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#### ABSTRACT

Statistical data relating to the sociology and economics of the physics enterprise are presented and explained. The data are divided into three sections: manpower data, data on funding and costs, and data on the literature of physics. Each section includes numerous studies, with notes on the sources and types of data, gathering procedures, and interpretations. Additional explanatory notes are found in the appendices, such as questionnaire samples, term definitions, and a list of physics subfields. (MH)



# **PHYSICS PERSPECTIVE**

**VOLUME II** PART C

Statistical Data

Auxiliary Material Collected by the Staff and Some Members of the Data Panel

Physics Survey Committee

National Research Council

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES Washington, D.C.

1973



NOTICE: The study reported herein was undertaken under the aegis of the Committee on Science and Public Policy (COSPUP) of the National Academy of Sciences | National Research Council, with the express approval of the Governing Board of the National Research Council,

Responsibility for all aspects of this report rests with the Physics Survey Committee, to whom sincere appreciation is here expressed.

The report has not been submitted for approval to the Academy membership or to the Council but, in accordance with Academy procedures, has been reviewed and approved by the Committee on Science and Public Policy. D is being distributed, following this revew, with the approval of the President of the Academy.

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#### **CONSULTANT**

- \* BEVERLY PORTER, American Institute of Physics
- \* Contributors to this report.



## **PREFACE**

The Physics Survey Committee was appointed by the President of the National Academy of Sciences in mid-1969 to survey the status, opportunities, and problems of physics in the United States. Volume I of Physics in Perspective constitutes the full report of the Committee. This and the companion parts of Volume II, complete the report of the survey.

The Survey Committee early concluded that it was essential that it obtain detailed information from experts in each of a number of physics subfields and interface areas. For each of these subfields and interface areas a chairman was appointed by the Chairman of the Survey Committee, and groups of recognized experts were brought together to survey and report on their respective subject areas.

Several of the subfields have relatively well-defined and traditional boundaries in physics. Included are the core subfields of acoustics, optics, condensed matter, plasmas and fluids, atomic, molecular, and electron physics, nuclear physics and elementaryparticle physics. The reports of these panels constitute Part A of Volume II. In addition, there are several important interface areas between physics and other sciences. These are examined in Part B of Volume II. In the case of astronomy, where activity is particularly vigorous at the interface and is overlapping, the Physics and Astronomy Survey Committees agreed to form a joint panel that would report on astrophysics and relativity, an area of special interest to both. The broad area in which physics overlaps geology, oceanography, terrestrial and planetary atmospheric studies, and other environmental sciences was defined as earth and planetary physics, and a panel was established to survey it. In covering the physics-chemistry and physics-biology interfaces, the broader designations "physics in chemistry" and "physics in biology" were



chosen to avoid restricting the work of the panels to the already traditional boundaries of these interdisciplinary fields.

Although each pamel--and particularly those responsible for the core subfields, was asked to consider the interaction of its subfield with technology, the Committee anticipated that the emphasis would be on recent developments that advanced the state of the art and on what is generally described as h/ph technology. Therefore, to Include more specifically the active instrumentation interface between physics and the more traditional manufacturing sectors of the economy--steel, drugs, chemicals and consumer goods, to name only a few, in which many old parameters are being measured and controlled in new and ingenious ways--a separate panel was established.

Panels were also appointed to centralize the statistical data-collection activities of the survey and to address the questions of physics in education and education in physics. In addition, an extended report on the dissemination and use of the information of physics was prepared by a member of the Committee. With the exception of the one on statistical data, all these reports are included in Part B of Volume II; the Statistical Data report constitutes Part C of Volume II. The Survey Committee is deeply grateful to Convers Herring, Chairman of the Statistical Data Panel, who saw this offort through to completion and to others who assisted in the gathering and analysis of the statistical material that forms the basis for this report.

Support for the survey activity has been provided equally by the Atomic Energy Lommission, the Department of Defense, the National Aeronauties and Space Administration, and the National Science Foundation. Additional assistance has been provided through grants from the American Physical Society and from the American Institute of Physics.

To these agencies and to other organizations and individuals who helped to make this survey possible through their contributions, I express both my personal thanks and that of the Committee and its panels.

D. ALLAN BROMLEY, Chairman Physics Survey Committee



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# I INTRODUCTION

#### I.1 Nature of This Report

When the Physics Survey Committee was established by the National Academy of Sciences in 1969, it was decided that among its numerous panels there should be one charged with coordinating the collection and analysis of statistical data relating to the sociology and economics of the physics enterprise. The reasons for setting up such a panel were of two sorts, which may be categorized as "internal" and "external." To make the work of the Survey Committee internally consistent, the various subfield panels obviously needed to adopt uniform definitions and, whenever possible, to obtain data from comparable sources. Moreover, the gathering of data from external organizations, such as government agencies, industries, and universities, obviously could be carried out more efficiently and with less inconvenience to these organizations by a single Data Panel than by many independent subfield panels. Therefore, as much of the gathering of socioeconomic data as possible was to be channeled through the Data Panel.

In addition to its primary function of serving the Survey Committee and the subfield panels in the manner just described, it was also thought that, after the data needed by these groups had been collected and turned over to them, the Data Panel might prepare an exhaustive and systematic compendium of data relevant to the functioning of the physics community. If such a compendium could be prepared, and periodically updated, it would be tremendously useful to physicists, research and educational organizations, government agencies, and the like. Unfortunately, this report is not the compendium that was envisaged. The demands on the time of the Data Panel and its staff proved of longer duration than had been anticipated, and almost no time was left for a

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leisurely assembling of data on a large scale. Moreover, funds available to the Survey were limited, and it seemed wasteful to republish data already presented elsewhere, especially in the earlier volumes of *Physics in Perspective*, merely to have all the data presented together.

The philosophy adopted for this report is, therefore, not encyclopedic but rather a philosophy of making publicly available, in as orderly a manner as possible, those 'rems of data in our possession that may be of interest to the physics community and others and that have not been presented elsewhere. Because of the latter condition, the resulting collection is something of a hodgepodge. We have tried to ameliorate this situation to some extent, however, by occasional cross-references to data presented in other volumes of *Physics in Perspective*, and by including, in Chapter V, a condensed but we hope usable index to data presented in the figures and tables of this and the other volumes.

#### I.2 Sources of Data

#### I.2.1 TYPES OF DATA AND SOURCES

Most, though not quite all, of the data of interest to us are represented by numerical values of some dependent variable y, shown in their dependence on one or several independent variables x, which may or may not be identified by numbers. One encounters the following types of dependent variables y:

- 1. People: i.e., numbers of persons or fractions of some population. Thus, the entry in a table or the ordinate of a figure may be "number of physicists," "number of students," "fraction of respondents," etc.
- 2. Money: Typical quantities tabulated or graphed are dollar amounts of support, salaries, costs, etc.
- 3. Publications: i.e., such things as number of papers, fraction of papers, number of books or reports, etc.
- 4. Miscellaneous: The number of quantities other than the three types mentioned above, for which numerical data can be given, is of course large. They can be as diverse as "average age," "maximum voltage of accelerators," "time lag between submission and publication," etc. However, it is not unreasonable to group all these together in a miscellaneous category, as all such items together seem to constitute a rather less bulky fraction of the material of interest to a study such as ours than do the three preceding categories.

We shall use these four categories as the basis for the organization of our index in Chapter V. Table I.1 gives some crude indicators of the relative bulk of material one is likely to encounter in each of these categories. The top row of figures refers to an extensive bibliography of sources of data about physics and physicists compiled a few years ago for the American Institute



of Physics (AIP) by Professor A. L. Harvey.\* Here, the numbers represent the number of documents the principal emphasis of which is on data of each of the four types. In the other rows of Table I.1 the entries represent numbers of figures and tables, the ordinates or entries of which represent data of each of these types. In sheer bulk, it appears that in all cases data on people are the most voluminous.

TABLE I.1 Distribution of Data in Various Collections over Four Major Categories

Number of Items	<del></del>			
Presenting (or Emphasizing) Data	Categor	у		
of Each Category	People	Money	Publications_	Misc.
Documents referred to in the Harvey Report $^{\alpha}$	334	73	<b>≈5</b> .	174
Figures and tables in Physics in Perspective Vols. I, IIA, 1IB	184	184	40	122
This volume, excluding Appendix	168	21	29	18

 $<sup>^{\</sup>alpha}$ From its "Index by Data Category." The numbers add to considerably more than the 220 documents indexed, because many documents contain important data of more than one type. The entry 5 in the publications column is a guess based on scanning titles of documents.

Usually the interest of data of any of these types lies in its dependence on various auxiliary variables. The important categories of such variables are the following:

 Time. It is nearly always of interest to know how any given quantity has been changing over the years.

2. Discipline or type of activity. One may compare physics with other sciences and subdisciplines of physics with one another or contrast basic research with applied research, with teaching,

\*Harvey, A. L. Statistical Data Resources of Physics and Physicists: An Index. New York, N. Y.: Education and Manpower Division, American Institute of Physics (Pub. R-228), 1970.



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3. Geographical or institutional entities. For example, one may compare different countries with each other, universities with industrial or government laboratories, research funded by different agencies, etc.

4. Characteristics of persons. When the dependent variable y is a number of people or a fraction of a population, it can be presented as a function of various other characteristics or quantities besides the ones just named. Examples are age, sex, possession of certain degrees, academic rank, etc. Table I.2 shows the extent to which each of these various types of independent variable has been used in the figures and tables of this report and in those of the earlier parts of *Physics in Perspective*.

TABLE I.2 Frequency of the most Important Types of Independent Variables in the Figures and Tables of this Report and of the Earlier Volumes of Physics in  $Perspective^{\mathcal{Q}}$ 

Type of Independent Variable	Physics in Perspective Vols. I, IIA, IIB	This Volume (Exclud- ing Appendix)		
Time	515	235		
Discipline or activity:	•			
Field of science	449	232		
Type of activity	24	23		
Geographic or organi-				
zational:				
Geographic region	462	228		
Working institution	107	111		
Source of support	64	50		
Personal characteristics	:			
Age	1.4	23		
Degree or rank	112	148		

 $a_{
m Number}$  of figures or tables in which entries for two or more values of the independent variable are compared.

Data of any of these types can be obtained from a variety of sources. Many of the data of interest for a study such as ours can be acquired by consulting tabulations that have been prepared by various other organizations, especially those of government agencies. We shall discuss some of these sources briefly in Section I.2.2. Here, we wish only to classify the means by which the original gathering of a mass of data can be performed. Among the many possible sources of data, three are of particular importance for the type of material of interest to us:



- 1. Individuals. Questionnaires filled out by individuals constitute an empecially important source; we shall discuss their utility and limitations presently. Alternatively, one can gather information from individuals by interviewing them in person or by impersonal observation.
- 2. Organizations. Organizations, private or governmental, have statistics and records that can be used as data sources either by examining them directly or by asking officials of the organizations to fill out questionnaires.
- 3. The scientific literature. Unlike many other objects of socioeconomic\_study, a scientific discipline like physics leaves a record of much of its most important activity in the form of journal articles and other publications. These are, in turn, collected and indexed in the secondary literature. Thus research journals, abstract journals, and the like provide an extraordinarily rich mine from which to extract information on many subjects: for example, who is doing physics where; how different subfields and disciplines interrelate; or how much impact certain types of physics work have and where it is felt.

Questionnaires deserve a special comment. Those mailed to thousands of individuals can provide copious statistics in which random fluctuations are minimized. But, unless they are intelligently managed and carry high prestige, the percentage of nonrespondents is apt to be high, and one must then worry about whether the nonresponding population has the same statistical characteristics as the responding population. One should also think of the cost to the nation represented by the expenditure of time required from those who fill out the questionnaires. For example, it has been estimated that the time invested by respondents in filling out the forms for the 1970 National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel could well have been of the order of \$2 million.\* Thus a sensible policy is to use large-scale questionnaires sparingly, restricting them to cases like the National Register (unfortunately now discontinued) in which comprehensive data are of vital importance and in which the prestige, regularity, and good management of the enterprise combine to ensure a high level of response. Similar considerations apply, though slightly less strongly, to comprehensive questionnaires circulated to all organizations of a given type, for example, to all university physics departments. Such questionnaires tend to be more complicated than those circulated to individuals, and although the number of recipients is smaller, they are apt to be very busy people.



<sup>\*</sup>Testimony of C. Herring before the Subcommittee on Science, Research, and Development, Committee on Science and Astronautics, U.S. House of Representatives, February 29, 1972.

The loss if they fill out the questionnaire sloppily can be great.

Many types of data can be collected more quickly and efficiently
by sampling techniques. The success of public opinion polls in
this country attests to the effectiveness of such wethods for even
quite large-scale surveys.

In our work we have made use of existing data sources whenever possible. The following section is devoted to a byjef discussion of some of the more important of these. However, we found it necessary to collect a considerable amount of new data. Our philosophy in doing this, and a list of the major data-gathering projects we undertook, will be given in Section I.2.3.

#### I,2.2 PRINCIPAL OLDER SOURCES

We have mentioned briefly the Harvey Report,\* a rather comprehensive and quite useful bibliography of sources of data about physics. This report, prepared at the AIP during 1969, with the support of the National Science Foundation (NSF), describes some 220 documents, issued by government agencies, learned societies, and other groups in the United States since 1960, plus a few foreign items or items of earlier date that are of particular value. The coverage is intended to be fairly exhaustive for manpower, educational, and funding data assembled in this country in the 1960's. As we have seen in Table I.1, however, coverage of data on publications was apparently not attempted. Practically all the documents referenced are available in the files of the AIP. The report also lists a number of earlier indexes and bibliographies.

Having directed the reader to a fairly complete source of information about earlier collections of data, we may now limit our mention of particular collections of data to a few that have proven especially useful for the work of the Physics Survey Committee. We shall group these according to type of source organization.

Government Documents. Since the early 1950's, the NSF has issued annually Federal Funds for Research, Development, and Other Scientific Activities. Obligations incurred by the various federal agencies for the support of basic research, applied research, and development in the various fields of science and engineering are listed for each of three consecutive fiscal years, the latest of these being represented by the budget submitted to Congress but not yet passed. The degree of detail provided can be indicated by the following remarks: Some data are given only for "physical sciences," others for a finer subdivision, in which physics is broken down into four subfields; performers of the work are separated into intramural government organizations, industrial organizations, federally funded research and development centers, colleges and universities, nonprofit organizations, and foreign organizations; as for the funding entities, several subagencies are listed for the Departments of Defense and Health, Education, and Welfare and other large departments, although the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC), the NSF, and others are not subdivided. Although valuable as a general guide



<sup>\*</sup>Harvey, A. L., op. cit.

to the pattern of government support, this publication has a number of limitations that should be borne in mind. The separation into basic research, applied research, and development is based on the motivation for the work being pursued; the distinctions are necessarily somewhat ambiguous and may be interpreted differently by different agencies when they report their figures to the NSF. (In Section III.1.1 we shall present our philosophy on the separation of "research" from "nonresearch.") The subdivision of physics is not as detailed as was needed for the work of the Physics Survey Committee. Most serious of all is that there is no effective supervision of the judgments made by the different agencies in reporting their figures. We shall see in Section III.2.2 that a quite unreasonable picture can sometimes result from taking the figures at their face value.

Another important publication of the NSF, biennial until 1971, has been American Science Manpower. This was a tabulation of data collected by the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel. In its detailed tables, scientists are divided by discipline (physics, chemistry, etc.), and occasionally by subdiscipline (acoustics, nuclear physics, etc.). For each discipline, scientists are further subdivided according to the most important pairs of the variables age, highest degree, employment status, type of employer, primary work activity, years of professional experience, major subject of highest degree. Extensive data are also given on median salaries, seographical distribution, number receiving federew other characteristics. The only shortcomings al support, and of this compilation for our purposes are that since it covers so many disciplines it cannot give as much information about physics as was needed for the work of the Physics Survey Committee. Moreover, the subfields used although comparable in size with those of the Physics Survey Panels are not identical with them.

A third publication of the NSF is the annual National Science Foundation Grants and Awards, which lists, by field of science, state, institution, and principal investigator, the titles, durations, and dollar amounts of all grants and awards for research and other science-related activities. Some totals appear in the NSF's internal Databook.

Similar to this publication is the quarterly one, NASA's University Program, issued by the Office of University Affairs of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Here again, titles, institutions, principal investigators, durations, and amounts are given for all grants or contracts supported by NASA in universities. The different disciplines are separated, as are the different NASA subagencies responsible for funding.

The AEC issues annually A Statistical Summary of the Physical Research Program, which gives data on manpower, publications, and funding for work in federally funded research and development centers, educational institutions, research institutes, and industrial laboratories. The data are subdivided according to eight AEC discipline categories, and various other statistics are given.

Although their data are rarely broken down to as fine a specialty as physics, the compilations of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are of especial interest in that they are obtained by intensive





surveys of the civilian economy and are independent of such commonly used other sources as the National Register. Of particular interest in connection with demand extrapolations is their bulletin 1648, PhD Scientists and Engineers in Private Industry 1968-86.

Publications of the American Institute of Physics. The Physics Manpower series, published every few years by the AIP, provides a convenient assemblage of statistics from the National Register, U.S. Office of Education, National Education Association, and other sources, most notably the data collected by AIP from physics departments throughout the country. Over half is devoted to physics education. Data on employment of physicists are broken down by salary, work activity, type of employer, highest degree, age, and subfields, much as in American Science Manpower. However, the data on physics are much more accessible and are often presented in graphical form.

The annual Directory of Physics and Astronomy Faculties lists all North American colleges and universities, with the names and ranks of all faculty members in physics, applied physics, and astronomy departments. This information is obtained by direct contact with the departments involved.

The AIP has also issued some useful studies of the literature of physics, most of which are not indexed in the Harvey Report. Two studies of particular value are Journal Literature Covered by Physics Abstracts in 1965, by S. Keenan and F. G. Brickwedde (Report ID 68-1, 1968) and Institutional Producers of Physics Research, by M. Cooper and H. M. Watterson (Report ID 69-3, 1969).

Publications of the National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council. The Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council maintains a Doctorate Records File containing detailed information gathered, with the cooperation of graduate schools throughout the country, from essentially all recipients of doctorates in the United States. Extensive data from this file have been presented in Doctorate Recipients from United States Universities 1958-1966 (NAS publication 1489, 1967) and in supplemental yearly summaries issued since. Geographic and institutional distributions are given in considerable detail. Although most of the data are broken down only into major disciplines (i.e., physics, chemistry, earth sciences), some 14 subfields of physics, unfortunately not identical with those of the panels of the Physics Survey Committee, are separated in the totals. Of particular interest is the inclusion of information on initial postdoctoral employment. A study directed especially to this subject is Employment of New PhD's and Post-Doctorals in 1971 (Report OSP-MS-5, 1971). This study was based on rather detailed special questionnaires sent to academic departments.

A number of extensive studies have been made by the Office of Scientific Personnel based on questionnaires to samples drawn from known doctorate recipients of past years and designed to explore the subsequent development of their careers. These studies report extensive data on geographical migration, salaries, types of employment, and the like. However, discipline specialization of the data is usually not on a fine scale, and many figures are reported only for "physical sciences."

Two studies, similar in nature to that of the Physics Survey Committee and in closely related fields, have been in progress almost simultaneously with ours, and each has also made use of a data panel. One is that of the Astronomy Survey Committee, whose data gathering is described in Astronomy and Astrophysics for the 1970's: Volume 2, Reports of the Panels, Chapter 9 (NAS, 1973). The other is that of the Committee on the Survey of Materials Science and Engineering, whose Summary Report is to be published shortly by NAS, and whose subsequent detailed report is expected to contain an extensive section on manpower, funding, and literature data for the materials field.

Miscellaneous Sources. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), whose membership consists of most of the nations of Western Europe plus Japan, Canada, and the United States, has prepared a series of Reviews of National Science Policy, which surveys science and technology in various leading member and nonmember countries. Although the data are nearly all from official or other public sources, and are rarely specialized to as fine a scale as physics, they are sometimes discussed with useful critical insight. The studies are also of value simply because they try to discuss many countries from a unified point of view. The OECD has also issued a series of Statistical Tables and Notes on research and development in member countries that contains much information on manpower, funding, and organizations in the governmental, industrial, educational, and nonprofit sectors of the various countries. Further valuable studies on international migration of scientists and engineers have been conducted.

In the discussion of material from the AIP we mentioned that statistics on publications in physics provide valuable indicators of the scale and distribution of research and the interrelationship of different geographic and intellectual areas. Without naming further data sources specifically, we would like to stress here the utility of many data that can be found in the documentation literature. Among the organizations that have sponsored useful collections of such data special mention should be made of the Abstracting Board of the International Council of Scientific Unions.

#### I.2.3 NEW DATA GATHERING PROJECTS

The sources of data discussed in the preceding section, though extensive and useful, failed to answer many questions that were of interest to the Physics Survey Committee. Manpower and funding data, even when broken down according to subfields of physics, have not been available for subfields as finely subdivided and as clearly defined as was needed. As we noted in Section I.2.2, funding data from government agencies have been particularly ambiguous; this ambiguity is clearly apparent, for example, in the Pake Report.\* There have been almost no quantitative data on the support

Physics: Survey and Outlook (NAS-NRC, 1966).

of physics research in industrial laboratories or on the output of these laboratories to the physics literature. The resources invested by universities from their own funds in the physics research enterprise have also been inadequately investigated. And one can think of a host of small but intriguing questions on the sociology of physics to which none of the previously available sources supplies answers. Although the resources and abilities of the Data Panel were far too limited for it to attempt to fill all these gaps, there obviously were many useful things that it could do.

In Section I.2.1 we mentioned some of the disadvantages of largescale questionnaires. We decided not to attempt to gather information from the physics community in this way. It was clear, however, that a rich mine of potential data existed in the tapes on which the complete store of replies to the National Register questionnaires were recorded. In addition to the obvious possibility of obtaining more detailed tabulations and cross-correlations of data pertaining to physicists than had previously been published, the tapes offered possibilities for obtaining entirely new types of information. As described in more detail in Section II.1.1, the replies on specialty of present employment and on additional specialties of competence afford a wealth of information on the closeness of different specialties to one another, or their remoteness, and provide a tool for fairly objective separation of physicists and their specialties into groupings corresponding to major subfields of physics, for example, the subfields to which the various panels of the Physics Survey Committee were assigned. In addition, the tapes for different years have been used to generate longitudinal files in which data from the same respondent, if he has answered questionnaires in a succession of years, are collected, and changes in employment, specialty, salary, and the like can be studied statistically. (Respondents, of course, remain individually anonymous.) It was decided, therefore, to examine the Register tapes in considerable detail and to make a small-scale study of the available longitudinal files.

Only one other data-gathering project of a comprehensive nature was undertaken. This was a survey of the records of the principal agencies of the federal government responsible for the support of physics research, to isolate the amounts of such support and allocate it to the various subfields of physics, as defined by the domains of the various panels of the Physics Survey. This study was done through the courtesy of officials in the agencies involved, who worked in close collaboration with the Staff Scientist of the Data Panel, to ensure uniformity of definitions from one agency to another. However, not all agencies could be studied adequately, and, as we shall see in Section III.2, a great deal of intelligent guesswork fortified by a variety of auxiliary studies was required to round out the funding picture.

The most important of the remaining projects undertaken by the Data Panel were sampling studies of one kind or another. Most of the questions encountered were of such nature that an approximate answer would be enormously better than no answer at all and that a highly exact answer was almost impossible to define. The speed and



convenience of sampling studies therefore make them especially attractive, the more so since with this approach it is often possible to reformulate a question after the study has begun.

The most extensive sampling study undertaken was an articleby-article survey of about 4500 articles randomly selected from entries in Physics Abstracts. This survey was designed to reveal the distribution of physics research activity, as it is manifested in publication, among different countries, different types of institutions, and the different subfields of physics. As the Survey progressed, we became increasingly convinced that the literature of a science like physics is the best possible indicator of what can be called research activity. The British physicst, J. M. Ziman, has pointed out in a perspicacious little book\* that what gives science its power and distinguishes it from many other worthwhile human activities is the wide dissemination of new results throughout the scientific community, followed by extensive criticism, leading to ultimate consensus. Thus, as we describe at greater length in Section III.1.1, we believe that it is possible to make a fairly clear distinction between "research" and "nonresearch" but that the distinction between basic and applied research is necessarily exceedingly fuzzy. In the studies of federal funding mentioned previously, and the studies of other types of funding to be discussed in subsequent sections, we therefore endeavored to isolate the funding of activities leading to publishable results. As we shall see in Chapter III it is useful to have the opportunity to check the general consistency of the findings of investigations of funding with those of studies of the literature.

Studies of industrial and university funding of research and other characteristics of physics research in these two environments necessitated obtaining data from some of the organizations involved. The data needed were not always easy for these organizations to supply, and we were conscious of how painful would be the demands on the time of anyone to whom we addressed inquiries. Fortunately, we were able to select small samples of institutions of both types, which at the same time were adequately representative of the diversity of the national populations, yet were represented by persons to whom we could appeal for help by use of close personal contacts. This procedure ensured a high percentage of conscientious responses. We wish to express our profound gratitude to the representatives of these organizations who were willing to devote so much time to make our projects successful.

A number of smaller studies of samples of people, documents, or merely data from government publications were made. These, some of which will be discussed at appropriate places throughout the report, often proved helpful in filling in our picture of the functioning of some part of the physics community.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>\*</sup>Ziman, J. M. *Public Knowledge: The Social Dimension of Science*. Cambridge University Press, 1968.

# II MANPOWER DATA

II.1 Studies Based on the National Register and Other Nationwide Sources

II.1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL PERSONNEL

Much of the information on manpower in *Physics in Perspective*, and particularly in Parts II.1.2 and II.1.3 below, was based on data from the NSF National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel. Therefore, a detailed discussion and evaluation of this major data source seems in order.

From the mid-1950's until 1970, the NSF conducted a series of birnnial questionnaire surveys called the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel. The various scientific societies—in physics, the AIP—were responsible for identifying the specialties that comprised their fields, setting criteria for inclusion, and collecting the data. Statistical tables of data from these surveys, for a wide variety of sciences, were then regularly published in the NSF's American Science Manpower series.

The Register was in two respects unique. First, it was designed to be a complete survey of manpower in various sciences rather than a sampling operation. Second, unlike the surveys of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and other NSF surveys, it was directed to the individual scientist rather than to his employing institution. The uniqueness of this data source increases the difficulty of measuring its reliability.

The Physics Survey depended heavily on National Register data for several reasons. Most sources presented data on physical sciences, sometimes with a further breakdown for physics as a whole; the National Register was one of the few sources in which physics

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was subdivided into specialties. Since the Physics Survey was as concerned with the subfields of physics as with the overall field, this feature was most useful. Second, because the Register had been a continuous operation throughout the 1960's, comparative data over time could be derived. Finally, both current (1970) and past comparative data from the Register were available on computer tape. This availability on tape was particularly valuable, because, as a result, data analysis was not limited to published definitions, categories, and table layouts. Register subfields could be redefined to fit more closely the scope of the subfield panels of the Physics Survey. Categories such as employer type could be revised to show separately the federally funded research and development centers, major employers of physicists. Work activity groupings could be redefined so that categories of no relevance to physics were eliminated. Data could also be made more nearly comparable over time. Working directly with the Register computer tapes permitted a flexibility seldom possible with other data sources.

Although Register data have many advantages, problems occur in their interpretation. To deal with the numbers presented, the user needs to know how representative they are and the nature of any biases. In the following subsections we shall consider several points relating to the opportunities and limitations presented by the Register and our use of it.

#### II.1.1.1 Adequacy of Coverage

A basic question one should ask about the Register data is: How completely do they cover physicists? Professional societies identify the groups of scientists who are to receive their questionnaires. Thus scientists who are not known to a society are not included. In the case of physics, this source of error is probably relatively small, for the AIP attempts to identify and include in the survey physicists who are known from a variety of sources even though they are not members of one of the AIP societies. Coverage also is incomplete to the extent that persons receiving the questionnaire fail to fill it out and return it.

Completeness of coverage is probably most useful in the case of doctoral scientists. They are almost automatically included in any count of scientific personnel. At lower educational levels the definition of a scientist is less clearcut and varies widely among societies and sources. The AIP's criterion for inclusion as a physicist was anyone with an advanced degree in physics or a baccalaureate in physics plus two years of professional experience in physics or an equivalent background. It is difficult to estimate the size of such a population.

Perhaps the most exhaustive attempt to assess Register coverage of doctorates was that of the Commission on Human Resources and Higher Education.\* The Commission based its study on a comparison of the Doctorate Records File (maintained by the National Academy



<sup>\*</sup>Folger, J.K., H.S. Astin, and A.E. Bayer. Human Resources and Higher Education. New York, N.Y.: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970.

of Sciences Office of Scientific Personnel) and the National Register. Information for the Doctorate Records File is obtained directly from universities and supplemented by a questionnaire to be filled out by the graduate. The File is believed to include 99 percent of all the doctorates awarded in the United States. The Commission attempted to identify by name in the 1964 National Register all persons who received a science doctorate in the United States between 1957 and 1962. A number of auxiliary studies were conducted to correct for deaths and immigration and emigration. The basic datum sought was the number recorded in the Doctorate Record File as having a U.S. baccalaureate and doctoral degree who appeared also in the National Register. Possession of a U.S. baccalaureate degree was interpreted as evidence that the individual was a permanent resident of the United States and would seek employment in this country. The Commission found that 78 percent of the physics doctorate recipients appeared in the 1964 National Register; therefore, this number could be used as an estimate of coverage of the Register in physics. A lower coverage was estimated for most other scientific disciplines.

How important is completeness of coverage? If no bias in coverage exists, that is to say, if nonrespondents are similar to respondents, figures can be inflated to the proper expected total by using the inverse of the rate of no response. In the mid-1960's the NSF conducted a special survey of nonrespondents and found few differences from respondents on major variables such as level of degree and type of employer.

The National Register, therefore, appears to have been, for physics, a relatively complete and unbiased source of information on manpower. However, in attempting to compare data in a particular Register with another source or with Registers of earlier years, problems still exist. Such problems result principally from variation in basic definitions. One cannot use Register or other data without clearly understanding what they relate to. A few examples illustrate problems related to coverage and definitions and show the need for caution in the interpretation of data.

As a first example, we compare physics and astronomy faculty members included in the National Register and in the AIP's annual Directory of Physics and Astronomy Faculties. The Register reports numbers of faculty members by self-reported faculty rank. The AIP independently obtains actual name listings from the heads of college and university physics departments for inclusion in the Directory of Physics and Astronomy Faculties, which is probably a more nearly complete and valid source, at least for regular faculty. Table II.1 presents the results of this comparison.

The second row in Table II.1 shows the number of faculty in each academic rank reported by the AIP for the 1966-1967 academic year. The first row shows the numbers reported in American Science Manpower 1966. Since most physics departments were growing at this time and AIP figures for 1966-1967 represent data for a later date than those of American Science Manpower, data for 1968 from this source are shown in the third row. In the three professorial ranks the mean of the numbers reported in American Science Manpower for the two years is between 78 percent and 83 percent of the number

TABLE II.1 Number of Faculty Members by Rank

Source	Prof.	Assoc. Prof.	Asst. Prof.	Instructor	Other
ASM <sup>a</sup> 1966 AIP 1966-1967	1691	1322	1832		1056
AIP 1966-1967	2449	1830	2686	1389	641
ASM <sup>a</sup> 1968	2128	1713	2345	757	1057

American Science Manpower.

reported by AIP, or slightly higher than the 78 percent Register coverage reported for physics PhD's by the Commission on Human Resources and Higher Education.

In the two lower ranks, however, discrepancies appear. If the Instructor and Other categories are added, the National Register coverage for them appears to be 90 percent of that of AIP. If the figures are inflated by the factor used previously, the result suggests that the Register is including approximately 260 more faculty members in the lower ranks than the AIP, a 13 percent overinclusion. The difference results primarily from a difference in definition between the individual and department head. Apparently some individuals in lower ranks considered themselves (or were considered by the Register) faculty members, although department heads did not define them as such. The breakdown at lower faculty ranks varies even more. Individuals are more restrictive in defining themselves as instructors than are department heads. For the user of Register data, these findings suggest that lower faculty ranks are probably overrepresented and that any breakdown of lower faculty ranks should be treated with extreme caution as academic rank at these levels has not been standardized.

The attempt to examine the growth of a borderline subfield of physics that includes many nonphysicists, such as acoustics, provides another example of the effect of varying definitions, as Table II.2 shows.

According to the Register data, the population of acoustics, with some peculiar fluctuations, has been virtually stable. However, membership directories of the Acoustical Society of America and publications in its journal show growth. Membership increased by more than 50 percent in the nine-year period, and publications by almost 90 percent.

Has the Register missed physicists in acoustics? To answer this question is difficult, because the Acoustical Society has not collected data on the educational and employment background of their members. A general feeling, substantiated by a more recent survey, is that the Society's membership is exceedingly diverse, consisting of physicists, engineers, psychologists, and a variety of other scientists. Although complete figures on these groups are not known for the years indicated in Table II.2, probably more than half of those who are identified with acoustics are from disciplines other than physics.



Physics Manpower 1969 (American Institute of Physics, New York, 1969).

TABLE II.2 Growth of Acoustics

Year	ASMa	ASA <sup>D</sup> Membership	Pages Published in $\mathit{JASA}^{\mathcal{C}}$
1960	1260	2782	1781
1962	1454	3301	2079
1964	1381	3735	2525
1966	1261	4007	2979
1968	1296	4403	3369

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>In American Science Manpower series, scientists indicating first competence (1960-1966) or present work experience (1968) in acoustics. Acoustical Society of America.

<sup>a</sup>Journal of the Acoustical Society of America.

Clearly, as Table II.2 shows, acoustics has been growing; however, growth rates by discipline may differ. The physics component of acoustics has apparently remained approximately stable, whereas the other components—engineering, psychology, and the like—have increased.

As a third example, physicists employed in industry are shown in Table II.3, which is based in part on figures collected by the NSF and the Bureau of Labor Statistics.\*

TABLE II.3 Numbers of Physicists (Thousands) Employed in U.S. Industrial Organizations

Year	American Science Manpower	NSF-BLS Survey
1960	8.6	12.5
1962	9.8	14.0
1964	9.0	15.6
1966	8.3	16.2

According to the National Register, the number of physicists in industry remained stable during the years indicated. However, the figures in the third column of the table show fairly substantial growth. The problem again stems from definitions. The Register obtains information from individuals and sets clear criteria for who is and is not a physicist; the NSF-BLS survey obtains information from employers and leaves the categorization of individuals to them. Anyone to whom an employer gives the title of physicist is recorded as such, regardless of his background education



<sup>\*</sup>Employment of Scientists and Engineers in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Science Foundation and Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968.

and training. With so loose a definition, inflated figures might be expected; but the problem is even greater, for there is no way of knowing how such loose definitions change with time. During a period of increasing demand, such as the early 1960's, there could well be an increasing number of employer-defined physicist positions but little change in the number of AIP-defined physicists so employed. The additional positions could have been filled by engineers and technicians. It must be remembered that while industrial demand was growing in the early 1960's so, too, was academic demand, and academia usually has been the preferred home of physicists.

These examples and comparisons indicate not that one source is good, another bad, but rather that each is measuring somewhat different phenomena. If, for example, one wanted to examine the number of physics faculty members by the strict standard of the department chairman, one would use the faculty directory; if one was studying the number of physicists employed by universities, the National Register could be used, with the necessary inflation factor. If one was interested in the growth of acoustics, broadly defined, one would use the Acoustical Society membership or publication figures. If one needed information on the change in the physics component of acoustics, the National Register would be the appropriate source. And if one was concerned with the change in physics positions in industry, as defined by employers, the NSF-BLS statistics would suffice. Changing participation of physicists in industry would be shown by Register data. Comparisons of data sources can lead to useful hypotheses, for example, about the components of growth in acoustics, but cannot be taken at face value as indications of data source deficiencies, for the sources often cannot be equated.

With this background on advantages and problems in the use of Register data, we will look next at the way in which the Data Panel used these data and at some additional problems related to their interpretation.

#### II.1.1.2 Cross-Sectional Studies

Most of the manpower data used in the Physics Survey came from the 1964, 1968, and 1970 Register computer tapes. The American Science Manpower series provided data for other years, and AIP student surveys were useful for obtaining data on physics baccalaureates, graduate students, and new PhD's. The 1970 Register data were the most current available at the time of the Physics Survey. Data from 1964 and 1968 were used for comparative purposes to examine changes during the late 1960's.

A layout of the major analyses needed for these years was developed. The tabulations decided on will be described in Section II.1.2; they are summarized there in Table II.4. The totality of tabulations for the three years runs into the thousands. Many of these tabulations were used by the Data Panel in developing specific analyses. A selection of tables considered of greatest interest were reproduced from computer printouts and appear in Appendix A.



Additional tables are available at the NAS or the AIP to qualified persons for research purposes.

#### II.1.1.3 Mapping the Subfields of Physics

The collection of data on the physics population was the central task of the Data Panel; however, the Panel recognized that data on the various subfields would also be most useful. Such data could provide information not previously available on the unity and diversity of physics.

A major problem of the Data Panel was the allocation of the many categories and specialties of the National Register among the 11 subfields established for the Physics Survey. The Register data contained 19 major physics categories and 236 detailed physics specialties in addition to several specialties in other sciences that could be defined as interdisciplinary areas or interfaces with physics.

Using the 1968 Register data (available at the start of the Survey), two panelists assigned Register categories and specialties to the various subfield panels. Many of the specialties were clearly appropriate to particular panels. Others were less easily assigned. For example, where did electronics or health physics belong? A number of Register specialty groups appeared to be directly related to several subfields. How to allocate these in the most meaningful way was a major question.

The initial step in the procedure finally adopted was to identify the specialties that were clearly related to each of the Physics Survey panels. These groups were later termed Panels Proper. The next step was to identify single or groups of specialties that could be considered borderline cases. These specialties might be related to several panels. Thirty-six of these borderline groups were developed. Initially Herring and Keyes examined each of these and made an educated guess as to what their allocation should bewhat proportion of the practitioners of a particular borderline group, for example, should be assigned to condensed matter, optics, and so on. However, when this task was completed there was a certain degree of dissatisfaction with this subjective allocation of relatively unknown groups. At this point it was decided that elements in the Register questionnaire might be used to develop a more objective and consistent method of allocation for these 36 borderline cases.

The Register questionnaire included both a question on specialty of present work activity and one on specialties of additional competence. It was thought that individuals whose specialties of present work activity were among the borderline groups would have a majority of their specialties of competence either in the borderline group or in the appropriate Panels Proper.

On the basis of this assumption all borderline groups (that is, individuals indicating one of the borderline groups as specialty of present work activity) were sorted in terms of specialties of additional competence, including both Panels Proper and borderline groups. For example, individuals currently working in electronics were examined to determine the specialties of additional compe-



tence; some indicated other electronics specialties, and others one of the Panels Proper, such as condensed matter. (Initially distributions on first and additional specialties of competence were examined separately; however, comparisons showed that second, third, and fourth competences were merely reflections of the first. Determinations were then made on the basis of specialties of first competence.)

Allocations were based on the percentage distributions of competence responses. If examination showed that an overwhelming proportion of competence responses were to a single Panel Proper, then this specialty or group of specialties was assigned to that Panel Proper. In most instances, a split allocation was indicated -50 percent condensed matter, 50 percent nuclear physics, or 25 percent optics and 75 percent atomic, molecular, and electron physics.

Whether this was the best way to deal with borderline cases is open to question. Many of the borderline groups were eventually assigned to the same panels as they had been with the earlier subjective judgment procedure. Subjective re-examination showed differences when they occurred to be consistent, if not expected.

Appendix B shows the allocation of 1968 Register specialties among subfield panels. Those that were allocated by means of the analysis of borderline groups are listed at the end of each subfield section. The remaining specialties that did not clearly fit into Survey Panels were combined into a miscellaneous category. This category included a large number of people whose specialty was physics teaching, others with specialties outside physics in chemistry, engineering, or computer science, and a few that could not be classified. The fractions following each overlap group indicate the proportion allocated to a particular subfield.

The Data Panel believed that this method of specialty allocation, although not perfect, was the most objective and consistent response then available to the problem of defining physicists and their subfields, which has always presented difficulties. We shall discuss the analogous problem of classifying the literature of physics in Section IV.1.1.

#### II.1.1.4 Other Problems of Definition

A few additional problems among the data for the 1964, 1968, and 1970 Registers can be briefly summarized.

- 1. Increased coverage between 1964 and 1970 could be expected, although for physics this factor should have little effect as procedures did not undergo major change. In making comparisons, the increased coverage would imply a slight exaggeration in figures on growth.
- 2. Questions dealing with competence varied slightly between 1964 and 1970; further, in data collected from the Register tapes the Data Panel used specialty of present work activity, whereas tables from American Science Manpower used data on specialty of first competence.



3. In the three years examined, the Data Panel treated ederally funded research and development centers as a special category; published material from American Science Manpower distributed these institutions according to administrative groups, such as university or industry, rather than presenting a separate tabulation.

In comparing Register data with other sources it is often necessary to examine the exact phrasing of the questions; therefore, to aid in such comparisons Appendix A includes copies of the 1964, 1968, and 1970 Register questionnaires.

## II.1.1.5 Longitudinal Studies

In addition to cross-sectional studies, several longitudinal studies based on two longitudinal files were conducted. The first of these files, referred to as the 1960-1966 Longitudinal File, was developed from Register tapes by Robert McGinnis of the Department of Sociology, Cornell University, with the cooperation of the NAS. The Data Panel used information from this file on all PhD's who responded to all three Register surveys in this interval and who were defined by AIP as physicists in 1964. The data obtained showed mobility among subfields of physics, between physics and other sciences, among types of employers, among work activities, and among regions of the United States and other countries. (These relatively complex tables are available at the AIP to qualified researchers.)

In addition, the Data Panel worked with data on AIP-defined physicists, both PhD and non-PhD, from a 1968-1970 longitudinal file developed from Register surveys for these two years. The groups considered were

- 1. Physicists responding to both surveys who were PhD's (or non-PhD's) in both years
- 2. Physicists responding to both surveys who were non-PhD's in 1968 but PhD's in 1970
  - 3. Physicists responding only to the 1968 survey
  - 4. Physicists responding only to the 1970 survey

Analyses of data on the first two groups showed patterns of mobility among subfields, types of employers, work activities, and geographic areas. Further analyses of the second group also showed how new PhD's differed from other PhD respondents. The third group was studied to determine the characteristics of individuals who responded in 1968 but not in 1970. This type of analysis gives insight into the nature of the nonrespondent group. Analyses of the fourth group yielded information on characteristics of new respondents—whether they were older physicists who had failed to respond in 1968 or new entrants to the field.

A few definitional problems occur when comparing longitudinal with cross-sectional data. First, correlating 1964 specialties with



those of 1968 and 1970 had presented some difficulties, which were greatly increased by additionally correlating those of 1960, 1962, and 1966. Neither specialty categories nor physics remained the same during this interval. Further, between 1960 and 1970 the point of reference of specialties changed. From 1964 on, specialties of present work experience were included on the questionnaire in addition to specialties of competence. As a result of these variations, subfield mobility based on current work specialization can be discussed only for the 1964-1966 and 1968-1970 intervals. Care must be exercised in the interpretation of data on mobility for the other years, for change in specialty of competence is different from change in specialty of employment. Changes in definitions of types of employers also occurred over the years, especially in regard to federally funded research and development centers. The data for 1964-1966 and 1968-1970 again appear to be the most consistent. Finally, none of the Register surveys made provision for the heavily university-based postdoctoral group. Consequently, when examining mobility from the university to other work environments, it is difficult to determine the number who are departing postdoctorates and those who are leaving regular positions. The postdoctoral group greatly proliferated in the late 1960's, which increases the difficulty of interpreting and fully evaluating the movement from the universities in the two time intervals.

Some of these problems were handled through age subclassification. This technique does not completely solve the problem of discrepancies but does throw light on major patterns.

As this and other portions of *Physics In Perspective* show, careful understanding and manipulation of a data source can produce useful analyses many steps beyond a simple tabular layout of raw figures. It is hoped that this effort will stimulate and guide further analyses of Register and other data.

# II.1.2 TABULATIONS FROM THE PHYSICS PORTION OF THE NATIONAL REGISTER

Through the courtesy of the NSF, extensive analyses were made, first, of the 1968 National Register computer tapes, then extended to 1964, and, when the returns from the 1970 questionnaires became available, to that year also. Studying but one field—physics—we were able to make much more detailed tabulations and cross-correlations than those published biennially for the totality of science in American Science Manpower. Moreover, having grouped the specialties into the various subfields corresponding to panels of the Physics Survey Committee and the Astronomy Survey Committee, we were able to break the tabulations down by subfield whenever this seemed desirable. Such a breakdown is, of course, not available in American Science Manpower.

The wealth of possible subdivisions and correlations in the data can be appreciated from an examination of the National Register questionnaire, which is reproduced, in its 1964, 1968, and 1970 versions, in Appendix A. The 1964 and 1968 questionnaires



were almost identical in regard to all the entries used for our tabulations, but there were some minor differences:

- 1. The wording of the question on professional identification (8 on the 1970 form) has varied slightly.
- 2. The questions on student and employment status (7 and 9 on the 1970 form) were a single question on the 1964 form.
- 3. Although all three questionnaires had a question on the specialty closest to present employment (13 on the 1970 form), the wording of the question on additional competence (18 on the 1970 form) has varied. In 1964 and 1970, the four specialties of greatest competence were requested; in 1968, four specialties other than the one closest to present employment were requested.
- 4. The alternatives offered for present principal employer (11 on the 1970 form) have varied slightly, as have the alternatives for first and second most important activity (12 on the 1970 form).
- 5. Academic rank (10 on the 1970 form) was not included on the 1964 form.
- 6. The 1970 questionnaire allowed responding physicists to identify themselves as theorists, experimentalists, or both.

With the possible exception of the slight difference in the identification of areas of additional competence on the 1968 form. these variations in the questionnaire were all sufficiently minor that it was possible to prepare tabulations that would be comparable for different years. These were obtained in the form of tables, with rows corresponding to possible alternative answers to some one question, columns to alternative answers to some other question; a selection according to answers to a third question, a fourth, and so on could be made simply by preparing many tables, one for each combination of the latter answers. Except for some tables that were prepared only from the 1970 tapes, the totality of tables developed for the three years is described, in a condensed notatation, in Table II.4. Here the rows correspond to different categories of tables, in the order in which they appear in Appendix A. Each such type of table has its rows and columns corresponding to the items in the black-bordered boxes. The number of rows of columns is the number indicated in the black-bordered box, augmented where so indicated by a total (t) or a grouping into quartiles (Q's). There is one such table for every combination of the variables indicated without a black-bordered box. Thus, for example, there are  $3 \times 19 \times 7 = 399$  tables of type 1 for any given Register year, one for each combination of a degree status (PhD or non-PhD or total), an employment specialty (one of 18 physics and astronomy subfields or total), and an employer type (one of five categories, "no response," or total). Each such table has rows corresponding to the seven possible types of primary work activity, and "no response" and total, and columns corresponding to the same alternatives for secondary work activity. Where 12 subfields are listed instead of 18, all subfields of astronomy except the borderline field, astrophysics and relativity, have been grouped into one.

A few additional tabulations were made from the 1970 tape. These were (a) subfield of employment by subfield of first competence for theorists, experimentalists, those identifying themselves as both, and nonrespondents to this question (type 16); (b) employment specialty by age and degree status for these four groups (type 17); and (c) employment specialty by professional identification and degree status for the same groups (type 18).

Printouts of all these tables are available for study at the NAS. We have made a selection of some of the most interesting ones, which are reproduced in Appendix A. This selection consists of the following:

- 1. Fourteen tables of type 2 (PhD or non-PhD; only t for subfield specialty; and 6+t possible answers to the employer type questions)
- 2. Twenty-six tables of type 3 (PhD or non-PhD; five employer types with t for work activity; seven types of work activity with t for employer type; t for all types of work activity and employer)
- Twelve tables of type 8 (PhD or non-PhD; 5+t employer types; only 5 for subfield of employment)
- 4. Fourteen tables of type 8 (PhD only; 14 subfields of employment; only t for employer type)
- 5. Ten tables of type 9 (PhD or non-PhD; four combinations of sex and student status plus t)
- 6. Fourteen tables of type 10(14+t subfields of employment; only t for employer type)
- 7. Two tables of type 11 (PhD or non-PhD; only t for subfield of employment)
- Eighteen tables of type 12 (PhD or non-PhD; 8+t answers to question on employer type; only t for subfield of employment)
- 9. One table of type 13 (non-PhD only; only t for subfield of employment)
- 10. Fifteen tables of type 13 (PhD only; 14+t subfields of employment)
- 11. Two tables of type 15 (PhD or non-PhD; only t for subfield of employment)
  - 12. Six tables of type 16 (PhD only; 5+t employer types)



8+t 8+t Extra Income Base Salary 4+1 5+1 Employment Status -uon/juepnja zes Zengeur/Nou-(12) (12) (13; (13; (14); (14); (15); (15); (15); (16) 8+8 TABLE II.4 Tabulations Available from the 1964, 1968, and 1970 National Register Tapes (IO) Vcademic Rank<sup>e</sup> 10+0 **∓**6₹ 12+t +0's 112+t Maturation ogA 10 by Year Of Experience 94£ Activity Secondary Work ## ## 8+t 7-t Primary Question or Dimension ¥ 6+t 6+t 5-t 批 Ŧ £ Employer Type Of Additional Competence (18) Specialty 18+t Subfield Group 2+t 12+t 2+t 12+t 2+t 112+t PhD 18+t 2+t 18+t 2+t 12+5 2+t 12+t 2+t 18+t 2+t 12+t Of Employment 2+t 12+t 2+t 18+t 2+t 12+t (6) 2+t 2+t Employment specialty vs 3. 1st additional competence 5. 3rd additional competence 6. 4th additional competence 4. 2nd additional competence Citizenship and birth by Work activity
7. By years experience
8. By age
9. Employment status
10. PhD field by activity
11. Academic rank by age 12. Salary vs totál income 13. Citizenship and birth t 14. Additional employment Table Number and Name Work activity Work activity

 $\alpha_{
m For}$  the 1970 tabulations plasma physics and physics of fluids are shown separately as well as combined, So the numbers 12-t and 18-t in this column become 14-t and 20-t, respectively. Number of possibilities in these columns varies according to whether the "no response" category is in-

Not available 1964

cluded.

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#### II.1.3 DATA ON CHARACTERISTICS AND MOBILITY OF PHYSICISTS

Chapters 9 and 12 of Volume 1 of *Physics in Perspective* describe the flow of physics manpower from initial training to employment and present data on the employing institutions and work activities of physicists in various subfields. The sections that follow supplement these data with material on such characteristics as sex, citizenship, employment status, income, and the like and examine in greater depth the way in which physics as a discipline and physicists as a community changed during the late 1960's.

#### II.1.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

II.1.3.1.1 Sex The population of physics is principally male. Females represented approximately 2 percent of the PhD's and slightly more than 5 percent of the non-PhD's in both 1968 and 1970. Table II.5 shows differences in employment status of male and female physicists in 1968. The main difference relates to part-time employment; 1 percent of the males and 12 percent of the females are employed part time.

TABLE II.5 Employment Status by Sex,  $1968^{a,b}$ 

Employ-	PhD				Non-PhI			
ment	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Status	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Full time	13,389	97	219	78	10,713	97	428	68
Part time	129	1	34	12	136	1	67	11
Unem- ployed, seeking	42		6	2	75	1	22	3
Unem- ployed, not seeking	13		11	4	25		104	17
Other	230	2	10	4	151	1	7	1
Total	13,803	100	280	100	11,100	100	628	100

 $a_{\mathrm{Data}}$  on nonstudents only.

 $<sup>^</sup>b$ 1968 data presented because of minor problems in the interpretation of the 1970 data on non-PhD's.

 $<sup>^{</sup>c}$  Includes retired and no response to question on employment status.

A second difference pertains only to non-PhD's. Those who are not employed and not seeking employment are regarded as outside

the labor force, at least temporarily. As Table II.5 shows, 17 percent of the female, non-PhD physicists have dropped out of the labor force, compared with less than 1 percent of the males. This finding could result from a lower degree of commitment among non-PhD women physicists, temporary family responsibilities, or lesser job opportunities.

Register data on women physicists also show the following.

- 1. Women PhD's are more likely to be employed in universities and colleges and less likely to be employed in industry than are
- 2. Women non-PhD's are more likely than male PhD's to be employed in secondary schools and junior colleges.
- 3. Women physicists' salaries are lower than those of male physicists, regardless of type of employer.
- 4. Women physicists less frequently receive government support than do male physicists.

II.1.3.1.2 Age The median age of PhD physicists in 1970 was 37.4 and that of non-PhD's, 32.9. Table II.6 shows the age distribution of physicists. Approximately 50 percent of the PhD's are in the 30-39 age group, and about 50 percent of the non-PhD's are in the 25-34 age group.

TABLE II.6 Age Distribution of PhD's and Non-PhD's, 1970

	PhD's		Non-PhD'	8
Age	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
24 and under	5		815	4.6
25-29	1808	11.1	5411	30.7
30-34	4467	27.5	3844	21.8
35-39	3188	19.6	2409	13.7
40-44	2494	15.4	1732	9.8
45-49	1953	12.0	1537	8.7
50-54	966	6.0	874	5.0
55-59	631	3.9	548	3.1
60-64	408	2.5	331	1.9
65-69	231	1.4	121	0.7
70 and over	78	0.5	21	0.1
$\mathtt{TOTAL}^{a}$	16,229		17,643	

 $a_{\rm Total}$  refers to those whose employment was known. There were 19 PhD's and 36 non-PhD's who did not provide data on age.

Because of the heavy influx of new PhD's during the 1960's, the median age of the PhD group dropped from 38.2 in 1964 to 37.4 in 1970. Table II.7 shows the change in median age by subfield and convergence toward the overall median age in 1970. Such cluster-



ing about the median suggests heightened competition within age groups.

TABLE II.7 Median Ages of PhD's by Subfield in 1964 and 1970

Subfield	1964	1970	Change
Astrophysics and relativity	34.7	34.7	
Atomic, molecular, and electron	36.5	35.3	-1.2
Elementary particle	34.1	34.2	+0.1
Nuclear	37.3	37.8	+0.5
Plasma physics and physics of fluids	36.7	37.0	+0.3
Condensed matter	36.7	36.4	-0.3
Earth and planetary	38.1	37.4	-0.7
Physics in biology	40.6	37.2	-3.4
Optics	40.3	38.7	-1.6
Acoustics	42.2	40.1	-2.1
Astronomy	37.4	35.0	-2.4
Miscellaneous	42.8	41.4	-1.4
All subfields	38.2	37.4	-0.8

In the 1970's the expected decline in new PhD's should result in a slowly aging community. The now young, heavily academically based populations in some subfields will show an increase in average age as academic positions decrease; the currently somewhat older, nonacademically based populations might increase slightly in number and decrease in average age.

II.1.3.1.3 Place of Birth and Citizenship In 1970, 75 percent of the PhD physicists in the United States were U.S.-born citizens. Approximately half (1700) of those who were foreign born became U.S. citizens; 1900 retained their foreign citizenship. The number of PhD physicists who were U.S.-born citizens increased by 50 percent between 1964 and 1970; however, the foreign-born PhD physicist population in the United States nearly doubled. The noncitizen group could be somewhat larger than the figures reported in the National Register survey, for many who do not become citizens are a transient group, often returning to the country of origin, and such groups are unusually undercounted in surveys.

