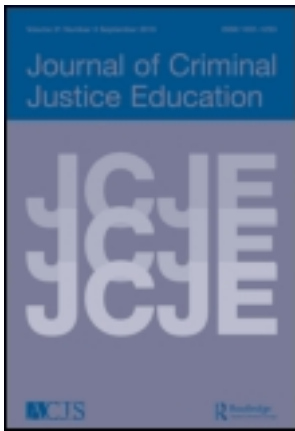


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PhD Program Prestige and Faculty Location in Criminal Justice and Sociology Programs

David Fabianic

Criminal justice education is striving to become completely integrated into the academic community and in the process has assumed many of the characteristics of the more established disciplines. Prestigious academic programs hiring PhDs from other prestigious programs has been a familiar pattern for many established academic programs. The initiative to maximize program prestige by hiring PhDs from high-ranking programs is thought to benefit both program and individuals. This study examined the sources of PhD degrees among prestigious and less prestigious programs in criminal justice and compared the results to those found for sociology. Taking into account the multi-disciplinary nature of criminal justice and its faculties, among ranked criminal justice programs, a tendency for highly ranked programs to hire PhDs from other highly ranked programs was observed although not as strongly as that found in sociology. Some questions for criminal justice education raised by this pattern were identified.

Introduction

Most PhD granting academic departments and programs of criminal justice or criminology are relative newcomers to the ranks of conventional academic units which comprise universities and colleges. An outstanding feature in the developmental history of academic criminal justice has been its growth and maturation throughout the past four decades. A continuing concern is the extent to which real progress has been made toward full status or legitimacy within academe, or as Clear (2001, p. 711) asked in his ACJS 2001 Presidential address, "has criminal justice come of age?" The interest in the legitimization of criminal justice in academe has also been manifested in concerns and issues associated with certification standards. Engvall (2007) recognized the issue of the sufficiency of a J.D. degree to qualify one as an accepted member of the criminal justice faculty profession. Enriquez (2007) cites the ACJS standards for certification and the inclusion of acceptable areas for faculty credentials, drawing attention to the partial dismissal of the J.D. degree as a legitimate

faculty credential for criminal justice. Hunter (2008) reviewed the efforts of ACJS to implement minimum standards for the discipline.

For purposes of this study, the term criminal justice refers to academic criminal justice, criminology and other crime or justice based academic PhD programs. There is a difference between criminal justice and criminology, but it is not regarded as significant for the purpose of this study. The distinction is often blurred because criminal justice and criminology are often regarded as significantly overlapping. This overlapping was recognized by Clear (2001) who pointed out that criminal justice was housed and named in many different ways, and although the forms of provisions for criminal justice education varied, they all can be regarded as "criminal justice."

Frost and Clear (2007) took the position that criminal justice was an area of study rather than a discipline and as such it had come of age. In spite of being viewed as a "cash cow" on some campuses, and regardless of the manner in which criminal justice may be viewed by the faculties of longer established disciplines, it is likely that many criminal justice academics concur with Clear's position. Whether it is a discipline or an area of study, Clear (2001, p. 711) raised an additional question: "Nevertheless, are we worthy of our separate academic status? Are we nothing more than a lesser form of those parental areas of study?"

Criminal justice education programs have grown remarkably since the founding of the first criminology degree offering school at Berkeley in the early 1950s, and later in 1963 the site of the first doctoral program (Steiner and Schwartz 2007). A few years later, University at Albany and Michigan State University added doctoral programs in criminal justice. In the 1970s, criminal justice education expanded at a rapid rate growing from 50 universities offering associate or bachelor degrees to over 600 by the end of the 1970s. Also in the 1970s, doctoral programs were initiated at Sam Houston State University, Florida State University, the University of Maryland, University of California at Irvine, and Rutgers University. Although the program at Berkeley was terminated in 1976 and ultimately replaced with a program in Law and Society, the doctoral programs continued to grow elsewhere. In the 1980s, programs at City University of New York (CUNY), Washington State University, University of Delaware, and Indiana University of Pennsylvania were established. In the 1990s, programs were initiated at the University of Cincinnati, Temple University, American University, University of Nebraska at Omaha, Pennsylvania State University, University of Missouri at St. Louis, University of Illinois at Chicago, Indiana University, University of South Florida, and the University of Southern Mississippi. In the 2000s, Prairie View A & M, University of Pennsylvania, North Dakota State University, University of Florida, Northeastern University, George Mason University, Old Dominion, University of Texas at Dallas, and Texas Southern University added programs.

