

Does scientific eminence endure? Making sense of the most cited economists, psychologists and sociologists in textbooks (1970–2010)

Philipp Korom¹

Received: 24 October 2017

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Abstract This paper examines the concept of textbook eminence and asks whether this specific form of scholarly recognition is of a temporal rather than enduring nature. Based on an analysis of 30 leading textbooks in economics, psychology and economics from the 1970s and 2010s, it is established that less than a third of all eminent scholars remain across the period as the most cited authors. Therefore, the average "half-life" of textbook eminence is shorter than half a century. Textbook eminence, it seems, is associated first and foremost with 'certified recognition,' expressed through encyclopedia entries dedicated to individual scholars. In psychology, and partly in sociology, citation impact turns out to be a further significant correlate. In economics, however, textbook eminence is completely detached from peer recognition, as measured by the h-index. The identified short "half-life" of textbook eminence does not necessarily imply a replacement of older elites by younger researchers. In sociology, very few 20th century newcomers have yet attained textbook eminence.

Keywords Scientific eminence · Textbooks · Citation analysis · Bibliometrics

Introduction

Psychology was the first discipline to venture into measuring scientific eminence. The 19th century psychologist Francis Galton examined evidence for the inheritance of abilities by studying, among others, well-known scientists. In *English Men of Science* Galton (1874) makes great use of the word 'eminence' without rigorously defining it. His "litmus test" for the word seems to be national acclaim or public consensus concerning greatness. Endeavors to quantify scientific eminence gained momentum with the publication of the directory *American Men of Science* (Cattell 1906b), a collection of biographical sketches

Published online: 28 May 2018

Department for Sociology, University of Graz, Universitätsstrasse 15/G4, 8010 Graz, Austria



[☑] Philipp Korom philipp.korom@uni-graz.at

of thousands of men of science in the USA edited by the owner of *Science*, McKeen Cattell (Godin 2007).

Cattell based his studies on two concepts: productivity, defined as the number of men of science a nation produces (Cattell 1903, p. 591); and performance, defined as scientific contributions to research as judged by peers. Cattell believed that "expert judgement is the best [...] criterion of performance" (Cattell 1906a, p. 702). Many followed in his footsteps pursuing the goal of quantifying eminence in academia; early scholars in this area appear to have regarded relying on peer judgment as a feasible route. Annin, Boring, and Watson, for example, identified important psychologists by asking a panel of nine judges—two of whom were Boring and Watson themselves—to rate names on a 3-point evaluation scale. Such attempts were met with severe criticism (Zusne 1975), partly because it was doubted that any similar expert panel would come to the same conclusions. The effort was followed closely by calls for new methods.

Psychology and other disciplines turned to citations as the key indicator of recognition, to gauge how widely a scholar's research is used by others in the field. Scientometric studies mushroomed after the *Science Citation Index* (SCI) was launched in 1964, which provided researchers with citations to scientific papers appearing in an increasing number of digitalized journals (Cole and Cole 1967).

To this day, journal-based citations are seen as a relatively objective, yet imperfect, indicator of scholarly reputation (Offer and Söderberg 2016). Douglas (1992, p. 405) refers to them as a "... 'blue-collar' index of impact, made primarily by people in the trenches rather than by the generals". A downside of journal-based citations is that they neglect many relevant genres of literature in the form of books. Therefore, strands of research emerged that centered principally on introductory textbook citations. Early studies along these lines can be found in sociology (Bain 1962; Oromaner 1968) and psychology (Kaess and Bousfield 1954). The "textbook approach" was later also adopted in economics (Liner 2002).

Again it appeared to many that a complex phenomenon such as "scientific eminence" cannot be captured using a single method (Roeckelein 1996). The question was:

Important from whose point of view? Who is more important for the discipline, a sociologist who is recognized as such by the multitudes who have passed through an introductory sociology class or one who is recognized by the select few who are exposed to the American Sociological Review? (Oromaner 1969, p. 334).

It is fair to say that state-of-the-art literature has settled on a mix of measures such as awards, surveys, and citations in textbooks and journals to operationalize scientific eminence (Chan and Torgler 2015; Diener et al. 2014; Haggbloom et al. 2002; Zechmeister and Zechmeister 2000, p. 6).

What remains unanswered, however, is what aspect of scientific eminence the "text-book approach" actually measures? The assertion that "... introductory textbook coverage reflects the degree to which textbook writers believe the work of a scientist is important, but also to some degree the extent to which they believe it will be interesting and understandable to students ..." is a gross oversimplification of the nature of introductory texts (Diener et al. 2014, p. 21). In his *Confessions of a Textbook Writer*, McConnell (1978) points to five different audiences—students, instructors, peers, colleagues, and publishers—that "make very different and often conflicting demands on the writer" (ibid: 167). It is well known that textbook writers and editors closely observe the textbook market and that textbooks go through extensive peer review (Kendall 1999). Some even argue that intrusive market pressures and editorial control make "books write authors" (Agger 1989).



Another difficulty inherent in the writing of textbooks is that authors are not only supposed to present the well-established fundamentals of the discipline, but also take account of recent work in a rapidly moving set of research problems over which there is substantial disagreement. Such new developments provide them some room to differ from previous textbooks, despite the predominance of uniform market strategies. A priori, what a textbook citation means is anything but clear and still needs to be empirically established, which is one of the main goals of this article.

Once we can make a statement as to what textbook eminence actually stands for, the question becomes whether it is enduring or ephemeral. A common assertion is that, because of the progressive nature of scientific inquiry, prominent contributors to a discipline tend to fade into the background as new discoveries are made. It is often argued, particularly in the social sciences, that a scholar's work is easily forgotten once the immediate flush of theoretical "sex appeal" has subsided (Rule 1997). While we are aware that scientific truth is transitory, and therefore scientific eminence is highly unlikely to obtain longevity, empirical evidence concerning the "half-life" of eminent scientists is not available. Therefore, the second goal of this article is to investigate how long star scholars in three different disciplines are likely to remain heavily cited in textbooks.

The analysis of five widely used introductory textbooks from the 1970s and the 2010s in economics, psychology and sociology—a total of 30 books—yields the following results: Scientific eminence in the "textbook world" indicates, first and foremost, that the knowledge a given scholar contributes to the discipline is approved by at least one generation of scholars ("certified eminence"). In psychology, and to some extent in sociology, peer recognition—as measured by the h-index—is a weak correlate, but nevertheless important. Textbook economics appears, however, to have a clear distinctive culture; whoever figures high in the "textbook world," figures low in the "journal world." For the bulk of eminent scholars, the "half-life" for textbook eminence is shorter than half a century. There are cross-disciplinary differences; in economics and psychology newcomers replace already renowned authors, while only very few 20th century scholars attain textbook eminence in sociology.

Introductory textbooks as genre

That introductory textbooks comprise a genre of their own becomes apparent from the reactions these books elicit.

Scientists from all disciplines jest about the deceptions and inaccuracies—made for the sake of clarity, simplicity, or profit—contained in introductory texts (Morawski 1992, p. 162).

Another common complaint is that there is a considerable gap between what economists or sociologists do and what they teach. The economist Colander (2005, p. 251), for example, argues that new developments such as the blossoming of behavioral economics studies or the rise of evolutionary game theory and New Institutional Economics have not been incorporated in most textbooks. The sociologists Manza et al. (2010, p. 271) bemoan that contemporary textbook writers persistently present structural functionalism, conflict theory, and symbolic interactionism to frame the theoretical core of the discipline, even if these paradigms are no longer central to research.