Characteristics of the U.S.-born citizen, foreign-born U.S. citizen, and noncitizen groups vary. Table II.8 shows the distribution of these groups by age in 1970. The foreign-born U.S. citizens have a median age of 43.7 and constitute a relatively high proportion of the older (>60) age cohorts. In sharp contrast, the non-U.S. citizen group has a median age of 35, with four fifths of them in the 25-39 age range. The decrease in the number of noncitizens in the older age cohorts could result from return migration or naturalization.

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TABLE II.8 Birth and Citizenship Status of PhD's by Age in 1970

	Total		U.S. Born Citizen	E	Foreign Born U.S. Citizen	Born -	Nonei Figur	40
Age	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
20	0		c					
20-24	Ŋ	100	· -	20.0	0 0		> <	C C
25-29	1,896	100	1,536	81.0	79	7 %	218	20.00
30-34	4,537	100	3,498	77.1	204		687	15.1
35-39	3,220	100	2,290	71.1	275		530	16.5
40-44	2,521	100	1,789	71.0	367	14.6	286	11.
45-49	1,975	100	1,486	75.2	313	15.8	107	7 5
50-54	982	100	730	74.3	159	16.2	197	7
55-59	647	100	483	74.7	126	19.5	1.5	, ,
20-64	434	100	305	70,3	103	23.7	3 5	, ,
69-59	296	100	202	68.2	71	24.0	? `	.,
-0-	66	100	69	69.7	22	22.2	1 "	. ~
All ages	16,612	100	12,389	74.6	1,704	10.3	1 903	٥, [
No.	19		12				- COV 61	
response					1		1	
Median age	37.4		37.0		43.7		34.9	_

TABLE II.9 Distribution by Subfield of Citizen and Noncitizen PhD's  $^{\mathcal{Q}}$ 

		1970	255	1102	1440	1824	1118	4235	724	277	1110	332	643	3552	16612	
		1968	125	1004	1294	1802	931	4107	572	206	752	298	710	2485	14286	
	Total	1964	65	099	868	1287	707	2748	311	114	483	226	396	2556	10451	
		1970	17.6%	13.3	18.4	12.3	13.1	13.3	10.1	9.7	10.0	7.2	10.9	5.8	11.5	34.9
	izens	1968	15.2%	11.8	18.5	10.7	11.2	12.4	11.5	7.3	8.5	6.7	12.8	4.9	10.9	34.2
	Noncit	1964 1968	10.8%	11.5	16.4	9.4	10.7	11.5	14.5	3.5	9.7	5.3	9.8	4.5	9.6	34.2
		1970	8.6%	10.1	6.6	9.4	15.0	10.3	9.4	11.2	11.1	9.6	10.3	9.3	10.3	43.7
oreign-Born	ns	1968	11.2%	10.3	9.6	9.4	15.5	11.0	11.5	11.2	14.1	12.8	9.6	9.1	10.9	42.9
Foreig	Citizens	1964	10.8%	13.2	11.5	9.6	16.0	12.5	11.3	16.7	13.0	14.6	12.1	10.6	11.9	41.9
	lzens	1970	69,8%	73.0	68.3	74.6	68.5	72.6	76.1	6.97	74.1	78.6	75.7	81.3	9.42	37.0
	orn Cit	1964 1968 1970	68.8%	74.7	6.79	76.7	69.5	72.3	72.9	76.2	72.7	76.5	73.9	81.1	74.2	37.5
	U.SB	1964	78.5%	75.3	71.9	80.9	72.8	75.8	74.0	79.8	77.0	80.1	78.0	84.9	78.3	38.3
	14	Subfield <sup>D</sup>	A&R	AME	EP	NP J	P&F	Ç.	E&P	PB	d <sub>0</sub>	Ac	Astron	Misc.	Total	Med. age

 $^{2}$ Table presents data for all ages; data are available by five-year age cohorts.

 $^b$ Subfield abbreviations used: A&R, astrophysics and relativity; AME, Atomic, molecular and electron; EP, elementary particle; NP, nuclear; P&F, plasmas and fluids; CM, condensed matter; E&P, earth and planetary; PB, physics in biology; Op, optics; Ac, acoustics; Astron, astronomy; Misc, miscellaneous.  $^{\sigma}_{\mathrm{Some}}$  percentages do not add up to 100 because of 3.7 percent in 1970 who were in an "Other" category composed of incomplete responses and U.S.-born noncitizens.

 $d_{1970}$  figures for plasmas are 69.0, 13.3, and 14.2 (N=542); 1970 figures for fluids are 68.1, 15.0, and 12.2 (N=576).

 $^{ heta}$ Based on total known; five did not respond on age in 1964, 25 in 1968, and 19 in 1970.

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Table II.9 shows the distribution of citizen and noncitizen groups by subfield of employment. The noncitizen group is somewhat more heavily concentrated in the so-called intrinsic subfields than in the extrinsic ones such as optics, acoustics, physics in biology, and earth and planetary physics. Some of this difference may result from age, for certain subfields tend to attract young people, and the noncitizens are a comparatively young group. The variation by subfield still occurs, however, if one controls for age by considering a single age group, for example, the 35-39 year old group in which the highest proportion of noncitizens (16.5 percent) is found. Table II.10 shows the proportion of noncitizen PhD's in this age group in each subfield. More than one fifth of the 35-39-year-old population in such major subfields as astrophysics and relativity, elementary-particle physics, and plasma physics and physics of fluids is noncitizen.

TABLE II.10 Proportion of Noncitizen PhD's, 35-39 Years of Age, in Each Subfield

Physics	n n n Namaihina
Subfield	Percent Foreign-Born Noncitize
Astrophysics and relativity	25.0
Elementary Particle	22.5
Plasmas	21.9
Physics of Fluids	20.2
Nuclear	18.7
Atomic, molecular, and electron	18.6
Condensed-matter	17.2
Earth and planetary	14.9
Optics	14.5
Astronomy	14.0
Miscellaneous	10.8
Acoustics	8.5
Physics in biology	7.1
All subfields	16.5

Only about 10 percent of the non-PhD physics population in 1970 was foreign born. The small number could result from the entry of fewer non-PhD foreign physicists to the United States or to less adequate figures on foreign pre-PhD students than on foreign PhD's.

The data on foreign-born physicists do not show how many came to the United States for education or specific work experience and returned to the country of origin or the number who remained. The U.S. Department of Labor estimates indicate that some 4000 physicists have immigrated to the United States since 1949. How many had training at the time of immigration sufficient for them to be



regarded as physicists, their age distribution, and the rate of return migration are not known. According to the 1970 National Register the number of foreign-born physicists is higher than the Department of Labor's estimate -- about 6000. However, there are no data on when these physicists immigrated--before or after 1949, before or after becoming a physicist.

The Doctorate Record File affords data on the postdoctoral destination and activity of new PhD's in physics and astronomy from 1958 through 1970 (see Table II.11). Of the 1918 noncitizen PhD recipients, 53 percent remained in the United States and 40 percent of these went into postdoctoral study. Twenty-three percent of the noncitizen group left the United States, and these went more often into employment than postdoctoral study. The destinations of 24 percent were unknown.

TABLE II.11 Location and Activity of New PhD Physicists $^{a}$ 

	Postdo	ctoral Study	Employ	ment		
Citizenship	U.S.	Foreign	U.S.	Foreign	Unknown	Total
United States	1695	420	6024	152	1979	10,270
Foreign	392	139	626	301	460	1,918 12,188

 $a_{
m Data}$  from the Doctorate Record File; U.S. Doctorates, Physics and Astronomy FY 58-70.

II.1.3.1.4 Employment Before discussing the changing employment and mobility patterns of physicists, some background information on their employment is needed to place the analyses in context. Table II.12, showing employment patterns of PhD physicists from 1964 through 1970, is repeated from Physics in Perspective, Volume I, page 832, for it presents data on several topics that we will discuss further -- type of employer, subfield of employment, and changes in these with time.

Much of the discussion that follows deals with comparisons of those in academic and nonacademic employment. When relevant, the nonacademic group is subdivided, as in Table II.13.

The distribution of academic and nonacademic physicists among subfields shows many similarities (see Table II.14). Exceptions are optics and condensed matter, which have somewhat higher percentages of nonacademic than academic physicists, and elementaryparticle physics, which is principally university-based. A substantial number (23 percent) of the nonacademically employed PhD's work in general physics or other sciences.



 $<sup>^{</sup>b}$ There were 303 PhD's on whom data were incomplete, bringing the total to 12,491.

TABLE II.12 Changes in Employment Patterns of PhD Physicists, 1964-1970

Physics Subfield	(excluding nonrespondents)	(excluding nonrespondents)		College or University	e or sity		Industry	<u> </u>		Gove	Government		Resea	Research Center	fer	Other	Other Institutions	SUC
	1964	1968	1970	1964	1968	1970	1964	1968	1970	1964	1968	1970	1964	1968	1970	1964	1968	1970
Astrophysics and							0.03	0.02	0.07	0.02	90.0	0.09	0.05	0.07	60.0	90.0	0.04	0.02
relativity	63	123	252	0.83	0.81	0.73												
Atomic, molecular,							0.22	0.21	0.23	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.17	0.11	0.10	0.03	0.04	50
and electron	649	866		0.46	0.51	0.54												
Elementary-particle	688	i.289		0.54	0.75	0.76	0.0	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.24	0.19	0.17	0.05	0.05	0.03
Nuclear	1.277	1.794		0.41	0.50	0.52	90.0	0.10	0.10	0.0	90.0	90.0	0.39	0.27	0.25	0.05	0.05	0.07
Plasmas and fluids	707	930		0.31	0.44	0.48	0.22	0.23	0.20	0.08	0.08	0.0	0.35	0.21	0.19	0.0	0.03	0.03
Condensed-matter	2.707	4.064		0.36	0.43	0.43	0.38	0.33	0.35	0.08	60.0	0.09	0.14	0.13	60'0	000	0.03	0.03
Space and planetary	309	267		0.31	0.38	0.38	0.22	0.20	0.23	0.22	0.23	0.22	0.15	0.13	0.13	0.10	90.0	3
Physics in biology	Ξ	503	274	0.41	0.47	0.46	0.13	0.11	0.11	0.17	0.10	0.09	0.04	0.07	0.09	0.25	0.25	0.24
Optics	477	743		0.20	0.25	0.27	0.51	0.52	0.50	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.15	90.0	0.08	0.05	90.0	0.05
Acoustics	223	295		0.30	0.37	0.31	0.37	0.37	0.41	0.13	0.15	0.19	0.11	0.05	0.05	63.0	0.05	0.05
Other	2,528	2,383		0.51	0.56	0.58	0.23	0.22	0,21	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.12	0.0	0.0	90.0	0.07	0.08
TOTAL PHYSICS	9,940	13,389	_	0.43	0.49	0.50	0.24	0.23	0.24	0.0	0.09	0.09	0.19	0.14	0.12	0.05	0.05	0.05
Astronomy	393	689		0.58	0.63	0.59	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.17	0.16	0.18	0.12	0.0	0.11	0.08	0.05	0.05
TOTAL	10,333	14,087	_	0.43	0.50	0.51	0.24	0.23	0.23	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.19	0.13	0.12	0.05	0.05	0.0

<sup>•</sup> Nonrespondents = 119.
• Nonrespondents = 211.
• Nonrespondents = 373.
• Nonrespondents = 123.
• Nonrespondents = 224.

TABLE II.13 Percentage Change in PhD Employment, 1964-1970

Employer	1964	1970	Percentage of Yearly Change
College and university	4,478	8,223	0.139
Industry	2,450	3,805	0.092
Government	917	1,468	0.100
Research center	1,930	1,912	-0.001
Research center Other	558	840	0.084
TOTAL	10,333	16,248	0.095

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>1970-1964/1964/6.

TABLE II.14 Distribution among Subfields of Academically and Monacademically Employed PhD's in 1970

Physics	Employment	(%)
Subfield	Academic	Nonacademic
Condensed-matter	22	29
Optics	4	10
Atomic, molecular, and electron	7	6
Plasmas and fluids	6	7
Nuclear	11	11
Elementary-particle	13	4
Other	8	23
Earth, planetary, astrophysics and relativity, and astronomy	9	10
Teaching of physics	20	0

Figure II.1 depicts the distribution among subfields of PhD physicists employed in industry, government, and research centers in 1970. Major emphasis in industry is on optics and condensed matter, and in research centers, on nuclear physics, elementary-particle physics, and plasmas and fluids. Most nonacademically employed physicists in earth and planetary physics, astronomy, and astrophysics and relativity work for the government.

Regardless of where a physicist is employed, at least part of his work generally is supported by the federal government. In 1970, 9491 PhD physicists who responded to the National Register



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Includes high school, junior college, hospital, and other non-profit organizations.

(59.4 percent of the total respondents in physics) acknowledged government support.\* Twenty-one percent of these physicists were employed by the government or by federally funded research and development centers; however, 52 percent of those in nonfederal employment received some government support, as Table II.15 indicates.

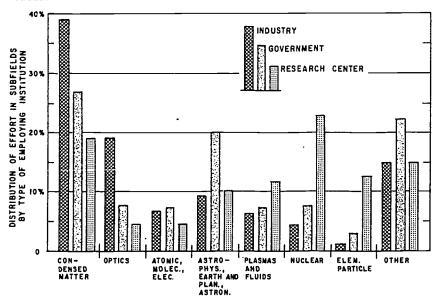


FIGURE II.1 The distribution of nonacademic PhD employment by subfield.

The fraction of the physics population receiving federal support decreased by 11.5 percent between 1968 and 1970, although the absolute number receiving such support increased by 4 percent. The federal programs in which physicists work appear in Table II.16. Defense, atomic energy, and space programs account for three fourths of the funds acknowledged by Register respondents. The DOD, AEC, and NASA account for 91 percent of the federal expenditures in basic and applied research in physics. The distribution of federal obligations for basic and applied research in physics is shown in Table II.17 for comparison with the distribution among federal programs of support acknowledged by Register respondents shown in Table II.16. The acknowledgments of support suggest that physi-



The 634 astronomers shown in Table II.12 are not included in the analyses and comparisons of funding. Although some physicists working in astrophysics and relativity and earth and planetary physics may receive funds under federal astronomy programs, the distortion in manpower figures is likely to be small in comparison with the distortion in support figures that would be introduced by inclusion of federal obligations in astronomy.

TABLE II.15 Fraction of PhD Physicists Not Employed by the Federal Government Who Acknowledged Some Federal Support

Employer	Percent Indicating Federal Support
 University	56
Industry	42
Other nongovernment	61
Total nongovernment	52

TABLE II.16 Sources of Federal Support Acknowledged by PhD Physicists in  $1970^{\it a}$ 

Program	Percentage of Funds Supporting Work in Physics (%)	No. of	PhD's <sup>b</sup>
Defense	32	3,861	
Atomic energy	27	3,228	
Space	15	1,854	
Subtotal, defense/space	74		8,943
Education	8	1,011	
Health	4.5	541	
Housing, public works, transportation, and urban development	2.5	307	
Agriculture, natural resources, and rural development	2	260	
Other	8	946	
Subtotal, nondefense/ space	. 25		3,065
TOTAL		12,008	12,008

 $<sup>\</sup>alpha_{\rm Excludes}$  astronomy.



 $b_{\mbox{\sc Includes}}$  multiple responses. Of 15,987 PhD's, 9491 reported at least one source of government support.

TABLE II.17 Federal Obligations for Basic and Applied Research in Physics  $^{\prime\prime}$ 

Agency	Percentage Distribution of \$613 Million Obligated, FY 1970 (%)
DOD	30 ′
AEC	38
NASA	23
Subtotal, defense/space	91
NSF	5.5
Other	3.5
Subtotal, nondefense/space	9 .

a Source of data: Federal Funds for Research, Development, and Other Scientific Activities. National Science Foundation (NSF-70-38) (Volume 19).

TABLE II.18 Acknowledgments of Federal Support by Subfield

Physics	Percentage of PhD's Acknowledging
Subfield	Support from the Government (%)
Plasmas	86
Acoustics	78
Nuclear	74
Elementary-particle	69
Earth and planetary	81
Astrophysics and relativity	57
Physics of fluids	73
Optics	61
Atomic, molecular, and electron physics	61
Condensed matter	55
Miscellaneous (including teaching)	46
All subfields	61

cists are finding work in fields other than the traditional ones of defense and space. It is not clear in the Register data which program, education or other, a respondent supported by the NSF would indicate. The major finding from this comparison is that support from agencies other than those concerned with defense and space, although amounting to only 9 percent of the federal obligations for physics research, affects one fourth of the physicists supported, at least in part, by government programs.

Physicists in some subfields receive more federal support than those in others, as Table II.18 indicates.

Another source of information on the support of physics research is acknowledgments of support in published journal articles. These data are presented and discussed in Chapter III, especially in Tables III.2—III.6 and Figure III.1. This Chapter explores in detail the support of physics in research by government, industry, and universities.

Multiple employment is a characteristic of professional life. For the academically employed physicist its economic benefits cannot be overlooked, and it generally offers a point of contact between academic and nonacademic institutions that is valuable. Register data suggest that such interaction has been sharply reduced between 1968 and 1970, presumably as a consequence of increasingly stringent economic conditions. In 1968, some 400 university-based PhD's reported additional employment outside the university and 400 nonacademically employed PhD's reported a secondary job, usually in a university. By 1970, these numbers had decreased by about a factor of 2. Since the questionnaire does not define additional employment, the data are likely to represent a lower bound on personnel interchanges— those individuals for whom a second job represents a substantial commitment of their total professional obligations.

Funds generally regarded as discretionary have been severely affected by the economic situation; consequently, there has been a marked decrease in summer employment of faculty and exchanges of personnel among academic and nonacademic institutions. Such exchanges, which are highly cost effective in terms of productivity, are highly vulnerable to budget expediency.

Professional employment includes a number of specific work activities— for the physicists, principally research, teaching, and the management of research and development. Rarely does a single activity adequately describe the work of a particular physicist. The individual ordering of such activities varies with institutional setting and over time with the development of a professional career. The following statistical analysis provides a description of the major work activities of physicists in the socioeconomic circumstances that prevailed in the late 1960's. Taken together with the preceding data on employment, this analysis provides a quantified picture of the traditional employment of a physicist. In interpreting this picture and assessing its relevance to future projections, one must take into consideration that what a physicist



<sup>\*</sup>We are indebted to Hugh Odishaw for a critical discussion of this point.

TABLE II.19 Distribution of Work Activities of Academically Employed PhD's

Primary	Secondary	Secondary Work Activity (%)	ity (%)					Distribution
Work Activity	Basic Research	Applied Research	Develop- ment	Mgmt. R&D	Mgmt. Other	Teaching	Other	of Primary Work Activity <sup>a</sup> (%)
Basic	4.85	2.44	09.0	1.11	0.20	26.5	2.36	38.4
Applied	0.48	0.22	0.25	0.25	0	1.9	0.14	3.25
Development Management,	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.11	0.16 2.75
R&D Management,	0.61	0.10	0.01	0.49	0.42	2.71	0.10	4.43
otner Teaching Other	35.4 0.11	4.74 0.02	0.15 0	0.82 0.01	4.68 0.03	3.26 0.10	1.83 0.15	50.9 0.43
ž								

TABLE II.20 Distribution of Work Activities of Nonacademically Employed PhD's

Primary	Secondary	Secondary Work Activity (%)	(ty (%)					Distribution
Work Activity	Basic Research	Applied Research	Develop- ment	Mgmt. R&D	Mgmt. Other	Teaching Other	Other	of Primary Work Activity $\alpha$ (%)
Basic research	6.05	13.0	1.16	4.86	0.17	2.3	4.77	32.3
Applied research	8.35	4.88	7.9	5.1	0.13	1.0	3.92	31.2
Development	0.15	2.28	0.88	0.52	90.0	0.05	0.46	4.54
Management R&D	3.48	9.23	2.14	2.18	2.4	0.39	2.27	21.81
Management, Other	0.10	0.2	0.2	1.45	0.59	0.3	1.16	70.7
Teaching	0.29	0.18	0	90.0	0.18	0.37	0.22	1.29
Other	0.51	1.09	0.39	9.0	0.33	0.15	1.73	4.61

can do may be qualitatively different from a statistical picture of what he currently does. Such differences could become significant in the 1970's. Future changes, of course, cannot be quantified, but one can get some insight into the modes of change by examining patterns of mobility of physicists, discussed in detail in II.1.3.2.

Respondents to the National Register specify their primary and secondary work activities, and the aggregation of these responses provides a more detailed picture of the distribution of activity characterizing the employment of a physicist. The pattern of activity for all age groups taken together appears in Tables II.19 and II.20. A single work activity adequately describes the professional employment of but 13 percent of the physicists. In academia research generally is combined with teaching; in nonacademic settings basic research typically is combined with applied research or development, and both types of research are often combined with the management of research and development.

A major difference between PhD's working in academic institutions and those in other types of employing institutions is, of course, involvement in teaching. More than four fifths (84 percent) of the academically employed PhD's had teaching responsibilities, and 69 percent combined teaching and research. Research was a major work activity in all employment settings. As adding the first two columns in Table II.21 will show, approximately 85 percent of the PhD's in industry, government, and universities reported some involvement in research. An even higher percentage, 94 percent, of those working in federally funded research and development centers was engaged in research. Among the PhD's working in other types of institutions (5 percent of all PhD's), 70 percent had research responsibilities.

Figure II.2 presents a comparison of the research involvement of physicists in various types of nonacademic employment.

Emphasis on basic research in the universities and research centers has remained essentially constant since 1964; however, basic research in industry and government, always a relatively small fraction of the total activity of such institutions, has declined further, as shown in Chapter 12 of *Physics in Perspective*, Volume 1, Figures 12.24 and 12.25. Thus basic research is becoming increasingly isolated in the universities and research centers.

If the university population is subdivided into those who are primarily research oriented and those who are primarily oriented toward teaching, the pattern indicated in Table II.22 and Figure II.3 results. Although minor fluctuations in percentage must be interpreted with care, the data suggest a shift toward more research-oriented activities between 1964 and 1968 and a reverse shift back to teaching between 1968 and 1970. The university adjusted to the changing research climate by slightly altering its work activities. It is doubtful that such flexibility will be possible in the future, with projected decreases in both university teaching and research functions.

The priorities assigned to the various activities that comprise a physicist's professional life change over time. The emphasis on basic research that characterizes the early years gives way to



TABLE II.21 Research  $^a$  and Other  $^b$  Activities of PhD Physicists in 1970 by Employer

Research and Development	Research and Development and Other	Other Only	Total
720 (0.09)	6008 (0.74)	1304 (0.13)	8,032
1789 (0.48)	1411 (0.37)		3,733
573 (0.40)	658 (0.44)	201 (0.16)	1,432
932 (0.50)	828 (0.45)	116 (0.05)	1,876
231 (0.28)	345 (0.44)	247 (0.28)	823
4245 (0.26)	9250 (0.58)	2401 (0.15)	15,896
	720 (0.09) 1789 (0.48) 573 (0.40) 932 (0.50) 231 (0.28)	Research and Development and Other  720 (0.09) 6008 (0.74) 1789 (0.48) 1411 (0.37) 573 (0.40) 658 (0.44) 932 (0.50) 828 (0.45) 231 (0.28) 345 (0.44)	Research and Development and Other Other Only  720 (0.09) 6008 (0.74) 1304 (0.13) 1789 (0.48) 1411 (0.37) 533 (0.15) 573 (0.40) 658 (0.44) 201 (0.16) 932 (0.50) 828 (0.45) 116 (0.05)  231 (0.28) 345 (0.44) 247 (0.28)

 $a_{\mbox{Research}}$  includes basic research, applied research, and development.

TABLE II.22 Research and Teaching Orientations in Universities, 1964-1970 (%)

<del></del>			
Orientation	1964	1968	1970
Research oriented Research and other Research and teaching (research primary)	40 14 <u>26</u>	47 16 <u>31</u>	44 15 28
Teaching oriented Teaching and research (teaching primary)	59 38	51 <b>3</b> 7	55 40
Teaching and other	<u>21</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>15</u>



 $<sup>^{</sup>b}\mathrm{In}$  the university, other refers predominantly to teaching; in non-academic employment, other refers predominantly to management.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>it c}$  Totals may vary somewhat from earlier employer totals because a small number of people did not respond to the work activity question.

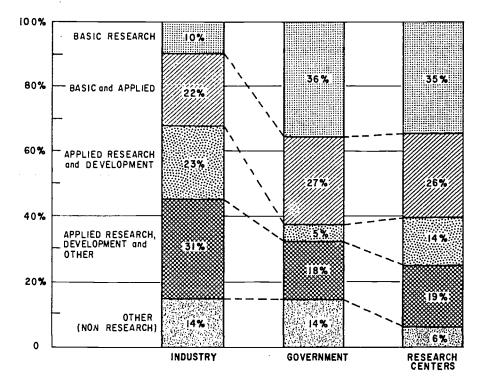


FIGURE II.2 The work activities of nonacademically employed PhD physicists in 1970.

increasing management responsibilities. In universities the combination of research and teaching shifts toward teaching and management, and in nonacademic institutions a career is likely to move from basic research into applied research and development, then into the management of research and development, as illustrated in Table II.23. The data in the Table are based on respondents to both the 1968 and 1970 Registers who remained in the same type of employing institution, a sample of approximately 70 percent of the total 1970 Register population. Comparison of the 1968 and 1970 combined work activity for this relatively stable group shows that the changes in such activity follow the age gradients implied by the data of Table II.23.

ERÎC.

TABLE II.23 Median Age in 1970 and Distribution of Combined Work Activities of PhD Physicists $^{\it a}$ 

	University		Industry		Government		Research Center	porter
Combined Primary and Secondary Work Activities	Percent Med. (N = 5742) Age.	Med. Age	Percent (N = 2365)	Med. Age	Percent (N = 952)	Med. Age	Percent Med. (N = 1268) Age	Med.
Basic research	2.9	30.5	2.3	35.9	6.9	38.8	5.6	38.5
Basic and applied research	2.5	32.0	19.3	36.5	23.4	37.0	15.3	37.8
Applied research and devel-	0.4	31.3	20.0	37.5	9.4	42.5	8.5	38.6
Opment Possesset and the set of	,	,	,					
Research and reaching	/1.0	36.8	1.3	38.2	3.9	37.7	2.7	37.7
Kesearch and management	3.5	43.5	33.5	41.8	33.2	45.6	20.9	43.1
Management of research	0,1	44.5	2.4	46.2	3.2	5 97	1.4	6 97
and development					! •	•	;	•
Teaching only	3.1	44.2	0		0		c	
Management and teaching	10.9	45.9	0.4	46.5	0.5	5.67	7.0	5.15
Other management (than R&D)	9.0	51.2	0.8	47.5	0.4	49.5	1.0	34.5
Other combinations	5.0	42.5	19.9	43.2	22.8	44.9	11.3	38.4
All work activities		37.9		40.0		41.4		40.0

aThe samples includes only respondents to both the 1968 and 1970 National Register surveys who remained in the same type of employing institution.

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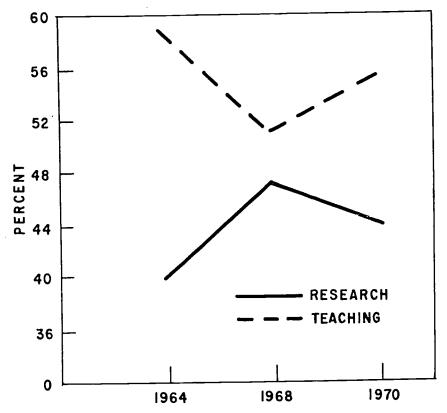


FIGURE II.3 Variations in teaching and research orientation in universities, 1964—1970.

## II.1.3.2 Subfield Mobility

The distribution of young PhD's among subfields closely resembles that of graduate students and university-based physicists in general, as Table II.24 shows. This comparison reflects a pattern of early choice that persists despite the change of status from graduate student to PhD. By age 30, 44 percent of the physics PhD's have left university study or employment and have adapted their interests to new environments. Within this pattern of persistent interests, however, substantial mobility among subfields occurs. The subfield transition matrix in Table II.25 depicts this mobility. The striking feature is that 25 percent of the 971 who remained in the eight major subfields changed from one of these subfields to another.

In addition to mobility among subfields, there also is a substantial flow into other areas, for example, teaching, computer science, and other fields. Seventy percent of the 178 PhD's moving into other areas went into general physics and teaching; the other 30 percent (4.3 percent of the degree mobile cohort) went into other sciences. The imbalance between outward and internal



TABLE II.24 Subfield Distribution of Graduate Students, Young PhD's and University-Based PhD's

Physics Subfield	Graduate Students <sup>a</sup> N = 9000	PhD's <30 N = 1813	University- Based PhD's N = 8208
Condensed-matter	27.3%	27.0%	21.8%
Elementary-particle	15.7	13.8	13.0
Nuclear	14.8	11.4	11.3
Atomic, molecular, and electron	7.4	8.0	7.0
Plasmas and fluids	3.4	6.4	6.4
Optics	2.6	4.8	3.4
Physics in biology	1.3	2.1	1.6
Acoustics	. 1.1	1.4	1.2
Astronomy and astrophysics	4.9	7.9	6.7
Other	21.5	17.0	26.4

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mbox{\scriptsize $\alpha$}}$  Source of these data is American Institute of Physics publication No. R-207.2.

mobility could have been biased by the selection of a sample population consisting only of physicists; however, a longitudinal analysis of the entire PhD population between 1960 and 1966 indicates that this trend is not artificial.

New PhD's who leave the university are more likely to change subfields than those who remain. In our sample which includes 44 percent of all physics and astronomy PhD's granted in 1968 and 1969, the 466 young people who left the university were 36 percent more likely to change subfield than the 614 who remained. Of those who remained, about 250 were probably postdoctorals, a status often used for advanced specialization rather than diversification.

The pattern of youthful interest in physics subfields differs significantly from that of the physics population as a whole. These differences are reflected in a comparison of the age distributions of the various subfields, a comparison that is facilitated by constructing a set of appropriate cohort ratios. Table II.26 presents a comparison of the ratio of the under 30 cohort with the 40-45 cohort.\* The variations from average among the subfields illustrates a distinct pattern of youthful interests compared with mature interests, which is depicted in Figure II.4. The general persistence of this pattern since 1964 also is indicated in Figure II.4, although some changes are evident. Interest in physics in biology has increased, and that in elementary-particle physics, which still attracts the young, clearly is decreasing. Interest



<sup>\*</sup>The analysis is not sensitive to the particular choice of a mature cohort. A rank ordering of the subfields by median age illustrates the trend.

TABLE II.25 Subfield Transition Matrix for Physicists Receiving the PhD between 1968 and  $1970^{a,\,b}$ 

Subfield	Subf	ield i	n 197	0			_Op&	A&R,_		Total
in 1968	AME	EP	NP	P&F	CM	PB	Ac	E&P	Other	1968
AME	44	1	3	5	15	4	14	4	23	113
EP	0	109	10	2	7	0	3	10	26	167
NP	5	5	107	4	11	2	2	6	23	165
P&F	2	1	0	52	6	0	5	3	10	79
CM	11	2	6	10	272	6	34	4	65	410
PB	1	0	3	0	1	12.	2	0	3	22
Op&Ac	6	0	0	0	7	0	29	1	9	52
A&R,E&P	2	1	2	2	4	0	8	108	19	143
Other	ī	4	2	1	10	2	8	4	70	102
Total 1970	72	123	133	76	333	26	102	140	248	1251 <sup>a</sup>

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table II.9, foctnote h.

in astronomy and earth and planetary physics has increased considerably, and that in plasmas and fluids has diminished. The overall regularity and persistence of the interest profile suggests that the emphases of the previous decade do not persist in the subfield age distribution; subfield mobility effectively dissipates fluctuations in fashion.

The profile of youthful interest depicted in Figure II.4 is similar to the profile of foreign involvement in U.S. physics discussed in Chapter 8 of *Physics in Perspective*, Volume 1 and shown there in Figures 8.9 and 8.10. The concentration of foreign-born physicists varies with subfield in the same way as the concentration of young physicists and the median age of the foreign group is inversely correlated with concentration; that is to say, subfields that attract many foreign physicists also attract principally young foreign physicists.

A significant feature of the data of Table II.26 is that the relative concentration of young PhD's is not correlated with differential subfield growth. Although this finding may reflect to some extent limitations on the available options in graduate education, it is clear that the rapid growth of astrophysics and relativity, earth and planetary physics, and optics results from intellectual mobility at all ages. Optics provides a representative

example.

bAge characteristics of the sample: lower quartile 28.6; median 30.2; upper quartile 32.9. Mobility with regard to type of employing institution: mobile 37 percent; static, academic 49 percent; static, nonacademic 14 percent.

 $<sup>^{</sup>c}$ There were 604 additional respondents whose responses on subfields were incomplete.

TABLE II.26 Age Characteristics of PhD Physicists by Subfield, 1964 and  $1970^{a}$ 

	1970 Pa	1970 Population		į		1964 Pot	.964 Population		
Subfield	Median	£	6,		Ratio	Median		Ratio	Growth
77777000	uge	TOLAL	575	40-44	44-04/67\	Age	Total	<30/41-45	Total 70/Total 64
PB	37.2	274	39	23	1, 39	40.6	11	0 40	2 46
EP	34.2	1,407	250	18,	1,35	34.1	889	2, 70	1 50
Astron	35.0	633	106	30	1.32	37.4	392	1.45	1.77
A&R	34.7	250	40	; <del>ग</del>	F-1	34.7	633	1 72	3 07
AME	35.3	1,065	145	148	1.62	36.5	649	1.20	1.6.5 1.6.5
£	36.4	4,152	489	999	0.74	36.7	2707	1 67	1 5.6
E&P	37.4	712	85	119	0.73	38.1	309	78	2 2 2
NP	37.8	1,782	206	315	0.65	37 3	1277	2.0	07.5
e,	36.0	567	63	96	0.66	?	,,,,,	00	T. 40
(tu	38.1	534	51	95	0.56	36.7	902	1.26	1.56
ďO	38.7	1,077	98	159	0.54	40.3	477	0.625	2.26
Ac	40.1	324	56	49	0,53	42.2	223	0.460	1 .55
A11	37.4	12,877	1589	1971	0.806	38.2	7803	21.0	1.40
.subfield	ls					1		7.17	T.03

 $^{\mathcal{Q}}$ Subfield abbreviations are those indicated in Table II.9, footnote b.

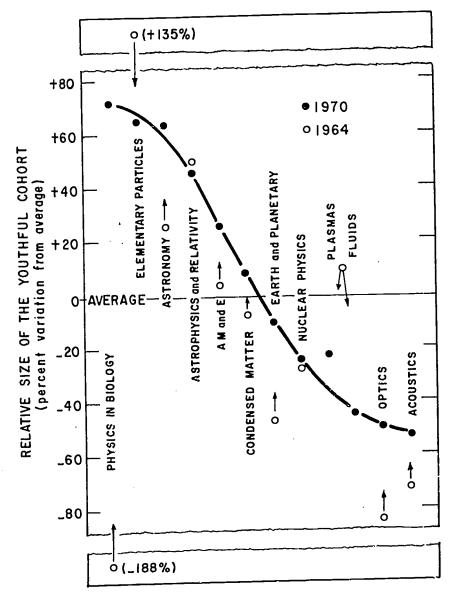


FIGURE 11.4 Comparison of youthful and mature interest in various subfields of physics— the size of the 30 cohort compared with the 40-45-year-old cohort.

Between 1964 and 1970 approximately 700 PhD's went into optics. (The increase of 600 shown by Register data is about 85 percent of the total.) In this same interval the Doctorate Records File shows 80 new PhD's in optics. To have met the actual growth rate with physics graduate students (assuming 100 percent retention of new doctorates in the subfield) would have required an 875 percent expansion of university facilities as well as a promotional campaign to reverse what is apparently a rather well-established motivational pattern. There is no evidence to suggest that optics received any special external stimulation, such as increased federal support during this period of growth.

Table II.27 shows changes in optics manpower between 1968 and 1970. The major interchanges with optics were with atomic, molecular, and electron physics and condensed matter, subfields with which considerable overlap might be expected. However, a nontrivial interchange with all subfields is evident. Among established PhD's only about 300 remained identified with optics in both years; 471 entered from other subfields and another 303 left. The static component in the subfield is relatively small compared with the mobile population and the net change in optics is the difference between two large numbers. All ages participated; the median age of inward mobile components correlates roughly with the median age of the subfield of origin. An examination of simultaneous changes in type of employing institution among optics PhD's between 1968 and 1970 provides no evidence that external circumstances had any particular effect on manpower interchanges in the subfield. Of the 289 established PhD's who worked continuously in optics, 10 percent changed type of employing institution; of the 471 PhD's who entered the subfield, 13 percent changed type of employing institution. Taken together, 11.6 percent of the 1970 optics manpower had made a change in type of employing institution since 1968, the same percentage as for the overall physics population. The movement into optics, then, is largely an in situ process.

The pattern of subfield interchanges for all PhD's in the 1970 Register for whom adequate responses were also available in 1968 appears in Table II.28. The sample amounts to 80 percent of the PhD's in the 1970 Register, an estimated 65 percent of the total U.S. physics PhD population. On the basis of this classification scheme (an 11 by 11 matrix), some 34 percent of the physics PhD's changed the subfield in which they were working between 1968 and 1970. Some subfields had a higher proportion of mobile PhD's than others, as Table II.29 shows. This Table ranks the subfields according to the inward mobile fraction of the 1970 totals. In some instances, the apparent variation results from the diversity of specialties that comprise a given subfield. In condensed matter, for example, a major change in scientific interest from superconductivity to high-pressure physics would not show in the matrix of Table II.28. In contrast, elementary-particle physics, another subfield of low mobility, is defined by only six specialtieshadrons, leptons, photons, high-energy cosmic rays, quantum field theory, and other. This brief list adequately describes the interests of 84 percent of the 1970 elementary-particle physics population. The actual magnitude of the mobility inferred from such



TABLE II.27 Changes in Optics Manpower $^{\alpha}$  between 1968 and 1970

Subfield	New PhD's	,	Doctorate	s before 1	968	
in $1968_b$ or $1970^b$	Entrants	Leavers	Entrants	Med. Age	Leavers	Med. Age
Ор	19		298	41.6		
AME	14	6	92	38.7	60	43.0
EP	2	0	10	34.0	4	35.5
NP	2	0	26	45.2	5	51.5
P&F	4	0	27	37.5	5	36.2
CM	25	5	211	41.3	95	39.2
E&P	4	0	11	41.5	19	39.9
PB	1	0	8	47.5	6	48.5
Ac	0	0	7	41.5	2	36.5
Astron	0	1	11	33.5	4	41.5
Gen. phys. & teach.	7	4	47	41.0	65	47.5
Other sciences	1	1	21	44.0	38	47.3
1970 total	79		769	40.9		
Other subfields:						
Entrants	60		471		303	
Leavers		17			303	
1968 total		36			601	42.4

 $<sup>^{</sup>lpha}$ Based on respondents to both the 1968 and 1970 National Register surveys. Such respondents amount to 64 percent of new PhD's and about 65 percent of all established PhD's.

a transition matrix depends, of course, on the dimensionality of the matrix; the finer the distinctions, the greater the numerical magnitude of the mobility.

Table II.30 presents a comparison of established PhD's with the degree mobile cohort and shows that established PhD's are about as likely to change subfields as are new PhD's. More scientists move away from the discipline-intensive physics subfields than enter; the flow to other sciences amounts to 3 percent for established PhD's compared with 4 percent in the young cohort.\* The higher



 $<sup>^</sup>b$ Subfield abbreviations used are those indicated in Table II.9, footnote  $^b$ .

<sup>\*</sup>A 10 percent flow of new physics and astronomy PhD's to other fields is reported by the Office of Scientific Personnel in 1969 (OSP-MS-3, April 1970). The difference results from different definitions. We have included some chemistry, earth sciences, and biosciences in physics subfields.

TABLE II.28 Transition Matrix between 1968 and 1970 by Subfield of Employment for all 1970  $PhD's^{ct}$ 

<b></b>	. +														*****
1968	AAR	AME	Еľ	NP.	F	P		см		PB	•	Ac	An- tron	М1нс	1968 Total
AAR		1 41.5							8 32,5				30.0	11 12.0	121 36.2
AME	2 15.5	440 36.9	9 19.0	16 33, 2	17 18.4	11) 14.5	47 37.6	107	19 39.2	9 13,5	106 37.8	1 31.5	14 35.2	155 38.3	925 37.0
EP	11 35.0	15 35.5	895 34.4	65 35.9	7 34.0	3 33.5	10 33.8	25 31.0	28 33.0	2 36.5	12 33.5	4 32.5	3 29,5	140 34.0	1210 34.3
NP	6 35 . 5	38 33.8	54 41.8	1156 38.7	12 37.5	H 31.5	20 34,5	89 39.5	23 35.5	16 36.1	28 43.5	5	4 41.5	235 39.3	1674 38.7
ř	1 55.5	17 41.0	2 31.5	6 37.5	202 40.9	13 33, 5	215 40.5	45 18. 7	12 34.5	2 37.5	10 36.5	4 34.5	1 29.5	52 41.2	367 39. 3
Р	1 35.5	12 37.8	5 41.0	6 43.5	26 33.9	130 37.2	356 36.8	14 36.5	11 41.5	1 31.5	21 35.5	1 27.5	1 31.5	29 39.9	458 37.2
PSF	2 45, 5	29 14. 5	7 37.5	12 40.5	228 19.9	343 36,9	571 37.9	59 37.9	23 36.2	3 33.5	31 35.5	5 33.5	2 30.5	81 40.4	825 38.1
CM CM	2 51.5	135 37.0	13 36.7	48 42,5	88 36. 3	13 35.5	101 36.2	2634 37.1	26 18.5	25 36.2	236 39.8	38 35.4	3 47.5	478 39.9	3759 37.5
EAP	6 42.5	9 39. 5	15 17.7	2 32.5	4 43.5	3 33.5	7 35.5	17 40.0	323 38.5	1 35.5	15 39.0	2 55.5	37 37.7	52 40.0	486 38.6
PB		3 51.5		22 38.5	4 35.5		4 35.5	6 45.5		112 39.0	9 47.0	6 37.5	1 41.5	17 37.5	190 39.1
Ор		66 40.0	4 35.5	5 51.5	2 36.5	3 36.0	5 36.2	100 38.7	19 39.9	6 48.5	317 41.1	2 36.5	5 36.0	108 46.7	637 41.6
Λο		1 43.5		2 51.5	6 37.5	1 35.5	7 35.5	24 40.5	2 45.5	9 38.0	7 41.5	171 43.6		26 46.5	249 43.0
Antron	75 33. 7	12 40.5	7 37.5	2 43.5	2 38.5	2 33.5	4 34.5	6	55 35.4	3 47.5	11	1 31.5	391 36.6	91 42.1	658 36.1
Misc	9 39.0	34 42.5	31 34.8	59 40.0	51 42.0	10 46.5	61 42.7	179 39.4	55 44.7	15 47.5	76 41.5	22 43.8	17 43.5	1327	1885 43.5
Total 1970	195	783	1064	t 390	441	396	A 17	1248	581	201	RAR	257	484	2721	12609
Age <sup>F</sup>	31.2 35.4 40.7	32.1 37.4 44.7	31.3 34.9 40.8	33.0 38.7 45.3	33.9 39.1 45.9	32.5 36.6 42.6	33.2 37.8 44.3	32.3 37.2 43.4	38.3	33.0 38.6 47.7	33.7 39.7 47.3	34.5 40.8 50.4	31.3 36.6 44.2	34.6 42.3 49.8	32.8 38.3 45.6

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$ Subfield abbreviations used are those identified in Table 11.9, footnote b.

subfield mobility of new PhD's is associated with the major upheaval that takes place between graduate school and postdoctoral employment.

Established PhD's change jobs from time to time, and such changes afford opportunities to undertake new scientific interests. Between 1968 and 1970, 11.9 percent of the established PhD's changed type of employing institution; Table II.31 compares the concurrent changing of subfields of the mobile physicists with interchanges of those who remained in the same type of employment. Clearly, those who change jobs are 20 percent more likely to change subfields than are those who do not. However, a substantial amount of subfield changes occur within one type of employment. Those who move into and leave universities—the major component of employment—change group—may do, so as a result of the pursuit of a certain type of research, or they may redirect their interests to be compatible with a more satisfactory employment circumstance. Employment mobility produces, on the whole, no more than a 20 per-



Lower quartile, median, and upper quartile.

TABLE II.29 Subfield Mobility between 1968 and 1970, Ranked According to the Inward Mobile Fraction of the 1970 Total

Physics Subfield	Inward Mobile as a Fraction of 1970 Total (%)
Elementary-particle	15.9
Nuclear	17.8
Condensed-matter	18.9
Astronomy	19.8
Plasmas and fluids	31.8
Acoustics	33.5
Atomic, molecular, and electron	43.8
Physics in biology	44.3
Earth and planetary	44.4
Astrophysics and relativity	57.9
Optics	62.6
Miscellaneous	51.2

TABLE II.30 Subfield Mobility, 1968 to 1970

PhD's	Internal Mobility among Eight Major Subfield Groupings <sup>a</sup>	Outgoing $^b$	${\tt Incoming}^b$
New Established	25% 21%	14.2%	2.5%

 $a_{\text{Percentage of the 8}} \times 8$  group.

TABLE II.31 Subfield Mobility of Established PhD's, 1968 to 1970

Type of Employing Institution	Percent	Internal Mobility among Eight Sub- field Groupings	Out- going	In- coming	Med. Age	
Mobile Static	11.8% 88.2%	25.8% 20.1%	12.2%	5.0% 4.8%	35.9 39.8	

cent enhancement of subfield mobility. The employer-mobile population is distinctly younger than the employer-static part of the established PhD population, but, as age characteristics of mobility

 $b_{\mbox{Percentage}}$  of the total population.

will show, this finding suggests, if anything, an even greater enhancement of subfield mobility due to simultaneous employment mobility.

To examine the age dependence of subfield mobility, we examined data on the employer-static, established PhD's. The results appear in Table II.32. The myth of youthful intellectual mobility was unsubstantiated. If anything, it appears that the likelihood of diversification of scientific interest is correlated with professional maturation. This result was checked against Register data on an earlier interval, 1960-66. The results are shown in Table II.33. The upward trend displayed by the youngest cohort probably is a consequence of degree mobility; about 25 percent of that cohort received the PhD shortly after the survey in 1960. The pattern of subfield interchanges between 1960 and 1962 is generally comparable with that between 1968 and 1970. Although variation of mobility patterns with age is almost nonexistent in both sets of data, there were some differences in overall mobility. At the beginning of the decade there were fewer interchanges among major subfields than at the end of the decade. A balanced interchange between the major subfields and general physics and other sciences, which prevailed in the earlier period, became a discernible outflow by 1970. The actual magnitude of these changes is not large, but the trends are clear.

In regard to mobility by subfield, the data were generally similar for the two intervals. Those subfields broadly related to others are characterized by high mobility at both times; the most striking changes occurred in optics and physics in biology, two subfields of intense current interest.

An examination of the dependence of subfield mobility on type of employing institution suggests that changes with time are related to stresses on the physics community. These data appear in Table II.34. Clearly, the circumstances at the end of the 1960's have increased the subfield mobility of industrial physicists and decreased that of university physicists. The differences are not an artifact of a restricted definition of subfields, as the second column of Table II.34 shows. There mobility is estimated on the basis of an expanded matrix that takes into account teaching, general physics, and other sciences. Again data on an earlier period should be examined. In 1960-62 and 1964-1966 subfield mobility was essentially the same in all types of employing institutions; within the eight major subfields, 15 percent from 1960 to 1962, and for this same population of 4415 PhD's, 13 percent, from 1964 to 1966. The recent increase in subfield mobility among nonacademic physicists is asociated with the reordering of research priorities. deed, the high mobility within the industrial group suggests a veritable scrambling about for new directions together with the shift in emphasis away from basic research. In the universities, on the other hand, the erosion of research budgets has reduced the number of new projects that can be undertaken.

At any point in his career a physicist carries with him varying degrees of competence in a variety of subfields. This catalogue of subfield competence represents the accumulated experience of



TABLE II.32 Subfield Mobility of Employer Static Established PhD's by Age, 1968 to 1970

Cohort Age in 1970	Internal Mobility among Eight Subfields (%)	Outgoing (%)	Incoming (%)
27- 31	19.2	9.9	3.0
32-36	19.2	8.8	3.9
37-41	20.8	9.5	4.3
42-46	21.8	10.4	4.6
47 51	25.3	14.5	5.7
52 <b>-</b> 61	25.2	13.6	5.3
Total (N = 10,01	20.7 3)	10.7	4.6

TABLE II.33 Subfield Mobility of Established Fab's, 1960—1962, 1964—1966

Cohort Based on	N	1960—1962	1964—1966
Year of PhD		(10 × 10) Mobile <sup>a</sup>	(10 × 10) Mobile <sup>a</sup>
1956—1960	1366	27.1%	40.5%
1950—1955	1596	25.5%	36.7%
1949	1453	27.2%	39.4%
TOTAL	4415	•	_

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm Z}{\rm Based}$  on a 10  $\times$  10 matrix that includes eight major subfield groupings plus teaching and other sciences.

previous mobility as well as a developing stor of knowledge that can nurture new directions of scientific enquity. An analysis of research emphasis and scientific competence of a population provides a measure of the shared interests of that population at a particular time. The distribution of subfield competence that resulted from our analysis had essentially the same features as that of subfield mobility.

The distribution of first competence for PhD's working in various subfields in 1970 is shown in Table II.35. Again the general dispersion of subfield proficiency is evident. The breadth of an individual's competence can be further explored by looking at data on second, third, and fourth competences. A typical pattern of external compared to internal competences emerges, as Figure II.5 shows. For about one fifth of the PhD's first competence was outside the subfield of employment. For lower levels of competence



TABLE II.34 Subfield Mobility of Established PhD's by Type of Employing Institution, 1968 to 1970

Institution	Internal Mobility (8 × 8) (%)	Total Mobilit (16 × 16) (%)		
University	15	31		
Industry	29	42		
Government	22	35		
Research centers	22	32		
TOTAL	20	35		

lphaBased on eight major subfield groupings; see Table II.29.

the percentage was, of course, higher. The fraction of competence outside subfield of employment provides a measure of the relatedness of subfields comparable with that used in the analysis of mobility, in which internally mobile group was compared with the total in the subfield. The average external competence for the physics population was 47 percent. Some subfields were characterized by a higher percentage of external competence than others. Based on Table II.35 and like tables for successive levels of competence, a rank ordering of subfields was developed (see Table II.36). The sequence is much like that obtained for inward mobility (Table II.29). Changes in first competence form a pattern like that of subfield mobility, but the magnitude of intellectual diffusion at the level of first competence is considerably greater than it is at the level of actual scientific employment.

Thus, we can look at three demographic measures of the diffusion of knowledge in physics: subfield mobility, external competence, and first competence mobility. Taken together these measures form a consistent pattern, as shown in Figure II.6. The data in the figure can be read from left to right as follows: In, for example, plasma physics and physics of fluids, we see that inward subfield mobility accounts for 32 percent of the 1970 population (see Table II.29); concurrently, the first subfield of competence has changed for about 45 percent of the subfield; finally, individuals working in this subfield typically report about 56 percent of their competence in other subfields (see Table II.36). Although the numerical scale of these measures depends on the way in which we define a subfield, comparisons are possible within this set. Generally, the greatest inertia, or the most stable intellectual relationship, is associated with a physicist's particular subfield of research emphasis. Surrounding this subfield of research interest is a



 $<sup>^</sup>b$ In the 16 × 16 matrix, optics, acoustics, astrophysics and relativity, earth and planetary physics, and astronomy are separated and the other category is subdivided into general physics, teaching, computer science, other science, and other.

TABLE II,35 Subfield of First Competence Compared with Subfield of Employment for All 1970  ${ t PhD^{1}s}^{2}$ 

E&P PB Op	7	13	7	34 15 32	m	1	à	43	7	147	10	7	1	18	676 263 1022
ર	7	102	31	61	99	11	77	3344	5	5	181	29	2	159	3964
P&F	2	18	. 5	20	805	977	854	8	5	0	13	5	2	51	1045
Ъ	1	7	٣	9	17	435	452	∞	-	0	9	0	0	26	502
۲٦	1	11	2	14	391	11	402	72	7	0	7	S	2	25	543
NP	1	21	80	1467	2	5	7	77		6	12	2	0	72	1692
EP	2	23	1187	63	0	7	7	13	7	0	2	0	1	45	1334
AME	1	711	18	37	6	9	15	91			106	7	2	35	1016
A&R	700	1	7	5	٦	0	-	7	7	0	2	-	14	9	243
Subfield of First Competence	A&R	AME	EP	NP	[z.	ρ.	PAF	<u> </u>	FAP	P.B.	. e	u €	Astron	Misc	Total 1970

 $^{a}$ Subfield abbreviations used are those identified in Table II.9, footnote  $\dot{b}$ .

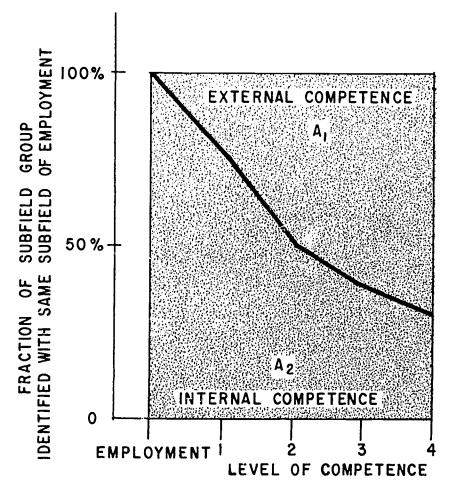


FIGURE II.5 Competence in physics subfields. For those employed in a given subfield, additional competence in that subfield is proportional to  $A_2$ , and competence in other subfields is proportional to  $A_1$ . The example above is the average for PhD physicists.

TABLE II.36 External Competence of PhD's by Subfield, 1970

Physics Subfield	External Competence (%)
Condensed-matter	27
Elementary-particle	40
Nuclear	43
Earth and planetary	51
Plasmas and fluids	56
Atomic, molecular, and electron	57 ·
Astrophysics and relativity	60
Acoustics	62
Optics	65
Physics in biology	70
Average	47

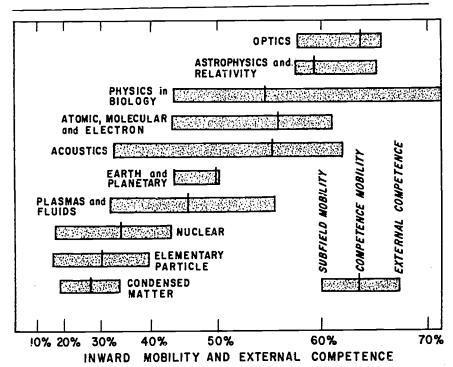


FIGURE II.6 The comparison of inward mobility of employment subfield, subfield of first competence, and the degree of external competence for physics. The scale is linear in the ratio of external to internal relatedness.

radius of competence in other subfields. Changes in the catalogue of competence are both extensive and frequent compared with changes in research activity. If the pattern of demographic diffusion (Figure II.6) is compared with the pattern of extrinsic versus intrinsic relationships among subfields developed on the basis of scientific criteria (see *Physics in Perspective*, Volume 1, Chapter 5), a remarkable unity of scientific judgment and scientific behavior is evident.