Assuming the academic entity of criminal justice has come of age, what does this mean beyond the dimensions considered by Clear? According to Frost and Clear (2007), criminal justice doctoral programs were not notably different than other social science doctoral programs located in the same academic environment. Aside from the developmental history of criminal justice programs and the nature of criminal justice studies, perhaps there are subtle

differences between criminal justice and other social science disciplines. For example, is criminal justice structured and organized in the same manner as the longer established disciplines? Growth may be a necessary condition for criminal justice to achieve status as an established discipline or area of study but it may not be sufficient to warrant complete comparability with the established disciplines. Given the nature of criminal justice studies, it is reasonable to anticipate some contrasts with more established disciplines.

The characteristics of growth, the quality of that which has grown, and the perception of which doctoral programs are more credible and are of superior status have been important issues in the development of other academic disciplines and are also significant matters in the evolution of criminal justice. One feature of emerging criminal justice programs is the distribution of prestige among its doctoral-granting programs. Inevitably, as criminal justice has moved toward legitimatization, the matter of prestige ranking has presented itself in the same manner as it has for other disciplines. Consequently, it is important to consider some of the issues associated with the distribution of prestige in comparison to those existing in other disciplines. In particular, in its quest for full status in the academic community, does the general distribution pattern of PhDs among criminal justice programs of different status levels resemble that observed in the more established disciplines?

Maximization of Prestige

Departmental prestige has long been recognized as a significant factor in the hiring process both for the candidate and the hiring program, and it was acknowledged decades ago. Caplow and McGee (1958) and Caplow (1964) recognized that the faculty member and the department were in an interdependent relationship. The prestige of each faculty member was seen to contribute to the prestige of the department, and the general prestige of the department contributed to the prestige of each of its faculty members. It was in the best interests of the faculty to maximize professional prestige because this enhanced the departmental prestige. On the other hand, it was in the best interests of departments to hire and maintain those people who would seek professional maximization because to hire less qualified people would result in a reduction of departmental prestige and thereby diminish professional prestige of its individual members.

Elaborating the idea of interdependence, Breneman (1971) maintained that an important factor for both faculty and department prestige was the quality of graduate student produced under faculty direction. Graduate students whose dissertations were meritorious and who were consequently sought by prestigious departments brought recognition not only to themselves, but also to the department from which they graduated and to the faculty members who served as their dissertation advisers. Conversely, faculty with poor-quality dissertations were recruited by departments of low prestige and were associated with low-quality faculty direction and departments with low prestige. It was in the best interests of faculty and departments to seek out and recruit the finest graduate students and to facilitate their best performance in order

that they might be sought by the top departments when they completed their graduate work. According to Breneman, the objective of the department was to maximize prestige, and one initiative to accomplish this was to place graduates in prestigious programs. Breneman (1971, p. 42) stated: "Note that the major, visible test of the quality of the student and his work is the job placement he achieves. The student's thesis is actually read by very few people, and thus judgment must be made in a derivative manner by assuming that the 'best' students will be hired by the 'best' universities. Thus, within the profession, the quality of job placement reflects credit or discredit on both the student and his adviser."

For faculty members, professional reputation is acquired through the perceptions of his/her work by university peers in the field. One's reputation, and thus prestige, is enhanced by the quality of the work produced, funding support, and the quality of graduate students that work for that faculty person (Merton 1968). Faculty members in research intensive programs will not do well if they do not maximize their prestige by providing evidence of the quality of their research. Being affiliated with a high prestige department places a faculty member in an advantageous position to maximize his or her prestige. The greater the prestige of the faculty member the greater the bargaining power of the faculty member. Thus, a faculty member has greater influence over the allocation and distribution of valuable resources including salary increases, graduate students, teaching loads, equipment, etc. As enhanced prestige increases a faculty person's value for personal benefit, a faculty person's value also increases in the view of other universities and a faculty person acquires more independence and mobility. And finally, maximizing prestige increases self-esteem (Breneman 1971). Thus, the goal of prestige maximization is compatible with department faculty producing the best graduates. As Breneman (1971, p. 42) stated: "The department rationally seeks to attract the best students, award the PhD degree to those students who can be placed well in other universities, and discourage those students who could only be placed in low prestige positions. A department that successfully pursues this policy will enhance its own prestige and be able to attract better students than those departments foolish enough to produce PhDs for low prestige institutions."