While there are many explanations for these observations, one can easily guess why academicians view introductory textbooks with suspicion. The task put to a textbook writer—namely to comprehensively introduce students with little, if any, familiarity with the discipline and thereby sacrificing detail and preferring consistency over eclecticism—conflicts with the canons of scholarship that they have internalized.

In an essay revealingly entitled *The Function of Dogma in Scientific Research*, Thomas Kuhn introduces natural science textbooks as repositories of exemplars from the reigning paradigm within a field conveying the impression that "... scientists agree about what it is that every students of the field must know" (Kuhn 1963, p. 349). The same holds true for economics. Reading more recent editions of Samuelson's *Economics*, which had a considerable impact on the profession, one quickly realizes that economics is presented as an evolutionary science, suggesting to the students that "... all insignificant theories have been weeded out and all that is important is incorporated in the current body of knowledge" (Klamer 1990, p. 141).

In general, the genre of textbooks has changed substantially over time. Very early textbooks, such as the psychologist William James' lengthy *Principles of Psychology* (James 1890), set out to articulate what the discipline *should* be. Interestingly, even in the nineteenth century, when commercial publishing was elite-oriented, James had to dovetail closely with the editor and comply with restrictions (James 1920).

In the 20th century, psychology textbooks became more student-oriented (1930s–1940s), evolving towards becoming more encyclopedic (1950s–1960s) containing, among other things, significantly more references (Weiten and Brewer 1992). In the late 1960s, a pervasive trend in psychology, sociology and economics set in: homogenization. For example, economists call the 1950s to 2010s the "Samuelson Era" (Colander 2011, p. 344). From the 1950s onwards, economics textbooks were highly influenced by Samuelson's *Economics*, even though it was first published in 1948. Of course, there were adaptations, most of which reflected the development of the discipline:

When poverty was in, in went a chapter on poverty. When radical economics was in, in went a chapter on Marxian economics. When monetarism was in, in went a discussion of monetarism (Stiglitz 1988, p. 173).

In sociology, British (and other national) textbooks started to emulate the American-style blockbuster textbooks (Platt 2008). In psychology, few "instructors escape the impression when examining the row of publishers' copies wedged on their shelves that they all look alike", something confirmed by several content analyses (Zechmeister and Zechmeister 2000, p. 6).

What explains the "mushrooming" of "copycats" in the introductory textbook market? An innovator who departs from pre-established templates takes a risk. If the market fails to find his approach attractive, the publisher's large investment of resources is lost. Editors know from experience that marginally distinctive texts can turn quickly into loss making ventures. To control risk, editors increasingly turn to market research, surveying professors about their topical priorities and employing many internal and external reviewers. Fewer

² The first edition of *Economics* was published in 1948, and every 3–4 years later another edition was published. The first edition sold 121,453 copies. In total, *Economics* had sold more than 4 million copies, and was translated into 41 languages (Gottesman et al. 2005, p. 97).



¹ Manza et al. (2010, p. 300) make two strong arguments. On the supply side, publishers pressure for conformity to textbook norms and for content that is "tried and true". On the demand side, heavy teaching loads, especially at the bottom of the academic hierarchy, encourage the routinization of instruction.

resources are allocated to desirable innovations as publishers have become considerably more reluctant to try something new. Consequently, products at the fringes of the market decrease and even the number of new titles shrivels (Manza et al. 2010, 291).

These trends towards homogenization and market contraction suggest that the textbook genre in academic disciplines has become increasingly differentiated from handbooks, encyclopedias or scholarly monographs, a contention well supported by the observation that introductory textbooks' impact on scholarship has been in strong decline since the 1980s (Wright 1995).

Introductory textbooks and scientific eminence

Textbooks are attributed a pivotal role in the certification of knowledge, a concept popularized by Norman W. Storer, which originated from Robert K. Merton. Merton postulated that "the institutional goal of science is the extension of *certified knowledge*" (Merton 1973, p. 270, italics added). However, while Merton was particularly concerned with the genuine values of science that explain science's success as the locus of reliable knowledge of nature—disinterestedness, organized skepticism—Storer focused on the procedural aspects of truth-finding in science. He argued that if a direct proof of the validity of a novel theoretical framework is not possible, scientists base their judgment on how well the new contribution 'fits' the current knowledge as a refinement or extension of it: "Only when a contribution is 'certified', that is, acceptable to other scientists under the canons of proof they share, will it be welcomed" (Storer 1966, p. 119).

The concept of certification implies the existence of different stages in the acceptance of an idea by a discipline. In the first stage, empirical research may be replicated and theories evaluated in terms of consistency. In the second, peers may accept the contribution as a valid extension of knowledge. Rothman (1971) suggests that at stage three, the subject becomes a legitimate topic for inclusion in textbooks, and that it may be regarded a serious omission not to publish it.

References to authors in textbooks thus appear to be a fairly clear indicator for a certain aspect of scientific eminence; namely the extent to which an author has contributed to the stock of accepted core knowledge in a given discipline. Contemporary scholars expanding frontiers of knowledge or developing potentially fruitful lines of investigation are not captured as the scientific community has not yet reached any conclusive judgment as to whether or not the contributions are sufficiently significant to be included in the discipline's core texts.

Many would disagree with this assertion, however. Economists Breit and Huston (1997), for example, interpret textbook references as an indicator of "influence" that is often unrelated to "reputation"; i.e. the professional judgment of peers. By "influence" the authors mean political influence. As an illustrative example of an economist who scores higher on influence—measured by references in textbooks—than on reputation ranking—measured by citations in journals—they name John K. Galbraith, a Harvard economist best known for his books that address a wide audience and which shaped political discourse.

⁴ It turns out that this assessment of John K. Galbraith's scholarly reputation is wrong. Based on comprehensive JSTOR citation data Offer and Söderberg (Offer and Söderberg 2016, p. 137) come to the



³ Storer's analysis of professional recognition is in part transferable to the social sciences as the verisimilitude manifest in many social theorists' work is not easily empirically specifiable. Marx's central notions, for example, cannot be simply verified or falsified.

In what follows, we aim to further elucidate these matters by empirically exploring, among other things, the correlates of textbook references.

Data and variables

Data

To tackle our research questions empirically, we selected five textbooks from the 1970s and a further five from the 2010s that are representative for one of three disciplines in the Anglo-Saxon world: sociology; psychology; and economics. All books were clearly intended to introduce college students to the discipline (deduced from the preface) and emphasize pedagogy (best illustrated by the many pedagogic devices introduced).

All three disciplines have a textbook tradition that reaches back to the middle of the 19th century (Colander 2011; Weiten and Brewer 1992). In the 1970s, the trend towards the homogenization of introductory textbooks was already established. Despite a certain "sameness", all of the 1970s textbooks differ considerably more in content than those from the 2010s. Most of the 1970s textbooks' authors were no longer active in the 2010s. Much more important, however, is that the theories and perspectives to which the 1970s books adhered—such as structural functionalism in sociology or Keynesian theory in economics—had lost currency by the 2010s, which should enable us to trace change in all three disciplines.

