

Professionals or Academics?

The Faculty Dynamics in Journalism and Mass Communication Education in the United States

By

Lee B. Becker & Tudor Vlad

University of Georgia, United States

&

Oana Stefanita

University of Georgia, United States,

and National University of Political Studies and Public Administration, Romania

Presented to the International Conference, Media and the Public Sphere: New Challenges in the Digital Era, June 18 & 19, University Lyon 2, Lyon, France.

Abstract

This paper draws on data across from 1999 to 2013 tracking the characteristics of faculty members of journalism and mass communication programs in the United States. It finds that the percentages of faculty holding an advanced degree, with tenure, and at the professorial rank have declined. The mean number of years of nonacademic professional experience has increased. Accreditation is shown to be a predictor of these changes.

Journalism education in the United States has had a split personality from its beginnings at the university level more than a century ago. One personality is focused on educating for the practice of journalism. The other is focused on analysis of that practice. The first has adopted over time a decidedly professional stance toward education, holding that education should be designed primarily to certify individuals to serve in the professional communication occupations. The other is more scholarly, drawing primarily from the social sciences and to a lesser extent from the humanities as a way to understand the practice of journalism.

These two personalities—often referred to in the United States as, respectively, the Missouri Model or the Wisconsin Model—are ideal types (Folkerts, 2014). Higher education in the United States has an applied orientation going back at least to the period after the Civil War, when the federal government encouraged states to create public institutions with the mission of educating for the workforce (Good, 1962). So the professionally oriented Missouri model and the academically focused Wisconsin model, in fact, were not polar opposites. Missouri students were to know more than just how to practice journalism. Wisconsin students were expected to know how to practice as well as how to understand journalism. The models also have evolved over time, particularly in response to the growth of public relations and advertising occupations in the United States. Many programs that initially focused almost exclusively on journalism instruction now include instruction for other communication occupations. Yet the tension between a practical, professional approach and a more analytical approach remains.

This tension, of course, is not unique to the United States. Around the world universities and other institutions of post-secondary education have struggled with how to treat journalism. Even within Europe there has been considerable variation, with, as one example, the more professional approach in The Netherlands being taken by specialized journalism schools and the more academic approach housed at the university. But, over time, change has taken place in Europe as well. And in Africa, as another example, the dominant approach has been to house journalism education at the university, and many of those programs incorporate the tension between the professional and academic focus.

This paper looks at the changes in American journalism education—more correctly now called journalism and mass communication education—over a period of time of dramatic change

in the both the academic world and the world of professional communication practice. It examines how the characteristics of the faculty—instructors—at university-based journalism and mass communication programs have changed. The particular focus is on the professional versus academic credentials of those faculty members. It ask whether the economic crisis, which had such dramatic impact on the practice of journalism in particular but on all communication occupations has contributed to change in the faculties. That economic crisis presented a cadre of professionals with experience and without work who would be appropriate educators in a professionally oriented program. Those professionals, however, would be unlikely to serve well a program with a strong academic orientation.

Universities and Economic Crisis

The faculty are the key component of an academic program, and its quality directly impacts students' education and careers. An optimal education is built with good faculty that has the skills, the resources and the determination constantly to get prepared, to learn, and to impart knowledge and insights to ensure the success of future workers. Universities have to constantly recruit and retain faculty to maintain the quality of their services (Orfield, 2011). Due to the financial context and budgetary cuts, during the time of the economic crisis, the focus of many academic programs has been on funding and fundraising. As a consequence, the quality of teaching has sometimes been affected, as less time has been spent for preparation. Furthermore, aspects such as salary, tenure, and promotion have been greatly influenced by the ability to obtain external funding in this context where universities have functioned more like businesses (Carlson, 2008). Since the aftermath of the economic crisis has been associated with declines in employment, the competition for occupying a full-time position and maintaining status has become tougher (Reinhart & Rogoff, 2009). Many universities have not been able to offer increases of the faculty salary during the crisis. Small improvements have been made after 2011. According to the Annual Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, 2013-14 (Curtis & Thornton, 2014), the salary for full-time faculty has increased by 2.2 percent, with the growth at private institutions being higher than that at public programs.

