

Peer Effects in Science

Evidence from the Dismissal of Scientists in Nazi Germany

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Abstract

This paper analyzes peer effects among university scientists. Specifically, it investigates whether peer quality and the number of peers affect the productivity of researchers in physics, chemistry, and mathematics. The usual endogeneity problems related to estimating peer effects are addressed by using the dismissal of scientists by the Nazi government as a source of exogenous variation in the peer group of scientists staying in Germany. Using a newly constructed panel dataset covering the universe of physicists, chemists, and mathematicians at all German universities from 1925 until 1938 I investigate localized peer effects. There is no evidence for peer effects at the local level. This surprising finding is robust for a large number of specification and robustness checks. In a second part of the analysis, I investigate peer effect among co-authors and find that co-author quality is very important for scientific productivity.

1 Introduction

This paper analyzes peer effects among university scientists. It is widely believed that peer effects are an important phenomenon of academic research. Individual researchers do not necessarily take these effects into account when they decide where to locate. This may result in a misallocation of talent and underinvestment in academic research. Having a good understanding of peer effects is therefore crucial for researchers and policy makers alike. In this paper I analyze

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peer effects among physicist, chemists, and mathematicians. I focus on these subjects because advancements in these fields are widely believed to be important drivers of technological progress and important for economic growth in a knowledge based society. Despite the widespread belief in the presence of peer effects among university researchers there is very little empirical evidence for these effects.

This is due to the fact that obtaining causal estimates of peer effects is very challenging. An important problem for any estimation of peer effects is caused by sorting of individuals. Highly productive scientists often choose to locate in the same universities. It is therefore unclear whether successful scientists are more productive because they are collaborating with successful peers or because their productivity is higher per se. Another problem complicating the estimation of peer effects is the presence of unobservable factors which affect a researcher's productivity but also the productivity of his peers. The construction of a new laboratory which the econometrician cannot observe, may be such a factor. Furthermore, estimates of peer effects may be distorted because of measurement problems. In this context the main problem is the correct measurement of a researcher's peer group. It is not only difficult to identify the peers of a certain scientist but also to quantify the quality of these peers. A promising strategy to obtain unbiased estimates of peer effects is therefore to analyze a scientist's productivity if his peer group changes due to reasons which are unrelated to his own productivity.

This paper proposes the dismissal of scientists by the Nazi government as an exogenous and dramatic change in the peer group of researchers in Germany. Almost immediately after Hitler's National Socialist party secured power in 1933 the Nazi government dismissed all Jewish and so called "politically unreliable" scholars from German universities. Around 13 to 18 percent of all scientists were dismissed between 1933 and 1934 (13.6 percent of physicists, 13.1 of chemists, and 18.3 percent of mathematicians). Many of the dismissed scholars were outstanding members of their profession, among them the famous physicist and Nobel Laureate Albert Einstein, the chemist Georg von Hevesy who received the Nobel Prize in 1943, and the Hungarian mathematician Johann von Neumann. Scientists at the affected departments were thus exposed to a dramatic change in their peer group. This shock persisted until the end of my sample period because the majority of the open positions could not be filled immediately. Scientist in departments without Jewish or "politically unreliable" scholars did not experience any dismissals and thus no change to their peer group.

I use a large number of sources to construct the dataset for my analysis. Using historical university calendars I construct a panel of all physicists, chemists, and mathematicians teaching at all 33 universities in Germany from 1925 until 1938.¹ I combine this data with a complete list of all dismissals and publication data to measure productivity. More details on the data sources are given in the data section.

This dataset allows me to obtain the first clean estimate of localized peer effects among scientists using exogeneous variation in the quality and quantity of peers in a researcher's department. Contrary to the common belief of most researchers, I do not find any evidence for

¹I do not consider the years after 1938 because of the start of World War II in 1939.

peer effects within a researcher's department. I probe the robustness of this result by investigating peer effects within a researcher's specialization in his department; i.e. by considering only the colleagues working on theoretical physics as the relevant peer group for theoretical physicists. Again I do not find any evidence of localized peer effects. In other specifications I also explore nonlinearities in localized peer effects. All the evidence suggests that the number and quality of peers in the local department do not affect the productivity of scientists.

There is of course a worry that the dismissals affected the productivity of scientists through other channels than peer effects. Most of these expected biases, such as an increased teaching load or an increase in administrative duties in departments with dismissals would lead me to overestimate the effect of peers at the local level. As I do not find any evidence of positive peer effects there is no worry that these biases affect my results. There are, however, a few other biases that could potentially lead to an underestimation of peer effects. I discuss these threats to the identification strategy below and show evidence that the dismissals are uncorrelated with changing incentives and the number of ardent Nazi supporters in the affected departments. I also show that changes to the funding of researchers are unlikely to explain my findings. Furthermore, I show that different productivity trends of affected and unaffected departments do not seem to be important in this setup.

An important question is whether evidence on peer effects in Germany in the 1920s and 1930s can help us to understand peer interactions today. A number of reasons suggest that the findings of this study may be relevant for understanding spill-overs among present-day researchers. The three subjects studied in this paper were already well established at that time; especially in Germany. In fact, Germany was the leading country for scientific research in the first half of the 20th century. Of the Nobel prizes awarded between 1910 and 1940, 27 percent of the prizes in physics and 42 percent of the chemistry prizes were given to scientists affiliated with a German university. This is a much larger fraction than that of any other country at the time. If peer effects are an important determinant of a researcher's productivity they are likely to be especially important in a flourishing research environment such as Germany in the early 20th century. Scientific research at the time followed practices and conventions which were very similar to current research methods. Researchers were publishing their results in refereed academic journals, conferences were common, and researchers were surprisingly mobile within the German speaking scientific community. Unlike today, they could not communicate via E-mail. They did, however, vividly discuss their research in very frequent mail correspondence with their colleagues in other universities.

An additional way of analyzing the external validity of my findings is to obtain results that are comparable to findings on present day researchers. As mentioned before, there is no other study which analyzes localized peer effects among university researchers as rigorously as this paper. I can, however, obtain additional results on the impact of losing a co-author due to the dismissals. These results can be compared to findings on the effect of co-authors today. In a recently published paper, Azoulay, Zivin, and Wang (2010) investigate whether the productivity of co-authors declines after the death of a prominent scientist. They find

that death of a prominent co-author lowers the productivity of life-scientists by about 5 to 10 percent.² I can obtain similar estimates that measure the effect of losing a co-author due to the dismissals. As most of the dismissed scientists immediately emigrated to other countries the effect on co-authors remaining in Germany will be similar to the death of a co-author. I find that losing a co-author of average quality reduces the average researcher's productivity by about 13 percent in physics and 16.5 percent in chemistry.³ It is reassuring that my findings on co-authors are similar to the findings on present-day co-authors by Azoulay et. al. This suggests that the findings of this paper are not just an artefact of investigating data from the 1920s and 1930s.

Very few papers have analyzed localized spill-overs among university scientists. One exception is a recent paper by Weinberg (2007). He analyzes localized peer effects among Nobel Prize winners in physics and finds evidence for mild positive effects. Using the timing of starting Nobel Prize winning work he tries to establish causality. It is likely, however, that this does not fully address the endogeneity problem which may affect his results on spill-overs. Kim, Morse, and Zingales (2009) investigate peer effects in economics and finance faculties. While they address selection of researchers into particular universities in other specifications, they do not address the selection of researchers in the specification that directly tests the impact of peers on the productivity of researchers. They find evidence for positive peer effects in the 1970s and 1980s, but negative peer effects for the 1990s suggesting that falling communication costs may explain the declining importance of localized peers groups.

While not studying localized peer effects directly other researchers have also emphasized the role of falling communication costs for increasing long distance collaborations between researchers.⁴ The findings of this paper, however, show strong evidence that localized peer effects did not even exist in the 1920s and 1930s. This casts doubt on the hypothesis that falling communication costs are a key driver of reducing for the fading role of distance in academic research.^{5,6}

Many popular accounts of the loss of scientific leadership in Germany following WWII emphasize the role of the dismissals in Nazi Germany.⁷ It is important to emphasize that the findings of this paper do not indicate that the dismissals did not affect the overall level

²Oettl (2009) extends the analysis of Azoulay et al. and shows that coauthor peer effects are large not only if the dying coauthor was very productive but also when he was considered very helpful by his surviving coauthors.

³Due to the very low level of co-authoring in mathematics I cannot analyze co-author effects for them.

⁴See for example Adams et al. (2005), Agrawal and Goldfarb (2008) and Rosenblat and Mobius (2004).

⁵Another related strand of the literature focuses on regional spill-over effects of patent citations. Jaffe, Trajtenberg, and Henderson (1993) use an ingenious method to control for pre-existing regional concentration of patent citations. They find that citations of patents are more geographically clustered than one would expect if there were no regional spill-over effects. Thompson and Fox-Keane (2005) challenge those findings in a later paper.

⁶In addition to papers analyzing peer effects among university researchers there is a growing literature examining peer effects in other, mostly low skill, work environments. Mas and Moretti (2008) show that grocery store cashiers increase their productivity when working alongside high productivity peers. Furthermore, Bandiera, Barankay, and Rasul (2010) show that the productivity of fruit pickers conforms to a common norm set by their peers.

⁷Careful quantitative studies, however, show that the dismissal only contributed mildly to the shift of scientific lead from Germany to the US. See for example Weinberg (2008).

of scientific productivity in Germany. I show below that the dismissed were often the best researchers in their fields and that the quality of German universities fell because of these dismissals. I furthermore show that scientists losing a co-author due to the dismissal also published less after 1933. It is important to note that many of the collaborations took place across departments. Local colleagues in departments with many dismissals, however, did not suffer more than colleagues in other departments. This suggests that the impediment of local peer effects did not further contribute to the decline of German science.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: the next section gives a brief description of historical details. A particular focus lies on the description of the quantitative and qualitative loss to German science. Section 3 gives a more detailed description of the data sources used in the analysis. Section 4 describes the identification strategy. The effect of the dismissal on the productivity of local level peers remaining in Germany is analyzed in section 5. Using the dismissal as an exogenous source of variation in peer quality I then present instrumental variable results of localized peer effects in section 6. In section 7 I present evidence on the effect of the dismissals on co-authors remaining in Germany. Section 8 concludes.

2 The Expulsion of Jewish and ‘Politically Unreliable’ Scholars from German Universities

Just over two months after the National Socialist Party seized power in 1933 the Nazi government passed the "Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service" on the 7th of April of 1933. The law served as the legal basis to expel all Jewish and "politically unreliable" persons from civil service in Germany. At that time most German university professors were civil servants. Therefore the law was directly applicable to them. Via additional ordinances the law was also applied to other university employees who were not civil servants. The main parts of the law read:

Paragraph 3: Civil servants who are not of Aryan descent are to be placed in retirement... (this) does not apply to officials who had already been in the service since the 1st of August, 1914, or who had fought in the World War at the front for the German Reich or for its allies, or whose fathers or sons had been casualties in the World War.

Paragraph 4: Civil servants who, based on their previous political activities, cannot guarantee that they have always unreservedly supported the national state, can be dismissed from service.

["Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service", quoted after Hentschel (1996)]

In a further implementation decree it was specified that all members of the Communist Party were to be expelled. The decree also specified "Aryan decent" as: "Anyone descended from Non-Aryan, and in particular Jewish, parents or grandparents, is considered non-Aryan. It is sufficient that one parent or one grandparent be non-Aryan." Thus Christian scientists were dismissed if they had a least one Jewish grandparent. In many cases scientists would not have known that their colleague had Jewish grandparents. It is therefore quite unlikely that the majority of the dismissed had been treated differently by their colleagues before the rise of the Nazi party. The law was immediately implemented and resulted in a wave of dismissals and early retirement from the German universities.⁸ A careful early study by Harthorne published in 1937 counts 1111 dismissals from the German universities and technical universities between 1933 and 1934. This amounts to about 15 percent of the 7266 university researchers present at the beginning of 1933. Most dismissals occurred in 1933 immediately after the law was implemented. Not everybody was dismissed as soon as 1933 because the law allowed Jewish scholars to remain in office if they had been in office since 1914, if they had fought in the First World War, or had lost a father or son in the war. Nonetheless, many of the scholars who could stay according to this exception decided to leave voluntarily; for example the Nobel laureates James Franck and Fritz Haber. They were just anticipating a later dismissal as the Reich citizenship laws (Reichsbürgergesetz) of 1935 revoked the exception clause.

Table 1 reports the number of dismissals in the three subjects studied in this paper: physics, chemistry, and mathematics. Similarly to Harthorne, I focus my analysis on researchers who had the Right to Teach (*venia legendi*) at a German university. According to my calculations about 13.6 percent of the physicists, 13.1 of the chemists, and 18.3 percent of the mathematicians were dismissed between 1933 and 1934.⁹ The vast majority of dismissals occurred in 1933 and 1934. Only a small number of scientists were dismissed after these years. The few dismissals occurring after 1933 affected researchers who had been exempted under the clause for war veterans or for having obtained their position before 1914. In addition to that, some political dismissals occurred during the later years. In order to have a sharp dismissal measure I will focus on the dismissals in 1933 and 1934 in this paper.

My data does not allow me to identify whether the researchers were dismissed because they were Jewish or because of their political orientation. Other researchers, however, have investigated this issue and have shown that the vast majority of the dismissed were either Jewish or of Jewish decent. Deichmann (2001) studies chemists in German and Austrian universities (after the German annexation of Austria in 1938 the Nazi government extended the aforementioned laws to researchers at Austrian universities). She finds that about 87

⁸For more details on the dismissal of mathematics professors and the consequences for Ph.D. students see Waldinger (2010).

⁹These numbers are consistent with the numbers obtained by historians of science who studied the dismissal of scientists in Nazi Germany. Fischer (1991) reports that 15.5 percent of physicists were dismissed between 1933 and 1940. Deichmann (2001), who studied chemists in the Third Reich, calculates a loss of about 24 percent from 1933 to 1939. The difference between my figure and hers can be explained by the fact that she includes all dismissals from 1933 to 1939. Furthermore, my sample includes 5 more universities which all have below average dismissals. Unfortunately there are no comparable numbers for mathematics by other researchers.

percent of the dismissed chemists were Jewish or of Jewish decent. The remaining 13 percent were dismissed for political reasons. Siegmund-Schultze (1998) estimates that about 79 percent of the dismissed scholars in mathematics were Jewish.

The dismissed scientists usually emigrated and most of them obtained positions in foreign universities.¹⁰ For the purposes of this paper it is important to note that the vast majority of the emigrations took place immediately after the researchers were dismissed from their university positions. Further collaborations with researchers staying in Germany were thus extremely difficult and did hardly occur. A very small minority of the dismissed did not leave Germany and most of them died in concentration camps or committed suicide. Extremely few, managed to stay in Germany and survive the Nazi regime. Even these scientists who stayed in Germany were no longer allowed to use university laboratories and other resources. The possibility of ongoing collaboration of the dismissed scientists with researchers staying at the German universities was thus extremely limited.

The aggregate numbers of dismissals hides the fact that the German universities were affected very differently by the dismissals. Even within a university there was a lot of variation across different departments. Whereas some departments did not experience any dismissals, others lost more than 50 percent of their personnel. Table 2 reports the number of dismissals in the different universities and departments. An example for the huge variation in dismissals is the University of Göttingen, one of the leading universities at the time. The university lost 40 percent of its researchers in physics and almost 60 percent in mathematics. In chemistry, however, not a single scholar was dismissed between 1933 and 1934.