## II.1.3.3 Non-PhD Physicists

More than half (55 percent) the non-PhD physicists work in industry and government in jobs related to applied research and development. Thirty percent are engaged in teaching, with the majority of these teachers employed by high schools and two-year colleges. Non-PhD physicists are qualified for inclusion in the National Register by a bachelor's degree or its equivalent and a minimum of two years' professional experience in physics. Sixty percent of the non-PhD group has a master's degree, and 74 percent belong to professional societies, usually one of those represented by the AIP. Thus, the non-PhD's in the National Register population are closely identified with physics through education, experience, and membership in professional associations, and this identification is made by the AIP on an individual basis. We shall examine the relationship of this population to physics-related employment and consider its principal demographic characteristics.

II.1.3.3.1 The Physics Labor Force and the Non-PhD Physicist
Of a total of about 1.7 million scientists and engineers in the
United States, approximately one third is scientists and two thirds
are engineers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) conducts an
ongoing series of employer surveys of this population. A stratified sample of employers is drawn from a universe of 500,000
establishments employing 33 million workers. What a physicist is,
as distinct from a chemist, metallurgist, geoscientist, or other
physical scientist, is the decision of the responding employer,
who is instructed to count only those "who are actually engaged in
scientific work at a level which requires a knowledge of the physical sciences equivalent to that acquired through completion of a
four-year college course with a major in one of the physical science fields, regardless of whether they hold a college degree."

The employment distribution by BLS occupational sector of the physicists in the BLS survey appears in Table II.37. Based on the assumption that the PhD's in the Register physics population are likely to be among those employed in physics, the second column of Table II.37 distributes the estimated total PhD physicists according to BLS categories. The estimated employment of non-PhD physicists, the third column in this table, results from the difference between BLS population and Register PhD physics population.\*



<sup>\*</sup>Since estimates of the PhD population are based on individual responses from 83 percent of the estimated physics PhD universe, the uncertainties in this part of the calculation are regarded as negligible.

TABLE II.37 Estimated Total Physics Labor Force, 1970

BLS Occupational	BLS Phy	sicists <sup>a</sup>	PhD's <sup>b</sup>		Estimat equival	ed BA (or ent)Non-PhD's
Sector		Percent	Number	Percent		Percent
University Industry	21,200	44 42	11,800	59 32	9,400 13,600	34 48
Government	6,800	14	1,800	9	5,000	18
TOTAL	48,000		20,000		28,000	

 $a_{
m The}$  1970 total of 48,000 is apportioned by occupational sector according to the distribution of the 1968 total of 46,000 (BLS data).

The distribution of non-PhD professional physicists in the 1970 National Register by BLS occupational sectors is shown in greater detail in Table II.38. Clearly, the Register population in a given year represents about half of the universe of non-PhD physics employment, and the representation by sector is entirely consistent with that universe. The professional non-PhD population represented by the 19,700 Register respondents in 1970 is difficult to estimate because of migration to and from this group. Some indication of its size can be made by means of a calculation that yields a correct answer when applied to PhD Register respondents. There were 3677 qualified respondents in 1968, having a median age of 34.5 years, who did not respond again in 1970. If we assume an equal number were not heard from in either 1968 or 1970, the nonrespondent component of the Register-qualified population is about 7400, of whom a few would be students, about 600 would be high school teachers, and the remaining 6800 would be in the work force. The total number of Register qualified non-PhD's in the work force is, thus, about 20,200, or 72.5 percent of the BLS total. We estimate, then, that professionally qualified—on the basis of education, experience, and professional self-identification—non-PhD physicists amount to about 72 percent of the BLS-employer estimated non-PhD physics work force. Responses to the combined 1968 and 1970 Register surveys amount to 83 percent of the qualified work force; 1970 respondents alone amount to 67 percent of those who are qualified. In addition, the respondents include representative populations of high school teachers as well as advanced graduate students and others who will be entering the work force.

The distribution of non-PhD physicists according to the type of employing institution used in previous tables based on Register data is shown in Table II.39, with PhD's included for comparison. Not surprisingly, non-PhD's are much less likely to hold faculty positions in universities than are PhD's; however, junior college

 $<sup>^</sup>b\mathrm{The}$  distribution of the 20,000 estimated PhD's is based on the 16,600 PhD respondents to the 1970 National Register.

 $<sup>^</sup>c$ Difference between BLS numbers and numbers of Register PhD's.

TABLE II.38 Labor Force Distribution of Non-PhD Respondents to the 1970 National Register by BLS Occupational Categories

BLS Occupational Sector	Non-PhD Number	's .	Percent
University and College	4,600		34
University: Faculty FTE student employees <sup>a</sup> Junior college University operated federal research centers		2,000 1,300 800 500	
Industry	6,300		47
Industry Industrially operated federal research centers		5,350 400	
Other		550	
Government	2,500		
Subtotal (BLS occupations)	13,400		
Other Occupations	6,300		
Students (not included above) High school teachers Military Unknown employer		2,100 1,600 600 2,000	
Total, 1970 National Register	19,700		

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathcal{A}}$ The full-time equivalence (FTE) of 2600 university teaching and research assistants on the 1970 Register is estimated at 50 percent on the basis of NSF data. The NSF (keport NSF 70-16) gives the FTE of 84,391 graduate students in part-time employment as 40,443.

teaching is done largely by non-PhD's. An extensive study of junior college teachers in 1967 (NSF 69-3) shows that about half of those teaching physics did so full time. There were 496 full-time physics junior college teachers then, and 5 percent of the physics courses were taught by PhD's. In the 1970 Register sample, there were 845 physicists in junior colleges, 7 percent of whom were PhD's. The growth implied is consistent with overall physical science faculty growth in these institutions, but the NSF and Register populations are not strictly comparable. It is evident, however, that the rapid growth of two-year colleges has not entailed



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an accelerated recruirment of PhD's during the 1:67-1970 interval. To an even greater except, the teaching of physics in high schools is done by non-PhD's.

Industry and the rederal government provide employment for 55 percent of the non-PhD's compared with 38.5 percent for PhD's. Research centers employ only 6 percent of the non-PhD's compared with 14 percent of the PhD's. These differences are consistent with the relatively greater emphasis on applied research and development in the employment of non-FaD's.

TABLE II.39 Employing Institutions of Non-PhD's and PhD's, 1970

	Non-Phi	o's			PhD's		
Employer	Number		Perce	nt	Number	Perce	nt
University (faculty) Industry Government Research center	1,990 5,346 2,545 877	-	12.9 37.2 17.8 6.1		5,723 3,805 1,468 1,912	41.6 27.7 10.8 13.9	
Other	3,588		24.3		840	6.1	
Secondary school Junior college		1,628 791		16.1	31 54		0.6
Military Other		650 533		8.2	113 642		5.5
$\mathtt{SUBTOTAL}^{lpha}$	14,346				13,748		
University (non- faculty)	3,319				2,500		
Unknown	2,026				383		
TOTAL	19,705				16,631		
Median age	32.9				37.4		

 $<sup>\</sup>alpha_{\rm The\ non-PhD}$  sample represents an estimated 67 percent of the universe of Register qualified full-time professionals; the PhD sample is approximately 85 percent of the PhD universe.

III.1.3.3.2 Educational Mobility of Non-PhD Physicists Some 60 percent of the non-PhD physicists hold a master's degree. Between 1968 and 1970, departmental surveys indicated that there were about 8000 graduate students in the third year of training or beyond. This pool of qualified non-PhD physicists is one fifth the size of the nonstudent professional work force, estimated at 20,000 non-PhD's and 20,000 PhD's. Most of these students are employed, 60 percent of them part time and 19 percent full time, usually in universities. Graduate students thus represent the supply of potential professional physicists and their employment demonstrates a demand for non-PhD physicists, especially in universities.

The mobility of physicists in regard to student status between 1968 and 1970 is shown in Table II.40. By 1970, 77 percent of the

TABLE II.40 Educational Mobility of Qualified Non-PhD Physicists between 1968 and 1970

Status	Status in Student	1970	Nonstudent		
in 1968		Part Time	~	New PhD	1968 Total
Student					
Full time Part time	899 81	73 2 <b>2</b> 6	1,055 1,277	1,624 226	3,651 1,807
Subtotal		1,279		-,	
Nons tudent					
Non-PhD	149	169	8,738	-	9,056
Subtotal		318 (4%	•		9,056
1970 total	1,129	486	11,070	1,847	14,514
Median age	28.3	31.6	36.8	29.9	

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{cl}}$  In 1968 there were 7800 graduate students beyond the second year of training.

1968 advanced graduate students had entered the nonstudent work force, 34 percent as new PhD's and 43 percent generally as terminal non-PhD professionals; 23 percent continued their training. Return to graduate study was reported by 4 percent of the regularly employed non-PhD population.

II.1.3.3.3 Subfield Distribution of Non-PhD's The subfield of employment of nonstudent non-PhD's and advanced graduate students appears in Table II.41. To a large extent the subfield distribution of non-PhD employment is negatively correlated with the employment of young PhD's shown in Table II.26 and Figure II.4. However, a positive correlation exists between the subfield employment of non-PhD's and mature PhD's. The subfield interest profile of graduate students corresponds to that of PhD university faculty, shown in Table II.24, and is negatively correlated with non-PhD employment. The most striking mismatches between graduate training and non-PhD employment occur in optics, acoustics, and earth and planetary physics. These three subfields, which employ a greater than everage number of non-PhD's, are those least represented in the ratio of student emphasis to non-PhD employment. Whether graduate education is an adequate source of non-PhD physicists, the profile of specialized training in graduate schools does not correspond to the profile of specialties characteristic of the employment of non-PhD's.



 $<sup>^{</sup>h}\mathrm{The}$  Doctorate Records File counts 2874 new PhD's in academic years 1967-1968 and 1968-1969.

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TABLE II.41 Subfield Distribution of Non-PhD Physicists—Students and Nonstudents—1970

Physics Subfield	Students	Nonstudents
Astrophysics and relativity	80	79
Elementary-particle	437	413
Nuclear	443	1,168
Atomic, molecular, and electron	286	576
Plasmas and fluids	195	503
Condensed-matter	1,005	2,573
Earth and planetary	157	567
Physics in biology	53	135
Optics	233	1,936
Acoustics	67	704
Astronomy _	145	344
Misceilaneous <sup>a</sup>	857	6,749
TOTAL	3,958	15,747

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ Other physics, 27 percent; teaching, 46 percent; other sciences, 27 percent.

As is true of PhD's, subfield mobility among non-PhD's provides the means of adjusting manpower supply to the prevailing patterns of use. Of 5759 non-PhD's in eight major subfields in 1968 and 1970, 73 percent remained in the same subfield throughout the two-year interval, a percentage equivalent to that for PhD's.

A measure of subfield mobility among relatively established non-PhD's can be derived by using the population who did not change types of employing institution between 1968 and 1970; for this group the mobility among major subfields was 23 percent, compared with 20 percent for established PhD's. One difference between non-PhD's and PhD's is that the simultaneous subfield mobility of employer mobile individuals is considerable enhanced-38 percent of non-PhD's compared with 23 percent of PhD's changed type of employment, and 26 percent of non-PhD's compared with 20 percent of PhD's changed subfield also. Non-PhD's apparently are somewhat more likely to adjust subfield emphasis to suit new employment than are PhD's. An important similarity between non-PhD's and PhD's is that subfield mobility shows a negligible dependence on age. In a two-year period, changes in subfield among the eight major ones comprising physics by approximately one fourth of the physics population seems to be characteristic of professional physicists, regardless of age or degree status.

Since industry and government are the major employers of non-PhD's, we examined the subfield distribution of non-PhD's thus employed. As shown in Figure II.7, employment outside the discipline-specific subfields amounts to approximately 30 percent for those in both types of employing institutions. This miscellaneous category,

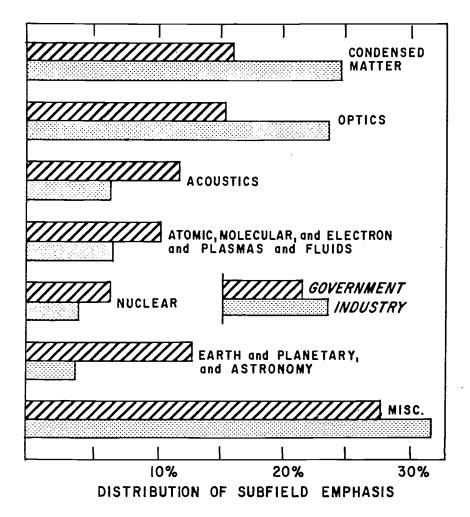


FIGURE II.7 Subfields of non-PhD physicists in industrial and government employment.

for both industry and government, can be subdivided into general physics (48 percent), computer science and mathematics (30 percent), and other sciences (22 percent). Optics and condensed matter together provide about 50 percent and 30 percent of the non-PhD employment in industry and government, respectively. The percentages for PhD's thus employed were 60 percent and 30 percent. Other than indensed matter and optics, industrial and government employment arails about the same mix of acoustics; atomic, molecular, and



electron physics; plasma physics and physics of fluids; and nuclear physics, although the proportion engaged in these subfields is slightly greater among government-employed non-PhD's. Earth and planetary physics, particularly atmospheric physics, and astronomy are the subfields of a greater number of non-PhD's in government than in industry.

II.1.3.3.4 Work Activities of Non-PhD Physicists Like their PhD counterparts, the major work activities of non-PhD professional physicists are research and development. The difference is that for PhD's research is the primary activity; for non-PhD's development is primary. Figure II.8 compares work activities of PhD's and non-PhD's in industry. The same differences prevail in all types of employing institutions, as Table II.42 shows. Clearly, the development work done by professional physicists is performed largely by non-PhD's. In regard to primary work activity alone, about 7 percent of the total professional work force is engaged in development and 85 percent of these are non-PhD's. Because development is a major activity of private industry, which is the principal employer of non-PhD physicists, we examined the development activities of physicists in industry in greater detail in Table II.43. Development-related work activity constitutes 37 percent of industrial employment. For about half of those involved in development, it is a secondary activity, particularly for PhD's, and it is more likely to be secondary to basic and applied research for PhD's than for non-PhD's. If full-time involvement in primary and secondary development activity is assumed to be equal, 78 percent of the industrially employed physicists in development are

Consistent with their major role in development, non-PhD's represent a correspondingly large fraction of the physics population in industry that is engaged in activities other than research and development. About 9 percent of the physicists in industry are employed in activities other than research and development; of these 84 percent are non-PhD's (see Table II.44). Just as development was frequently combined with research, other activities are combined with research and development by another 24 percent of the physicists in industry, 72 percent of whom are non-PhD's. It is clear from Table II.44 that management responsibilities are highly correlated with non-research-and-development employment of physicists.

The use of qualified non-PhD physicists by industry has a certain relevance to projected industrial PhD use. To the extent that research and development level or decline is a fraction of the gross national product, increased employment of PhD physicists in other activities than these by industry is inevitable. The aggregate experience of professionaly qualified non-PhD physicists provides a model for the kinds of changes that are likely to take place in PhD use patterns. The adjustments appear to be essentially continuous, starting with increased involvement in non-research-and-development activities in conjunction with research and development, and, if the changes follow pre-existent motivational patterns, one can expect an increased emphasis on the management role of phycicists, already a substantial feature of professional employment.



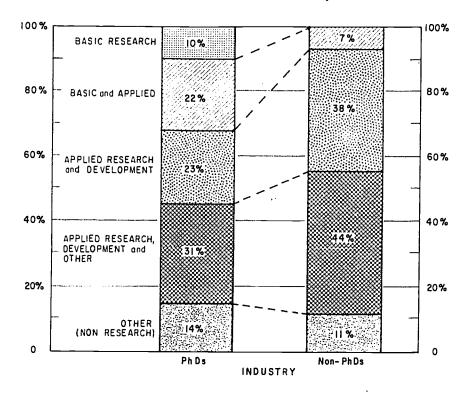


FIGURE II.8 The comparison of work activity priorities of non-PhD and PhD physicists in industry. (See caption to Figure II.1 for exact definitions of groupings.)

The NSF predicts a substantial demand in the next decade for non-academic, non-research-and-development PhD physicists, a demand that is not reflected in current functional distributions or in the trends in these distributions. The NSF estimates that 42 percent of the nonacademic employment of new PhD's will be in activities other than research and development. If this projection is based on a demand rather than an absorption process, increasing numbers of PhD's could be expected to assume a status-consistent modification of the traditional roles of non-PhD physicists. Thus non-PhD professionals could be providing a certain *de facto* leadership for the physics community and, possibly, leadership away from traditional physics.



TABLE II.42 Comparison of Primary Work Activities on Non-PhD and PhD Physicists by Type of Employing Institution

מחדים אווז לסדליים	uc 1011							
Primary Work	Universi	ty (Age 40-60)	Industry		Governmen	ī	Research Center	Center
Activity	Non-PhD	Non-PhD PhD	Non-PhD	PhD	Non-PhD P	PhD	Non-PhD	PhD
Basic research	8.2%	24.2%	3.6%	19.3%	16.4%	48.4%	26.9%	44.3%
Applied research		3.4.	33.4	39.0	37.9	18.9	30.7	28.2
Development		0.1	22.4	6.7	8.4	0.9	12.6	3.5
Management of	4.7	5.4	16.4	24.0	19.2	23.4	13.0	18.4
research and development								
Other .	78.4	6.99	23.0	8.9	8.9 18.1	8.5	8.5 15.2	4.7

TABLE II.43 Performance of Development in U.S. Industry by Professional Physicists, Universe Total,  $\overset{\alpha}{a}$  1970

Priority of Development	Non-P	h <b>D</b>	PhD		Total	
Primary activity	1780		310		2,090	
Secondary activity	1800		740		2,540	
Basic and applied research primary		47%		72%	·	
Other activity primary		53		28		
Total in development	3580	78	1050	22	4,630	(37%)
Industry total	7980	63	4620	37	12,600	

aUniverse totals are estimated from Register respondents, assuming an 83 percent response from PhD's and a 67 percent response from non-PhD professionals.

TABLE II.44 Comparison of Research and Development, Non-Research and Development, and Management Responsibilities of Non-PhD's and PhD's in Industry, 1970

Responsibilities	Non-P	$PhD (N = 5273)^{\alpha}$	PhD (	$(N = 3733)^b$
Research and development	61%		77%	
Research and development		71%		62%
Research and development plus management		29		38
Research and development combined with non-research and development	27		19	
Combined		57		54
Combined plus management		43		46
Non-research and development	12		4	
Non-research and develop-		51		45
Non-research and develop- ment plus management		49		55

 $<sup>\</sup>alpha$ Estimated universe = 7980.



 $h_{\text{Estimated universe}} = 4620.$ 

### II.1.4 SPECIAL IN-DEPTH STUDIES

in the foregoing discussion of physics manpower employment, and mobility, attention has been directed primarily to physics as a whole, although with some indication of variation by subfield. It is also possible to use the Register data to provide in-depth studies of different subfields. Two interdisciplinary subfields have been selected as examples—astrophysics and relativity and earth and planetary physics.

## II.1.4.1 Manpower in Astrophysics and Relativity

The distinction between astronomer and physicist is especially difficult to draw in astrophysics and relativity. However, we can identify these scientists by the detailed specialties in which they are engaged. The specialties that comprise astrophysics and relativity appeared in Table VIII.1 of Volume II, Part B, of Physics in Perspective, reproduced here as Table II.45.

TABLE II.45 Core Manpower in Astrophysics and Relativity,  $1970^a$ 

Specialty	PhD's	Non-PhD's
Gravitational fields, gravitons	26	8
Cosmology	16	8
Galaxies	45	17
Quasars, pulsars, and x-ray sources	84	40
Relativity, gravitation	<u>77</u>	35
•	248	108
Other <sup>b</sup>	9	_51
Total respondents Student respondents	257 (62%)	159(38%) 80

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathcal{A}}_{\text{Data}}$  in the table are based on the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel.  $^{\mathcal{D}}_{\text{Respondents}}$  definitely in astrophysics and relativity, but for whom some items of Register data are missing.

Some 250 PhD's indicated that their major scientific work was in one of these specialties. For comparison, the specialties that comprise our Register definition of astronomy appear in Appendix B; 635 PhD's were identified with these specialties.

Characteristics of scientists in astrophysics and relativity suggest multiple subfield relationships. Important in identifying manpower at the interface of physics and astronomy is earth and planetary physics, with 725 PhD's, the specialties of whom also appear in Appendix B.

To count astronomers and physicists in this interrelated com-



munity is an oversimplification; however, to compare these data with those resulting from the questionnaire circulated to institutions by the Astronomy Survey Committee, we shall undertake such a count. Many PhD's working at this interface would, of course, be counted by astronomers as astronomers and by physicists as physicists. The use of Register specialties to define the population obviates such double counting.

The Register also obtains the self-identification of respondents. The results of this self-identification appear in Table II.46. The astronomers identified by institutions should include both self-identified astronomers and astrophysicists, a total of 867 respondents, whom we estimate to be 85 percent of a total population of some 1030 self-identified PhD astronomers.

TABLE II.46 PhD Self-Identification

	PhD Self-I	dentification			
Register Subfield	Astronomy	Astrophysics	Space Physics	Other Physics	Subfield Total
Astrophysics and relativit	55 <b>y</b>	72	ò	121	257
Earth and planetary	15	61	1,87	458	7 24
Astronomy	286	209	50	99	644
Other physics	92	86	119	14,709	15,006
TOTAL	448	428	367	15,387	16,631

An institutional definition of an astronomer, however, is one who is working on what, in the management's view, is astronomy. All those working in the Register specialties classified as astrophysics and relativity and astronomy would surely be included in such an enumeration, and some fraction of the earth and planetary physicists would be counted as well. The latter fraction could be estimated by establishing the way in which management would classify each of the relevant specialties in Appendix B. As Table II.46 shows, about 20 percent of the earth and planetary physicists identify themselves as astronomers or astrophysicists; that is to say, about 150 of the 725 PhD's in earth and planetary physics could be identified with the institutions of astronomy.

Table II.47 summarizes the results and shows 1050 PhD respondents whom we believe could be readily identified as astronomers from the viewpoint of managers of institutions working in physics and astronomy. If we assume an 85 percent rate of response, then the population of permanent U.S. resident PhD astronomers in such institutions would amount to 1240 as of January 1970. This figure can be compared with the 1257 full-time, PhD-equivalent astronomy personnel, including teachers, postdoctoral fellows,



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locally paid staff visiting elsewhere, and visitors paid locally, who were reported by mamagers to be employed in 171 astronomy institutions in the United States and Galapagos Islands, which were surveyed by the Astronomy Survey Committee.

TABLE II.47 Identification of PhD Physicists and Astronomers with the Institutions of Physics and Astronomy

	PhD's in	Institu-			
Institution	Phy	Earth & Planetary	Astrophys. & Relativ.	Astron.	tional Totals
Physics related Both physics and astronomy	1:	`5 50	250	}}	15,975 1,050
related Astronomy related				650	

FIGURE II.9 depicts the interrelationship of physics and astronomy in these two subfields—astrophysics and relativity and earth and planetary physics.

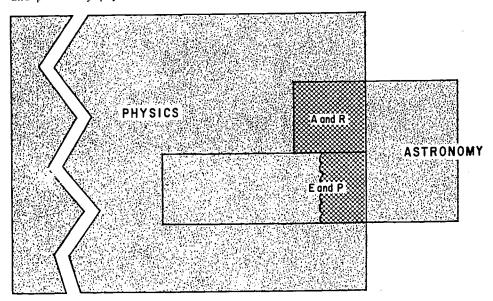


FIGURE II.9 The interpenetration of physics and astronomy.

The characteristics of manpower in astrophysics and relativity are depicted in Tables II.48—II.54. Employment is concentrated in universities and the university-based PhD's are principally engaged in research. The distribution by academic rank is characteristic of a research-oriented group with a large number of young university-based researchers. Emphasis on theory is greater than in either physics or astronomy. Consistent with this emphasis, the production of journal articles is high; in 1968 the subfield accounted for 0.9 percent of the physics community but produced 1.6 percent of the articles in a sample from *Physics Abstracts* (see Chapter IV).

TABLE II.48 Distribution by Employing Institution of Physicists, Astronomers, and Those in Astrophysics and Relativity

Subfield of Discipline	University	Industry	Government	Research Center	Other
Astrophysics and relativ-	73%	7%	9%	9%	4%
ity Astronomy Physics	6 3% 50%	7% 24%	18% 9%	11% 12%	5% <b>5%</b>

TABLE II.49 Distribution of Work Activities of University-Based Group

Primary Work Activity	Astrophysics & Relativity	Astronomy	Physics
Basic research	66.3%	60.4%	37.2%
Teaching	29.3%	28.8%	49.7%
Other	4.4%	10.8%	13.1%

TABLE II.50 Distribution by Academic Rank

	Astroph Relativ		Astron	omy	Physic	s
Rank	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Fuil profes-	43	24	102	28	2421	29
Associate	31	17	49	13	1697	21
Assistant	46	25	104	28	2101	26
Faculty total	120	66	255	69	6219	76
Other univ. employment	61	34	116	31	1989	24
Total PhD's	181		371		8208	



TABLE II.51 Distribution of Theoreticians and Experimentalists

Nature of Work	Astrophysics and Relativity(%)	Astronomy(%)	Physics(%)
Theoretical	51	28	25
Experimental	30	40	50
Both	19	32	25

ħ.

TABLE II.52 Distribution by Degree Level

Subfield or Discipline	PhD's	Nonstudent Non-PhD's	Non-PhD's per PhD
Astrophysics & rela- tivity	250	79	0.3
Astronomy	650	344	0.5
Physics	15,600	15,700	1.0

TABLE II.53 Median Age of PhD's in 1970

Sample	Astrophys. & Relativ.	Astronomy	Physics
Theoreticians	33.9	33.8	35.0
Total	34.6	35.0	37.4

TABLE II.54 Median Age of PhD's in 1970 by Academic Rank

Rank	Astrophysics & Relativity	Thysics/Astronomy
Full professor	46.0	46.8
Associate	36.7	37.4
Assistant	31.9	32.4

The subfield is composed of a comparatively young group, with a median age of 34.6. It affords relatively little opportunity for qualified non-PhD's.

The data show that scientists in astrophysics and relativity are somewhat more like astronomers than physicists a result that could largely be expected from the institutional characteristics of a nonapplied discipline. To describe the interplationship of physics, astrophysics and relativity, and astronomy, apart from the overriding institutional correlates, we can book at day a on field of PhD, subfields of additional scientific competence and subfield migration, Tables II.55—II.58. Astronomysics and relative

ity is populated largely by physics PhD's. The data on specialties of first and second competence other than specialty of employment show that for those in astrophysics and relativity specialties of first competence usually fall also within this subfield (82 percent so indicating). Astrophysics and relativity clearly is not a secondary pursuit; the secondary competences, physics and astronomy, are the intellectual and practical foundation for the creative thrust of this subfield.

TABLE II.55 Field in Which PhD Was Obtained

	Field of Curre		A - A 1 1
	Astronomy	Physics as	Astrophysics
Field of PhD	as a Whole(%)	a Whole(%)	and Relativity(%)
Physics	36	80	70
Astronomy	57	5	25
Other	7	15	5

TABLE II.56 Additional Subfield Competence of PhD's in Astrophysics and Relativity, Astronomy, and Physics

Subfield of Additional		f Employment	Astrono		Physics
Competence	Number	& Relativity Percent	Number	Percent	Number
First level	-	-			
Astrophys. & relativity	200	82	15	2	44
Astronomy	15	6	4 58	75	124
Physics	28	12	141	23	
Total first Second level	243		614		15,000
Astrophys. δ relativity	85	35	57	10	82
Astronomy	42	17	279	46	158
Physics	117	48	261	44	
Total second	244		597		15,000

TABLE II.57 Numbers of PhD's in Astronomy, and Relativity, Astronomy, and Earth and Planetary P. ...s, 196.—1970

Year	Astrophys. and Relativity	Astronomy	Earth Planetary	Total Physics/Astronomy
1964	65	397	311	10,400
1966	_	_	_	11,800
1968	1 25	711	572	14,300
1970	250	644	724	16,600



TABLE II.58 Mobility into Astrophysics and Relativity and Earth and Planetary Physics .

	1970 PhD's	
1968 Sources	Astrophys. and Relativity	y Earth and Planetary
Same subfield	82	323
Physics	37	203
Astronomy	75	55
Longitudinal sample	195	581
1970 Register total	250	725

Growth in this subfield displays the explosive character typical of an exciting new research area of physics. Growth in both astrophysics and relativity and earth and planetary physics shows that substantial manpower is shifting into these subfields from traditional astronomy subfields. The patterns of growth also illustrate the close interrelationship of these subfields to physics and astronomy.

Figure II.10 depicts the components of growth in astrophysics and relativity. The largest input, 75 PhD's with a median age of 33.7 years in 1970, came from astronomy; only seven PhD's went from astrophysics and relativity to astronomy. Of those who entered from astronomy, 25 percent were under 31 years of age, and 25 per-

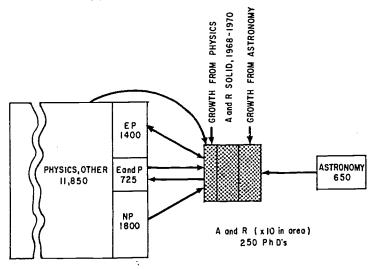


FIGURE II.10 Growth and interchange, 1968—1970. Numbers are 1970 Register populations.

cent, over 38 years of age; therefore, this subfield can hardly be said to attract only young astronomers. The interchange with physics was more nearly reciprocal. Thirty-seven came into the subfield from physics in 1970, and 21 left it to move into physics. Six came from nuclear physics, 11 from elementary-particle physics, 6 from earth and planetary physics, and 14 from other subfields. Of those who left, one went into nuclear physics, 9 into elementary-particle physics, 8 in a earth and planetary physics, and 3 to other subfields.

### II.1.4.2 Manpower in Earth and Planetary Physics

The study of the physical environment, the earth and its surroundings, clearly is a multidisciplinary activity that includes not just physicists but atmospheric, geological, and oceanographic scientists. About as many scientists are identified with earth and space science fields as with physics, perhaps 40,000 in each. An identifiable group of about 2000 physicists, those in earth and planetary physics, are working in earth and space sciences. If we look only at research effort, it appears that the earth and planetary physicists account for as much as 20 percent of the effort in earth and space studies.

The characteristics of earth and space scientists are drawn largely from National Register data; however, other data are available from BLS, NASA, and the Civil Service. We have used the Register data in our analyses, first, to depict the overall dimensions and characteristics of atmospheric, geological, and oceanographic populations and research effort and, second, to describe in detail the special characteristics of the earth and planetary physics population. Supplementary data, based largely on employer surveys, lack definitional consistency and are piecemeal, but they augment the manpower from the Register, giving in some cases quite different totals.

There are some 33,000 earth and space scientists and some 40,000 physicists. More than 1600 physicists work in earth and space sciences, but only a few earth and space scientists work in physics.\*

Table II.59 shows the number of scientists working in earth and space sciences and physics. A scientist is classified as working in a field on the basis of his statement of a detailed specialty that most nearly corresponds to his principal work activity. The assignment of specialties provides a working definition of discipline and subfield.

Deciding what kind of scientist a respondent is is by no means as simple as deciding what science one is working in. If a Register form is returned to the AIP but the respondent seems more like a geometrist than a physicist, his form is sent to the American Geological Institute (AGI) for review and inclusion



These figures are based on an estimated 85 percent response to the Register, which is conservative for PhD's and somewhat arbitrary for non-PhD's. For non-PhD's, definitions of professional standards, job classifications, and fields become rather fuzzy.

TABLE II.59 Manpower in Earth and Space Sciences $^{\star}$ 

Field of Employment	No. of Scientists	Principal Processing Society	No. Iden- tified with AIP	No. Holding PhD	Percentage of to-Percentage tal Represented by of Total AIP Scientists(%) with PhD(%	Percentage of Total with PhD(%)
Atmospheric sciences	5.232	AMS	453	639	8.7	12.2
Structure and dynamics	1,127		378	435	33.6	38.6
0t':er	4,105		75	204	1.8	5.0
Geological sciences	17,198	AGI	197	3,040	1.1	17.7
Geophysics	2,873		171	431	0.9	15.0
Other	14,325		26	2,609		18.2
Oceanography	730	AGI	53	203	7.3	27.8
Total atrospheric, geological,	23,160		703	3,882	2.7	15.7
and oceanographic sciences						
Space science	816	AIP	626	399	76.7	0.65
Physics specialties	25,801	AIP		11,405	100	44.2
Astronomy	1,325	AIP		733	100	55.3
Electronics	1,504	AIP		485	100	32.2
Identification						
Physics	32,491	AIP		14,311		0.44
Earth and marine sciences	23,746	AGI		4,957		21.0
Atmospheric and space	5,745	AMS		514		0.6
sciences						

 $\frac{a}{b}$  Data are based on  $A \approx vican$  Science Manpower 1968 (NSF 69-38) (Table A-48) and on the 1968 National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel. b Society responsible for the collection and processing of data in a particular discipline. These societies are the American Institute of Physics, American Geological Institute, and American Meteorological Society.

with their respondents if qualified. In Table II.59, the second column gives the processing society of most respondents in each category, thus the major professional identification of people working in earth and space sciences.

The data in Table II.59 are also depicted in Figure II.11, in a so-called "Fuji" representation.

In our earlier discussions of other populations, the overall size has been estimated on the basis of all scientists regardless of their specific work activity. However, in this section we shall look principally at the research function to get a clearer indication of the relative role of the physicist compared with earth and space scientists in the performance of research.

Before we examine the Register Population in detail, we will look briefly at a special group. Scientists working in "physics of the earth in space" were convened by the National Academy of Sciences for study programs in the summers of 1968 and 1969. Fifty-two scientists participated, with continuity provided by 12 who participated in both summer sessions. We assumed that this group constituted an elite representation of scientific personnel in earth and space sciences. Table II.60 presents a tabulation of their scientific backgrounds and professional identifications.

TABLE II.60 Field and Degree Background of a Select Group of Earth and Space Scientists

Fields	with wh	f Science ich Identified Percent	<u>Field of</u>	Degree Percent
Physics	17	38	21	58
Space physics	5	11	_	50
Astrophysics/ astronomy	8	18	4	11
Geophysics	7	16	4	11
Radio physics	4 .		2	
Electrical en- gineering	3		4	11
Aeronomy	1		_	
Physical chemistry	1		1	
TOTAL	46		36	

Data on 41 of the 52 were found in American Men of Science (11th edition). We looked particularly at major fields of professional identification (such as physicist or geophysicist), field of PhD, and society membership. The results suggest predominance of physics, with expertise in astronomy also a major constituent.

Society membership sometimes is regarded as a useful indication of subject emphasis; for this group it should be reasonably indicative because these are mature scientists whose economic status probably would override financial barriers to multiple



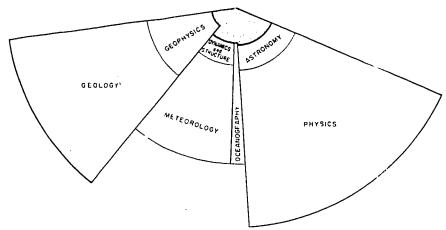


FIGURE II.11 Scientific manpower in earth and space sciences, physics, and earth and planetary physics.

memberships. Further, being acknowledged as successful in research, they would not be expected to join a society for reasons of status. Table II.61 presents data on society membership of this group. The distribution implies a sustained involvement with the physic? community. Because of the small percentage reporting degree background in geosciences, membership in the American Geophysical Union, indicated by 56 percent, apparently reflects acquired identification with this community. A clear trend toward a connection with astronomy also is indicated, although it is difficult to say whether this association is traditional or acquired, for astronomy typically has relied on a substantial influx of PhD's from physics.

These simple data on the elite group suggest that research at the so-called frontiers of the earth and space sciences is done by people with a strong background in physics, who generally maintain connections with the physics and astronomy communities and have acquired a relationship to the geophysics community. Indeed, professional mobility is a prominent characteristic of the group.

We must examine properties other than size of various populations to get a quantitative idea of the relative role of physicists in earth and space sciences. The PhD concentration of a subfield or discipline is significant, because we find that publication patterns are strongly correlated with PhD distributions. The degree concentration, distributed according to professional identification appears in Table II.59, as well as concentration among work areas. Physicists clearly are concentrated in areas characterized by a high concentration of PhD's. Apparently physicists tend to be more strongly involved in advanced subject areas in which PhD training is important rather than in operations in which the generalist training of a physicist is usually considered a special cachet.



TABLE II.61 Society Membership of a Select Group of Earth and Space Scientists

	Members	nip Indicated	Membership
Society	Number	Percent	Distribution(%)
American Physical Society	15	37	21 '
American Geophysical Union	23	56	32
American Astronomical Society	15	37	21
Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers	12	29	17
American Meteorological Society	5		
American Chemical Society	1		
Total memberships	71		
Total on which this infor- mation was obtained	41		

Other comparisons to show the place of physicists in this interdisciplinary iceberg require the comparison of earth and planetary physicists and earth and space scientists. Nonoverlapping groups can be defined with reference to Table II.59. Earth and planetary physicists represent the physics (AIP) population. Earth and space scientists represent the earth and marine sciences (AGI) and atmospheric and space (American Meteorological Society) populations. We shall compare 26,000 earth and space scientists in 1968 (most recent American Science Manpower data) with 700 earth and planetary physicists in 1970, for we want to present the most recent picture of physicists against the more slowly changing background of earth and space sciences. When possible, PhD's and non-PhD's will be compared separately. Special characteristics of earth and planetary physicists will be discussed in detail in a later part of this section.

The distribution of earth and planetary physicists, compared with all physicists, among employing institutions appears in Table II.62. Clearly, research centers employ many of these earth and planetary physicists. Although American Science Manpower does not show research center as a separate category, comparison without data can be achieved by allocating research center PhD employees to universities (69 percent), industry (22 percent), and other employing institutions (9 percent). Table II.63 presents this comparison and shows that the nonuniversity employment pattern of earth and planetary physicists is more like that of earth and space scientists than of physicists. Nearly as many earth and planetary PhD's work for government as for industry, which resembles the employment pattern of earth and space scientists and differs from that of physicists among whom there is a three-to-one industry/government ratio of use.



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distributions.

TABLE II.62 Employment Patterns of Earth and Planetary Physics PhD's and Non-PhD's Compared with Those for the Total Physics Population  $^{\alpha}$ 

Employing Institu- tions	Earth and Plan- tary PhD's N=712(%)	All Physics PhD's N=16,631(%)	Earth and Plane- tary Non-PhD's N=673(%)	All Physics Non-PhD's N=19,705(%)
College an		51	33	28
Industry	23	23	20	33
Government		9	31	15
Research	13	12	4	6
Other cent	er 4	5	12	18

 $<sup>^{\</sup>prime\prime} \mathrm{Data}$  are from the 1970 NSF National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel

TABLE [[.63] Employment of PhD's in Earth and Space Sciences

	Employ		T 2 =		Gover	nment	Other	
Field	Acader No.	nic %	Indus No.	<u>%</u>	No.	%	No.	%
Earth and plane-	338 <sup>a</sup>	47.5ª	184 <sup>a</sup>	26.0°	154 <sup>a</sup>	21.6 <sup>a</sup>	36 <sup>22</sup>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>
tary physics Earth and space	3198	55.9	919	17.0	922	16.6	234	4.5
sciences Earth and	2906	61.0	865	18.1	796	16.7 <sup>.</sup>	197	4.1
marine Atmospheric	292	57.5	44	8.7	126	24.8	47	9.3
and space Physics Geology Geophysics Oceanography	1229 187 123	59.0 46.4 43.7 62.5	572 161 16	26.0 18.4 37.1 8.1	- 448 51 45	9.0 21.7 11.9 23.0	148 29 13	5.0 7.6 6.8 6.6

 $a_{\rm Est\,imated}$   $_{b}$  These groups are derived from numbers working in these fields (see Table II.59) and are commensurate with the other groups in this Table (II.63). The numbers are listed only for comparison of

Earth and planetary physicists are less often employed in universities than are physicists in general. In Table II.64, earth and planetary physics faculty is tabulated separately from university employees; comparisons are presented for physicists in general, nuclear physicists, astronomers, and AGI and American Meteorological Society populations. Faculty is defined as academic employees who specify academic rank of lecturer or above. Of 272 earth and planetary physicists in universities, 173 acknowledged

TABLE 11.64 Faculty Members in Earth and Planetary Physics, Physics, and Earth and Space Sciences<sup>a</sup>

	·				
	lotal Faculty	Professor or Dean	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor or Lecturer
Physics	7427	2625	2047	2753	702
Earth and					
planetary					
physics					
PhD	173	66	46	55	6
Total	206	69	51	68	18
Nuclear phys-	798	264	229	246	59
ics					
Astronomy	289				
Earth and spac	e 3868	1141	939	1213	575
sciences					•
Earth and	3580	1042	865	1135	538
marine					
Atmospheric and space	288	99	74	78	37
PhD	2632	1048	768	774	42

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Grouped according to research specialty rather than academic department. Data on physicists are based on the physics section of the 1970 National Register; those on earth and space sciences on American Science Manpower 1988.

faculty appointments; an additional 36 of 221 non-PhD's also claim such appointments. Table II.65 summarizes data on faculty roles of PhD's employed in universities presented in Tables II.63 and II.64. Clearly, earth and planetary physicists are not heavily engaged in teaching; they are not only less likely than either physicists or earth and space scientists to be employed in universities, but those who are thus employed are less likely to fill faculty positions. If earth and planetary physics is to assume a more prominent place in the physics curriculum, substantial mobility will be required. There are about 175 self-acknowledged earth and planetary physics PhD faculty members, not all of whom are in the 2000 U.S. physics departments. Increased emphasis on faculty responsibilities could lead to an influx of earth and planetary physicists from the immediate academic surroundings. A pool that amounts to some 150 additional PhD's. A second source is academic physicists who are competent in earth and plane ary

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TABLE II.65 Comparison of Roles in Academic Institutions of PhD's in Earth and Planetary Physics, Physics, and Earth and Space Sciences

	Faculty		Other		
Field	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Earth and planetary physics (1970)	173	51	165	49	
N = 338 Physics (1970) N = 9700	6430	62	3270	38	
Earth and space sciences (1968) N = 3198	2632	82	566	18	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Includes research centers operated by universities.

physics but who are not currently working in this subfield. Their number amounts to another 50 to 60 PhD's currently in college or eniversity employment. Taken together these two sources do not present a large pool, compared with, for example, nuclear physics.

Liear that expansion of earth and planetary physics in the is curriculum would be manpower limited. A third kind of lity, intellectual mobility of subfield switching, would be

ded. A favorable outcome is possible from this third source, or intellectual mobility is a major characteristic of the physics population.

Table II.66 shows the production of students in 1968 in the fields with which we are concerned. Although the total production is about the same for physicists and earth and space scientists, the concentration of PhD's is twice as high in physics. As Table II.67 shows, patterns of degree production differ from those of use. Only a fraction of non-PhD's enter scientific work in any case, but the pattern is quite different for physicists and earth and space scientists.

Table II.68 summarizes the primary work activities of earth and space scientists and earth and planetary physicists. The differences in work patterns are striking. A high proportion of PhD's and non-PhD's in earth and planetary physics are engaged in research (67 percent and 64 percent, respectively). The comparable figures for research for all physics are 55 percent for PhD's and 47 percent for non-PhD's. In the earth and space sciences, the



TABLE II.66 Degree Production, 1968

Field	BS	MS	PhD		Percent- Total(%)	Degrees/Faculty
Physics Earth and space sciences	5500 2900	2000 1100	1400 438	16 8		1.3 1.2
Earth sciences Oceanography Meteorology			341 49 48			

 $<sup>^{\</sup>alpha}$  sources of data presented in this table are the American Institute of Physics, American Geological Institute, and NRC Doctorate Records File.

TABLE II.67 Production and Use of Physics PhD's in Physics and Earth and Space Sciences

Field	PhD Production(%)	PhD Use in Field(%)
Ph/sics	16	44
Earth and space sciences	8	18.5
	•	

figures are 32 percent (PhD) and 18 percent (non-PhD). This finding reinforces the conclusion, derived from almost all types of data on these fields, that patterns of activity and employment in earth and planetary physics differ from those for both the earth and space sciences as a whole and physics. The especially high research commitment among non-PhD earth and planetary physicists suggest that they function much more in the way that PhD's do than is the case in other fields.

Table II.69 shows numbers and percentages of PhD's and non-PhD's engaged in research in various employment settings. The emphasis on research that characterizes the earth and planetary physicist clearly is not a function of type of employing institution, and the estimated allocation of 20 percent of the total research effort in earth and space cciences to earth and planetary physicists probably is conservative. Even non-PhD's in earth and planetary physics amount to 12 percent of the research-oriented non-PhD total.



TABLE II.68 Primary Work Activities of Earth and Space Scientists  $^{\alpha}$ 

	Mork Activ	ities(")		
Degree and Field	Research	Teaching	R & D Management	Other
PhD's				
Earth and planetary $(7 = 707)$	67	13	15	5
AGE scientists (% = 4689)	30	42	9	19
AMS scientists (% = 493)	50	23	16	10
Non-PhD's		,	1.1	10
Earth and planetary $(N = 657)$	64	7	11	18
AGI scientists (N = 21,746)	17	18	6	59
AMS scientists (N = 5413)	20	5	7	67

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm G}$  Data for the American Geological Institute and the American Meteorological Society respondents are based on American Science Manpower 1968; those on earth and planetary physics are based on the 1970 National Register survey.

In the academic community in which the teaching-research function is especially important, the commitment of earth and planetary physicists to research again is striking. Tables II.7Ca — II.7Od compare primary and secondary work activity of university-based scientists. One fourth of the earth and planetary physicists indicated research as both first and second major activity. Another one fourth reported research as primary and teaching secondary, and 14.6 percent combined research with some other secondary activity, the other category including such activities as administration and management. In all, 64.6 percent indicated research as the primary work activity. Although 14.4 percent of the earth and planetary physicists are primarily engaged in work that is neither research nor teaching, approximately five in seven of them report a secondary commitment to research.



 $<sup>\</sup>overset{b}{\mathcal{D}}$ Research includes basic and applied as well as the design and development category, which has a negligible effect in these groups.

 $<sup>^{</sup>C}{\rm The}$  "other" category includes exploration and forecasting, which are major activities of many scientists in the geological and meteorological groups.

TABLE II.69 Distribution by Employer of Those Engaged in Research

		Acade	mic	Indus	try	Gover	nment	Othe	er
Degree and Field	Total	No.	%	No.	7,	No.	%	No.	Z
PhD's	2135	859	40	440	20	699	33	137	6
Earth and plane- tary physics	474 (22%)	206	23	129	29	116	18	23	17
Earth and space sciences	1661 (78%)	653	76	311	71	583	82	114	83
AGI scientists	1415	513		292		517		93	
AMS scientists	246	140		19		66		21	
Non-PhD's	3550	1123		728		1422		284	
Earth and plane- tary physics	420 (12%)	173	15	82	11	138	10	27	10
Earth and space sciences	3137 (88%)	950	85	646	89	1284	90	257	90
AGI scientists	2310	683		541		970		116	
AMS scientists	827	267		105		315		141	

TABLE II.70a Primary and Secondary Work Activity of University-Employed Earth and Planetary Physicists  $^{\mathcal{A}}$ 

Primary Work		Work Activ		Dard
Activity	Research	Teaching	Other	Primary Totals(%)
Research and development	26.4	23.6	14.6	64.4
Teaching	16.6	3.3	1,1	21.0
Other	5.7	8.7	atta.	14.4

 $<sup>\</sup>alpha_{\rm A\bar{1}i}$  degrees included, N = 493 (1970 National Register).

The data in Table II.70 must be regarded as semiquantitative. Figures II.12 and II.13, which compare earth and planetary physicists with earth and space scientists, depict the differences in these data for the two groups.

We shall now examine the data on earth and planetary physicists in greater detail—self-identification, degree background, work activities and competence, and changes in these characteristics with time.



TABLE II.70b Primary and Secondary Work Activity of University-Employed Physicists  $\alpha$ 

Primary Work Activity	Secondary Research	Work Activ Teaching	ity(%) Other	Primary Totals(%)	_
Research and, development	16.9	23.7	6.5	47.1	
Teaching Other	29.4 2.1	7.3 2.9	/.3 3.8	44.0 8.8	

aAll degrees included, N = 13,532 (1970 National Register). bDevelopment and design = 0.6 percent of primary research and development activity.

TABLE II.70c Primary and Secondary Work Activity of University Employed American Geological Institute Scientists

Primary Work	Secondary	Work Activ		
Activity	Research	Teaching	Other	Primary Totals(%)
Research and b	6.9	11.1	3.6	21.6
Teaching Other	39.0 3.2	12.6	13.4	65.0 13.4

All degrees included, N=5479 (American Science Manpower 1968). Development is generally negligible.

TABLE II.70d Primary and Secondary Work Activity of University-Employed American Meteorological Society Scientists

Primary Work Activity	Secondary Research	Work Activ	ity(%) Other	Primary Totals(%)
Research and b	22.2	20.2	13.5	55,7
Teaching Other	18.7 6.5	2.1	6.6	27.4 16.9

 $<sup>\</sup>dot{b}$ All degrees included, N = 782 (American Science Manpower 1968). Development is generally negligible.

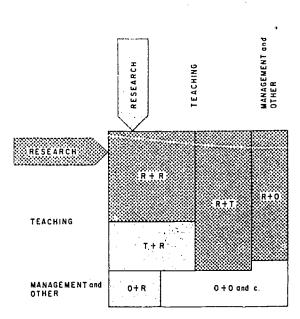


FIGURE II.12 Work activities of university-employed earth and planetary physicists.

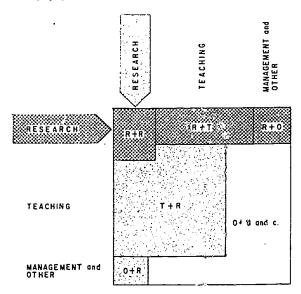


FIGURE II.13 Work activities of unlyarsity-employed geoscientists and meteorologists.

The composition of earth and planetary physics, based on selfidentification of its manpower, appears in Table 11.71. We emphasize that the group is constructed from people generally identiflable as physicists who are working in earth and planetary physics; the distribution of self-identification that is found by reading across the top row of Table 11.71 is a description of these people rather than a means of identifying them. The nature of professional self-identification becomes clearer as one reads down the columns of the table, noting that, for example, 51.5 percent of the AIP space physicists are working in earth and planetary physics, 13.7 percent in astronomy, 8.4 percent in plasmas and fluids, and 26.4 percent in various other subfields. There are, of course, selfidentified physicists in the AGI and American Meteorological Society portions of the Register who are not counted in the vertical totals of this table.

Table II.72 shows the degree background of earth and planetary physicists. Engineering and astronomy account for most of the

nonphysics PhD's.

The detailed list of work specialties on the Register that we have defined as earth and planetary physics appears in Appendix B, with the numbers of PhD's and non-PhD's engaged in each. No one specialty is preeminent, so that in discussing this subfield the "characteristics of earth and planetary physicists are wor dominated by some highly specialized particular research-interest group.

TABLE II.71 Professional Self-Identification of Earth and Planetary Physics PhD's

Subfield of Employment	Space Physi- cist	Atmos- pheric Physi- cist	Geo- physi- cist	Astro- physi- cist	Physi- cist	Other
Earth and	26.1%	16.4%	7.3%	8.4%	30.7%	11.1%
planetary	51.5	5% 70 <b>.</b>	.8% 55.	2% 14	. 3%	2.0%
Astronomy	13.7	% -	-	48		).5%
Astrophysics	_	_	-	14		1.0%
Plasmas and fluids	8.4	.% 6.	.0% 10.	4% -	6	5.4%
Other sub-	26.4	23.	. 2% 34.	4% 20	. 2% 90	. 5%
fields Total N's	367	168	3 96	4 2	8 10,9	969 2824



TABLE II.72 Comparison of Field of PhD Degree by Panel (Employment Specialty), 1968 and 1970

Physics Subfield	Total 1/2	1970	% PhD's i	% PhD's in Physics	PhD's in	Other	Fields	PhD's in Other Fields (only for >5% of total)	>5% of	total)
	2021	277	0071	017	ואר נופדה	00617 1	0/61%	7110 F1610	9067% 1	0/617
Total	14,087	16,248	79.9	78.8	Eng.	8.7	10.0			
Subtotal physics	13,389	15,614	82.2 80.5	80.5	Eng.	9.0	10.3	1		
Astrophysics and relativity	123	252	84.6	70.2	Astron.	15.4	25.0			
Atomic, molecular, and electron	866	1,065		77.8	81.3 77.8 Chem.	10.5	10.5 13.0	Eng.	6.1	6.5
Elementary-particle	1,289	1,409	97.8	97.8	1			ı		
Nuclear	1,794	1,782	95.6	90.6	ı			1		
Plasmas and fluids	930	1,104	63.7	64,1	Eng.	29.1	29.2	1		
Condensed-matter	7,064	4,157	82.6	80.5	Eng.	9.5	12.9	1		
Earth and planetary	267	712	79.4	77.9	Eng.	9.2	8.4	Astron.	5.3	8.0
Physics in biology	203	274	56.7	60.2	Biol.	23.6	25.5	Eng.	6.6	6-9
Optics	743	1,078	81.8	78.1	Eng.	11.6	15.0	) 		•
Acoustics	295	324	70.5	70.1	Eng.	20.0	22.8	Other	5.1	1
Miscellaneous	2,383	3,457	77.3	79.0	Eng.	8.7	5.3	Other	8.9	5.3
Subtotal astronomy	869	634	35.4	36.0	Astron	2,0	57 1			1

 $a_{
m Total}$  with known employer.

The relations between subfields can be explored with Register data in two ways, first, by asking those working in a subfield at a certain time to list specific research areas in which they have varying degrees of scientific competence, and second, by examining longitudinal data for evidence of subfield mobility in both subfield of employment and that of first competence.

Table II.73 presents, for earth and planetary physics PhD's, the distribution of competence among other subfields. Astronomy is a prominent type of competence, but some additional analysis is required to see the pattern of subfield competence characteristic of earth and planetary physicists. This analysis requires the weighting of the citation frequency against the relative sizes of the cited subfields. The appropriate value of subfield relationship is obtained from the overall frequency of secondary competence weighted by the ratio of the populations of the subfield under consideration divided by that of the subfield of relationship. An alternative approach is that the relation rate is proportional to the intrinsic relation probability scaled by the corresponding density of available relationships; in other words, the rate depends on the transition probability times the density of states. The extreme right-hand column of Table II.73 gives the results, weighted and averaged.

TABLE II.73 Additional Competence of Earth and Planetary Physicists, 1970: Subfield Citation Frequencies by Level of Competence

	Subfield	Level c	f Compe	tence(	<u>%)                                    </u>	Weighted Average Ci-
Physics Subfield	PhD Population	-Great- est	Second	Third	Fourth	tation(%)
Earth and plane-	710	66.0	51.6	39.5	37.9	49.0
tary Astronomy Nuclear Elementary-par-	630 1780 1410	6.7 5.0 2.2	7.8 4.6 2.5	11.6 5.7 3.7	10.6 5.9 2.9	11.3 2.1 1.4
ticle Condensed-mat-	4160	3.8	6.4	6.7	6.4	1.0
ter Atomic, molecular,	1070	3.3	4.3	5.4	6.7	3.3
and electron Plasmas and	1100	3.3	4.7	7.1	6.4	3.4
fluids Optics Miscellaneous No response (as percentage of 710)	1080 3460	3.0 5.9 2.0	7.4 10.1 3.8	5.0 13.5 7.9	5.5 14.5 16.9	3.4 2.3

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The pattern of intellectual relationship that emerges from the analysis of the earth and planetary groups is not surprising; what is remarkable is that it is a quantified pattern. Averaging the secondary competences and weighting by the overall distribution of physics activity, we find that earth and planetary physicists relate 57 percent to other earth and planetary specialties, 15 percent to astronomy specialties, and 13 percent to the combined subfields atomic, molecular, and electron physics; optics; and plasmax and fluids. Fifteen percent relate to other specialties.