Budgetary cuts in the academia have also affected practices to increase faculty diversity in terms of race, ethnicity and gender. Diversity related measures require funds and - in times of

budgetary constraints - institutions may diminish the budget allocated to diversification efforts although the faculty and staff in universities should reflect the heterogeneity of the nation and of the students (American Federation of Teachers, 2011). Among full-time faculty, the majority in terms of race/ethnicity still consists of White non-Hispanics. They also are preponderantly males (U.S. Department of Education, 2014). An important aspect is that minorities are underrepresented in graduate programs, which limits the recruiting pool and sometimes negatively affects minority faculty's chances for promotion (Gasman, Abiola, & Travers, 2015). This is not true in terms of gender representation among students: in 2000, women earned more than half of the bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees, although they still comprise less than half of the instructional workforce (Trower & Chait, 2002). The underrepresentation of African-Americans faculty is a persistent issue in higher education. Moreover, those who occupy positions in the academia are mostly part of less prestigious universities, they are less likely to be tenured, they have lower academic ranks and spend more time on teaching and administrative tasks than on research (Allen et. all, 2000).

Although the college student population has a high level of diversity, retention of a diverse professoriate is low and does not reflect the composition of society or of the student body. Policies for increasing diversity in the higher education and offering equal opportunities play a role in diversification, but job satisfaction also is an important in choosing an academic path. Studies show that women and African-American faculty are less satisfied with their jobs than male and White faculty and more determined to choose different professional opportunities (Trower & Chait, 2002, Seifert & Umbach, 2007). While faculty development and diversity initiatives have registered some successes over the years, some factors (such as insufficient resources, lack of administrative support, competing priorities, indifference or complacency, faculty members' hostility or fears that increasing diversity will lead to a loss of autonomy and authority in classrooms) undermine them (Musil, 2000).

The employment trends in universities also have changed in last years. Data from the U.S. Department of Education's biennial census of institutional employees indicate higher levels of growth in the number of part-time faculty members, full-time non-tenure faculty and graduate student employees (Curtis & Thornton, 2014). In 1970, almost 80 percent of the faculty in

American universities were employed full-time. By 2007 that percentage dropped to around 50. Another change has been the increase in full-time faculty that are not on a tenure track and that receive lower wages. The percentage was almost double than in 1970 (Curtis & Thornton, 2014). The vast majority of adjunct do not have a background of specialists or practitioners in the profession for which they train others, which might affect the students in terms of learning and acquiring the necessary skills (American Association of University Professors, 2005).

The consequences of the economic crisis of 2008 have impacted the students on a large scale, as they have to deal with difficulties in financing their studies, debts, fewer career options, unemployment, and lower wages after graduation. Under these circumstances, those students with financial difficulties have started questioning their goal of pursuing a college degree and applying for loans (Berg-Cross & Green, 2010). The economic difficulties and uncertainties have affected the higher education system through falling enrollments, widespread budget and staffing reductions, canceled programs and services which were detrimental to students. In this context, universities have been challenged to explain the increase in student fees and promote the positive effects of undergraduate and graduate education in terms of employability and future opportunities that would compensate for their investment (Chabotar, 2010). Due to the impact of the economic crisis, higher education has struggled with declining funds, budget cuts, reorganization and personnel layoffs as a result of the recession (Lounder et. all, 2011). Even prestigious private institutions have been affected by the economic hardship and a common response to the crisis has been raising the tuition fees (Morris, 2009).

Enrollments in journalism and mass communication programs declined in the fall of 2013, in a trend that marks the third year of decreasing enrollments from the previous year (Becker, Vlad & Simpson, 2014). Undergraduate enrollments decreased sharply at the freshmen and sophomore levels but were up more modestly at the junior and the senior levels. The percentages of students enrolled in the journalism specialization decreased in the autumn of 2013 compared with a year earlier. The percentage of students in public relations and advertising remained largely unchanged. The highest rates of enrollments in journalism and mass communication programs were in 2010. Nationally, university enrollments slightly declined in 2011, the last year for which national data are available, but these enrollments are expected to

increase slightly in the years to come. The drop in enrollments is significant, but not unprecedented. This is the first time, however, when undergraduate enrollments have declined three years in a row going back to 1988. Undergraduate enrollments declined year to year only four times prior to 2010.