Table 3 gives a more detailed picture of the quantitative and qualitative loss in the three subjects. The dismissed physicists were younger than the average but made above average scientific contributions; they received more Nobel Prizes (either before or after the dismissal), published more papers in top journals, and received more citations for their publications.¹¹ The scientific excellence of the dismissed physicists has already been noticed by Fischer (1991). In chemistry the dismissed were more similar to the researchers staying in Germany. The dismissed mathematicians were of even higher excellence compared to the average researcher than the physicists.

About 33 percent of the publications in top journals were co-written papers in physics. About 11 percent of all papers were co-published with a co-author holding a faculty position at a German university. This fraction is much lower than the overall level of co-publishing because of two reasons. First, a large fraction of co-authors were assistants or Ph.D. students. Secondly, some co-authors were teaching at a foreign university or were employed by a research institute. The last line of Table 3 shows the low level of cooperation within a department; only about 4 percent of all publications were co-authored with a member of staff from the same university. In chemistry 76 percent of papers were co-authored, 12 percent were co-authored with a coauthor holding a faculty position at a German university and only 5 percent of publications were co-authored with a faculty member from the same university. In mathematics these numbers were

¹⁰See Waldinger (2010) for more details.

¹¹For a more detailed description of the publications data see the Data section.

11 percent, 6 percent, and 3 percent, respectively.

3 Data

3.1 Data on Dismissed Scholars

The data on dismissed scholars is obtained from a number of different sources. The main source is the "List of Displaced German Scholars". This list was compiled by the relief organization "Emergency Alliance of German Scholars Abroad", which was supporting dismissed scholars to find positions in foreign universities. The list was published in 1936 and contains about 1650 names of researchers from all university subjects. In the introductory part of the list the editors explain that they have made the list as complete as possible. I extract all dismissed physicists, chemists, and mathematicians from the list. The appendix shows a sample page from the physics section of the list. Interestingly, four physicists who had already received the Nobel Prize or were to receive it in later years appear on that page. Out of various reasons, for example if the dismissed died before the list was compiled, a small number of dismissed scholars did not appear in the list. To get a more precise measure of all dismissals I complement the information in the "List of Displaced German Scholars" with information from other sources.¹²

The main additional source is the "Biographisches Handbuch der deutschsprachigen Emigration nach 1933 - Vol. II : The arts, sciences, and literature". The compilation of the handbook was initiated by the "Institut für Zeitgeschichte München" and the "Research Foundation for Jewish Immigration New York". Published in 1983, it contains short biographies of artists and university researchers who emigrated from Nazi Germany.¹³

In addition to these two main data sources, I obtain further information on dismissals from data compiled by historians who studied individual subjects during the Nazi era. Beyerchen (1977) included a list of dismissed physicists in his book about the physics community in Nazi Germany. Deichmann (2001) compiled an extensive list of dismissed chemists and Siegmund-Schultze's (1998) published a list of dismissals in his book on mathematicians in the Nazi era.

My list of dismissals also contains the few researchers who were initially exempted from being dismissed but resigned voluntarily. The vast majority of them would have been dismissed due to the racial laws of 1935 anyway and were thus only anticipating their dismissal. All of these voluntary resignations were directly caused by the discriminatory policies of the Nazi regime.

¹²Slightly less than 20 percent of 1933 to 1934 dismissals do only appear in those additional sources.

¹³Kröner (1983) extracted a list of all dismissed university researchers from the handbook. I use Kröner's list to append my list of all dismissed scholars.

3.2 Data on all Scientists at German Universities between 1925 and 1938

To investigate the impact of the dismissals on the researchers who stayed at the German universities I construct a full list of all scientists at the German universities from 1925 to 1938 using data in the semi-official University Calendars.¹⁴

I compile an annual roster of the universe of physicists, chemists, and mathematicians from winter semester 1924/1925 (lasting from November 1924 until April 1925) until winter semester 1937/1938. Data for the technical universities were only published from winter semester 1927/1928 onwards. The University Calendar is a compilation of all individual university calendars listing the lectures held by each scholar in a given department. If a researcher was not lecturing in a given semester he was still listed under the heading "not lecturing". From this list of lectures I infer the subject of each researcher to construct yearly faculty lists of all physics, chemistry, and mathematics departments.^{15,16}

To assess a researcher's specialization I consult seven volumes of "Kürschners deutscher Gelehrten-Kalender".¹⁷ These books are listings of German researchers compiled at irregular intervals since 1925. The editors of the book obtained their data by sending out questionnaires to researchers asking them to provide information on their scientific career. I use this information to ascertain a scientist's specialization. Because of the blurred boundaries of specializations in mathematics a lot of mathematicians did not specify their specialization. In those cases I infer the specialization from the main publications they list in the "Gelehrtenkalender". As the participation of researchers in the compilation was voluntary not all of them provided their personal information to the editor. If I cannot find a scientist's specialization in any of the volumes of the "Gelehrtenkalender", which occurs for about 10 percent of scientists, I conduct an internet-search for the scientist to obtain his specialization. Overall I obtain the scientist's

¹⁴The University Calendar was published by J.A. Barth. He collected the official university calendars from all German universities and compiled them into one volume. Originally named "Deutscher Universitätskalender". It was renamed "Kalender der deutschen Universitäten und technischen Hochschulen" in 1927/1928. From 1929/1930 it was renamed "Kalender der Deutschen Universitäten und Hochschulen". In 1933 it was again renamed into "Kalender der reichsdeutschen Universitäten und Hochschulen".

¹⁵At that time a researcher could hold a number of different university positions. Ordinary Professors held a chair for a certain subfield and were all civil servants. Furthermore there were different types of Extraordinary Professors. First, they could be either civil servants (beamteter Extraordinarius) or not have the status of a civil servant (nichtbeamteter Extraordinarius). Universities also distinguished between extraordinary professors (ausserplanmäßiger Extraordinarius) and planned extraordinary professors (planmäßiger Extraordinarius). Then as the lowest level of university teachers there were the Privatdozenten who were never civil servants. Privatdozent is the first university position a researcher could obtain after the 'venia legendi'.

¹⁶The dismissed researchers who were not civil servants (Privatdozenten and some Extraordinary Professors) all disappear from the University Calendar between the winter semester 1932/1933 to the winter semester 1933/1934. Some of the dismissed researchers who were civil servants (Ordinary Professors and some Extraordinary Professors), however, were still listed even after they were dismissed. The original law forced Jewish civil servants into early retirement. As they were still on the states' payroll some universities still listed them in the University Calendar even though they were not allowed to teach or do research anymore. My list of dismissals includes the exact year after which somebody was barred from teaching and researching at a German university. I thus use the dismissal data to determine the actual dismissal date and not the date a dismissed scholar disappears from the University Calendars.

¹⁷The first volume was compiled in 1925. The other volumes I have used were published for the years 1926, 1928/29, 1931, 1935, 1940/41, and 1950.

specialization for about 98 percent of all researchers.¹⁸ Table A1 in the appendix gives an overview of all specializations and the fraction of scientists in each of them.

3.3 Publication Data

To measure a researcher's productivity I construct a dataset containing the publications of each researcher in the top academic journals of the time. At that time, most German researchers published in German journals. The quality of these German journals was usually very high because many of the German physicists, chemists, and mathematicians were among the leaders in their field. This is especially true for the time before the dismissal as is exemplified by the following quote; "Before the advent of the Nazis the German physics journals (*Zeitschrift für Physik*, *Annalen der Physik*, *Physikalische Zeitschrift*) had always served as the central organs of world science in this domain [...] In 1930 approximately 700 scientific papers were printed in its [the *Zeitschrift für Physik*'s] seven volumes of which 280 were by foreign scientists." (American Association for the Advancement of Science (1941)). Simonsohn (2007) shows that neither the volume nor the content of the "*Zeitschrift für Physik*" changed dramatically in the post dismissal years until 1938. Not surprisingly, however, he finds that the dismissed physicists published less and less in the German journals after the dismissal. It is important to note, that the identification strategy outlined below relies on changes in publications of researchers in German departments which were differentially affected by the dismissal. A decline in the quality of the considered journals would therefore not affect my results as all regressions are estimated including year fixed effects.

The top publications measure is based on articles contained in the online database "ISI Web of Science". I extract all German speaking general science, physics, chemistry, and mathematics journals that are included in the database for the time period 1925 to 1938. Furthermore, I add the leading general journals which were not published in Germany, namely *Nature*, *Science*, and the *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London*. I also include four non-German top specialized journals which were suggested by historians of science as journals of some importance for the German scientific community.¹⁹

The "Web of Science" is an electronic database provided by Thomson Scientific containing all contributions in a very large number of science journals. In 2004 the database was extended to include publications between 1900 and 1945. The journals included in that extension were all the journals which had published the most relevant articles in the years 1900 to 1945.²⁰

¹⁸Some researchers name more than one specialization. Therefore, physicists and chemists have up to two specializations and mathematicians up to four.

¹⁹The relevant journals for chemists were suggested by Ute Deichmann and John Andraos who work on chemistry in the early 20th century. Additional journals for mathematics were suggested by Reinhard Siegmund-Schultze and David Wilkins who are specialists in the history of mathematics.

²⁰The extension included the most important articles published before 1945. Thomson Scientific judged the importance of a journal by later citations (cited between 1945 and 2004) in the Web of Science of articles published between 1900 and 1945. For more details on the process see www.thomsonscientific.com/media/presentrep/facts/centuryofscience.pdf.

Table A2 lists all journals used in my analysis. For each of these journals I obtain all articles published between 1925 and 1938. A very small number of contributions in the top journals were letters to the editor or comments. I restrict my analysis to contributions classified as "articles" as they provide a cleaner measure for a researcher's productivity. The database includes the names of the authors of each article and statistics on the number of subsequent citations of each of these articles. For each researcher I then calculate two different yearly productivity measures. The first measure is equal to the sum of publications in top journals in a given year. In order to quantify an article's quality I construct a second measure which accounts for the number of times the article was cited in any journal included in the Web of Science in the first 50 years after its publication. This includes citations in journals which are not in my list of journals but which appear in the Web of Science. The measure therefore includes citations from the entire international scientific community. It is therefore less heavily based on German science. I call this measure citation weighted publications and it is defined as the sum of citations (in the first 50 years after publication) of all articles published in a certain year. The following simple example illustrates the construction of the citation weighted publications measure. Suppose a researcher published two top journal articles in 1932. One is cited 5 times the other 7 times in any journal covered by the Web of Science in the 50 years after its publication. The researcher's citation weighed publications measure for 1932 is then $5+7=12$.

Table A3 lists the top 20 researchers for each subject according to the citation weighted publications measure. It is reassuring to realize that the vast majority of these top 20 researchers are well known in the scientific community. Economists will find it interesting that Johann von Neumann is the most cited mathematician. The large number of Nobel laureates among the top 20 researchers indicates that citation weighted publications are a good measure of a scholar's productivity. Nevertheless, the measure is not perfect. As the "Web of Science" only reports last names and the initial of the first name for each author there are some cases where I cannot unambiguously match researchers and publications. In these cases I assign the publication to the researcher whose field is most closely related to the field of the journal in which the article was published. In the very few cases where this assignment rule is still ambiguous between two researchers I assign each researcher half of the (citation weighted) publications. Another problem is the relatively large number of misspellings of authors' names. All articles published between 1925 and 1938 were of course published on paper. In order to include these articles into the electronic database Thomson Scientific employees scanned all articles published in the historically most relevant journals. The scanning was error prone and thus lead to misspellings of some names. As far as I discovered these misspellings I have manually corrected them.

I merge the publications data to the roster of all German physicists, chemists, and mathematicians. From the list of dismissed scholars I can identify the researchers who were dismissed and those who stayed at the German universities. The end result is a panel dataset of the universe of physicists, chemists, and mathematicians at all German universities from 1925 until 1938 with detailed information on their publications in the top academic journals and their

dismissal status.

4 Identification

Using this panel dataset I estimate peer effects among scientists. The collaboration of researchers can take different levels of intensity. A very direct way of peer interaction is the collaboration on joint research projects involving joint publication of results. There are also more subtle interactions of colleagues in universities. Scientists discuss research ideas and comment on each other’s work without co-publishing any of their work. Yet another way in which peers may affect a researcher’s productivity is through peer pressure. A scientist’s work effort may depend on the effort of his peers because he may want to match or surpass their research output. Having more productive peers would thus increase a researcher’s productivity or vice versa. Furthermore, peers may attract more research funding to the department, or have better contacts to researchers outside the department. The definition of peer effects in this paper encompasses any of these different types.

The standard approach when estimating peer effects consists of regressing an individual’s productivity on the average productivity of his peers. The productivity of academic researchers, however, is not only affected by the average quality of their peers but also by the number of peers they can interact with. Having more colleagues in the department may be important because all interactions mentioned above are more likely to occur if there are more peers to interact with, especially because it may be easier to find colleagues who are working on similar research questions. Researchers in larger departments may also benefit from a lower teaching load and from teaching more specialized courses which are more related to their current research.

As university departments differ substantially in the average quality of its researchers and also in size, it is important to distinguish these two dimensions of peer effects for academic research. To estimate peer effects among scientists I therefore propose the following regression:

$$(1) \quad \# \text{ Publications}_{idt} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\text{Avg. Peer Quality})_{dt} + \beta_3(\# \text{ of Peers})_{dt} \\ + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \beta_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \beta_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \beta_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

I regress the number of publications of researcher i in department d and year t on measures of her peer group and other controls. I estimate these regressions separately for physics, chemistry, and mathematics because the subjects in consideration have different publication and collaboration patterns. The peer group measures are the average quality of peers and the number of peers. Average peer quality is calculated as the mean of the average productivity of a researcher’s peers.^{21,22} Over time changes in average peer quality will only occur if the

²¹Say a department has 3 researchers in 1930. One published on average 10 (citation weighted) publications between 1925 and 1938. The other two have 20 and 15 citation weighted publications respectively. The average peer quality variable for researcher 1 in 1930 will therefore be $(20+15)/2 = 17.5$. Average peer quality for researcher 2 will be $(10+15)/2 = 12.5$ and so on.

²²I use the department mean of average productivity between 1925 and 1938. An alternative way of calculating

composition of the department changes. Yearly fluctuations in publications of the same set of peers will not affect the peer group measure. The underlying assumption is therefore that Albert Einstein always had the same effect on his peers independently of how much he publishes in a given year.

It is quite likely that the effect of peers is only measurable after a certain time lag. Peers influence the creation of new ideas and papers before the actual date of publication. Another delay is caused by publication lags (the time it takes for a paper to appear in a journal after the paper was submitted by the author). Science research is published faster than research in other subjects like economics. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the effect of peers should be measured with a lag of about one year. An illustrative example for the timing of peer interactions in science at the relevant time is the postulation of the "uncertainty principle" by Heisenberg in 1927. In 1926 Heisenberg was working with Niels Bohr in Copenhagen. It is reported that during that time Heisenberg and Bohr spent days and nights discussing the concepts of quantum mechanics in order to refine them. Early in 1927, Niels Bohr went on a holiday and it was during that time that Heisenberg discovered and formulated his famous "uncertainty principle". He published this discovery in the "Zeitschrift für Physik" in 1927.²³ Therefore I use a lag of one year for the peer group variables when estimating equation (1).²⁴

As further controls I include a full set of 5-year age group dummies to control for life-cycle changes in productivity when estimating equation (1).²⁵ Furthermore, I control for yearly fluctuations in publications which affect all researchers by including year fixed effects. To control for individual differences in a researcher's talent I also add individual fixed effects to all specifications. Furthermore, I add department fixed effects to control for university specific factors affecting a researcher's productivity. These can be separately identified because some scientists change universities. I show below that the results are hardly affected by including university fixed effects in addition to individual fixed effects.

