

THE WORK EXPERIENCE OF UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LAW GRADUATES¹

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The results of a survey sent out in May 1984 to the graduating classes of 1975 to 1980 are presented in this article. Sixty percent of the survey population responded to the questionnaire (382 males and 123 females).

This research compared the work experience of male and female practicing lawyers. Results of the survey indicate similar personal and academic backgrounds between males and females, but differences in employment factors, including type of law practiced, employers, benefits, hours worked, status and salary. While definitive conclusions are not possible, these descriptive results are important in highlighting future areas of investigation.

I. PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Many American and Canadian surveys have previously documented the characteristics of the practicing lawyer. Of these, only White and Epstein³ in the United States and Arthur's et al., Adam et al. and Huxter⁴ in Canada have compared male and female lawyers. These studies reveal information on personal background, academic data, and work experience. The profile that emerges, although somewhat dated,⁵ is a valuable starting point.

Specifically, these students have found that: most women and men marry but a higher proportion of women remain single; of those women who do marry, a significant majority remain childless; women who have children have a fewer number than men;⁶ and, on average, women take 15 weeks off from their practice to have children and return to work after this period.⁷ Previous studies did not elicit information from males as to time taken off on the birth of their children.⁸ These studies also report that males and females have similar socio-economic backgrounds.⁹

The academic background of pre-law males and females is similar — most have a Bachelor of Arts with only a few obtaining a Masters or Doc-

1. This research was funded by a grant from the Central Research Committee and the Faculty of Law, University of Alberta. Special thanks to Associate Dean Tim Christian for his valuable support throughout this project.
2. Students of law, University of Alberta.
3. J. J. White, "Women in the Law" *Toward a Sociology of Women* (Safilios-Rothchild ed. 1972) 277, reprinted in abridged form from (1967) 65:6 *Michigan Law Review* 1051; C.F. Epstein, "The New Women and the Old Establishment: Wall Street Lawyers in the 1970's" (1980) 7:3 *Sociology of Work and Occupations* 291.
4. H.W. Arthurs, J. Willms and L. Taman, "The Toronto Legal Profession: An Exploratory Survey" (1971) 21 *University of Toronto Law Journal* 498; B.D. Adam and K.A. Lahey "Professional Opportunities: A Survey of the Ontario Legal Profession" (1981) 59 *Can. Bar Rev.* 674; B.D. Adam and D.E. Baer, "The Social Mobility of Women and Men in the Ontario Legal Profession" (1984) 21:1 *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*; M.T. Huxter "Survey of Employment Opportunities for Articling Students and Graduates of the Bar Admission Course in Ontario" A report submitted to the Committee of Ontario Law Deans and the Law Society of Upper Canada, December, 1980.
5. Based primarily upon pre-1975 research.
6. Adam (1984) op. cit. at 37.
7. Dranoff, op. cit. at 187.
8. Only the provinces of Saskatchewan and Quebec have legislated paternity leave.
9. White, op. cit.; Epstein, op. cit.

torate.¹⁰ More females than males go on to obtain a Master of Laws. Research on academic standing in law school reveals no significant difference between males and females but an overall general trend in certain grade categories for "grade inflation".¹¹ There is close agreement between the actual and survey results for the upper most category, i.e., "A" students, however, individuals with marks in the upper range of a "C" category report themselves as "B" students.

There are many reported differences in the work experiences of males and females. These relate to size and type of law firm, status within the firm (i.e., whether they are partners, associates or employees) and salaries. For example, more females than males are clustered in medium sized law firms and more males than females become partners within law firms.¹² Although women in larger law firms (more than 95 lawyers) are motivated by money, success and achievement and are willing to work as many hours as their male counterparts, salaries are dissimilar.¹³ Overall, men begin at a higher rate of pay and this lead increases over the years.¹⁴