According to the same survey, master's enrollments in journalism and mass communication declined 1.2 percent in the fall of 2013 compared with a year earlier. That drop followed a decline of 2.6 percent a year earlier and 9.4 percent the year before that. But master's level enrollments had increased dramatically in 2010 compared with a year earlier. The growth rate was a positive 13.4 percent. Master's level enrollment are generally more sensitive to the labor market than undergraduate enrollments. Many students stay in the market when it is strong and opt to return for master's degrees when the market is weak as a way of waiting out that market.

A survey of journalism and mass communication programs following two years of the global crisis showed that academic departments' operating budgets had dipped (Becker, Vlad & Desnoes, 2010). After that year, the financial situation at journalism and mass communication programs has somewhat improved (Becker, Vlad & Simpson, 2014). In 2013, one quarter of the programs reported an increase in their operating budget and more than half reported no changes in their budgets. More than eight out of 10 administrators reported no hiring freeze at their universities, and none of them said there was any discussion of elimination of their programs. The new changes in the media environment have brought with them the need for reskilling the journalists and for rethinking the journalism and mass communication curricula. Journalism education has struggled to follow the changes in the industry and to adapt the curricula to the new media landscape, teaching additional skills like web design or other skills that are applicable in an online environment. If they are not successful in this transition, journalism programs risk losing credibility and deepen the gap between theory and practice (Mensing, 2010).

According to their administrators, journalism and mass communication programs have continued to engage in a number of strategies to update their curricula in 2013, the most recent year for which data are available, to reflect changes in the media landscape. More than nine in 10 administrators in 2013 reported their programs taught skills such as: writing for the web, using

the web in reporting, and using social media. The percentage of administrators who reported changes in the curricula in 2010, 2011 and 2012 was about 80 (Becker, Vlad & Simpson, 2013). The changes most frequently mentioned were: broadening courses to include multi-media, adding social media courses, merging journalism curricula by combining print and broadcast, and creating strategic communication specializations. Many administrators said that, once their budgets and hiring ceased to be frozen, they started hiring faculty that are able to teach these new skills and specializations.

Media and Economic Crisis

When the international economic crisis started in 2008, no one knew how the media outlets were going to be affected, how the journalists would have to adapt, or how the students and the educational system were to be impacted by the harsh economic conditions. In addition to the economic crisis, the media were dealing with another crisis determined by the transformations brought by the digital evolution and the resultant challenges (Medina & Barron, 2013). One of the important changes was the shift to free online content (Hartley, 2010). The print media were the most affected, losing the engagement of the readers and much of the advertising revenues (Mutter, 2012). For example, newspaper revenues dropped by 23 percent in 2007 and 2008, and by more than 25 percent in 2009. Also, there were numerous newspaper bankruptcies, and print advertising decreased nearly 50 percent from 2007 through 2009 (Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2010).

A sharp decline affected the entertainment media as well, resulting in loss of financing for projects and unemployment. As an example, entertainment media jobs declined by 7.7 percent between 2005 and 2010 in the Los Angeles metropolitan region, which is one of the most important U.S. national movie and television employment centers (Christopherson, 2013). The crisis caused a decline in local and specialized television production and affected the audiovisual budgets and jobs in the field (Steemers, 2010). It has also determined a reassessment of television advertising in the context of expanding online media opportunities. Adjustments are now a necessity as the industries that brought the revenues through television advertising cut their expenditures and struggled with financial loss (Lotz, 2010). As advertising is one of the sectors highly influenced by economic changes, and advertising investments have therefore

decreased, the media market was strongly affected by the loss of revenues. The recession caused media companies to rethink traditional strategies and develop new and low-cost content, affecting the overall quality of media products and services (Medina & Barrón, 2013). The crisis has caused an irreversible shift of advertising from print media and television to the internet. The fragmented audiences, the non-linear consumption that is less valuable to advertisers since the commercial impact is reduced, and the rich offer of online content didn't help in recovering the lost advertising revenues (Barnett, 2009).