Estimating equation (1) using OLS would lead to biased estimates of β_2 and β_3 . One problem is caused by the fact that a researcher's productivity is affected by his peers but at the same time the researcher affects the productivity of his peers. Manski (1993) refers to this problem as the reflection problem. It is therefore important to keep in mind that the estimated effects will be total effects after all productivity adjustments have taken place.

Other problems, however, are potentially more severe in this context. An important problem is caused by selection effects. These occur not only because of self selection of researchers into departments with peers of similar quality but also because departments appoint professors of similar productivity. Furthermore, larger departments tend to hire researchers with above average qualities. The inclusion of university fixed effects would in principle address this problem. Differential time trends of different departments, however, make selection issues an

the average peer productivity uses only the pre-dismissal years 1925 to 1932. This measure is, however, not defined for researchers who join after 1933. I therefore present the results using the first measure. Using the alternative measure does not affect my findings.

²³For a detailed historic description of the discovery of the uncertainty principle see Lindley (2007).

²⁴Using different lags does not affect the results.

²⁵Levin and Stephan (1991) show that age is an important determinant of scientists' productivity.

important problem even in models which include university fixed effects.

Another problem may be caused by omitted variables, such as the construction of a new laboratory which may not be observed by the econometrician. Omitted factors may not only affect a researcher’s productivity but at the same time affect the size of the department or average peer productivity. Not controlling for unobserved factors would introduce a correlation of the error term and the peer group variables and therefore lead to biased OLS estimates.

Furthermore, measurement error could bias the estimates of regression (1). An important problem is the measurement of peer group quality. Even good measures of peer quality, such as the average number of citation weighted publications, are by no means perfect. Even if one were to believe that this measure could perfectly quantify peer quality, misspellings of names in the publication data would introduce measurement error. These measurement problems will introduce further biases of β_2 and β_3 .

An instrumental variables strategy can deal with these problems. I therefore propose the dismissal of scholars by the Nazi government as an instrument for the scientists’ peer group. Figure 1 shows the effect of the dismissal on the peer group of physicists.

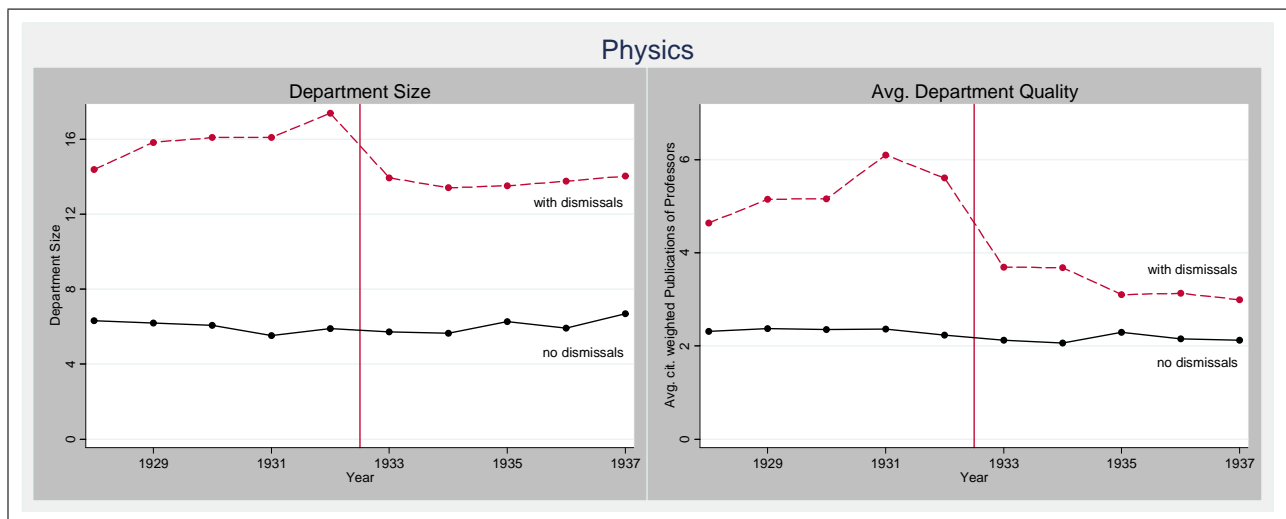


Figure 1: Effect of Dismissals on Department Size and Peer Quality

The left-hand panel shows average department size for two groups of physicists: physicists in departments with above average quality dismissals in 1933 or 1934 and physicists in departments without dismissals. The figure shows that affected departments were of above average size. The size of departments without dismissals hardly changed over this time period. In affected departments the dismissal led to a strong reduction in the number of physicists which persisted until the end of the sample period. The dismissed were not immediately replaced because of a lack of suitable researchers without a position and the slow appointment procedures. Successors for dismissed chaired professors, for example, could only be appointed if the dismissed scholars ceded all pension rights because dismissed professors were originally placed into early retirement. The employers did not want to pay the salary for the replacement and

the pension for the dismissed professor at the same time. It thus took years to fill open positions in most cases. Highlighting this problem, Max Wien a physicist in Jena, wrote a letter to Bernhard Rust the Minister of Education in late November 1934. Describing the situation for chaired professorships at the German universities he stated in his letter that "out of the 100 existing [chaired professor] teaching positions, 17 are not filled at present, while under natural retirements maybe two or three would be vacant. This state of affairs gives cause for the gravest concern..." (cited after Hentschel, 1996).

The right-hand panel of Figure 1 shows the evolution of average peer quality in the two types of departments. Obviously, one would expect a change in average peer quality only if the quality of the dismissed was either above or below the pre-dismissal department average. The right-hand panel of Figure 1 demonstrates two interesting points: the dismissals occurred at departments of above average quality and within those departments the dismissed were on average more productive than the physicists who were not dismissed. As a result, average quality of peers in affected departments fell after 1933. The graph only shows averages for the two groups of departments and therefore understates the variation I am using in the regression specifications. As can be seen from Table 2 some departments with dismissals also lost below average quality peers. Average department quality increased in those departments. Overall, however, the dismissal reduced average department quality in physics.

Figures A2 and A3 in the appendix show the effect of the dismissal on the peer groups of chemists and mathematicians. In chemistry the affected department were of above average quality as well but the difference was less pronounced than in physics. As suggested by the summary statistics presented before, the dismissal had a smaller overall effect on average quality. Despite the fact that the dismissals did not have a large effect on peer quality for the average across all departments it strongly affected average quality in many departments as can be seen from Table 2. The effects in departments with reductions in peer quality and in departments with improvements in peer quality, however, almost cancel out in the aggregate. In mathematics, the departments with dismissals were on average larger and better. After 1933 department size and quality fell sharply in affected mathematics departments.

It is important to note that the effect that most of the dismissals occurred in bigger and better departments does not invalidate the identification strategy as level effects will be taken out by including department and individual fixed effects. The crucial assumption for the difference-in-differences type strategy is that trends in affected versus unaffected departments were the same prior to the dismissal. I show below in various ways that this was indeed the case.²⁶

The figures suggest that the dismissal had a strong effect on average peer quality and department size. It is therefore possible to use the dismissal as an instrument for the endogenous peer group variables. As mentioned before, there are two endogenous variables in this setting: average peer quality and the number of peers. I therefore estimate two first stage equations:

²⁶The fact that mostly bigger and better departments were affected, however, affects the interpretation of the IV estimates. According to the LATE interpretation pioneered by Imbens and Angrist (1994) the estimated IV effects will correspond to a change in peer quality and number of peers in bigger and better departments. As nowadays most science departments are bigger than in the average in the early 20th century this LATE effect is arguably more interesting than the corresponding ATE.

$$(2) \quad \text{Avg. Peer Quality}_{dt} = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2(\text{Dismissal induced Reduction in Peer Quality})_{dt} + \gamma_3(\# \text{ Dismissed})_{dt} \\ + \gamma_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \gamma_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \gamma_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \gamma_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

$$(3) \quad \# \text{ of Peers}_{dt} = \delta_1 + \delta_2(\text{Dismissal induced Reduction in Peer Quality})_{dt} + \delta_3(\# \text{ Dismissed})_{dt} \\ + \gamma_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \gamma_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \gamma_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \gamma_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

All regressions estimated in this paper are estimated for scientists who were present at the beginning of 1933 and were not dismissed (the so called stayers). The dismissal is then used as a source of exogenous variation in their peer group. Equation (2) is the first stage regression for average peer quality. The crucial instrument for average peer quality is the "dismissal induced reduction in average peer quality". It measures how much peer quality fell because of the dismissals. The variable is 0 until 1933 in all departments. After 1933 is defined as follows:

$$\text{Dismissal induced Reduction in Peer Quality} = (\text{Avg. Peer Quality before 1933}) - (\text{Avg. Peer Quality before 1933} | \text{Stayer})$$

Researchers in departments with dismissals of above average quality (relative to the department average) have a positive value of the dismissal induced reduction in peer quality variable after 1933. The variable will remain 0 for researchers who did not experience any dismissal in their department or for scientists who lost peers whose quality was below the department level average. The implicit assumption is therefore that below average dismissals did not affect the productivity of scientists. An alternative way of defining "dismissal induced reduction in peer quality" would be to allow the dismissal of below average peers to have a positive impact on the productivity of scientists. In specifications not reported in this paper I have explored this. The results do not change. It is important to note, that the instrument is based on an average quality measure which only uses citation weighted publications before the dismissal (from 1925 to 1932). Using quality measures after 1933 in the construction of the instrumental variable would be problematic because post 1933 productivity may be affected by the dismissals.

The second instrument is the number dismissed in a given department. This will mostly affect the number of peers. The number dismissed variable is 0 until 1933 and equal to the number of dismissals thereafter.²⁷

The dismissals between 1933 and 1934 may have caused some researchers to switch university after 1933. This switching behavior, however, will be endogenous and thus have a direct effect on researchers' productivity. To circumvent this problem I assign each scientist the relevant dismissal variables for the department he attended at the beginning of 1933.

The effect of the dismissal is likely to be correlated for all stayers in a department. I therefore account for any dependence between observations within a department by clustering all results at the department level. This not only allows the error to be arbitrarily correlated for all researchers in one department at a given point in time but it also allows for serial correlation of these error terms.

²⁷This variable is 0 until 1933 for all departments (As I use a one year lag in the peer group variables it is 0 for 1933 inclusive). In 1934 it is equal to the number of researchers who were dismissed in 1933 in a given department. From 1935 onwards it is equal to the number of dismissals in 1933 and 1934. The following example illustrates this. In Göttingen there were 10 dismissals in mathematics in 1933 and one dismissal in 1934. The # dismissed variable for mathematicians in Göttingen will therefore take the value 0 until 1933. It will be 10 in 1934 and 11 from 1935 onwards. Dismissal induced reduction in peer quality is defined accordingly.

Using the dismissal as an instrumental variable relies on the assumption that the dismissals had no other effect on a researcher's productivity than through its effect on the researcher's peer group. It is important to note that any factor affecting all researchers in Germany in a similar way, such a possible decline of journal quality, will be captured by the year fixed effects and would thus not invalidate the identification strategy. As the unaffected departments act as a control group, only factors changing at the same time as the dismissal and exclusively affecting departments with dismissals (or only those without dismissals) may be potential threats to the identification strategy. Most of the potentially worrying biases, such as disruption effects or increased teaching loads for the stayers, would bias the IV estimates in favor of finding strong peer effects. As I do not find evidence for peer effects at the department level one does not have to worry about these types of biases.

Nonetheless, the fact that I do not find evidence for peer effects at the department level could be driven by other violations of the exclusion restriction. In the following, I rule out the most important potential worries which may bias the IV coefficients in the direction of not finding an effect. One may worry that the dismissals changed the incentive structure for stayers in the affected departments. Researchers in departments with many dismissals may have an incentive to work more to obtain one of the free chairs within the department. Their incentives could also be affected in the opposite direction if they lost an important advocate who was fostering their career. In this case they may decide to work less as the chances of obtaining a chair either in their own department or at another university could be lower. In order to address this concern I estimate a equation which regresses a dummy variable of ever being promoted on the dismissal variables and the same controls as in the regressions proposed before.²⁸ The results from this regression are presented in the first panel of Table A4. The coefficients on the dismissal variables are all very small and none of them is significantly different from 0. This suggests that the results of this paper are not contaminated by changes in the incentive structures in the affected departments.

Another worry is that departments with more ardent Nazi supporters would increase their productivity because they received more research funding or by receiving other privileges. This would threaten the identification strategy if the number of Nazi supporters was correlated with the number of dismissals. Looking at the number of party members to investigate this issue would not be very useful because the vast majority of university researchers eventually joined the Nazi party. In November 1933, however, 839 university professors (out of more than 10,000 professors in Germany) signed the "Commitment of Professors at the German Universities (...) to Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist State..." This list should signal the professors' support of the new Nazi government and was widely publicized in newspapers. Most people signing the list were strong supporters of the Nazi regime and would therefore have benefited from any differential treatment. To test this hypothesis I regress a dummy for signing the support list on the dismissal variables and other controls. The results are reported in the middle panel

²⁸The estimated regression is:

$$(\text{Ever Promoted})_{idt} = \beta_1 + \beta_3(\text{Dismissal induced in Fall in Peer Quality})_{dt} + \beta_3(\# \text{ Dismissed})_{dt} + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \beta_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \beta_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \beta_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

of Table A4. The coefficients on the dismissal variables are all small and none of them is significantly different from 0, indicating that strong support of the Nazi party was not different in departments with dismissals.²⁹

Another worry is that scientists in departments with many dismissals took over laboratories from the dismissed and thus increased their productivity. I show below that the results are very similar for mathematicians and theoretical physicists. This is reassuring because these two groups of scientists usually carry out their research outside the laboratory.

The identification strategy may also be invalidated if the Nazi government increased the funding of affected departments in order to counterbalance possible negative dismissal effects. Salaries for university employees were paid by the states and were closely linked to the position or the researcher. They hardly changed over the time period and certainly not differentially across different departments. Scientists could apply for funding of individual research projects. The main provider of research grants in the 1920s and 1930s was the "Emergency Association of German Science" (Notgemeinschaft der Deutschen Wissenschaft) which was jointly funded by the state and donations from companies.³⁰ The grants were approved by a panel of specialists based on the quality of the grant proposal and covered costs for experiments, such as materials or expensive equipment. Unfortunately, there is no consistent yearly data on supported scientists. Nonetheless, I managed to obtain comparable data on scientists who received funding for two years: the academic year 1928/1929 before the dismissal and for 1937/1938 after the dismissal. The data is relatively coarse as the reports only state whether a scientist received funding from the Notgemeinschaft but not how much he received. To check whether funding patterns changed after the dismissal, I regress an indicator of receiving funding on the dismissal variables on the sample of stayers in the two years.³¹

The results are reported in the last panel of Table A4. All but one of the coefficients are very small and not significantly different from 0 indicating that changes in funding are not related to the dismissal. The coefficient on the fall in peer quality for physics is negative, indicating that stayers in departments with high quality dismissals received less funding after the dismissal. There is therefore no worry that compensatory funding can explain my results. Any bias due to changing funding patterns would go against my finding that department level peer effects in physics are not important.