The selection of these textbooks was based on sales figures, as far as this type of information was available for economics; *McGraw-Hill* shared this information for Samuelson's and McConnell's text (Elzinga 1992) and both market leaders were sampled. Due to the general lack of respective information, we had to settle on an alternative indicator to discern whether certain books were more widely adopted than others. The digital tool used was *WorldCat*, a collaborative venture in which libraries contribute their records to a consortium collection, which then repackage them as a composition catalog.⁶

WorldCat indicates the number of libraries in which a certain textbook is available, a figure that became our main selection criterion. For each discipline, we searched about 100 textbooks that are analyzed in the literature (Griggs and Christopher 2016; Liner 2002; Oromaner 1968). We found patterns typical within "winner-takes-all" markets. For the 2010s, Gerrig's text is the only psychology introductory textbook for which WorldCat identified more than 1300 libraries. In sociology, Macionis' text is the only contemporary sociology introductory textbook with more than 800 hits. In each discipline, about five titles are placed in the upper middle-range, while the bulk of textbooks significantly lag behind the few bestselling books.

As can be seen from Table 1, by discipline textbooks differ marginally in size and hugely in organization. Between 1970 and 2010, the 'average textbook' in psychology stayed at about 730 pages, while in sociology the 'average textbook' grew from 510 to 750

Footnote 4 continued

conclusion that "among the Nobel Prize winners, he [John K. Galbraith] would have ranked fourteenth in total citations in 2005".

⁷ Search results for selected textbooks are presented in the Appendix.



⁵ All 30 selected textbooks are listed in the Appendix A1.

⁶ Abbott (2014) hints to the fact that the tool is not flawless. In fact, one finds many separate records for what are in fact identical items. We thus had to double-check all *WorldCat* outputs.

Table 1 The sample

	Sociolog	gy	Econom	ics	Psychology		
	1970s	2010s	1970s	2010s	1970	2010s	
Textbooks							
No. of textbooks observations	5	5	5	5	5	5	
Length of textbook, pages (average)	507.8	747	622.8	800.6	728.4	724.8	
No. of chapters (average)	13.4	19.6	34.6	33.8	20.8	15.8	
Person index							
No. of scholars listed in the index (average)	629.6	1388.8	429	475	595.6	3456	
No. of references to scholars in the index (average)	1371.4	2076.8	820	812	934.8	4343	
Bottom 50%: share of citations	19.2	29.1	21.3	26.3	26.0	32.3	
Mid 40%: share of citations	39.9	32.0	33.0	36.7	33.3	35.1	
Top 10%: share of citations	40.9	38.9	45.7	52.5	40.7	34.8	
Most cited scholars							
Cut-off point selection	9	8	3	3	7	8	
No. of most cited scholars	91	102	46	54	94	102	
Agreement between textbook authors							
Cohen's kappa (nominal)	- 0.02	0.01	- 0.17	- 0.06	- 0.07	- 0.06	
Krippendorf's alpha (ordinal)	0.05	0.07	0.03	0.09	- 0.04	- 0.04	

pages, and in economics it grew from 620 to 800 pages. The typical organization into chapters is by far the most fine-grained in economics, with an average of 34 chapters in 2010. In contrast, the latest editions of textbooks in sociology contain about 16 chapters, and 20 in psychology.

The most pronounced interdisciplinary differences are observed with regard to citation practices (see Table 1). Working from the author indices, we determined the number of textbook pages on which scholars were referenced. We adjusted for bibliography pages (i.e. "55–57" counts as three pages) but did not apply any weighting system for self-citations. Citations of scholarly work are sparse in economics; in both the 1970s and 2010s samples, fewer than 500 scholars are listed in the index, suggesting a strong tendency to discuss economic models without any reference to their intellectual origin. The 'person index' has become substantially longer in psychology textbooks (average of 3456 scholars listed) than those in sociology (average of 1389 scholars listed). Psychologists also tend to reference the scholars listed in the appendix more often, which is indicative of the encyclopedic nature of the key textbooks currently available in the discipline. In

¹⁰ Samuelson's textbook stands out through a comparatively many literature references. Other studied textbook in economics refer to less than 100 economists.



⁸ We excluded non-scientists (such as US presidents), celebrities and and other persons that have not contributed to the respective discipline.

⁹ It should be noted, however, that Anthony Giddens, for example, cites his own work in the 6th edition of *Sociology* on 14 different pages.

sociology and economics, scholars with the highest number of pages on which they were cited ("top 10%" in terms of page count) receive 40–45% of all references. Contemporary psychology textbooks stand out insofar as we find references in the name index to be more equally distributed between the bottom 50%, the middle 40% and the top 10% of listed scholars.

With scientific eminence our prime concern, we selected scholars with the highest page score. There is, however, no "magic" page count that separates scholars worthy of study from the rest. Therefore we settled on two different inclusion criteria. First, the scholar must be mentioned in at least two out of the five textbooks. Second, we set the cut-off line in such a way that we could compare an almost equal number of scholars across time in each discipline, thereby excluding a minimum number of scholars who are, in general, ranked among the most eminent representatives of their discipline (Blaug and Vane 2003; Diener et al. 2014; Oromaner 1968). These decisions left us with different numbers of top referenced scholars in each discipline (see Table 1). Even by putting the page count as low as three pages in economics, we still were able to include only 54 eminent economists for the 2010s.

Variables

To probe the meanings of textbook citations, we tested associations with sets of other variables that stand for productivity and/or publication impact, certified eminence, and academic prestige. In what follows, we explain how we generated these variables and what they capture.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of all variables used in this study

	Sociology		Economic	S	Psychology		
	1970s	2010s	1970s	2010s	1970s	2010s	
Google Scholar citations	35,217.1	56,617.3	35,716.6	54,426.2	39,448.9	75,346	
Citations to most cited publication	9220.5	10,290.0	8272	9041.6	8378.2	11,343.5	
H-Index	45.3	108.7	48.4	67.0	55.3	92.0	
Number of eponyms	/	/	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.4	
Number of quotations in SSQ	5.2	4.1	6.6	4.2	2.5	1.6	
Britannica entry	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.2	
Specialist encyclopedia entry	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.2	
President ASA/ESA/AEA	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	
W.E.B. DuBois Career Award	0.2	0.1	/	/	/	/	
Noble Prize	/	/	0.2	0.3	/	/	
APA Award	/	/	/	/	0.3	0.3	

Depicted are mean values. The average number of Google Scholar citations in sociology in the 1970s was thus 35,217 while about 30% of all sampled scholars in sociology were elected president of the ASA



Google Scholar citations

Google Scholar covers print and academic journals, conference proceedings, books, theses and other outlets available from major academic publishers, professional societies or government agencies. Studies show that Google Scholar citations correlate with ISI (Web of Knowledge) citations¹¹ but that they are more comprehensive (Kousha and Thelwall 2007). Google Scholar is likely to provide a valid measure of high-impact within, and partly outside academia, especially for a book-heavy field like sociology. To analyze Google Scholar citation data we used Harzing's *Publish or Perish* (PoP) software (Harzing 2015). We use overall citations as well as the number of citations given to the most cited publication.

H-index (Google Scholar based)

The h-index indicates the number of 'papers' by a scholar that have been cited at least h times (Hirsch 2005), Thus, an h of 40 indicates that a scholar has produced 40 'papers' cited *at least* 40 times. The Google Scholar based h-index is arguably the best indicator for assessing the frequency and consistency with which authors have produced work that has had an impact on scholarship. The h-index is only marginally influenced by a small number of well-cited contributions and measures quality and quantity simultaneously. For example, scholars who contributed only few landmark studies will have a low h-index.