The impact of prestige in higher education has been acknowledged by other scholars since Caplow and McGee, and Breneman. According to Garvin (1980), in the 1950s and 1960s educational institutions grew and during this period they were motivated by a desire for greater prestige, resulting in an upgrading of their faculties in many departments. Maximizing prestige was a natural response to this period of expansion and growth. One factor underlying the prestige maximization effort of departments was the hiring of new faculty capable of contributing to the prestige of the unit. James (1990) maintained that prestige was the result of research, graduate training, and student quality while recognizing that rankings of graduate programs were often a proxy for prestige which was difficult to measure directly. James also recognized further the central role of research for the maximization of prestige. There were differences in the manner in which institutions were funded and the way in which they distributed their economic resources according to the level of prestige

accruing to the institution. Brewer, Gates, and Goldman (2002) held that reputation and prestige were important concepts in understanding higher education. The two factors were regarded as assets and academic institutions invested in building both. Institutions with high prestige were able to demonstrate their position by acquiring things that were usually associated with high quality. One such thing was faculty recruitment compatible with institutional goals which in turn were designed to perpetuate prestige and reputation.

The pattern of high prestige departments and universities placing their graduates in other institutions and departments of high prestige has been previously recognized among established academic units as well as universities in general. Hargens (1969) reviewed patterns of mobility for faculty in the humanities, and physical, biological and social sciences. He found that mobility within prestige levels was not as evident as suggested by previous research, and there was evidence of inbreeding by separate institutions and increasing strength of intra-regional mobility.

Crane (1970) examined the characteristics of faculty in chemistry, physics, biology, psychology, economics, and English/philosophy and evaluated the significance of prestige of doctoral origin and the placement of faculty in departments. She concluded that for younger faculty, the prestige of the doctorate rather than past performance was used as a predictor of future performance. Oromaner (1970) was one of the early researchers to examine the relationship between faculty productivity and department prestige in sociology, concluding the prestige of department contributed to favorable productivity. Focusing on the prestige of sociology departments he found that the least prestigious departments tended to recruit from other least prestigious departments, were smaller in size than the more prestigious departments, and contained older faculty members. Shichor (1970) studied the relationship between hiring of new PhDs in sociology and the prestige of the hiring departments, observing that unless a new PhD had accomplished a record of productivity prior to being hired, the primary basis for gauging the potential of a new PhD was the prestige of the degree granting department. He found that the more prestigious departments hired from the more prestigious departments; but he also observed that a majority of graduates from high prestige departments were placed in the departments in the two lowest categories of prestige. Cole and Cole (1973) looked at chemistry, biochemistry, physics, psychology and sociology in their study of stratification in science and underscored the importance of departmental prestige in hiring, productivity and mobility. Long (1978) considered biochemists and found that productivity was not significantly related to a faculty member's initial appointment but that over time the effect of departmental prestige on productivity increased.

Burke (1988) researched the higher educational terrain in an effort to identify changes since Caplow and McGee in academic patterns and practices associated with faculty mobility and found that the academic stratification system and prestige consciousness was still a critical factor. Baldi (1995) examined PhDs in sociology obtaining first time employment between 1985 and 1992 and found that the pattern of relationship between the prestige of the doctoral-granting institution and that of the prestige of the institution where they found jobs in the hard sciences also pertained to sociology,

indicating that in sociology, as in the hard sciences, academic origins were valued over performance.