Another key consequence of the economic crisis has been the massive loss of jobs in the media industries. According to Erica Smith's *Paper Cuts* infographic (as cited in Deuze, Elefante & Steward, 2010), 34,666 lost jobs were registered only in the newspaper industry between June 2007 and March 2010. (The site itself is no longer being updated.) An estimated 5,900 full-time jobs were cut in U.S. newspaper newsrooms in both 2008 and 2009 (Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2009, 2010). The drop in the number of journalists in newsrooms has slowed down after 2010, and new business models, especially in nonprofit digital journalism, are emerging (Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2015).

Besides being forced to reduce salaries and to fire experienced personnel, many newspapers ceased printing their editions and moved online, trying to develop new business plans adapted to the digital age (Weinhold, 2008, Challinor, 2013). As the digital and mobile ad revenues have not covered the loss, online editions had to come up with new business plans, adopt web subscriptions or develop paywall plans in order to survive (Project for Excellence in Journalism, 2013). In the late years, new journalism practices and models begun to develop as citizen journalism or independent platforms developed through crowd sourcing (Young, 2010). However, these new types of journalism might not be a proper substitute for the traditional press, which had been dedicated to a higher degree to serving the public interest and monitoring the government, supporting thus the functioning of democracy (Gamse, 2011). Moreover, the control over content, resources and storytelling has shifted away from professionals towards audiences and corporations, leading to a degradation of the journalistic content (Deuze, Elefante & Steward, 2010). Also, as the newspapers circulation has declined, news consumption has changed, and fewer people are turning now to traditional news organizations as a first source.

The public's interests are more personalized and curiosity-driven, and fewer people are interested in foreign news or even serious domestic news (Hodgson, 2000). As the consumer's profile has changed and the focus is less on text and more on immediate access to information that combines audio, video, animation and social media, consumers have turned to other sources that offer what they want (World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers, 2009).

In this context of pressure determined by the internet and the economic crisis, media outlets have started charging for online content or offer package deals for a specific cost in order to survive (Spivak, 2011). In the networked and mobile media landscape, software developers have started controlling the audiences and revenues. Furthermore, audiences now have access to a variety of tools to produce and distribute content, so they can become disseminators of information, replacing the traditional media roles (Doherty, 2012). Thus, important challenges for the media industries exist in the shift from mass content to niche and user-generated content, increasing competition, declining advertising revenues and adapting to working with limited resources (Deuze, Elefante & Steward, 2010).

The recession, along with the changes brought by the internet, has brought about a historic restructuring in the U.S. newspaper industry. Although media companies are experimenting with new business models, newspapers still depend mostly on advertising in terms of revenues, while print readership has continued to fall (Kirchhoff, 2011). However, according to the World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers (2013), the negative trend in print media has deepened in the U.S. and Europe, while in Asia and Latin America the print circulation has had a steady or positive trend.

Journalism Education

Discussion of educating journalists at American Universities began after the American Civil War, which was a period of dramatic change in American Higher Education. Even prior to the War, which began on April 12, 1861, there had been numerous efforts to pass legislation that would provide to the states federal lands to be used for the creation of universities assigned the mission of educating farmers, mechanics and working people in general (Good; 1962). In 1862, as the war raged, Congress passed the Morrill Act, which added military training to the list of goals of the land grant institutions, as the universities created through these grants of federal land

came to be called. Cremin (1980) argues that the Morrill Act of 1862 was not so much an instigator as a culmination of a drift in American higher education toward practical instruction. That act, he says, was pivotal in accelerating the movement toward utilitarianism in the liberal arts curriculum (p. 406). Veysey (1965) notes that public opinion was not always supportive, and that religious groups in particular were often in opposition.