A ranking of subfields can be constructed on the basis of degree of competence within and outside subfields. Table 11.74 presents the results. The major feature of the table is that elementary-particle, nuclear, and condensed-matter physics are distinctly self-contained; plasmas and fluids; earth and planetary physics; and atomic, molecular, and electron physics overlap other subfields to an intermediate degree; optics and acoustics are strongly outward oriented. The evidence for real or latent subfield mobility is for the most part stronger for non-PhD's than for PhD's, a situation that would suggest lower inertia for the non-PhD resulting from a lesser commitment of expertise and project responsibility.

TABLE II.74 Competence Overlap

Physics	Competence PhD's	in Other Subfields/Additional in Subfield of Employment Non-PhD's
Subfield	PND S	
Condensed-matter	0.38	0.61
Elementary-particle	0.66	0.93
Nuclear	0.77	1.07
Earth and planetary	1.05	1.24
Plasmas and fluids	1.28	1.61
Atomic, molecular, and electron	1.30	1.90
Astrophysics and relativity	1.47	1.60
Acoustics	1.61	1.21
Optics	1.80	0.97
Physics in biology	2.33	3.08
Weighted average	0.90	0.88

So far in this Chapter we have dealt with horizontal distributions of characteristics in 1970. We now look at patterns of change between 1968 and 1970.

In the past two years (1968-1970) the number of PhD's working in earth and planetary physics grew from 567 to 712, a 25 percent increase in subfield population. Non-PhD's increased by 12 percent from 599 to 673. In 1964 there were 309 PhD's in this subfield. A



TABLE 11.75 Age Distributions of PhD's in Earth and Planetary Physics

Age of Cohort In 1970	No. in 1968	No. in 1970	Cohort Change
< 27	2	5	3
27-31	57	1.57	100
32-36	141	169	28
37-41	128	140	12
42-46	80	94	14
47-51	73	71	-2
52-61	64	<b>6</b> 6	2
·61	22	10	-12
TOTAL	567	712	145

look at the age distributions and net changes is provided by Table II.75.

Seventy-one percent of the net growth resulted from new PhD's. The 1970 median age of the new entrants was less than 31; the median age of the subfield as a whole was 37.8 years in 1968 and 37.4 in 1970.

When we look at subfield changes between 1968 and 1970 we find a new characteristic—a large turnover of manpower has occurred. Only 55.6 percent of those working in earth and planetary physics in 1970 were working in it in 1968; 33.6 percent of the 1968 population apparently left the subfield. This trend is typical of other subfields, as Table II.76 shows. The first column shows the input of 1968 people to the subfield in 1970. Another input comes from persons who responded to the Register in 1970 but not in 1968; about 2600 of the 16,600 1970 PhD's in the physics section of the Register did not respond in 1968. Most of these people were in the less than 30-year-old cohort. However, we have 1968 data on 82 percent of the 1970 respondents, thus the mobility pattern in Table II.76 is representative.

In addition to the magnitude and direction of the interchange of scientists between earth and planetary physics and other subfields, the median age of each mobile element also appears in Table II.76. The age distribution of those who left is for the most part the same as for those who remained. The pattern of subfield relationships implied by actual changes in subfield work is remarkably similar to that found in the investigation of subfield competence of earth and planetary physicists (see Table II.73). In these mobility patterns we note that 56 percent of the subfield population remains in it as compared with the 49 percent average citation frequency of the subfield as an area of secondary competence. The most likely subfield move, astronomy, has a weight of 10.7 percent, much like the 11.3 percent probability for secondary competence in astronomy. On the whole, the pat-



TABLE II.76 Subfield Mobility of Earth and Planetary PhD's, 1968 to 1970

55.6     323     38.5     323     38.5       9.5     323     38.5     37.7     37.7       4.0     23     35.2     2     32.5       4.8     28     33.0     15     37.7       4.8     28     33.0     15     37.7       4.0     23     36.2     7     35.5       3.3     19     39.2     9     39.5       3.3     19     39.9     15     39.0       0.3     2     45.5     2     55.5       1.4     8     32.5     6     42.5       9.5     55     44.7     52     40.0       581(1970)     486(1968)       38.3     38.6	Physics	Entrants from 1968 Subfields Percentage	от 1968	Subfields	Exits to	Exits to 1970 Subfields	Weighted <sup>**</sup> Distribution
y 55.6 323 38.5 323 38.5 35.4 37 37.7 15.6 23 35.2 2 2 32.5 35.4 37.7 15.6 23 35.2 2 2 32.5 2 4.0 0.0 4.6 28 33.0 15 37.7 40.0 4.0 23 36.2 7 35.5 3.3 19 39.2 9 39.5 39.5 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 6 42.5 9.5 55.5 44.7 52 40.0 581(1970) 486(1968) 38.6 38.3 38.6 39.3 38.6	Subfield of Employment	of 1970(%)	No.	Med. Age	žio.	Med. Age	of Entrants(₹)
e 4.8 55 35.4 37 37.7 11 4.0 23 35.2 2 32.5 4.8 28 33.0 15 37.7 4.0 23 36.2 7 35.5 3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 3.5 44.7 52 40.0 11 581(1970) 486(1968) 38.3 38.6	Earth and planetary	55.6	323	38.5	323	38.5	55.6
4.0 23 35.2 2 32.5 4.8 28 33.0 15 37.7 4.5 26 38.5 17 40.0 4.0 23 36.2 7 35.5 3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 9.5 55 44.7 52 40.0 11 581(1970) 486(1968)  258 163  712 567	Astronomy	9.5	55	35.4	37	37.7	10.7
e 4.8 28 33.0 15 37.7 40.0 4.5 26 38.5 17 40.0 40.0 4.0 3.3 19 39.2 9 39.5 39.5 17 40.0 3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 39.5 11.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 5 5.5 11.4 88 32.5 6 42.5 38.6 38.3 38.6 38.6 38.6 38.3 38.6 38.6	Nuclear	4.0	23	35.2	2	32.5	1.6
4.5       26       38.5       17       40.0         4.0       23       36.2       7       35.5         3.3       19       39.2       9       35.5         3.3       19       39.9       15       39.0         0.3       2       45.5       2       55.5         1.4       8       32.5       6       42.5         5       55       44.7       52       40.0         11       581(1970)       486(1968)         38.3       38.6	Elementary-particle	8.4	28	33.0	15	37.7	2.4
4.0       23       36.2       7       35.5         3.3       19       39.2       9       39.5         3.3       19       39.9       15       39.0         0.3       2       45.5       2       55.5         1.4       8       32.5       6       42.5         6       42.5       6       42.5         6       42.5       40.0         73       38.3       38.6	Condensed-marter	4.5	56	38.5	17	40.0	8.0
3.3 19 39.2 9 39.5 3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 11 581(1970) 486(1968) 38.3 38.6 712 58 163	Plasmas and fluids	4.0	23	36.2	7	35.5	2.6
n 3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 and 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5  udinal 9.5 55 44.7 52 40.0  sell(1970) 486(1968)  netary 258 163 sa 18.6 sa 18.1	Atomic, molecular,	3.3	19	39.2	6	39.5	2.2
3.3 19 39.9 15 39.0 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 and 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 udinal 581(1970) 486(1968)  netary 258 163 tal 712 567	and electron						
and 0.3 2 45.5 2 55.5 and 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5  udinal 581(1970) 486(1968)  s 158 tal 712 567	Optics	3.3	19	39.9	15	39.0	2.2
and 1.4 8 32.5 6 42.5 9.5 55 44.7 52 40.0 udinal 581(1970) 486(1968)  netary 258 163 tal 712 567	Acoustics	0.3	2	45.5	2	55.5	0.7
9.5 55 44.7 52 40.0 udinal 581(1970) 486(1968)  netary 258 163 tal 712 567	Astrophysics and	1.4	œ	32.5	9	42.5	0.,
9.5 55 44.7 52 40.0 udinal 581(1970) 486(1968)  netary 38.3 38.6  tal 712 567	relativity						
38.3   38.3   38.3   38.3   38.3   38.3   38.5	Miscellaneous	9.5	55	44.7	52	40.0	2.0
38,3 5lanetary nge ts 258 163 Lres 712 567	Total, longitudinal		581 (19)	70)	486(1968)	_	
38,3 5lanetary nge ts 258 163 Lres 712 567	Register						
258	Median age			38.3		38.6	
258	Earth and planetary						
258	interchange						
712	Entrants		258				
712	Departures				163		
Register	Total horizontal		712		567		
	Register						

Derived by weighting figures in this column by the distribution of physicists among subfields.



tern of interchange of workers is similar to the pattern of overlapping subfield competence.

We have ranked the physics subfields in Table 11.77 according to the longitudinal probability of remaining, which we have called subfield solidarity. For comparison with horizontal patterns of secondary scientific competence, we have also calculated a mobility overlap area in a manner that corresponds formally to the competence overlap area shown for the subfields in Table 11.74. Again, the general features of the longitudinal and horizontal distributions are much the same. We have taken this analysis one step further and looked at the changes in first competence between 1968 and 1970. The results are tabulated in Table 11.78 and the now familiar sequence of subfields again results. Three categories emerge: First, the independent, static category always contains elementary-particle, nuclear, and condensed-matter physics. An intermediate category consists of plasmas and fluids; earth and planetary physics; and atomic, molecular and electron physics.\*

TABLE II.77 Subfield Mobility 1968 to 1970: Ranking by Subfield Solidarity

Physics Subfield	Solidarity <sup>a</sup> (%)	Mobility <sup>b</sup> Overlap(%)	$\frac{1968, 197}{N = 1968}$	0 Samples N = 1970
Elementary-particle	84.1	0.19	1063	1209
Nuclear	83.2	0.20	1390	1673
Condensed-matter	81.1	0.23	3245	3755
Plasmas and fluids	68.2	0.47	836	824
Acoustics	66.5	0.49	257	249
Atomic, molecular, and electron	56.2	0.78	283	925
Physics in biology	55.7	0.78	201	180
Earth and planetary		0.78	581	486
Astrophysics and relativity	42.1	1.38	195	121
Optics	37.4	1.70	847	637
Miscellaneous	48.7	1.04	2718	1883
Physics (weighted average)	66.2	0.51		
Astronomy	80.7		483	657
Total 1968 and 1970 samples			12,5	99

Subfield unchanged, 1968—1970, as a fraction of 1970 total. Newcomers

Those Who Remained  $\frac{1 - \text{Solidarity}}{\text{Solidarity}}.$ 

<sup>\*</sup>With a minor deviation in the measured first competence mobility.

TABLE II.78 First Competence Mobility: Ranking by Subfield

Physics Subfield	Solidarity(%) <sup>a</sup>	Mobility Overlap $^b$
Elementary-particle	67	0.43
Condensed-matter	66	0.52
Nuclear	66	0.52
Plasmas and fluids	54	0.85
Earth and planetary	50	1.00
Acoustics	44	1.27
Physics in biology	43	1.32
Optics	42	1.38
Atomic, molecular, and electron	40	1.56
Astrophysics and relativity	36	1.78
Astronomy	54	0.85
Miscellaneous	38	1.63

 $\frac{a_{\text{Subfield unchanged}}}{b_{\text{Newcomers}}}, \ \frac{1968-1970}{1-Solidarity}, \ \frac{1-Solidarity}{Solidarity}$ 

A third category, with large overlap and mobility, includes optics and astrophysics and relativity. Acoustics and physics in biology show rather more overlap than mobility, placing them somewhere between intermedian and high-overlap mobility categories. The assumed relation between competence and mobility is well borne out in the data: The susceptibility implied by the large subfield overlap is matched by a significant flow of manpower over time.

Table II.79 presents the pattern of change based on first competence for earth and planetary physicists. The turnover of 52 percent is comparable with the average citation of competence outside the subfield, 51 percent, the complement of the average internal citation probability of 49 percent in Table II.73. The directionality of competence mobility with respect to the other

TABLE II.79 First Competence Mobility: Changes for PhD's in Earth and Planetary Physics, 1968—1970

234	465
	12,511
	234

subfields is the same as that given in the static overlap pattern and, as we have seen, the same as that manifest in actual subfield mobility.

We next examine the recent growth pattern of earth and planetary physics. Under normal conditions we would expect growth to take place in a pattern commensurate with the pattern of overlap. The interchange among subfields reflects this pattern, bur recent growth does not. In Table II.80, expectations are compared th changes from 1968 to 1970. The normal entering distribution, column 3, is proportional to the product of the total overlap with the other subfields, column 2, and the size of populations in those subfields, column 1. These data come directly from Table II.73. Only the relative size of expected entering groups has significance, and we have set a numerical absolute value of 30 for the grouping of plasmas and fluids; optics; and atomic, molecular, and electron physics for ease of comparison with the actual net flux of PhD's given in column 4. Comparison of normal and actual patterns of flux show a large number of people are coming from astronomy, three times the number expected on the basis of overlap-circulation characteristics. The flow of PhD's from traditional physics subfields, elementary-particle, nuclear, and condensed-matter physics, is only 50 percent higher than might be expected for isotropic growth. The importance of the relationship with astronomy was suggested in the analysis of the elite group of earth and space scientists at the beginning of this chapter. The flow of manpower from the traditional physics subfields is not sufficiently large to indicate substantial relief of the stress of limited resources that is said to exist. Although the data suggest no anomalous impedance to mobility, there is no sign of an enhancement that might be desirable.

To what extent is employer mobility a factor in subfield mobility? How much research redirection takes place in periods of unchanged institutional affiliation compared with changes concurrent with employer mobility? Table II.81 shows subfield mobility ac-

TABLE II.80 Normal and Actual Flux Distributions by Source

Source	Source Popula- tion	Overlap Distri- bution	Normal Entrant Distribution <sup>a</sup>	Actual Net PhD Entrant Distribution
Astronomy Plasmas and fluids; atomic, molecular, and electron; and optics	630 3250	11.3	6 30	18
Elementary-parti- cle, nuclear, and condensed-matter	7350	4.5	27	43

a(Population) × (Overlap), in arbitrary units.



TABLE II.81 Earth and Planetary Physics Subfield Mobility with and without Concurrent Employer Change: Number of PhD's and Median Age

Employer 1968—1970	E&P 1968 Number	Left E&P	E&P Both 1968 and 1970	Entered E&P Number	E&P 1970 Number	Net E&P Change	
University	169	54	115	87	202	33	
University	77	28	49	61	110	33	
Industry	101	31	70	28	98	-3	
Government	58	14	44	21	65	7	
Research center	9	5	4	. 5	9	Ó	
Other Unchanged, sub- total	414	132	282	202	484	70	
Median age	39.3		39.0		39.2	39	
Changed, subtotal	72	31	41	56	97	25	
Median age	32.4		33.5		33.9	33	
Total	486		323	258	581	95	
Median age	38.6		38.5		38.3		

cording to type of employing institution. Of 589 earth and planetary physics PhD's in 1970, 16.7 percent had changed employer since 1968; half of these 97 PhD's were under 34 years of age, and 58 percent of this employer mobile group entered earth and planetary physics for the first time. The other 42 percent had been working in this subfield before they changed jobs. The remaining 83.3 percent of the 1970 earth and planetary physicists were still employed by the same type of institution as in 1968. This employer static group was divided approximately 42 percent to 58 percent between newcomers and older established scientists.

Although employer mobile PhD's were somewhat more likely to have changed into earth and planetary physics than employer static ones, such a large age difference appears between those who changed and those who were static that typical early career effects account for employer changes more than would effects resulting from the subfield.

The composition of the 1970 earth and planetary physics PhD

group is summarized in Table II.82.
Among the employer static new earth and planetary physicists, industry showed the largest fractional growth (55 percent), universities somewhat less (43 percent), and other types of employment little increase.

If in the future one anticipates a larger commitment to earth and planetary physics as a result of employer mobility, the pattern of employer interchange between 1968 and 1970 should be examined. Table II.83 records the employer changes of earth and planetary physicists from 1968 to 1970. One seventh (14.7 percent) made such changes; of these, three fourths (73 percent) were university related-young PhD's leaving and some older ones returning.

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TABLE II.82 Mobility Composition of Earth and Planetary Physics PhD Population

Source	Number	Percent	Median Age
New PhD's Employer mobile PhD's	145 97	20 13	31.5 33.9
Employer static PhD's New to earth and	202	28	39.0
planetary physics In earth and planetary physics in 1968	282	39	39.2
TOTAL	726	100	37.4

The pattern of interchange between the university and other types of employment appears in Table II.84.

TABLE II.83 Changes in Employer, 1968 to 1970, for 502 PhD's  $_{\mathcal{A}}$  Working in Earth and Planetary Physics: Number and Median Age

	1970 Employer University Industry			Government Research Centers			Other	Other		Total 1968 Employer Distribution		
*****	No.	Age	No.		:0.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age	No.	Age
		38.4	. 9	30.7	11	33.5	8	32.0	t:	29.4	208	37.2
iniversity	176	33.5		41.2		20.2	2	34.5	2	40.5	87	40.9
ndustry	4		79	49.5		39.9	2	40.5	-		115	39.7
Government	8	34.5	;	45.5		45.5	_	39.	•	33.5	66	39.7
Research center Other	· 2	)4.5 31.8	2	44.5		29.5	2	36.5	•	39.5	26	34.5
Total 1970 distribution	198	37.7	92	40.7	122	39.4	72	38.5		36.5	502	38.9

474 changed employment; 428 remained in the same type of employing institution; total with employment known in both years was 502.

TABLE II.84 University and Other Employment Interchanges in Earth and Planetary Physics, 1968 to 1970

	1970 Employer	
1968 Employer	University	Other
University	176	32
Other employment	22	272

#### II.2 Samples of Special Populations

# II.2.1 CAREER CHOICES OF TALENTED MALE STUDENTS

At the start of the 1960's one sometimes heard it argued that we could and should greatly expand our national production of scientists by encouraging a larger proportion of the talented young people to choose scientific careers. Such arguments were based on the belief that of the population of people with the necessary aptitudes, only a minute fraction was going into science. Although the feeling that the United States needed more scientists was greatly muted by the end of the 1960's, one heard increasingly often the complaint that the best students were turning away from science. The bases for these arguments and complaints were sometimes merely subjective impressions, sometimes extensive statistics, such as those of Harmon\* correlating IQ scores with the obtaining of doctorates, or those of Nichols† on the study plans and career aspirations of National Merit Scholarship semifinalists. Having access to information on the life-long career activities of a group of people selected for academic aptitude with unusual care and thoroughness at the time of their graduation from high school, and without bias among fields, we undertook to investigate the distribution of these people among careers and ways in which this distribution might have changed during the last several decades.

# II.2.1.1 Nature of the Sample

The Summerfield Scholarships, established at the University of Kansas in 1929, are awarded each year to male graduates of high schools in the state on the basis of competitive examinations followed by person-by-person scrutiny. Occasionally they are awarded also to students already at the University. The awards have high prestige and are much sought after; they are made on the basis of scholarly promise alone, without bias for or against any field of study and without regard to the financial resources of the student. After the award is made, the student's financial resources are investigated and he is supplied with whatever supplemental assistance he needs to pursue his studies without financial worry. If, as is nearly always the case, the student's university work fulfills expectations, the scholarship is renewed each year until he graduates.

Each year the University issues a list of all alumni of this program, giving for each alumnus any advanced degrees he has received and his present employment. From 1933 to 1969 there were 509 alumni, of whom 18 had died and 13 were incompletely traced. Figure II.14 shows the number of Summerfield graduates by year of bachelor's degree. The numbers have fluctuated considerably from year to year, because of secular trends and because the number of



<sup>\*</sup>Harmon, L. R., Science, 133, 679 (1961).

Nichols, R. C., *Science*, 144, 1315 (1964).

Spamphlets titled University of Kansas Summerfield Scholars issued each April by the University of Kansas.

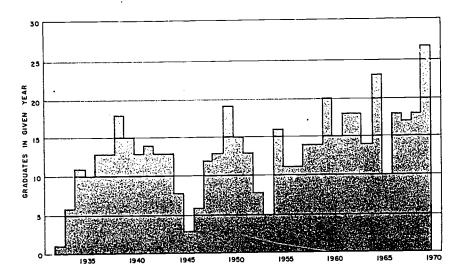


FIGURE II.14 Graduates of the Summerfield Scholar program by year of graduation.

scholarships that can be awarded in any year depends on the financial needs of the recipients. As the average number of scholars per year has risen only slightly from the mid-1930's to 1969, while the enrollment at the University has more than quadrupled during the same interval, it is reasonable to guess that the standards have risen at least slightly, though perhaps not greatly, as alternative scholarships and the like may have become more available. According to informal estimates by administrators and others familiar with the program, these alumni are probably typical of about the top 3 or 4 percent of graduates of the University of Kansas (henceforth referred to as KU). To gauge what this means on an overall national scale one must rate KU bachelor's degree holders relative to those of other institutions. According to a recent compilation,\* KU baccalaureates accounted for 373 of 80,978 U.S. PhD's in the years 1960-1966 (a fraction 0.0046). As the 1968-1969 enrollment was 16,964, compared with a national total of 5.77 million in four-year institutions (fraction 0.0029), it is probably conservative to conclude that the Summerfield Scholars have an ability level characteristic of the top 3 or 4 percent of U.S. college graduates.

It is interesting to compare the characteristics of this sample with those of Nichols's sample of National Merit Scholarship semifinalists. This category of students comprises a rather larger

†Nichols, R. C., Science, 144, 1315 (1964).



<sup>\*</sup>Doctorate Recipients from United States Universities 1958-1966. (NAS Publication 1489) Washington, D.C.: National Academy of Sciences, 1967.

fraction of college enrollments than the Summerfield Scholars do of KU enrollment; however, their selection process, based on test scores alone, is less careful and is not subject to modification after entrance into college. Only a small fraction of the National Merit Scholarship semifinalists applying for Summerfield Scholarships receive them. More serious, however, is that Nichol's data consisted only of career choices, expressed before entering college, and major fields of undergraduate study, whereas the Summerfield data refer to career positions into which the men settled a number of years after graduation. Nichols also gave some figures for another sample, of somewhat lower average ability, on changes in career choice between the year of entry into college and the year of graduation. These figures, unfortunately given for only one class, show such large changes that one is uncertain whether to interpret secular changes in career choices expressed on entering college as reflecting ultimate careers or as reflecting improved counselling.

#### II.2.1.2 Statistics on Eventual Careers

Figure II.15 shows the percentages of Summerfield Scholars graduating in various time intervals who have gone into each of several professions. Cross-hatched bars represent career positions, blank bars represent graduate or professional school students, and the bars with a question mark represent graduates with undergraduate majors in the field indicated but thom no data on present activity are available. (Past experience suggests that most of these are actually graduate students.) The data shown by the cross-hatched bars were based on the following definitions of the various professional fields:

- 1. Natural science and mathematics. Includes all those whose titles suggest that they teach science at the college level or engage in pure or applied research or its supervision. Psychology is included but not anthropology.
- Engineering. Includes all those whose titles suggest that they perform or supervise engineering work or teach engineering.
- 3. Medicine. Includes MD's engaged in any medicine-related work, dentistry, and possibly one or two other fields.
- 4. Law. Includes those engaged either in private law practice or as attorneys for business or public organizations.
- 5. Covernment administration. Includes administrators in national, state, or local agencies, other than military personnel.
- 6. Business. Includes administrators in private business organizations, exclusive of attorneys and those involved solely in research or engineering work. Includes accountants.
- 7. Social science teaching and research. Includes college faculty in social sciences, history, and anthropology and scholars in these fields employed elsewhere (but not in high school teaching).
- 8. Humanities. Includes college faculty in literature, philosophy, and the like, independent writers, etc., but not clergy, high school teachers, artists, or musicians.



9. Miscellaneous: Includes high school and grade school teachers, educational administrators at all levels, artists and musicians, military personnel, clergy, journalists, architects, and pharmacists.

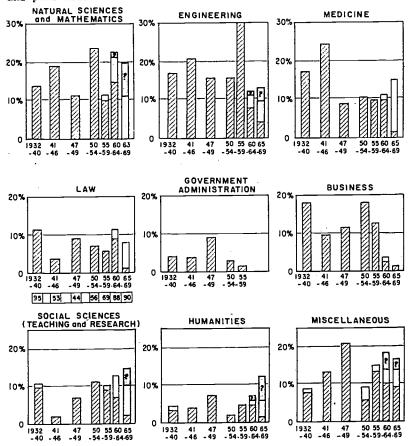


FIGURE II.15 Percentages of Summerfield Scholars, graduating in various time intervals, who have settled in various professions. Years of graduation are given at the bottom, the numbers of graduates in the various periods being

1932-40: 95 1955-59: 69 1941-46: 53 1960-64: 88 1947-49: 44 1965-69: 90 1950-54: 56

Shaded bars are men in jobs, unshaded bars are graduate and advanced professional students, and question marks are uncertain cases, classified by field of degree.

To the extent possible, graduate and professional students were assigned to one of these categories. Obviously students assigned to one could be expected sometimes to go into careers in another. Such a change is especially likely among students in the social sciences, who will often enter government or business. Medical students, in marked contrast, nearly always continue in medicine. It should be noted that the career distributions for the 1932-1940 classes were made from data available in the early 1950's; those for subsequent classes were made from 1969 or 1970 data. 'A comparison of the early and recent data for the 1941-1946 sample showed few career changes except for the expected migration, with increasing age, of a minority of the scientists and engineers into business or other administration.

Figure II.16 is an attempt to compare the Summerfield Scholarship data with those of Nichols on National Merit Scholarship semifinalists. The wide bars at the right and left of each diagram represent the Summerfield data for students graduating in each of two decades; as before, cross-hatching represents jobs, open spaces graduate or professional students, and question marks uncertain cases classified by undergraduate major. Nichols's data are represented in part by the narrow bars in between, which show pre-enrollment (freshman) choices of undergraduate major subject, averaged for the college entry years shown. The dumbbells represent the corresponding pre-enrollment preferences for eventual careers. As the change in career choices from freshman to senior years was available for only one class (entry 1957, graduation 1961), no precise three-year averages can be given for the senior year choices; instead, the lines with x's at the ends have been drawn in the 1958-1960 column at a height equal to the height of the dumbbell times the 1957-1961 ratio of senior-year to freshman-year preferences. The narrow bars for medicine refer to those planning enrollment in premedical curricula; no enrollment bars are given for law, because it is not an undergraduate option; all majors in social sciences (like the graduate students in Figure II.15) were placed under social science teaching and research; humanities were treated similarly.

So far we have concentrated on changes with time, and the Summerfield data are too sparse to permit subdividing them by field of science as well as by time period. If all data for classes  $^{>}$  1950 are taken together, we find that of the 50 or 60 men assigned to natural science in Figure II.15, at least 15 have entered physics. Two more, both with bachelor's degrees in engineering physics, are members of the American Physical Society (APS). If we restrict attention only to those in nonstudent jobs, the ratio is 13 or 14 of 33 or 34. Clearly physics has been getting more than its share of those especially gifted men. However, the data are not sufficient to refute the speculation that in the last decade physics has drawn fewer such men than, say, biology. Of the 13 in what are clearly physics jobs, the two oldest are APS Fellows; the others (PhD's since 1962, except possibly for one undated case) are a little young for this rank; only one is neither a PhD nor a graduate student and probably is finishing a thesis.

· \*: •

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A similar analysis of Summerfield graduates prior to 1950 shows 11 physicists from among 28 natural scientists. Of the 11, all but one have PhD's and six are APS Fellows.

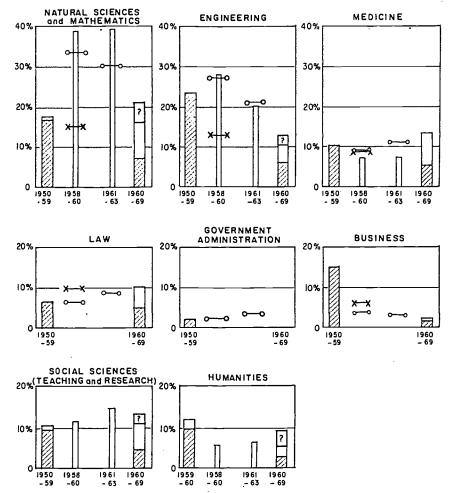


FIGURE II.16 Comparison of Summerfield-Scholar (SS) and Merit Semifinalists (MS, from Nichols) data. The broad bars at the left and right are the SS data of Fig. II.2, averaged 1950-59 and 1960-69, respectively. The narrow bars in between are the intended undergraduate majors of the MS samples. The dumbbells are career intentions at time of entry into college; the lines with x's are these multiplied by the ratio of senior to freshman intentions for the 1957-61 class.

#### II.2.1.3 Conclusions

In general the two sets of data in Figure II.16 appear reasonably compatible, when one makes allowance for their obvious limitations, for example, that increasing age increases the probability of involvement in business and government administration or that not all students planning to enter medicine enroll in an explicitly premedical major. Neither set of data gives convincing support for Nichols' implied conclusion that talented students are becoming less likely to adopt careers in basic science. The slight decrease in the level indicated by the dumbbells in Figure II.16 between 1958-1960 and 1961-1963 could well have resulted from improved counseling, that is to say, from a decrease in the difference between the dubbell and x levels, or the ultimate career choice. In regard to engineering, however, all three types of data suggest that Nichols may well have been correct in concluding that the inclinations of talented students toward this field is decreasing. If this finding is true—and better statistics would be needed to establish it with certainty—it could have important implications for the role of pure-science fields in the economy. It would partially nullify the argument, often made currently, that the increasing sophistication of engineering education is causing engineers (especially PhD's) to take over the role formerly played by physicists as the best reservoir of talent for technological tasks involving new and unfamiliar ideas. Although engineering training may be improving, this improvement may be offset by a decreasing number of the most highly talented youth who elect it; if so, it may be as necessary now as in earlier decades to draw on the pure scientists for technological innovations.

The data on physicists in the Summerfield sample, given in the last paragraphs of Section II.2.1.2, suggest that the ability level of the sample is about that of APS Fellows and show that among natural science students at this ability level, nearly a third have entered physics in the last few decades. (In the Nichols sample, from one half to a little less than one third of the National Merit Scholarship semifinalists planning majors in natural science fields planned to major in physics.) But a decline in enrollments in physics in the last few years, relative to other sciences, is suggested by the Nichols data and cannot be refuted by the Summerfield data.

# II.2.2 PHYSICS DOCTORATES WHO HAVE LEFT PHYSICS

A significant number of people, after beginning a career in physics, even with a doctorate, eventually move into other sciences or engineering or into entirely nonscientific fields. Projections of the balance between supply and demand in future years, such as those attempted in Chapter 12 of Volume I of Physics in Perspective, need to take into account this portion of the population. In planning both the scale and nature of graduate education in physics, one would like to know, among other things, to what extent these people are misfits who should never have studied physics and to what extent they represent an important channel for cross-fertilization of other professions, scientific, administrative, or educational. The study we report here was a highly preliminary one designed to ex-



plore one possible means of getting answers to some of these questions.

Examination of a list of nearly 500 people who had received doctorates in physics from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) between 1935 and 1959 revealed a number who, from their addresses or other information, were not in academic physics departments in 1970. These people were queried by mail regarding the way in which their careers have developed and the relation, if any, of their physics training to their present work. Replies received from slightly less than half indicated the following:

- 1. Only about one fifth said that more than half of their present work involved physics by extrapolation; therefore, one can guess that approximately one fourth of the MIT physics doctoral alumni of this vintage have moved into work that is primarily outside the scope of physics.
- 2. About one fourth of the responses were from presidents or vice presidents of companies working in communication, data processing, geophysics, and space and defense systems. This number extrapolates to about one in 14 of all physics PhD alumni. As expected, these men were somewhat older than the others, having received their doctorates some 25 ± 6 years previously; it had been 14 ± 7 years since the majority of their work involved physics. But all thought that their physics background was helpful to them in their present positions.
- 3. A somewhat larger fraction—corresponding to about one in nine of all the alumni studied—were now directors of research or engineering development in high-technology companies. They were somewhat younger than the group described in 2 above, 20 years on the average having elapsed since receiving the doctorate, and the present work of about 30 percent involved physics.
- 4. A third large group—extrapolating to about one in 12 of the alumni—were working in universities but not in physics departments.
- 5. A fourth and somewhat smaller group was self-employed, doing technical consulting for industry and the government. Approximately half of their vork was still related to physics.

The greater proportion of alumni, who have moved out of physics, is shown in Table II.85. Actually, the figures in the table probably reflect two effects. One is that motion away from physics is cumulative: opportunities to move into other professions, particularly administration, increase with the years, and once one has left physics one is unlikely to return. Another factor, however, has been the evolution of the physics enterprise. The vast expansion of university staffs and industrial physics research in the 1950's and 1960's created a great demand for physicists, including senior ones, which may have acted to keep a larger proportion of people in the profession than was the case for the same age groups in earlier years. In the 1970's a reversal of this trend may well occur. Interestingly, none of the persons surveyed spent more than six years in a physics department after receiving the PhD.

A valuable product of the survey, though one rather difficult to convey in a brief summary, was the collection of free-language com-



ments by the respondents. In these comments, and in their responses to questions on the value and relevance of their physics education, the overwhelming majority affirmed that their education in physics research had been of value in their careers. Moreover, three fourths of them said that their training in physics also had been of value to them for reasons other than its relevance to their work. Although research training was sometimes cited for its value in teaching methods of thought and working philosophy that may be applicable to other types of problems, there was an even stronger emphasis by many respondents on the exhortation that graduate training in physics should not be allowed to be too specialized. Courses in classical theoretical physics were the ones most often cited as being of particular value.

This study, incomplete though it is, gives some support for the view that doctoral training in physics, if not too narrowly specialized, can serve as a useful one of many possible channels for providing the nation with a diverse and innovative population of educational and industrial administrators.

TABLE II.85 Estimates of the Migration of MIT Physics Doctorates from Physics, as of 1970

Total Alumni	Estimated No. Who Left Physics	Fraction Leaving		
62	36	0.58		
56	14	0.25		
73	23	0.32		
160	50	0.31		
139	27	0.20		
490	150	0.31		
	62 56 73 160 139	Alumni Who Left Physics  62 36 56 14 73 23 160 50 139 27		

 $a_{\rm The}$  World War II years are separated, even though this makes the time intervals in the table unequal in duration.



III
DATA ON
FUNDING
AND
COSTS

III.1 General Survey of the Various Sources of Support for Physics Research

III.1.1 SOURCES OF INFORMATION AND DIFFICULTIES IN THEIR USE

The chapters of this report dealing with the funding of physics are all concerned with the support of research in physics, or of activities directly related to the research enterprise, as distinguished from the role of physics in such activities as general education, developmental engineering, and industrial production. Even so, ambiguities can arise in regard to how research is to be distinguished from these other activities and, of course, where the lines are to be drawn separating research in physics from research in other sciences and engineering. So perhaps we should begin this chapter with a few words about the delineation of our subject.

The conventional categories of research, for example, in the tables published by the NSF in its periodic report, Federal Funds for Research, Development, and Other Scientific Activities, are basic research, applied research, and development. Basic research is defined as "exploration of the unknown...primarily motivated by the desire to pursue knowledge for its own sake." Applied research is described as "finding the means to meet a recognized need." Development is defined as "systematic use of knowledge...directed to the production of useful materials, devices, systems, and methods." Although the distinction among these three activities provides a useful way of ordering one's thinking, it is difficult to make these distinctions precise or quantitative, because they depend—especially in the case of basic versus applied research—on knowing motivation. What is applied research in the mind of an administrator or official of a granting agency may be basic research to the

person doing the work, or vice versa. In recording their use of funds, different agencies may draw the dividing line in different places. For these and related reasons, we have chosen, in all our collection and analysis of funding data, to concentrate on research, without attempting to distinguish basic from applied, and to define it in the following way: Research is the generation of new knowledge that, soon after its generation, becomes a part of the publicly available archive of knowledge. A useful corollary of this definition is that research activity in physics can be studied through the primary journals, books, and other publications of the field.

The overlap of physics with other scientific and engineering fields is, of course, substantial. The nature and extent of this overlap are discussed in some detail in Section IV.1.1, in which we show that the citation structure of the scientific and technical literature can be used to provide a reasonably logical and objective definition of the boundary between two adjacent fields. Although application of this technique to the separation of funding for physics from that for other fields would be prohibitively laborious, it can be used, as described there, as a check on the reasonableness of the intuitive decisions on what is and is not physics that one must make in the course of assembling data. A few checks of this sort that we have made have given us confidence that the definitions of physics that we have used in the presentation of our data are reasonably consistent with the objective definition.

Although we have tried to apply our own definitions of research, physics, and even support whenever possible and to do so consistently, most of our data-gathering activities have had to rely extensively on the records of various organizations, particularly government agencies, and on the categories in which these records are kept. Because of the difficulties with definitions, to which we have just alluded, one is entitled to view all such data with some suspicion, and one would like to be able to check data derived from one source against those derived from a more or less independent source. The sources from which we have been able to obtain useful data on funding are the following:

- 1. Detailed records of federal agencies, studied with the aid of officials of these agencies. These records have been our principal source of information about the funding of physics by the DOD, NSF, AEC, and NASA.
- 2. Government publications prepared for other purposes. These include, in particular the Federal Funds series\* and the annual Statistical Summary of the AEC Physical Research Program.
- The acknowledgment of research support usually made in research articles in journals.
- 4. Queries made to small but carefully selected samples of universities and industrial research organizations.
- 5. Mention of government support made by respondents to the questionnaire for the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel.



<sup>\*</sup>Federal Funds for Research, Development, and Other Scientific Activities, issued periodically by the NSF.

The data obtained from source 1 are described in Section III.2. Those obtained from source 4 are discussed in Section III.3 and III.4 and those from sources 3 and 5 are the subject of the paragraphs immediately following.

III.1.2 NONDOLLAR DATA RELEVANT TO THE DISTRIBUTION OF SUPPORT III.1.2.1 Distribution of Support Acknowledged in Journal Articles

It is a fairly consistent custom in the physics literature for papers reporting work that has received support from sources outside the institutions with which the authors are affiliated to contain an acknowledgment of this support. By counting such acknowledgments one can get a good deal of information about the sources of support for work performed in various types of institutions and its distribution among the subfields of physics. The information is incomplete, of course, for the dollar amount is never stated and the relative contributions of different sources, when there is more than one, are not indicated. However, if reasonable allowance is made for these ambiguities, the results can provide a useful check on funding information obtained in other ways.

In our survey, members of the Statistical Data Panel examined all the articles published in a two-month period in 14 AIP journals and 29 non-AIP journals. The months used depended on availability, but all issues were published between mid-1969 and mid-1970. The total number of papers examined was 1200, 834 from AIP journals and 366 from non-AIP journals. Since the total number of physics papers published by U.S. authors in a year is estimated to be about 14,000,\* the sample represents slightly less than one tenth of the annual U.S. output of published physics papers. The distribution between AIP journals and non-AIP journals (mostly European) in the sample was roughly consistent with the known publication pattern of U.S. work.

The survey was conducted in the following way. All papers in each issue selected were examined. Only those papers that were regarded as physics and the authors of which were affiliated with an institution in the United States were counted. For each physics paper a subfield assignment was made and the nature of the performing institution and sources of support acknowledged were recorded. If no external source of support was acknowledged, support was credited to the authors' institution. Many complicated cases were encountered involving papers in which the authors represented several institutions, multiple sources of support were mentioned, and partial support was acknowledged. To increase the manageability of the data, the Panel chose as the least count 0.5, so that no paper



<sup>\*</sup>Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Figure XIV.32 or Table XIV.11.

<sup>†</sup>Compare, for example, Table IV.3 (in Chapter IV), also Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Table XIV.9.

was divided between more than two performer-support combinations, with omissions, when necessary, being assigned to the last-mentioned institutions or sources. A somewhat arbitrary decision on division of support among institutions or sponsors was required for about half of the papers.

The results are presented in a series of tables, which record the counts of various subfield-source-performer combinations. Table III.1 shows acknowledged sources of support by subfield. Table III.2 is a similar table but includes only research performed in universities. Table III.3 shows the institutional affiliation of authors of journal articles by subfield. Tables III.4, III.5, and III.6 show the patterns of support of the three major federal funding agencies for physics research by performing institution and subfield. The general picture resulting from these tables will be compared in Figure III.1 with that based on statements about government support made by respondents to the National Register. Both types of figures, which suffer, of course, from lack of calibration in dollars, will be compared with dollar data obtained from records of government agencies in the following subsection.

TABLE III.1 Acknowledgment of Support in Journal Articles, by Subfield  $^{a,\,h}$ 

Source of Support	A&R	AME	EP	NP	P&F	СМ	ESP	Bio- phys	Acoust	Opt	Other Phys.	Total	Percent
University	2,5	29.0	19.5	21.5	15.5	65.0	4.0	1.0	2.0	8.0	19.5	187.5	15.6
DOD	10.0	50.0	18.5	13.0	17.0	126.5	14.5	-	13.0	18.0	13.5	294.0	24,5
NASA	4.5	20.0	1.0	2.0	7.5	14.5	26.5	-	2.0	7.0	6.5	91.5	7.6
AEG	_	19.0	54.0	72.5	15.0	77.0	3.0	-	-	3.5	6.0	250.0	20.8
NSF	5.0	28.0	21.5	22.5	13.0	51.0	8.0	-	1.0	7.0	11.0	169.0	14.1
Other gov.	1.0	7.0	2.0	2.0	2.5	25.0	-	4.0	1.0	6.5	3.0	54.0	4.5
Industry	-	14.0	-	0.5	2.5	76.0	1.0	-	5.0	19.0	12.5	131.0	11.0
Nonprofit	_	1.5	1.0	0.5	-	5.5	1.0	-	-	2.5	0.5	12.5	1.0
Private	-	1.0	2.5	2.5	0.5	2.0	-	-	-	-	1.0	9.5	0.8
TOTAL	23.0	169.5	120.0	137.0	74.5	442.5	58.0	5.0	24.0	71.5	73.5	1200.0	100.0

Entries are numbers of papers sampled acknowledging support from the given source, with occasional fractional allocations as discussed in the text.



Subfield abbreviations used are A&R, astrophysics and relativity; AME, atomic, molecular, and electron physics; EP, elementary-particle physics; NP, nuclear physics: P&F, plasmas and fluids; CM, physics of condensed matter; E&P, earth and planetary physics; Biophys. blophysics; Acoust, acoustics; Opt, optics.

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TABLE III.2 Sources of Support Acknowledged in Journal Articles from Universities, by Subfield  $^{a,\,b}$ 

Source of Support	A&R	AME:	EP	HP	PSF	CM	E&P	Acoust	Opt	Other Phys.	Total	Percent
University	2.5	29.0	19,5	21.5	15.5	65,0	3.0	2.0	7.5	20.5	186.0	24.5
pop	10.0	37.0	17.5	7.5	11.5	88.0	4.0	5.0	9.0	9.0	198.5	26.1
NASA	2.5	11.5	-	0,5	4.0	10.0	18.0	1.0	4.5	2.5	54.5	7.2
AEC	-	7.5	42,0	31.5	7.0	26.0	2,0	-	1.5	1.5	119.0	15.7
SSF	5.0	28.0	21.5	22.0	13.0	51.0	7.0	1.0	6.5	12.0	167.0	22.0
Other gov.	-	1.5	-	-	1.5	10.0	-	1.0	1.5	4.0	19.5	2.6
Industry	-	-	-	-	-	1.0	-	-		_	1.0	0.1
Nonprofit	-	1.5	-	0.5	-	2.5	_	_	0.5	_	5.0	0.7
Private	-	1.0	1.5	2.5	0.5	2.0	-	-	-	1.0	8.5	1.1
TOTAL	20.0	117.0	102.0	86.0	53.0	255.5	34.0	10.0	31.0	50.5	759.0	100.0

Entries are numbers of papers, as in Table III.1.

TABLE III.3 Institutional Affiliation of Authors of Journal Articles  $^{a,\,b}$ 

Type of Institution	A&R	AME	EP	NP	P&F	СМ	E&P	Fiophys	Acoust	Opt	Other Phys.	Total
University	19	119	104	86	54	255	34	4	10	31	47	763
Industry	-	18	1	2	7	87	7	-	7	20	16	165
Nonprofit	_	4	_	3	2	14	_	_	_	6	-	29
Gov. in-house	2	13	2	6	4	35	8	1	5	10	4	89
Federally funded re- search and development center	1	17	14	39	8	57	11	-	2	4	6	159
TOTAL.	22	171	121	136	74	448	60	5	24	71	73	1205

Entries are numbers of papers, as in Table III.1



 $<sup>^{</sup>b}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote b .

 $<sup>^{</sup>b}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote b.

TABLE III.4 Distribution of Papers Acknowledging Support by the Department of Defense, by Subfield a, b

Institution Performing Reported Work	A&R	AME	EP	МР	P&F	CM	E&P	Acoust	Opt	Other Phys.	Total
University	10.0	37.0	17.5	7.5	11.5	88.0	4.0	5.0	9.0	8.5	198.0
DOD lab or DOD FFRDC	-	5.5	1.0	4.0	2.0	26.5	8.5	7.0	5.5	1.0	61.0
Industry	-	2.0	-	1.5	3.5	11.0	1.0	1.0	0.5	3.5	22.0
Other	-	5.5	-	-	-	1.0	1.0	-	3.0	0.5	11.0
TOTAL	10.0	50.0	18.5	13.0	17.0	126.5	14.5	13.0	18.0	13.5	294.0

 $<sup>^{\</sup>prime\prime}$ Entries are numbers of papers, as in Table III.1

TABLE III.5 Distribution of Papers Acknowledging Support by the Atomic Energy Commission a,b

Institution Performing Reported Work	AME	EP	NP	P&F	CM	E&P	Opt	Other Phys.	Total
AEC FFRDC	10.5	12.0	38.0	7.5	47.0	1.5	2.0	4.5	123.0
University	7.5	42.0	31.5	7.0	25.5	2.0	1.5	1.5	118.5
Industry	-	_	-	-	2.0	-	-	-	2.0
Other	1.0	-	3.0	0.5	3.0	•	-	-	7.5
TOTAL	19.0	54.0	72.5	15.0	77.5	3.5	3.5	6.0	251.0

Entries are numbers of papers, as in Table III.1.

TABLE III.6 Distribution of Papers Acknowledging Support by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration  $^{a,\,b}$ 

Institution Performing Reported Work	A&R	AME	EP	NP	P&F	см	E&P	Acoust	Opt	Other Phys.	Total
University NASA lab or	2.5	11.5	-	0.5	4.0	10.0	18.0	1.0	4.5	3.0	55.0
NASA FFRDC	2.0	7.0	1.0	0.5	2.0	3.0	5.5	-	1.0	3.5	25.5
Industry	-	1.0	-	1.0	0.5	0.5	4.0	1.0	-	-	8.0
Other	_	0.5	-	-	-	1.0	` <b>、</b> -	-	1.5	-	3.0
TOTAL	4.5	20.0	1.0	2.0	6.5	14.5	27.5	2.0	7.0	6.5	91.5

Entries are numbers of papers, as in Table III.1.



 $<sup>^{</sup>i}$  Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote b.Federally funded research and development centur.

Subfield abbreviations are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote 6.
Federally funded research and development center.

b Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1,

footnote b. CFederally funded research and development center.

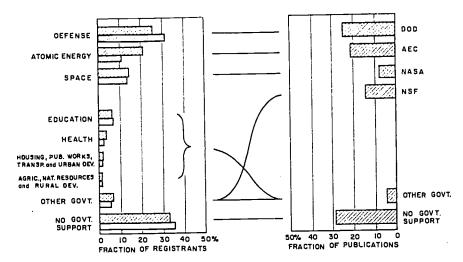


FIGURE III.1 Comparisons of sources of government support reported by respondents to the 1970 National Register (left, shaded bars for PhD's, unshaded for non-PhD's) with those acknowledged in a sampling of 1969 journal articles (right). The lengths of the bars on the left here represent the fractions of those (PhD's or non-PhD's) answering "yes" or "no" to the government support question who mentioned support from the program listed at the left; percentages add to more than 100% because of multiple-support cases. The lengths of the bars on the right, on the other hand, were obtained from the last column of Table III.1 and thus do add to 100%. The lines in the middle column indicate the correspondences between the categories of agencies used in the two studies, which are roughly one-to-one in some cases but are many-to-one in others.

# III.1.2.2 Statements on Government Support by Respondents to the National Register Questionnaire

One of the questions on the form for the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel deals with government support. In 1970 it was worded as follows:

Is ANY of your work being supported or sponsored by U.S. government funds? [Choices: yes, no, don't know] If yes, is your work related to any of the following programs: [Choices: agriculture, atomic energy, defense, education, health, housing, international, natural resources, public works, rural development, space, transportation, urban development, other program (specify)]

Like the acknowledgments of support discussed previously, these questions yield data on only the number of individuals who indicate that they receive some type of government support; a physicist who receives \$500 for summer salary supplementation and one who receives \$50,000 for a major research project are equated. Table III.7



shows the distribution of responses to the first part of the question. About 90 percent of the PhD's and 80 percent of the non-PhD's answered with yes or no. The ratio of yes answers to the total respondents declined between 1968 and 1970, for both PhD's  $(0.67 \rightarrow 0.60)$  and non-PhD's  $(0.59 \rightarrow 0.52)$ . Thus there seems to have been a decrease during this period in the proportion of physicists receiving federal support.

American Science Manpower presents comparable figures for other fields in 1968. Although 62 percent of physicists, all degrees, received federal support in 1968, only 43 percent of those in all fields included in this publication received such support. The only fields that depended more heavily on federal funds than physics were atmospheric and space sciences (88 percent) and agricultural sciences (70 percent).

TABLE III.7 Government Support by Academic Degree $^{\alpha}$ 

U.S. Government	PhD		Non-PhD	
Support	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
 Yes	9,956	59.9	10,188	51.7
No	4,958	29.8	5,626	28.6
Don't know	230	1.4	789	4.0
No answer	1,487	8.9	3,102	15.7
TOTAL	16,631	100.0	19,705	100.0

 $<sup>^{</sup>lpha}$ Data from the 1970 National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel.

Responses to the second part of the Register question give an indication of the sources of government support in 1970. However, the programs listed are more in the nature of functional fields than either disciplines or activities of specific agencies. For example, it is not clear where a person who had support from the NSF physics program would be able to respond. This ambiguity should be kept in mind in examining the distribution of responses presented in Table III.8. The main findings indicated by this Table are the following:

- 1. Defense, atomic energy, and space programs provide support for the highest proportion of both PhD's and non-PhD's.
- 2. A higher proportion of non-PhD's than PhD's receives support from defense activities, and a lower proportion of non-PhD's than PhD's receives support from atomic energy programs. The distribution of support from other government programs is much the same for PhD's and non-PhD's.



TABLE III.8 States Sources of Government Support, by Degree

	PhD		Non-PhD	
Source	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage $^{b}$
Defense	3,941	39.6	5,023	49.3
Atomic energy	3,235	32.6	1,838	18.0
Space	2,176	21.9	2,215	21.7
Education	1,049	10.5	1,141	11.2
Health	541	5.4	437	4.3
Housing, public works, transporta-	309	3.2	328	3.2
tion, and urban development Agriculture, natural resources, and rural	262	2.7	293	2.8
development Other	1,037	10.4	929	9.1
TOTAL	12,550 <sup>c</sup>	-	12,204°	-

 $a_{
m Data}$  from the 1970 National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel.

Figure III.1 compares the distribution of support among agencies, based on Table III.8, with the distribution of support acknowledged in journal articles (described in Section III.1.2.1). The distributions are similar, with one exception: the other government category for each of the two types of data constitutes a somewhat smaller percentage than one would expect from the presumed correspondence with several categories of the other. The major conclusion from the figure is, however, that the fraction of papers in Tables III.1—III.6 that did not acknowledge any government support probably is about the same as the fraction that, indeed, had no such support.

# III.2 Support of Physics Research by Major Government Agencies

That most of the funds for physics research in the United States come from a small number of government agencies made it possible for the Data Panel, in collaboration with liaison representatives



bPercent of those with government support (that is, of the 9956 PhD's and 10,188 non-PhD's) who indicate support from a particular program. These percentages do not add to 100 because of multiple responses.

 $<sup>^</sup>c$ Includes multiple responses. Apparently 2594 PhD's and 2016 non-PhD's indicated more than one source of government support.

of these agencies, to obtain a reasonable picture of the magnitude and distribution of the greater part of these funds. By detailed examination of the records of the agencies, it was possible to obtain dollar amounts for the expenditures on research in each of a number of subfields of physics, using definitions of research and of the boundaries of subfields that would be consistent from agency to agency. This procedure was much more satisfactory for our purposes than simply recording the categories into which the agencies organized their expenditures, as these categories are often not comparable from one agency to another and do not correspond to the subfield division used by the Physics Survey. This detailed survey of the funding of physics research was, however, deficient in a number of respects: Agencies providing only minor support to physics were not included, and even within the major agencies, the activities of some subdivisions were omitted; also, subfields such as physics in biology and earth and planetary physics, in which physics penetrates a large neighboring discipline, were covered only imperfectly. Nevertheless, the tables we will present show a reasonably valid picture of the funding pattern for most of physics.

#### III.2.1 DETAILED PARTIAL DATA

Table III.9 gives the data obtained from the government agencies that are the chief sources of support for physics research. The definitions of the subfields used were essentially those described in Section IV.1.1. However, there is no miscellaneous category (which accounts for about 4 percent of the U.S. physics literature\*); for the entries of this table, all support for miscellaneous physics was assigned to the most nearly appropriate one of the remaining subfield categories, including the interfaces, earth and planetary physics and physics in biology, which are not represented by rows of the table because their funding is inseparable from that of nonphysics disciplines.

Table III.10, similar to Table III.9, shows the distribution of DOD funding among the three major services.

It is interesting to compare these totals (which of course require some supplementation— see Critique of the Data, Section III.2.2) with DOD's breakdown according to discipline. Apparently most of what DOD classifies as general physics is physics research by our definition; most of what it classifies as nuclear physics is not; significant amounts of what we classify as physics research are found in other of the categories, such as chemistry or materials research.

# III.2.2 CRITIQUE OF THE DATA

Our first objective is to make some rough estimates of the magnitude of the expenditures for physics research by agencies or portions of



<sup>\*</sup>Physics in Perspective, Vol. II, Part B, Table XIV.11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Physics in Perspective, Vol. I, Table 10.A.10.