Burris (2004) regarded department prestige as a form of social capital which was determined by an exchange of PhDs among sociology departments, with centrality within interdepartmental hiring networks explaining 84% of the variance in department prestige. Weeber (2006) addressed the discipline of sociology as an academic caste system with the elite institutions dominating the discipline often hiring predominately from other elite programs. Weakliem, Gauchat, and Wright (2008) used patterns of hiring in sociology graduate departments and generated a measure of prestige that closely related to scholarly reputation ratings based on surveys. They found that prestige did not change much over the period of 1965 to 2007.

Prestige has been an aspect, explicit or implied, in criminal justice research for decades. It has been evident in program and journal rankings as the object of research and use as a variable in productivity studies. For example, Fabianic (1979) surveyed members of CJS to determine which programs at the time bore the most prestige. Regoli and Poole (1981) reviewed the difficulties of measuring prestige in criminal justice and criminology journals. Using citation frequency as an alternative indicator of prestige they established some variation of results when different methods of gauging prestige were employed. In their analysis of the prestige of criminal justice and criminology journals, Williams, McShane, and Wagoner (1995) determined there was variation in the manner in which the journals were rated according to identity with criminal justice and educational orientation. Sorensen and Pilgrim (2002) examined the institutional affiliations of the faculty publishing in the eight leading journals in the field between 1995 through 1999 and produced a productivity ranking for doctoral programs. Steiner and Schwartz (2006) extended the study of Sorensen and Pilgrim for the years 2000 to 2004 and found the productivity ranking had not changed for the leading programs. Sorensen, Snell, and Rodriguez (2006) surveyed ACJS and ASC members and found that changes in journal rankings had taken place over time. Some of the changes supported the establishment of the discipline of criminal justice. Davis and Sorensen (2010) found that rankings of doctoral program tended to be stable over time when they used meta-analysis to rank programs.

Importance of Prestige

The perception of prestige is an important factor in academe, whether or not it is justifiable or well-founded. Unit prestige is more than a static feature of well-established departments and programs. Department and personal reputations are valuable commodities in an academic setting. If an academic unit is prestigious, it is thought to have access to advantages and resources that are less readily available to less prestigious units. The significance of prestige extends further than the rewards of status differentials. Prestigious programs become models for the development of less prestigious programs, and the faculty members from prestigious programs become the carriers of academic and disciplinary cultures. Graduates from the higher ranked programs help to

reinforce the system that produced them by being highly productive no matter where they are located. If located in a less prestigious program, one for which there are aspirations for upward mobility, faculty members from more prestigious programs have the potential to impart or exhibit not only strong productivity but also the values and knowledge of the higher ranked programs from which they came. In some ways, graduates from the higher ranked programs assume the roles of gatekeepers and leaders in development, using their graduate experience in the more prestigious programs to help their current department emulate the higher ranked programs, often to such a degree that it resembles attempts to clone the latter.

The rewards associated with elite departments and the significance of their role in providing models for other departments are made even more important because it has been found that the prestige structure for academic units has staying power and tends to be maintained over time (Fogarty and Saftner 1993; Keith and Babchuk 1994; Weakliem et al. 2008). Consequently, it is important to consider prestige differentials within disciplines or areas of study in order to better understand the rewards that accrue to some units and not to others, and because prestige is one enduring, critical factor in the creation and maintenance of academic models for an area of study or academic discipline. The pattern that has been identified in more established disciplines that have clearly come of age is that the more prestigious programs hire graduates from other prestigious programs, and those from less prestigious programs are hired less frequently by the high prestige programs and more frequently at lower prestige programs. The issue under consideration here is to determine to what extent does criminal justice, having come of age, exhibit this pattern.

There are at least two circumstances which suggest that the pattern of distribution of PhDs in criminal justice might differ from that of other disciplines. The first is the multidisciplinary nature of criminal justice. This feature of criminal justice is expected to create a balance of disciplinary interests within criminal justice units with a variety of distinct perspectives being represented. Consequently, the traditional pattern of the prestigious hiring from other prestigious programs might be affected.