Eponyms

Eponymy is defined by Robert K. Merton as "[the] practice of affixing the name of the scientist to all or part of what he has found [...] In this way, scientists leave their signatures indelibly in history; their names enter into all the scientific languages of the world." (Merton 1957, pp. 642–643). Eponyms function as implicit citations of contributions by certain scholars that are widely recognized and have stood the test of time, at least partly. In most cases a law, theory, hypothesis, effect, or principle is named after the first scholar to have discovered it (e.g. Pavlovian Conditioning Principles, Schumpeterian entrepreneur, etc.). For psychology and economics we used eponymous dictionaries (Roeckelein 1998; Segura and Braun 2004) to count the eponyms referring to one of the selected scholars. In sociology, eponyms are rare and, for the purpose of this study, can be disregarded. Eponyms can be seen as a specific measure of what one may call 'certified eminence'.

Encyclopedia entries

Entries in encyclopedias are another manifestation of 'certified eminence'. Editors of key encyclopedias in their respective discipline typically devote entries only to those sociologists, economists and psychologists who are perceived to have deeply influenced the development of the discipline and whose influence on intellectual life is, at least to some degree, persistent. The sources used here are the encyclopedia Britannica, three discipline-specific encyclopedias (Durlauf and Blume 2008; Kazdin 2000; Ritzer 2007) and a book entitled *Social Science Quotations* (SSQ), a supplement of the *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, which has a broad selection of quotations from scholars of authority and consequence (Sills

Historically, Thomson's ISI citations were gathered under the name of the (Social) Science Citation Index. Since the advent of the internet, Thomson has made its citation database accessible online and now the citations are under the label "ISI Web of Knowledge".



and Merton 2000). We find in SSQ quotations from sociology, economics and psychology scholars alike, who not only wrote well but whose ideas also had a formative impact on social thought. In short, the book is about "memorable ideas memorably expressed" (Sills and Merton 1992, p. 168). As the major criterion for inclusion is relevance to the social sciences, the number of quotations collected by Robert K. Merton for each scholar can be viewed as another alternative indicator for 'certified eminence'.

Elected president/honorific awards

Being elected president of the American Sociological Association (ASA), the American Economic Association (AEA), or the American Psychological Association (APA) confers prestige to the scholar and is a clear sign that his or her work has merit. ASA presidents are characterized by distinguished academic records and various publications strategies that include influential books (Platt 2016). In economics, the number of journal publications is an important determinant of election (Diamond and Toth 2007).

Another important source of prestige in academia are merit-based awards that are, symbolically, an important part of the academic reward system. We consider the Nobel Prize for economics, the 'W.E.B. DuBois Career of Distinguished Scholarship Award' for sociology and the 'APA Award for Distinguished Scientific Contributions' for psychology. Obviously, there is no equivalent to the Noble Prize in the two other disciplines. However, in case of both the DuBois and APA awards, it might be said that the awarding committees established an elaborate system to ensure that the award goes only to deserving scholars. Similarly to the Noble Prize, being a recipient of these awards is likely to become a central part of any academic biography (Table 2).

Results

Agreement and disagreement on scientific eminence between textbook authors

We start our analysis by first asking whether there is substantial agreement between textbook authors as to whom to reference. In a sense, these references mirror the judgment of each textbook author as to how to evaluate contributions of a given author relative to the perceived merit of all other fellow scientists mentioned. Authors are very likely to vary the number of references to mentioned scholars such that, in the final analysis, citation counts are not so different from expert ratings of eminence. Therefore it seems reasonable to apply standard measures of 'inter-rater reliability'.

To do this, we used different data matrices. First we applied Cohen's kappa to a matrix in which columns represent the different textbook authors ('raters') and rows represent the selected eminent scholars ('items'). The cells in the matrix contain zeros and ones indicating whether or not an eminent scholar appears in the subject index of a given textbook. The resulting Cohen's kappa (see Table 1) are very low and, in most cases, negative. Such negative numbers are usually found only in randomly collected data.

To refine the analysis, we scaled citations for each textbook individually to values between 0 and 1 and categorized each entry as belonging to three categories: low; middle; and high. ¹² This procedure takes into account that some authors cite more than others and

¹² The three categories created are $[-\infty, x[25]]$, [x[25], x[75]], $[x[75], +\infty]$; where $x_{[25]}$ and $x_{[70]}$ are the 25th and 75 percentile of references in the respective index for the 1970s and 2010s.



builds on the simple assumption that references to authors can be transformed into prestige ratings on a scale with three reference points only. Applying Krippendorf's alpha (see Table 1) to this, ordinal metrics once again reveal poor agreement between textbook authors. ¹³

One should be aware that Cohens's kappa and Krippensdorf's alpha are global measures that consider all 'raters' and all 'rated' scholars, thereby masking many trends within the data matrices. By visualizing the data matrices with so called "heatmaps"—that apply color-coding to the three-category scale—many consistent trends become apparent (see Appendix).

The heatmaps in Appendix A2 are structured in a way that considers the number of high, middle and low page counts (in descending order) by scholars across all five text-books. Authors who do not differ on one of these three criterions are alphabetically ordered. For all three disciplines, we observed that there was a small 'core' of top scholars that all introductory text authors deem essential to reference (upper rows). Further, there is substantial agreement with regard to those authors whose work seems to be judged as less relevant to the discipline (lower rows). It is only between these two poles that we see substantial disagreement about who should receive more references.

There are, however, also substantial differences between disciplines. In sociology, the consolidation of the core-periphery-structure seems to advance the most between 1970 and 2010. While all textbook authors seem to arrive at agreement over who to cite most, the number of scholars in the 'periphery' grows considerably. Similar trends become visible for economics, although they are less pronounced. In psychology, the top comprises considerably more scholars than in sociology, but crystallizes similarly over time.

Overall, the visualizations unearth hidden order in the data and 'rating' consistencies between at least two or three textbook authors.

Textbooks, 'normal' (social) science and lasting eminence

Following Kuhn, textbooks have been designed to perpetuate normal (social) science, which means that they are written in accord with the principles of the dominant paradigms of the day. Being such a pedagogical device, textbooks are likely to be rewritten, in whole or in part, whenever the language, problem-structure or dominant perspectives in the discipline change. If there is development of knowledge, scientific advances are most likely to be made by new generations of scholars. What can we infer from textbooks about the rate at which rising scholars displace those already established?

Figure 1 shows that, for the 1970s, the median birth year of all considered scholars varies only marginally across all three disciplines; it is approximately 1900. In 2010, the picture changes considerably. In psychology, textbook authors reference the work of a large number of authors born in the 1940s or later. The median in economics rises to about 1930. It is in sociology that we see the least change; only two of the most referenced scholars are born after 1950 compared to nine in economics and 22 in psychology.

The heatmaps (see Appendix) also reveal that textbook eminence is not set in stone, only a fraction of authors 'survive' in the list from 1970 to 2010. ¹⁴ In sociology 26 (29%) names occur in both the 1970 and 2010 samples, 16 in economics (35%) and also 16 in psychology (17%).

The group of scholars whose 'fame' endures appears quite diverse, at least at face value. In all three disciplines, we can identify "founding fathers" (Baehr and O'Brien 1994) such

¹⁴ The names of the 'surviving' authors are given in capitalized letters in all heatmaps (Appendix A2).