TABLE III.9 Expenditures by Federal Agencies for Research in the Various Subfields of Physics,  $1967{-}1970^{\prime\prime}$ 

Տսհ⊷ <sub>ե</sub>			s per Fi		r (in mi	111ons)	1070
Sub- field	Agency	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
A&R	$DOD^{\mathcal{O}}$	2.5	2.8	3.4	2.5	3.1	2.3
		0.8	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.3
	NASA <sup>d</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	_
	NSF	-	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.1	0.8
	Total	3.3	3.7	4.3	3.7	4.3	4.4
AME	$\mathtt{DOD}^{\mathcal{O}}$	4.4	4.4	4.4	3.7	4.8	4.4
	AEC ,	4.1	4.9	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.1
	NASA <sup>d</sup>	1.9	1.8	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.1
	NSF	1.6	1.0	2.2	2.1	1.7	1.5
	Tota1	12.0	12.1	13.0	12.6	13.5	13.1
EP	DOD	7.4	7.6	7.3	7.7	2.6	2.3
	AEC d	87.2	97.5	107.8	113.4	118.7	120.6
	NASA	0.1	0.1	0.05	0.05	-	-
	NSF	4.4	7.0	9.5	10.5	12.9	12.1
	Tota1	99.1	112.2	124.6	131.7	134.2	135.0
NP <sup>€</sup>	$\mathtt{DOD}^{c}$	9.6	7.9	6.4	4.6	4.9	4.4
MI	AEC _	51.6	61.1	69.7	73.3	77.5	83.8
	$\mathtt{NASA}^d$	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.4	1.4	1.2
	NSF	4.9	12.3	12.2	15.4	16.4	10.0
	Total	66.6	81.9	89.1	94.7	100.2	99.4
P&F	$\mathtt{DOD}^{\mathcal{O}}$	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.4	4.2	4.3
	AEC d	8.5	9.2	9.7	11.0	11.5	11.8
	$\mathtt{NASA}^a$	5.6	5.7	5.4	5.0	3.5	2.4
	$\mathtt{NSF}^J$	-	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7	1.0
	Total	17.7	19.0	19.2	20.7	19.9	19.5
CM	$\mathtt{DOD}^{\mathcal{C},\mathcal{G}}$	16.8	17.5	16.9	16.4	18.6	17.0
Gri	AEC d	21.9	24.6	26.5	28.3	29.4	29.9
	$NASA^d$	2.8	3.8	3.5	4.1	3.3	3.4
	NSF	4.0	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.1
	Total	45.5	51.3	52.5	·54.6	57.3	56.4
0=+	$\mathtt{DOD}^{\mathcal{C}}$	3.1	2.9	3.3	3.7	3.8	3.5
Opt	AEC	1.0	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.9
	$NASA^d$	0.4	0.7	0.9	1,3	1.4	1.3
	NSF	_	_	-	-	-	-
	Total	4.5	4.9	5.9	6.4	6.9	6.7
Acoust	$\mathtt{DOD}^{\mathcal{C}}$	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8		1.4
	$AEC_d$	-	-	-		- 0.00	
	$\mathtt{NASA}^{\alpha}$	0.05	0.05	0.07			
	NSF		0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.0 1.4
	Total	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.8	1.8	1.4

TABLE III.9 Expenditures by Federal Agencies for Research in the Various Subfields of Physics,  $1967\!-\!1970^{'2}$  (continued)

Sub- :		Dollar	s per F	iscal Yea	ar (in m	illions)	
Sub- field	Agency	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
A11	DOD	48.0	47.9	46.4	43.8	43.8	39.6
sub-		175.1	199.5	221.4	234.0	245.7	255.4
fields	AEC NASA	11.4	12.8	12.0	13.3	10.8	9.4
	NSF	14.9	25.8	29.7	34.1	37.8	31.5
	Total	249.4	286.0	309.5	325.2	338.1	335.9

 $^{lpha}$ The interfaces, earth and planetary physics and physics in biology, are omitted from this table, because their funding is difficult to separate from that of the relevant nonphysics disciplines.

 $^{h}$  Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote b.

Data from the fiscal supplement 6.1, "Defense Research Sciences" only; see "Critique of the Data" (Section 2.2) for rough estimates of the expenditures under element 6.2, Exploratory Development. Also, only funding by the three services has been included (see Table III.10); see Section III.2.2.

dData for activities of the Office of Advanced Research and Technology only; see Critique of the Data, Section III.2.2 for rough estimates of expenditures by the Office of Space Sciences and Applications and other NASA subagencies.

Data gathered separately and in somewhat greater detail than for the other subfields: See Volume II, Part A, Chapter II, especially Tables II.9 and II.10. Both operations and construction of facilities are included; they are listed separately in the tables cited. The figures refer to basic research only and thus may fail to include some work that would qualify as research under the definition used elsewhere in the table.

 $f_{
m Entries}$  undoubtedly too low: See Section III.2.2.5.

 $\mathcal{G}_{\text{Support}}$  from the Advanced Research Projects Agency through interdisciplinary materials research laboratories is not included on this line: See Critique of the Data, Section III.2.2 and Table III.11.

agencies not included in the preceding tables. One of the most useful sources of information for this purpose is the acknowledgment of research support in journal articles, the general pattern of which has already been discussed. We have supplemented this general study with some special samples of papers acknowledging DOD or NASA support.





TABLE III.10 Expenditures by the Three Services of the Department of Defense for Research in the Various Subfields of Physics, 1964-1970, with Estimates for 1971

Subfield	Service	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971
ASR	Army	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.01	0	0	0	(0)
	Navy	1.1	1.1	1.5	2.0	1.2	1.6	1.2	(0.5)
	Alr Force	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.1	(0)
AME	Army	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.6	(0.5)
	Navy	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.5	(0.6)
	Alr Force	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.3	2.7	3.8	3.3	(3.7)
EP	Army	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.07	0	0	(0)
	Navy	6.3	6.3	6.2	6.1	6.5	1.3	1.4	(1.6)
	Air Force	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	0.8	(0.3)
יוני <sup>(</sup>	Army	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	(0.4)
	Navy	6.6	6.8	6.8	7.4	6.1	4.0	3.9	(3.3)
	Air Force	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	(0)
P&F	Army	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	(0.4)
	Navy	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	2.0	1.7	1.7	(3.1)
	Air Force	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.3	(1.9)
СМ	Army	3.7	3.7	3.9	3.9	3.2	3.9	3.7	(3.8)
	Navy	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.7	4.4	3.4	(3.7)
	Air Force	11.0	11.4	11.9	11.0	10.5	10.4	10.0	(9.2)
Opt	Army	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.5	(0.6)
	Navy	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.5	(1.5)
	Air Force	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.6	1.5	(1.2)
Acoust	Army	0	0	0.02	0.02	0	0	0.05	(0.02
	Navy	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.8	1.3	(0.3)
	Air Force	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(0)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Data from the fiscal supplement 6.1, "Defense Research Sciences" only; see Critique of the Data, Section III.2.2 for rough estimates of the expenditures under element 6.2 "Exploratory Development." Also, only funding by the three services has been included (see Table III.10); see Section III.2.2.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>circ}\Lambda s$  in Table III.9, the interfaces, earth and planetary physics and physics in biology, are omitted.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathrm{O}}\mathrm{Subfield}$  abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote h.

 $<sup>^{</sup>cl}_{\rm Totals}$  in this row do not quite agree with Table III.9, for the data were compiled differently and, in particular, may reflect different assignments of long-term expenditures to years.

#### III.2.2.1 Miscellaneous Defense Agencies in DOD

In regard to support for physics research, the most important of the DOD agencies other than the three services has been the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA). During the 1960's, ARPA provided large-scale support for the creation and operation of interdisciplinary materials research laboratories at some dozen universities. The sums disbursed by ARPA for this purpose are shown in the top line of Table III.11.

TABLE III.11 Support of Interdisciplinary Materials Research Laboratories by the Advanced Research Projects Agency

Activity	Support 1964						Fiscal 1970	
Interdisciplinary materials research		17.5	17.7	16.7	1.4	9.6	5.9	4.0
laboratories <sup>a</sup> Physics	10.2	11.0	11.2	10.5	0.9	6.0	3.7	2.9

Support provided by the Advanced Research Projects Agency of the Department of Defense.

A sizable part of this support went for buildings and central facilities usable by workers in several disciplines, so it is less easy to estimate the amount allocable to physics than it is for individual-grant support. A sampling of records of 5 of the 12 laboratories showed a fraction 0.30 of the participating faculty members to be in physics or applied physics departments. However, much physics work in the laboratories is done by faculty of other departments (especially electrical engineering and metallurgy or materials science). A better indication of the distribution of effort among disciplines is provided by counts of publications. We have examined over 600 papers from four of the laboratories and find that about 63 percent of them can be classified as physics, largely condensed matter but with a sizable component also in atomic, molecular, and electron physics. Of the laboratories not surveyed in this count, some are known to have slightly more emphasis on physics than those surveyed, some slightly less. It seems reasonable to make a rough estimate of ARPA support of physics research in the interdisciplinary laboratories by multiplying the top row of Table III.11 by the factor 0.63; the results are shown in the bottom row. This augmentation of the amount spent for condensed-matter and atomic, molecular, and electron physics by the three services (Table III.9) is considerable; it was relatively



Rough estimates of approximate amount allocable to physics (0.63× the support received by interdisciplinary materials research laboratories from the Advanced Research Projects Agency).

largest in the years prior to 1967, when the laboratories were in the Browing phase.

The ARPA has also spent smaller sums in other types of support of physics research, as have several other defense agencies in addition to the three services. To obtain information on the distribution of DOD support within its subagencies, we sampled all papers in a one-month period in all primary journals published by the AIP. In this sample there were 129 papers from U.S. institutions acknowledging DOD support. The distribution of these among performing institutions and supporting subagencies appears in Table III.12. When allowance is made for the exclusions in the present sample and for the less complete range of journals covered, the distribution over institutions is reasonably consistent with that in Table III.4 and the distribution of papers among the three services is reasonably similar to the distribution of funds displayed in Table III.10. Thus it is logical to assume that, except for the broad institutional grants not reflected in the table and the ARPA support of materials laboratories, DOD support of physics research through other defense agencies has been slightly less than one tenth of that provided by the three services listed in Table III.10.

# III.2.2.2 Physics Research Support under DOD's Fiscal Category 6.2

Category 6.2, Exploratory Development, involves expenditures two to three times larger than category 6.1, Defense Research Sciences. If even a small fraction of 6.2 is physics research by our definition, it may significantly augment the total from category 6.1, which we have presented in Tables III.9 and III.10. With the cooperation of the Air Force Office of Scientific Research, we were able to trace the fiscal categories under which the 70 papers of our sample reporting Air Force support were funded. (The figure, 70, is greater than the Air Force total in Table III.12 because of a number of cases in which multiple support was acknowledged.) The distribution of these 70 papers is shown in Table III.13.

If these figures can be regarded as typical, it would be reasonable to augment the DOD totals in Tables III.9 and III.10 by about 20 percent to allow for the support of physics research, as we have defined it, through funds in category 6.2. The total augmentation from this source and that discussed in the previous paragraph would be about 25 percent to 30 percent.

### III.2.2.3 Other NASA Support for Physics

The picture of NASA's support for physics research can vary enormously depending on where the boundaries of physics are placed. Satellite-based lunar and space physics research, although within the scope of the Physics Survey Committee, is often difficult to separate from astronomical and earth-science research, and sometimes even from nonresearch activities conducted simultaneously; in any event, it is exceedingly expensive. As these extraterres-



TABLE III.12 Distribution among Performing Institutions and Sources of Support of a Sample of U.S. Papers Acknowledging Support from the Department of Defense  $^{\alpha}$ 

ent (N = 129)
ent (N = 129)
• ,

When more than one DOD subagency was acknowledged, or when two collaborating performers each acknowledged DOD support, fractional weights were assigned. Work at DOD-operated laboratories or other agencies receiving DOD funds is included, as is that of all federally funded research and development centers. Support from the Advanced Research Projects Agency is included only when specifically related to the research report (not merely support of interdisciplinary materials research laboratories).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Army Office of Research at Durham, North Carolina.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>Office of Naval Research.

d<sub>Air Force Office of Scientific Research.</sub>

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TABLE III.13 Categories under Which Support Was Granted for Work Reported in 70 Physics Research Papers Acknowledging Funds from the Air Force

DOD Category	Number	of Papers
Defense research sciences (6.1)	58	
General physics, nuclear physics, and astronomy and astrophysics Other categories (chemistry, electronics, etc.)		34 0 <u>24</u>
Exploratory development (6.2)	12	

trial programs have been discussed at length elsewhere,\*,† we shall try merely to develop a rough picture of the extent of NASA funding of laboratory, theoretical, and terrestrial field work. We shall not discuss the last of these in any detail; it will suffice to remark that in a sampling of papers appearing in journals in the earth sciences the content of which is largely physics, we found the sources of support acknowledged to be distributed among a wide variety of agencies, with DOD and NSF each acknowledged considerably more often than NASA; for extraterrestrial research the proportions were reversed.

Of greater concern is the distribution of support for the core subfields of physics among the different branches of NASA. This agency's report on its university program\* provides a helpful guide, since, according to Table III.6, of 59.3 NASA-supported papers in subfields other than astrophysics and relativity and earth and planetary physics, 34.5, or 58 percent, were from universities. A perusal of this document shows that about 94 of the 172 items classified by NASA as physics were operating under a current grant or contract in September 1969. However, only about 79 of these were in the core subfields of physics. Some approximate figures for the annual rate of funding reported there appear in Table III.14. Here, the category "Other NASA" represents for the most part funding through the various NASA in-house laboratories; the funds in general came from the Office of Advanced Research and Technology or the Office of Space Science Applications but in proportions that are not revealed in the data. The figures of Table III.14 need to be supplemented by estimates of physics work appearing in the listings under other classifications than physics. A sampling of the listings has convinced us that the amount of such university work in



<sup>\*</sup>NASA's University Program (Office of University Affairs, NASA, 1970). Mispagination made our survey incomplete, hence our use of the words "about" and "approximate" in the text.

<sup>†</sup>Physics in Perspective, Vol. II, Part B, Chapter IX.

the physics subfields covered by Table III.14 was rather less than the amount given in the Table, though quite possibly over half as great. Thus, the total FY 1970 NASA support for university work in these subfields was doubtless in the range of \$3 million to \$4 million, and probably closer to the lower figure.

TABLE III.14 Approximate Distribution among Subfields of Support from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration in 1969 (FY 1970) for Physics Research  $^{\alpha}$  in Universities

Physics Subfield	NASA, Fundi	ossa <sup>C</sup>	(in millions of dollars) Other NASA
Atomic, molecular, and electron	0.27	0.19	0.19
Plasmas and fluids	0.43	0.10	0.34
Condensed-matter	0.07	0.13	0.18
Condensed-matter Other subfields	0.15	0	0.05
TOTAL	0.92	0.32	0.76

 $a_{
m Research}$  classified by NASA as physics.

A tempting procedure for estimating the amount of NASA support through divisions other than the Office of Advanced Research and Technology (essentially the Office of Space Science Applications) for the core subfields represented in Table III.14 is the following: Combine the estimate just given for total NASA support of work in these subfields in universities with the assumption that the ratio of support for nonuniversity work (for example, in industry or in-house laboratories) to that for university work is the same as the ratio of numbers of publications as given in Table III.6. Unfortunately, this assumption does not always seem to be a reasonable one: Well over half of the NASA-supported papers in this table are from universities, yet even our highest estimate for the dollar amount of support of such work is less than half of the amount recorded in Table III.9 for support by the Office of Advanced Research and Technology alone. Examination of particular subfields reveals that this discrepancy is not present for atomic, molecular, and electron physics but is pronounced for plasmas and fluids and condensed-matter, as well as for the sum of the remaining core subfields. In general, we can write, using an obvious notation for different components of expenditure F,



 $<sup>^</sup>b$ Office of Advanced Research and Technology.

 $<sup>^{</sup>c}$ Office of Space Science Applications.

 $d_{
m Not}$  including earth and planetary physics, astrophysics and relativity, and physics in biology.

$$F_{\text{NASA}} = F_{\text{OART}} + F_{\text{Other}}$$

$$= F_{U} + F_{\text{non-U}}$$

$$= F_{U} \left( 1 + \frac{25}{34.5} r \right)$$
(1)

where the first line represents the division between sources of funding within NASA, the second line the division between performers receiving the funds, and, in the third line, the ratio 25/34.5 is the ratio of papers sampled from nonuniversity to university performers in Table III.6, and r is the ratio of cost to NASA per non-university paper supported to cost per university paper supported. (As in Table III.14, we are excluding the important interfaces, earth and planetary physics, astrophysics and relativity, and physics in biology.) Even with what would seem to be the quite extreme assumptions  $F_U = \$4$  million, r = 3, Equation (1) still gives for  $F_{\text{Other}}$  only a minor fraction of  $F_{\text{OART}}$ .

Since NASA does not contribute much of the support for the most expensive types of research in elementary-particle, nuclear, and plasma physics (although it does support some research on plasmas), it is not unreasonable to make a rough estimate of the total amount of NASA support for research in the core subfields from the counts of papers in Table III.1. Such an estimate gives, for example, a NASA activity equal to about 39 percent of that of the NSF. This estimate again would be consistent with augmenting the NASA figure given in Table III.9 by no more than about one third. Thus we believe that a minor augmentation of this order is the appropriate one for the core subfields. The large expenditures that NASA certainly makes in physics-related fields are undoubtedly concentrated in the astronomical and earth and planetary subfields.

Before concluding this section we should comment on the unusually wide range of numbers that one can obtain for NASA support of research by consulting different sources. For example, the figures reported in the NSF's Federal Funds for Research, Development, and Other Scientific Activities show some \$90 million for basic research in elementary-particle physics, whereas one almost never encounters an elementary-particle physics paper with an acknowledgment to NASA. Apparently a different definition is being used. The same NSF publication reports nearly \$60 million of NASA funds for basic research in universities, and a comparable figure for applied research and development in universities, whereas the grants and contracts listed in NASA's University Program as active in any given year add to a much smaller figure. Clearly, definitions of what is included are critical in interpreting dollar figures. We believe that the figures we have developed here, although only approximate, are reasonably correct for NASA's support of publishable physics research in the core subfields.

# III.2.2.4 Other Federal Agencies

According to Table III.1, the number of physics papers citing support from federal agencies other than DDD, AEC, NASA, and NSF is

a fraction about 0.067 of the number citing support from these a-gencies; if we restrict ourselves to the core subfields (excluding astrophysics and relativity, physics in biology, and earth and planetary physics) the fraction is 0.077. Undoubtedly, the agency responsible for most of this other government support is the National Bureau of Standards; however, occasional support from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (especially in physics in biology) and from other agencies is encountered. Table III.15 shows the distribution of support by the National Bureau of Standards in FY 1970. Figures for the Office of Standard Reference Data are separated from the others; although for the most part this work is not the generation of entirely new knowledge, it represents a consolidation of knowledge that is vital for the progress of research effort and provides an example that other research-supporting agencies would do well to emulate.

TABLE III.15 Amounts Expended by the National Bureau of Standards for the Support of Physics Research and Consolidation of Research Results, FY 1970

Physics Subfield	Research Units	osrd <sup>a</sup>	Total
Astrophysics and relativity	0	0	0
Atomic, molecular, and electron	2.53	0.55	3.08
Elementary-particle	0.43	0.02	0.45
Nuclear	1.42	0.04	1.46
Plasmas and fluids	1.08	0	1.08
Condensed-matter	2.80	0.40	3.20
Earth and planetary	0.30	0	0.30
Physics in biology	0.05	0	0.05
Optics	0.74	0	0.74
Acoustics	0.33	0	0.33
Miscellaneous physics	0.72	0.15	0.87
TOTAL	10.39	1.16	11.55

and Office of Standard Reference Data.

#### III.2.2.5 Consistency of the Funding Picture

It has become clear in the course of this discussion that one can get wildly different numbers for the funding of research in any subfield of physics, depending on the definitions one uses of research and of the scope of the various subfields. Our philosophy has been to identify funding levels for research, be it basic or applied, defined as the production of new knowledge that becomes part of the generally accessible public record and to delimit



physics from other disciplines and the subfields from one another by judgments that will be consistent with the pattern of citations in the research literature (see Section IV.1.1). Thus one should be able to compare the funding figures that we have developed with the acknowledgments of research support found in a random sample of papers in the literature, as given in Table III.1. One does not expect proportionality of dollars with acknowledgments: Some subfields are much more expensive than others; some agencies concentrate on the support of expensive subfields or the support of expensive facilities in these subfields; with some subfields or agencies, support may tend to be more nearly total than in others. But one would like to feel that any differences in the patterns of dollar support and acknowledgments are reasonable, with allowance for known effects of these kinds.

Figure III.2 shows this comparison. In regard to the distribution among agencies, shown at the top of the figure, the comparison is quite reasonable: The vastly larger relative dollar expenditures by the AEC are understandable in view of the great expense of the large machines used in elementary-particle and nuclear physics and to some extent also in plasma physics; these are supported almost entirely by AEC. The same factors account for the anomalies in the distribution over subfields, shown at the bottom of the figure.

A detailed breakdown by both agency and subfield is hardly worth making, as the entries in Table III.1 suffer from small-number statistics. However, examination of the entries does reveal at least one shortcoming in the funding figures of Table III.9: The figures for funding of research in plasma physics and the physics of fluids by the NSF are undoubtedly too small. Apparently a considerable amount of work supported as engineering, mathematics, or some other nonphysics discipline actually appears in the physics literature as physics.

# III.3 Industrial Support of Physics Research

The fairly large contribution of industrial organizations to the support of physics research in the United States, although almost entirely localized in their laboratories, is not easy to isolate, because the same organizational units often perform not only research but development and other activities. Therefore, we decided to investigate this support by requesting relatively detailed information from a small but representative group of industrial laboratories. As a by-product, useful data relevant to other portions of this report were obtained; these will also be presented and cross-referenced from the appropriate other sections.

### III.3.1. RATIONALE OF THE SAMPLING APPROACH

Because we are interested in the support of research, defined as the production of published new knowledge, we undertook first to find out how the volume of publication in physics journals is distributed among U.S. industrial laboratories. By counting publica-



tions in physics journals listed in the Corporate Index section of the 1969 Science Citation Index, we identified about 40 laboratories with high publication rates in physics. The leading 25 of these are listed in Table 9.3 of Volume I of Physics in Perspective. The extent to which U.S. industrial research is concentrated in these leading companies can be ascertained by comparing the total of their publications with the total published from all U.S. industrial sources. One can do this crudely by comparing the total

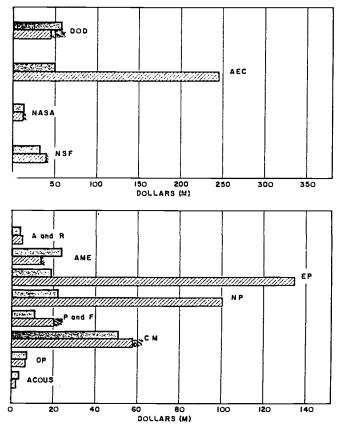


FIGURE III.2 Comparison of estimated dollar distribution of federal funding with counts of physics papers acknowledging federal support. Shaded bars are totals for FY 1969 from Table III.9, terminated in some cases by regions of opposite shading to take account of augmentation estimates in Section III.2.2. Open bars (arbitrary scale) are proportional to number of acknowledgments in Table III.1. Top: distribution over major agencies, work in all subfields exclusive of earth and planetary physics and physics in biology. Bottom: distribution over subfields for work funded by the four major agencies. Note differing scales of dollars.



of 2179 papers from the 25 companies in Table 9.3 with the total estimated physics papers from all U.S. industrial organizations, 2900, given in Table XIV.11 of Volume II, Part B of Physics in Perspective. The ratio of these two numbers is 0.75; however, one might doubt the validity of this comparison, since one group of papers represented publications in any kind of journals deemed to be physics journals and the other represented research articles in physics appearing in any publication covered by Physics Abstracts. However, the ratio is remarkably close to that obtained in an independent sampling of articles in some 16 journals in which 216 articles from these 25 companies were found compared with a total of 293 from all industrial organizations. The ratio of these two numbers is 0.74. Thus it is fairly safe to conclude that a sample drawn properly from these 25 organizations and others of only slightly lower productivity should be adequate to characterize physics research in U.S. industry as a whole.

A representative sample from industry should have two characteristics: It should contain proper representation from both large and small laboratories, and it should take into account the different research patterns typifying different types of industries (electronic, aerospace, chemical, and the like). We sought detailed information from 21 companies, fairly evenly distributed among six types of industry shown in the tables that follow. Confidentiality of replies was promised, and usable data were received from 18 of the 21.

To make it as convenient as possible for our respondents to give answers that would have a relatively clearly defined meaning, we requested data from only a single organizational subunit of each company, generally the one with the greatest research activity in physics. For each subunit we requested the following information:

- Staff: total professional staff; number working as physicists; physics and nonphysics doctorates; theoretical physicists.
- 2. Costs: total cost for all work done by the research unit; relative cost per professional for physics and nonphysics work; fraction of costs paid by company, government, and other sources.
- 3. Publications: fractions of work appearing in publications, patents, under security classification, or for internal use only; number of published papers in all fields; number published in AIP journals.
- 4. Time trends: changes since two, five, and ten years ago in physics manpower, cost per professional per year; expected changes in manpower in the next two or five years.

Our respondents were asked to select the administrative subunit on which to report in such a way that its characteristics would typify the greater part of the physics research done by the company.

# III.3.2 RAW DATA

Table III.16 shows the staff composition of the organizational units sampled. The reader must be cautioned against drawing infer-



TABLE III.16 Manpower Data from 18 Industrial Research Organizations (1970)

	Types of Industry	dustry					
	Communica-		Optical or Other	Aircraft			Total
Types of Data	Electronic	Other	Instru-	and	Chem. and	Misc.	Units
Supplied	Data Proc.	Electronic	mentation	Space	Metallurg.	Mfg.	Sampled
No. of companies	7	7	2	3	3	2	18
sampled							
Total tech. staff	882	928	50	358	597	578	3375
professionals in							
units sampled							
Doctorates on	627	462	21	192	364	260	1926
tech, prof. staff							
Fraction	0.71	0.47	0.42		0.63	0.45	0.57
Range	0.67-0.97	0.40 - 0.94	0.36-0.48	0.45-0.76	0	0.37-0.54	
Physicists in	302	255	30			126	1053
units sampled							
Fraction	0.34	0.28	09.0	0.77	0.11	0.22	0.31
Range	0.20-0.90	0.17-0.81	0,60-0,60	0.56 - 1.0	0.06-0.13	0.20-0.23	
PhD physicists	272	194	16	150	47	9/	755
Fraction	0.00	0.76	0.53	0.55	0.72	0,60	0.72
Range	0.70-0.90	0.63 - 1.0	0.47-0.60	0	0.46-0.87	0.51 - 0.71	
Theoret, physicists	52	19	0	55	7	æ	141
Fractional growth							
total phys. staff <sup>d</sup>							
Since 1960	$0.30\pm0.02$	$0.23 \pm 0.70$	ı	1	0.40±0.85	0.55±0.20	ı
Since 1965	-0.08±0.04	$-0.15\pm0.10$	$0.40\pm0.10$	0±0.30	0±0.10	0.20±0.05	-0.02
Since 1966	$-0.01\pm0.07$	$-0.14\pm0.05$	$-0.05\pm0.15$	-0.14±0.05 -0.05±0.15 -0.25±0.05 -0.05±0.07	-0.05±0.07	-0.02±0.07	-0.11
Est. by 1975	$0.02\pm0.05$	$-0.09\pm0.11$	0.15±0.15	0.05±0.05	$0.10\pm0.05$	$0.05\pm0.05$	0.014
Averages weighting each organization's percentage by the size of staff involved. Numbers following	each organi	zation's per	centage by	the size of	staff invo	lved. Numbers	following ±

are standard deviations for the group.

ences about the total research staffs of the various types of industries from the data shown. Each company supplied data only for a certain organizational subunit, so chosen that its work in physics could be considered typical of that of the company as a whole but by no means necessarily having the same proportion of physicists and nonphysicists as would obtain for those engaged in research throughout the company. Caution also is necessary in regard to other characteristics of the sample. For example, that the ratio of physicists to total staff is smaller for the chemical and metallurgical and miscellaneous manufacturing categories than for the others may well result from the obviously lesser physics orientation of the research programs of these types of companies. Because of this lesser orientation toward physics, they are less likely to have an organizational subunit with a high proportion of physicists.

The proportion of theoretical physicists is highest in the communication and electronic data-processing, aircraft and space, and chemical and metallurgical industries and is low elsewhere. This circumstance undoubtedly affects the relative cost of physics research.

The final rows of the table show a fairly consistent picture of growth during the early 1960's, retrenchment at the end of the 1960's and anticipated modest growth in the 1970's. As might be expected, there are substantial fluctuations from company to company within each group. Not surprisingly, the most violent fluctuation has occurred in the aircraft and space companies.

Table III.17 gives a similar presentation of data on the cost

TABLE III.17 Funding Data from 18 Industrial Research Organizations (1970)

Types of Data Supplied	Type of Inc Communica- tion and Electronic Data Proc.	Other Elec-	Optical and Other Instru- mentation	and	Chem. and Metal- lurg.	Misc.
Cost of work (\$K) per professional per year	65	67	65	51	49	62
Range	51-80	53-94	6070	35-75	5070	45-76
Approx. physicist cost/mean cost Average fractional	1.00	1.05	1.05	1.00	0.93	0.90
increase in cost/						
Since 1960	0.60	0.56	_	0.45	0.50	0.55
Since 1965	0.18	0.23	0.30	0.27	0.35	0.23
Since 1968	0.13	0.08	0.10	0.15	0.30	-
Average fraction of costs sup-						
ported by Own company Government	0.98 0.02	0.85 0.15	0.44 0.56	0.28 0.72	1.00	1.00

of research and other work performed by the units sampled. Although there is again some fluctuation from organization to organization within each group, the average cost of work per professional staff member is remarkably constant among groups. Also, the cost per staff member for work in physics is always considered as close to the average of all work done by the organizations. The middle lines of the table indicate a fairly steady increase in the cost of research during the past decade, at a rate of about 4.5 percent per year.

The last two rows of the table are significant, for any estimate of the contribution from private enterprise to the support of physics research must take into account that an appreciable fraction of the work done in industrial laboratories is supported not by the companies concerned but by the government. This proportion is particularly high in the instrumentation and aircraft and space categories. However, some companies in other categories operate completely federally funded research and development centers; these are excluded from both our present sampling and the analysis that follows.

Table III.18 presents statistics on research publications by the units sampled. The ratio of papers appearing in AIP journals to the total is a rough, though by no means infallible, measure of the degree of emphasis on physics in these organizations. The ratios correlate generally with the fraction of staff who are physicists, shown in Table III.16. The chemical and metallurgical and miscellaneous manufacturing categories have the lowest figures. The miscellaneous category also has a rather low fraction of its physics research appearing in published form; however, this finding may be an artifact of the choice of organizational subunits. The amount of work eventuating in patents seems to be particularly high in the optical and instrumentation category, and the chemical and metallurgical laboratories have a substantial number of doctoral-level staff members who publish little.

## III.3.3 ANALYSIS AND INFERENCES REGARDING INDUSTRIAL FUNDING

Our procedure for estimating the amount of support contributed by U.S. industry to research in physics will be, in essence, to find the expenditure for such research by the organizational units of the sample and to multiply this by the ratio of the total amount of U.S. industrial physics research to that performed by the organizations sampled. We shall try to do this in as thorough a manner as possible, taking account of possible differences in the research patterns of different types of companies. We should point out, however, that our sample is not only fairly representative of the distribution of physics research over different types of companies but even constitutes a large fraction of the total population we wish to consider, in that the organizations sampled contribute nearly one third of all the physics publications from U.S. industrial laboratories, and the total output from the companies in which these suborganizations reside is about two-thirds of the national total. Consequently, our extrapolation will not have to be by a large factor.

TABLE III.18 Publications by Industrial Research Organizations in a One-Year Period (1969-1970)

Types of Data Supplied No. of companies sampled Total papers pub- lished by units sampled No. of papers in Alp journals Average fraction	Type of Industry Communica- tion and Electronic Ot Data Proc. El  4 705 42 288 16	her ectronic 4	Optical or Other Instru- mentation 2 37	Aircraft and Space 3 195	Chem. and Misc. Mfg. 3 2 157 240 22 53	Misc. Mfg. 2 240 53	Total Units Sampled 18 1759
	0.89±0.05	0.72±0.13	0.70±0.10 0.80	0.80	0.68±0.28	0.42±0.30	≈0.75
	90.0760.0	0.23±0.05	0.13±0.08	0.04±0.03	0.02±0.02	80.0	1
or internal or classified	0.02±0.05	0.05±0.05	0.17±0.02	0.16±0.02 0.30±0.30	0,30±0,30	0.50±0.35	1
use only ublications per $a$ PhD staff member	1.00±0.65	0.87±0.30	2.00±1.20	1.15±0.10	1.15±0.10 0.41±0.10	0.92±0.08	0.91

 $a_{\rm Averages}$  weighting each organization proportionally to its size. Numbers after  $\pm$  are standard deviations for each group,

An essential ingredient of the extrapolation to national totals is a knowledge of the ratio of physics research publication by the units sampled to that from all U.S. industrial organizations. We shall assume that this ratio is given by the ratio of numbers of research papers in AIP journals. The entries in the third column of Table III.18 give the number of such papers for each category of the organizations sampled. Respondents were instructed to include only research papers and letters, not abstracts. For comparison, we have sampled all AIP research journals, the more important ones for a two-month period, others for a one-month period, and have recorded the number of articles of which the first-named author was attached to an industrial research organization. The resulting figures extrapolate to a yearly total of about 1470 papers. This

The figures in Table III.18 require a slight correction before they can be compared with the one just derived. In the estimated yearly total, 1470, each paper is counted but once; each was assigned to the institution of the first-named author, or, equivalently, each sponsoring institution was assigned a fractional weight when there was collaboration between institutions. The figures in Table III.18 undoubtedly have no such fractional weighting for collaborative efforts. A rough sampling of papers suggests that the correction for this effect should amount to about 10 percent. Accordingly, we estimate that the fraction of the U.S. industrial research effort in physics accounted for by our sample is approximately

Fraction = 
$$\frac{614}{1.1 \times 1470}$$
 = 0.38. (2)

To estimate the distribution of physics publishing activity among the types of industrial organizations, we again made use of the sample of AIP journals mentioned previously, developing a general classification of each performing institution into one of the six categories used in the preceding tables or, occasionally, relegating it to an unclassified or unknown category. The results appear in the first column of Table III.19. If, for want of better information, we assume that the few companies in the other or unknown category resemble the weighted average of the others in such respects as fraction of physics work supported by government and fraction published, we can infer a set of weights with which the six categories we sampled should be combined to give a reasonable national average. These weights are shown in the second column of Table III.19; merely for comparison, we show in the penultimate column, in parentheses, the distribution of papers in AIP journals from the units in our sample, that is, the ratios of the third line of Table III.18 to the total in the final column. The general resemblance of these to the numbers in the column showing weight factors justifies the statement that our sample is fairly representative of the distribution of physics research among different types of companies.





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TABLE III.19 Contributions of Different Types of Industries to Physics Publication and Support of Published Research

Type of Industry	Papers in an AIP Journal Sample	Weight Factor	Fraction of AIP Papers in Sampled Or- ganizations	SMillion Contri- bution to Fund- ing from Re- sources of Sam- pled Organiza- tions [Eq. (2)]
Communication and electronic data processing	104	0.37	(0.47)	16.3
Other electronic	59	0.22	(0.26)	10.9
Optical or other instrumentation	26	0.10	(0.03)	0.6
Aircraft and space	39	0.14	(0.12)	3.2
Chemical and met- allurgical	33	0.12	(0.04)	2.0
Misc. manufactur- ing	10	0.05	(0.09)	3.0
Other or unknown	22	-	-	_
TOTAL	293	1.00	(1.00)	36.0

We shall try to estimate the support of physics research from company funds by first estimating the amount of such support for each category of units in our sample end then combining these with suitable weights. For a crude first approximation, one could ignore the differences between different types of industries and take the expenditure for our whole sample allocable to published research and divide it by the ratio (2). But to get the first of these quantities we must make allowance for all works not being destined for publication and for support of some work from government funds. Thus for any organization or group of organizations we have

$$E = \text{company expenditure allocable}$$
to published physics research
$$= c_{\text{ph}}^{N} p_{\text{ph}}^{f} P_{\text{tub}}^{F} \text{own}, \qquad (3)$$

where  $c_{
m ph}$  is the cost of work per physicist staff member, that is to say, the product of the two top rows of Table III.17,  $N_{
m ph}$  is the number of physicists,  $f_{
m Pub}$  is the fraction of physics work published, and  $F_{
m own}$  is the fraction of work supported from company funds. In writing this equation we assume that the last fraction is about the same for physics as for other kinds of work of the organizational units sampled. With an average of about \$60,000 for  $c_{
m ph}$ . 0.75 for  $f_{
m Pub}$ , and 0.85 for  $F_{
m own}$ , we get about \$40 million for the quantity (3) for our entire sample. Dividing by the 0.38



of Eq. (2) gives a roughly estimated national expenditure of \$105 million annually of industrial funds for publishable physics research.

A more refined calculation would evaluate Eq. (2) separately for each category I of organizations in our sample and combine these according to the formula

 $E_{\rm US} \; \stackrel{\rm national \; expenditure \; of \; industrial \; funds}{\rm allocable \; to \; published \; physics \; research}$ 

= 1.1 
$$P_{\text{US}}(AIP) \sum_{I} \omega_{I} \frac{E_{I}}{P_{I}(AIP)}$$
, (4)

where  $w_I$  is the weight factor given in Table III.19,  $P_I(\text{AIP})$  is the number of AIP papers from category I (third row of Table III.18),  $P_{\text{US}}(\text{AIP}) = 1470$  is the estimate given for the number of papers published annually in AIP journals from U.S. industrial organizations, and the factor 1.1 is the multiple authorship correction we have already used in deriving Eq. (2). The result is close to the rough estimate of the preceding paragraph:

$$E_{\rm US}$$
 = \$98 million (5)

for the one-year period, mid-1969 to mid-1970. The  $E_{\mathcal{I}}$  values used in this calculation are given in the last column of Table III.19.

### III.3.4 CRITICAL COMMENTARY

There are several possibilities for systematic errors in this estimate, though we hope that none are catastrophically large. We have mentioned the assumption that the fraction  $F_{
m OWN}$  given in Table III.16 is applicable to the physics portion of the work. Another question concerns the assumption that the costs of physics work can be estimated from the top rows of Table III.17 and the fraction of the staff who are identified as working as physicists. As we shall see in Section IV.1.3, many papers whose content is clearly physics are produced by persons who identify primarily with some other discipline. There is a compensating effect in that some of the work published by physicists may pertain to a nonphysics discipline; moreover, that our questionnaire referred to people working as physicists helps to reduce the overlap effect. The alternative assumption that the funds expended by the organizational units sampled were distributed between physics and nonphysics in proportion to the amounts of physics and nonphysics publication undoubtedly greatly overestimates the expenditure on physics. If one assumes the ratio of AIP publications to total publications in physics as about 0.6, this approach would lead to an expenditure on physics about half again as great as that which we have derived. In view of the higher rate of publication in physics than in the more applied disciplines, this discrepancy is by no means unreasonable. Thus we believe that the value given in



Eq. (5), although it may be a slight underestimate, is probably a fairly realistic figure.

The fraction of physics costs supported from government sources is appreciable: The weighted average of the entries in Table III.17 is about 0.15. It is interesting to compare this ratio with the ratio of papers from industrial performers acknowledging government support to those acknowledging no such support. The latter ratio can be obtained from Tables III.1, III.4, III.5, and III.6 and is about 0.19. This amount may be a slight underestimate, for it refers only to the three leading government agencies (that is, leading in the support of physics research). The difference between the two figures is not unreasonable, for government support often is only partial, and the more expensive projects are more likely to be undertaken with such support.

Support of work in industrial laboratories from sources other than the company or the federal government seems to be negligible.

We must reiterate that the organizations surveyed were selected to be representative of the greater portion of physics research in industry leading to publication; they were undoubtedly not typical of the total employment of physicists in industry. As an example of a difference, 72 percent of the physicists in the survey have a PhD degree, but only 39 percent of the physicists employed by industry have a PhD, according to the National Register. Again, the growth of physics staff from 1960-1968 and its recession from 1968-1971, shown for our sample by the entries in the lower rows of Table III.16, differ slightly from the statistics on the nationwide employment of physicists in industry obtained from the National Register\*: The PhD's employed in industry, whose number might be expected to correlate with the total staffs of the research-oriented organizations, appear to have increased monotonically, according to the National Register, and more rapidly in the last decade than the figures in Table III.16 indicate.

We have searched for correlations between the answers to various questions by the respondents in our sample. A number of correlations emerge in a least-squares analysis at better than a 95 percent significance level, although their relationship to cause and effect is not always clear:

- 1. The cost per professional increases appreciably with increasing fraction of the professionals who are PhD's and decreases slightly with increasing size of the organization.
- 2. The ratio of cost per professional for physics to that for other work is less the higher the fraction of physicists who are theorists; an experimental physicist seems to cost slightly more than an average professional, a theoretical physicist only about 70 percent as much.
- 3. Physicists seem to be more heavily supported by the government than other professionals and non-PhD physicists much more so.
- 4. The fraction of physics research published correlates positively with both the fraction of physicists who are PhD's and the

<sup>\*</sup>American Science Manpower (National Science Foundation, biennial).

fraction of government-supported research.

5. The total number of publications of an organization (in all fields) correlates strongly with the number of PhD physicists. The number of papers in AIP journals per PhD physicist correlates negatively with the number of non-AIP physicists.

# III.4 Physics Research Support from University Funds

## III.4.1 INTRODUCTION

Although everyone knows that some portion of the research done in U.S. universities is supported from the resources of the universities, there have been only guesses as to the amount of this support. To obtain a quantitative estimate, the Data Panel sought the cooperation of a number of university physics departments in filling out a rather detailed questionnaire about departmental research activities. As a by-product, some information about purely educational matters was collected also.

Being aware of the excessive demands on university departments for the completion of questionnaires and of the difficulty of getting prompt and uniform responses to questionnaires distributed in an impersonal way, we decided to sample only a small number of institutions in which we had close personal contacts. This procedure led immediately to the problem of taking adequate account of the diversity of types of universities. Probably the most important difference is between the major research institutions and those in which research is less prominent, either in volume or intensity. We distributed our sample over three ranges of size and, within each size range, over two levels of distinction, measured by the often-cited "Cartter ratings."\* The following six groupings resulted.

- 1. A, Faculty size  $\geq$  50, or among the top ten universities in volume of physics publication, Cartter rating "distinguished" or "strong."
- 2. B, Faculty size ≥ 50, Cartter rating not "distinguished" or "strong."
- 3. C, Faculty size between 30 and 50, Cartter rating "good" or above, not in group A.
- 4. D, Faculty size between 30 and 50, Cartter rating below "Good."
  - 5. E, Faculty size 30 or below, Cartter rating given.
  - 6. F. Faculty size below 30, no Cartter rating given.

Non-PhD-granting institutions were not sampled, because studies of publication patterns (see Figure III.11) have shown that these account for no more than a few percent of research publication in



Cartter, A. An Assessment of Quality in Graduate Education.
Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1966.

physics (although, curiously, for a somewhat higher fraction of abstracts in the Bulletin of the American Physical Society). We requested completion of questionnaires from two institutions of each of the six types, except A, B, and D, from which we sought four, one, and one, respectively, Eight of the 12 were returned. The composition of the sample was as follows: A, 3; B, 1; C, 1; D, 0; E, 2; and F, 1.

The design of the questionnaire reflected our desire to ask for information that would be reasonably easily and unambiguously available in most departmental records and, at the same time, relevant to our concerns. Although we consulted several present or past chairmen of physics departments before crystallizing it, the questionnaire finally adopted achieved these goals only imperfectly. The philosophy was to divide support of research into three categories: first, faculty time (including overhead); second, equipment, nonfaculty staff, and miscellaneous items; and third, space. Although a few institutions keep records of the distribution of faculty time among different kinds of activities, such as teaching and research, most do not; therefore we requested information only on number of faculty at each rank taking part in research, class-contact hours for them, and amount of their time for which outside support was received. By combining these data with information on time actually spent in research from two or three institutions, we hoped to get plausible estimates for the others. University support for equipment and nonfaculty staff we hoped to estimate by ascertaining the difference in total costs for these purposes and support received; unfortunately, incompleteness and ambiguity in the data rendered these sources of information highly questionable. In regard to space, we requested information on the amount of space used for research and on the fraction of building construction costs that came from university funds. Questions also were included on number of publications, changes in costs in the last two years, numbers of graduate and undergraduate students, and instructional effort devoted to nonscience majors, teachers, and others.

The responses were of variable quality, as analyses in subsequent sections will show.

## III.4.2 RAW DATA

Table III.20 shows the principal data received from the eight responding physics departments, totaled for the different subfields of physics. The data are not complete; in a few cases appropriate entries have been estimated from other sources and these are identified in the footnotes to the table.

Table III.21 presents the data by subfield and summed over the responding universities. The reader should note that some data are for all eight universities, some for seven, some for only four.

# III.4.3 CORRELATIONS IN THE DATA

The contribution of universities to the support of research, our major concern, comes in large part from support of the time faculty members devote to research. Our first task was to estimate this

time. Since the productive output for which universities are supported consists almost entirely of research and teaching (with a broad interpretation of both), one should count as time devoted to research not only time spent in the direct performance of research but also an appropriate fraction of time spent on departmental administration, service to the scientific community, and like activities. Unfortunately, most university departments keep no records of how their faculties distribute their time among teaching, research, administration, and other activities. However, in the course of preparing our questionnaire, we learned of a few universities that keep such records and decided to estimate faculty time allocable to

TABLE III.20 Characteristics of Physics Research at Selected Universities

	Type of	Institut	ion and I	nstituti	lon Numbe	er (in p	arenthe	ses)
Types of Data Collected	A (1)	A (2)	A (3)	B (4)	C (5)	E (6)	E (7)	F (8)
Cartter rating	D	S	S	G	G	A	G	-
Faculty in research	97	38	77	50.2	37.7	24	22	16.6
Nonfaculty staff	?	?	100	12	10.5	4	13	3.7
Average class-contact h/wk per faculty in research	6.0 <sup>d</sup>	5.4 <sup>e</sup>	2.93	2.55	2.64	5.75	2.60	5.18
Publications in year <sup>f</sup>	71	84 <sup>9</sup>	117	108	54 <sup>h</sup>	40	31	41
No. of publications without outside support	1	-	-	1	-	9	-	-
Support from outside <sup>l</sup> (in \$ millions)	-	2.57	5.20	2.64	-	-	0.76	-
Man-months faculty time supported from outside	525	88	251 .	156	164	60	47.5	13.5
Sq ft used for research <sup>j</sup> (in thousands)	138.5	46.2	116.3	67.0	60.0	12.9	63.0	16.1
Fraction of plant cost from outside		0.14	0.25	0.05	0.35	0	0.375	0
No. undergrad. majors	366	217	60	226	82	90	22	168
No. graduate students	274	171	165	190	123	90	72	72
Fraction of teaching for nonscience majorsk	0.05	0.2- 0.4	0.15	0.23	0.35	-	0.15	0,20
Overhead factor 2	0.54	0.47	0.45	0.57	0.46	=0.70 <sup>n</sup>	0.36	0.49

 $a_{\rm D}$  = distinguished; S = strong; G = good; A = adequate plus.



bDefined as ranks professor through instructor; research associates, etc. excluded. "In research" refers to those with any current research activity, a category comprising from 68 to 88 percent of the total faculty for the institutions sampled.

 $<sup>\</sup>hat{c}_{\mathrm{T-mporary}}$  and permanent PhD-level staff in residence and active in research, not already counted in the line above. Some respondents seem to have misunderstood this question.

 $d_{ extsf{Probably}}$  not correct--exactly the same for every rank and subfield.

Perhaps with a slightly different definition from that for the other institutions.

 $f_{
m Research}$  papers and letters.

 $g_{
m Approximate\ number\ from\ the\ Source\ Index\ of\ the\ Science\ Citation\ Index.}$ 

 $h_{\rm From\ number\ of\ papers\ on\ which\ a\ department\ member\ was\ an\ author\ divided\ by\ average\ number\ of\ authors\ for\ U.S.\ physics\ papers.$ 

iNonfederal funds were 0.001 of total.

 $oldsymbol{j}$ Usually net (assignable space), rather than gross.

 $<sup>^{</sup>k}$ Usually measured in terms of student credit hours.

ZNot including employee benefits (of the order of 0.15 of salaries).

<sup>&</sup>quot;On-campus work only.

 $<sup>^{</sup>n}$ Obtained by subtracting estimated benefits from a total presumably including these.

TABLE III.21 Distribution of Effort among Subfields for a Sample of Universities  $^{m{a,b}}$ 

Manpower and Funding Data	A&R	AME	άŅ	EP	PSF	ES	E&P	0pt	Acoust	Bio- phys	Other Phys
Faculty active in research $(8)$	15.0	15.0 30.1	61.4	95.7	21.1	78.2	17.0 3.3	3.3	2.7	25.0	13.0
Nonfaculty staff $^d$ in research (8)	2.2	7.0	20.1	30.9	3.0	14.8	0	0	0	0.99	0
Man-months of out- side support of faculty time, in yar (7)	40.0	116.7	226.4	370.3	52.0	268.0	88.0	7.3	7.0	22.0	38.0
Man-months of out- side support of fac- ulty time, in year, per faculty member in research (7)	2.9	7.7	4.2	4.5	2.5	3.7	5.7	5.7 2.6	2.6	6.0	4.5
Outside support, in year (in \$ thousands) (4)	163	928	3617	3663	286	1361	192	92	0	950	91
Outside support, in year, per total staff in research (in \$ thousands) (4)	20	37	82	77	18	35	128	$\omega$	0	11	20

Trigures in parentheses in the first column give the number of universities in the sample for which the datum in question was available; entries are totals for this group of universities or, where indicated, by averages representing quotients of two such totals. by Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table III.1, footnote b. Entries are fractional because some faculty members were assigned partly to one subfield and partly to another. Temporary or permanent, PhD level. Totals probably are low because one institution apparently failed to

report postdoctorals.  $\ensuremath{\textit{e}}$  One return listed support in optics but no staff in optics.

research for all universities by combining detailed data for these few universities with data on teaching loads from all, the expectation being that it would be possible to establish a plausible inverse correlation of time spent on research with teaching loads. Our success in this endeavor was only partial, as the university having the most detailed information did not return our questionnaire.

Let us consider first the extent to which teaching loads appear to be correlated with other factors of interest. Figure III.3 shows the sort of plot we would like to construct, depicting the fraction of faculty time allocable to research effort as a function of the average number of class-contact hours per week per faculty member. The two points piotted represent time spent in actual performance of research, as estimated for faculty of universities 5 (rough estimate only) and 8 of Table III.20. Because a certain fraction of administrative and other time is really allocable to

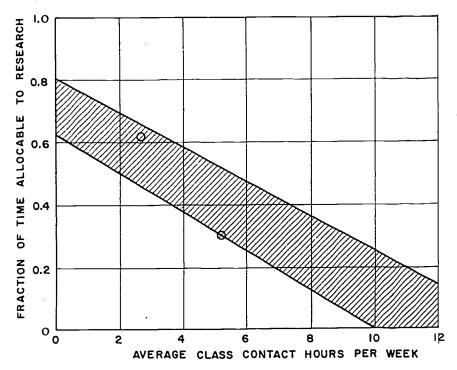


FIGURE III.3 Correlation of fraction of faculty time spent on research with average class-contact hours per week. Both figures represent averages over all parts of the year during which the faculty numbers in question were on campus. The shaded region, to be reproduced in Figure III.4, represents the range within which we believe that the average relation is fairly sure to lie.



research, these points provide rough lower limits for time spent on research. Common sense and general experience also provide some guides to how the curve should be drawn. For example, it is generally conceded that approximately 12 contact hours per week research simply disappear. On the other hand, low numbers of class-contact hours of course imply high concentration on research but do not mean that essentially all faculty time is allocable to research (as it could be in a noneducational research institution), for some will be devoted to administrative problems concerning graduate students and to nonclass educational activities for them. From data on such activities provided by one institution, we estimate that the extrapolation of the curve to the vertical axis should not have an ordinate higher than about 0.8. Combining these considerations with the two points shown, we have estimated rough upper and lower bounds for the fraction of time allocable to research, as shown by the two straight lines in the figure. The proper curve would undoubtedly not be a straight line, but we have not attempted to introduce this refinement into the bounds.

What is important, of course, is the difference between this time allocable to research and the amount of faculty time supported by funds from outside sources. In Figure III.4, faculty time supported by outside funds is plotted against class-contact hours for the seven universities for which reliable teaching data were available. Reproduced on the same plot are the upper and lower bounds to total time allocable to research, which were drawn in Figure III.3. The uncertainty in the difference—the university—supported time—is considerable and will be reflected in the estimates made in Section III.4.4.

In connection with the plots in Figures III.3 and III.4, it is interesting to see to what extent teaching loads are correlated with other variables. One might expect, for example, that there would be a significant inverse correlation with number of publications per faculty member. Such a finding was not true of our sample, as Figure III.5 shows. A plot of publications per PhD staff member in research (faculty plus nonfaculty) shows no correlation; one is tempted to conclude that at institutions with a less favorable climate for research the staff members choose problems that will require less expenditure of time to produce a publication. Another factor could be that some of these institutions have a higher ratio of graduate students to faculty than the institutions with lower teaching loads. The relevance of this factor is shown by Figure III.6, which depicts a positive correlation of publication rate with the ratio of graduate students to faculty.

The Cartter rating seems to correlate significantly with a number of variables. These include teaching loads (Figure III.7), publication rate (Figure III.8), and per capita costs and funding (Figure III.9).

Figure III.10 shows the distribution of what might be called the intensity of support among different subfields. The upper part of the figure, which is more meaningful than the lower because it is based on data from all eight institutions, shows the variation among subfields in the fraction of time of faculty members active in research that was supported from sources outside the university.



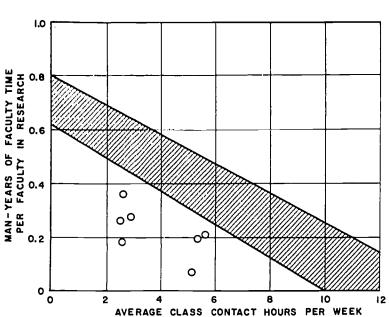


FIGURE III.4 Points: man-years of faculty time supported from sources outside the university, per faculty member in research, for each of seven universities, plotted as a function of average class-contact hours per week for these same faculty members. Shaded strip: range of probable fractions of time allocable to research, from Figure III.3 The distances of the points below the upper and lower boundaries of the shaded region thus represent university contributions to the support of research via faculty time, per faculty member.

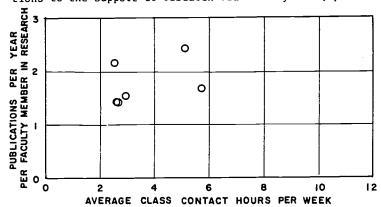


FIGURE III.5 Illustration of the lack of correlation between number of research publications per year per faculty member and average class-contact hours per week. Points represent universities 3 through 8 of Table III.20.



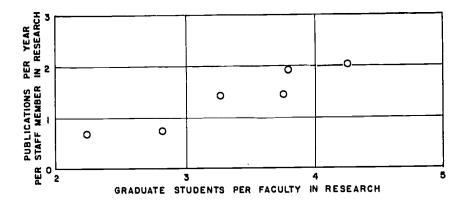


FIGURE III.6 Correlation of publications per year per staff member (faculty or nonfaculty PhD level) in research with number of graduate students per faculty member in research. Points for universities 3 to 8 of Table III.20.

