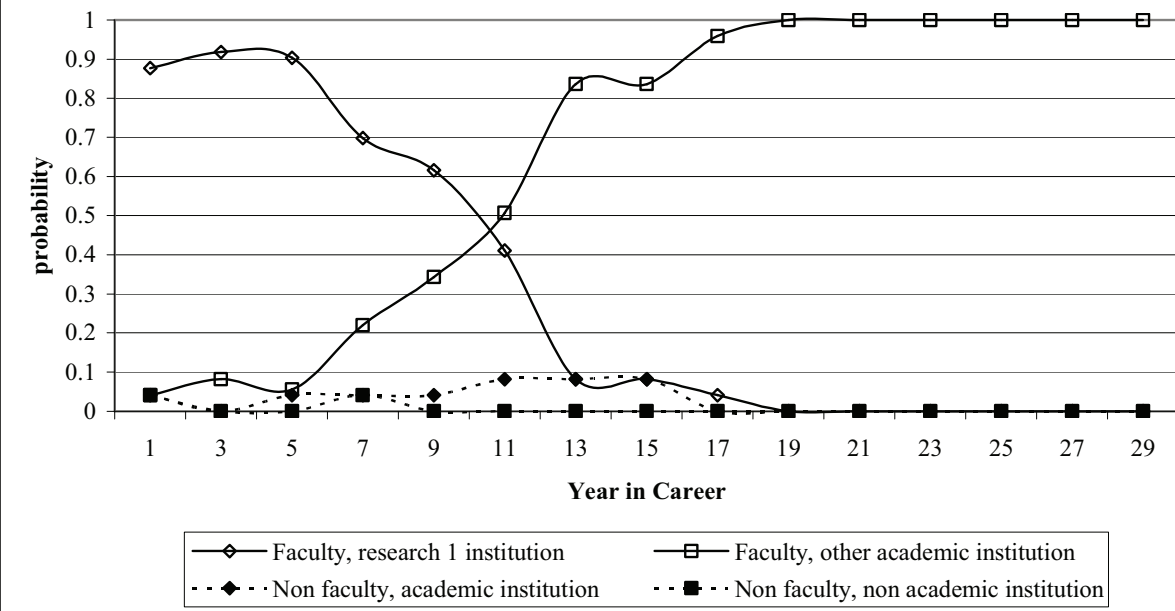
**Figure 6.1b: Research 1 Faculty (24.3%)**