The second factor is a research finding by Applegate, Cable, and Sitren (2009) in which it was found that the university from which candidates received or were receiving their PhD degrees did not significantly influence their prospects of receiving interviews for employment. Applegate et al. (2009, p. 22) state: "Some departments may be disappointed that our results did not show that their programs' prestige gives graduates an advantage on the job market." Their research utilized vignette surveys that were confined to asking respondents what candidates were deemed desirable for a position interview. It is possible subjects responding to hypothetical situations avoided openly endorsing the degree granting institution importance in order to appear more supportive of meritocracy in the selection of candidates for interviews. It is well known that what people say and what they often do are two different things (Deutscher 1966). In addition, it is possible that faculty members conducting real searches craft their expectations around the qualities associated

with prestigious programs while claiming that the prestige of such programs have little impact on their judgments.

Data

Several items were required in order to examine the existing distribution and source of PhDs in criminal justice. A measure of departmental prestige was obtained using the Department Rankings from *US News and World Report* in the fall, 2008. This measure is widely distributed and is perhaps the most widely known in academic circles. The use of this reputational measure is not meant to imply any genuine level of quality nor should any particular element of excellence necessarily be inferred. The rankings were constructed by surveying the opinions of faculty and administrators in PhD producing departments. Participants were asked to rank each program on a five-point scale. The five choices and their associated point values were: Distinguished = 5 points; Strong = 4 points; Good = 3 points; Adequate = 2 points; and Marginal = 1 point. The latest year available at the time of this report was 2007–2008.

In order to distinguish the higher ranked programs in criminal justice from the lower ranked ones, those programs that received a rating of “Distinguished” or “Strong” after rounding up the program score were placed into Group I (average rounded score of at least 4.0); and the other ranked criminal justice programs made up Group II, the less prestigious group. The number of programs in Group I was 8.

Only 22 PhD departments were given distinct ranks in the *US News and World Report* in spite of the fact that the Association of Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice recognizes over 30 such programs (Frost and Clear 2007). Programs with less than an average score of 2.5 were not ranked by *US News and World Report* and thus were not included in the location groupings for this study. (Those program were located at Florida International University, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, North Dakota State University, Old Dominion University, Prairie View A & M University, Texas Southern University, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, University of Central Florida, University of North Dakota, University of South Dakota, University of South Carolina, University of Southern Mississippi, University of Texas at Dallas, and all foreign universities.) Group I consisted of University of Maryland-College Park, University at Albany, University of Cincinnati, Rutgers University, University of California at Irvine, University of Missouri at St. Louis, Michigan State University, and Pennsylvania State University-University Park. Group II was made up of University of Nebraska at Omaha, University of Pennsylvania, CUNY-John Jay College, Florida State University, University of Florida, Northeastern University, University of Delaware, University of Illinois at Chicago, Washington State University, Sam Houston University, Indiana University, Temple University, Arizona State University, and American University.

It is recognized that there will be a lack of consensus on the matter of the creation of the ranked groups. Advocates of one program or another will differ in their selection pattern. What cannot be argued, however, is that the rankings of programs according to *US News and World Report* are widely

disseminated and that the system employed ranks some institutions higher than others. The selection of the highest ranking based on the ranking score of those programs is a reasonable way to separate some institutions that are regarded more highly than others.

In order to determine if the location pattern for criminal justice differed from that of an established discipline using the same ranking scheme, another academic discipline for comparison was necessary and consequently the same procedure was used for PhD sociology departments. That is, the departments ranked "Distinguished" or "Strong" after rounding up their ranking scores were selected for Group I, and the remaining ranked departments made up Group II. Sociology was selected because it is a well-established academic discipline with a close relationship to criminal justice as a field of study currently and historically. Using this method of selection, 24 programs were selected for Group I. They were University of Wisconsin-Madison, University of California-Berkeley, University of Michigan-Ann Arbor, University of Chicago, Princeton University, University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill, Stanford University, Harvard University, University of California-Los Angeles, University of Pennsylvania, Columbia University, Indiana University-Bloomington, Northwestern University, Cornell University, Duke University, University of Texas-Austin, Pennsylvania State University-University Park, University of Arizona, University of Washington, Ohio State University, Yale University, John Hopkins University, Brown University, and University of California-Irvine.