Lastly any difference-in-differences type strategy relies on the assumption that treatment and control groups did not follow differential trends. I address this concern in two ways. First, I show that the results presented below are not affected by including linear university specific time

²⁹As there is no time variation in the dependent variable I estimate the regression including all scientists who were present in November 1933. The estimated regression is:

$$(\text{Signed Support List})_{id} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\text{Dismissal induced Fall in Peer Quality})_d + \beta_3(\# \text{Dismissed})_d + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{id} + \beta_5 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \varepsilon_{id}$$

Alternatively, one could estimate this regression without Department FEs. This does not change the results.

³⁰The Notgemeinschaft was renamed in "Deutsche Gemeinschaft zur Erhaltung und Förderung der Forschung" in 1937 and is still the main funding source for individual researchers in Germany under the name "Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft".

³¹I regress the following regression for one pre-dismissal and one post-dismissal year:

$$(\text{Received Notgemeinschaft Funding})_{idt} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\text{Dismissal induced Fall in Peer Quality})_{dt} + \beta_3(\# \text{Dismissed})_{dt} + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \beta_5 \text{Year Dummy}_t + \beta_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \beta_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}.$$

trends in the regressions. This approach would not address the problem if differential trends were nonlinear. I therefore estimate a so-called placebo experiment using the pre-dismissal period, only, and moving the dismissal from 1933 to 1930. The results are reported in Table A5 and indicate that departments with dismissals do not have different productivity trends compared to the unaffected departments. These results strongly suggest that the dismissal provides a valid instrument to estimate peer effects.

5 The Effect of Dismissals on Scientists who remained in Germany

A starting point of the empirical analysis on peer effects is to investigate how the dismissal affected the researchers who stayed at the German universities. Did their research productivity suffer because they had less productive and fewer peers? The following figure tries to give a graphical answer to this question. Figure 2 plots the publications for stayers in two sets of physics departments: those with dismissals and those without dismissals. The yearly fluctuation in top journal publications is relatively large. Despite this fluctuation, the figure suggests that the dismissal did not have an obvious effect on the publications of the stayers.

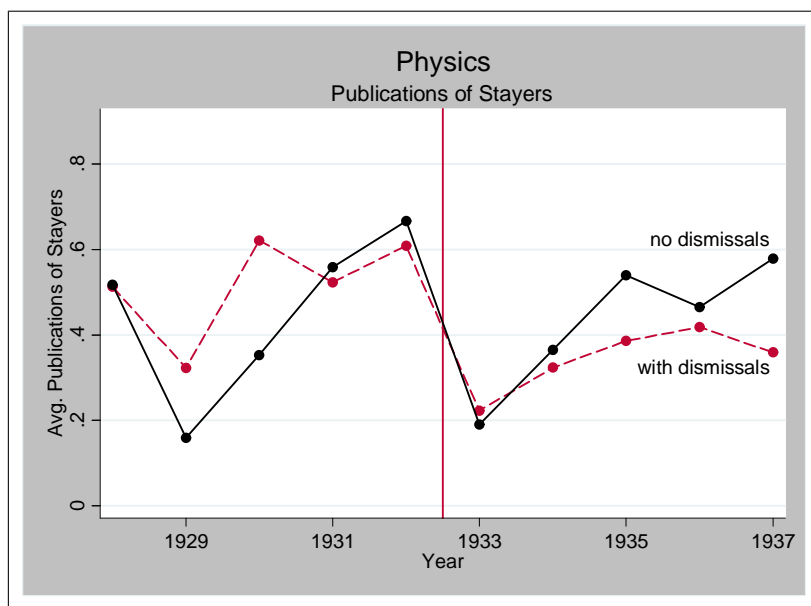


Figure 2: Effect of Dismissals on Stayers

Figures A4 and A5 show the evolution of stayers' publications in chemistry and mathematics departments. Again there seems to be no evidence that the dismissal reduced the productivity of stayers in the affected departments. The figures understate the variation that can be used in the empirical analysis because affected departments were affected very differently by the dismissals. To obtain a quantitative estimate of the dismissal effects I therefore estimate the following reduced form equation.

$$(4) \quad \# \text{ Publications}_{idt} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\text{Dismissal induced Fall in Peer Quality})_{dt} + \beta_3(\# \text{ Dismissed})_{dt} \\ + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \beta_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \beta_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \beta_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

Using only stayers below 70 years of age, I regress a researcher’s (citation weighted) publications in each year on the instruments proposed above.³² The dismissal variables are 0 for researchers in departments which were not affected. For stayers in departments with dismissals, the dismissal variables are 0 until 1933 and then take the relevant value for the department to which they were affiliated at the beginning of 1933. This regression is essentially a difference-in-differences estimate of the dismissal effect. It compares the change in publications from the pre to the post dismissal period for researchers in the affected departments to the change between the two periods for unaffected researchers.

Table 4 reports the reduced form results using the peers in a researcher’s department as the relevant peer group. If the dismissal had a negative effect on the number of publications one would expect negative coefficients on the dismissal variables. The estimated coefficients are all very close to 0 and only the coefficient on the number of dismissals in chemistry when I do not include the department fixed effect is significantly negative. Not surprisingly the coefficients in specifications with citation weighted publications as the dependent variable are larger because the mean of citation weighted publications is much larger than the one for publications but again they are never significantly different from 0. It is widely believed that the quality of peers is the main driver of potential peer effects. The coefficients on dismissal induced fall in peer quality are not only insignificant but most of the coefficients actually have the wrong sign.

Publications and citation weighted publications are count data with a relatively large proportion of 0s and can never be negative. Instead of OLS one may therefore prefer to estimate the reduced form using a model that specifically addresses the nature of the data. I therefore re-estimate the reduced form using a Poisson model including the same fixed effects as before and clustering at the university level.³³ The results are reported in Table A6 where I report the coefficients as incidence ratios. A coefficient of 1 would indicate no effect of the dismissal on the productivity of scientists. The majority of the coefficients are very close to 1. Once more, the coefficients on the fall in peer quality have the opposite sign to what would be expected. They indicate a very small positive and not significant effect of the dismissal on the productivity of stayers. Both OLS and Poisson models suggest that the dismissal hardly affected the productivity of stayers. It is particularly surprising that the fall in peer quality did not negatively affect the stayer’s productivity.

³²I focus on stayers below 70 which was the usual age of retirement for university professors in the early years of my sample period. Older scientists, who were still teaching at a very high age are thus not very representative. Including those older scientists hardly affects the results.

³³As Santos Silva and Tenreyro (2009) point out including a fixed effect for a scientist who never publishes leads to convergence problems as the (pseudo) maximum likelihood does not exist in this case. Standard regression packages do not address this problem and will therefore lead to non-convergence of the estimator. I use the simple procedure suggested by Santos Silva and Tenreyro, which essentially drops all problematic fixed effects, to estimate the Poisson model.

6 Using the Dismissal to Identify Localized Peer Effects in Science

6.1 Department Level Peer Effects

The dismissal had a strong effect on the peer group of stayers at the German universities. I can use this exogenous variation in a researcher's peer group to identify localized peer effects within a researcher's department. As explained in the identification section, I estimate two first stage equations: one for the average quality of peers and one for the number of peers in a researcher's department. The first stage results are presented in Table 5.

Columns (1) and (2) report the first stage results for physicists. The first stage regression for average peer quality in physics is presented in column (1). The dismissal induced fall in peer quality has a very strong and significant effect on average peer quality. As expected the number of dismissals in a physicist's department does not affect average peer quality. The second column shows the first stage regression for department size. The number of dismissed physicists in a researcher's department has a very strong and significant effect on department size. Reassuringly, the dismissal induced reduction in average peer quality does not have a large effect on department size. Columns (3) to (6) report the first stage regressions for chemists and mathematicians. The results are very similar: the number of dismissals in a department is a very good predictor for department size and the dismissal induced reduction in peer quality is a very good predictor for the average quality of peers. This pattern is very reassuring as it indicates that the dismissal indeed provides two orthogonal instruments: one for average peer quality and one for department size.

Table 6 reports results from estimating the peer effects model as proposed in equation (1). The first columns of Table 6 show the results for physicists. The OLS results are not very informative due to the problems illustrated in the identification section. I therefore turn immediately to discussing the IV results where I use the dismissal to instrument for the peer group variables.³⁴

Column (2) report the results for publications as the dependent variable. The coefficients on the peer group variables are very small and never significantly different from 0. The coefficient on average peer quality is very small and even has the wrong sign if one were expecting positive peer effects from interactions with high quality peers. The standard error implies that one can rule out positive effects greater than 0.03 with 95 percent confidence. These are small effects given that the mean of the dependent variable is about 0.5. Also the coefficient on the number

³⁴In this setup the instruments are strong predictors of the peer group variables. Furthermore, the model is just identified as the number of instruments is equal to the number of endogenous variables. Therefore one has to worry less about bias due to weak instruments. Stock and Jogo (2005) characterize instruments to be weak not only if they lead to biased IV results but also if hypothesis tests of IV parameters suffer from severe size distortions. They propose values of the Cragg-Donald (1993) minimum eigenvalue statistic for which a Wald test at the 5 percent level will have an actual rejection rate of no more than 10 percent. In this case the critical value is 7.03 and thus always below the Cragg-Donald statistic for the first stages for physics, chemistry, and mathematics which is reported at the bottom of Table 6.

of peers is small and not significantly different from 0.

The chemistry and mathematics results are reported in the next few columns of Table 6 and are very similar. The coefficients on average peer quality and department size are all very close to 0 and insignificant. Especially for average peer quality one can rule out very small positive effects. For chemistry one can rule out positive effects of average peer quality larger than 0.017 (mean of publication variable is 1.7). For mathematics one can rule out positive peer quality effects larger than 0.035 (mean of publications is 0.33). The point estimates for department size are also never significantly different from 0 and small.

The results presented in Table 6 show no evidence for department level peer effects in any of the three subjects. The fact that the results are very similar for all three subjects can be seen as a first confirmation that there are indeed no department level peer effects in this setting. Furthermore, it is reassuring that I find very similar results for publications and citation weighted publications. This indicates that differences in citation behavior of articles from scientists in departments with or without dismissals cannot explain these findings. In the following I investigate whether the absence of localized spillovers is indeed a robust result with a large number of alternative specifications.

6.2 Sensitivity of Department Level IV Results

It is quite surprising that I do not find evidence for peer effects at the local level. A potential reason may be that the dismissals caused some disruption to the whole system during the first years. I therefore re-estimate the IV results dropping 1933 and 1934 from the regression. Omitting those turbulent years does not affect my findings as shown in columns (3) and (4) of Table 7.

Peer effects may be especially important in the early or the late stages of a scientist's career. Regressions which are run for the whole department may therefore not be able to detect significant peer effects. To investigate this hypothesis I therefore split the sample into two groups: scientists below 50 and scientists 50 or older. The results are reported in columns (5) to (8). There is no indication that peer effects are especially important for certain age groups as none of the coefficients is significantly different from 0 in any of the subjects.

An important check to rule out differential productivity trends in affected and unaffected departments is to include university specific time trends in the regressions. The results for those specifications are reported in columns (9) and (10). Including university specific time trends hardly affects the results. This provides further reassurance that differential time trends cannot explain the fact that I do not find evidence for peer effects.

A further worry is that stayers may have taken over laboratories or experiments from the dismissed in the affected departments. This may have had a positive effect on their productivity counteracting any possible negative effects from the loss of peers. The mathematics results should not be contaminated by such behavior and are indeed very similar to the results for the other two subjects. An additional way of exploring whether taking over laboratories may

have affected my results is to estimate the regression for theoretical physicists, only. These researchers did not need laboratories for their research. Even though the results are less precisely estimated, the findings reported in Columns (11) and (12) of Table 7 show no evidence for peer effects in theoretical physicists. This suggests that the takeover of laboratories or experiments is unlikely to be driving my results.

6.3 Specialization Level Peer Effects

The previous regressions used the department as the relevant peer group of scientists. It is possible that peers affect each other within much smaller groups, only. In order to investigate this hypothesis I use a researcher's specialization to define his peer group. The peers of an experimental physicist are now only the other experimentalists in his department; not theoretical physicists, technical physicists or astrophysicists.

Table 8 reports the results from estimating equation (1) with specialization level peer variables. Similarly to before, all coefficients on the dismissal variables are very small and none of them is significantly different from 0. Furthermore, the coefficients on peer quality mostly have the wrong sign if one was expecting positive peer effects. In physics, the standard errors imply that one can rule out positive effects for average peer quality larger than 0.03 (the mean of publications for physicists is 0.5). In chemistry, one can rule out any positive effects of peer quality greater than 0.007 with 95 percent confidence (mean of publications for chemistry is 1.7). Again very small positive effects can be ruled out for the effect of peer quality on scientists productivity.

The results for mathematics are much less precise than for physics and chemistry because most mathematicians did not have a single specialization. Mathematicians were working on different topics which even today cannot be precisely assigned to particular specializations. Nonetheless, there is no evidence for any significant peer effects in mathematics. Appendix Table A7 reports the same set of robustness checks as presented for department level peers before. Once again the results are very robust. Even the very narrowly defined specialization peer group does not affect scientists' productivity. It has to be pointed out, that localized peer effects may occur at even more specialized subfields. As the mean number of researchers in the specializations I consider here is 3.5 these even smaller subfields would have to be extremely specialized.

6.4 Non Linear Department Level Peer Effects

Researchers investigating peer effects in other setups often investigate non-linear peer effects. Scientists of different abilities may benefit very differently from their peers. It may be impossible to detect effects of peer quality because only certain quality groups are affected by their peers. In order to investigate this hypothesis I split the researchers into three quality groups according

to their pre 1933 citation weighted publication averages.³⁵ I then interact the department level peer group variables with dummies indicating the scientist's own quality tercile. The IV results are reported in Table 9.³⁶

Of course some of the peer group times own quality cells are very small and the results are therefore not as precisely estimated for these cells. There were for example relatively few stayers in the top tercile (given that many dismissed were among the best researchers). Therefore the estimates for the interactions with the top tercile are much less precise. Despite this caveat there is no evidence for non linear peer effects especially for peer group quality. The majority of the peer quality estimates again have the wrong sign and the more precisely estimated coefficients are also very close to 0.

Of course it could also be the case that there are nonlinearities going in the other direction: Only peers of a certain quality may actually affect their colleagues. To investigate this hypothesis I therefore split the peer group according to their quality tercile and then include the average quality and number of each tercile in each department separately in the regressions. The results are reported in Table 10. There is no indication that top quality peers positively affect their colleagues. Similarly middle quality peers do not seem to have a positive effect on their peers. These regressions do not include the coefficients for the lowest tercile peers because there were too few dismissals among those really bad researchers. The dismissal can therefore not be used as a valid instrument for lowest quality peers.

7 Effect of Dismissal on Co-authors

After showing conclusively that there is no evidence for localized peer effects I now investigate how the loss of a co-author affected scientific productivity. It is important to emphasize that the majority of co-authorships that I analyze took place across departments. Many scientists co-authored with PhD students and other assistants in their own department but my data does not include these younger researchers. I therefore focus on co-authorships among faculty level researchers, only.