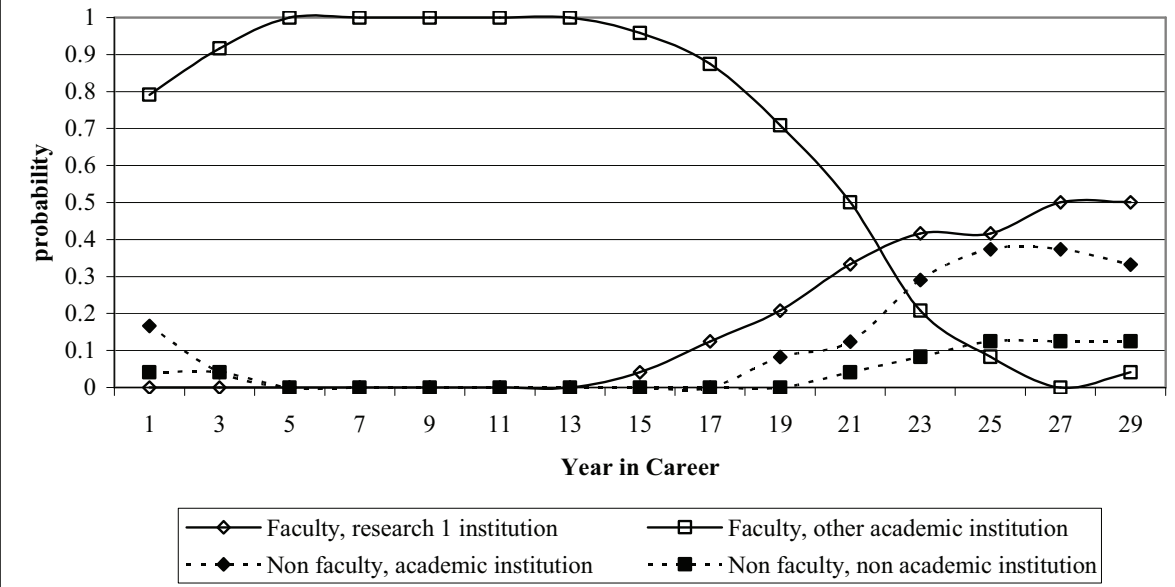
**Figure 6.1c: Non-academics (9.8%)**



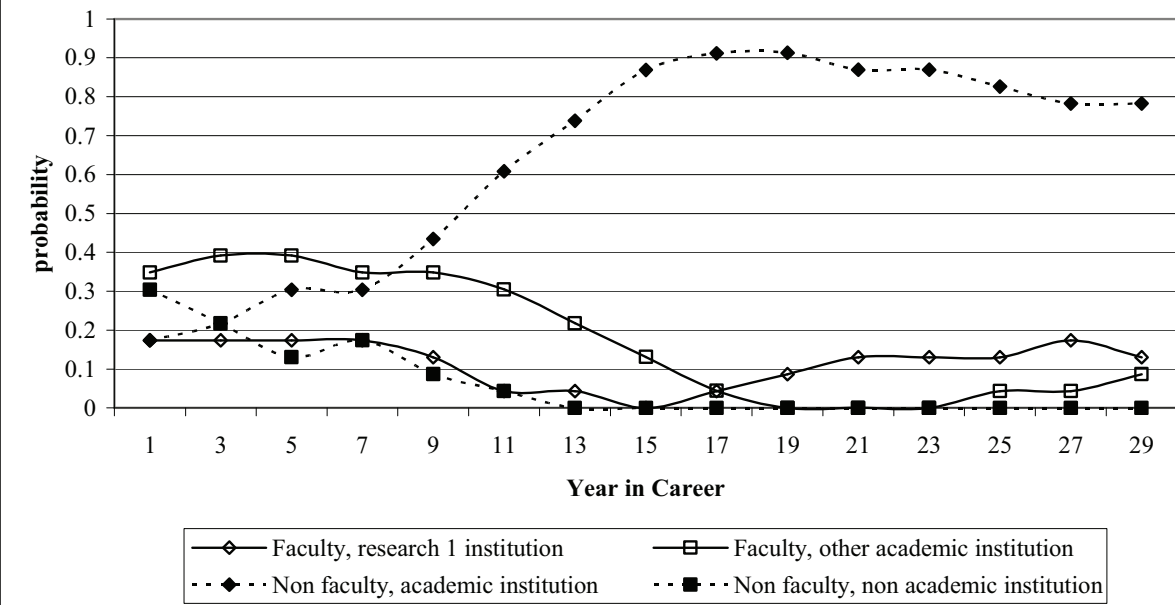
**Figure 6.1d: Early Transitioners (7.1%)**



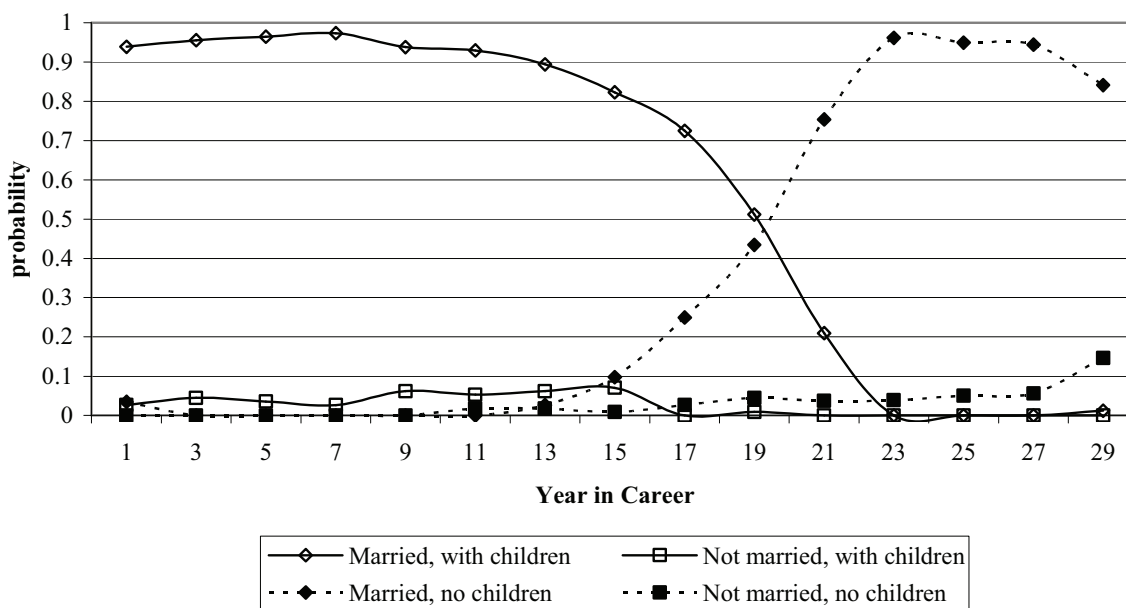
**Figure 6.1e: Late Transitioners (7.1%)**