 $^{^{13}}$ $\alpha = 1$ indicates perfect reliability and $\alpha = 0$ indicates the absence of reliability.

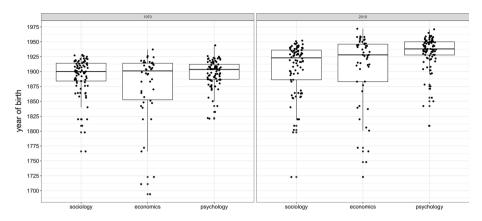


Fig. 1 Birthyears of highly referenced authors (boxplot). *Notes* The middle bar is the 50% percentile, the bottom and top of the box are the 25 and 75% percentiles

as Durkheim or Weber in sociology, Ebbinghaus or Watson in psychology, and Smith or Ricardo in economics. Textbook authors seem to agree that these scholars have contributed formative ideas in their respective disciplines. Equally we encounter "classics"—such as Parsons, Schumpeter or Ash—most likely because textbook authors are of the opinion that students can learn as much from this earlier work as they can from contemporary contributions.

Finally, it appears that in each discipline those scholars that pioneered a research field 'survive': in sociology, Davis established social demography as a formally organized subfield; in psychology, Skinner developed behaviorism; Nash laid the groundwork for the cooperative bargaining theory ("Nash equilibria"). Thus when one takes the data at face value, there are only small differences between disciplines. Looking more deeply, however, reveals different factors that foster lasting eminence in the three disciplines. Figure 2 presents average marginal effects (AMEs) derived from a logistic regression. ¹⁵

Given the high uncertainty of all estimates, there are only few conclusions that can be drawn. First, the variable 'born after 1900' has a significant negative impact on the probability of 'surviving' in sociology, findings that resonate with Fig. 1. Scholars born between 1800 and 1900 such as Comte, Marx or Durkheim—continue to play a central role. Robert Michels is a rare example of a 19th century scholar who vanishes from the list (see Appendix). Scientific recognition—such as the ASA presidency or the W.E.B. DuBois Career Award—are the best predictors for lasting eminence in sociology. Having more than five quotations included in *SSQ* also relates positively to 'survival' in sociology.

In economics, eponyms turn out to be the only reliable predictor, suggesting that eponyms are terms that perpetuate an original thinker in economics.

As with sociology, above average quotations in SSQ indicate enduring importance in psychology. Being dedicated an Encyclopedia Britannica entry is also an important predictor. It is interesting to note that an APA presidency or the APA award does not make much difference in psychology.

¹⁵ The average marginal effects (AMEs) presented are not only comparable across logistic models but also substantively more meaningful than simple coefficients or odds ratios. AMEs measure the change in the expected probability of *y* (that is, surviving in the list) as one independent variables increases by unity while all other variables are kept constant.



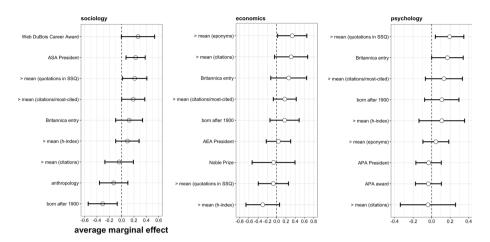


Fig. 2 Predictors for 'surviving' between the 1970s and 2010s, AMEs from logistic regression. *Notes* Crosshairs showing 95% confidence intervals

Overall, the determinants of lasting eminence in textbooks vary across disciplines. While in sociology and psychology lasting eminence is reserved for those who "memorably expressed memorable ideas," in economics it is models and theories named after their discoverer (e.g. 'Phillips curve') that make eminence robust.

Correlates of textbook references

In order to explore the most important correlates of textbook references, several intercorrelations are explored in a basic correlation matrix. The last row in Fig. 3 presents correlations between the textbook page count and eight other variables. As can be seen from the matrix, the correlation with the number of quotations in *SSQ* is the highest in all three disciplines. In psychology, the correlation is as high as 0.8, suggesting that the two variables measure very similar concepts. Further, we can see that for sociology and psychology, the textbook page count relates to Google Scholar citation measures (h-index, number of total citations). For economics, however, the correlation with the h-index is so low that one has to conclude that there is no substantive overlap.

If one looks at indicators of certified eminence such as number of eponyms or encyclopedia entries, similar correlations of between 0.3 and 0.4 in all disciplines can be seen. In contrast, indicators of institutionalized merit-based academic prestige—such as the presidency of the ASA, AEA or APA—are loosely associated with our indicator for textbook eminence.

Perhaps the most striking result is that in economics textbook eminence and the scientific productivity *and* impact of a researcher as measured by the h-index is unrelated. To explore this in more depth, Fig. 4 presents a simple two-way scatterplot with each dot standing for a scholar born after 1900. To give some examples: Milton Friedman and Paul A. Samuelson are the only economists who exhibit both a large textbook page count and a high Google Scholar-based h-index in both the 1970 and 2010 textbook sample. Most other economists score high on one or other dimension, not on both. The Nobel prizewinners Joseph Stiglitz or Paul Krugman, for example, have h-indexes above 140 but are mentioned in less than 10 textbook pages. In contrast, central bankers—such as Paul Volcker or



Socio	logy						Google scholar h-index	Econor	mics						Google scholar h-index	Psycholog	У						Google scholar h-index
					Google	e scholar ns	0.91						Google : citations	scholar i	0.88						Google	scholar s	0.76
				Bri	tannica try	0.25	0.27					Brit	annica ry	0.24	0.12					Bri	tannica try	0.15	-0.06
			For	cyclopedia							Encyc	clopedia	0.53	0.09	-0.14				Encyc	lopedia	0.64	-0.04	-0.29
			ent	ry	0.5	0.22	0.2			Quot Sills/	ations in Merton	0.45	0.39	0.34	0.15			Quota Sills/\	tions in terton	0.4	0.42	0.41	0.24
		Quota Sills/	ations in Merton	0.56	0.46	0.57	0.59		Epo	nmys	0.33	0.5	0.41	0.09	-0.06		Ep	onmys	0.37	0.46	0.51	0.14	0.02
	W.E.B. D Career A	Du Bois ward	-0.16	-0.03	-0.01	-0.06	0		Noble Prize	0.35	-0.16	0.29	0.42	0.37	0.32	AF	A Award	0.01	-0.07	0.16	0.08	0.14	0.11
Pres the A	ident of ASA	0.45	-0.11	0.17	0.05	-0.09	-0.04	President of the AEA	of 0.4	0.26	0.02	0.32	0.25	0.1	0.03	President of the APA	0.17	0.37	0.12	0.45	0.46	-0.04	-0.11
textbook pages	0.09	0.05	0.59	0.4	0.3	0.32	0.35	textbook pages 0.1	-0.02	0.34	0.59	0.34	0.33	0.29	0.05	textbook pages 0.21	0.02	0.35	0.8	0.37	0.44	0.5	0.39

Fig. 3 Correlates of textbook references (correlation matrix). *Notes* All values in the correlation matrices are Pearson correlation coefficients

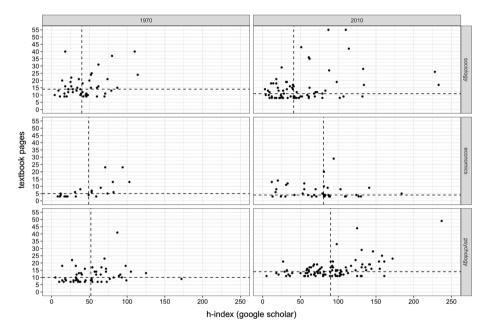


Fig. 4 Scatter plot of textbook references and Google scholar h-indexes (20th century scholars only). *Note* Dashed line indicates the median

Alan Greenspan—are mentioned on more than 10 pages, while having a comparatively low h-index.