A relationship has been observed between type of law practices and size of law firm.¹⁵ The larger the law firm the less amount of time spent in the practice of real estate and family law. Large firms attend to a high percentage of commercial and corporate business, but medium firms (5 to 19 lawyers) also have a significant share. Sole practitioners and smaller firms do a disproportionately greater amount of family law and conveyancing.¹⁶

Women in large firms tend to perform research, handle wills and trusts, and, to a lesser extent practice tax law.¹⁷ A high percentage of females work in government and with their husbands or fathers.¹⁸

The present study sought to replicate and extend this research. Since the majority of previous studies were conducted in other geographical locations (the United States or Ontario) or before 1975 when the number of female lawyers constituted only a fraction of the practicing population, generalization of the findings is limited. As well, most research has focused upon sex differences in law school or articling experience as opposed to the work experience of practicing lawyers. The present study¹⁹ attempted to fill the void by focusing upon the work experience of lawyers who had graduated from a western Canadian university during the time period when the number of female law students was increasing.

10. Arthurs, op. cit. at 503.

11. Id. at 503-504; Huxter, op. cit. at 5.

12. Epstein, op. cit. at 298.

13. Id. at 308.

14. White, op. cit. at 292.

15. Arthurs, op. cit. at 510-513.

16. Id.

17. White, op. cit. at 281; Epstein, op. cit. at 296.

18. Epstein, op. cit. at 295.

19. The impetus for the present research came from two sources: (1) the Consultive Group on Research and Education in Law's report *Law and Learning* (A report to the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, April, 1983) which recommended a more interdisciplinary focus for legal research; and (2) the 1983 Conference "Women, The Law and the Economy" (October 1983, Faculty of Law, University of Calgary) which recommended further studies on women's role in the modern workplace.

II. METHOD

A four-page questionnaire was sent to 901 University of Alberta law graduates from the years 1975 to 1980 inclusive. Survey questions were designed to obtain data primarily about work experience, with emphasis upon areas which might reveal sex differences (i.e., salary, type of law practiced, employer) and included modified questions from other surveys for comparative purposes.

The questionnaire was divided into six sections including personal information (Section A), academic information (Section B), questions for practicing lawyers (Section C), questions for employed non-practicing lawyers (Section D), questions for non-employed law graduates (Section E), and other activities (Section F). Only findings from Sections A, B and C are presented here.²⁰

Analysis of the data involved calculations of means and standard deviations for those responses involving numbers (i.e., salaries, hours, number of children) and frequency analysis of the variables by sex and sex by year of graduation. Where appropriate, statistical analysis was performed to test the *a priori* hypotheses. Based upon previous findings, the following hypotheses were generated: (1) Similarities between males and females in academic background including type of university degree and academic standing; (2) differences in personal background such as marital status, number of children and socio-economic status; and (3) differences in work factors such as salary, status, and type of employer.

III. RESULTS

A. RESPONSE RATE

The total number of responses was 515, providing a response rate of 60% based upon the total potential sample of 854. Information was obtained from 473 practicing lawyers, 25 employed nonpracticing graduates and 17 unemployed graduates. Comparison of the actual population with the survey sample on demographic variables provided strong support of the sample's representativeness.

B. PERSONAL AND ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

The profiles that emerged illustrate the typical personal and academic background of the male and female lawyer.

At the commencement of the LL.B. programme males were usually 23.7 years of age. Prior to law school, 77% were students, with 64% receiving a B.A. in their pre-law programme. Increasingly, however, males have obtained a B.Ed. or B.Comm. prior to their legal education. During law school, the majority of males received a grade point average between 6.2 and 6.9.

20. The detailed results from all sections are presented in the preliminary report by D. Fromm and M. Webb entitled "A Question of Equality", September 1984. Copies of this report are located in the law libraries at the Universities of Alberta, Calgary, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and British Columbia.

Seventy eight percent of the males surveyed were currently married. While males with children usually had two children, a significant proportion (43%) remained childless. Males, on average, took .3 weeks off from practice when their children were born.