I investigate interactions of co-authors by analyzing the change in productivity of scientists who lost a co-author due to the dismissal and compare that to the change in productivity of scientists who did not lose a co-author. As the fraction of co-authored papers was very low in mathematics, only one mathematician who stayed in Germany lost a co-author due to the dismissals. Therefore, I cannot analyze co-author effects for mathematics. Figure 3 illustrates the impact of losing a co-author for physicists. The figure plots average yearly publications for two groups of researchers; researchers who lost a high quality co-author due to the dismissal and researchers without dismissed co-authors.

³⁵The relevant measure is the average citation weighted publications for the years 1925 to 1932. If a researcher only holds a position for some of these years I only take the average over the shorter sub-period.

³⁶As Stock and Yogo (2005) only tabulated critical values of the Cragg-Donald EV statistic for up to three endogenous regressors I do not report the Cragg-Donald EV statistics for these regressions.

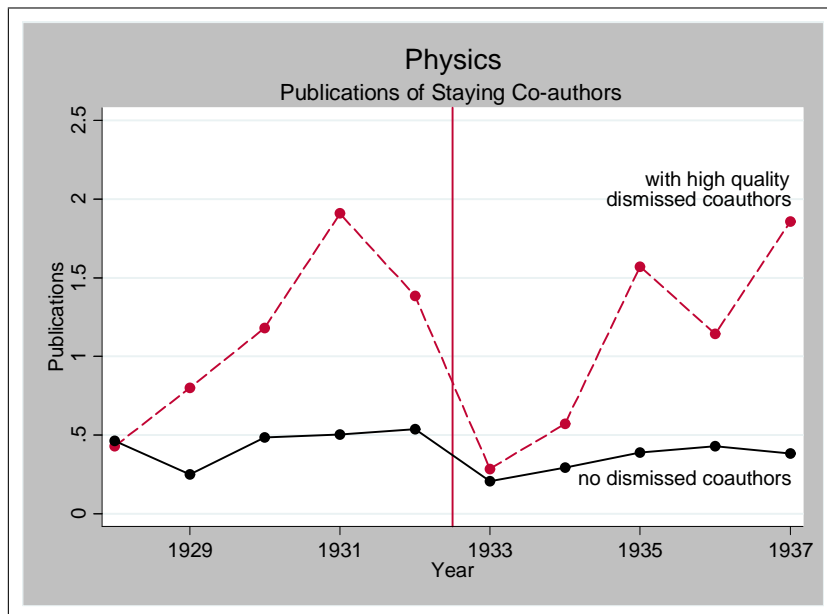


Figure 3: Effect of Dismissal on Co-authors

The figure suggests that physicists who lost a prolific co-author experienced a drop in their research productivity but managed to recover after some years. The relevant figure for chemistry is presented in the appendix and also shows a drop in publications after the dismissal and a recovery towards the end of the period. It should be noted, however, that chemists who lost a co-author seem to have had slightly declining publications in the few years before the dismissal. It is important to note again, that these figures vastly understate the variation I am using in the following regressions analysis. In the regressions I can use the ample variation of co-author quality to identify the effect of co-authors on scientific productivity. I estimate the following reduced form equation:

$$(5) \quad \# \text{ Publications}_{idt} = \beta_1 + \beta_2(\text{Avg. Quality of Dismissed Coauthors})_{idt} + \beta_2(\# \text{ Dismissed Coauthors})_{idt} \\ + \beta_4 \text{Age Dummies}_{idt} + \beta_5 \text{YearFE}_t + \beta_6 \text{DepartmentFE}_d + \beta_7 \text{IndividualFE}_i + \varepsilon_{idt}$$

I regress the number of publications of researcher i in period t and department d on the average quality and the number of dismissed co-authors. The specification also includes the same controls as the regressions reported above. For the basic regression a scientist's co-authors are defined as all colleagues who had co-authored a paper with the scientist in the last five years before the dismissal; i.e. from 1928 to 1932. As before, I estimate this regression for researchers staying in Germany, only. The regression corresponds to the reduced form results for department level peers reported above. An equivalent instrumental variable approach is not feasible for co-authors because the timing of interactions cannot be well defined for co-authors. It is neither clear when interactions between co-authors start nor when these interactions terminate because they are likely to interact also before and after they have co-authored papers. I therefore focus on the reduced form results for co-authors as the dismissal provides a sudden breakup of the co-author tie. Investigating how this sudden end of the co-

author collaboration affects the productivity of stayers can shed light on peer effects among co-authors.

The regression estimates of equation (5) are reported in Table 11.³⁷ Columns (1) and (2) show the results for physics. The coefficient on average quality of the dismissed co-author is significantly negative indicating that losing a co-author of higher quality reduces the productivity of physicists staying in Germany. The point estimate presented in column (2) indicates that losing a co-author of average quality reduces the productivity of a physicist of average quality by about 13 percent. The coefficient on the number of dismissed co-authors is never significantly different from 0.

The results for chemists are reported in columns (3) and (4). The average quality of the dismissed co-authors is again highly significant. The estimated coefficient for citation weighted publications indicates that losing a co-author of average quality reduces the productivity of an average chemist by about 16.5 percent. The number of dismissed co-authors does not seem to play an important role for the productivity of chemists.

The regressions reported in Table 11 use the total number of publications and citations weighted publications as the dependent variable. A co-authored publication is counted as a full publication for both co-authors. Another approach is to normalize joint publications by dividing each publication and the citations of each publication by the number of co-authors. Table A8 shows the results obtained when using normalized (citation weighted) publications as the dependent variable. The results are very similar to before.

These results show that scientists who lost high quality co-authors suffered more than scientists who lost less prolific co-authors. The fact that I do not find a significant effect on the number of dismissed co-authors suggests that this effect is not driven by the fact that researchers who lost a co-author published less because they were lamenting the loss of a co-author.

The effect of losing a co-author may depend on the time span which elapsed since the last collaboration. The regressions reported in Table 12 explore this in further detail. I split the dismissed co-authors into two groups: recent co-authors who had collaborated with a stayer between 1929 and 1932, and former co-authors who had co-written papers with the stayer between 1924 and 1928 but not thereafter. As expected, the estimates indicate that only the dismissal of recent co-authors matters for a stayer's productivity. The dismissal of a former co-author does not affect the productivity of the stayers.

It is not clear whether the joint publication of papers can be classified as a genuine peer effect. An equally sensible description of co-author effects would be to classify them as joint production of knowledge. Some interactions between co-authors correspond more closely to real spill-overs. Co-authors discuss research projects which they are not planning to publish together. They also indirectly affect each other's productivity through peer pressure. These

³⁷I am estimating these regressions on the same sample as the department level regressions. The number of observations differs slightly from the number of observations in the department level specifications because the department level specifications include a researcher twice if he has a joint appointment at two universities (This occurs very rarely. Estimating the department level regressions with weights to account for the few researchers who are appointed at two departments does not alter those results). The total number of researchers in the two sets of regressions, however, is exactly the same.

more subtle interactions of co-authors could indeed be classified as a peer effects. In order to investigate whether these more subtle effects are present between co-authors I analyze how the dismissal affected the number of publications excluding joint publications with the dismissed co-authors. Finding a negative effect of the dismissal on the publications without the dismissed co-authors would suggest the presence of genuine peer effects among co-authors which are more subtle than joint production. This is a powerful test for spill-over effects because one would expect that researchers who lose a co-author substitute towards single-authored publications and publications with other co-authors. Any such substitution should reduce the estimated dismissal effect. The results on publications without the dismissed co-authors are reported in Table 13. As before, the dismissal of a high quality co-author has a negative and significant effect on the productivity of the co-author staying in Germany. The number of dismissed co-authors does not affect the productivity of scientists. These results suggest the presence of effects between co-authors which go beyond joint production.

8 Conclusion

This paper uses the dismissal of scientists by the Nazi government to identify peer effects in science. I show that the dismissal was not correlated with a number of factors which might affect researchers' productivity through other channels than peer effects. The dismissal can therefore be used as a valid instrument for a scientist's peer group. Using a newly constructed panel dataset of all physicists, chemists and mathematicians at the German universities I do not find any evidence for localized peer effects. These results are very similar for physicists, chemists, and mathematicians and robust to a large number of sensitivity checks.

It is important to note that these results do not imply that being at a good university does not have a positive effect on a researcher's productivity. The regressions reported above include university fixed effects which control for unobserved differences in the quality of laboratories, research seminars, and the like. My results show that university quality matters because the null hypothesis that the university fixed effects are all zero can easily be rejected. There is, however, no evidence for peer effects at the local level. Almost all estimated effects are very close to 0 and often have the 'wrong' sign if one were expecting positive peer effects from having better quality peers. It is interesting to investigate which effect sizes can be ruled out given the 95 percent confidence intervals of my results. I do this with the following thought experiment: Suppose a department of average quality and average size loses one Nobel Laureate (of average Nobel Laureate Quality) due to the dismissal. How much of a drop in the publications of the stayers can I rule out with 95 percent confidence? This is an appealing question as this may be related to a top department today which loses one Nobel Laureate to another university. The reduced form results indicate that the effect of losing a Nobel Laureate would reduce the yearly publications of the stayers in physics by at most 0.0017 publications (the mean of publications for physicists is about 0.5).³⁸ The point estimate of course would predict that publications do

³⁸This is calculated as follows. Average department quality in 1933 was 5.06. Average department size in

actually go up in the affected departments (see the reduced form results). In chemistry one could rule out a drop in yearly publications larger than 0.05 in absolute value (the mean of publications is 1.69). In mathematics one can rule out a fall in publications of 0.054 for losing one top 20 researcher (as there is no Nobel prize in mathematics). The mean of publications in mathematics is 0.33. One can therefore rule out very small positive peer effects, especially for physics and chemistry as the sample size is larger in those fields. Of course, other estimates presented before are less precise but the overall picture seems quite striking in that there is no evidence for positive effects of peer quality. For the number of peers one cannot actually rule out extremely small effects but again they all are close to 0 and almost never significant.

These are surprising results given that many researchers believe that peer effects are important. While only suggestive there are a number of possible explanations for the lack of localized peer effects. Firstly, I analyze peer effects among relatively established researchers. It is quite likely that peer interactions become less important once one has established a scientific career. In fact, in a different paper I show that the dismissal of high quality mathematics professors had very large negative effects on Ph.D. students in mathematics (see Waldinger, 2010). This indicates that local department quality is very important for early career researchers who do not yet belong to a network outside their department.

The other important reason for the absence of localized peer effects is that the scientific community in Germany before the Second World War was extremely integrated. Conferences were common and the scientists were very mobile within Germany. One famous example are the famous summer lectures of theoretical physics in Göttingen. In the summer of 1922 Niels Bohr from Copenhagen, held a two week lecture series on theoretical physics and many experts in quantum theory from all over Europe and especially Germany gathered in Göttingen. (amongst them: Sommerfeld (University of München), Ehrenfest (Leiden, Netherlands), Lande (Frankfurt), Pauli (Copenhagen), Heisenberg (Göttingen), and many others).³⁹ Also the annual conference of German scientists was attended by a very large proportion of scholars. Geographic location of researchers was therefore not very important for more established researchers.

As mentioned before, one may wonder about the external validity of these results. I show that my results on co-authors are very similar to the results obtained on present day co-authors by Azoulay et al. (2010). I find that losing a co-author of average quality reduces the productivity of an average scientist by 13 percent in physics and by 16.5 percent in chemistry. The co-authors were often at different departments highlighting the fact that there were many collaborations across departments at least for established researchers. Azoulay et al. (2010) cannot directly test for localized peer effect in their setup because they do not observe the universe of researchers at a dying scientist's department. They show, however, that their co-author effects are not different for co-authors who are co-located compared to co-authors who are located at another university. This is further evidence that co-location does not intensify the collaboration among

1933 was 13.20. The average Nobel Laureate's quality was 17.22. Therefore department quality changes by 1.00 due to the dismissal of a Nobel Laureate. The estimated reduced form coefficient is 0.03 with a 95 percent confidence interval of -0.0017 to 0.062. Therefore the reduction in peer quality has an effect of -0.0017×1.00 .

³⁹See Hund, Maier-Leibnitz, and Mollwo (1988) for details.

co-authors and thus that localized peer effects may much less important than currently believed. These findings also cast doubt on the hypothesis that falling communication and transportation costs have reduced the role of geography for scientific research as location seem to have played only a very limited role even in the early 20th century.

These results suggest strong policy conclusions. Co-locating researchers in order to increase their productivity through spill-overs does not seem a useful policy to increase total research output at least for established researchers. It is probably more important to increase the possibility for collaboration across departments by fostering the mobility of researchers and their exposure to researchers with similar research interests. The funding of conferences and active support of collaborations among researchers may therefore be a very effective tool to increase total research output.

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9 Tables

Table 1: Number of Dismissed Scientists across different Subjects

Year of Dismissal	Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
	Number of Dismissals	% of all Physicists in 1933	Number of Dismissals	% of all Chemists in 1933	Number of Dismissals	% of all Mathematicians in 1933
1933	33	11.5	50	10.7	35	15.6
1934	6	2.1	11	2.4	6	2.7
1935	4	1.4	5	1.1	5	2.2
1936	1	0.3	7	1.5	1	0.4
1937	1	0.3	3	0.6	2	0.9
1938	1	0.3	4	0.9	1	0.4
1939	1	0.3	2	0.4	1	0.4
1940	1	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.4
1933 - 1934	39	13.6	61	13.1	41	18.3

Table 2: Dismissals across different Universities

University	Physics				Chemistry				Mathematics			
	Scien- tists 1933	Dismissed 1933-34 #	in %	Dismissal Induced Δ to Dep. Quality	Scien- tists 1933	Dismissed 1933-34 #	in %	Dismissal Δ to Dep. Quality	Scien- tists 1933	Dismissed 1933-34 #	in %	Dismissal Induced Δ to Dep. Quality
Aachen TU	3	0	0	0	12	2	16.7	+	7	3	42.9	+
Berlin	38	8	21.1	--	45	15	33.3	-	13	5	38.5	--
Berlin TU	21	6	28.6	-	41	13	31.7	-	14	2	14.3	+
Bonn	12	1	8.3	+	16	1	6.3	-	7	1	14.3	+
Braunschweig TU	4	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Breslau	12	2	16.7	+	10	1	10.0	-	6	3	50.0	--
Breslau TU	1	0	0	0	14	2	14.3	-	5	2	40.0	--
Darmstadt TU	9	1	11.1	+	18	5	27.8	--	9	1	11.1	+
Dresden TU	6	1	16.7	--	17	1	5.9	--	10	0	0	0
Erlangen	4	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Frankfurt	12	1	8.3	-	18	5	27.8	+	8	1	12.5	+
Freiburg	8	0	0	0	15	3	20.0	+	9	1	11.1	-
Giessen	5	1	20.0	--	10	0	0	0	7	1	14.3	+
Göttingen	21	9	42.9	--	17	0	0	0	17	10	58.8	--
Greifswald	6	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Halle	4	0	0	0	9	1	11.1	+	7	1	14.3	+
Hamburg	11	2	18.2	+	11	2	18.2	+	8	0	0	0
Hannover TU	3	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	6	0	0	0
Heidelberg	8	0	0	0	18	1	5.6	+	5	1	20.0	+
Jena	13	1	7.7	+	10	0	0	0	5	0	0	0
Karlsruhe TU	8	0	0	0	14	4	28.6	+	6	1	16.7	0
Kiel	8	1	12.5	-	11	0	0	0	5	2	40.0	+
Köln	8	1	12.5	+	4	1	25.0	--	6	2	33.3	+
Königsberg	8	0	0	0	11	1	9.1	--	5	2	40.0	-
Leipzig	11	2	18.2	+	24	2	8.3	-	8	2	25.0	-
Marburg	6	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
München	12	3	25.0	+	18	1	5.6	-	9	0	0	0
München TU	10	1	10	+	15	0	0	+	5	0	0	0
Münster	5	0	0	0	12	0	0	0	5	0	0	0
Rostock	3	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Stuttgart TU	5	0	0	0	9	1	11.1	+	6	0	0	0
Tübingen	2	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	6	0	0	0
Würzburg	3	0	0	0	11	0	0	0	4	0	0	0

This table reports the total number of scientists in 1933. # Dismissed indicates how many scientists were dismissed in each department. % Dismissed indicates the percentage of dismissed scientists in each department. The column "Dismissal Induced Δ to Peer Quality" indicates how the dismissal affected average department quality: -- indicates a more than 50% drop in average department quality; - a drop in average department quality between 0 and 50%; 0 indicates no change in department quality; + indicates an improvement in average department quality between 0 and 50%.