This amount might be regarded as a measure of the intensity with which research in the various subfields is pursued, plus the ease of getting support. The lower part of the figure, based on data from only four universities, shows the distribution in amount of dollar support per staff member (faculty and nonfaculty). This distribution presumably depends on both the intensity with which research is pursued and the costliness of research in different subfields. Because of the rather large statistical fluctuations in the data, items other than those represented by bars of reasonable length (proportional to number of faculty or staff members, respectively, involved in the average) should be viewed with caution. Nuclear; atomic, molecular, and electron; and elementary-particle physics rank high in time supported, but nuclear physics is much higher than these other two subfields in dollars per person, presumably because most of the elementary-particle physicists in universities are theorists and because experimental work in atomic, molecular, and electron physics is less expensive. Physics in biology ranks especially low in both parts of the figure.

Outside support from sources other than the federal government was negligible in our sample, amounting to about \$12,300 for the four universities giving full support data, compared with a total support of \$11.2 million. This number, however, is based on only two projects, and it appears low in comparison with an earlier analysis of sources of research support cited in journal articles,\* which showed 14.5 acknowledgments of nongovernment, nonuniversity support compared with 558.5 acknowledgments of government support.

<sup>\*</sup>Performed by Panel member R.. W. Keyes, 12/22/70.

<sup>\*</sup>Physics Manpower 1969. New York, N.Y.: American Institute of Physics, 1969 (pp. 26, 47).

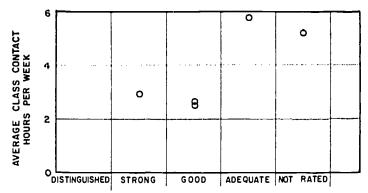


FIGURE III.7 Correlation of teaching loads with Cartter rating,

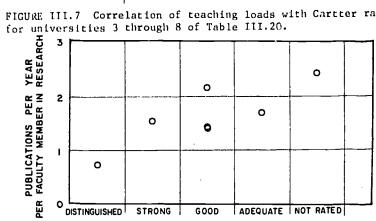


FIGURE III.8 Correlation (negative) of publication rate with Cartter rating, for universities 1 and 3 to 8 of Table III.20.

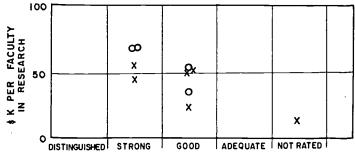


FIGURE III.9 Correlation of Cartter rating with outside support per faculty in research (circles) and nonsalary cost of research (crosses). Circles for universities 2,3,4, and 7 of Table III.20; crosses for 2 to 5, 7 and 8.



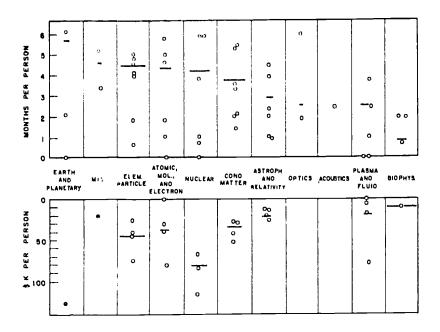


FIGURE III.10 Subfield distribution of average man-months of outside faculty salary support (top half, points for eight universities) and average dollar support per faculty member (lower half, points for four universities). Horizontal bars have ordinates representing weighted averages over all institutions and lengths proportional to total number of faculty members involved.

As indicated in Table III.20, the ratio of undergraduate majors to graduate students varied among the institutions sampled from 0.3 to 2.3, with an overall average of about one. Although our sample included only PhD-granting institutions, this ratio is almost the same as the ratio of national totals of undergraduate majors as graduate students in physics.

Table III.20 also shows that approximately one fifth of the teaching effort (in student hours) in the departments sampled is directed toward students whose major fields are or will be other than science or engineering. A small fraction of the undergraduates who do not go on to graduate work, and a majority of the graduate students, is destined sooner or later to become teachers; however, only a few of the institutions sampled devoted any specific teaching effort in the physics departments to instructing graduate students in the art of teaching.

Estimates of the change, in the past two years, in university funds explicitly expended for research varied from department to department, from a decrease of 10 percent (contraction of department) to an increase of 20 percent. A rough weighted average of all institutions would yield an increase of about 7 percent.



III.4.4 ESTIMATES OF THE AMOUNT OF RESEARCH SUPPORT CONTRIBUTED BY THE UNIVERSITIES

In attempting to draw conclusions about all physics research in U.S. academic institutions on the basis of our sample, we must consider first how representative it is and what fraction of U.S. academic physics it represents. In regard to representativeness, Figure III.11 compares the relative volume of published material in the

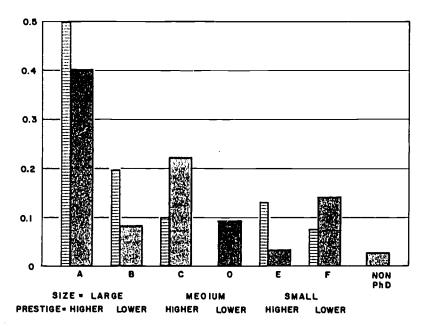


FIGURE III.11 Distribution of physics research papers over different types of U.S. academic institutions. The categories A to F are those described in Section III.4.1. The broad bars show the fraction of U.S. academic papers in the 1967 Physical Review originating from each of these six types of institutions and from non-PhD-granting institutions. The narrow bars show the distribution of total publications over the eight departments of our sample.

six categories of our sample with the relative volume from each of these categories in the 1967 Physical Review. A seventh category, non-PhD institutions, is included in the Physical Review data for completeness. Our sample is about right for the small institutions taken together (E and F, the non-PhD category being negligible), is a little high for the large institutions (A and B), and is deficient in the medium-sized institutions (C and D). However, its composition is fairly representative, and any errors resulting from

its distribution are probably much less than other uncertainties in the estimates that we will develop.

Because the data from institution I were deficient or unreasonable in several respects and our sample was slightly overweighted in Category A, we shall make our estimates of university funding on the basis of the other seven institutions, assuming them to constitute a properly distributed sample of all institutions. There are at least three possible measures for the size of this sample: One can compare the sample with all U.S. academic institutions in regard to volume of publication, number of graduate students, or number of doctoral degrees granted. The results of such comparisons appear in Table 111.22. With due regard for the caveats in

TABLE III.22 Approximate Range of Support (in millions of dollars) of Physics Research by U.S. Academic Institutions through Loaded Faculty Salaries in the Academic Year 1968-1969

Fraction of Academic	Fraction of Faculty University Supported	
Work Assumed Sampled	Range	Mean
0.058 0.0685 (mean) 0.079	0.156 - 0.357 12.6 - 28.8 14.8 - 34.0 17.1 - 39.2	0.257 28.8 24.4 28.1

the figures for the upper extreme of the ranges indicated, we shall assume that the seven institutions account for a fraction of the support of physics research by U.S. academic sources amounting to between \$0.058 million and \$0.079 million in academic year 1968-1969.

Consider first the support contributed through the time that faculty members devote to research. If we take the distance of each point in Figure III.4 below the upper and lower boundaries, respectively, of the shaded region, weight by the number of faculty members involved, and average for the seven institutions, we obtain a fraction of faculty time allocable to research and supported by universities in the range 0.156 to 0.357. The corresponding estimates of university-supported faculty man-years of research are 41.4 and 97.7, respectively. With a mean overhead factor for these universities of about 0.5 (see Table III.20) and a mean 12month salary of about \$16,000, we estimate this university contribution at about \$24,000 per man-year; thus, the effective contribution of these seven universities through support of faculty time was, according to our estimates, in the range \$993,000 to \$2.272 million. Combining these bounds with the estimates given in the preceding paragraph, we obtain the estimates shown in Table III.22 for that part of the contribution of U.S. universities to the support of physics research in 1969 associated with their



support of loaded faculty salaries. Thus we estimate this contribution at about \$24 million, with an accuracy that should be within a factor of 2 in either direction.

The second of the categories of support mentioned in the Introduction, equipment and non faculty staff, is much less amenable to quantitative assessment but seems likely to constitute an amount considerably smaller than the other two categories, space and faculty time. Our original hope had been to estimate this quantity by finding the difference between the figures provided for (a) nonsalary cost of research and outside support received and (b) that part allocable to faculty-salary support. Unfortunately, not all the departments supplied these figures, and some of those that did misinterpreted the question, with the result that the quantities to be subtracted were not comparable. A more promising approach is to look at a sample of papers in the literature (see Section III.1) and note the frequency and characteristics of papers originating in universities and not acknowledging support from nonuniversity sources. In the sample studied, about 24 percent of the articles originating in universities appeared to have only university support. This figure is higher than that suggested by the sketchy data in Table III.20 and also higher than that found in a more recent study of a smaller sample; therefore, it may have included a number of papers with outside support that the authors failed to acknowledge. In this more recent sample, we found that the names of the authors of papers without outside support were more often those of faculty members than was true of the supported papers, and there was a predominance of theoretical over experimental papers. Although the nonfoulty authors are orgasionally senior research associates and the like, probably the vest majority of them is graduate students or postdoctorals, these categories being represented in comparable numbers. A rough estimate of the mean salary of these authors would be about \$6000 per year. Overhead for them should be less than for faculty members (for example, smaller offices) but not as much less as the bare salaries; we shall assume a mean value of \$5000 per year. If we assume that the average paper without outside support requires an amount of nonfaculty time of the order of two thirds the amount of faculty time involved in the average of all papers, we have

(total nonfaculty time \_without outside support) 
$$\approx 0.24 \times \frac{2}{3} = 0.16$$
. (6) [supported or not])

(university support through nonfaculty time) 
$$\approx 0.16 \times \frac{11}{24} = 0.073$$
. (7) support through faculty time)

This amount is much smaller than our earlier estimate of the fraction of faculty research time that is university supported (0.83 to 0.59). Probably some of the nonfaculty time spent on projects that



have outside support is not fully covered by this support; however, all indications are that the university-supported portion of such time is much less than for faculty members, and as the loaded salary rate is less than half that for faculty members, we cannot escape the conclusion that this category of university support is much smaller than that provided through faculty time.

There is some further evidence, although sketchy, that supports this conclusion. For example, about 0.18 of the beyond-second-year graduate student population is supported by teaching assistantships.\* These are probably the main source of university support of such students. The number of graduate students past the second year is about half the total number\* or almost twice the number of faculty active in research (Table III.20). If the research involvement of graduate students with teaching fellowships is assumed to be somewhat less intense than that of other students at the same level, say, about equal to that of faculty members, one gets an estimate for the graduate student part of the left of Eq. (6) of the order of twice the value given there. This amount is not large, as the salary factor for these students will be smaller than is assumed in Eq. (7). Yet another source of information is the data.on PhDlevel nonfaculty staff provided by our sample. About 0:17 of this staff time was university supported, of which no more than 0.01 was attributable to classroom teaching. Thus the contribution of this doctoral-level staff to the left of Eq. (6) would be only 0.16 times the ratio of time spent on research by these staff members to that spent by faculty, a number doubtless considerably less than 1 (see Table III.20).

We consider last the resources contributed by universities in support of research through plant construction. To develop an estimate one must decide on a way of converting capital investment in the past into equivalent current expenditure. Suppose a building that would cost  $\mathcal{C}^{(0)}$  dollars to reproduce today was constructed at time  $\Delta t$  in the past, costing  $\mathcal{C}$  dollars at that time. We shall assume

$$C = C^{(0)} e^{-\alpha \Delta t}. \tag{8}$$

If these  $\mathcal C$  dollars had remained in the university's endowment, with the income spent each year, the income foregone each year would be  $\mathcal C$ , where for a reasonably conservative investment policy  $\beta \approx 0.04$ . For a large number of institutions i we therefore have

Income foregone = 
$$\beta < e^{-\alpha \Delta t} > \Sigma C_i^{(0)}$$
, (9)

where the angular brackets imply an average over all the  $\Delta t_i$ 's, weighted in proportion to their  $C_i^{(0)}$ 's, in other words, with each yearly unit of  $\Delta t$  having a weight proportional to the dollar value of construction in that year. This we assume to be given by



<sup>\*</sup>Physics Manpower 1969. New York: N.Y.: American Institute of Physics, 1969 (p. 49).

weight 
$$\alpha e^{-\gamma \Delta t}$$
. (10)

Combining Eqs. (9) and (10) we get

Income foregone = 
$$\left(\frac{\beta \gamma}{\gamma + \alpha}\right) \Sigma C_i^{(0)}$$
. (11)

A further intangible but economically real factor should probably be added: The money invested in a building is not liquid and its unavailability hampers the economic freedom of the institution. We shall rather arbitrarily assume that this effect can be taken into account by adding about 0.01 to the  $\beta$  in Eqs. (1) and (11); this is roughly equivalent to a policy of amortizing the investment over about one century. The value of  $\alpha$  can reasonably be taken from the average increase in construction costs over the past 15 years, namely,  $\alpha = 0.04$  per year. Gamma can be estimated either by subtracting  $\,\alpha$  from the average rate of increase of funds for physics in the United States, which, from Figure X.3 of Volume I of Physics in Perspective, was approximately 0.13 per year, or, alternatively, can be set roughly equal to the rate of growth of PhDlevel manyower in U.S. universities, which, from Table XII.9 of the same volume, has been about 0.10. Averaging these two estimates and taking our sample of seven universities as representative of between 0.058 and 0.079 of the U.S. academic enterprise, we get

Effective contribution of U.S. academic institutions to the support of physics research, through building construction

$$\approx \frac{0.05 \times 0.095}{0.135} \times \frac{\$75 \times 310,700}{0.058 \text{ to } 0.079}$$

for the academic year 1968-1969. We have used a value \$75 for the cost per square foot of assignable space, about 1.5 times the cost per square foot of growth space; the figure, 310,700 square feet, is just the sum of the products of square feet by fraction of cost from university funds, using the entries in Table III.20.

To summarize our calculations, we estimate that the total contribution to physics research from U.S. university funds in the academic year 1968-1969 was probably a little more than \$40 million, over half of it through support of faculty time and most of the rest through plant construction. This estimate could easily be too small or too large by a sizable fraction of its value.



#### III.5 Growth in Costs of Research in Physics

The cost of research in physics, measured, for example, by dollars per professional man-year, has been steadily rising. It is generally accepted that this increase is compounded in comparable amounts from the general decrease in purchasing power of the dollar and a sophistication factor resulting from the increasing complexity of equipment required to expand research into new and ever more difficult areas. Comments on this sophistication factor appear occasionally in the reports of the subfield panels, for example, in Figure XI.1 of Volume II, Part B, of Physics in Perspective (costs of nuclear magnetic resonance equipment) or in the tables of Chapter II of Volume II, Part A (listing characteristics of accelerators throughout the world). Our contribution to this subject will be minor, consisting merely of an analysis of some figures issued by the AEC\* and some estimates of cost escalation obtained in our survey of industrial funding (Section III.3).

The AEC's Statistical Swmmary series\* annually reports dollar expenditures, scientific man-years of effort, and other statistics pertaining to various parts of their physical research program. For each of the years, 1960-1970, we have compared the reported cost for various categories of AEC work with the reported number of scientific man-years, a figure that apparently includes faculty and other types of professional employees but not graduate students, even though they may be paid. We have computed these ratios for the categories, high-energy physics, low-energy physics, and metallurgy and materials. Metallurgy and materials consists largely, though by no means entirely, of research in physics of condensed-matter.

The principal results obtained from the AEC data are presented in the two top curves of Figure III.12. Here, the cost in thousands of dollars per scientific man-year is plotted against year. The AEC Statistical Summaries report expenditures in federally funded research centers of the AEC and in the AEC contract program or universities separately. The figures used here for universities represent the total program expenditure not just the AEC contribution. The dashed line in each part of the figure, drawn at arbitrary height, shows the behavior of the general price index for federal government purchases of goods and services. At the bottom of the figure analogous data on changes in cost per man-year for research in physics, obtained from the Survey of Industrial Laboratories (Section III.3), are shown.

Although the trends in the AEC data are partially obscured by large apparently random fluctuations, the steady increase in dollars per man-year on the average is evident. The straight lines, which were fitted to the logarithm of the dollar expenditure per man-year by the method of least—squares, have slopes of 3.0 percent per year for work in universities and 6.1 percent per year for the federally funded research and development centers. The fluctua-



A Statistical Summary of the Physical Research Program (U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, annual).

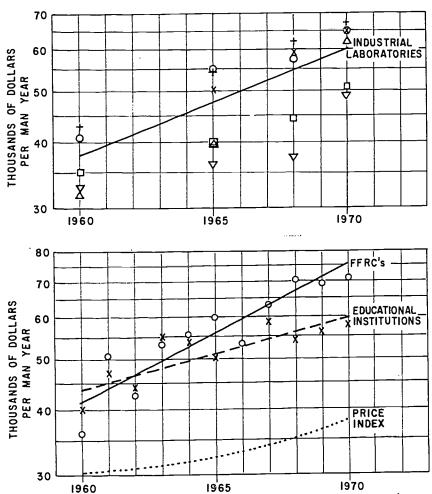


FIGURE III.12 Top: growth in costs of AEC research programs in areas predominantly physics, per scientific man-year, 1960—1970. Circles and full line: programs in federally funded research centers. Crosses and dashed line: programs in universities. The lines in both cases are least-squares fitted through 1969. Middle curve: price index for government purchases. Bottom: research costs per scientific man-year for the six categories of industrial laboratory surveyed in Table III.17.

tions appear to consist mainly of some kind of budgetary artifact. For example, the low cost in the federally funded research and development centers in 1966 results almost entirely from reports from both the Cambridge Electron Accelerator and the Princeton-Pennsylvania Accelerator of 200 more man-years of effort in 1966 than in

1965 or 1967, without any comparable anomaly in the reported total funding. In general, most fluctuations in the cost per man-year in the figure represent fluctuations in man-years of effort reported rather than in dollar expenditures for the Physical Research Program.

If the various subfields are separated, the flucutations are, of course, even more pronounced. Least-squares fits to the data give the result shown in Table III.23. One must be cautious in interpreting there numbers, however. First, they are subject to changes in definitions; what is recorded as nuclear physics was known as nuclear structure physics earlier in the decade, became low-energy physics in 1963, and was further offected by the introduction of a ludget line for medium-energy physics in 1966. In 1966, many of the funds of low-energy physics were apparently allocated to the medium-energy program without any comparable change in manpower, leading to a rather large anomaly in the cost per man-year in nuclear physics in universities from 1965 to 1966.

The penultimate row of Table III.23 gives the average rate of increase in cost per man-year reported by our sample of industrial laboratories (Section III.3).

All the figures, even including those from the industrial survey, may be somewhat too low to reflect adequately the sophistication factor, in that all groups undoubtedly suffered a certain amount of so called "belt tightening" during the late 1960's.

TABLE III.23 Rates of Increase (percent per year) in Cost per Scientific Man-year in Different Parts of the Atomic Energy Commission Research Program in Physics (FY 1960—1970) and in U.S. Industrial Laboratories

AEC Category and	Locatio	n of Work	
Industry	$FFRDC^{\alpha}$	University	Industry
AEC Program Category	-		_
High energy	8.1	0.8	
Low energy	3.0	-0.2	
Metallurgy and materials	6.4	4.4	
Total of above	5.8	2.9	
EC average	3.	8	
Industrial laboratories			4.7
Price index	2.	9	

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{\alpha_{ extsf{Federally}}}$  funded research and development center



IV
DATA ON
THE
LITERATURE
OF PHYSICS

## IV.1 Production and Distribution

IV.1.1 PROBLEMS OF DISCIPLINE AND SUBFIELD CLASSIFICATION: OVERLAPS

In Section II.1.1 we discussed the problems of determining who is and is not a physicist and assigning physicists to the various subfield panels of the Physics Survey. Similar problems arise in the enumeration and classification of physics publications. In "Dissemination and Use of the Information of Physics,"\* for example, tables and figures showed the relative proportions of the physics literature in different subfields, countries, and types of institutions. Construction of these tables required answering, for each paper sampled, two questions: first, "Is it physics?" and if the answer was affirmative then, "To which subfield should it be assigned?" More important, an intelligent understanding of the structure and dynamics of the physics enterprise requires a knowledge of the extent to which one subfield overlaps another and the extent to which research in physics overlaps activities in related disciplines such as chemistry, engineering, and east's sciences. Answers to these questions usually have to be based on subjective judgments. However, careful subjective judgments can be much better than sloppy ones, and there are

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<sup>\*</sup>Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Chapter XIV; condensed version in Volume I, Chapter 13.

objective methods of getting the answers that, though moderately laborious and not necessarily unique, are by no means impossible to use and, without excessive labor, can provide at least spot checks on the correctness of subjective judgments.

There are a variety of measures of the relatedness of different parts of the scientific literature that, though subjective in that they depend on the judgments of individuals, are objective, in the sense in which the term is used here, in that they constitute a statistical verdict of the entire scientific community. These measures are based on citations of one paper by another. Suppose that two groups of papers, i and j, have been selected in any manner. As a measure of the relatedness of i to j we may take any of the following:

- 1. The fraction of the references in papers of group i that are to papers of group j, averaged with the fraction of j's references that are to papers of i;
- 2. The fraction of the references of i that are also references of j, averaged with the fraction of j's references that are shared by i (the concept\* of bibliographic coupling);
- 3. The number of papers in all areas that contain citations to both a paper of i and one of j (the cocitation concept).

Suppose that the universe of scientific literature we wish to consider has been divided into a number of groups  $i,j,\ldots$ , and suppose for simplicity that each of these groups contains the same number of papers. (This is to avoid having a large group appear especially close to the others simply because of its size.) Then by using any of the three criteria most simply the first one—one can define the relatedness of i to j by a number  $c_{ij}$  with the properties

$$1 \geq c_{ij} = c_{ji} \geq 0, \tag{1}$$

$$\sum_{j} c_{ij} = 1. \tag{2}$$

We would like to be able to interpret these numbers geometrically by assigning to each group i a point in a space of some dimensionality and so placing these points that  $c_{ij}$  is a universal decreasing function of the distance of point i from point j. Although this, of course, can be done only approximately in any small number of dimensions, there are mathematical procedures for locating the points in a space of any assumed dimensionality in such a way as to give the best possible approximation.  $^{\S}$  For our purpose it will suffice to consider a simpler problem, that of assigning

<sup>\*</sup>Kessler, M.M. American Documentation, 14, 10 (1963): 16, 223 (1965); Price, D. J. de S. Science, 149, 510 (1965).

<sup>†</sup>Small, H. Journal of the American Society for Information Science, in press.

<sup>§</sup>Kruskal, J. B. Psychometrika, 29, 1 (1964).

positions to a number of borderline groups i, relative to other groups k whose positions are taken as given. The simplest such case would be, for example, one in which one locates the groups i on a one-dimensional scale between, say, pure physics (assigned coordinate  $x_k = 0$ ) and pure chemistry (assigned coordinate  $x_{\ell} = 1$ ). Almost as simple would be the assignment of positions in a triple overlap area, say, that of atomic physics, condensed matter, and optics, with each of these subfields assigned to one corner of an equilateral triangle in a two-dimensional space. In assigning positions to groups i in the overlap region, we would like to make the assignment self-consistent in the sense that the positions allotted to other areas with which it is connected, with weights  $c_{i,j}$ . In other words, we would like to get a solution of the equations

$$\vec{r}_{q} = \sum_{p} \vec{r}_{j} + \sum_{\alpha} \vec{r}_{\alpha}, \qquad (3)$$

where p and q now run only over groups in the overlap region, and  $\alpha$  runs over all the groups whose coordinates we have agreed to fix in advance. For the physics-chemistry case, for example, this would mean that all areas  $\alpha$  considered to be unquestionably physics are assigned  $R_{\alpha}=0$ , and all those considered to be unquestionably chemistry are assigned  $R_{\alpha}=1$ . In matrix form the solution to Eq. (3) can be written

$$\dot{r} = (1 - c')^{-1} c'' R, \tag{4}$$

and the solution is unique as long as the matrix (1-c') is non-singular. Now the series

$$1 - c' = 1 - c' - c'^2 - \dots$$
 (5)

converges if the matrix c' is bounded with a bound less than unity. And since Eq. (2) is equivalent to

$$\sum_{p} c_{qp} = 1 - \sum_{\alpha} c_{q\alpha}, \tag{6}$$

a slight generalization of a familiar argument\* shows that c' is indeed so bounded unless there exist groups q, which are not connected to any of the given groups a by any chain of citation connections. Barring this possibility then, we can say that any given group q is, for example x percent chemistry and (1-x) percent physics, or that it is x percent atomic physics, y percent condensed-matter physics, and (1-x-y) percent optics.



<sup>\*</sup>Courant, R., and Hilbert, Methods of Mathematical Physics (Interscience, Erk. 1953), Vol. I, p. 19.

Although the groups *i* that we have been talking about may be composed by any procedure that selects a reasonably coherent group of papers—for example, they might be composed by using the finest subdivisions of the *Physics Abstracts* subject classification scheme—it is interesting to note that an algorithm for computer generation of clusters of closely related papers, based on the statistics of citations, has been developed and is rather effective\*.

As an example of what can be done with this approach, consider the question: Should work on quantum fluids be considered in the province of the Panel on Plasma Physics and Physics of Fluids or should it be grouped with solid-state physics in the province of the Panel on Physics of Condensed-Matter? A sampling of citations in a number of theoretical and experimental papers on quantum fluids in Physical Review Letters and Physical Review A gave the following distribution for the cited papers:

Quantum fluids	72
Other physics of fluids	2
Solid-state physics	19
Instrumentation	1

The Intuitive judgment of the panelists that quantum fluids should be grouped with condensed-matter is confirmed.

A number of spot checks of this sort were made to verify the reasonableness of the assignment of papers by panelists to various disciplines and subfields or to an overlap area. These checks generally confirmed the intuitive assignments, although occasionally they showed the assignment to be wrong.

Some rough indications of the extent of the overlap among the different subfields, the ambiguity in the definition of the boundaries between physics and neighboring disciplines, and the uncertainties in each of these two measures can be obtained from the results of classification of papers in two samples drawn from Physics Abstracts by a member of the panel. These are presented in Tables IV.1 and IV.2, respectively. For the sample of Table IV.1, a restricted definition of overlap areas and an inclusive definition of physics were used: A physics paper was not assigned to an overlap area between two subfields unless it was really difficult to decide to which it should be given; similarly, papers were considered as physics unless they belonged fairly indisputably to some other discipline. For the sample in Table IV.2, in contrast, a liberal definition of overlap and a fair definition of the boundaries of physics were used: A paper was assigned to an overlap area of two or more physics subfields whenever a reasonable case could be made for its belonging in each of them; a paper was considered as physics only if its relation to the rest of physics was judged to be closer than its relation to the more central



<sup>\*</sup>Price, N., and S. Schiminovich, Information Storage and Retrieval, 4, 271 (1968); Schiminovich, S. Ibid., 6, 417 (1971).

TABLE IV.1 Distribution of a Sample of U.S. Papers from Physics Abstracts among Subfields of Physics on the Basis of an Inclusive Definition of Physics and a Restricted Definition of Overlap $^2$ 

			Paner	Panere Indoed as											
	Pape as W	Papers Judged as Within This	Overl Subfi	overlapping This Subfield and											
Subfield	٠.	ield	Another	ler	Numb	Number Overlapping Each of Other Subfields	erlap	ping	Each	of Ot	her Sı	ubfie.	lds		
	No.	Fraction	No.	Fraction	A&R	AME	EP	NP	P&F	₩ C	E&P	PB	Opt	Opt Acoust	Misc
A&R	6	0.90	1	0.10	1	1		,	,	,	1	,	,	1	ı
AME	82	0.84	16	0.16	ı	ı	1	-	4	5	1	ı	7	1	2
EP	61	0.95	٣	0.05	ı	,	1	က	1	ı	1	ı	1	,	ı
NP	47	0.00	5	0.10	1	П	ო		1	ı	1	1	1		1
P&F	54	98.0	9	0.14		4	1		ı	7	ო	1	ı	1	1
£	245	0.93	19	0.07	1	5	1	ı	2	1	1	,	80	2	2
E&P	36	0.78	10	0.22	ч		1	1	ო	1	ı	7	7	-	
PB	6	0.45	11	0.55	ı	ı	ı	1	1	ı	1	ı	5	5	ı
Opt	21	0.49	22	0.51	ı	7	1	;	1	80	4	5	1	1	1
Acoust	13	0.59	6	0.41	ı	ı	1	ı.		2	1	5	1		1
Misc	18	0.72	7	0.28	ı	7		7	1	7	1	-	1	1	1
Total									٠						
Physics 595	595	56 =	112		•										
Nonphysics		29	2												

<sup>a</sup>Subfield abbreviations used are: A&R = astrophysics and relativity; AME = atomic, molecular, and electron physics; EP = elementary-particle physics; NP = nuclear physics; P&F = plasma physics and physics of fluids; CM = condensed-matter physics; E&P = earth and planetary physics; PB = physics in biology; Opt = optics; Acoust = acoustics; Misc = miscellaneous.

TABLE IV.2 Distribution of a Sample of U.S. Papers from Physics Abstracts among Subfields of Physics on the Basis of a Fair Definition of Physics and a Liberal Definition of Overlap

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54 G F4	Papers Judged as within This Subfield		Papers Judged as Overlapping This Subfield and Another	Numb	er Ov	erla	ping	Each	of th	e Oth	er Su	Number Overlapping Each of the Other Subfields Opt, Acoust
Subfield	lo, Fracti		No. Fraction	A&R	AME	EP	NP	P&F	CM	E&P	PB	and Misc
	6 0.67		3 0.33	1	t	1	ı	ı	1	2	ı	1
	33 0.60	2	2 0.40	ı	ı	ı	.v	5	10	7	ı	7
	26 0.84		5 0.16	1	1	ı	m	,	ı	7	ı	ľ
		1	12 0.21	ı	2	m	ı	ı	m	1	ı	-
	17 0.63	1	0 0.37	ı	S	1	ı	1	7	1	ı	
7	138 0.82	m	1 0.18	1	10	1	٣	4	ı	-	п	12
	13 0.65		7 0.35	2	7	-	ı	ı	-	t	-	7
	3 0.60		2 0.40	1	.1	ı	ı	ı	7	-	ı	1
	32 0.67	1	6 0.33	ı	-	ı	7	-	12	7	ı	ı
& Misc							,					
		10	8				•					
Physics	313	54 = 2	ı									
hveice	Nonphysics 6 (13 5%)			7	0	1	2	7	28	ı	ı	7

 $^{a}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table IV.1, fnotnote a.

areas of some other discipline such as chemistry or engineering. The study depicted in Table IV.2 was done before the panel decided to separate optics and acoustics from the miscellaneous category, thus these are grouped together.

Although most of the subfields show more overlap in Table IV.2 than in Table IV.1, as one would expect, a few do not, and this finding must be attributed to statistical fluctuations. From the two tables together it is evident that the subfields that are most nearly self-contained are elementary-particle physics, nuclear physics, probably astrophysics and relativity, and condensed-matter. For the first three this finding is undoubtedly the result of their being so specialized; for condensed-matter, it is probably due to the vast size of the subfield. Optics and acoustics appear to have large overlaps with other subfields, as does earth and planetary physics also. Atomic, molecular, and electron physics and plasma physics and physics of fluids have moderately high overlap. Among the core subfields, condensed-matter has the largest absolute overlap into other disciplines simply because of its large size, but percentagewise the overlap of atomic, molecular, and electron physics into other disciplines (principally chemistry) is greater. The data on overlap into nonphysics disciplines are much less meaningful, of course, for the peripheral subfields of physics, since their coverage in Physics Abstracts is often incomplete. (This situation is especially true for physics in biology.)

A different type of measure of the overlap of physics with other disciplines can be obtained from the professional self-identification of the authors of physics papers. As we shall see in Section IV.1.3, about half of the authors of papers covered by Physics Abstracts identify primarily with a nonphysics discipline even though, according to Table IV.2, 87 percent of the papers so covered probably lie on the physics side of a fair boundary.

## IV.1.2 SAMPLING OF ABSTRACT JOURNALS

Our objectives in sampling entries in abstract journals were to get information about

- 1. The distribution of physics publications among subfields;
- 2. The geographic distribution of total publication and of work in each subfield;
- 3. The degree of correlation between the country or region in which work is done and the country or region in which it is published;
  - 4. Changes in time in some of these quantities;
- 5. The distribution of U.S. work in the various subfields among different types of performing institutions;
- 6. Any differences between theoretical and experimental papers in regard to the previous five categories. (We classified papers as theoretical when they did not contain any new experimental results or report the testing of new experimental techniques.)

To achieve most of these objectives one needs to know the location of the performing institution and, for U.S. papers, its identity. In *Physics Abstracts* this information became available only in 1969, so our sampling from this source (our most extensive sampling project) was confined to this one year. *Muclear Science Abstracts* has recorded the performing institution for a number of years; therefore, we studied small samples from this source for both 1964 and 1969.

The principal results from our sampling study of 1969 issues of Physics Abstracts have been given previously\* and will not be repeated. We shall merely recapitulate the ground rules for the study and add a couple of supplementary tables. Two physicists (R. W. Keyes, C. Herring) performed the sampling, one looking at all entries in 13 of the 26 issues for 1969 with numbers ending in 5, the other looking at all entries in 16 of the issues with numbers ending in O. Entries not in the category "published research papers" were discarded. Published research papers were defined as presentations of new research results in articles or letters in periodicals or books available on the open market; this definition excluded theses and reports available only from a research institution, agency, or clearinghouse, also patents, reviews, popularizations, and abstracts of talks unaccompanied by a text. Each paper not so discarded was classified into one of the ten subfields of physics corresponding to the panels of the Physics Survey or into a miscellaneous physics category or (in rare cases) as outside physics. These judgments were made subjectively by each sampler but according to the guidelines described in Section IV.1.1. Each paper was assigned to a country of origin according to the location of the first-named institution in the by-line, except when the institution was operated by an international organization, then the assignment "international" was used. Papers for which no institution was named were distributed statistically among performing regions by noting the location of the publisher of the paper and using the correlation found for other papers (or occasionally by direct sampling of journals) between region of publication and region of performance. For papers from U.S. institutions, the institutions were further classified as academic, industrial, government in-house laboratories, federally funded research and development centers (i.e., national laboratories), or other.

Table IV.3 obtained from the Keyes half of the sample, shows how publications reporting work performed at various types of U.S. institutions were distributed among journals and books published in different locations. Journals of the AIP are listed separately from other U.S. publications. The AIP journals receive about 54 percent of the U.S. work, a fraction that is fairly constant among all types of institutions. Note, however, that the definition of physics used in this sampling was the inclusive one employed in developing Table IV.1; if the fair definition used in Table IV.2 had been used, the AIP percentage undoubtedly would be moderately higher.



<sup>\*</sup>Physics in Perspective, Vol. II, Part B, Tables XIV.9, XIV.10, and XIV.11 and Figures XIV.31 and XIV.32.

		Publica	tion in $^b$		
			Other U.S.	Forei	gn Publications
Performing Institution	Total Papers	AIP Journal	Publica- tions	U.K.	Continental W. Europe
Academic	386	206	86	29	65
Industrial	146	80	40	14	12
Govt. (in-house) laboratory	61	27	16	4	14
Federally funded research and development center	67	40	10	<b>2</b>	15
Other	13	8	1	1	3
TOTAL PERC ENT	673 100	361 54	153 23	50 7	109 16

Data from sample drawn from *Physics Abstracts* in 1969. Articles published in Eastern Europe, Japan, and other regions are omitted from this table; according to Table XIV.9 of Volume II, Part B of *Physics in Peropective*, these constitute only about 2 percent of the total number of physics papers.

TABLE IV.4 Distribution of Physics Research Papers Among Different Types of Performing Institutions

		 Subfie	$\mathtt{lds}^b$		<u> </u>	
Performing Institution	Total Papers	AME & P&F	EP & NP	СМ	Opt, Acousti Misc	c, E&P
Academic	389	82	76	135	42	50
Industrial	148	17	4	96	22	9
Govt. laboratory						
DOD	24	2	2	11	4	4
NASA	13	1	1	2	2	7
Other	26	8	4	6	2	6
Federally funded						
research and de-						
velopment center						
AEC	64	9	18	28	7	2
Other	6	0	0	1	1	4
Other	15	3	2	5	2	2
TOTAL	694	122	107	284	82	84

 $<sup>^{</sup>lpha}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table IV.1, footnote lpha.

 $<sup>\</sup>hat{^{\mathcal{D}}}_{Astrophysics}$  and relativity and physics in biology are excluded from the subfield breakdown but included in the total.

Table IV.4, also based on the Keyes sample, gives the distribution of U.S. papers among different types of U.S. performing institutions in somewhat more detail than was given previously.\* Despite small-number statistics, such trends as the emphasis of NASA laboratories on earth and planetary physics and that of DOD laboratories on condensed-matter are evident.

Table IV.5, based on the sampling of Nuclear Science Abstracts, shows the geographical distribution of nuclear physics work in 1964 compared with 1969. The last column shows, for comparison, the distribution obtained from the 1969 sampling of Physics Abstracts. This comparison gives a clue to the relative coverage of the two sort, sampling fluctuaabstracting services. In all tables one w uld infer from the A tions are probably rather larger tha rule, since the papers are not rece andom but in groups .s. Conferences have an corresponding to issues of journals especially serious effect, since a large conference, even if international, held in country A results in a large burst of papers from A's delegation. This effect may partially, though by no means entirely, explain the spectacular shift in relative positions of France and West Germany between 1964 and 1969.

A circle of Nuclear Science Abstracts against Referativnyi Zhurna!, Fiziba for 1965 and 1969 indicated that Nuclear Science Abstracts misses few Soviet papers that satisfy the criteria that we have used for inclusion, probably only a few percent. It seems, however, that Nuclear Science Abstracts misses many more of the papers in the other countries of Eastern Europe, possibly about one third. (Many of the relevant journals are not even on the list scanned by Nuclear Science Abstracts.) Coverage of Japanese-language material in Nuclear Science Abstracts appears to be good.

# IV.1.3 THE WORLD'S POPULATION OF PUBLISHING PHYSICISTS IV.1.3.1 Goals

Although there are many sources of information about people who might be called physicists—for example, the files of the National Register, membership lists of scientific societies, and data on recipients of degrees—it is widely recognized that a large proportion of these people do not engage in research, at least if this activity is defined as work leading to publication in the archival research literature. It would be interesting to know how many people there are who engage in this activity, how they are distributed among the major nations, and something about their productivity. For example, how are they distributed in regard to the frequency with which they publish? How extensively is collaboration involved in their publication? How do these characteristics vary with geographic area?

Although a number of pertinent statistics about publications in physics have been collected by the Data Panel and others and are



<sup>\*</sup>Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Table XIV.11 and Figure XIV.32.

TABLE IV.5 Comparison of the Geographical Distribution of Institutions Publishing Papers Listed in Samples from Nuclear Science Abstracts in 1964 and  $1969^{\mathcal{Q}}$ 

	Location of Performing	1964			1969			
	Institution	Theoret Exp Total	Ехр	Total	Theoret	Exp	Total	1969 Phys. Abst.
	United States	69	114	183 (0.34)	146	219	365 (0.33)	(0.27)
	Other No. America	8	6	17 (0.032)	25	26	51 (0.046)	(0.059)
	So. America	7	7	6 (0.011)	5	7	6 (0.005)	(0,002)
	United Kingdom	6	16	(346) 25 (3.046)	29	35	64 (0.058)	(0.039)
	France	6	20	59 (0.11)	18	36	54 (0.049)	(0.025)
	W. Germany	7	11	18 (0.034)	35	70	105 (0.095)	(0.11)
	Other W. Europe	18	47	102 (0.19)	45	79	124 (0.11)	(0.11)
	U.S.S.R.	28	19	89 (0.165)	69	65	134 (9.12)	(0.14)
,,	Other E. Europe	7	12	19 (0.035)	22	27	49 (0,044)	(0.049)
	Africa	2	9	8 (0.015)	Ġ	6	15 (0.014)	(0.016)
_	Japan	5	11	16 (0.030)	20	21	41 (0.037)	(0.055)
	India	4	12	16 (0.030)	33	19	52 (0.047)	(0.023)
	Other Asia	9	٦	7 (0.013)	9	12	18 (0.016)	(0.021)
	Australia and N.Z.	2	9	8 (0.015)	9	9	12 (0.011)	(0.021)
	International centers	0	٣	3 (0,006)	•7	7	11 (0.010)	1
	Unknown	ı	1	1	ı	1	,	(0.047)
	World total in sample			539 (1.00)			1101 (1.00)	427

arractions of the world total appear in parentheses. Fractions for nuclear physics papers in the samples from Physics Abstracts 1969 reported in Table XIV.10 (a and b) of Volume II, Part B, of Physics in Perspective.

summarized in other volumes of *Physics in Perspective*,\* such counts of papers do not answer all the questions posed in the preceding paragraph. They show, for example, that the United States currently publishes about one third of the physics research papers covered by *Physics Abstracts* but leave unanswered the question whether the United States might have more than one third of the publishing physicists who are less productive than average of less than one third who are more productive.

#### IV.1.3.2 Methodology

The study we report was made on the papers in *Physics Abstracts* for the five years 1965—1969. Its geographic bias thus reflects that of *Physics Abstracts*, and we have not attempted to correct for this. Our sample consisted of all names in the following five intervals of the alphabet:

Bacchi to Backhurst (inclusive) Edelman to Edmonds (inclusive) Kini to Kinzly (inclusive) Ovsyuk to Ozawa (inclusive) Vasudevan to Vavilov (inclusive)

All names in any of the 1965-1969 author indexes that were in any of these intervals were recorded, and the total number of papers referenced for each such name was tabulated.

Each name was then assigned to a nation or geographic region. To make this assignment, a variety of measures had to be employed. Fortunately, many of the names could be found in the publications Who Is Publishing in Science and International Directory of Research and Development Scientists, issued by the Institute for Scientific Information. Names for which no address was located in these publications were checked against the membership directory of the APS, or the author's institution as recorded in Physics Abstracts (1969 only), Physikalische Berichte, or the title page of the original paper. By these and (occasionally) other means, national identification was achieved for essentially all names in the sample.

From these data we tabulated the number of authors in the alphabetical intervals sampled who had written one, two, or any number, s, of papers in the given five-year period and the number of these in each country or region. The relative numbers from the different countries will not, of course, be highly reliable, for it could well have happened that, for example, the alphabetical intervals chosen provided an underrepresentation of Russian names or an overrepresentation of those of some other nationality. However, as fairly reliable data are already available on the national and regional distribution of total papers published, it is sufficient if the present study merely supplies reasonably re-



Volume II, Part B, Chapter XIV; condensed version in Volume I, Chapter 13. †Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Tables XIV.10a and XIV.10b.

liable data on how prolific the authors of different nations are. Such data are presumably not sensitive to alphabetical selection, though they are subject to limitations resulting from the small size of the sample.

A much more serious worry in regard to the interpretation of the data is the question of how many of the authors should be designated physicist. Not only does Physics Abstracts cover a moderate amount of material that is closer to chemistry, engineering, geology, or some other science than to physics, but many people who consider their primary professional affiliation to be with one of these other disciplines occasionally write papers that are well within the scope of physics. A sampling of physics papers for a period of years will reveal many authors who do not consider themselves physicists. To provide a rough estimate of this effect, the U.S. authors in our sample were checked against the listings in American Men of Science. The professional identification of the authors listed in this publication was recorded. Many of the authors in our sample were not so listed, but it is reasonable to suppose that the distribution of their professional identifications would not be greatly different from that of the others.

IV.1.3.3 Raw Results

Table IV.6 shows the distribution of authors in regard to number

TABLE IV.6 Distribution of Authors in the Alphabetical Intervals Sampled, by Geographical Location and Number of Papers Contributed to the Listings of *Physics Abstracts* in 1965—1969

	_					 			
Country or Region	No. of Auth- ors		eare	ed or	n.	Papers per Author	Total Papers	Fraction of Papers Sampled	Frac-
United States	138	56	27	27	28	3.03	418	0.36	0.34
United Kingdom	55	27	7	10	11	2.82	155	0.13	0.08
Other W. Europe	68	34	11	12	11	2.71	184	0.16	0.19
U.S.S.R.	35	20	1	9	3	3.94	138	0.12	0.19
Other E. Europe	9	4	1		2	3.4	31	0.03	つ.01
Japan	36	10	6	9	11	4.75	171	0.15	0.06
Other Asia	7	3	1	2	1	2.1	15	0.01	0.05
Other	12	8	1	1	2	2.8	34	0.02	0.06
World total	360	162	55	79	71	3.19	1147	1.00	1.00

From Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Tables XIV.10a and XIV.10b.



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TABLE IV.7 Professional Self-Identification of U.S. Authors in the Physics Abstracts Sample

Discipline or Group of Disciplines	Designations Used <sup>a</sup>	No. of Authors	Fapers by These Authors
Physics	Physics (9); nuclear physics (4); solid-state physics (3); physics, mathematics (2); physics biophysics (2); theoretical physics (2); 6 other combinations containing the word physics	,	10.1
Fields difficult to assign	Electrical engineering, solid-state physics; applied mathematics, continuum mechanics; mechanics, metrology; physiological optics; vision	4	25
Astronomy	Astronomy (2); astron- omy, astrophysics; theoretical astrophysics	4	25
Chemistry	Physical chemistry (6); physical and inorganic chemistry; chemistry; agricultural chemistry	9	37
Metallurgy, etc.	Physical metallurgy (2); ceramics; ceramics, metallurgy; physical metallurgy, electron microscopy; materials science, metallurgy	6	18
Biology	Zoology; biochemistry; · anatomy	3	4
Total, all disciplines		63	227

The word or words between semicolons are those used by an author to describe his field in *American Men of Science*. If more than one author used the same words, the number of such authors is indicated in parentheses.



of papers published during the five-year interval and geographic areas in which they were based. It also compares the geographic distribution of the papers with that in the more comprehensive literature sample. Our sample undercounts papers from the U.S.S.R. and overcounts those from the United Kingdom; the numbers from other regions are in reasonable agreement.

Table IV.7 shows the distribution of professional identifications of those U.S. authors who could be located in American Men of Science. Note that at least half of the authors identify with a discipline outside physics, although these authors, as might be expected, contribute a slightly smaller fraction of the total papers.

#### IV.1.3.4 Discussion and Analysis

Our goal was to find out how many people are engaged in the research enterprise of physics. Unfortunately, this population is far from stationary in time. New people are continually entering and many leave. It has often been said, in fact, that many authors publish only one paper during their lifetime, for example, a thesis. We would like if possible to separate these authors from those with a continuing commitment-not necessarily lifelong-to research activity. A plausible though far from unique way of making such a separation is suggested by the semilogarithmic plot in Figure IV.1. Here, the points representing number of authors associated with sor more papers in our five-year sample lie reasonably well on a straight line for  $s \ge 2$ , but the point for s = 1 lies well above the line. Now there is a simple model that would predict a straight line for such a plot, namely, one that assumes that each author published at random times with an average rate r papers per year and that the distribution of authors per unit range of r is exponential:

$$n(r)dr = ve^{-\alpha r}dr. (7)$$

Indeed, according to the Poisson distribution, the fraction of authors of productivity r who publish s papers in  $\Delta t$  years is

fraction = 
$$\frac{e^{-r\Delta t}[r\Delta t]^{s}}{s!}.$$
 (8)

Combining Eqs. (7) and (8) we get for the number of authors publishing s papers in  $\Delta t$  years

$$N(s) = \frac{\Delta t^{s}}{s!} \int_{0}^{\infty} ve^{-\alpha r} e^{-r\Delta t} v^{s} dt = \frac{v\Delta t^{s}}{(\alpha + \Delta t)^{s+1}}, \qquad (9)$$

and the number publishing s or more papers is

$$\sum_{s}^{\infty} N(s') = \frac{v}{\alpha} \left( \frac{\Delta t}{\alpha + \Delta t} \right)^{s}$$
 (10)



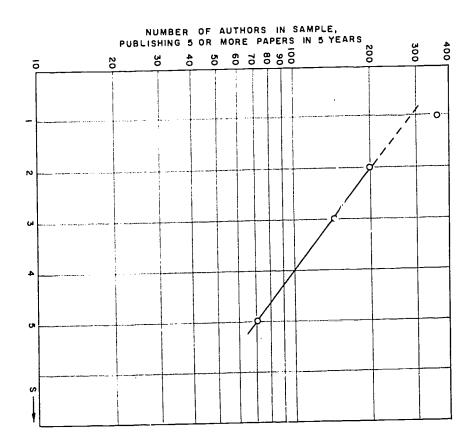


FIGURE IV.1 Semilogarithmic plot of cumulative totals from the last line of Table IV.1, showing the excessive number of one-paper authors.

The form (7) that we have assumed for n(y) is rather arbitrary and doubtless less accurate than one more like Locka's law\*

$$\sum_{s}^{\infty} N(s') \propto s^{-2} \text{ for } \Delta t \text{ equal to a lifetime}$$

or its generalizations, but it is clear that the large value for

<sup>\*</sup> Price, D. J. de S. Little Science, Big Science. New York, N.Y.: Columbia University Press, 1963, pp. 42 et seq.

s=1 must come from a peak in n(r) as very low r. So we shall undertake to analyze our data under the crude assumption that there are simply two populations of authors, those who publish once and those who publish continuously, the continuously publishing groups having a distribution of the form (7) for their rates of publication.

Accordingly, we shall undertake to fit the data of Table IV.6 by assuming that for any particular geographic region the number of authors attached to s papers in our sample is given by Eq. (9) for  $s \geq 2$ , but that for s = 1 it is the sum of Eq. (9) and a term  $\epsilon \Delta t$ . Table IV.8 shows the results obtained by fitting the three parameters  $\nu$ ,  $\alpha$ , and  $\epsilon$  to the total number of authors, the number with two or more papers, and the number with five or more. The paramenters so obtained can be used to predict the number associated with either three or four papers, and this number can be compared with the observed number as a check on the model, as we say in the table.

Comparing the top line of the table with the bottom one, we see that the number of transients, or one-paper authors, appearing in the five-year period is only a fraction of the population estimated to be active in research. The active population figure, of course, includes an allowance for those authors who are considered to be in research but who, through chance or their possession of a low publication rate, do not happen to have published any papers during the five-year period sampled. (This allowance factor is obvious, for the entries in the last column of the table are larger than the author entries in Table IV.6.) If one wishes to exclude such low publishers from the total considered to be part of the research community, one can compute a new total from the same model by employing a lower cutoff in the integration on r.

The totals for limited sections of the alphabet must still be converted into totals for the whole alphabet, and, less trivially, the distribution of authors between those who would be designated physicists and those who would be associated primarily with some other scientific or engineering discipline must be estimated. The conversion to the entire alphabet can be made in either of two

TABLE IV.8 Fit of World and U.S. Data of Table IV.6 to the Three-Parameter Model Described in Section IV.1.3.3

Parameters and Associated Quantities	World Data	U.S. Data
= number of transients	82.1	20.6
υ	792	362.8
, years	2.04	2.16
(3) + N(4), predicted	70	29
(3) + N(4), observed	72	27
Sumber permanently in research = $v/\alpha$	388	16 <b>6</b>
•		



ways: We can compare the number of columns of the author index sampled with the total size of this index, or we can compare the number of papers associated with names in the sample with the total number of papers in *Physics Abstracts*. The second approach is less straightforward, for one must allow for multiple authorship of papers. Thus if N authors publish P papers in a given interval, with an average of  $\overline{m}$  authors per paper and an average of  $\overline{P}$  papers associated with each author, we have

$$P\overline{m} = i / \overline{p} . \tag{11}$$

We can get N for, say, a given volume of Physics Abstracts, from the number P of papers in it, an estimate of  $\overline{p}$  from Table IV.6, and an estimate of  $\overline{m}$  from some other source. With the estimate  $\overline{m} = 2.06$ , obtained from a rather limited sample of articles,\* and with  $\overline{p}$  = 2.52 from Table IV.6, we get, for the entire five-year period, a total of about 138,000 authors publishing one or more papers. The uncertainties entering into this estimate are such that it is only to be regarded as a rough check on the estimate obtained from the size of the fraction of the author index that was sampled, which was 0.00280 of the alphabet. Dividing this number into the total of 360 authors in Table IV.6 yields a value of 127,500 for the number of authors contributing items to Physics Abstracts in this five-year period. The agreement between the two figures being reasonable, we shall perform all further calculations using the assumption that 0.00280 of the entire population has been sampled.

The most plausible way remake the division between physicists and nonphysicists is simply to add to the total of authors in the physics row of Table IV.7 one half of the total for the next row and to consider the other half of this row and all the remaining rows as nonphysicists. This procedure gives 32/63 as the physicist component of the sample. One might wonder whether the fraction determined in this way to be physicists would depend on the number of papers published, but in the data from which Table IV.7 was prepared such dependence seems to be slight. On final estimates of the number of persons identifying themselves as physicists and with a continuing activity in physics research, as of the average time 1967, are obtained by multiplying the figures in the last row of Table IV.8 by 32/63 (0.00280):

Number in the world  $\simeq 70,400$ ; Number in the United States  $\simeq 30,500$ .

These numbers are, of course, quite crude, as the discussion of their derivation makes clear. Still, it is impressive that they are so large. For example, the U.S. figure may be compared with the total of 32,500 physicists in the 1968 National Register, a figure one might expect to contain many nonpublishing people, or with the unduplicated membership of all member societies of the AIP, 42,700 in 1967, a number that doubtless not only contains



<sup>\*</sup> Physics in Perspective, Volume II, Part B, Chapter XIV, Section 4.5.

many nonpublishing people but also many who identify primarily with another discipline.

One other feature, evident in Table IV.6, should be noted: The average number of papers associated with a given author is much higher in Japan (4.75) than for the world as a whole (3.19). Although the Japanese sample was fairly small (36 authors), the difference is nearly two and one half standard deviations and could well be significant.

#### IV.1.4 PHYSICS THESES

To provide information about physics theses to the Physics Survey Committee, the Data Panel examined all the abstracts in the physics section of *Dissertation Abstracts\** from January through June 1970. The theses represent degrees awarded in 1969. Each thesis was classified according to physics subfield, whether it was experimental or theoretical, and size of the PhD program of the university.

The size classification was based on the list of PhD-awarding institutions appearing in the March 1969 issue of Physics Today. Any institution listed as awarding 20 or fewer PhD's in the five-year period, 1962-1967, was regarded as having a small program; those awarding more than 20 PhD's in that period were classified as large programs. Physics Today lists 137 PhD-awarding institutions, and 67 of these are small programs, so that 20 is about a median size for that time interval. About 10 percent of the PhD's were awarded by the small programs, according to the list in Physic Today.

The following limitations on data from Dissertation Abstracts must be noted:

1. Not all PhD-granting institutions send their theses to Dissertation Abstracts. Four of the large programs and nine of the small ones, which were responsible for 11.5 percent of the PhD degrees reported by Physics Today are not covered by Dissertation Abstracts. Furthermore, not all participating institutions send all their theses to Dissertation Abstracts.

2. Classification by subject field is made by the author of the thesis; therefore, it is not certain that all theses listed under physics represent work performed for a degree in physics.

The total number of theses in the sample was 597, which can be compared with about 1400 PhD's in physics awarded in 1969. Thus, total numbers per year can be estimated by multiplying the numbers in the sample by 2.34. Since the sample is for half a year, we assumed that about 85 percent of all physics theses appear in Dissertation Abstracts.

The results are summarized in Table IV.9. The first two columns give the number of theses in the sample by subfield and size of



<sup>\*</sup>Dissertation Abstracts International, periodical publication of University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan. † Physics Today, 22(3), 46 (March 1969).