An examination of their parents socio-economic status indicated: 34% of fathers fell within the professional/white collar classifications, while 65% of mothers were housewives.²¹

Females, on average were 23.3 years of age at the commencement of the LL.B. programme, .4 of a year younger than their male counterparts. Females, as well, generally obtained a B.A. prior to law but unlike males have not shown a willingness to obtain a B.Ed. or a B.Comm. The majority of females also obtained a grade point average between 6.2 and 6.9.

In contrast to their male peers, 66% of females surveyed were married with only a slightly higher percentage being single or divorced. Females who had children, like their male counterparts, usually had two children but 50% remained childless. Females took off an average of 10 weeks for the birth of their children — 5 weeks less time than found in previous surveys and 8 weeks less than allowed by provincial statute.²²

An examination of their parent's socio-economic status indicated: 38% of fathers fell within the professional/white collar classifications, while 61% of mothers were housewives.

Thus, a similar profile emerges for male and female lawyers. Significant differences occur however in types of degrees obtained prior to law, marital status and maternity/paternity leave.

C. WORK EXPERIENCE OF PRACTICING LAWYERS

In contrast to personal and academic backgrounds, the work factors examined in this study indicated few similarities and many differences. Males and females reported similarities in: (1) location of employment — the majority were employed within Edmonton and Calgary; (2) reasons for choosing a position — the top three reasons were type of work, best offer and independence; and (3) inter-job mobility — the majority had never changed jobs or had changed jobs only once.

The differences are documented in the following sections.

1. Type of Employer

The top three categories of employers are law firms, self-employed and government: 40% of lawyers are employed by law firms, 37% are self-employed and 14% are employed by government. Of those in law firms, 45% are males and 39% are females; 41% of males are self-employed as

21. Individual responses were sorted into 14 categories using the classification of P.C. Pineo, J. Porter and H.A. McRoberts in "The 1971 Census and the Socioeconomic Classification of Occupations" (1977) 14:1 *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology* 91 in conjunction with the Dominion Bureau of Statistics *Occupational Classification Manual Census of Canada*, 1971. The general category of professional/white collar corresponds to the top four classifications including self-employed professional, employed professional, high level management and semi-professional.

22. The Employee Standards Act, R.S.A. 1980, c. E-10.1.

compared to 35% of females, and 20% of females versus 8% of males are in government positions.

2. Number of Lawyers in Work Place

The number of lawyers in the work place ranged from 1 to 85. This range was broken down for further analysis into the following categories: 1 - 4 (small), 5 - 10 (medium), 11 - 25 (large) and 26 and over (very large). A breakdown of percentage of lawyers by size of firm revealed that 45% work in small firms, 19% in medium firms, 20% in large firms and 16% in very large firms. Thus, 84% of lawyers work in positions with fewer than 26 lawyers. Comparison of male/female responses revealed similar percentages across all sizes of work places. The relative percentage of males and females by size of work place was, respectively: 44% v. 46% in small; 20% for both sexes in medium; 21% v. 17% in large; and 15% v. 17% in very large. Hence, females are not underrepresented in larger firms as indicated by previous research.

3. Hours

Males who are employed full-time work an average of 46 hours per week compared with 45 hours for females. Only ten lawyers indicated that they had part-time employment.

Slight differences in the number of hours worked occur when controlling for type of employer: individuals who work in government positions or who are self-employed work, on average, 45 hours per week while those in law firms work, on average, 50 hours per week.

Within categories of employers, male and female responses revealed large differences. In almost all government agencies males and females work similar hours. In contrast, in private employment, males work longer hours than females. The largest differences occur in law firms where males work 52 hours per week as compared within 45 hours per week for females. Analysis by firm size revealed that the difference in hours worked per week increases from 3 hours in small firms to 6 hours in very large firms.

4. Weekend Work

Overall, males work on weekends more frequently than females. Specifically, 40% of males v. 61% of females seldom work weekends, 38% of males v. 28% of females frequently work weekends and 16% of males v. 8% of females very often or always work weekends.