In sociology, there are multiple people—such as Merton, Parsons, Foucault, Berger or Goffman—who score extremely high on both dimensions. Their exceptionally high h-index is partly explained by the broad reception of their work in several academic disciplines. Seligman or Plomin are examples of productive psychologists who are much cited in the "journal world" and whose work also finds recognition in introductory textbooks.

If we concentrate purely on the larger patterns, in each discipline we see a pronounced concentration around median values on both axes. The overall association in economics appears extremely weak.



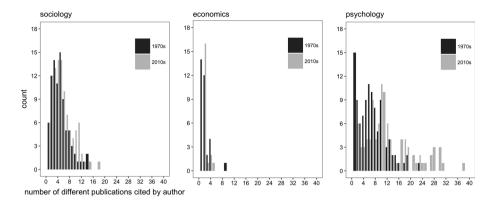


Fig. 5 Number of different publications referenced by author

Quantity as influence on textbook eminence

The question of how productivity relates to textbook eminence is one that needs further analysis. There is a longstanding belief, especially in economics and psychology, that if you want to get ahead you must churn out an endless stream of articles. Creativity researchers argue that quantity may in fact be a necessary condition for quality as whoever produces many ideas, both good and bad, is likely to hit on ideas of great impact (Simonton 1989). In psychology, there is empirical evidence that quantity and impact are moderately positively related (Feist 1997). What we will examine below is to what extent the number of *different* publications by the *same* scholar relates positively to textbook eminence.

Figure 5 visualizes, for each sampled scholar, the number of different publications referenced across the five sampled textbooks. At the upper end of the three discipline-specific distributions we find scholars such as Immanuel Wallerstein, Milton Friedman or Robert Plomin, and at the lower end Karl Marx, Irving Fisher and Carl Gustav Jung. The distributions are quite distinctive. In sociology, between three and seven publications are cited in the 1970s and 2010s for the bulk of authors. In economics, this is one or two cited publications. Only in psychology do we see shifting citation patterns across years. While in the 1970s, textbook authors frequently cited only one publication per author—as in the case for Kurt Lewin, Jean Piaget or Kurt Koffka—this tendency completely disappeared, with citations of 20 or more publications per author now commonly observed, as in the case of Roy Baumeister or Ronald C. Kessler.

Overall, one can conclude from Fig. 5 that producing large quantities of work relates positively to textbook eminence in psychology, while such a relation is moderate for sociology and does not exist at all in 'textbook economics'. Such a conclusion agrees with previous results that confirmed a positive relation between (Google Scholar) h-indices and textbook eminence in psychology, while such an association is not observed in economics (see Fig. 4).



Conclusions

This article set out to answer two questions: What does it take to attain eminence in textbooks? And is textbook eminence enduring or ephemeral?

In attempting to answer the first question, we discovered that different indicators of what we called 'certified eminence' principally relate to the number of pages on which a scholar is referenced. Across all three disciplines, quotations by scholars cited in the encyclopedia *Social Science Quotations. Who said What, When and Where* (SSQ) were the key correlate of textbook eminence. The editors of SSQ included authors who were consequential and memorable insofar as they "have been quoted over the generations, entering into the collective memory of social scientists and at times diffusing into popular thought" (Sills and Merton 2000, p. xvi). Eponyms, and entries in the encyclopedia *Britannica*, show similar associational meanings.

However, it was also demonstrated that textbook eminence is to some degree 'manufactured' differently across disciplines. The quantity and impact of research, as measured by the Google Scholar h-index, relates positively to textbook eminence in psychology, less so in sociology and not all in economics. Reading psychology textbooks, it becomes obvious that psychologists give great weight to the testing of theories. Textbook authors, it seems, need to not only introduce students to theories, but also to the results of empirical studies that buttress inferences from the observed to the unobserved. In psychology, textbook eminence is the least limited to classical figures, but also includes very productive scholars born after 1950 who consistently provide evidence from their highly specialized research and publish many high-impact studies. Examples of such psychologists with high h-indexes are Terrie Edith Moffitt, who pioneered research on antisocial behavior, or Richard J. Davidson, best known for his work on the neurobiology of emotion. Because they aim to introduce students not only to the 'core' of the discipline but also to different empirical studies at the 'research frontier' (Cole 1983), psychology textbooks are distinct in the field.

In sociology, the need to show that a theory can accommodate a set of data is less prevalent; it is, however, the professional standard to trace ideas back to the original source. As these sources are mostly influential book publications, the 'textbook world,' and the world that Google Scholar captures, overlap to some degree. Neither applies to economics textbooks. Apparently, empirical studies are not cited in textbooks to evaluate the usefulness of economic models which are, in essence, simplifications designed to show specific mechanisms at work by isolating them from other effects (e.g. Cobb—Douglas model of production). While the original 'modeler' rarely falls into oblivion, readers are not referred to the original paper that first presented a given model (e.g. Cobb and Douglas 1928). The different epistemological styles adopted when writing textbooks in different disciplines complicate cross-disciplinary comparisons.

In attempting to answer the second question, it transpired that textbook eminence is, in general, short-lived. As the zeitgeist moves on, most of the leading scholars of their time come to have only a marginal presence in contemporary textbooks; Seymour Lipset and William Lloyd Warner in sociology or Joy Paul Guilford or Donald O. Hebb in psychology, for example. On the other hand, for each discipline we identify about twenty scholars who remain, e.g. Max Weber, Adam Smith and John M. Keynes. If in a world where all atoms have a natural decay time, these scholars appear to never fall into oblivion.

Interestingly, we do not always observe that a new generation of eminent scholars takes the place of the older one. Sociology textbooks still draw overwhelmingly on knowledge



that was produced by scholars more than half a century ago or earlier, which presents a paradox; we currently have data about social life at a level undreamed of a 100 years ago, yet the foundational approaches to social life are little different from those of a century ago (Abbott 2006). Clearly, there is a different pace of accumulation of 'certified knowledge' in sociology compared to economics or psychology. Whether the mountain of key sociological findings is growing slowly in sociology, or whether the certification process in sociology takes longer than in other disciplines, is a worthwhile question for future research.

Limitations and future directions

It is a limitation of this study that textbook eminence is measured by examining textbooks published 40 years apart and is thus somewhat imprecise. To determine a scholar's 'half-life', requires a more fine-grained research design that would allow the study of multiple generations of textbooks. Such large-scale research would most likely be able to detect small differences in the average 'half-life' of textbook eminence, shed light on the different 'expiration histories' of scholarly recognition and understand how textbook writing has changed over time in each discipline.

Acknowledgements This article benefited greatly from comments by Christian Fleck, University of Graz. Carl Neumayr and Thomas Klebel provided outstanding research assistance. I acknowledge financial support from the Collaborative Project No. 319.974 of the European Commission 7th Framework Program and the FWF Grant P 29211.