The 40 programs comprising Group II in sociology consisted of, New York University, University of Minnesota-Twin Cities, University at Albany, University of Maryland-College Park, University of California-Davis, University of California-Santa Barbara, CUNY Graduate School of University Center, Rutgers University-New Brunswick, Vanderbilt University, University of California-San Diego, University of Illinois-Urbana-Champaign, University of Iowa, University of Massachusetts-Amherst, Emory University, SUNY-Stony Brook, University of Virginia, Washington State University, Florida State University, Michigan State University, University of California-Riverside, University of Southern California, North Carolina State University, University of Florida, University of Illinois-Chicago, Boston College, Brandeis University, New School, Texas A&M University-College Station, University of Notre Dame, University of Pittsburgh, University of Colorado-Boulder, University of Georgia, University of Oregon, Arizona State University, Iowa State University, Purdue University-West Lafayette, University of California-San Francisco, University of California-Santa Cruz, University of Connecticut, and University of Kansas. Other institutions and foreign universities were not included in the location groupings.

The faculty members of all the listed programs in Groups I and II for both disciplines were examined between 30 September 2008 and 10 November 2008 using web pages, catalogs, and Dissertation Abstracts. Due to the lag and often incomplete information provided by catalogs and Dissertation Abstracts, the primary source of information was the websites of the various programs. Although these sources were recognized as imperfect, it was assumed they were the most likely to be correct because web pages are capable of being edited immediately whereas catalog changes often involve a lag time of months. Although faculty membership in a department is of a fluid nature,

what was examined here was a snapshot of department membership which was presented to the public during a specific time period.

The program of origin for the PhD degree was determined for each faculty member. Faculty receiving their degrees from Group I institutions were placed into the first origin group, and faculty from all other institutions were placed into the second origin category. The list of faculty included only PhD degree recipients occupying the ranks of assistant, associate and full professor, and excluded those receiving other types of degrees. Also excluded were those with the rank of instructor, adjunct, part-time, or emeriti appointments. Their exclusion seemed justified in that not all institutions listed faculty bearing these position titles. In addition, the focus on this study was confined to the tenured or tenure-earning faculty with ranks of assistant, associate, or full professor. Joint appointments were included in the count if the primary host department could be recognized. The required information was obtained for 95.3% of the 383 faculty members in criminal justice departments and 97.1% of the 1616 faculty members in sociology departments. The core data then consisted of the current location for each faculty member as well as the institution from which they received their PhD degrees.

Results

The multidisciplinary status of criminal justice presented a special condition in tallying the sources of PhDs. Criminal justice departments are populated with individuals with degrees from many different disciplines reflecting its multidisciplinary character. It was necessary to separate faculty with the pertinent degrees from those with degrees other than criminal justice or sociology. The results of this process are found in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1 indicates that 29.4% (21.9 and 7.5) of the faculty members in Group I criminal justice programs have their Ph.D. degrees in criminal justice; and 33.7% (20.0 and 13.7) of the criminal justice faculty in Group II programs have their PhD degrees in criminal justice. This is a difference of only 4.3% between the two groups in the proportion of faculty members possessing PhDs in criminal justice. The general distribution of criminal justice and other PhD degrees among Groups I and II was not statistically significant. Table 2 indicates that 91.3% of the faculty in Group I sociology programs have their degrees in sociology (the sociology category was considered broadly and included social psychology, social science, and demography); and 94.0% of the faculty in Group II sociology programs have their degrees in sociology, again, a small difference of only 2.7%. The general distribution of sociology and other PhD degrees among Groups I and II was statistically significant. There is a considerable difference between criminal justice and sociology in the proportion of faculty possessing a degree in the host discipline. In criminal justice as a whole, 32.0% of the faculty members have degrees in criminal justice, while in sociology 92.9% of the faculty members have degrees in sociology. The dominant degree among all the faculty members in criminal justice programs was found to be sociology (42.7%), not criminal justice.