5. Type of Law Practice

Of the 461 respondents who ranked their type of practice on the basis of time spent, the most frequent first ranked types were: civil litigation (26%), real estate (13%), criminal (12%), commercial (10%), corporate (8%) and family (8%). These differences in percentages were significant.²³ The percentage frequency changed for second rank to include: commercial (15%), civil litigation (14%), corporate (11%), real

23. Chi-squared=113.7; p<.0004.

estate (10%), family (10%) and criminal (7%). Third rank choices were comprised of: corporate and family (11%), real estate (10%), civil litigation and commercial (9%) will and trusts and criminal (4%).

Of special interest were the large number of "other" types of law given, including: trademarks, environmental, foreclosures, collections, communications, transportation, Indian law, conveyancing, securities, medical, personal injury, dependent adult, construction, mortgages and non-legal advice. This may also indicate an increased degree of specialization.

Cross-tabulation by sex revealed percentage differences in several categories of law. The number of males claiming civil litigation as most time consuming outnumbered females by almost 2:1. This ratio was reversed in the second ranked choice of civil litigation (18% females and 13% males). This trend of a twice greater percentage of males was also shown for real estate on both first and second rankings (14% males and 7% females; 12% males and 6% females). In contrast, females outnumbered males by 8:1 in the area of family law (first ranked). The figures were also distributed differently in the area of wills and trusts with a greater percentage of females (6% v. 2%). Significant differences between the sexes were obtained in the areas of corporate, commercial, real estate and family law. The first three areas were male dominated while the last area was female dominated.

Examination of first rank choices by year and sex indicated that a third of the lawyers practicing constitutional law were 1979 graduates. A large percentage increase was observed in females practicing corporate, commercial and real estate law from the 1979 to 1980 classes, and a large percentage increase in females practicing family law from the 1978 to 1980 classes. Males showed no similar fluctuations in percentage frequencies across the years.

Such increases possibly reflect the increasing number of female graduates in those years, however, the trend was selective to certain types of law. Hence it appears that a greater percentage of women in the later graduation classes (i.e. 1978 to 1980) are practicing corporate, commercial, real estate and family law.

Cross-tabulation of firm size by type of law and by sex revealed that across all firms, civil litigation (28%), real estate (14%) and criminal law (12%) were practiced by males more frequently than other types of law. Within small and medium sized firms, civil litigation, criminal and real estate law were most frequently practiced, whereas in large and very large firms, civil litigation, corporate and commercial law were most frequently practised. Examination of the types of law across size of firm revealed that as firm size increased, civil litigation and criminal practice decreased while commercial and corporate law practice increased, a finding consistent with the research literature.

For females, the two most common types of law were civil litigation (18%) and family law (25%). Within small, medium and large size firms, family and civil litigation were most frequently practised whereas in very large firms the percentages were split almost equally among civil litigation, criminal, corporate and insurance law. Hence, females practice a

greater diversity of law in firms with more than 25 lawyers. In contrast to the males, as the size of the firm increases the practice of civil litigation and criminal law for females increases while the practice of family law decreases. Corporate and commercial rates remain the same.

6. Time Spent in Litigation

Six categories were employed to assess time spent in litigation. The distribution of responses across these categories was almost equal for the respondents. However, cross-tabulation by sex revealed a decrease in males and an increase in females as percentage time in litigation increased. Given the data above which indicates almost double the percentage of males to females in civil litigation, this suggests greater female involvement by those relatively few female litigators. This suggestion is tentative, however, given the small number of females in each category.

Analysis by year and sex revealed no salient patterns for males, but a number of interesting patterns within the female data. The most obvious pattern was that the highest percentages of females in the years 1975 to 1977 were primarily grouped in the categories of most time spent in litigation (51% to 100%). In the last two graduating years (1979 to 1980) the percentages appeared to be almost equally distributed across the time categories. This latter finding may be related to the large increase of females from these years in areas of law requiring little time in litigation (i.e., corporate, commercial and real estate).