So it was in this environment that Washington College (later Washington and Lee University) began training in printing in 1869, four years after the Civil War ended (Emery & McKerns, 1987). Kansas State College began offering instruction in printing in 1873, and the University of Missouri offered courses journalism in 1878. A curriculum in journalism was begun at the University of Pennsylvania in 1893, with Indiana University, University of Iowa, Kansas University, University of Michigan, University of Nebraska, and Ohio State University all offering one or more journalism class prior to 1900 (Emery & McKerns, 1987).

The University of Wisconsin, under the direction of Willard G. Bleyer, began teaching journalism classes in 1904 and developed a formal curriculum in journalism the following year (Emery & McKerns, 1987). Bleyer, who had a doctorate in English, embedded the journalism program in the university, arguing that learning to think critically was an essential part of every course, including the courses also designed to teach basic skills. The basic course in newswriting and reporting ought to include instruction in writing and news gathering techniques, but also should include an intensive study of news and its significance (Bronstein and Vaughn, 1998).

Walter Williams established the first School of Journalism in the United States in 1908 at the University of Missouri. Williams, a printer and newspaperman without a college degree, had as his goal the training of journalists for newspaper work (Sloan, 1990). Modeled after professional training in law and medicine, the curriculum focused on the skills needed for practice. Lecture classes were to be supplemented by clinical training in the laboratory. While Bleyer was a critic of the press and developed a curriculum to reflect that, Williams was a member of the press, and his curriculum was designed for that press.

Central to the debate about the nature of journalism education was the question of who should teach the classes (Crook, 1995). The Wisconsin approach, reflecting Bleyer's own education, focused on putting scholars in the classroom who could teach the skills but also

provide the critical perspective of distance from that occupation. The professors were expected to do research that focused on the press in society. The Missouri model focused on practical experience as a key credential, with scholarly performance unnecessary.

Instruction in advertising was a part of the Missouri curriculum from the founding of the School of Journalism in 1908. (Folkerts, 2014). Public relations was first taught at an American University in 1923. That course was offered by New York University's journalism department (Folkerts, 2014). Early journalism programs were focused on training for print journalism, but the University of Minnesota offered a course in radio script writing in 1936 (Folkerts, 2014). Broadcast courses were offered by departments of speech and of English, but also by departments of journalism. In 1982, the dominant association in journalism education in the United States, changed its name from the Association for Education in Journalism to the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, reflecting the growth in instruction and enrollment in courses in non-journalism courses (Emery and McKerns, 1987).

Despite the changes in the field, the tension between the more scholarly Wisconsin Model and the more practically focused Missouri Model has persisted, even at those two institutions. And much of the criticism of journalism education—and even journalism and mass communication education—has this divide at its core. The very strident criticism of journalism education by John S. and James L. Knight Foundation since 2005 argues for the very practical instruction represented by the approach of the University of Missouri since its founding and against the more scholarly and critical stance of the Wisconsin Model. Folkerts (2014) attributes to Knight Foundation adviser Eric Newton the idea that it even is possible to run a teaching hospital—his model for journalism education—without research, so certainly it should be possible to run a journalism program without such an undertaking.

Expectations

The dramatic changes in the overall landscape of higher education, coupled with the very specific changes in the field of journalism in the last decade, such that the last 15 years might well be a period of dramatic change in journalism and mass communication education as well. Specifically, we expect the following changes to take place.

H1 : The percentage of full-professors should decline, as faculty as senior faculty retire and new faculty are replaced at a lower rate.

H2: The percentage of faculty with tenure should decline, as universities attempt to change the tenure restrictions through hiring of people on contract or without tenure.

H3: The percentage of faculty with a doctorate should decline, as the field focuses more on professional credentials and employees more retired professionals.

H4: The average number of years of non-academic professional experience of faculty should increase, as the field focuses more on professional credentials and the labor market provides a supply of professionals.

H5: The percentage of faculty with a narrow teaching specialty in journalism should decline, as journalism decline is popularity among students and the other fields become more popular.