Table 1 Degree discipline by location for faculty in criminal justice programs, in percentages

Location	Degree			Total
	Criminal justice Group I	Criminal justice Group II	Other ¹	
Group I	21.9 (32)	7.5 (11)	70.5 (103)	<i>n</i> = 146
Group II	20.0 (44)	13.7 (30)	66.2 (145)	<i>n</i> = 219
Total	20.8 (76)	11.2 (41)	67.9 (248)	<i>n</i> = 365

$\chi^2 = 3.346, P = > .05.$

¹The discipline in which the greatest proportion (42.7%) of faculty members in criminal justice programs received their degrees was sociology.

To examine the maximization principle purporting that the more prestigious programs hire faculty members from other prestigious programs in order to maximize their prestige, faculty members with degrees in other fields were dropped from further examination and just those faculty members with criminal justice degrees were considered within the criminal justice category. Similarly, those faculty members with degrees in something other than the sociology category were omitted from further consideration. The results for criminal justice are presented in Table 3, and for sociology in Table 4.

Among criminal justice Group I programs, there were 43 criminal justice faculty members and 74.4% of them received their PhD degrees from Group I programs. Among criminal justice Group II programs, 59.4% of the 74 faculty members received their degrees from Group I programs. This distribution of criminal justice PhD degrees among Groups I and II was not statistically significant.

In comparison, 81.1% of the sociology faculty members in Group I programs received their PhD degrees from Group I programs. Among the faculty in Group II sociology programs, 60.9% received their degrees from Group I programs. The distribution of sociology PhD degrees among Groups I and II was statistically significant.

Discussion and Conclusions

One outstanding contrast between criminal justice and sociology reflected in Tables 1 and 2 was that 67.9% of all faculty members in criminal justice programs had PhD degrees in disciplines other than criminal justice. In contrast, only 7.1% of the sociology faculty members had PhD degrees in a discipline other than sociology.

There are several things suggested by this difference. First, criminal justice purports to be a multidisciplinary field and that assertion is reflected in the proportion of faculty members in criminal justice programs who have degrees in other fields. It can be argued that the substantial distribution of PhDs from different disciplines in criminal justice programs is indicative of the genuine multidisciplinary nature of criminal justice education and that departments hire faculty personnel from a broad range of disciplines relevant to criminal

Table 2 Degree discipline by location for faculty in sociology programs, in percentages

Location	Degree			Total
	Sociology Group I	Sociology Group II	Other	
Group I	74.2 (504)	17.1 (116)	8.7 (59)	<i>n</i> = 679
Group II	57.2 (509)	36.8 (328)	6.0 (53)	<i>n</i> = 890
Total	64.6 (1013)	28.3 (444)	7.1 (112)	<i>n</i> = 1569

$\chi^2 = 74.594, P = < .05.$

justice. In addition, there is a preponderance of sociology degrees in criminal justice departments which is a consequence of the fact that many sociology programs offer a concentration in criminology or deviance, and people electing to take those options present themselves as faculty members well versed in criminal justice. In addition, the profile of criminal justice faculty may also be affected by the small number of criminal justice PhD programs until recent years. A few decades ago, there were not many sources of PhDs in criminal justice, and people entering the field of academic criminal justice were required to seek the terminal degree through other disciplines such as sociology or political science. To some extent, the strong presence of sociology PhDs in criminal justice departments has likely been affected by all of these circumstances.

The inclusion of other disciplines within criminal justice departments may support the effort to make academic criminal justice multidisciplinary, but it may also raise some issues since the various disciplinary interests are represented in department affairs. The abundance of sociology PhDs in criminal justice programs raises some questions which are beyond the scope of this report, such as, what does the presence of sociologists mean for the nature of departments in which they are located? What is the impact of sociological perspectives on the formation and development of criminal justice scholars attempting to establish their independence? How will this influence manifest itself in the future development of criminal justice as an academic field? Are criminal justice programs simply hybrids of sociology programs with a focus on crime, criminals, and the criminal justice process? Will this pattern persist in the coming years?

The principle question to be addressed in this report was the pattern of degree distribution into ranked programs of criminal justice PhDs from the two prestige levels. Table 3 indicated that 74.4% of the criminal justice degrees in Group I criminal justice programs came from Group I criminal justice programs; and 59.4% of the criminal justice degrees in Group II criminal justice programs came from Group I programs. The criminal justice degrees at both levels were predominantly from Group I criminal justice programs with 64.9% of the total criminal justice degrees originating from Group I programs in criminal justice.