7. Status in Firms

Almost double the percentage of males indicated partner status compared to females (44% v. 22%), while a slightly greater percentage of females indicated employee (7% v. 3%) and sole practitioner status (15% v. 12%). These differences in status were significant.²⁴ The percentage distribution for associates was roughly equal (24% v. 23%).

Cross-tabulation by year of graduation and sex indicated different patterns between associate and partner status percentages across the years for males and females. For males the difference between percentage frequency was very large for 1975 due to low associate and high partner percentages. This trend continued with decreases in the difference until 1980 when the pattern reversed: the percentage of associate responses was double that of partner responses (44% v. 20%). Female lawyers chose the two status responses with almost equal frequency for all years except 1980 where three times the number of females indicated associate status over partner status. Hence, females attain partnership status less frequently than males from the same graduating year.

8. Employee Benefits

Benefits received by practicing lawyers are summarized in Table 1. Most commonly received benefits for both sexes include: vacation (72%), dental (60%), medical (59%), parking (58%) and life insurance (53%). However, there are many differences between male and female

24. Chi-squared=25.1; $p < .005$.

respondents. A significantly higher percentage of males received commission/profit sharing, club membership and bonuses while a higher percentage of females received maternity leave and retirement pensions. The larger percentage of males receiving commission/profit sharing may reflect the finding that more males than females obtain partnership status (*supra*). The high percentage of females receiving retirement pension is unusual as this benefit is seldom given in private firms²⁵ and may therefore be related to the high percentage of females employed by government.

9. Salary

Average present income was \$56,954 (standard deviation \$34,803) for males and \$42,528 for females (standard deviation \$23,336). As suggested by the huge standard deviations, averages *per se* reveal little without considering year, type of employer and firm size.

Analysis of annual compensation by year of graduation and employer for the entire sample (see Figure 1) revealed relatively constant salaries for Alberta Government lawyers across the six years, whereas the average salary for self-employed and corporate lawyers fluctuated considerably. Law firm salaries climbed steadily from an average of \$40,000 for a 1980 graduate to \$75,000 for a 1975 graduate. Large standard deviation for each group indicates large individual differences in income.

Average annual compensation by size of work place, year of graduation and sex of graduate revealed the expected trend of generally increased compensation from the smallest to the largest workplace and from the 1980 to 1975 graduates (see Table 2).

Another trend was for lower female compensation in almost all years and workplace sizes with parity in only three instances. This disparity in salary was not obviated by the factor of status since at every level females appear to earn less than males despite the same status. In addition, comparison of initial compensation with present compensation of each sex by year and grade point average revealed lower starting salaries for females in all years except in 1978 and 1979 and lower present salaries for females across all categories of years and grade point averages. This is consistent with data from previous research on lawyers and other professions.²⁶

10. Grade Point Average

Frequency analysis of grade point average by employers revealed an excess of upper grade ranges within law firms especially for respondents with grade point averages of 7.0 and above. As grade point average decreased, the percentage of respondents within the self-employed and Attorney General's Department categories increased. The trends for males and females were similar with the exception of the provincial government; there the percentage of females for all grade categories except 5.8 and below was much higher than males. Within the category of

25. *Economic Survey of Canadian Law Firms*, 1982, conducted by Altman & Weil, Inc., in cooperation with the Canadian Bar Association, Ottawa, at p. 21.

26. J.C. Goyder, "Income Differences Between the Sexes: Findings from a National Canadian Survey" (1981) 18:3 *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology* 321.

5.8 and below, the percentage of females in law firms was triple that of males (80% v. 25%) and less than half that of males in the self-employed category (20% v. 50%).

Thus, it appears that: respondents with higher averages are attracted to private practice in law firms as opposed to government employment; an excess of females with averages of 5.8 and over are employed by the government; and females with averages below 5.8 are primarily employed by law firms and are not self-employed as are males with similar grades. However, these findings are extremely tenuous since the overall statistical analysis was non-significant.²⁷

Analysis by grade point average indicated that although salaries within the three lower categories of grade point average (6.9 and under) rarely differed by more than \$10,000, those within the 7.0 and above category differed by approximately \$15,000 for 1977 graduates and approximately \$30,000 for 1975 and 1976 graduates (see Figure 2).