TABLE IV.9 Production of Physics Theses in 1969

Sub- field <sup>a</sup>	Thes Samp Larg Univ	le e	Sma 1	1	Est.	$a^b$	NRC Tota	ul <sup>c</sup>	of a		Theo	reti-	Percentag Small Uni (%)	
				_										
A&R	5		3		19		_		1.3		100		38	
AME	37		17		127		127		9		39		31	
EP	64		16		188		220		15		55		20	
NP	80		16		225		188		16		28		17	
P&F	29		1		70		85		5		67		3	
P		22		1		54		63.		4		61	-	
F		7		0		16		24		1.2		86	-	
CM	189		57		577		360		41		22		23	
l.a.?	23		10		71		_		6		39		30	
Pβ	2		0		5		_		0.3		_		-	
Opt	15		2		40		16		3		6		12	
Acoust	9		1		23		11		2		50		10	
Misc,	15		6		49		304		4		67		29	
genera	a l													
TOTAL	468		129	-	L40 <b>0</b>		-		-		35		22	

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathcal{Q}}$ Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table IV.1, footnote a.

PhD program. The third column gives the estimated total number of theses in each subfield, obtained by multiplying the sum of the first two columns by 2.34. The fourth column compares these numbers with those obtained from Doctorate Recipients from United States Universities 1969,\* for those subfields for which there is a roughly equivalent NRC category. Many theses that belong in a subfield apparently appear in the general and other categories of Doctorate Recipients. The fifth column lists the percent of theses in each subfield according to the sample. The numbers are obtained by dividing column 3 by 1400. The sixth column gives the percentage of theoretical theses, defined as those that contain no new experimental information. The differences among subfields are not unexpected. The final column lists the percentage of theses from universities with small PhD programs.

To investigate changes in the distribution or number of theses with time, the Data Panel also surveyed the abstracts of physics theses in the January through June issues of *Dissertation Abstracts* for 1966. These abstracts refer to theses awarded in 1965. The numbers appear in Table IV.10, which is similar to Table IV.9. Com-



 $<sup>\</sup>dot{b}$ Obtained by multiplying the sum of the numbers in the preceding two columns by 2.34

CDoctorate Recipients from U.S. Universities 1969.

<sup>\*</sup>Doctorate Recipients from United States Universities, annual publication of the National Research Council, Washington, D.C.

TABLE IV.10 Production of Physics Theses in 1965

Sub- field <sup>a</sup>	These Sampl Large Univ.	e Small	Est. Total	NRC Tota	_	of all	_	Percent Theorem		
A&R	8	0	18			1.8		62 <sup>d</sup>	0	
AME	32	10	96	111		9		36	24	
EP .	65	2	153	180		15		63	3	
NP	88	3	208	158		20		30	3	
P&F	25	1	60	-		6		58	4	
P	2	2 1	5	3	-	5		-	-	
F		3 0		7	32	0.6		-	_	
CM	146	19	378	2 <b>9</b> 9		36		23	12	
E&P	26	6	73	_		7		31	19	
PB	3	1	9	_		0.9		0	-	
Opt	4	1	11	13		1.1		20	-	
Acoust	0	0	0	7		0			-	
Misc, genera	16 al	1	39	122		4		75	-	
TOTAL	413	44	1045	-		-		34	9	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup> $\alpha$ </sup>Subfield abbreviations used are the same as those identified in Table IV.1, footnote  $\alpha$ . <sup>b</sup>Obtained by multiplying the sum of the numbers in the preceding two columns by 2.29.

parison of the two tables shows a growth in the number of theses in all subfields. Significant changes in the distribution are difficult to find, although the decrease of the fraction of theses in nuclear physics and the increase in the fraction in condensed-matter are perhaps meaningful. The fraction of theoretical theses also did not change. The most striking difference is the increase in the proportion of PhD's awarded by institutions that were classified as small on the basis of the 1962—1967 listing. In 1965, these institutions awarded 9 percent of the PhD's included in the Dissertation Abstracts sample, consistent with the number of such programs obtained from the Physics Today list, 10 percent. By 1969, these same institutions awarded 22 percent of the PhD's. In fact, according to these samples, 57 percent of the increase in PhD production from 1965-1969 is in the small institutions (201 of 355). A slight distortion of the comparison results from an increase in the coverage of Dissertation Abstracts between 1965 and 1969, which included two of the large institutions awarding 82 PhD's in the 1962-1967 period and nine additional small programs responsivle for 22 PhD's.

Cpoctorate Recipients from U.S. Universities 1958-1966.

Two experimental studies of gravity and one cosmic-ray experiment were classified as astrophysics and relativity.

TABLE IV.II Distribution of Citations in Journals of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers

Total Journal Citations	Citations to Physics Journals	Percent	Citations to U.S. Physics Journals	Percentage of Physics Citations to U.S. Journals(%)
13 763	3015	22	2437	81
•		18	210	72
1,567	331	21	110	33
	Journal Citations 13,763 1,643	Journal to Physics Citations Journals  13,763 3015 1,643 293	Journal Citations         to Physics Journals         Percent           13,763         3015         22           1,643         293         18	Journal   to Physics   U.S. Physics   Journals   Percent   Journals   13,763   3015   22   2437   1,643   293   18   210

# IV.1.5 PHYSICS CITATIONS IN THE ENGINEERING LITERATURE

Several surveys of sources of citations to the journal literature in publications of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) (formerly the American Institute of Electrical Engineers and the Institute of Radio Engineers) have been made.\* The substantial number of citations to the physics literature indicate continuing dependence of electrical and electronics engineering on physics. Table 1V.II shows the distribution of citations.

The category, possics journals, includes the following: all journals publishe by the AIP, Swiet Physics JETP, Proceedings of Journal of the Physica! Society of Japan, the Physical 350 Themistry of Solids, Canadian Journal of Journal of Pi. the Royal Society, Journal of Mathematics Physics, Proc. j't für Physik, Annalen der Physik, Japanese and Physics, ysics, Physica, Philosophical Magazine, and Journal of Helvetica I javou ...ta. Of course, there are other physics journals, but others do not appear in the list of journals cited. A more difficult problem pertains to interdisciplinary journals such as Nature. Undoubtedly, a certain amount of physics is represented in citations ' ure, but, as there is no way to measure this amount, they all not counted in the citations to physics journals.

Apparation, physics journals have accounted for about 20 percent of the journal citations in the electrical engineering literature for many years. The ratio persisted through the rapid expansion of the IEEE publication program during the 1950's.

The other striking feature of the table is the steady growth of the fraction of citations to journals published in the United States. The same trend would certainly emerge in counts of physics publications, but it is interesting and perhaps more significant to see it confirmed by a study of the use of the literature.

<sup>\*</sup>Coile, R.C. IEEE Transactions on English Writing and Speech.
EWS-12, 71 (1969); Proceedings of the Institute of Radio Engineers,
38, 1380 (1950); Journal of Documentation (London), 8, 209 (1952);
Dalziel, C. F. Electrical Engineering, 57, 110 (1938); Library
Quarterly, 7, 354 (1937).

#### IV.2 Use and Usefulness

Numerous small sampling and observational studies of the use of the literature of physics were made during the course of the Physics Survey and have been reported, together with earlier studies by others, in Chapter XIV of Volume II, Part B, of Physics in Perspective. The purpose of this section is to add a small post-script to what was written then by describing one further study that was not then sufficiently advanced to discuss. Even now, only sketchy results are available, so the methodology may be of more value than the results.

The study was designed to find out how well the typical active research physicist succeeds in maintaining awareness of work published in other countries that has an important bearing on his own interests. This question is basic to many decisions on information services: Elaborate schemes to imprive current awareness are hardly worthwhile, for example, if physicists are already in touch with all the information they are interested in trying to assimilate. The key words in the question we hoped to answer are "important bearing on his own interests." Although one might argue that many physicists do not know what is important to their own interests, one is usually on rather shaky ground in trying to overrule the judgment of the persons whose interests are involved. Consequently, the best way to set up a study of this question would seem to be to base it on value judgments of the individuals concerned, which was the approach adopted in our study.

A physicist, whose own interests led him to scan a rather wide range of literature on condensed-matter, selected numbers of articles from those he encountered in browsing through non-U.S. publications—articles that he considered likely to appeal to the interests of some 30 of his colleagues. From time to time he provided each of these colleagues with a one-paragraph résumé of those aspects of a paper likely to interest him and the bibliographic reference. Such distributions were made only after at least six months had elapsed from the time the article became available in the library but less than 18 months after this time. The colleague would examine the material and answer two types of questions about it, as shown on the form reproduced in Figure IV.2. The questions of II enabled the returns to be analyzed in such a way as to make the results almost independent of the quality of the initial selection of articles: Only returns on which II.1 or II.2 were checked were counted. There were no failures to respond.

Some typical preliminary results appear in Table IV.12. The numbers are so small that sampling errors could be substantial, but they suggest that about half of the non-U.S. literature items that U.S. physicists would e interested in taking time to examine may fail to come to their attention within the first year after their appearance. The loss entailed is considerably mitigated, however, by the general redundancy of the literature: In many cases similar results or ideas are put forward by several investigators.

The study was so designed that figures could be separately tabulated for experimentalists and theorists and for articles in foreign languages. Further studies of this sort would be of substantial interest.



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I.	Previou	is familiarity with the item. (Check on	e.)
	1.	I had previously seen enough of this item to evaluate its degree of interest for me.	
	2.	I had heard of this item, but had not evaluated its interest.	
	3.	I had not heard of this item, but was already aware of results equivalent to those quoted in the communication on it.	
	4.	I had not heard of this item, and was not aware of the results quoted in the communication on it.	
Ι [.	the the cate wor high ing de lesser all an abstra	est in this item. By checking one of aree alternatives below, please indipole there this item was of low, medium the interest to you, the boundaries bestined by whether it was of greater or interest to you than (a) median of ticles of which you read at least the act, or (b) the median of the text.	
	1.	Interest of this < median of ab- stracts.	
	2.	Median of read abstracts $\leq$ interest of this $\leq$ median of read articles.	
	3.	Interest of this > median of read articles.	
FIGURE	IV.2	Evaluation form for physicists queried	about journal

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articles.

TABLE IV.12 Familiarity of a Sample of Physicists  $^a$  with Results of Interest to Them Fublished in Non-U.S. Journals and Available for at Least Six Months  $^b$ 

Degree of Familiarity	Degree of Interest <sup>o</sup> At Least as High as Median of Abstracts Read (Categories II.2 + II.3)	Higher than Median of Articles Read (Category II.3)
Seen or heard of:	12	4
Evaluated (Cate- gory 1.1)	11	3
Not evaluated (Category I.2)	1	1 .
Not heard of:	12	4
Aware of similar results (Category 3)	6	1
Not aware of re- sult (Category 4)	6	3

aRespondents were theoreticians in nine cases, experimentalists in 15



bEntries are numbers of cases.

 $<sup>\</sup>mathcal{C}$ In addition to the 24 cases tabulated, there were six discarded replies checking item II.1.

V INDEX OF DATA

This chapter is devoted to a crude but, it is hoped, usable index to socioeconomic data contained in all the volumes of *Physics in Perspective*, including the present one. (Data of a purely scientific rather than socioeconomic nature are not included in this index, although they occur frequently in the earlier volumes. Diagrams that are schematic, rather than quantitative, are also omitted.)

The organization of the index is based on the categories of independent and dependent variables that we described in Section I.2.1. Each table or figure has been classified, first, according to the nature of the quantity tabulated or plotted as ordinate and, second, according to the variable or variables on which its functional dependence is shown. Using the terms "dependent variable" and "independent variable" for these two categories, respectively, we shall arrange the index according to the various combinations as follows:

### DEPENDENT VARIABLES

People. Numbers or proportional amount of
Manpower, (Employable) (ME)
Manpower, (Students) (MS)
Money. Dollar figures or proportional amounts of

Money. Dollar figures or proportional amounts of Funding (\$F). Money assigned to broad programs of scientific research, etc.

Other money (\$0). Salaries, income, GNP, costs of equipment, etc. Publications (P). Numbers or proportional amounts of articles, books, etc.

Miscellaneous (Misc.). All quantities plotted or tabulated, other than people, money, or publications.

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#### INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

T/m.

Plucipline. Physics, chemistry, geology, etc. or, occasionally, physical sciences, biological sciences, etc.

Subdiscipling. Smaller groupings than the above, most often the subfields of physics.

Activity. Such distinctions such as basic and applied research, development, management, teaching, etc.

Geographical. Distinction of one country or one region from another. Institution or type of institution. This may refer to one or more specific institutions performing work in physics or, more often, to the distinction between types of institutions, such as universities, industrial laboratories, government laboratories.

Support source. Agency or sector of the economy from which work is supported.

Degree or rank. Most often this contrasts holders of doctoral degrees (usually designated "PhD," though ScD, etc. are included); sometimes academic faculty rank is used or, for students, the level.

Age.

For a given dependent variable, not all the independent variables just listed will be of interest. For example, the last two are relevant only if the dependent variable is one of the "people" type. In the tables below, only the more important independent variables are used. We have omitted those that were found to occur seldom or never among the tables listed.

Whenever a table or figure specializes its data to one or several values of an independent variable, there is an index entry corresponding to this variable. If the data refer to only one value of the variable (e.g., if the variable is subdiscipline and the data refer only to nuclear physics), the entry is the numeral 1, or, in certain important cases, a special abbreviation—when the data refer to the United States, the entry in the Geographical column is "U.S."; when they refer to physics, that in the Discipline column is "P". If they refer to two values of the independent variable, the entry is 2; this entry is also usually used, for example, when the data contrast one subfield with all the rest of physics. If the data are separated according to more than two values of the independent variable, the entry is X.

The right half of each index page contains additional information that may be useful.

Source. This is an abbreviated clue to the source of the data. Not all sources are identified, but the following are (though only in cases where the nature of the source was obvious to the indexer): The National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel (R); other questionnaires to individuals or to organizations (Quest.); records of government agencies supporting R&D (Ag); records of other organizations (Rec); abstracting-indexing publications (A&I); research journals (J); scientific and tech-



nical literature in general (Lit.); editors (Eds.); interviews (Int.).

Remirks. Any combination of words or symbols that will provide, within the small space available, a clue to the subject matter of the index entry. For the subfields of physics corresponding to the panels of the Physics Survey, the usual abbreviations are used: Astrophysics and Relativity (A&R); Atomic, Molecular, and Electron Physics (AME); Elementary-Particle Physics (EP); Nuclear Physics (NP); Plasma Physics and Physics of Fluids (Pl.\$Fl.); Physics of Condensed Matter (CM); Earth and Planetary Physics (E&PP); Physics in Biology (Ph. in Biol.); Optics (Opt.); Acoustics (Acoust.).

Item. Preceding the colon is the relevant volume of Physics in Perspective; following it is the figure (F) or table (T) number or, occasionally, some other designation to identify data material. Cross entries. When a figure or table supplies data of more than one of the dependent-variable types enumerated above (e.g., supplies both funding and manpower data), it will, of course, be entered in more than one place in the index. In such cases, each entry contains, in the last column, the abbreviations for the dependent variables of the other entries.

We have tried to follow as literally as possible the indexing scheme just described. For example, tables giving mean salaries of different types of people are indexed under \$0, not ME; ages are under Misc., though age distributions are under ME; a plot of words per year in journals is Misc., not P. But in many cases, hasty and rather arbitrary decisions had to be made, of which we shall try to list some of the most conspicuous. Data on number of people changing between one employment or specialty and another between two given years are usually identified by a l in the "Time" column, as they approximate the value of a time derivative evaluated at one time. Data on degrees granted have been assigned to the ME category not the MS. The identification of interdisciplinary areas may not always have been consistent: an area whose physics component is only one of our subfields (e.g., E&PP) may have components belonging to two or three major disciplines, and if these are separated in a table, a 2 or an X in the discipline column is appropriate, even though there is a l in the subdiscipline column. Even fuzzier is the situation with regard to commercial products, etc.: often these have been associated regularly with a nonphysics discipline (e.g., electrical engineering) to justify a l in the "Discipline" column. Data referring in one sense to one value of an independent variable but in another sense to two or more values (e.g., scientists working in the U.S. but classified according to country of origin) are usually given a 2 or an X in the relevant column.

The arrangement of the index is as follows: Each of the Tables V.1 to V.10 is devoted to a particular one of the dependent variables and in some cases to the combination U.S. physics, of the geographical and discipline variables, or to the remaining combinations (including the combination of U.S. with any other discipline or with a multiplicity of disciplines in which physics might be included). Within each of the tables, the entries are arranged in the order of the entries in the first column—X, 2, 1 (or U.S. or P,

when appropriate), no entry—and under each of these in the order of entries in the second column. Further ordering is not by entries in the other columns but is sequential through the four volumes of Physics in Peropective. The tables are

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Manpower (Employable)—U.S., Physics
Manpower (Employable)—Other Than (U.S., Physics)
Table V.2
Table V.3
               Manpower (Students)
Table V.4
               Funding—U.S., Physics
Funding—Other Than (U.S., Physics)
Table V.5
Table V.6
               Other Money
Table V.7
               Publications—U.S., Physics
Table V.8
               Publications-Other Than (U.S., Physics)
              Miscellaneous—U.S., Physics
Miscellaneous—Other Than (U.S., Physics)
Table V.9
Table V.10
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200 Entries ·Cross I:T12.12 IIC:TIII.21 Migration, pl. phys. 1:74.81
Migration, pl. phys. 1:74.8.2
Migration, NP 1:F4.8.2
Migration, AME 1:F4.8.4
Migration, AME 1:F4.8.5
Migration, A&R 1:F4.8.6
Migration, Ph in Biol. 1:F4.8.8
Migration, Ph in Biol. 1:F4.8.8
Migration, Acoust. 1:F4.8.9
Migration, E&PP 1:F4.8.9
Migration, Pl. 7F1 1:F4.8.10 11C:TII.12 11C:TII.2 11C:TII.47 11C:TII.48 11C:TII.14 11C:FII.7 11C:FII.7 I:App.4A I:T12.10 I:T12.13 1:F4.8 1:T12.9 Institutional distrib. Migration, Pl. AF1 Distrib. of emp. Subfield distrib. Program elements Students & PhD's Nonacad. emp. Types of insts. Gov & Industry Remarks Emp. patterns Univ. sample Emp. patterns Emp. patterns Emp. patterns Univ. emp. Source Quest. **KKKKKKKKKK** Support Source Time TABLE V.1 Manpower (Employable)--U.S. Physics Rank Exp. Activity Degree Age or Institu-tion (or Type) discipline

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Cross Item Entries	1:F4.2 1:F4.3 1:F4.7 1:T8.10	72.	<pre>11.23 SF,315C. 11.24 SF,Misc. 11.25 SF,Misc.</pre>			G	_								
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Emps. of opt. scientistsIIA:TV.1
Acoust. vs all physics IIA:FVI.2 IIA:TV.2 Item Mobility vs overlap NP vs total physicists Ph. in Biol. NP vs total physicists Acoust. vs all physics Acoust. vs all physics Self-identification Competence overlap E&PP emp. patterns Mob. & competence Subfield distrib. E&PP mobility Subfield mobility Subfield mobility Opt. scientists Remarks AME population AME physicists E&PP mobility Ph. in Biol. AME physics Source Support Source Time TABLE V.1 Manpower (Employable)--U.S. Physics (cont.) Activity  $\times \times \times \times \times$ Rank Exp. Degree Age or (or Type) Institution ××××× discipline

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TABLE V.1 Manpower (Employable)-U.S. Physics (cont.)

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Cross

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	Kemarks	Age vs rank Academic insts. Nonacademic insts. Teachers vs others Industry & business Educ. insts. Nonacad. em. proj. Ind. physicists Govt. physicists ASM vs AIP ASN vs BLS Distrib. of activities Distrib. of activities Distrib. of activities Development R&D vs non-R&D PhD's granted	Manpower flow Freshmen thru faculty	AIP placement reg. Unemployment Emp. projections Prod. projections	Grads. & enrollments PhD projections
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TABLE V.l Manpower (Employable)U.S. Physics (cont.)	Institu- tion (or Type)			·	
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TABLE V.2 Manpower (Employable—Other than (U.S., Physics)
(No tables in this category have a breakdown by age.)

	Disci-	Sub-	Insti- totion	Degree	A • 1 · · · ·	Support	T1=-	Source	Remarks	ltem	Cross Entrie
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1'5	i	- 3		2	x		i	R	CM vs all phys.	IIA:TIV.9	
0%	1	X		1			1	R		IIB:TVIII.2	
US	1			X			x			118:FIX.17 118:FIX.18	
US US	1		х	х	x		1	R		IIC:FII.I3	
US	•		· x		^		1	i "	Full profs.	I:T9.6	
US			••				x		Unemployment	1:F12.4	
vs							x	}		I:T12.21	50 .MI
US							X	Į		1:T12.23A 1:T12.23D	30 , A1
US US		2		1	x		X 2	Juest.		IIA:TII.28	
US		•		×	.,		1	Quest.	Teacher backgrounds	IIB:FXIII.2	
				X				Juest.	Students & teachers	IIB:FXIII.4	MS
us	P						1	A&I		IIC:FIV.1	

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ME, Misc. \$F, ME, P,) Misc. ) Entries Cross ME ME ME 世紀 田田 I:F12.26 IIB:FXIII.5 11C:T11.40 11C:T111.20 IIB:FXIII.4 IIB:FX111.1 IIC:TII.41 I:F12.5 IIC:TII.24 I:T12.20 I:F12.22 I:T12.21 1:F12.10 I:T12.4 I:F12.9 I:T12.5 I:T12.2 I:F12.6 I:T12.6 I:T12.1 Item Projections of pop. Enrollment projections Educ. & emp. pipeline Educ. mobility H.S. sci. enrollments Freshman thru faculty % entering grad. sch. Citizenship & sex Grads. & enrollments Projections of pop. Students & teachers Subfield distrib. Students & PhD's H.S. enrollments Choices of major Student support Grad. stipends Career choices Remarks Manpower flow Univ. sample Fed. support TABLE V.3 Manpower (Students)—-U.S. (None of the reports give data on students outside the U.S. Quest. R Quest. Quest. Quest. Quest. Source Quest. Level Source Time Support Degree or × × (or Type) Institution × × Disci- discipline Sub-×× pline

TABLE V.4 Funding—U.S., Physics

Sub-	Institution	Support				-	Cross
discipline	(or Type)	Source	Time	Source	Remarks	Item	Entries
×	1		1	Quest.	Univ. Sample	II:TIII.21	ME
×			1		Program elements	I:App.4A	
×			×	Ag.	Basic phys. funds	I:F5.2	
×		2	1	Ag, other	Fed. & ind. funding	I:T5.2	
×			×	Quest.	Biophys. facilities	1:T9.8	\$0
×		7	×	Ag	AEC	I:F10.4	
×		П	×	Ag.	NSF	I:F10.5	
×		-	×	Ag.	DOD	I:F10.6	
×		т	П	Ag.	ARO	I:T10.A.12	
×		1		Ag.	NBS	I:T10.A.18	
×			2	•	NP projections	IIA:TII.23	ME, Misc.
×			2	•	NP projections	IIA:TII.24	ME, Misc.
×			7		NP projections	IIA:TII.25	ME, Misc.
×		×	×	Ag.	Ag. expenditures	. IIC:TIII.9	
×		×	×	Ag.	DOD expenditures	IIC:TIII.10	
×		×	-	Ag.	NASA support	IIC:TIII.14	
×		7	п	Ag.	NBS expenditures	IIC:TIII.15	
×		×	1	Ag.	Funding distrib.	IIC:FIII.2	<u>α</u> ,
2			1	Ag.	AME physics	IIA:FIII.5	ME, P
2		×	-	Quest, Ag.	CM vs all physics	IIA:TIV.1	
-	×		×	Ag.	EP expenditures	IIA:TI.6	
1	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:TI.10	
7	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:TI.11	
1	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:TI.12	
٦	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:TI.13	
1	×	٠	×	Ag.	EP expenditures	IIA:FI.21	
	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:FI.23	
-	×		×		EP cost projections	IIA:FI.24	

Cource Time   Source   Remarks   Item	<u>  [</u>	TABLE V.4 Funding-U.S., Physics	, Physics	(cont.)	$\hat{}$			
X	Instf (or	tution Type)	Support	Time	Source	Remarks	Įtem	Cross Entries
Ag. NP costs   II		*		×			IIA:FI.25	
Ag. NP costs   I]		< >				EP cost projections	IIA:FI.26	
Ag. EP		<b>4</b> >		: >	Ασ.	NP costs	IIA:FII.18	
Ag. EP		<b>~</b>		< >	, o	d.H	I:F4.17	贸
X						d ii	I:F4.18	Æ
A&.					V	d N	I:F4.29	띶
A&S			ć	۲ -	₩ <b>₹</b>	a.v	I:F4.30	Æ
A&			7	→ >	, oc	**************************************	I:F4.39	ME
Ag. CM			c	۲,	79. V	1	I:F4.40	핖
Ag. CM			7	→ >	₩ <b>₹</b>	200	I:F4.45	ME
Ag. Opt.   1     Ag. Opt.   1     Ag. Acoust.   1     Ag. Acoust.   1     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1     Ag. Acoust.   1     Ag. Rec.   LAMPF   1     X Rec.   NAL   X     X Ag. Rec.   NAL   X     X Ag. NP funding NP   1     Quest., Ag. Univ. funding NP   1     Quest., Ag. Univ. funding NP   1     Natl. lab. NP projects   1     Natl. lab. NP projects   1     New NP facilities   1     New NP faci			ć	۷ -	A8.	: B	I:F4.46	Æ
Ag. Opt.   Ag. Acoust.   Ag. Acoust.   I   Ag. Acoust.   I   Ag. Acoust.   I   Ag. Pl.&Fl.   I   Ag. Pl.&Fl.   I   Ag. Aco.   I   Ag. Ac.   I   I   Ag. Ac.   I   I   Ag. Ac.   I   I   I   Ag. Ac.   I   I   I   I   I   I   I   I   I		•	. 7	<b>→</b> -	A8.		I:F4.52	Æ
Ag. Acoust.   1   Ag. Acoust.   1   Ag. Acoust.   1   Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1   1   Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1   1   Ag. A&R			ď	→ -	A8.	Opr.	I:F4.53	Æ
Ag. Acoust.   1     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   1     1   Ag. A&R			7	→ >	Αβ. •	A COURT	I:F4.61	Æ
Ag. Pl.&Fl.   I     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   I     Ag. Pl.&Fl.   I     Ag. A&R     Ag. A&R     Ag. A&R     Rec. IAMPF     Rec. NAL     Ag. EP expenditures   I     Ag. NP support     Ag. NP funding NP     Quest.,Ag. Univ. NP projects     Natl. lab. NP projects			c	۲ -	A8.	Acoust	I:F4.62	띺
Ag. P1.6F1.   I Ag. A&R			7	<b></b> +		D1 &F1	I:F4.70	띶
Ag. A&R   I   Ag. A&R   I   Ag. A&R   I   Ag. A&R   I   I   Ag. Rec. LAMPF   I   I   Ag. Rec. NAL   I   Ag. Rec. NAL   I   Quest., Ag. NP funding   I   Quest., Ag. Univ. Reding NP   I   Natl. lab. NP projects   I   Natl. lab. NP projects   I			c			P1 &F1	I:F4.71	Æ
X Rec. LAMPF X Rec. NAL X Ag. EP expenditures X Ag. NP support X Quest.,Ag. NP funding I Quest.,Ag. Univ. funding NP I Quest.,Ag. Univ. NP projects I Natl. lab. NP projects I NP projects			7 (			A&R	I:F4.78	Æ
PALE PROPORTION OF SUPPORT OF SUP			٧	<b>→</b> >	Ref.	I.AMP F	I:F5.17	\$0
EP expenditures NP support NP funding Univ. funding NP Univ. NP projects Natl. lab. NP projects NP projects NP projects NP wow NP facilities				< >	Bec.	NAI.	I:F5.18	\$0
NP support NP funding Univ. funding NP Univ. NP projects Natl. lab. NP projects NP projects New NP facilities				< >	AP.	EP expenditures	IIA:FI.22	
NP funding Univ. funding NP Univ. NP projects Natl. lab. NP projects NP projects New NP facilities				; ×	Ae.	NP support	IIA:FII.17	\$0
Univ. funding NP 1 Univ. NP projects 1 Natl. lab. NP projects 1 NP projects 1 New NP facilities 1				: >	Oner Ae	NP funding	IIA:TII.9	
Univ. NP projects  Natl. lab. NP projects  NP projects  New NP facilities				< −	Quest., Ag.	Univ. funding NP	IIA:TII.11	띶
jects I ]				٠,	.0	Univ. NP projects	IIA:TII.12	Misc.
						Natl. lab. NP projects	IIA:TII.13	Misc.
						NP projects	IIA:TII.14	ME, Misc.
				2		New NP facilities	IIA:TII.15	WE

TABLE V.4 Funding-U.S., Physics (cont.)

	Sub- discipline	Institution (or Type)	Support	Time	Source	Remarks	Item	Cross Entries
	1			-	Ag.	NP projects	21 114:411	
	_			٦	0		114:111:10	ME, MISC.
	٠.			<b>1</b> (			IIA:TII.17	ME, Misc.
	- ۱			.7		NP projections	IIA:TII.18	ME, Misc.
	<b>⊣</b> -			5		NP projections	IIA:TII.19	ME, Misc.
	<b>⊣</b> ←			5		NP projections	11A:TII.20	ME, Misc.
	<b>-</b> -			2		NP projections	11A:TII.21	ME, Misc.
•	<b>⊣</b> -		;	7		NP projections	11A:TII.22	ME, Misc.
	٦.		Χ,	× .	Ag.	AME	IIA:FIII.4	•
	٦.		٠ ٠	٦.	Ag.	NSF proposals AME	IIA:FIII.7	Misc.
16	٦.		4	-	Ag.	NSF proposals AME	IIA:FIII.8	Misc.
560	٦.			×		Underwater & geoacoust.	IIA:TVI.2	
5	٦.		×	×	Ag.	Acoust.	IIA:FVI.4	
	٦.		×	-		Acoust. subdivisions	IIA:TVI.4	ME
	<b>⊣</b> -		;	×		Projections AC areas	IIA:FVI.5	
	٦-		×	×	Ag.	AME & Pl. support	IIA: FVII. 3	
			×	٦.		Phys. of Fl.	IIA:sec.VII8.2	C1
	<b>⊣</b> -		•	-	Ag.	A&R funding	11B:TVIII.4	
	<b>-</b>	:	٦,	×	Ag.	NASA space phys.	11B:FIX.19	
		× :	1	×	Ag.	AEC labs.	I:F9.15	
٠ د		× ;		-		Teaching expenditures	IIB:TXIII.1	ME.SO.Misc.
7	. 3	<b>×</b> :		-	Quest.	Ind. public & support	IIC:TIII.19	ρ.
		Χ,		1	Quest.	Univ. sample	IIC:TIII.20	ME.MS.P.Misc.
		٦,	•	-	64	Salary costs	I:T11.2	ME, \$0
		٦,	5	×		Ind. funding	IIC:TIII.17	
		<b>⊣</b>	1	-	Quest.	Univ. salary support	IIC:TIII.22	
				×	Ag.	Federal support	I:F1.1	
				×	Ag.	Federal support	I:F5.16	

**₩** 

Sub-   Institution Support								
I.F10.3 I.F10.7 I:T10.A.14 I:T11.1 I:T11.3 I:F11.6 Jigs. IIB:TXIII.3 IIB:FXIV.9) I:F13.5 IIC:TII.17 IIC:TII.17	Sub- discipline	Institution (or Type)	Support Source	Time	Scurce	Remarks	Item	Cross Entries
udget 1:F10.7 1:T10.A.14 1:T11.1 1:T11.3 1:F11.6 51igs. 1:F11.6 11B:FXIV.9) 1:F13.5 11C:TII.17			×	×	Αφ.	Basic phys.	I.F10.3	
indger 1:F10.7 1:T10.A.14 1:T11.1 1:T11.3 1:F11.6 1:F13.5 1:F13.5 1:F13.5 1:F13.5 1:C:TII.17 11C:TII.17			<b>:</b>	:	D.		7. 011.1	
1:T10.A.14 1:T11.1 1:T11.3 1:F11.6 1:B:TXIII.3 1IB:FXIV.9 ) 1:F13.5 ) 11:F13.5 ) 11:C:TII.17			7	×	Ag.	Physics/total budget	1:110.7	
1:T11.1 1:T11.3 1:F11.6 1:B:TXIII.3 1IB:FXIV.9 ) 1:F13.5 ) 11C:TII.17 11C:TII.11			-		Ag.	NASA	I:T10.A.14	
ıres Oligs.			ı		)	Teaching phys.	1:T11.1	ME, \$0
ures oligs.			×	-	Ag.	Salary costs	1:T11.3	
oligs.			×	×	Ag.	Educ. expenditures	I:F11.6	
			×	1	Ag.	Federal res. obligs.	IIB:TXIII.3	
				1	Rec., other	Info. services	IIB:FXIV.9)	
Federal obligs. I IDL support					•		I:F13.5 )	
IDL support	•		×	1	Ag.	Federal obligs.	IIC:TII.17	
				×	Ag.	IDL support	11C:T111.11	

TABLE V.5 Funding-Other than (U.S., Physics)

Discipline
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	Cross	EILLIES																•	MS				Misc.
	1,000	Lem	IIB:TIX.14	IIB:TIX.15	IIB:TIX.16	IIB:TIX.17	IIB:TIX.18	IIB:TIX.19	I:F10.1	I:F10.2	I:T10.A.5	I:T10.A.7	I:T10.A.9	I:T10.A.13	I:T10.A.16	I:T10.A.19	I:F12.2	I:F12.3	I:F12.10	I:F12.11	I:F12.13	I:T12,18	IIA:TII.2
-	d	Kemarks	NSF atmos. sci.	CAS recommendations	NSF geosci.	NSF geophys.	NSF oceanog.	OSSA typical	R&D etc.	Basic res.	Ag. distrib.	NSF	DOD vs NSF	Navy	HIN	Interior	R&D	Ind. R&D	Fed. support & GNP	Sources of R&D funds	Basic res.	Basic res. vs all R&D	Accelerators
(cont.)		Source	Ag.		Ag.	Ag.	Ag.	Ag.	Surveys	Ag.	Ag.	Ag.	Ag.	Ag.	Ag	Ag.					_		
ics)	·	Time	×	7	×	×	×		×	×	×	×	×	×	7	7	×	×	×	×	×	×	7
J.S., Phys		Source	1		1	1	1	7	2	×	×	-	2	1	1	2			1	2		2	
ther than (l	Sub-	discipline			×	-																	
TABLE V.5 Funding—Other than (U.S., Physics) (cont.)		graphic Discipline discipline	1	-	7	-	1	_															
TABLE V.5	Geo-	graphic	U.S.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	U.S.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.		u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.	U.S.	u.s.	u.s.	u.s.

TABLE V.6 Other Money

1	1																										
Cross Entries								Misc.		SF											SF	SF	X E	Ä			
Item	I:F7.4	TIA:TIV.7	1.57, 106	1:F4:100	I:F4.108	I:F4.109	1:T7.2	I:F7.10	I:T8.1	1:F8.6	IIB:FXII.1	IIB:FXII.2	IIB:FXII.3		I:T7.3	I:F7.3	IIB:FXIV.21	IIC:TIII.23	I:T5.1	IIC: FIII. 12	_	I:F5.18	I:F9.10	I:F9.11	T:F9.12	T - FQ 12	
Remarks	Exports & imports	Electronic trade	Usage	Prices	Mfg. output	Labor costs	GNP	GNP & energy	Relative R&D costs	Know-how sales	Wage payments	Consumer prices	Man-hour productivity	Unit labor costs	U.S. trade	U.S. trade	Prerun costs	Cost increase	Costs/man-yr.	AEC costs	PF .	NAL	Academic insts.	Nonacademic insts.	Salaries	Salaries	
Source							٠,										Rec.	Ag.		Ag.	Rec.	Rec.	×	æ	<b>~</b>	~	
Time	-	-	×	: ×	×	×	-	-	_	_	×	×	×	×	×	×	_	_	_	×	×	×	_	_	_	1	
Age or Exp. Activity Time									•																	×	
Age or Exp.																							×	×	_	_	
Degree or Rank																							<b>-</b>	_	-	_	
Insti- tution (or Type)																	ć	7	;	×			<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	×	-	
Sub- Disci- disci- pline pline																		;	<:	Κ,	→ -	<b>→</b>					
Disci- pline	×	_							~-i					٥	< ;	< >	< >	< ₽	<b>.</b> , բ	<b>1</b> 4 p	7+ E	<b>.</b>	<b>1</b> 4 £	<b>1</b> 4 (	ו ויב	4	
Geo- graphíc	×	×	×	×	×:	× ;	<;	×; >	‹ ›	< >	< >	< >	< >	۲ ۲												0.5.	

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TABLE V.6 Other Money (cont.)

	ss es	1		EI.	Į.	;	F,	٥.			ΉE										٠.	٥.					;				
	Cross	0.0	J.	SF, ME	ME, SF	Misc.	ď.,	Misc.			Misc. ME	•	SF								Misc.						Misc.				
	Item	1.70 8	1.17.0	I:T11.1	I:T11.1	IIA:TII.8	IIB:TXIII.1		IIB:TXIII.2	I:F9.1	I:T12.23A	I:T12.23B	IIA:FII.17	IIA:FIV.2	IIA:FIV.3	IIA:FIV.4	IIA:TIV.2	RIIB:TXIII.4	IIB:FXIV.22	1:F4.101	IIA:TII.4	IIB:FXIV.14	SIIB: FXIV. 24	IIB:FXIV.44	I:F4.111	I:F4.112	I:F7.2	IIB:FXII.6	IIB:FXII.7	sI:F7.1	IIB:XIITH.
	Remarks	Biophys facilities	probings: ractificies	Teacher salaries	Salaries	New accelerators	Teacher salaries		Salaries	Cost/scientist	GNP factors	GNP components	GNP	Semicond, sales	Magnetics sales	Electronic purchases	Semicond, sales	Unit costs of teachingIIB:TXIII,4	Runoff costs	NMR equipment	Types of accelerators	Phys. Abstr. price	Journal prices & costsIIB:FXIV.24	Book prices	Core memory	Minicomputers	Computer costs	Core memory costs	Minicomputer costs	Computer installationsI:F7.1	Timekeeping devices
	Source	Ouest.	,	¥	~				~					Rec.					Rec.			Rec.	Rec. & J.	Lit.							
-	Time	×	: -	-	-	1			_	×	×	×	×	×	×	×		-	٦.	×	-	×	-	-	×	×	×	×	×	-	
	Age or Exp. Activity Time																														
	Age or Exp.																														
	Degree or Rank		ŗ	V (	7				2																						
	Sub- Insti- disci- tution pline (or Type)		-	٠,	٦.	×	×	•	7	-																				×	
	Sub- Disci- disci- pline pline	×				-															<b>-</b>						-	٠,	⊣		
	Disci- pline	Ь	Д	٠, ۶	3. f	24 1	<b>a.</b>	ı	٠.										,	ъ., р	24 F	<u>د</u> د	<b>1</b> 4 E	14 F	٠,	٦.	٦.	٠.	<b>-</b>		
	Geo- graphíc	U.S.	3			. v.	U.S.	=		 	 	. v.	. s.	. c	, .	. c		 	. s.												

TABLE V.7 Publications—U.S., Physics

Subdiscipline Institution	Institution	Support	Time	Source	Remarks	Item	Cross Entries
						\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	
×	×		<u>-</u> -	A&I	Distribution	I:F4.0	
×	×		×	J.	Phys. Rev.	I:T9.9	
×	×		-	A&I	Exp. & theor. papers	IIA:TIII.5	
×	×		-	A&I	Distrib. of papers	IIB:TXIV.11	
×	×		_	A&I	Papers produced	IIB:FXIV.32 )	
			_			I:F13.18 )	
×	×		7	J.	Author affiliations	IIC:TIII.3	
×	×		_	A&I	Performing inst.	IIC:TIV.4	
×	2		-	A&I	Theses	IIC:TIV.9	
×	2		7	A&I	Theses	IIC:TIV.10	
×	1	×	-	J.	Support acknowledgments	IIC:TIII.2	
×			2		Scientific publicity	IIB:FXIV.49 )	
						I:F13.29 )	
×			×		Age of citations	IIB:FXIV.35 )	
						I:F13.21 )	
×		×	-	J.	Support acknowledgments	IIC:TIII.1	
×			-	J.	Support acknowledgments	IIC:FIII.2	
×		1	~	٦.	Papers supported DOD	IIC:TIII.4	
×		1	-	J.	Papers supported AEC	IIC:TIII.5	
×		1	-	Ļ	Papers supported NASA	IIC:TIII.6	
×			-	A&I	Distrib. of U.S. papers	IIC:TIV.1	
×			-	A&I	Distrib. of U.S. papers	IIC:TIV.2	
2			-	A&I	AME physics	IIA:FIII.5	\$F,ME
2			×	J.	Age of cits. in revs.	IIB:FXIV.43)	
						I:F13.25 )	
1	×		1	J.	E&PP papers	IIB:TIX.9	
-			×	J.	JASA papers	IIA:TVI.5	
7			1	J.	Acoust, subdivisions	IIA:TVI.6	ME

J. A&I. A&I. Quest. Quest. Quest. J. Quest. J. Quest. J. Guest. J. Guest. J. Guest. J. Guest. Eds. HA&I. Guest. J. S. S. J. J. S. J.	Subdiscipline Institution Source Time	nstitution	Support Source	Time	Source			Cross
						Nemat NS	Item	Entries
		;		×	J.	Growth of acquist	C 11E.011	
		×		-	A&I	Major ind labo	110:111.2	Æ
TO TO THE TWO		×		1	A&T	Type of the 1	1:19.3	
The state of the s		×				types of ind. Labs.	I:T9.4	
		i		4	duest.	Univ. sample	IIC:TIII.20	SF,ME
		×		-				MS, Misc.)
		: <b>×</b>		٠.	quest.	reaching vs rating	IIC:FIII.7	
		<b>:</b> >		-	Quest.	Publs. vs rating	TIC:FIT 8	
	٠.	< :		-	Quest.	Support vs rating	O TITUTULE	
	k <sup>m</sup> k	×		-	J.	Size of insta	TIO:FILL:9	
		_		-			LIC:FIII.II	
	-	ı		٠,	quest.	Ind. publs. & support	IIC:TIII.19	F.
				-	٠,	Journal time lags	IIB:FXIV.25)	• •
		-			,		I:F13.14 )	
		٦.		٦,	Quest.	Publs. vs teaching	IIC:FIII 5	
		4		_ -	Quest.	Publs. vs students	TICETITE	
				_	Eds.	Fate of manuscripts	TING TIL	
$ \begin{array}{c cccc} X & 1 & J. & DOD suj \\ X & 1 & J. & Suppor \end{array} $				×	Α&I	Citation statistics	TID:FALV.20	
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TABLE V.7' Publications-U.S., Physics (cont.)

TABLE V.8 Publications-Other than (Physics, U.S.)

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-				7		Univs. & acoust. specialties IIA:App.A	esIIA:App.A		
7				7		Govt. labs. acoust.	IIA:App.B		
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	1			-	Quest.	Res. vs teaching	IIC:FIII.3		
			1	-	Quest.	Support vs teaching	IIIC:FIII.4		
				×		PhD-granting univs.	I:F9.5		
				2	Rec.	Dept. size	I:F9.6		
				×	Quest.	Phys. faculties	I:F11.2		
				×	J	Empl. ads	I:F12.16		
				×	Rec.	AIP placement	I:F12.18		
				7		Scientific meetings	IIB:TXIV.17		
				×	Rec.	Page charge honoring	IIB:FXIV.23		
				×	ט	Length of papers	IIB:FXIV.33	I:F13.19	
		-		-	≃	Median ages	11C:TII.31		WE

TABLE V.10 Miscellaneous-Other than (U.S., Physics)

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х	P	1	x		1	Rec.	Accelerators . 1.5 GeV	IIA:TI.4		
X	1*	i	х		1	Rec.	Storage rings	11A:T1.5		
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X X	1				1	1	GNP & energy	1:F7.10		\$0
x	i				x	)	Semicond. mfgrs.	IA:TLV.5		
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. 5 .					x	•	GNF factors	1:T12.23A		\$0.ME
.5.					2		Growth industries	1:T12.23C		V01,112
. 5					1	Ag.	Reactors	IIA:TII.I		
.5.					x	Ag.	Nuclear power plants	IIA:FII.2		
٠S.					х	Ag.	info. anal, centers		t:Ft3.28	
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APPENDIX A:
SELECTED TABLES
FROM THE PHYSICS
PORTION OF THE
NATIONAL REGISTER OF
SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL
PERSONNEL

The next few pages reproduce the 1964, 1968, and 1970 questionnaire forms. After these follow the tables; their content has been described in Section II.1.2. The number following the T in the upper left-hand corner of each table designates the type of table, as labeled in the first column of Table II.4 of the text. The labeling of the rows and columns corresponds to the choices offered on corresponding questions of the National Register form; the numbers in parentheses at the heads of the columns of Table II.4 can be used to locate these on the 1970 form. Each table is given an identifying number at the right.

A variety of abbreviations is used in the tables. Those pertaining to the various subfields are the following:

A&R, Astrophysics and relativity
AME, Atomic, molecular, and electron physics
EP, Elementary-particle physics
NP, Nuclear physics
F, Physics of fluids
P, Plasma physics
P&F, Plasma physics and physics of fluids
CM, Condensed-matter physics
E&P, Earth and planetary physics
BIO, Physics in biology
OPT, Optics

ACOUST, Acoustics
ASTRON, Astronomy (all areas other than astrophysics
and relativity)
MISC, Miscellaneous physics

Many of the tables have subrows labeled with N, H, V, and sometimes HP. Here, N is the number of registrants relevant to the given box of the table, H is the percentage that this box comprises of the horizontal total in the table, V is the percentage that this box comprises of the vertical total, and HP is the value of the column variable at the indicated percentage of the horizontal total. For example, in the columns labeled salary ranges, as in Table 12, an entry, 50 = s, in the HP subrow means that s is the median salary for the row in question. A statement, dimension-001 01, means merely that there is no specialization other than that indicated for dimensions 002 and 003.

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A - Agriculture UE - Ireaux Greenty Or - Housing S - Rural development Other program (specify)	12. Is ANY of your work bring suppor	ted or aponanted by	U. S.	Governm	ent funds? 🗆 Yes	□ No □ I	Don'i know
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# SPECIALTIES LIST

FOR USE WITH

# 1968 NATIONAL REGISTER OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL PERSONNEL

In the section PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT on the 1968 National Register Questionnaire you are requested to select from this has the specially most clusely related to your present employment and other specialties in which you may have competence (item 13). Please use the specialty title from this selected has; if you select the "Other" category, use that code number and write in your brief specialty title.

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31142 - Chiler (specify)	04713—Aerodynamics
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) \$17 Nuclear magnetic resonance   1191 Other (specify)	()4846Rheology (uncluding plastic flow)
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03632 - Electromagnetic waves 03640 - Electromagnetic wave propagation	04911—Turbulence 04929—Viccosity
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03996—Other (specify)	05249Radiation damage
	05256—Resonance phenomens 05264—Semiconductors
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04119-Analytical mechanics 04127-Ballistics and flight dynamics	05421—Heat transmission 05439—High temperature physics
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04143—Friction	05454Temperature and its measurement
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## OTHER FIELDS OF SCIENCE

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### SPECIALTIES LIST

FOR USE WITH

# 1970 NATIONAL REGISTER OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL PERSONNEL

In the sections PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYMENT and SCIENTIFIC COMPETENCE on the 1970 National Register Questiannaire you are requested to select from this list the specialty most closely related to your present employment (item 13) and those in which you consider you have your greatest professional competence item 18). Please use the specialty title from this list; if you select the "Other" category, use that code number and write in your own brief specialty title.

Instrumentation

Account	
5771-Architectural acoustics	5971—Antennae, radiators
5772—Hearing	5972—Astronomical 5973—Beam handling
5773 Music	5973—Beam handling
5774 Noise	5974Circuits and circuit elements
5775—Shock waves	5975—Communication
5776 Speech	5976 Electronic
5776—Speech 5777—Ultrasonics	5976—Electronic 5977—Energy conversion
5777 Ultrasonics	5079 High conversion
5778—Underwater sound	5978—High pressure 5981—High temperature
5781—Vibrations	3981-High temperature
5789Other (specify)	5982—Information storage
	5982—Information storage 5983—Lasers and masers
Atoms and Molecules	5984-Measuring, testing, and calibrating
5791-Atomic and molecular ions	5985Microscopes
5792-Atomic, molecular, and electron beams	5986—NMR-EPR
5793-Atoms with Z > 2	5987-Nuclear reactors
	5988—Particle accelerators
5794—Collision processes	5001 Partiele and beam sources
5795—Free radicals	5991—Partiele and beam sources 5992—Partiele detectors
5796Hydrogen and helium atoms	5993 — Photographic
5797Inorganic molecules	500 4 Disame services
5798 Macromolecules and polymets	5994—Plasma contamment
5801-Mesic and muonic atoms and molecules	5995—Radio and microwave
5802—Organic molecules	3996—Ravio astronomy
5801—Mesic and muonic atoms and molecules 5802—Organic molecules 5809—Other (specify)	5994—Plasma containment 5995—Radio and microwave 5996—Radio astronomy 5997—Semiconductors
• • •	5998—Spectroscopes
Biophysics	6001 — Telescopes
	6002—Thermometric 6003—Vacuum
5961—Bioacoustics	6003Vacuum
5962-Bioelectricity	6004—X-ray
5963—Bioenergetics	6009Other (specify)
5964—BioIngical molecules	,
5965—Bio-optics	
5966-Health and medical physics	
5969-Other (specify)	Mechanics
	5851-Analytical mechanics
Electromagnetism	5852—Celestial mechanics
	5853—Continuun, mechanics
5811-Electrical quantities and their measurement	5854—Elasticity
5812—Generation of electromagnetic waves	
5813-Infrared, visible, and ultraviolet radiation	5855—Friction
5814-Interaction of electromagnetic waves with	5856—Many body theory
matter	5857Measurement of mechanical properties
5815Magnetism	5858—Plusticity
5816—Propagation of electromagnetic waves 5817—Radiowaves and microwaves	5861—Quantum mechanics
5817—Radiowaves and microwaves	5862-Statistical mechanics
5RIR-X-rays and gamma rays	5869—Other (specify)
5819—Other (specify)	
Elementary Particles and Fields	Nuclei
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5821—Cosmic rays	5871-Nuclear decay and radioactivity
5822—Electromagnetic fields, photons	5872-Nuclear reactions and scattering
5823—Gravitational fields, gravitons	5873-Nuclear structure and energy levels
5824—Hadrons	5879—Other (specify)
5825 Leptons	
5826—Quantum field theory	
5829Other (specify)	6.4.
• •	Optics
Fluids	5881—Colorimetry
5831 Dienarrione and colloide	5881—Colorimetry 5882—Geometric optics
5831—Dispersions and colloids	5883—Holography
5832—Ele, tric discharges	5884—Lasers
5833Fluid mechanics	5885 Non-lineae ontics
5834—Gases	5885—Nnn-linear optics
5835—Ionization	5886—Photography 5887—Photometry, radiometry, and illumination
5836—Liquids	500 Physical retire
5837-Magnetofluid dynamics	5888—Physical optics
5838—Plasmas 5841—Ouantum fluids	5891—Spectroscopy
5841Quantum fluids	5892—Vision
5849Other (specify)	5899—Other (specify)
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Physical Chemistry	Incrmal Physics
5671—Catalysis 5672—Chemical and phase equilibria 5673—Chemical kineties, gas phase and photo-	5941—High temperature physics 5942—Kinetic theory 5943—Low temperature physics 5944—Phase transitions, changes of state
5672-Chemical and phase equilibria	5943-Low temperature physics
chemistry	5944-Phase transitions, changes of state
5674Chemical kinetics, liquid phase	5945—Statistical mechanics
5675—Colloid chemistry 5676—Crystallography	5945—Statistical mechanics 5946—Thermal measurement techniques 5947—Thermal properties
5676—Crystallography	5948Thermodynamics 5951Transport phenomena
5677—Electrochemistry	5931—Transport phenomena
SARI Encery transfer and relaxation processes	1959-Other (specify)
5682-Equilibrium and thermodynamic relationships	Atmospheric Structure and Dynamics
5070—Leystantography 5073—Electrochemistry 5078—Electrochemistry 5078—Electrochemistry 5081—Energy transfer and relaxation processes 5082—Equilibrium and thermodynamic relationships 5083—Fast reactions	4991Астопоту
5684Flames and explosives 5685Fused salts	4992—Air-sea interaction 4993—Atmospheric chemistry and radioactivity
5686—High temperature chemistry	4994—Atmospherie dynamics, thermodynamics
5686—High temperature chemistry 5687—Interfacial chemistry	4994—Atmospheric dynamics, thermodynamics 4995—Atmospheric electricity 4996—Atmospheric optics and acoustics
5688—Intertactal Chemistry 5688—Con exchange and membrane phenomena 5692—Liquid state and solutions; electrolytes and non-electrolytes	4996—Atmospheric optics and acoustics
5692—Liquid state and solutions, electrolytes and	4997—Aurora, airgiow
	5001—Cosmie rays
5694Molecular structure	4996.—Atmospheric optics and acoustics 4997.—Aurora, airglow 4998.—Cloud and precipitation physics 5001.—Cosmic rays 5002.—Ionosphere 5003.—Mesometocrology 5003.—Micrometocrology 5005.—N umerical modeling 5006.—Planetary atmospheres 5107.—Radiative transfer 5008.—Turbulence and diffusion
5695—Nuclear and radiochemistry 5696—Quantum and valence theory 5697—Radiation and hot-atom chemistry	5003—Mesometeorology
5697—Quantum and valence theory 5697—Radiation and hot-atom Chemistry	S(X)S—Numerical modeling
5698—Scattering phenomena 5701—Solid state chemistry	5006-Planetary atmospheres
5701-Solid state chemistry	5(K)7—Radiative transfer
5703—Thermochemistry 5709—Other (specify)	5008—Turbulence and diffusion 5009—Other (specify)
3709—Other (specify)	
	Solar-Planetary Relationships
Solid-Earth Geophysics	5331—Acronomy 5332Aurora and airglow
	5332Autora and anglow
5161—Exploration, gravity 5162—Exploration, magnetic 5163—Exploration seismology	5333—Cosmic rays 5334—Geomagnetic pulsations
5163Exploration scismology	5335—Interplanetary particles and fields 5336—Ionosphere 5337—Magnetospheric particles and waves
5164_Ceomagnetism and pateomagnetism	5337—Magnetospheric particles and waves
5165 Gravity	5337—Magnetospheric particles and waves 5338—Solar and planetary physics 5341—Solar wind 5349—Cither (specify)
5166—Heat flow 5167—Physical properties of natural materials	5341—Solar wind
5168—Scismology	5349—Other (specify)
5168—Seismology 5171—Tectonics	Planetology
5172—Volcanology 5179—Other (specify)	5301—Interplanetary matter 5302—Lunar and planetary geology 5303—Lunar and planetary geophysics
3179—Other takeny)	53()2Lunar and planetary geology
	5304—Meteorites and tektites
Solids	5305—Planetary atmospheres
	5304—Meteorites and tektites 5305—Planetary atmospheres 5306—Planetary magnetic fields 5309—Other (specify)
5901—Acoustic properties 5902—Alloys	
5903—Crystal growth	Additional Astrophysical Specialties
5904Crystal structure	6011—Binary stars
59()5—Dendrites and composites 5906—Dielectries	6011—Binary stars 6012—Clusters 6013—Comets, meteors, interplanetary medium 6014—Cosmology 6015—Galaxies 6016—Interstellar medium 6017—Planets and satellites
5907—Diffusion in solids	6014—Cosmology
5907—Diffusion in solids 5908—Electron states 5911—Electron transport and earrier properties	6015—Galaxies
5911—Electron transport and earrier properties	6016—Interstellar medium
5912—Imperfections 5913 Interaction of radiation with solids	6017—Pranets and saterities 6018—Ouscars, pulsars, X-ray sources
5914-Lattice mechanics	6018—Oussars, pulsars. X-ray sources 6021—Stellar composition 6022—Stellar evolution 6023—The Sun 6029—Other (specify)
5915—Luminescence	6022-Stellar evolution
5916—Magnetic properties	6023—The Sun
5019—Machanical properties	
5921—Metallic conductors	Other Specialties
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5922.—Mossbauer effect 5923.—Non-crystalline states 5924.—Optical properties 4925.—Semiconductors 5926.—Solid state devices 5927.—Superconductors 5928.—Surfaces, interfaces, films 5931.—Thermal properties of solids 5939.—Other (specify)	6032—Mathematical physics 6033—Philosophy of physics or astronomy 6034—Physics information, dissemination and
1925—Semiconductors	6034—Physics information, dissemination and
5926—Solid state devices	retrieval 6035_Relativity gravitation
5927—Superconductors	6035—Relativity, gravitation 6036—Teaching of physics or astronomy 6037—Units, constants, standards, conversion factors 6039—Other (specify)
5928—Surfaces, interfaces of solids	6037-Units, constants, standards, conversion factors
5939-Other (specify)	6039—Other (specify)
OTHER FIELDS O	
5350.—Atmospheric 5760—Chemistry	Sciences
5760—Chemistry	
5360Earth Science	
6210—Mathematics	·
6210—Mathematics 6330—Computer Sci 6350—Statistics	ience
6590—Agricultural 3	Science d Biomedical Sciences
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6790—Psychology 6900—Anthropology 7050—Economics 7160—Linguistics 7270—Political Scie 7360—Sociology	,
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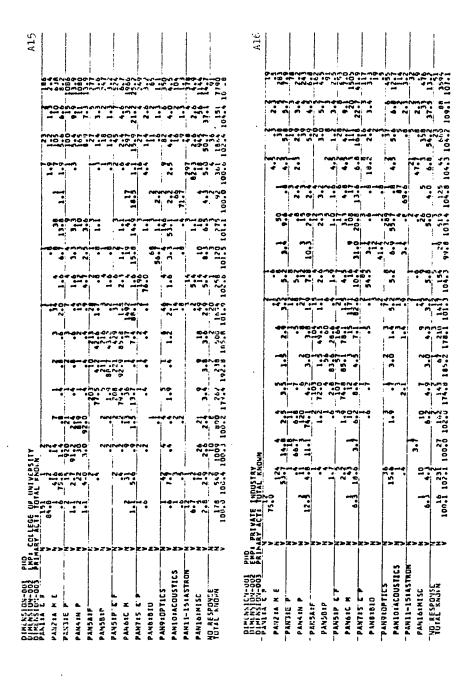
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H.IAG - OTHER	z> <u>r</u>	25. 40.8	3 50 45 5 75	13 3 4.5	5 7.9	25	25	mr.	E. a.	2.8		262
TEACHING	z>I	25= 32.9	50- 37-5	27.7	22.9 23.0		24.6 23.4 26.6	26.6	26.6	21.5	40.0	
ÜTHFR	X>1	250, 33.5	25- 33-5 50- 45-5 75	- 56.4.	20.	3.6	2.5 2.5	2.6	9.7 14.3	25 E.		
NG RESPONSE	x>I	N V HP 25" 32.7	50-11-2 1:97	5. 24.9 2.4	4 1.5	2.9	~;	7	2.9 14.3	3 2.1		
וטדגנ	z>Î		100.0 93.8 94.9 1 25. 31.7 50. 36.4 75	19315 10050 10050 10070 10051 10051 10031 100.1 100.2 100.5	100.00	16.13	1001	100.1	25 100	1 100.2	100.0	



25- 31.7



01/21/21/01/2003 E	-=	- 2	19:91 16:4	25.		~9.		~m	-	19.0	
APPLIED RES		42.9	31.4	27.15	17.5	33.9 2	25.80 14	18.8 25	25.0 3	3362	
PLVFL+DFS15N	7 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	E0.3	~~		~*	7.7			5.2 5.2	
HANIAG - R+D	N N	~=	20.4 26.4	\$5.1	31.3	26.68 2	25.0 1	12.3 12	12.4	19.6	
PA LAG - OTHER	N V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V	~~,	3.5	~~	m 2		7.7	12.5		3.3	
TEACHING	N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N N		21 12.6	18.1	27.5	16.1	15.4 3	37.9 2	25.6 1	13.9 100.6	
OTHER		50, 67,0 75,0	75-1:4-9 3.1	3,55	5.0	3.6	10.3	12.3 2	25.0	3.13	
NO RESPONSE	ļ		2.3	4.2				-	12.5	2.2	
TETAL	N W 25= 32-9	200	1,100 99.9	99.9 100.2 100.2 100.5 100.5 100.1 100.0	100.2	00.1 10	34 16	10.10		99.9 100.d	
โล้จี-หนไร้หรัสเจ		pone to accustor	ب								A52
		APE TOTAL SACRETARY OF SACRETARY AND APER APPROVED TO APER APPROVED TO APER APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVED TO APPROVED TO APPROVE APPROVED TO APPROVED T	6.9 12.2	7	1.	20.01	1.1	.a.	20°¢	12.0	
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CHVEL+DESIGN	i		5.5 2.5 5.4	7.4				16.7		4.3	1
HAMAG - R+D	1	50° 45.7 5.6	17.52 32.15	41.5	37.0	20.0	21.4	33.3		21.0	
HISAG - OTHER	() () () ()	60. 52.0	1.7 2.0	-0		10.0			İ	2.2	
TEACHING		15.45	2012 2014	 e	===	20°	33.3	1	20.0	18.2	40.3
PIHER		4.5 6.7.0	5.2 2.0	76.		10.0	~	25.0	20.0	18 5.6	
NO RESPONSE	N V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V	50- 50-8	57.6 2.0	7.2 0	~*.	10.0			40.0	1,1	
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	HP 25". 3343.	Ì	- 1104 -	:		!	!				