The extant pattern identified among criminal justice programs was stronger among sociology programs. In Group I sociology programs, 81.1% of the faculty members had degrees from Group I programs, and in Group II sociology pro-

Table 3 Criminal justice degrees by location for faculty in criminal justice programs, in percentages

Criminal justice degrees			
Location	Group I	Group II	Total
Group I	74.4 (32)	25.6 (11)	<i>n</i> = 43
Group II	59.4 (44)	40.5 (30)	<i>n</i> = 74
Total	65.0 (76)	35.0 (41)	<i>n</i> = 117

$\chi^2 = 2.674, P > .05.$

grams 60.9% possessed PhDs from Group I sociology programs. Combining Groups I and II, 69.5% of the sociology faculty had degrees from Group I programs.

Essentially the maximization principle was confirmed in criminal justice although its strength was weaker than that found in sociology. In sociology and criminal justice, the higher prestige programs tended to hire graduates of high prestige programs to a greater extent than lower prestige programs hired graduates of high prestige programs. It was notable that in both criminal justice and sociology, Group I and Group II programs hired graduates of Group I programs more frequently than graduates of Group II programs. Thus, the hiring pattern was not a matter of all PhDs in Group I programs having received their degrees from Group I programs; and Group II program hiring only graduates from Group II programs. The majority of hires in both Group I and Group II programs had their degree from Group I programs. The difference between criminal justice and sociology was one of the degree to which this pattern held. Based on these data, it was evident that criminal justice programs, as far as criminal justice degrees were concerned, tended toward the prestige maximization process identified in more traditional disciplines. This pattern was likely affected by the number of graduates being produced by programs of both levels, and the availability of positions in the field. It is also likely that in the future the relative newness of PhD programs in criminal justice may put a premium on graduates from the higher ranked programs and an increasing preference to hire from known and established programs of which there are a limited number in criminal justice.

Table 4 Sociology degree by location for faculty in sociology programs, in percentages

Sociology degree			
Location	Group I	Group II	Total
Group I	81.1 (503)	18.9 (117)	<i>n</i> = 620
Group II	60.9 (510)	39.1 (327)	<i>n</i> = 837
Total	69.5 (1013)	30.4 (444)	<i>n</i> = 1457

$\chi^2 = 68.575, P < .05.$

On the surface, the findings here seemed to contradict those of Applegate et al. (2009). In that study, which was based in vignette surveys, the authors concluded that the prestige of the recruiting department was not a highly valued factor in the hiring process. The sample for their study was drawn from the membership of the American Society of Criminology and the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. Sample members were asked to respond to different vignettes listing job-related attributes. The pertinent finding was that a program's prestige did not give graduates an advantage as far as desirability for an interview was concerned. It was possible that the vignette survey technique was not sufficient to discern the tendency for higher prestige programs to seek out graduates from high prestige programs, or for graduates of high prestige programs to migrate toward high prestige programs. In addition, the Applegate et al. study examined the desirability for an interview, not a final hire. And finally, the sample did not discriminate criminal justice degrees from other types of degrees, nor did it distinguish those degree holders of the ranked programs from the remaining body of criminal justice programs. Thus, what first appears as a contradiction between Applegate et al. and the current study was not. Regardless of what members of the American Society of Criminology and the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences might have said about the importance of program prestige for desirability for an interview, the actual pattern of hiring among the ranked programs reflected a preference for graduates from higher prestige programs.

This pattern of distribution has particular importance for criminal justice departments. There are a small number of programs that can be potentially very influential in the development of newer programs, and to some extent the field itself. The small number of PhD programs in criminal justice, and thus the small number of prestigious programs, means that there is a narrow field of expertise from which to draw as far as methodological sophistication, research orientation, conception of educational quality, and many other concerns. In addition, prior research suggested that rankings have stability over time, and the longer programs remain highly ranked the more likely they were to remain on the highly ranked list. Prestige rankings may be controversial, unfair, incomplete, and annoying, but the notion of program prestige is likely to have meaningful consequences.

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