IV. DISCUSSION

The personal and academic information obtained in the present research indicates few sex differences. Most lawyers have similar socio-economic backgrounds, obtain Bachelor degrees, receive similar grade point averages, have the same number of children and enter law school at approximately the same age. Differences, however, occur in marital status and maternity/paternity leave. Although the majority of lawyers are married, a higher proportion of females are either divorced or single. There is a difference of 9.7 weeks in maternity/paternity leave, which reflects biological, as opposed to employment factors.

Surprisingly, no significant differences²⁸ were obtained in the number of children males and females have, a finding inconsistent with other research. This suggests that females entering the legal profession after 1975 are not fitting the stereotype of childless female lawyers.

In direct contrast to the similarities between personal and academic factors, males and females show many differences in employment factors. Males, *in relation to females*, tend to: work longer hours (especially in very large firms); work more frequently on weekends; receive short-term benefits such as club membership, profit sharing and bonuses in contrast to females who obtain retirement pensions; spend more time practicing civil litigation, real estate, corporate and commercial law; obtain partner status sooner, and receive a larger salary.

Trends in the type of law practiced by year of graduation indicate a movement of females in the later graduating years into more male dominated areas of practice, although a large proportion of females still enter the practice of family law. However, type of law practiced was the only employment factor which showed a narrowing of the sex difference in the later graduating years.

Since females are overrepresented in categories which decrease annual compensation (i.e., fewer hours, government employment and lower

27. Chi-squared=43.6; $p < .17$.

28. Chi-squared=5.5; $p < .85$.

status in the firm), it may not be surprising that their salaries are generally lower. However, to ascertain if these factors account for the disparity, further statistical analysis of these data is required.²⁹ In addition, it would be necessary to determine why females are underrepresented in groups with partnership status. It is possible that females, due to their dual roles as mothers and lawyers, sacrifice money for shorter hours.³⁰ To support this assertion, evidence that female lawyers choose their positions on the basis of type of employer and hours rather than the reverse would need to be shown.

The most salient findings about U. of A. law graduates generally involve factors which influence annual compensation rates. Type of employer tends to determine not only the level of salary but also the rate of increase. Although lawyers who are employed by law firms or who are sole practitioners generally start at a lower rate of pay than provincial government or company lawyers, the rate of increase over the years is much larger. Interestingly, it appears that government lawyers hit a ceiling very quickly and remain at that level. Most salaries in the private sector either increase steadily or fluctuate dramatically. These findings seem consistent with the general structure of private versus public employment: public employment tends to provide a stable, secure rate of compensation plus long term benefits as opposed to higher, less secure rates of compensation in the private sector. The instability of private business compensation is illustrated by the wide fluctuations in salaries shown by self-employed lawyers across the years of graduation.

The disparity in annual compensation based upon grade point averages is of special interest. Viewed longitudinally, the data suggest that lawyers in the top ten percent have a much larger rate of increase than other lawyers in their graduating class. Since this large rate of increase is similar to that shown by law firms in general and a larger proportion of the top ten percent are employed by large law firms (which pay the largest salaries), it is possible that the rates reflect type of employer rather than academic aptitude *per se*. That is, success at law school provides admission into the law firms which provide the largest monetary compensation. It is also possible that lawyers making more money inflated their grade point average. Mark inflation has been found in previous research, however the proportion of lawyers within the 7.0 and above category was not higher than expected. Thus it does not appear likely that this finding of salary disparity is reflective of mark inflation.

Overall, the present data indicate that substantial differences exist between males and females in employment factors. Further research and analysis is required, however, to ascertain the underlying basis of these differences.

29. A multiple regression analysis to determine what effect factors such as hours worked, status in firm, type of employer, size of firm, years of practice and sex have on salary.