H6: The age of the professoriate should increase, as senior, retired professionals are hired.

H7: The average number of years of experience teaching at the university should decline, as senior, retired professionals are hired to replace senior faculty with years of teaching experience.

H8: The average number of years at the same university for faculty should decline, as retired professionals are hired to replace retiring faculty members.

H9: The percentage of faculty who are female should increase, reflecting the demands of a female student body, societal pressure to diversify faculty, and increased availability of female for faculty positions.

H10: The percentage of faculty who represents racial and ethnic minorities should increase, reflecting demands of an increasingly diverse student body, societal pressure to diversity faculty, and the increased availability of faculty who are classified as racial and ethnic minorities.

H11: Salaries of faculty should increase, reflecting inflation and general patterns within the university.

H12: Salary increases year-to-year should show the impact of overall economic conditions, dropping sharply during the period of the economic crisis of 2008-2009.

Methodology

Data collected through the Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass Communication Annual Faculty Salary Survey for 15 years, from 1999 to 2013, were used for

this analysis. ASJMC members do not represent the overall field of journalism and mass communication education, but it is an identifiable part of that field. As the most recent ASJMC Salary Report shows (Becker & Vlad, 2015), ASJMC programs are large and have a stronger historical tie to journalism than do journalism and mass communication programs overall.

Because the data are not a probability sample, no statistical tests are used in the analyses that follow. Rather, the analysis focuses on patterns of change across time.

The survey instrument used for the Faculty Salary Survey was similar throughout the analyzed period, from 1999 to 2014 (Becker & Vlad, 2015). The instrument identification codes were standardized to allow a linkage with the characteristics of the program measured in the Annual Survey of Journalism & Mass Communication Enrollments, which provides data on journalism and mass communication education (Becker, Vlad & Simpson, 2013).

The salary survey document includes two forms. Form 1 asked about budgets for faculty salaries. A second form (Form 2) asked for individual faculty salaries in spreadsheet format. Form 2 asked administrators, for each faculty line, to indicate annual salary, appointment period, salary increase (from the previous year), major field of interest (of the faculty member), and demographic characteristics.

The salary survey instrument (consisting of Form 1 and Form 2) was mailed each year to the domestic ASJMC members from the James M. Cox Jr. Center for International Mass Communication Training and Research at the University of Georgia. The forms were provided both in print and electronic versions. In the most recent years, the correspondence told administrators it also was possible to complete Form 1 and Form 2 online. Follow-up mailings were sent three times to nonresponding ASJMC members. Some ASJMC members indicated during this process that they did not wish to provide data for the ASJMC survey. Administrators of ASJMC programs who did not respond to these four requests were sent multiple email prompts after the fourth mailing—unless they had indicated an unwillingness to participate, in an effort to obtain data from as many ASJMC members as possible. The return rates of the forms providing data on the budget of the unit (Form 1) and on individual faculty salary data (Form 2) are shown in Appendix 1.

The data for this paper came from Form 2. Administrators were asked to provide data on

the total salary received as part of a contract or an assignment, and the number of months for each normal contract or assignment period; data on salary increases in the last year and new hires. The Salary Survey instrument asked administrators to report the actual salary for each full-time faculty member listed, but to exclude compensation for optional assignments, such as for summer teaching. The form included data on academic ranks (Full Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, and Instructor or Lecturer; teaching specialty (Advertising, Broadcasting, News-editorial, Public Relations, and Combined responsibilities); highest degree (Bachelor, Master, Doctorate or other); years of full-time teaching; years of full-time professional; and years at their current university. The form asked about demographic characteristic as well, including age, gender, and race/ethnicity (African-American not Hispanic, African-American Hispanic, Hispanic not African-American, Native American, Asian American, Pacific Islander American, White not Hispanic, Other, and Not American Citizen).