Table 3: Quality of Dismissed Scholars

	Physics				Chemistry				Mathematics			
	All	Stay- ers	Dismissed 33-34		All	Stay- ers	Dismissed 33-34		All	Stay- ers	Dismissed 33-34	
			#	% Loss			#	% Loss			#	% Loss
Researchers (Beginning of 1933)	287	248	39	13.6	466	405	61	13.1	224	183	41	18.3
# of Chaired Profs.	109	97	12	11.0	156	136	20	12.8	117	99	18	15.4
Average Age (1933)	49.5	50.2	45.1	-	50.4	50.5	49.7	-	48.7	50.0	43.0	-
# of Nobel Laureates	15	9	6	40.0	14	11	3	21.4	-	-	-	-
Avg. publications (1925-1932)	0.47	0.43	0.71	20.5	1.69	1.59	2.31	17.9	0.33	0.27	0.56	31.1
Avg. publications (citation weighted)	5.10	3.53	14.79	39.4	17.25	16.07	25.05	19.0	1.45	0.93	3.71	46.8
% Publ. coauthored	33.3	33.6	31.6	-	76.0	75.8	77.1	-	11.3	9.7	14.8	-
% Publ. coauthored (Coaut. at German uni)	10.6	9.9	13.9	-	11.7	12.1	9.7	-	6.3	5.9	6.7	-
% Publ. coauthored (Coaut. same uni)	4.2	3.4	8.7	-	5.1	5.4	3.8	-	2.7	2.0	4.1	-

⁶% Loss is calculated as the fraction of the dismissals among all researchers or as the fraction of Nobel Laureates, publications, and citation weighted publications which were contributed by the dismissed.

Table 4: Reduced Form (Department Level Peers)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
	Physics				Chemistry				Mathematics			
Dependent Variable:	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.
Dismissal Induced Fall in Peer Quality	0.029 (0.015)	0.030 (0.016)	0.312 (0.235)	0.357 (0.252)	0.012 (0.015)	0.013 (0.014)	0.383 (0.303)	0.403 (0.312)	0.022 (0.031)	0.027 (0.037)	-0.464 (0.337)	-0.304 (0.346)
Number Dismissed	-0.021 (0.017)	-0.025 (0.019)	-0.017 (0.302)	-0.125 (0.323)	-0.018 (0.009)*	-0.017 (0.009)	-0.130 (0.222)	-0.065 (0.217)	-0.018 (0.015)	-0.019 (0.016)	-0.016 (0.167)	-0.003 (0.143)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2261	2261	2261	2261	3584	3584	3584	3584	1538	1538	1538	1538
# of researchers									183	183	183	183
R-squared	0.39	0.40	0.25	0.27	0.67	0.68	0.54	0.55	0.32	0.34	0.20	0.20

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at department level)

Publications is the sum of a scientist's publications in top journals in one year.

Citation Weighted Publications are defined as the sum of subsequent citations (in the first 50 years after publication in any journal included in the "Web of Science", including international journals) of all articles published in a given year.

Dismissal induced ↓ in *Peer Quality* is 0 for all researchers until 1933. In 1934 it is equal to (Avg. quality of total department before dismissal) - (Avg. quality of researchers not dismissed in 1933) if this number > 0. From 1935 onwards it will be equal to (Avg. quality of total department before dismissal) - (Avg. quality of researchers not dismissed in 1933 and 1934) if this number is > 0. Scientists in departments with above average quality dismissals will have a positive value of the quality dismissal variable after 1933 and a value of 0 until 1933. The variable will always be 0 for all other scientists. Average quality is measured as the department level average of citation weighted publications between 1925 and 1932 such that any changes after the dismissal do not affect the values of the average.

Number dismissed is equal to the number of dismissed scientists in a researcher's department. The variable is 0 until 1933 for researchers in all departments. In 1934 it is equal to the number of dismissals in 1933 at a researcher's department. From 1935 onwards it is equal to the number of dismissals in 1933 and 1934 in a researcher's department.

Table 5: First Stages (Department Level Peers)

Dependent Variable:	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)	
	Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics		Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size	Avg. Quality of Peers	Department Size
Dismissal Induced	-0.614	-0.112	-1.131	-0.001	-1.369	0.154						
Fall in Peer Quality	(0.114)**	(0.118)	(0.197)**	(0.101)	(0.167)**	(0.193)						
Number Dismissed	-0.034	-0.515	-0.024	-0.963	0.157	-0.529						
	(0.110)	(0.111)**	(0.172)	(0.105)**	(0.059)*	(0.063)**						
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>						
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>						
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>						
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>						
Observations	2261	2261	3584	3584	1538	1538						
# of researchers	258	258	413	413	183	183						
R-squared	0.62	0.93	0.69	0.94	0.73	0.86						
F - Test on Instruments	79.1	108.3	18.2	45.3	39.9	79.4						

Table 6: Instrumental Variables (Department Level Peers)

Dependent Variable	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)		(9)		(10)		(11)		(12)	
	Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics		Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics		Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics		Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.	Publications	Cit. Weighted Pub.
	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV
Peer Quality	0.003	-0.059	-0.044	-0.633	0.005	-0.011	0.055	-0.356	0.015	-0.017	0.513	0.231												
	(0.004)	(0.044)	(0.080)	(0.592)	(0.003)	(0.014)	(0.050)	(0.268)	(0.014)	(0.026)	(0.178)**	(0.262)												
Department Size	-0.003	0.053	-0.196	0.286	-0.011	0.018	0.060	0.076	0.005	0.031	0.001	0.074												
	(0.005)	(0.051)	(0.111)	(0.760)	(0.007)	(0.010)	(0.263)	(0.213)	(0.013)	(0.027)	(0.079)	(0.301)												
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Observations	2261	2261	2261	2261	3584	3584	3584	3584	1538	1538	1538	1538												
# of researchers	258	258	258	258	413	413	413	413	183	183	183	183												
R-Squared	0.40	0.27	0.27	0.68	0.68	0.55	0.55	0.34	0.34	0.21	0.21	0.21												
Cragg-Donald EV Statistic	13.38	13.38	13.38	78.29	78.29	78.29	78.29	68.81	68.81	68.81	68.81	68.81												

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table 7: Robustness Checks Instrumental Variables (Department Level Peers)

	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)		(9)		(10)		(11)		(12)	
	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.	Publ- cations	Cit weig. Publ.
Physics																								
Peer Quality	-0.059 (0.044)	-0.633 (0.592)	-0.005 (0.037)	-0.394 (0.781)	-0.079 (0.054)	-1.614 (0.989)	-0.031 (0.098)	0.999 (0.750)	-0.104 (0.109)	-0.736 (1.054)	-0.061 (0.103)	-1.001 (2.400)												
Department Size	0.053 (0.051)	0.286 (0.760)	-0.004 (0.046)	-0.083 (0.992)	0.107 (0.061)	1.984 (1.175)	0.038 (0.102)	-1.275 (0.683)	0.110 (0.093)	0.517 (1.039)	0.023 (0.078)	-0.658 (1.587)												
Observations	2261	2261	1866	1866	1203	1203	1058	1058	2261	2261	464	464												
# of researchers	258	258	256	256	181	181	147	147	258	258	50	50												
Minimum EV Statistic	13.38	13.38	6.24	6.24	5.57	5.57	3.75	3.75	6.54	6.54	4.07	4.07												
Chemistry																								
Peer Quality	-0.005 (0.009)	0.088 (0.144)	0.004 (0.013)	-0.071 (0.261)	-0.010 (0.009)	-0.078 (0.084)	-0.001 (0.006)	-0.027 (0.118)	-0.016 (0.010)	-0.154 (0.142)	-	-												
Department Size	0.009 (0.029)	-0.144 (0.379)	-0.016 (0.046)	-0.683 (1.487)	0.016 (0.022)	-0.468 (0.345)	0.013 (0.031)	-0.374 (0.445)	-0.002 (0.086)	-0.302 (0.958)	-	-												
Observations	2913	2913	1815	1815	1752	1752	1713	1713	1767	1767	-	-												
# of researchers	404	404	261	261	236	236	199	199	186	186	-	-												
Minimum EV Statistic	38.97	38.97	14.14	14.14	64.73	64.73	23.26	23.26	26.00	26.00	-	-												
Mathematics																								
Peer Quality	-0.017 (0.026)	0.231 (0.262)	-0.025 (0.031)	0.257 (0.341)	-0.030 (0.040)	0.335 (0.446)	0.033 (0.026)	0.128 (0.415)	0.005 (0.030)	0.151 (0.441)	-	-												
Department Size	0.031 (0.027)	0.074 (0.301)	0.040 (0.050)	0.206 (0.537)	0.056 (0.032)	-0.126 (0.331)	-0.015 (0.042)	-0.307 (0.572)	0.016 (0.020)	-0.055 (0.265)	-	-												
Observations	1538	1538	1256	1256	899	899	639	639	1538	1538	-	-												
# of researchers	183	183	183	183	125	125	97	97	183	183	-	-												
Minimum EV Statistic	68.81	68.81	18.98	18.98	40.66	40.66	18.76	18.76	68.35	68.35	-	-												
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Dep. specific, Time Trends																								

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Each panel reports results for one of the three subjects.

Table 8: Instrumental Variables (Specialization Level Peers)

Dependent Variable	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)		(9)		(10)		(11)		(12)			
	Publications		Publications		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Publications		Publications		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Publications		Publications		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Cit. Weighted Pub.		Publications	
	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV	OLS	IV
Peer Quality	0.005 (0.004)	-0.022 (0.028)	-0.028 (0.059)	-0.401 (0.546)	-0.001 (0.002)	-0.010 (0.008)	-0.015 (0.037)	-0.005 (0.122)	0.007 (0.017)	-0.641 (7.475)	0.007 (0.017)	-0.003 (0.017)	-0.047 (0.132)	0.378 (0.161)*	6.309 (69.269)											
Department Size	-0.008 (0.017)	-0.009 (0.031)	-0.375 (0.263)	-0.621 (0.547)	-0.050 (0.028)	0.006 (0.041)	-0.426 (0.381)	-0.976 (0.845)	0.728 (8.125)	-6.625 (75.258)																
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>												
Observations	2257	2257	2257	2257	3567	3567	3567	3567	3567	1538	1538	1538	1538	1538												
# of researchers	256	256	256	256	405	405	405	405	405	183	183	183	183	183												
R-Squared	0.40		0.27		0.68		0.55		0.34		0.21		0.21													
Minimum Eigenvalue Statistic		87.55		87.55		79.38		79.38		0.13		0.13		0.13												

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table 9: Peer Group Interacted with Own Quality Terciles (IV Estimates)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
Dependent Variable:	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.
Peer Quality*	-0.434	-4.519	0.056	0.027	0.012	0.465
<i>Top Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.503)	(5.210)	(0.029)	(0.824)	(0.044)	(0.547)
Peer Quality*	-0.031	-0.394	-0.012	-0.365	-0.252	-0.099
<i>Middle Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.117)	(1.436)	(0.026)	(0.192)	(0.221)	(0.806)
Peer Quality*	0.062	0.435	-0.061	-0.840	-0.008	-0.313
<i>Bottom Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.055)	(0.425)	(0.036)	(0.419)	(0.042)	(0.506)
Department Size*	0.366	3.579	0.067	1.375	0.004	0.310
<i>Top Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.523)	(5.534)	(0.054)	(0.927)	(0.051)	(0.756)
Department Size*	0.085	0.431	0.005	-0.473	0.062	0.116
<i>Middle Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.115)	(1.729)	(0.018)	(0.267)	(0.047)	(0.253)
Department Size*	0.011	0.049	-0.038	-0.695	0.015	0.012
<i>Bottom Tercile Scientist</i>	(0.074)	(0.836)	(0.031)	(0.475)	(0.038)	(0.610)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2261	2261	3584	3584	1538	1538
# of researchers	258	258	413	413	183	183

Table 10: Peer Group Tercile Effects (IV Estimates)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
Dependent Variable:	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.
Top Tercile Peer Quality	-0.002	-0.331	-0.004	-0.053	-0.008	0.321
	(0.016)	(0.556)	(0.008)	(0.215)	(0.253)	(0.698)
Middle Tercile Peer Quality	-0.034	-14.624	0.628	20.560	11.253	9.913
	(0.518)	(26.341)	(0.890)	(37.024)	(52.342)	(129.684)
Top Tercile Number of Peers	0.013	0.827	0.025	-0.497	-0.167	-0.372
	(0.059)	(1.961)	(0.072)	(2.914)	(0.573)	(1.400)
Middle Tercile Number of Peers	-0.049	-2.234	-0.084	-2.827	-0.515	1.519
	(0.123)	(3.228)	(0.116)	(4.605)	(4.293)	(10.894)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2261	2261	3584	3584	1538	1538
# of researchers	258	258	413	413	183	183

**significant at 1% level

*significant at 5% level

(All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table 11: Effect of Dismissal on Coauthors

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Physics		Chemistry	
Dependent Variable	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	-0.007 (0.003)*	-0.128 (0.047)**	-0.013 (0.003)**	-0.165 (0.037)**
# of Dismissed Coauthors	0.363 (0.574)	8.449 (8.570)	0.419 (0.349)	-0.394 (5.478)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2243	2243	3575	3575
# of researchers	258	258	413	413
R-squared	0.40	0.27	0.67	0.54

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level
 (All standard errors are clustered at the individual level)

Table 12: Coauthors: Timing of Coauthorship

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Physics		Chemistry	
Dependent Variable	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.
Coauthors 1930 - 1932				
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	-0.007 (0.003)*	-0.126 (0.040)**	-0.013 (0.003)**	-0.163 (0.047)**
# of Dismissed Coauthors	0.359 (0.636)	8.944 (8.516)	0.114 (0.556)	-6.177 (10.365)
Coauthors 1924 - 1929 (not later)				
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	0.007 (0.019)	0.118 (0.440)	0.004 (0.004)	0.069 (0.068)
# of Dismissed Coauthors	-0.030 (0.978)	-2.725 (23.682)	0.008 (0.398)	0.231 (4.556)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2243	2243	3575	3575
# of researchers	258	258	413	413
R-squared	0.40	0.27	0.67	0.54

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level
 (All standard errors are clustered at the individual level)

Table 13: Coauthors: Publications without dismissed Coauthors

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Dependent Variable	Physics		Chemistry	
	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Pub.
Coauthors 1930 - 1932				
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	-0.007 (0.003)*	-0.144 (0.050)**	-0.012 (0.003)**	-0.286 (0.068)**
# of Dismissed Coauthors	0.510 (0.662)	12.814 (10.669)	0.311 (0.546)	-6.859 (14.775)
Coauthors 1924 - 1929 (not later)				
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	0.028 (0.970)	-3.465 (26.113)	0.009 (0.394)	-1.128 (5.287)
# of Dismissed Coauthors	0.007 (0.019)	0.142 (0.490)	0.003 (0.004)	0.065 (0.070)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2243	2243	3575	3575
# of researchers	258	258	413	413
R-squared	0.39	0.28	0.67	0.53

**significant at 1% level

*significant at 5% level

(All standard errors are clustered at the individual level)

10 Appendix

Figure A1: Sample Page from List of Displaced German Scholars

Physics

BEER, Dr. Arthur P., Researcher; b. 1900., married, 1 child. (English, French, Czech.) 1928/33: Researcher Universitätssternwarte, Breslau, and Deutsche Sternwarte, Hamburg, since 1934: Researcher Solar Physics Observatory, Cambridge University. SPEC.: *Astronomy; Astro- and Geo-Physics*. Temp.