30. A.O. Quester and J. Olson, "Sex, Schooling, and Hours of Work" (1978) 58:4 *Social Science Quarterly* 566; Dranoff, *op. cit.*

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

The following areas are recommended for future research:

- (1) statistical investigation of differences in salaries between males and females by controlling for factors which influence salary;
- (2) comparative investigation of males and females within the same category of employer, status and salary to determine similarities and differences in academic and personal factors;
- (3) examination to determine why males and females are employed by different types of employers;
- (4) comparative examination of females with and without children to investigate possible role conflicts in the workplace;
- (5) investigation of sex differences in hours worked and the implications of this on career prospects and salaries;
- (6) examination of the partnership process in law firms; and
- (7) examination of hiring practices across size of law firm to determine the characteristics of lawyers hired.

TABLE 1
Type of Benefits Received by Respondents
According to Sex (N=465)

	Male	Female
Dental	216(60)*	48(48)
Medical	216(59)	51(51)
Vacation	262(72)	73(73)
No. of Weeks	2.28 weeks	2.28 weeks
Maternity/Paternity Leave	27(7)	42(42)
Parking	210(58)	57(57)
Retirement Pension	50(14)	27(27)
Disability Pension	150(41)	40(40)
Life Insurance	194(53)	48(48)
Bonuses	96(26)	14(14)
Commissions/Profit Sharing	133(36)	20(20)
Club Memberships	58(16)	5(5)
Sabbaticals	40(11)	7(7)
Other	32(9)	9(9)

* Percentages are indicated in brackets.

TABLE 2
Average Annual Compensation by Size of Workplace, Sex of Lawyer
and Year of Graduation

Year	Size of Workplace	Male		Female	
		Mean	(N)	Mean	(N)
1975	Small*	65,162	(28)	43,800	(5)
	Medium	61,136	(11)	48,000	(4)
	Large	98,333	(9)	85,000	(2)
	Very Large	112,000	(5)	60,125	(4)
1976	Small	56,902	(36)	62,166	(6)
	Medium	56,690	(10)	44,000	(2)
	Large	101,500	(10)	50,000	(1)
	Very Large	76,116	(9)	61,000	(2)
1977	Small	55,400	(15)	44,500	(4)
	Medium	68,702	(15)	44,500	(1)
	Large	84,600	(5)	55,000	(1)
	Very Large	89,833	(12)	67,500	(1)
1978	Small	49,944	(18)	37,400	(9)
	Medium	50,580	(20)	45,500	(4)
	Large	55,000	(13)	57,000	(2)
	Very Large	74,687	(8)	53,133	(3)
1979	Small	54,192	(26)	30,404	(11)
	Medium	49,200	(5)	46,000	(2)
	Large	63,785	(21)	45,112	(8)
	Very Large	67,557	(12)	52,700	(4)
1980	Small	45,400	(19)	25,142	(7)
	Medium	33,916	(6)	40,000	(2)
	Large	48,028	(14)	40,000	(2)
	Very Large	49,300	(5)	46,900	(3)

* Small = 1-4 lawyers
 Medium = 5-10 lawyers
 Large = 11-25 lawyers
 Very Large = 26 plus lawyers