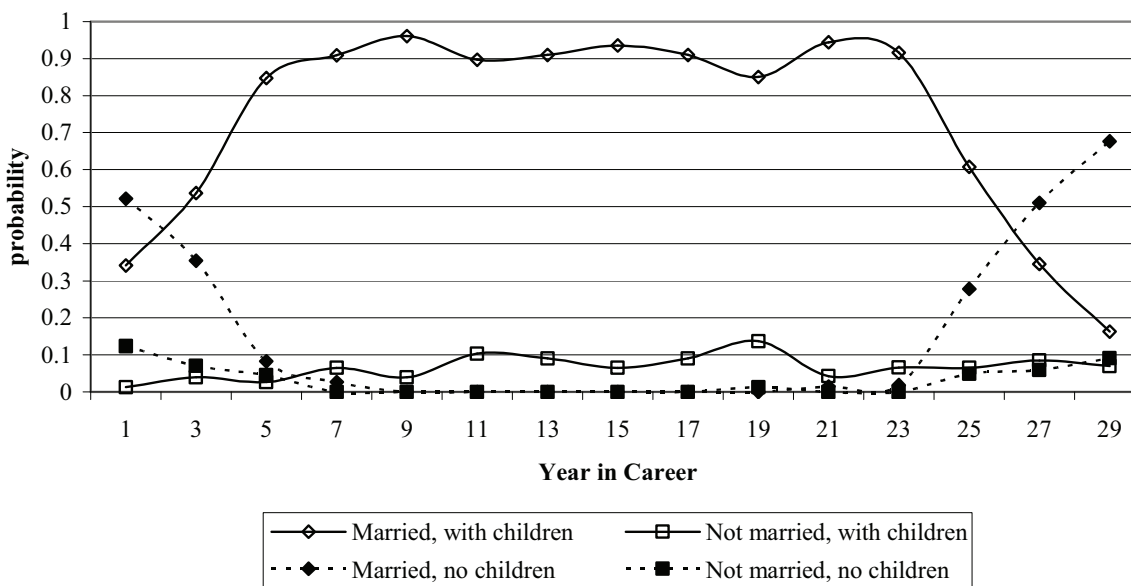
**Figure 6.1f: Administrators (6.8%)**



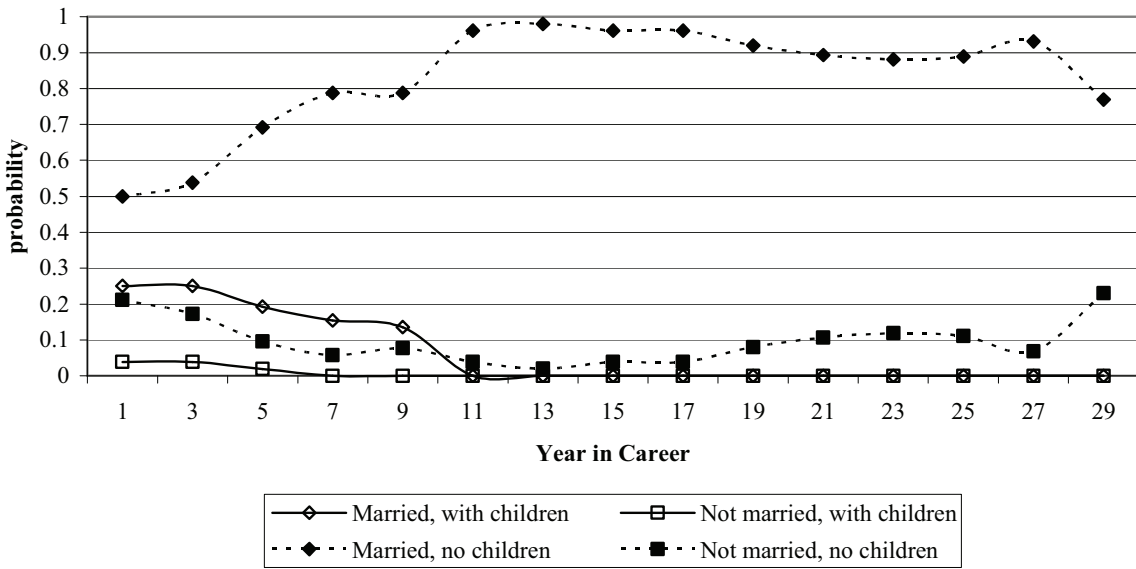
**Figure 6.2a: Parents at Career Outset (33.5%)**