BERG, Dr. Wolfgang, F., Assistant; b. 03., married. (English, French.) 1930/33: Assistant Physikalisches Institut, Berlin University; 1934/36: Researcher Physical Lab., Manchester University; since 1936: Industrial Activity, London. SPEC.: *Experimental Physics. Fluorescence of Atoms and Molecules; Structure and Deformation of Crystals; X-Ray Methods*. Temp.

BERGSTRÄSSER, Dr. Martin, Assistant; b. 02., married. (English, French.) 1927/33: Assistant Technische Hochschule, Dresden; 1933/34: Assistant Deutsche Versuchsanstalt für Luftfahrt, Berlin. SPEC.: *Technical Physics; Testing of Materials; Solidity; Mechanics*. Unpl.

BETHHE, Dr. Hans, Privatdozent; b. 06., single. (English.) Till 1933: Privatdozent Göttingen University; 1934/35: Researcher Bristol University; since 1935: Cornell University, Ithaca (N.Y.). SPEC.: *Theoretical Physics. Quantum Mechanics*. Perm.

BIEL, Dr. Erwin, Privatdozent; b. 99., married, 1 child. (English, French, Italian.) Till 1929: Assistant Geographisches Institut, Vienna University; 1929/33: Climatologist Meteorologisches Observatorium, Breslau; 1932/33: Privatdozent Breslau University. SPEC.: *Geo-Physics; Climatology*. Unpl.

BLOCH, Dr. Felix, Privatdozent; b. 05., single. (English.) Till 1933: Privatdozent and Assistant Physikalisches Institut, Leipzig University; since 1933: Prof. Stanford University, California. SPEC.: *Theoretical Physics; Atomic Physics*. Perm.

BOAS, Dr. Walter, Assistant; b. 04., single. (English, French.) 1928/32: Researcher Kaiser Wilhelm Institut für Metallforschung, Berlin; 1933/35: Assistant Fribourg University; since 1936: Researcher Physikalisches Institut, Technische Hochschule, Zürich. SPEC.: *Technical Physics; Metallography; Plasticity and Structure of Metals; X-Rays*. Unpl.

BOEHM, Dr. Gundo, Assistant. Till 1933: Assistant Physikalisches Institut, Freiburg University. SPEC.: *Micellar Structure of Muscles*. Unpl.

BORN, Dr. Max, o. Professor; b. 82., married, 3 children. (English.) 1915/19: a.o. Prof. Berlin University; 1919/21: o. Prof. Frankfurt University; 1921/33: o. Prof. Göttingen University; 1933/35: Lecturer Cambridge University; since 1936: Prof. Edinburgh University. SPEC.: *Theoretical Physics; Quantum Theory; Atomic Structure; Optics; Mathematical Physics*. Perm.

BURSTYN, Dr. Walther, a.o. Professor; b. 77., married. (English, French.) 1920/33: a.o. Prof. Technische Hochschule, Berlin. SPEC.: *Technical Physics*. Unpl.

BYK, Dr. Alfred, a.o. Professor; b. 78., married, 2 children. (English, French, Italian, Dutch.) 1905: Privatdozent Technische Hochschule, Berlin; 1909/33: Privatdozent, later a.o. Prof. Berlin University and Technische Hochschule. SPEC.: *Mathematical Physics; Theoretical Electrotechnics; Quantum Theory; Boundaries of Physics and Chemistry*. Unpl.

COHN-PETERS, Dr. H. Jürgen, Researcher; b. 07. Till 1933: Researcher Berlin University; since 1934: U.S.S.R. SPEC.: *Experimental Physics. High Tension*. Perm.

DEMBER, Dr. Alexis, Assistant; b. 12., single. (English, French.) since 1935: Assistant Physical Institute, Istanbul University. SPEC.: *Electrolytes; Photoelectricity*. Temp.

DEMBER, Dr. Harry, o. Professor; b. 82., married, 2 children. (English, French, Spanish, Turkish.) 1909/33: Privatdozent, later o. Prof. Technische Hochschule, Dresden; and Director Physikalisches Institut; since 1933: o. Prof. Istanbul University and Director Physical Institute. SPEC.: *Cathode and X-Rays; Photo-Electricity; Atmospheric Optics; Atmospheric Electricity*. Perm.

DUSCHINSKY, Dr. F., Assistant; b. 07., single. (French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch.) 1933: Assistant Kaiser Wilhelm Institut für Physik, Berlin; since 1934: Assistant Brussels University. SPEC.: *Experimental Physics; Fluorescence; Molecular Spectra; Optics; High Frequency Technics*. Temp.

EHRENBERG, Dr. Werner, Assistant; b. 01., single. (English, French.) 1924/27: Assistant Kaiser Wilhelm Institut für Faserstoffchemie, Berlin; 1928/30: Researcher Berlin University and Technische Hochschule, Stuttgart; 1930/33: Assistant Technische Hochschule, Stuttgart; since 1935: Electric and Musical Industries, Ltd., Hayes (Middlesex). SPEC.: *Experimental Physics. X-Rays; Cathode Rays; Cosmic Radiation*. Perm.

EINSTEIN, Dr. Albert, o. Professor; b. 79., married. (English.) 1913/33: o. Prof. Berlin University and Director Kaiser Wilhelm Institut für Physik; 1921 Nobel Prize; since 1934: Prof. Institute for Advanced Study, Princeton (N.J.).

EISENSCHITZ, Dr. Robert, Researcher; b. 98., married. (English, French.) 1924/27: Researcher Allgemeine Elektrizitätsgesellschaft, Berlin; 1927/33: Researcher Kaiser Wilhelm Institut für Physikalische Chemie und Elektrochemie, Berlin; since 1934: Researcher Royal Institution, London. SPEC.: *Theoretical and Experimental Physics; Spectroscopy; Viscosity; Application of Physical Theories to Chemical Problems*. Temp.

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Squares were added by the author to highlight the researchers who had already received the Noble prize or were to receive it after 1936.

Figure A2: Effect of Dismissal on Department Size and Peer Quality Chemistry

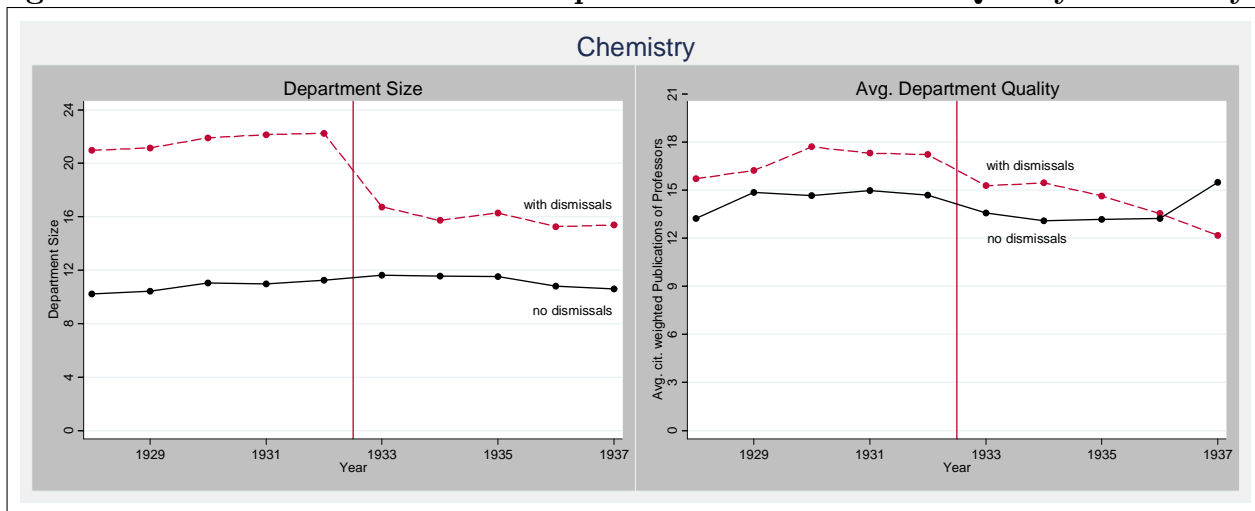


Figure A3: Effect of Dismissal on Department Size and Peer Quality Chemistry

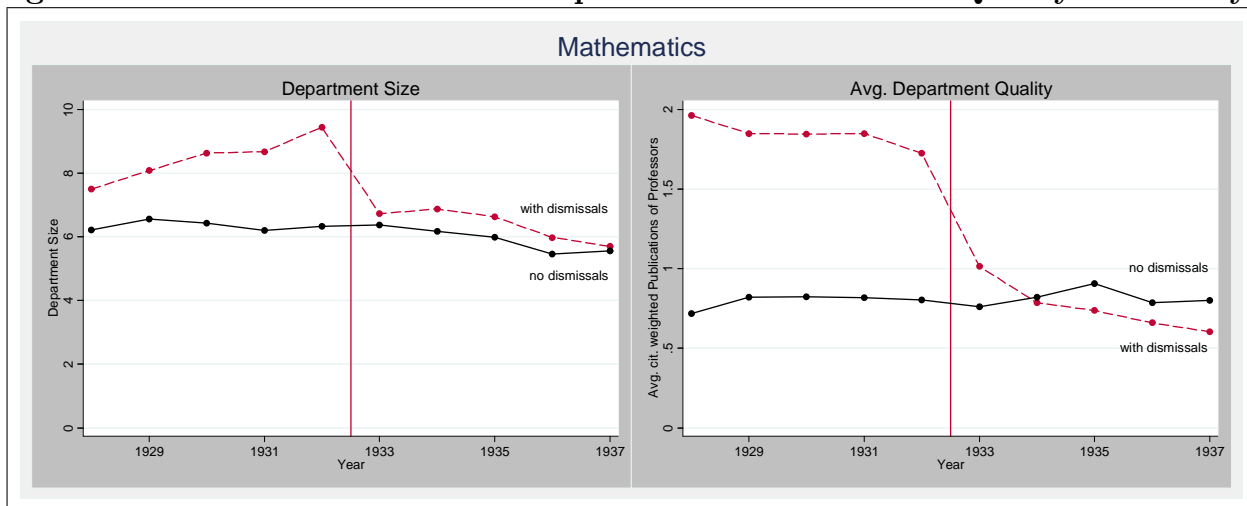


Figure A4: Effect of Dismissal on Stayers in Chemistry

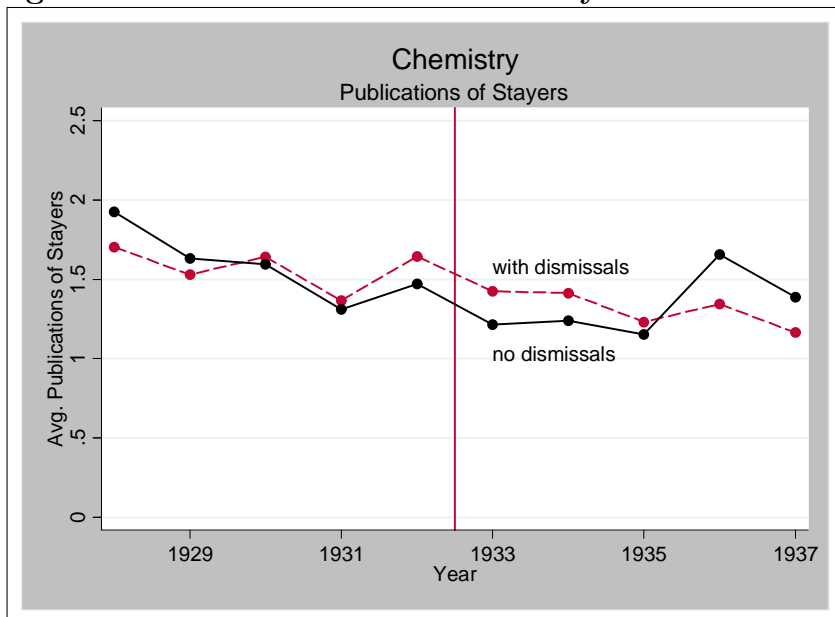


Figure A5: Effect of Dismissal on Stayers in Mathematics

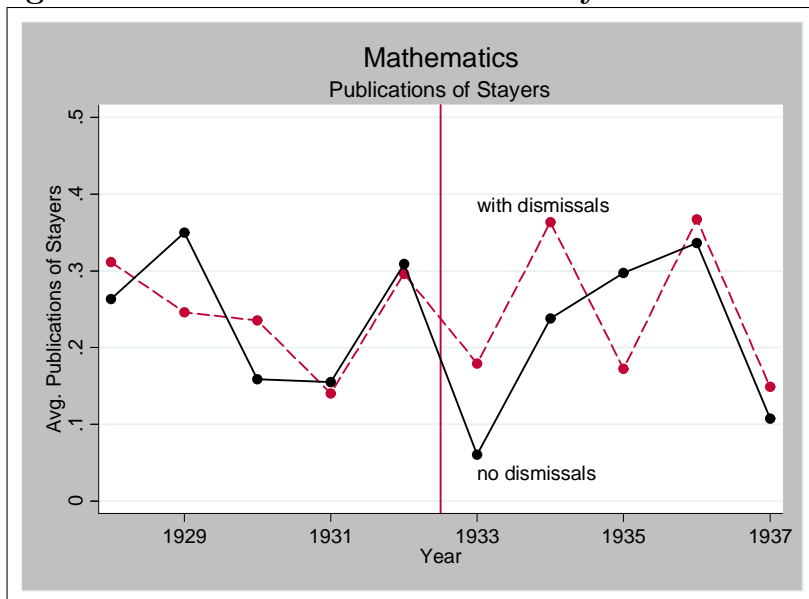


Figure A6: Effect of Dismissal on Coauthors in Chemistry

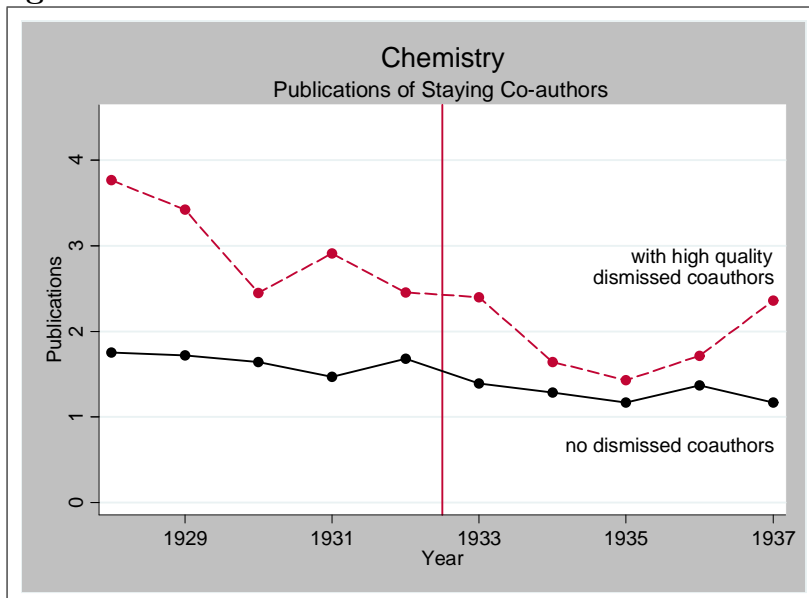


Table A1: Specializations

Physics		Chemistry		Mathematics	
Specialization	% scientists in specialization	Specialization	% scientists in specialization	Specialization	% scientists in specialization
Experimental Physics	48.5	Organic Chemistry	26.6	Analysis	45.9
Theoretical Physics	22.3	Physical Chemistry	23.8	Applied Mathematics	36.2
Technical Physics	20.6	Technical Chemistry	19.4	Algebra	19.7
Astronomy	14.7	Anorganic Chemistry	18.6	Number Theory	13.5
		Pharmacology	10.2	Meta Mathematics	5.2
		Medical Chemistry	8.0	Topology	4.8
		Biochemistry	6.7	Foundations of Math.	4.4

Percentages add to more than 100 percent because some physicists and chemists have two specializations. Mathematicians have up to four specializations.