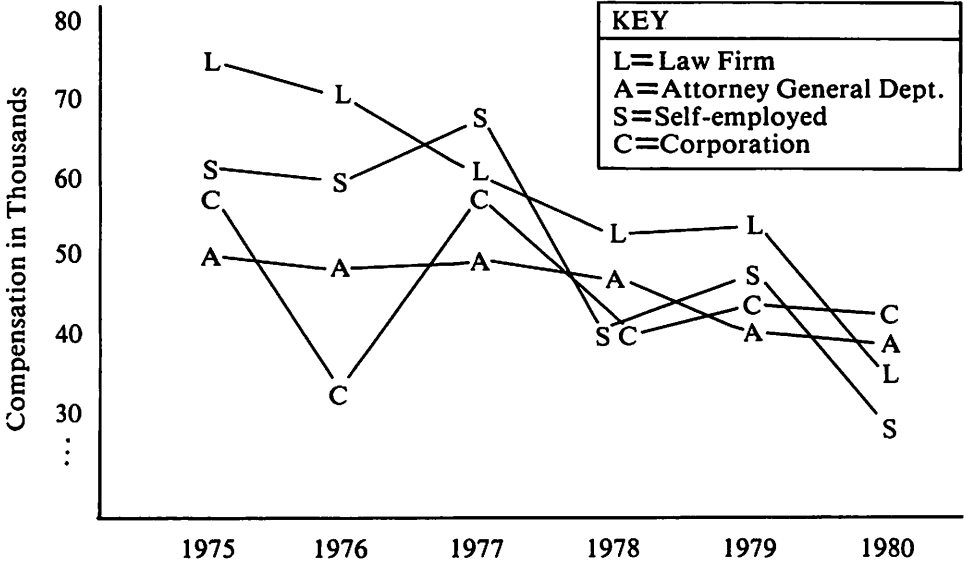


FIGURE 1: Total Annual Compensation By Type of Employer and Year of Graduation for Total Sample (N=473)

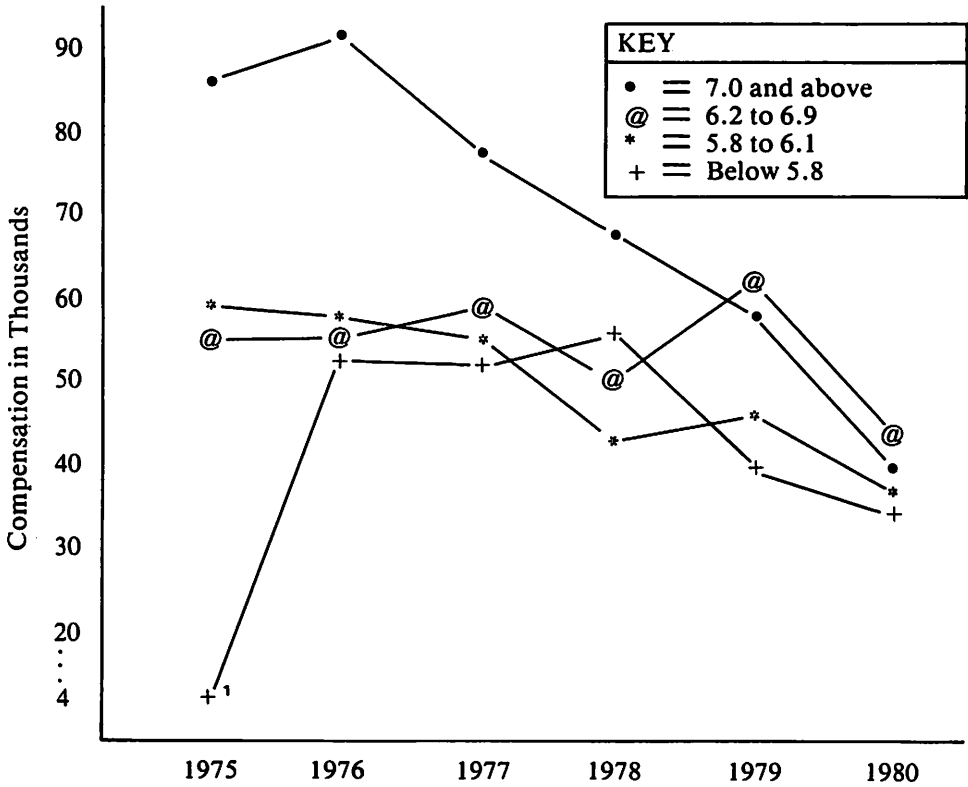


FIGURE 2: Total Annual Compensation by Grade Point Average and Year of Graduation for Total Sample (N=473)

¹ Only one person replied in this classification