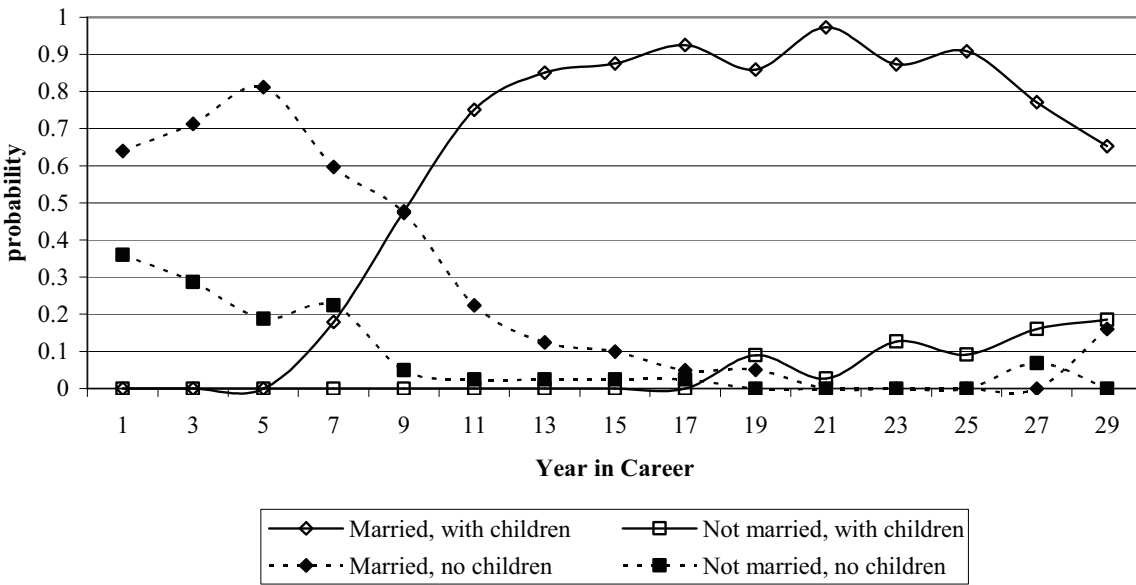
**Figure 6.2b: Early Career Parents (22.6%)**



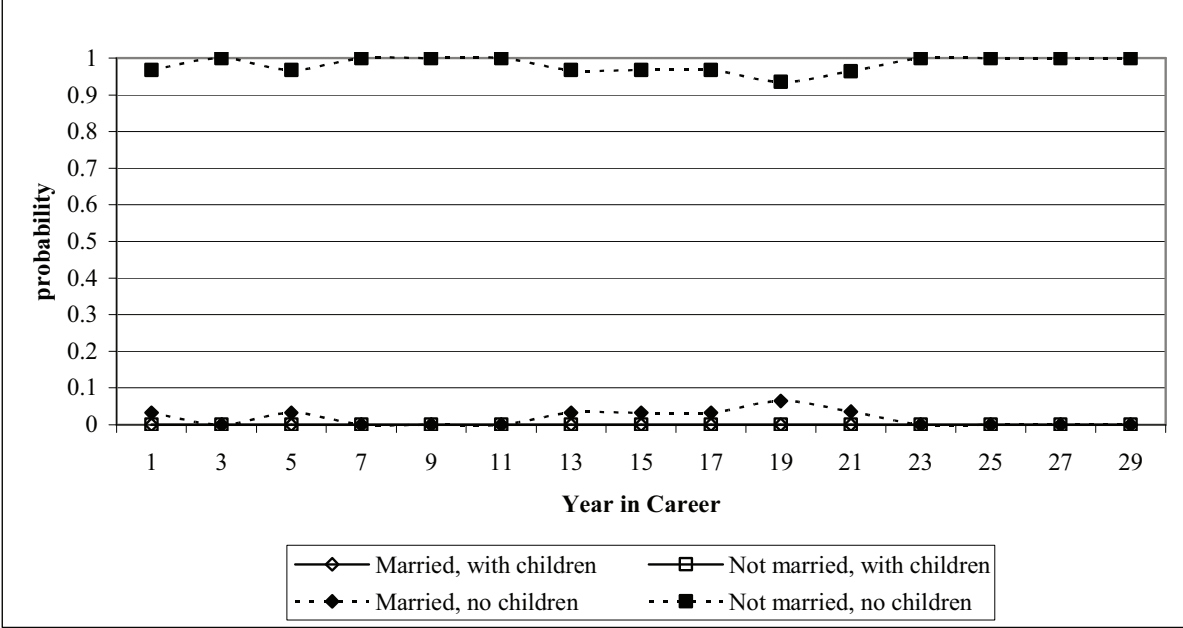
**Figure 6.2c: Married and Childless (15.4%)**



**Figure 6.2d: Mid-Career Parents (12.2%)**



**Figure 6.2e: Singles (9.2%)**



**Figure 6.2f: Single Parents (7.1%)**