Table A2: Top Journals

Journal Name	Published in
General Journals	
Naturwissenschaften	Germany
Sitzungsberichte der Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften Physikalisch Mathematische Klasse	Germany
Nature	UK
Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A (Mathematics and Physics)	UK
Science	USA
Physics	
Annalen der Physik	Germany
Physikalische Zeitschrift	Germany
Physical Review	USA
Chemistry	
Berichte der Deutschen Chemischen Gesellschaft	Germany
Biochemische Zeitschrift	Germany
Journal für Praktische Chemie	Germany
Justus Liebig's Annalen der Chemie	Germany
Kolloid Zeitschrift	Germany
Zeitschrift für Anorganische Chemie und Allgemeine Chemie	Germany
Zeitschrift für Elektrochemie und Angewandte Physikalische Chemie	Germany
Zeitschrift für Physikalische Chemie	Germany
Journal of the Chemical Society	UK
Mathematics	
Journal für die reine und angewandte Mathematik	Germany
Mathematische Annalen	Germany
Mathematische Zeitschrift	Germany
Zeitschrift für angewandte Mathematik und Mechanik	Germany
Acta Mathematica	Sweden
Proceedings of the London Mathematical Society	UK

Another major journal for physicists at the time was the "Zeitschrift für Physik". Unfortunately, the Web of Science does not include the articles in that journal after 1927. Therefore, I exclude the "Zeitschrift für Physik" from the analysis.

Table A3: Top Researchers 1925-1932 (Citation weighted Publications Measure)

Name	University beginning of 1933	First Specialization	Second Specialization	Third Specialization	Avg. Cit weighted Publ.	Avg. Publ.	Nobel Prize	Dis-missed 33-34
Physics								
Fritz London	Berlin	Theo. Phy.			149.3	1.3		✓
Lothar Nordheim	Göttingen	Theo. Phy.			110.0	0.7		✓
Gerhard Herzberg	Darmstadt TU	Exp. Phy.			78.0	2.0	✓	
Carl Ramsauer	Berlin TU	Exp. Phy.			75.6	3.0		
Max Born	Göttingen	Theo. Phy.			62.5	1.3	✓	✓
Hans Falkenhagen	Köln	Theo. Phy.			57.5	1.9		
Arnold Sommerfeld	München	Theo. Phy.			44.4	1.8		
Eugen Wigner	Berlin TU	Theo. Phy.			44.3	0.5	✓	✓
Heinrich Kuhn	Göttingen	Exp. Phy.	Theo. Phy.		42.0	4.0		✓
Harry Dember	Dresden TU	Exp. Phy.			40.8	1.0		✓
Karl Herzfeld		Theo. Phy.			33.7	1.3		
Richard Gans	Königsberg	Exp. Phy.			29.4	1.6		
Walter Gerlach	München	Exp. Phy.			29.1	3.1		
Wolfgang Pauli		Theo. Phy.			28.0	3.8	✓	
Max Wien	Jena	Exp. Phy.			25.4	2.0		
Werner Heisenberg	Leipzig	Theo. Phy.			25.3	1.0	✓	
Ludwig Prandtl	Göttingen	Tech. P.			23.3	1.1		
Fritz Kirchner	München	Exp. Phy.			22.5	2.5		
Johannes Malsch	Köln	Exp. Phy.			22.0	1.5		
Emil Rupp	Berlin TU	Exp. Phy.			21.4	5.2		✓
Chemistry								
Werner Kuhn	Karlsruhe TU	Physical C.			262.0	7.0		
Max Bergmann	Dresden TU	Organic C.	Biochem.		250.2	6.8		✓
Karl Lohmann	Heidelberg	Medical C.			224.0	6.0		
Ernst Bergmann	Berlin	Physical C.			223.3	17.0		✓
Carl Neuberg	Berlin	Biochem.			184.9	15.1		
Carl Wagner	Jena	Physical C.			177.5	5.0		
Otto Meyerhof	Heidelberg	Medical C.			176.3	5.8	✓	
Otto Ruff	Breslau TU	Anorganic C.			133.4	7.2		
Wolfgang Ostwald	Leipzig	Anorganic C.			127.0	8.6		
Hermann Staudinger	Freiburg	Organic C.			126.8	8.5	✓	
Gustav Tammann	Göttingen	Physical. C.			118.4	19.0		
Michael Polanyi	Berlin TU	Physical. C.			116.8	5.6		✓
Max Volmer	Berlin TU	Physical. C.			114.0	4.2		
Karl Freudenberg	Heidelberg	Organic C.			111.8	7.0		
Ulrich Hofmann	Berlin TU	Anorganic C.	Physical C.		109.0	6.0		
Richard Johann Kuhn	Heidelberg	Physical C.	Medical C.		92.1	8.0	✓	
Max Trautz	Heidelberg	Physical C.			91.9	5.3		
Wilhelm Klemm	Hannover TU	Anorganic. C.			91.4	5.2		
Mathematics								
Johann von Neumann	Berlin	Applied Math	Foundations	Analysis	36.3	1.5		✓
Richard Courant	Göttingen	Analysis	Applied Math		22.3	1.3		✓
Richard von Mises	Berlin	Applied Math	Analysis		15.6	0.9		✓
Heinz Hopf		Algebra	Topology	Geometry	13.3	1.3		
Paul Epstein	Frankfurt	Geometry	Number Th.	Algebra	11.5	0.6		
Oskar Perron	München	Algebra	Analysis		10.6	1.5		
Willy Prager	Göttingen	Applied Math			10.0	0.4		✓
Gabiel Szegö	Königsberg	Applied Math	Geometry		9.4	1.4		✓
Werner Rogosinski	Königsberg	Number Th.	Analysis		9.1	0.6		
Wolfgang Krull	Erlangen	Algebra			8.9	1.4		
Erich Rothe	Breslau TU	Analysis	Applied Math		8.0	1.0		✓
Hans Petersson	Hamburg	Number Th.	Analysis		8.0	2.0		
Adolf Hammerstein	Berlin	Number Th.	Analysis		8.0	0.5		
Alexander Weinstein	Breslau TU	Applied Math			6.3	0.7		✓
Erich Kamke	Tübingen	Number Th..	Foundations	Analysis	6.3	0.8		
Hellmuth Kneser	Greifswald	Applied Math	Analysis	Topology	6.3	0.6		
Bartel van der Waerden	Leipzig	Algebra	Geometry		5.8	1.8		
Max Müller	Heidelberg	Analysis			5.3	0.3		
Richard Brauer	Königsberg	Algebra			5.0	0.6		✓
Leon Lichtenstein	Leipzig	Analysis	Applied Math		4.9	1.5		✓

The university in 1933 is missing for researchers, who retire before before 1933.

Table A4: Identification Robustness Checks

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Dependent Variable Subject	Probability of Ever Being Promoted			Signing Support List for Hitler		Notgemeinschaft		Funding	
	Promotion Dummy Physics	Promotion Dummy Chemistry	Promotion Dummy Mathematics	Signing List Physics	Signing List Chemistry	Signing List Mathematics	Funding Dummy Physics	Funding Dummy Chemistry	Funding Dummy Mathematics
Dismissal Induced Fall in Peer Quality	-0.010 (0.008)	0.003 (0.003)	-0.006 (0.032)	0.048 (0.035)	0.000 (0.001)	0.039 (0.117)	-0.068 (0.016)**	0.006 (0.010)	-0.005 (0.020)
Number Dismissed	0.013 (0.008)	-0.003 (0.002)	0.011 (0.016)	-0.019 (0.023)	-0.000 (0.001)	-0.027 (0.065)	0.038 (0.021)	-0.006 (0.015)	0.003 (0.012)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2261	3584	1538	202	332	144	347	567	244
# of researchers	258	413	183	202	332	144	228	367	161
R-squared	0.72	0.76	0.78	0.60	0.50	0.64	0.79	0.71	0.60

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table A5: Placebo Dismissal (Moving Dismissal to 1930)

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Dependent Variable Subject	Probability of Ever Being Promoted		
	Promotion Dummy Physics	Promotion Dummy Chemistry	Promotion Dummy Mathematics
Dismissal Induced Fall in Peer Quality	-0.025 (0.031)	0.003 (0.019)	0.047 (0.060)
Number Dismissed	0.038 (0.033)	-0.003 (0.023)	-0.013 (0.032)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
University FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	1314	2051	875
# of researchers	237	389	170
R-squared	0.50	0.73	0.39

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level
(All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table A6: Reduced Form Poisson Regression (Department Level)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Dependent Variable:	Physics				Chemistry				Mathematics			
	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.	Publi- cations	Publi- cations	Citation Weighted Publ.	Citation Weighted Publ.
Dismissal Induced ↓ in Peer Quality	1.087 (1.47)	1.109 (1.66)	1.082 (0.74)	1.128 (0.97)	1.015 (1.25)	1.012 (0.96)	1.018 (0.57)	1.022 (0.66)	1.163 (0.84)	1.189 (0.76)	0.467 (1.40)	0.929 (0.12)
Number Dismissed	0.940 (1.01)	0.916 (1.27)	1.008 (0.06)	0.956 (0.28)	0.983 (1.36)	0.985 (1.09)	0.982 (1.01)	0.987 (0.64)	0.845 (2.45)*	0.844 (2.06)*	0.966 (0.27)	0.889 (0.71)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2261	2261	2261	2261	3584	3584	3584	3584	1538	1538	1538	1538
# of researchers	258	258	258	258	413	413	413	413	183	183	183	183
Log Quasi-Likelih.	-1380.83	-1375.73	-8503.37	-8284.26	-4242.17	-4198.09	-28389.28	-27402.24	-672.63	-654.82	-2465.51	-2227.18

**significant at 1% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)
 *significant at 5% level
 Estimates are displayed as incidence rate ratios. A coefficient of 1 would indicate no effect of the dismissal. The coefficient reported in the first line of column 1 indicates that publications increased by 8.7 percent for a one unit fall in peer quality. The effect is not significant. The absolute value of z-statistics (clustered at the department level) is reported in brackets.

Table A7: Robustness Checks Instrumental Variables Specialization Level

	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)		(9)		(10)	
	Peer Quality	Department Size	Observations	# of researchers	EV Statistic	Peer Quality	Department Size	Observations	# of researchers	EV Statistic	Peer Quality	Department Size	Observations	# of researchers	EV Statistic	Peer Quality	Department Size	Observations	# of researchers	EV Statistic
Physics																				
Peer Quality	-0.022 (0.028)	-0.401 (0.546)	-0.041 (0.038)	-0.663 (0.585)	0.003 (0.009)	0.244 (0.200)	-0.044 (0.046)	-1.560 (0.984)	-0.019 (0.029)	-0.389 (0.603)										
Department Size	-0.009 (0.031)	-0.621 (0.547)	-0.038 (0.041)	-0.994 (0.709)	0.048 (0.035)	0.686 (0.728)	0.007 (0.028)	-0.443 (0.612)	0.006 (0.037)	-0.378 (0.609)										
Observations	2257	2257	1863	1863	1199	1199	1058	1058	2257	2257										
# of researchers	256	256	254	254	179	179	147	147	256	256										
EV Statistic	87.55	87.55	61.06	61.06	24.21	24.21	25.85	25.85	78.18	78.18										
Chemistry																				
Peer Quality	-0.010 (0.008)	-0.005 (0.122)	-0.009 (0.008)	0.074 (0.140)	-0.015 (0.011)	-0.106 (0.251)	-0.010 (0.009)	-0.056 (0.086)	-0.013 (0.007)	-0.026 (0.152)										
Department Size	0.006 (0.041)	-0.976 (0.845)	0.021 (0.045)	-0.629 (0.614)	-0.029 (0.097)	-1.692 (2.148)	0.025 (0.050)	-0.948 (0.586)	0.000 (0.072)	-1.660 (1.078)										
Observations	3567	3567	2913	2913	1815	1815	1752	1752	3567	3567										
# of researchers	405	405	403	403	261	261	236	236	405	405										
EV Statistic	79.38	79.38	59.73	59.73	17.38	17.38	103.27	103.27	66.30	66.30										
Mathematics																				
Peer Quality	-0.641 (7.475)	6.309 (69.269)	0.108 (0.215)	-0.401 (1.928)	-4.228 (205.138)	35.713 (1,724.665)	0.136 (0.141)	1.908 (2.588)	0.128 (0.836)	-4.919 (37.886)										
Department Size	0.728 (8.125)	-6.625 (75.258)	-0.183 (0.370)	1.354 (2.988)	2.720 (128.110)	-22.366 (1,077.304)	-0.212 (0.267)	-3.496 (4.619)	-0.090 (0.677)	3.591 (30.004)										
Observations	1538	1538	1256	1256	899	899	639	639	1538	1538										
# of researchers	183	183	183	183	125	125	97	97	183	183										
EV Statistic	0.13	0.13	3.54	3.54	0.01	0.01	1.86	1.86	0.49	0.49										
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>										
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>										
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>										
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>										
Dep. specific, Time Trends																				

**significant at 1% level *significant at 5% level (All standard errors clustered at the department level)

Table A8: Coauthors: Normalized Publications

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Dependent Variable	Physics		Chemistry	
	Publications	Citation Weighted Pub.	Publications	Citation Weighted Pub.
Avg. Quality of Dism. Coauthors	-0.007 (0.004)	-0.103 (0.044)*	-0.008 (0.002)**	-0.086 (0.026)**
# of Dismissed Coauthors	0.638 (0.594)	9.320 (7.734)	0.280 (0.180)	-0.257 (3.502)
Age Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Year Dummies	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Department FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Individual FE	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>	<i>yes</i>
Observations	2243	2243	3575	3575
# of researchers	258	258	413	413
R-squared	0.39	0.26	0.68	0.49

**significant at 1% level

*significant at 5% level

(All standard errors are clustered at the individual level)