Appendix A1. List of all selected books by disciplines

Economics

Baumol, W. J. & Blinder, A. S. (2011). *Economics. Principles and policy*. Mason, Ohio: South-Western/Cengage Learning.

Heilbroner, R. L. & Thurow, L. C. (1975). *The economic problem*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Leftwich, R. H. & Sharp, A. M. (1974). *Economics of social issues*. Dallas: Business Publications.

Lipsey, R. G. & Steiner, P. O. (1978). Economics. New York: Harper & Row.

Lipsey, R. G. & Chrystal, K. A. (2007). *Economics*. Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press.

Mankiw, G. N. (2015). *Principles of economics*. Stanford, CT: Cengage Learning.

McConnell, C. R., Brue, S. L. & Flynn, S. M. (2009). *Economics. Principles, problems, and policies*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

North, D. C. & Miller, R. L. (1973). *The economics of public issues*. New York: Harper & Row.

Samuelson, P. A. (1970). *Economics*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Samuelson, P. A. & Nordhaus, W. D. (2010). Economics. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.



Psychology

Gerrig, R. J. (2013). Psychology and life. Boston: Pearson.

Gleitman, H., Gross, J. & Reisberg, D. (2010). *Psychology*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co.

Hilgard, E. R. & Atkinson, R. C. (1967). *Introduction to psychology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

Kalat, J. W. (2008). Introduction to psychology. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Krech, D. & Crutchfield, R. S. (1965). *Elements of Psychology*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Lindgren, H. C., Byrne, D. & Petrinovich, L. (1966). *Psychology: An introduction to a behavioral science*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Morgan, C. T. & King, R. A. (1966). *Introduction to Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Morris, C. & Maisto, A. A. (2005). *Psychology. An introduction*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Myers, D. G. (2009). Exploring psychology. New York: Worth Publishers.

Ruch, Floyd L. (1967). *Psychology and life*. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Sociology

Bierstedt, R. (1974). The social order: An introduction to sociology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Broom, L. & Selznick, P. (1973). *Principles of sociology: A text with adapted readings*. New York: Harper & Row.

Giddens, A. & Sutton, P.W. (2009). Sociology. Cambridge: Polity.

Henslin, J. M. (2014). Essentials of sociology: A down-to-earth approach. Boston: Pearson.

Horton, P. B. & Chester L. H. (1964). Sociology. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Inkeles, A. (1964). What is sociology? An introduction to the discipline and profession. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Kendall, D. E. (2011). *Sociology in our times*. Belmont/CA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.

Lenksi, G. (1970). *Human societies: A macrolevel introduction to sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Macionis, J. J. (2012). Sociology. Boston: Pearson.

Schaefer, R. T. (2013). Sociology: A brief introduction. Dubuque, Iowa: McGraw-Hill.

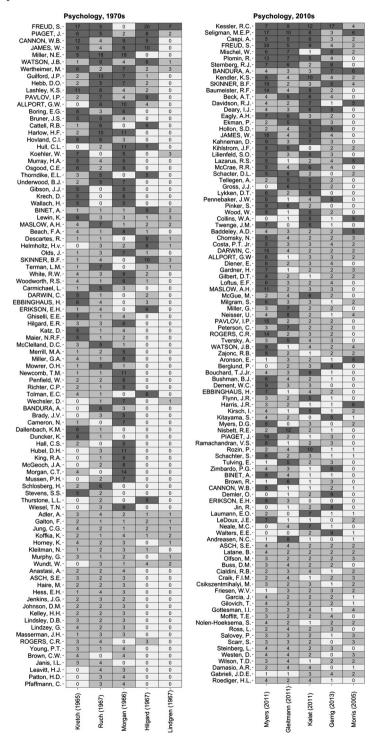


Appendix A2. Heatmaps

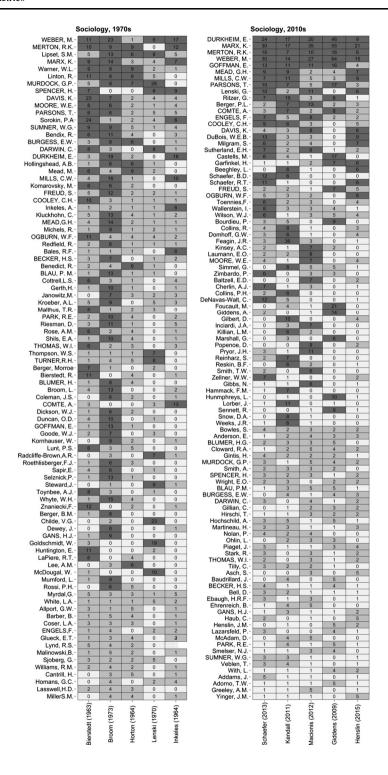
E	conor	nics, 1	970s			Economics, 2010s									
FRIEDMAN, M.	10	4	5	3	1	SMITH, A	10	9	16	3	3				
GALBRAITH, J.K	15	5	3	0	0	KEYNES, J.M	8	8	10	5	2				
SAMUELSON, P.A.	7	2	1	3	0	FRIEDMAN, M	8	12	2	6	1				
KEYNES, J.M.	12	2	4	0	0	Bernanke, B,	5	9	5	1	0				
Lange, O.	3	2	3	0	0	Greenspan, A Laffer, A	2	3	0	3	0				
MARSHALL, A.	10	3	2	0	0	MARX, K.	1	0	3	0	3				
45-45-10-4-10-4-10-4-10-4-10-4-10-4-10-4	22	3		0	0	Volcker, P.A.	4	8	2	0	0				
MARX, K			2	1.0	-	Phelps, E.	3	9	0	0	0				
Hayek, F.A.	5	3	0	0	0	SCHUMPETER, J.	7	0	5	0	0				
RICARDO, D	19	3	0	0	0	Varian, H.R.	6	3	0	0	0				
SCHUMPETER, J.A.	10	3	0	0	0	Coase, R.	0	1	1	1	5				
SMITH, A	33	0	6	0	0	Lucas, R.E Mill, J.S	2	1	1	0	0				
STIGLER, G.J.	3	3	0	0	0	PHILLIPS, A.W.	0	1	2	2	8				
Tobin, J	5	4	0	0	0	SOLOW, R.M.	2	6	1	0	1				
Veblen, T.	3	3	0	0	0	FISHER, I	4	1	0	2	0				
Berle, A.A.	1	1	3	0	0	Krugman, P	6	2	0	1	0				
MALTHUS, T.R.	17	0	0	2	1	MALTHUS, T.R.	3	2	0	2	0				
Pareto, V.	5	1	1	0	0	Okun, A.M	10	0	1	1	0				
Schultze, C.L.	1	1	0	4	0	RICARDO, D	0	1	7	2	0				
SOLOW, R.M.	11	1	0	1	0	Bentham, J Borjas, G	3	0	0	0	0				
Clark, J.B.	5	1	0	0	0	GEORGE, H.	3	0	0	2	0				
December 2000	4	0	0	0	1	HICKS, J.R.	3	0	0	0	2				
Engels, F					- V	Katz, L.F.	3	0	0	1	0				
FISHER, I	4	1	0	0	0	Mankiw, N.G.	3	2	0	0	0				
GEORGE, H	5	0	2	0	0	Marshall, A	6	0	1	0	0				
Hansen, A.H.	4	2	0	0	0	Saez, E	3	1	0	0	0				
Heller, W	3	2	0	0	0	SAMUELSON, P.	3	7	0	0	0				
HICKS, J.R.	4	2	0	0	0	Shiller, R.J Stiglitz, J.E	4	1	0	0	0				
Hume, D.	4	1	0	0	0	Nash, J.F.	2	1	1	1	1				
Lenin, V.I.	4	0	2	0	0	Pigou, A.C.	1	1	2	0	1				
Leontief, W	6	0	1	0	0	Bastiat, F.	2	0	1	2	0				
Modigliani, F	3	2	0	0	0	Card, D	1	0	1	1	0				
Robinson, J.	5	1	0	0	0	Nordhaus, W.D.	1	0	2	1	0				
Liberman, E.G.	1	1	1	0	0	Prescott, E.C.	1	1	1	0	0				
Means, G.C.	1	1	1	0	0	Taylor, J.B Arrow, K	2	0	0	0	0				
Nader, R.	0	1	1	0	1	Barro, R.	1	2	0	0	0				
PHILLIPS, A.W.	2	1	1	0	0	Blinder, A.	2	1	0	0	0				
Brown, E.C.	2	1	0	0	0	Cox, M.W.	0	1	0	2	0				
						Ehrlich, P.R.	2	0	0	2	0				
Burns, A.F.	2	1	0	0	0	Fischer, S.	2	0	0	1	0				
Denison, E.F	0	2	1	0	0	Freeman, R.	2	0	0	1	0				
Easterlin, R	1	0	2	0	0	GALBRAITH, J.K.	0	0	0	0	0				
Kindleberger, C.P.	1	2	0	0	0	Romer, C.D.	0	2	0	2	0				
McCracken, P.W.	0	1	0	2	0	Sachs, J.	2	1	0	0	0				
Meade, J.E.	2	0	0	0	2	Sahay, R.	2	0	0	1	0				
Quesnay, F.	1	0	2	0	0	Sargent, T.	1	2	0	0	0				
Wallich, H	2	1	0	0	0	STIGLER, G	2	1	0	0	0				
Weber, M	1	0	2	0	0	Vegh,C.A	2	0	0	1	0				
Wicksell, K	2	1	0	0	0		2010								
	Samuelson (1970)	Lipsey/Steiner (1978)-	Heilbroner (1975)	Leftwich (1974) -	North/Miller (1973)		Samuelson/Nordhaus (2010)	Mankiw (2015)	Baumol (2011)	McConnell (2009)	Lipsey (2007)				
	Sam	Lipsey	Heil	Lef	Nort		Samu			-					