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86.38			-		25.0			0.0		3.8	4 NG	-0.	9.5	10.1	97.5	01°E	77
29.5			45.8		25.0			20.0		~;	2°.	~~;	5. 5.	22.1	40.0	5.8	7:
33.0	10.0	2.0	30.0		15.0 2		5.0	0.0		2.6	2.5	9 <del>7</del>	20.2	17.33	21.5	7. <del>4</del> .	~=
53.19	-		23.3	1:1	16.3		7.5	100-20 100-18 99-36 100-20 100-26 100-18 100-18 100-5		===	35	2.1	27.5	5. 5. 5.	34.0	2.5	~;
26:	٥.٠		23.52	~~;	10.4			6.19		ಸ್ತ್	10.5	2.0	21.3		36.6	3.4 5.4	2.15
35.0	2.5		16.3	9.0	16.3			2.2		205	13.4	-:	16.9	13.6 16.3	219	3.6	2.14
 	1 7	2.5	•	•	15:4	75- 33-8	75. 55.8	07.67		74.	7.17	21.2	_		1 49.6 4	2,16	=3
, . , .	9.5 -27	1.0	5 10 5	375° 2.5	20.5	3.0	1.0	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	25	7.0 7.0 7.0	17.02.	<b>*</b> **	50. 34. 6.0 11.7 50. 46.0 6.0 15. 52.	~	38	1:	2.
W 25- 30.3 50-34.1 1.6 63.4.3	<u>ب</u>	)	46.1	41.2	32.320	-6.2		200	=	20205 502 36.1	15.6.1	83.7	~-0	50=2,2	504 9 8	20=7.6	
506734	504 32	50-22.0	9	20.	50-14:23	\$0. 32.8	50-1:9	20.00	UP. 16.	700	200	3.6	50.	50-	504	•	
30.3	29.5	87.8	7.61	0.2	0:1	8.0	6.0	9°0	PLCT PANEL GROUP 16 P15C	4.6	25= 32,4	22= 32.0	25= 39.9	25* 40.5	25- 33,3	25=13.0	;
25- 30.3	25- 29.2	25. 27.8	25- 39.4	25- 37.0	25- 31.0	25- 30.8	25- 28.9	25° 30°B	1 P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P. P.	N N HP 25. 30.1			25=	25.	75.	57	
:>≟	2> <del>1</del>	×>±	Z>Î	Z>Î	Z> <u>r</u>	2>Î	2>±	₹>5.	S	Z>X	≅>Ĭ	=>±	Z>I	Z>Z	<b>z&gt;</b> ₹	Z>Ï	<b>Z</b> >
		z		<b>E</b>					1000		5	N.		ОТНЕ <b>Я</b>			w
	APPLIED RES	DEVEL+BESIGA	Nanag - Reg	MANAG - OTHER	ų,		NU RESPONSE		200	4ES	APPLICO RES	DEVEL+DESIGN	1 A 0		INC		ND RESPUNSE
	PP. LI	EVEL	9 4 7	ANAC	11.464146	OTHER	U RES	ายามเ	O TENSO	13516	I Jean	DEVEL	HANAG	MAHAG	TEACHING	OTHER	60 AE

AGE TOLETON CO. 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 56-54 55-59 66-54 65-69 "KNCHW WESP CO. 20 20 20 20 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 56-34 55-59 66-54 65-69 "KNCHW WESP CO. 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30	-59-60-64-66-	69 - 69 - KNCLH RESP.	
γ - 25-20.9 (10.0) 0.6 6 5 3 5 4 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	2.0-4-6.5	. 3 3.1 3.5	
HP 255-31.5 50-36-6 15-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35-35		113	
25. 24.8 50. 51.7 - 67. 51.5 4.1 6.2 7.3 41.5 61.4 4.1 6.2 7.2 7.3 41.5 61.4 4.1 6.3 7.4 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.5	4,8 6,9	4.9 320 6.1	
115 25 16 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	1344619	7.2 4.5 4.3	
24 1126 984 529 549 524 6136 649 524 619 649 523 4978 647 4627	6196 64.9	4,5 52,3 49,7 46,7	
25	4.	2,9 2,3 35	
Hp 25 30.5 50 35.8 75 48.3 15 15 15 21 2.5 3.6 11.4 2.2 191	1.8 2.5	3,6 11,4 2.3	
75. 32.4 - 50. 18.3 - 75. 46.6   1164 - 98.9 104.2 102.3 102.3 12.1 100.3 100.	163,3 102,5	118 1501 10010 10011	356
SPLC1 101AL ALL PARKEL GROUPS. 155 95 51 22	- C	0.7 R.3 12.5 19.3	
25-30-6 50-31-4-12-15-4-5-6-30-6-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-31-	33 20	1 1482	
HP 25=11.1 500 13.2 75 01.8 29.0 23.0 23.0 23.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25	6 6	12. \$ 25.	
H. 255. 31.6 50. 35.8 8.75 41.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5.6 5	40.3 42.3		
25=38.2 50=43.0 175=49.0 50 20 115 7.9	11.5 7.9	8.3 17! 4.5	9:11
259.39.6 500.45.3. 120.49.6		.2	1
25-12.0 50-34-5 175-39-2.	9.3 9.0	4,3 9,3 9,0 20,8 50,0 4,2	
254.3246 50° 38.5 75; 19.4 15 1.1 1.6 11, 215 219 1.2 3.9 2.6	3.9 2.6	6.1	
25* 33.6 50* 40.8 73* 40.5 10.5 10.5 10.5 10.5 10.5 10.5 99.4 100.8 100.0 100.0	100.00 100.001	99.9 100.6 100.0 100.0	

4 100 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	AC 1 I	VITY BY EMPL	AFTACIIVITY BY EMPLÄYER, EMPLOYMENT SPECIALIY, CECREE HD PREFE IOTAL ALBARELGGOUPS BO. Chicologic Ference of Groups	A57
PRIM ACTIV		. Uhuen 20-2		
EASIC AFS	; 2> <sup>2</sup> i	254 31.5	56, 16,0 62, 3, 5, 4, 5, 5, 5, 6, 32, 6, 18, 2, 23, 8, 11, 8, 12, 1, 14, 1, 42, 100, 4	
APPLICO AS	≥>Î	25- 32-0		1
CIVEL+D1.516W	Z>±	755-31.[	25-31.1 50.135.0 1.1,5.2 21,1 1.3 1.4 2.4 3.4 3.4 3.5	
HAVAG - R+D	Z>Ï	25# 70*2	HP 25 - 760.2 50 - 45.7 - 1 75 - 50 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 10 - 1	
PASAG - OTHER	z>Ē	25# 38.0	Hp - 25 = 38.0 - 50 = 48.8 - 20 7 5 5 5 0 1.6 - 6.9 3.3 - 1.8 3.4 3.5 3.4 3.5 3.4 3.5 3.4 3.5	
reaching.	: 2>2 	258 29.5	1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 2 3 2 3 2 3 3 2 3	
OINLA	Z>2	258 56.7	N 255 56.7 50 45.8 2.6 55. 10 2.6 3.6 3.6 1.1 1.3 11.8 12.1 14.3 2.4	
NO NESPONSE	Z>=	254.35.2	Hp - 25. 35.2 - 50. 3.2.5 - 1. 1.5. 25.5 - 5.6 - 2.6 - 2.7 3.3 - 3.8 - 2.5	
וי נמו	2>2	25. 12.9	"	
100		נו נמנאר ארר	PHO SPECE TOTAL ALL PAREL SROUPS	A53
64416165-003 E	15 × 4	SEARCH CENTER	RESERVENCE CENTER 113 200 185 123 82 336 13 39 0.0 100.0 44.3  V 25-31.3 50-35.6 175-46.4 3946 32.2 29.8 25.8 23.1 60.0 100.0 44.3	
APPLIED RES	Z>Ē	25* 32.2	23. 32.2 50. 30.9 21.5 24.8 25.4 23.1 27.3 15.2 25.6 10.0 28.2	
DEVEL+DESIGN	2> <u>2</u>	259, 31.46	25g. 31.4 50. 35.8 4.75 34.0 2.1 3.5 3.3 3.5 2.6 36.	
PANAG - 8+0	₹>Ī	25= 37.0	N 5-33.0 50. 11 2 52 165 23.4 359 33.4 45.5 43.6 20.6 18.4	
NJ/4G - UTHER	z>±	25- 51-8	6. 4.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1 6.1667. +5.5. 506. B.1865.	
Teachtac	₹>			
CI HER	-> <del>2</del>	25. 31.0	504 34.8 3.5	
NU PESPUASE	2>ª	25- 32-2	ļ .	
	z>‡	25* 32.4	1001 1002 1 1002 1002 1002 1002 1002 10	

CIMINSION-COL PHD	ACTIVITY BY EMPLOYER, EMPLOYMENT SMELIALITY, CECARE	A59
017175107-003 CFP	PP SPICE TOTAL ALL PANEL GHOUPS	
9:15 ACTIV	20 20-24 25-29 30-34 36-39 40-44 55-49 56-88 58-89-86-86 56-56 56-56 56-56 56-56 56-56 50-56 56-56 56-56 56-56	1
6451C RES	10 25 24.0 5021 313 40.2 75.2 25.2 14.8 20.6 19.2 10.6 10.3 16.2	
APPLIED RES	PP 25. 31.8 56. 17.5 24.5 15.4 17.5 26.6 13.5 26.5 25.5 25.5 15.4 5.6 19.0	
CLVCL+DESIGN	HP -25- 31.3 50-35,5 3.4 3.5 52.0 1.0 -4.1 .1.4 -4.3 .2.4 .2.7 2.4	
PANAG - R+D	Hp - 25- 36.0 - 50. 13. 4.9 12. 36. 427. 4.17. 11. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 19. 2. 5. 11. 11.	
HAMEG = OTHER	HP 25= 36.V - 500-243.7 4.7 75.0 12.7 15.6 12.3 17.6 12.3 17.6 13.2 17.4	
TCACHING	40 - 25= 33.0	
UIPER	Hp - 255-34.6 - 50.947.6 - 47.5 - 60.5 - 51.5 - 51.5 - 21.5 - 34.5 - 34.5 - 30.5 - 13.6	
NO RESPONSE	HP - 25. 31.3 - 50. 43. 1-10 95. 16. 1.2. 5. 5. 5. 5. 6. 4. 4. 5. 5. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 5. 6. 6. 5. 6.	
ISTAL	Y	
CTACHSTON-OCT PHO	PHO SPECE TOTAL PART GAMPS	ASO
UTT STUDENCE EMP	1014 FYCH 4 1043 1501 1122 717 425 179 63 54 33 16 5599 8 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	
AI PL LED RES	HP 25- 31.6 50-10-10 10-	
LI'VEL+PESIGN	11 21 11 21 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 1	
MAISAG - R+D	HP 25 38.9 50 44 4 15 45.9 13.2 25.2 26.5 27.3 12.6 3.8 11.9 15.8	
43 18G - UTHER	N 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 16 16 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17	0000
FEACHING	N 25-32.8 50-34 25-47 6-2 25-5 26-1 26-6 32-6 33-6 35-8 30-8 36-8	007
UTHER	HP 25- 32.7 50-23.4 2-13-23.9 1.5 2.2 2.8 4.1 6.6 10.0 13.2 2.9	
HL KESPONSE	17 25 12.0 50 13.3 1.8 1.2 26, 253 2.4 2.3 3.4 2.1 3.7 1.9 35.2	
lutat	119 25- 32.0 0.50 0.00 100 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	

N 700-40154141		CONTROL OF LANGUAGE GROUPS	Aèl
f in activ		463 00-54 52-53 10-34 32-98 40-44 56-52 15-98 45-58 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98 18-98	07 07
8151C KLS	E	Hp - 25, 25,6 4,6 27,5 17,9 11,1 20, 17 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5 1,5	2028 59.6 . 09.2
APPLING RES	Z>1	HP - 255 26.1 6-50.21.8 6-075.31.710.8 8.9 5.9 13 15.8 6.6.	
TEVEL-FESTON	2>I	Hp 25-26.5 6 1. 5.0 1. 7 1. 6.5 13.3 2.3 1. 1. 1. 6.5 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.	
MAPIAG - R+D	2>=	- ;	
PYTEC - UTHER	=>±	4- 25-34.0 20 20 401 20 25 24.5 64 30 - 50 30 30 250 250 30 - 50 30 -	
ILACHING	=>±	4 - 25 - 27.0 1 25.0 11.8 12.5 15.4 1 20.0 12.7 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0	.23.1
C11'EK	Z>2	N 255: 255.2 35.2 3 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 4 2 5 1 3 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1 5 1	
HO RESPINSE	=>1	N 25. 26.1 1.9 25. 26.2 5.1.6 2.75. 213.1 1.6 2.2 1.9 1.6 1.1.8 1.1.9 2.1	1.1
TUTAL	z>±	4 2 76. 10 - 15. 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2.	6,001
200-to 100 to 10	040 041	PHD P. P. LATT LINE ALL PARCE GACUPS	R. 2
	-> <del>2</del>	19 25. 29.4 1.50-35.6 2.77.4 1.8	
AIPLILD RES	z > 2	N 25. 29.0 2 9.2 31.7 35.3 31.5 26.5 27.4 26.4 18.9 20.0 50.0 33.4	25.6
61 861 41 51 54	Σ>₽.	HP 22- 28-9 - 50 - 31-3 - 5-72- 40.0 17-3 14-5 16-8 15-1 16-7 10-0 22-4	25.0
MAIIAG - R+U	Z>2		50.05
HANAG - UTNER	z>I	HP 25- 33-1 2-5 - 51- 16-9 - 175- 45-4 - 12-1 15-1 12-5 13-5 14-1 50-0 10-0	
11464146	Z>£		
G THER	Z>#	HP. 22: 28. 3. 5. 50. 32. 18. 40. 48. 750 10.1 11.4 11.3 7.6 40.0 12.6	
NG AESPONSE	2>1	HP. 25. 31.6 1.40. 40.5 4.77. 41.4 1.7 2.6 .9 3.1 3.3 10.0 1.4	
LUTAL	z>3	7, 100.0 1 100.1 170. 150.1 100.1 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 1	100.0

A41 77 PE BY PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE PE	Y ACTIVITY BY EMPLOYER, EMPLOYERT SPECIALTY, CEGREE FHO TAIL IN DAKE GROUPS PP. SPECI TOTAL ALL PAKEL GROUPS	(87) (1) (1)
P- 1H At 11V	46E 20 20-24 25-23 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-34"55"99 60-64"63-69" 69 KNCKR RESP 20 20-24 25-23 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-34"55"99 60-64"63-69 KNCKR RESP	OTAL NO KRCIK RESP.
CASIC SES	N 12 20 20 2 11 5 20 2 20 2 20 2 20 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	16.4 25.4
APPLIED RES	Hp. 25. 29.3, 45.3, 41.4, 24.1, 91.3, 11.3, 10.4, 24.3, 26.5, 21.6, 25.4	964 25.0
CLVEL DE SIGN	N 25 29, 20. 50. 50. 51. 40. 72, 22. 10. 1 1. 0. 2 2. 4. 4. 8. 1	8.4 23.0
F1146 - 8+0	Hp 25. 75. 0. 0. 0. 27. 11. 75. 46. 23. 11. 35. 6. 14. 4. 19. 20. 17. 17. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18. 18	19.2
MAYAL - OTHER	- Hp . 35- 32.2 50.40.6 1-73.40.4 0.1 7.1 0.2 14.7 16.6 14.7 160.6 14.7 160.6 15.6	5.6.
TEACHING	Ho - 25. 28.3 - 50.13.0 - 75. 36.6	15
Q THE R	17 25= 20-715-3-123-3-123-3-10-64-25-22-7 9-3 -9-12 - 7-67-65-4- 6-1210-1 - 25-0	16.1 25.4
NU ALSPUNSE	10 255 11.3 2.3 50. 13.7 1075, 15.6 1.9 1.1.7 2.5 1.1.0. 10.6. 1.1.	1.9
ייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייי	Hp 25= 30.2 512 512 513 594 10 12 1000 1050 1050 1050 100 10 100 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	2541 190,6 1.09,0
00 - 100 - 101 CM - 101 M	P SPEC 101AL ALL PANEL GROUPS	\$ V.
23. 215.2	V 25 27.2 50.5 11.0 75 11.0 16.25 21.8 15.0 14.3 HP 25.27.2 50.31.0 75.38.3	26.9
ATPLICO RES	V 25 31.6 25 18.3 34.9 15.5 40.5 28.3 25.5 50.0 21.4 HP 25. 31.6 20.0 21.4	30.7
OLVFL+DESTGN	HP 25= 28=8 14-50-136 15-675-14-55 6-3 7-5 7-3 5-2 14-5	110
MA'14G - R.O	10. 25= 38.9 . 50= 43.7 . 75= 77.9 254 2935 2010 13.3 21.3	13.0 100.0
MANAG - OTHER	Y 25= 33.5 50-33.65 5.6 4.7 4.1 5.6 12.7 5.0 14.3	33.6
il aching	N 1 25 24.5 50 30.5 75.57.0 .8	ş.
r ruch	HP 25+ 30-6 -50- 16-1 -73- 16-4 6-3 10-18 7-3 5-3 14-3 50-3	8.7 9.7
NU RESPUNSE	14 . 25 . 28 . 9 . 5 . 3 . 3 . 3 . 3 . 5 . 5 . 5 . 5 . 5	1.6
Hern	94.9 106.1 100.0 100.0 100.0	106.0 100.0
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PRIMARY NO PHO SOZ EMP SI SOZ EMP SI	711VITY BY EMPLOYDY, EMPLOYMENT SPECIALTY, CECREE STC1 TOTAL ALL PANEL GROUPS JHER KACKA ACE INDIE	PLCYPENT SPEC OUPS	JALTY.	CECPEL	ш				VFR T	CVFR FQTAL NO		A65
PE IN ACTIV	20. 20-24-25-29 10-34 35-34 40-44 45-49 50-94 15-55-67 65-64 65-67	30-34 34-39 4 25 11 3.4 21	2.4	1.1	6-54 5	19 56-5	1,9	19-5	1.1 312	315	5 <b>7.</b>	
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CCVEL-DESIGN N	W 34. 37. 3. 3. 4. 11. 2. 2. 21. 3. 4	1.2 2.1		~0	1.1		1.9			24.5		ļ
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TEACHING N	11. 2.1. 2.4. 3.4. 3.4. 480 2.6.3.1 66.3. 2.8. 3.12.3 3.6. 34.6. 34. 50.0. 64.4. 29.6.	480 337	243	239	71.5	121	8	56.9	50.0	2311	11 12 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	ļ
OTHER	NF 25" 28.7 51" 1 2 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	34, 529	6.3	04	7,	===	4. 4.	17.8	14.3	365	14,3	İ
NO RESPONSE N	(ip 23= 21:0 30= 52:0 (3= 4:0)	21 8 2.2.9.2.115	27	24	~-!	44	7,9		i i	327		:
Telal N	HP 25- 25-4 50- 28-3 73- 11- 11- 11- 11- 11- 11- 11- 11- 11- 1	725 51H 99.9 100.20	378 100-11.10	357	94.6	15 to	101	0.00	1 67.65	3568	0.00	
2 447 - 200 - MOI SHI MI J.	P SPECI TOTAL ALL PANEL GROUPS	cues			} }	1						AGE
BASIC FLS CAST EMPER NASIC FLS	TOTAL KACKA 219 2094 645 266 113 N 34.2 34.7 16.8 11.0 6.5 HP 25. 26.0 50= 28.1 75.32.0	645 266 16.8 11.0		96.4	6.53	3.5	5.1	3.3	4.8 20.3	ı	27.6	
APPLIED RES V	25, 28, 28, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10, 10	936 582	24.20	311	19.5	15.5	£.	64.	~B.	3606	5.8	
DE VEL +GESIGN N	24. 24. 74. 7. 4. 4. 12. 12. 14. 1. 4. 4. 1. 4. 4. 4. 6.0 6.3 2.5	12.1,51,9	77.	₹.	<b>=</b>		₹;	2.5		1627	5.6	
HANAG - R+D V	W 21, 18, 1 5,0, 4,7 7,75,16,20,2 21,0 22,6 11,3 11,3	271 328 7.0 13.6	20.2	21.3	199	17.3	£.:	2.5		1716	11.1	
HALIAG - OTHER Y	14 143	228 213 172 161 62 1054 115 6.6 28.8	10.2	10.5	27.	10.4	3.11	6.6	28.8	1124		
TEACHING V	N N N Hy 25- 28.0 1.50-23, 5.3-05-23, 4.14 23.6 23.6 38.0 45.0 61.2 47.6 23.9 38.9	883 546 523.07522.7	21.1	2363	23.8	38.0	149	91.19	47.6	4213 23.9	38.9	
OTHER	N 41 411 344 174 115 121 68 34 20 14.0 9.8 14.05 H.D 24. 27.8 3.9 0.9 12.6 73. 41.2	344 178	112	25	3.2	36.0	6.0	14:01	ۍ. محن	1405	6.3	
NG RESPONSE N	N 32 131 N 35 26.8 3.95 23.9		25.1	55.1	1.7	2.4	20.	2:3		364	2.8	
17.71 N	915 411 94.9 94.4 94.4	3844 2409 1732 1537 165.7 165.3 165.9 93.4 166.6 106.1 166.6 100.16	1732	1537	65.2	949	99.5 1	121	00.11	7643	36	•
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	FULLY FALL STATUS		
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1 100°C		100.0	
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CCENT STATUS - STUCKAT			
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EPPLGTHEVE		RET SASA TOTAL	
1 A+4 H		190.0	
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н н н н н н н н н н н н н н н н н н н	16.6 - 1.3 - 27.3 - 7.3	3.5 100.0	
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See - MALE . UNENUNS	5.0							
		EMPLOYMENT STATUS	OYPEAT	1141	45			
<u>1940 - 1944 - 134 — 1955 - 1941 - 341 — JAJAUNIAA JO. 22365</u> 1940 - 194	1,	1141	PART, U	NCH SECK	UNE P NOT SEEK	RET .N.R.	) TOTAL	
1_A·N	z	7.9 64.5 5.3 17.1	•	13	17.1	-	3, 100.1	
2 4MS	2 2	10.7 10.4 3.7 10.0	124	3.7	10:01		2,2 156.¢	
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24 6	z	H 26.3 61.8 2.6 4.5	- 1.10	~**	4	- !	2.6 94.4	
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3 205	4 2	A 15.6 66.9 2.6 6.9	171	4:	===	-	1.1 4.5 1.1	
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1.54	-	-H 23.0 62.5 3.8 7.9	£2.5	3.5	7.9		2,4 1,5	
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TO ACUES	Į.	46.2 43.1 3.1 6.2	£ -	7.1	17	İ	1,5 100.1	
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75 H at	=	45.5	35.7 39.4 3.5 16.0	25.5	127	5.	5.2 49.9 5.3 49.9	
JUIAL	×	19.61	19.0 60.7 -152 -472.	4.0	12.5		114. 1762 1.8 100.0	

STUDENT STATUS - STUDENT - OK 1011 - NO PHI STR - FFMIL	UDF AT	!		1		
	1	(KELCYN)	CHPLCYNEMI STATUS	145 E		
SPEC. OF EMPLOYMENT		FULL PAY	UNEWP PANT UNEPP NOT TIME SELK SECK	Gree Sets	GINER RET - No. 4, TOTAL	
J. A.Q.	rz	νο.	~~	10.04	100.0	
2 4"£	z z	1.44	2		6,1 100.1	
7-6	72	1.94		0.04 40.0	1, 19	
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a BIC			, ,	1	3.001	
9. DPT			2 - T		3.531	
1¢ ACCUS	200	50.02 0.08	100		100.0	
AL-15 ASIPON	- H	, t	7.7 69.2 7.7 15.4	15.4	100.0	
14. #15C	1 × ×	5.04.8	21.5 40.0 7.7 25.15	33.1	7.7 106.0	G i E
TOTAL	# E	20 . 10	H 11.4 57.4 6.8 19.0	19.91	4.5 100.0	

10							
		CAPL	OVPEN	CHPLOTHENT STACUS	4		
SPEC. OF EMPLOYMENT	THENT	FULL PART UNINF HOT	TINE	SPEK	NERP	CINEM RET +N.R. TOTAL	0.181
1 4.4		11 - 1 - 12 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1	χ,		- 113	01	01
34	. 2		212	: =	: 2	-	11 D.
	I	10.1 74.1	7.1	3.5	:	\$.4 40.4	6.9
3 6	-	200	3.5	3.0 77.8 3.2 13.7	13.5	2.3 100.0	0000
4 49	z z	11.7 67.5	\$1.5	\$ 121 \$ 121 \$ 121	ž ~	10 443	00:0
24.6	Z Z	24.0 62.5	1	7:0	7:	2.6 100.0	11
13 P	===	6.9 73.7	13:4	2.5	200	211 6 5.4 2.7 5.4	9119
1. P.F	-	H 15,4 69.2	1125	2.0 0.5	= ?	3.6 100.0	112
P (F	2 2	13.1 65.3	25.53	921 914	3	6501 000	1625
1 500		72.13 613.7	100	3.4 3.6	77.	2.4-6.27	123
P. Blu	2	1.5 62.7	- 1	31.1.4.8	4 <u>:</u>	5.7 100.1	000.1
120 8	= =	37.3 42.1 6.1	12.1	47 17 47.4	4:	3.0 100.0	231
10 ACCUS	==	46.3 43.3 1.5 - 6.4	5.5	7.7	40	1.3 100.1	00.1
11-13 45740H	<b>x</b> x	14.5 66.3 2.8 17.5	13.3	7	= 1	2,1 145	115
JSIN TI	7 2	34.7 31.6 31.9 16.5	3	4:	79	:	00.1
IGIAL	¥.	119 23.16 164 207.	B. F.	-101	207	112 3454.	

SIX - PALÍ • U'KNOFK								
	1	_ EMPLOYMENT, STATUS	M. 514	TVS	!	-	*	
SPEC. UP EMPLOYMENT	UNE SEEK SEEK SEEK	L PAST	STER	NGT NGT	111	RET ON.A. TOTAL	OTAL	
1 408	# -423 -1.3 -1.3	7-1-2	7:1		7	100.0	24h u0,0	
2 AME.	1 16	1016 11 2.3	2.2		4:	77.	.2 100.0	
3 - EP	H 134	7	100	1349 11 11 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		11 11E4	000,1	
4 1	H 97.0		73	7=	7	-	- 1214 - 100.00	
115	N 96.	96.5	4-7-1-1		7:	-0	1.00 0.1	
38.6	H 45.6		(1) (1)			4.	.4 100.0	
5 846	4	1000	7:1		77	7.	9,1100	
F 54	H 4010	15.1	3 2	1	=:	=	11 5134	
1.512	H 96.0	1.1	]:		4.	7:	1.0 100.0	
B Bitu	H 95.1	3.0		1:	7:	4.	.7 99.9	
1 00 8	H 95.6	9:4	7	1:	<b>4</b> 3	7:	.3 100.0	
Ju. Aceus	3.6	9.67 11	];		73	0,001 0		
11-15.ASTADA	N 580	2 1.5	],	77	2 3 -2 100.0	~:		276
Stin et	\$ # ·	4.	2	2251 75 27 625	73	-41 - 11 - 111	3434	
Jeia	H 96.2 1.5 1.1 11 6 .0 1 1.1	2 - 23	5-472	7	داي	7:	16163	

OFF POROTORER STATUS FY EPILITYPTYL SPECIALLY OY SEX HY BLOMER STATUS - MCN-SILOENFOLMANCHA BLOME CO. SELLY PRO CO. SELLY PROCESSION OF SELLY PROC	55. 55.	CENTOCK OENTOCK	ANDAN	P+ C1 AL	17 g¥	SE X BY		:	1	i.
	;	14.	EUPLUYYENT ŞTATUS	ŞTATU	, u1	,		:		
SPEC. OF EMPLOYMENT		1.11	P44 [ U	UNENP SECK	51.5K	FE 138	17 - R. 1	ग्राम	:	:
Å+1.	# <b>I</b>	\$ 40.7	33.3	i	; ;	;	-	0.051		
3 Awe		- 116-	1.5	7.5	4. ř.	:		19.00		:
	z I	AC. 6	1 ::	7:4	2.4.5	:	ï	36.		
	* =	77.	12.9	7.5	7.7	-1.5	ι	11.00		:
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	2,1	100.001		!	!	1	1	10c.a		:
5_P+t	z, z	1.3		ļ	! !	15.51	1	130.0		:
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	2 1	59.7	11,91	•	- 15	1		10.001		i
1.5.1	r z	16.3	25.0	4.0	1		7.		!	:
	, <u> </u>	100.0	-			:	-	0.011	!	i
4. tet	4 =	19.61	7.3	7.3	1.1	i	1	÷ 7.	:	:
19. scots	z: x	, , , ,				İ		0.001		!
. 11, 15. ASTEUN	z z	75.6	0	~ 0		!	i	100.001		
Je House	2,2	11.06	17.6	7.0	200	- 0.1		121-	!	
TEFAL	2 1	7:57	5.5	2;	<b>:</b> ;	L 2	-, ":	7*;	:	i

STURLY STANDS - NEW-STEDENT-WANGEN PRE CH 4.01 - NO PRO St WALL + UNASCEN	1004-571.0Eh7-	CHANCEN			1		
ENDIGERNY STATUS	1	PLOTERNY	STATUS	*:			
SHEC. TH EMPLOYMENT	UNERP NOT THE SEEK SEEK	PAAT UN	3	ı	RET -4.R. TCTAL	TCTAL	
1 A.A .	11.71 1.57 1.51		وأم	7.1	7	3.0 130.0	
2 47 6	H 67.76	376 114 25 39 67.7 20.6 4.3 5.4	<b>~</b> 7	5.5	7	2.0 100.0	
1.19		. 164 52 194 1.1.5	≈;	\$	= 7	19 400	
4,4	N 13.1	75.1 15.8	2.0 2.1	- 9:	1	1.8 100.1	
7.4 F	N 204	81.7 -6.7 -1.6 2.3 -1.2 1931		2.3		141	
36.6	N 102	65.0 22.9 3.8 7.0 1.3 150.0		11.6	7.3	157	
. Pul	H 80.5 11.0 2.4 3.5 4.2 1.2 59.4	3.2	77.2	5.5	77	404	
4 . CH	N 1929	13.4 3.6 4.11	7:	***		36 2501	
1 5.P	- h - 439 67.	12.5		7.7			
3— B.tt	N 76.6	76.6 12.1 3.2 6.5	3.2	4:0		1.6 100.c	
9. CPI	1744 Н 1744		<i>;</i> ;	69 44 23	1. 15 1903	1963	
TE ACCUS.	H 94.4 2.9 .9 .3 .3 .9 100.1	07	40	~:	75	140.1	0 % 0
11-12 A2352K	- n - 238 155 2.9 4.1h	16:31	2.5	- FI	-	1.4. 100.0	0/7
1C #11C	H 90.0	90.0 3.8 102 163 30 90 6105 90.0 3.8 1.6 2.7 3 1.5 106.1	3:	25.7	3 1.	100.1	
reta	R 125.7 1347 1359 448 A3 220 15716.	1357	25.4	3.5	27 - 27	19016	

A77.																
A AV CECAES	GTHER ET ON.S. TOTAL	100.0	1,00,0	10001	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.5	2.9 100.0	1.00.1	9.1 100.C	1.9 49.9	1001	3.2 59.9	.1 1.9 100.1	
17 ev sé	UNEAP NOT SEEK		16.4	23.1	15.8				12.01	7:		70.0	45.5	1.01	17.5	:
MISCURPLENT SPECIAL TO MISCURPLENT EPPLEYMENT STATUS	SEE	7-99	1.1. 1.1. 10.4	!	=	25.0		20.02	1.9 16.9	7-	-1:	77	1;	42	7:	:
NEW CENT	SULL PART UNINE	33.3 - 60.7	18.9	15.4 01.5	13.6	i			31.7 20.13	72.7 12.1	54.5 2.3	54.5 11.2	1:	48.4 29.0	11. 13. A	
DENTO	彗	İ	1::	15.4		15,0	100.0	10.08	7:15	4.5	4.5	75	4.6	11.11	45.5	
		Ę	-	==	Z	=		<b>z</b> z	ĄI	Z I	Z	EI	Z I	× =	x	
OF GENETATION STATUS BY EPPLOWENT SPECIALTY BY SER BY CLCAES STUDEN STATUS - VON-STUDENT-UNANCH PROGRAMMEN STATUS  SEA - FIRMLE  EPPLOWENT STATUS	SPEC. OF EMPLOYMENT	İ							1					_11=13.ASTBOH.	ŀ	

ENP SPEC = 1 Ass	TOTAL ENGER				
	_	108 32	•	•	
I >		63.9 30.0	2.4 .0 2	<u> </u>	
APPLIED RES		95.7	14:1	100.0	0
LLYLL-LLSTuft M.	1	- 0.5		0.001	
C P P P P P P P P P P P P P P P P P P P		13.1 16.7 5.e 1.2		0.01	
Carte a Binks A.		1.00.0		101	***************************************
LEACHING		24.4 12.7	77.4	21.0	90
ETHER ENDING		100.0		100.0	40.5
NO ALLECTION	100.0	40.0 20.0	•	C-101	
	1.3.151	77.2 25.5 100 to 100 to	91	100.0 100.0 160.	
FILT FIFTS OF EMPLOYER	II NY PEHYAKY E - TOTAL KNOW	OFFICE OF FOUR DY PERMAND NESA STITUTION BY SPECKES DAL EPPLOPMENT SPECIALTY PPP 506 - 2 AM TO BE FROM PPP - TOTAL BAGIN	ldas The cjapled	CVM.NT SPECIU	NTT A72
PHIMARY ALTIVITY	F16L0	IGT PHE IGTH SCIPHYS_ASTRO	PATH BILL ENGHA	UTHER NO	101AL
54516 465	2 S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S	380 6	~ *	~ •	000
APPLIEN RES	> N	110 11	20.1 20.4	100.0 70.0	41.3 148 100.0
GEVEL+DESIGN	> = 2	13.3 10.0	33.3 24.0 6	10.0	19.0 18 10.0
MANAG - K+D	> 7 5	1.3	~ # T		1.7 +2 100.0
MANAG - OTHER	,	7.7 15.0 2.3 92.0	11.6		289
1 EACHING	2 C	' 1	2.4 4.6 4.6	4	2.3 248 100.0
OTHER ANDWH	H 14.7	0°02	33.3 [3.0		23.3
NO RESPONSE	× 12.5	21.5	7	0.01	24 24 100.0
TOTAL	7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	829 10 77.8 .9	69 ( 1,	25	5901 5901
	v 100.0	10000 10000	100.0 100.0 94.9	100.0 100.0	140.0

TYPE OF EMPLOYER - TOTAL RACEM	- TOTAL	HUNN	Ì								C.C.
BASIC RES		HE TO DE PH	27	7	7		1	1	•	135	614
230 230 200	H		7.5	7	100.03		7.2	50.0		9	
	22.2		: ::				35	7.8	i	27	
	I > E						222			10.7	
5	£ > £	•	<b>:</b> :=				123			20,5	U ()
	z > z	5	9	-		-	-			9	
		-	32	1:3		1000	12		1:3	200	
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APPENDIX B:
ALLOCATION OF
NATIONAL REGISTER
SPECIALTIES TO
PHYSICS
SUBFIELDS

			Marketing Comments of the Comm			
1772	PH	YSICS	IN PERSPECTIVE			* **
				:		
						1
11.5			•	PhD's	Non-P	hD's
PP	1	A&R				
	•	5823	Gravitational fields, gravitons	26	8	
		6014	Cosmology	16	8	
		6015		45	17	
		6018	Quasars, pulsars, x-ray sources	84	40	
		6035	Relativity, gravitation	77	35	
PP	2	AME				
		5673	Chemical kinetics, gas phase, and photochem- istry	26	18	• .
		5684	Flames and explosives	8	32	
		5693	Molecular spectroscopy	101	51	
		5694	Molecular structure	26	17	
		5696	Quantum and valence theory	22	9	
		5791		51	38	
,		5792	Atomic, molecular, and electron beams	106	66	• f
		5793	Atoms with $Z > 2$	47	. 17	
		5794	Collision processes	208	93	
130		5795	Free radicals	6	7	•
1. 1. 1.		5796	Hydrogen and helium atoms	22	- 30	•
		5797	Inorganic molecules	3 -	9	
		5798 5801	Macromolecules and polymers Mesic and muonic atoms and	69 11	24 7	*
		5802	molecules Organic molecules		10	
		5809	Other (atoms and molecules)	.8 52	28	
		5942	Kinetic theory	14	4	
		Cnon1	an Chaun			
* *			ap Group	20	-	
		5861 5986	Quantum mechanics (1/2)	29	7 4	
		3980	NMR-EPR instrumenta- tion (1/4) Spectroscopy (1/2)	5	4	
		5678	Electronic spectroscopy including far uv	7	6	
		5891	Spectroscopy	71	75	
\$ 3 - 1		5998	Spectroscopes X rays (1/5)	5	12	
1.		5818	X rays and gamma rays	12	15	
		6004	X-ray instrumentation	8	13	
		5666	Modern optics (1/4)			
		5698	Scattering phenomena	3	3	
24		5814	Interaction of electromag-	27	19	
	11.0	5007	netic waves with matter	0.2	71	
	. ;	5884 5885	Lasers Nonlinear optics	82	71	
la constant		5983	Lasers and masers	20 6	10 10	

				PhD's	Non-PhD's
PP	3	EP			*
		5821 5822	Cosmic rays Electromagnetic fields,	99 94	41 48
٠		5824	photons Hadrons	741	312
		5825	Leptons Quantum field theory	94 129	42 73
		5829	Other (elementary-par- ticles and fields)	111	66
		Overl	ap Group		
		5861	Quantum mechanics (1/4) Beams (1/2)	14	3
		5973	Beam handling	8	6
	-	5988	Particle accelerators	63	40 5
1			Particle and beam sources	5 21	26
		5992	Particle detectors	21	20
PP	4	NP			
		5695	Nuclear and radio	6	13
		5697	Radiation and hot-atom chemistry	5	. 7
		5871	Nuclear decay and radio	132	84
		5872	Nuclear reactions and scattering	593	279
		5873	Nuclear structure and energy levels	400	198
		5879		220	186
		5966	Health and medical physics	162	336
		5987	Nuclear Reactors	128	138
		Over	lap Group		
			X rays (1/5)	10	15
		5818	X rays and gamma rays	12 8	13
		6004	X-ray instrumentation Beams (1/2)	. 0	13
		5973		8	· 6
		5988		63	40
		5991	Particle and beam	5	5
		5992	sources Particle detectors	21	26

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				<b>73.1</b> 4		
			•	PhD's	Non-Phl	<u>)'s</u>
PP	5	P&F				
		583	Dispersions and colloids	8	2	
	.5	5832	Electric discharges	51.	37	
		5833	Fluid mechanics	257	145	
		5834		20	13	
		5835		1	5	
		583€	Liquids	23	21	
		5849		24	38	
		5853		63	24	
		5937	"" a diameter	28	11	
		5838		488	211	
		5994	Plasma containment	8	12	
		Over	lap Group			
			Thermal (3/10)			
		5682		2	1	
			dynamic relationships .	-	*	
		5941	High-temperature physics	8	4	
		5944	Phase transitions and	14	9	
			changes of state			
		5945	" " " "	20	8	
		5946		5	7	
		5947	techniques		_	
		5948	- returned properties	4	. 6	
		5951	Transport phenomena	5 14	9 8	
		5959		6	5	
		5981	High temperature instru-	Ö	2	
			mentation			
		6002	Thermometric instrumen-	0	3	
			tation			
		5775	Shock waves (4/5)	28	38	
PP	6	CM				•
		5671	Catalysis	-	2	
		5674	Chemical kinetics, liquid	5 4	2	
		30,4	phase	4	1	
	•	5676	Crystallography	48	38	
		5692	Liquid state and solu-	10	6	
			tions; electrolytes and		Ü	
			nonelectrolytes			
1		5701	Solid-state chemistry	23	9.	
		5815	Magnetism	33	41	
		5841	Quantum fluids	53	22	
		5856	Many-body theory	31	14	6.2
	5	5858	Plasticity	7	3	
P		5902	Statistical mechanics	52	11	
		5903	Alloys	54	29	1.1
100		5904.	Crystal growth Crystal structure	43 30	31	11 (14 ) 1 (14 )
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				PhD's	Non-PhD's	3
PP	6 -	CM				
		5905	Dendrites and composites	6	3 .	
		5906	Dielectrics	41	33	
		5907	Diffusion in solids	46	17	
		5908	Electron states	139	55	
		5911	Electron transport and carrier properties	. 156	87	
		5912	Imperfections	105	42	
		5914	Lattice mechanics	60	34	
		5915	Luminescence	66	41	
• "		5916	Magnetic properties	242	125	
		5917	Magnetic resonance	258	126	
		5918	Mechanical properties	89	50	
		5921	Metallic conductors	29	17	
		5922	Mössbauer effect	74	36	
		5923	Noncrystalline states	34	17	
		5924	Optical properties	218	110	
		5925	Semiconductors	305	254	
		5926	Solid-state devices	311	237	
		5927	Superconductors	174	91	
		5928	Surfaces, interfaces, films	260	232	
		5931	Thermal properties of solids	33	39	
		5939	Other (solids)	145	135	
		5943	Low-temperature physics	158	92	
		5978	High-pressure instru- mentation	8	10	
		5982	Information storage	20	27	
	•	5997	Semiconductors	10	28	
		Overl	ap Group			
		F061	Mechanics (1/4)	14	3	
		5861	Quantum mechanics NMR & EPR (3/4)			
		5986	NMR-EPR instrumentation Mechanical (1/2)	15	14	
		5854	Elasticity	10	5	
		5855	Friction	1	4 .	
		6003	Vacuum	11	38	
			Ultrasound (2/3)			
		5777	Ultrasonics	51	52	
		5901	Acoustic properties X rays (3/5)	. 20	10	
		5818	X rays and gamma rays	36	45	
		6004	X-ray instrumentation	24	39	
			Measurement and instru- ments (1/2)			
		5811	Electrical quantities and their measurement	10	26	

# 1776 PHYSICS IN PERSPECTIVE

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			1	PhD's	Non-PhD's
PP	6	CM			
		Overl	ap Group		
		5857	Measurement of mechan- ical properties	13	23
		5913	• •	94	. 64
		5976	Electronics	51	160
		6009	Other (instrumentation)	41	108
		6037	Units, constants, stan- dards, conversion factors Shock waves (1/5)	2	6
		5775	Shock waves Thermal (7/10)	7	9
		5682	Equilibrium and thermo- dynamic relationships	4	3
		5941	High-temperature physics	19	8
	:	5944	Phase transitions, changes of state	33	20
	1.1	5945	Statistical mechanics	47	18
		5946	Thermal measurement techniques	11	16
		5947	Thermal properties	10	15
		5948	Thermodynamics	12	20
		5951		33	19
		5959		13	12
		5981	High-temperature instru- mentation	1	4 ;
		6002	Thermometric instrumenta- tion	1	6
			Modern optics (1/4)		100
		5698	<b>9</b> •	3	4
		5814	netic waves with matter	27	19
		5884		20	10
		5885	•	20	10 10
PP	7.	5983 E&P	Lasers and masers	6	
		4991	Aeronomy	24	27
		4992	Air-sea interaction	1	4
		4993	Atmospheric chemistry and radioactivity	11	7
		4994	Atmospheric dynamics, thermodynamics	7	17
		4995	Atmospheric electricity	6	9
		4997	Aurora, airglow	9	20
1		4998	Cloud and precipitation	16	15
			physics		

				PhD's	Non-PhD's
PP	7	E&P			
		5001	Cosmic rays	6	4
		5002	Ionosphere	28	34
		5003	Mesometeorology	1	5
		5004	Micrometeorology	0	5
		5005	Numerical modeling	13	9
		5006	Planetary atmospheres	14	8
		5007	Radiative transfer	31	21
		5008	Turbulence and diffusion	12	10
		5009	•	18	17
-			ture and dynamics)		
		5028		0	0
		5031	92	0	0
		5161	Exploration, gravity	2	5
		5162	Exploration, magnetic	5	· 3
		51.63	Exploration, seismology	24	23
		5164	Geomagnetism and paleomag- netism	5	12
		5165	Gravity	3	8
		5166	Heat flow	1	1
		5167	Physical properties of	16	9
		9	natural materials		
		5168	Seismology	12	24
		5171	Tectonics	1	. 0
		5172	Volcanology	0	0
		5179	Other (solid-earth geo- physics)	21	8
		5185	Physical oceanography	. 11	14
		5191	Underwater sound	0	0
		5199	Other (oceanography)	10	14
		5302	Lunar and planetary geology	- 7	10
		5331	Aeronomy	23	12
		5332	Aurora and airglow	23	16
		5333	Cosmic rays	11	30
		5334	Geomagnetic pulsations	7	3
		5335	Interplanetary particles and fields	26	14
		5336	Ionosphere	17	20
		5337	Magnetospheric particles and waves	78	50
		5350	Atmospheric sciences	33	46
		5360	Earth sciences	24	39
		Overl	ap Group		
			Solar/planetary (1/2)		
		5338	Solar and planetary physics	26	20
		5341	Solar wind	11	5
		5349	Other (solar/planetary)	6	5
		6023	Sun	46	21
1,25		4996	Atmospheric optics and	15	12
			acoustics (1/2)	-	- <del></del>
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# 1778 PHYSICS IN PERSPECTIVE

				PhD's	Non-Ph	D's
PP	8	РВ	,			
		5688	Ion exchange and membrane phenomena	3	4	
		5962	Bioelectricity	21	1.2	
		5963	Bioenergetics	8	8	
			Blological molecules	86	27	
		5969		89	49	
		6580	Biological and biomedical sciences	44	34	
		Overl	ap Group			
			Hearing (2/5)			
		5772	Hearing	6	6	
		5776	Speech	7	4	
		5961	Bioacoustics	3	2	
7		3,01	Bio-optics (1/3)	-		
		5892	Vision	3	2	
		5965	Blo-optics	2	2	
PP	9	Optic	S		*	
		5813	Infrared, visible, and uv radiation	42	142	
		5881	Colorimetry	7	16	
		5882	<del>-</del>	31	208	
			Holography	74	94	
		5886	Photography	24	114	
		5887	Photometry, radiometry, and illumination	39	209	
		5888	Physics optics	98	144	
		5899	Other (optics)	104	286	
		5985	Microscopes	6	19	
		5993	Photographic Instrumenta- tion	7	43	
		Overl	ap Group			
			Measurement and instru- ments (1/2)			
		5811	Electrical quantities and their measurement	10	26	
		5857	Measurement of mechanical properties	13	23	
		5913	Interaction of radiation with solids	94	64	
		5976	Electronics	51	160	
		6009	Other (instrumentation)	41	108	
٠.		6037	Units, constants, stan- dards, conversion factors	2	6	
			Spectroscopy (1/2)			•

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			nppoment is	
		PhD's	Non-PhD'	<u>s</u>
PP 9	Optics			
	Overlap Group			
	5678 Electronic spectroscopy including far uv	7	6 :	**
	5891 Spectroscopy	71	75	
	5998 Spectroscopes Bio-optics (2/3)	.5	12	
	5892 Vision	7	5	
	5965 Bio-optics Modern optics (1/2)	6	4	
	5698 Scattering phenomena	6	7	
	5814 Interaction of electromag- netic waves with matter	55	38	
	5884 Lasers	163	141	
	5885 Nonlinear optics	41	20	
	5983 Lasers and masers 5996 Atmospheric optics and acoustics (1/2)	12 15	21 12	•
PP 10	Acoustics			
	5771 Architectural acoustics	10	. 35	
	5773 Music	8	7	
	5774 Noise	33	120	
i i	5778 Underwater sound	155	407	
	5781 Vibrations	21	55	
	5789 Other (acoustics)	33	57	
	Overlap Group	4 .	A Property of the Control of the Con	,
	Ultrasound (1/3)			
	5777 Ultrasonics	26	26	
	5901 Acoustic properties Hearing (3/5)	10	. 5	
	5772 Hearing	9	9	
	5776 Speech	9	6.	
	5961 Bioacoustics	5	3	
PP 11	Astrophysics			
	6011 Binary stars	23	19	
	6012 Clusters	14	1	
*	6016 Interstellar medium	66	32	
	6021 Stellar composition 6022 Stellar evolution	32 50	29 22	
		129	85	
P 12	Astronomy			
F 12		<b>63</b>		
	5852 Celestial mechanics	61	69	

178	O PI	IYSTCS	IN PERSPECTIVE		
		•		PhD's	Non-PhD's
PP	13	Inter	planetary		
		5301	Interplanetary matter	9	2
		5304	Meteorites and tektites	5	1 .
		5305	and the second s	30	11
		5306	Planetary magnetic fields	2	2 :
	•	5309	Other (planetology)	6	6
		6013	Comets, meteors, inter- planetary medium	15	10
		6017	Planets and satellites	26	18
PP	14	Instr	umentation		
		5972	Astronomical	32	29
		5996		39	17
		6001	•	5	14
PP	15	0ver1	ap with E&P (1/2)		
		5338	Solar planetary physics	26	20
		5341	• • • • •	11	5
		5349	Other (solar/planetary)	6	- 5
		6023	Sun	46	21