Notes. Capitalized letters indicate that the author's name is listed twice.









Appendix A3. WorldCat statistics¹⁶

Economics, 2010s

- Samuelson, Paul A., and William D. Nordhaus. Economics. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin, 2009 (1949 libraries worldwide)
- McConnell, Campbell R., and Stanley L. Brue. *Economics: Principles, Problems, and Policies*. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill, 2002 (1422 libraries worldwide)
- Lipsey, Richard G., and K. Alec Chrystal. *Economics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007 (1051 libraries worldwide)
- Baumol, William J., and Alan S. Blinder. *Economics: Principles & Policy*. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning, 2012 (1032 libraries worldwide)
- Mankiw, N. Gregory. Principles of Economics. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt College Publishers, 2001 (896 libraries worldwide)
- Mankiw, N. Gregory. *Principles of Microeconomics*. Mason, OH: Thomson South-Western, 2007 (896 *libraries worldwide*)
- Mankiw, N. Gregory. Principles of Macroeconomics. Mason, OH: South-Western, Cengage Learning, 2007 (896 libraries worldwide)
- Gwartney, James D. Economics: Private & Public Choice. Mason, Ohio: Thomson South-Western, 2006 (820 libraries worldwide)
- Parkin, Michael. Economics. Boston: Addison-Wesley, 2010 (792 libraries worldwide)
- Tucker, Irvin B. *Macroeconomics for Today*. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning, 2008 (712 libraries worldwide)
- Tucker, Irvin B. *Microeconomics for Today*. Mason, Ohio: South-Western/Cenage Learning, 2009 (712 libraries worldwide)
- Case, Karl E., and Ray C. Fair. Principles of Economics. London: Prentice Hall, 1999 (566 libraries worldwide)
- Parkin, Michael. *Macroeconomics*. Boston: Pearson, 2008 (479 libraries worldwide)
- Colander, David C. Macroeconomics. Boston: McGraw-Hill, 1998 (462 libraries worldwide)
- Colander, David C. Microeconomics. Boston: McGraw-Hill, 1998 (462 libraries worldwide)
- Parkin, Michael. Microeconomics. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2009 (407 libraries worldwide)
- Frank, Robert H. Principles of Macroeconomics. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education, 2007 (395 libraries worldwide)
- Frank, Robert H. *Principles of Microeconomics*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education, 2008 (395 libraries worldwide)
- Gwartney, James D. *Macroeconomics: Private and Public Choice*. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning, 2007 (393 libraries worldwide)
- Frank, Robert H., Ben Bernanke, and Louis Johnston. Principles of Economics. Boston: McGraw-Hill, 2009 (369 libraries worldwide)
- Gwartney, James D. *Microeconomics: Private & Public Choice*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson South-Western, 2006 (363 libraries worldwide)

¹⁶ The last search for all textbooks listed was conducted end of March 2018.



- Stiglitz, Joseph E., and Carl E. Walsh. Principles of Macroeconomics. New York: W.W. Norton & Co, 2006 (338 libraries worldwide)
- Stiglitz, Joseph E., and Carl E. Walsh. Principles of Microeconomics. New York: W.W. Norton & Co, 2006 (338 libraries worldwide)
- Hubbard, R. Glenn, and Anthony Patrick O'Brien. Microeconomics. Harlow: Prentice Hall, 2007 (271 libraries worldwide)
- Hubbard, R. Glenn, and Anthony Patrick O'Brien. Macroeconomics. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson, 2006 (264 libraries worldwide)
- Acemoglu, Daron, David I. Laibson, and John A. List. Economics. New York: Pearson, 2018 (74 libraries worldwide)

Economics, 1970s

- Samuelson, Paul A. Economics. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973 (1949 libraries worldwide)
- North, Douglass C., and Roger LeRoy Miller. The Economics of Public Issues. New York: Harper & Row, 1973 (1198 libraries worldwide)
- Heilbroner, Robert L. The Economic Problem. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1972 (1110 libraries worldwide)
- Lipsey, Richard G., and Peter Otto Steiner. Economics. New York: Harper & Row, 1972 (1051 libraries worldwide)
- Leftwich, Richard H., and Ansel M. Sharp. *Economics of Social Issues*. Dallas: Business Publications, 1974 (994 libraries worldwide)
- Miller, Roger Leroy. Economics Today. New York: Harper, 1973 (926 libraries worldwide)
- Bach, George Leland. Economics: An Introduction to Analysis and Policy. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1974 (822 libraries worldwide)
- Hunt, Emery K., and Howard J. Sherman. Economics: An Introduction to Traditional and Radical Views. New York: Harper & Row, 1972 (635 libraries worldwide)
- Gill, Richard T. Economics and the Public Interest. Pacific Palisades, Calif.: Goodyear Pub. Co., 1972 (585 libraries worldwide)
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