Data from the Annual Survey of Journalism & Mass Communication Enrollments were used to classify the ASJMC programs in terms of accreditation by the Accrediting Council on Journalism and Mass Communication Education, control, type of institution, and region of the country. Control was taken from the Carnegie Foundation data file. Regions of the country also were taken from the Annual Survey of Journalism & Mass Communication Enrollments: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. These data from the Annual Survey of Journalism and Mass Communication Enrollments were incorporated into the file made available by ASJMC for analysis.

Universities can be classified in many different ways to reflect their different missions. This study employs a single measure of university type, namely the Basic Classification scheme of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Carnegie classification scheme. The Basic Classification is an update of the classification framework developed by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education in 1970 and released in 1973 for use by others. The 2010 Carnegie scheme classifies colleges and universities based on degrees granted, research activity and mission. These are: Research Universities (Very High Research Activity), Research Universities (High Research Activity), Doctoral/Research Universities, Master's Colleges and Universities (Larger Programs), Master's Colleges and Universities (Medium Programs),

Master's Colleges and Universities (Smaller Programs), Baccalaureate Colleges--Arts & Sciences, Baccalaureate Colleges--Diverse Fields, Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges, Special Focus Institutions, and Tribal Colleges. For the purposes of this report, the Carnegie 2010 scheme has been collapsed to three categories: (1) Research Universities Very High Research Activity, (2) Research Universities High Research Activity and Doctoral/Research Universities, and (3) Master's Colleges & Universities and Baccalaureate Colleges.

The return rates for individual faculty salary data for each category as well as for programs that were accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications and nonaccredited programs, from public and private institutions can be seen in Appendix 1. The data available for analysis, in sum, come from a subset of ASJMC programs and are biased in favor of Research and Doctoral Universities, programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, and programs at public institutions.

Findings

Chart 1 shows that the percentage of faculty with the rank of (full) professor has declined over the 15 years for which data are available. The change is not overly dramatic, but, in 1999, 29.6 percent of the faculty in journalism and mass communication programs were at the rank of professor, and that figure was 25.2 percent in 2013. That year–2013–showed a surprising increase. A year earlier only 22.4 percent of the journalism and mass communication faculty members were at the professor rank. What has increased instead is the percentage of faculty holding the rank of instructor. The percentage of associate professors also has declined slightly, but the percentage at the assistant professor level has remained relatively consistent. These data are consistent with the expectation stated as H1.

Also as predicted, Chart 2 shows a decline in the percentage of faculty with tenure, that is, a life-long employment contract. At most American universities, tenure comes with promotion from assistant professor to associate professor, so the data in Chart 2 are consistent with the data in Chart 1, which shows a decline in the percentage of faculty at the professor and associate professor ranks.

Also consistent with expectations, Chart 3 shows a decline in the percentage of faculty

holding a doctorate as the final academic degree. In the 15-year-period for which data are available, the percentage of the faculty with a doctorate dropped from 61.0 percent to 55.3 percent. The percentages of faculty with a master's degree and a bachelor's degree increased correspondingly.

While there has been some fluctuation over the years, the overall picture shown in Chart 4 is for an increase in the average number of years of full-time professional experience over the study period. As expected, the average has increased markedly in the years after the economic crisis and the corresponding availability of communication professionals with experience and without jobs. The decline in the 2008 to 2010 period in the average may reflect retirements at a time when universities could not hire replacements. Certainly in recent years, hiring and retirements have been of the sort to increase the average number of years of non-academic professional experience of the faculty. The trend going back to the beginning of the 15-year-period is of that increase.

The teaching specialties of the faculty have changed during that time period as well. Faculty with a specialization in broadcasting and news editorial (print) journalism have declined, while with other specializations and combined specializations have increased. This decline in broadcasting and print journalism is expected, but there is little evidence of an increase in faculty with public relations and advertising as a specialty. All of the movement is moderate, however, making it difficult in the period of time to see clear evidence of dramatic change.

Change in Chart 6 also is moderate, but the professoriate has gotten older over the last 15 years. The mean age was 49.6 in 1999, but it was 52.2 in 2013. This is counter to expectation. It suggests that as senior professionals are hired, they actually help to increase the age of the faculty, not bring it down. These hires are not the type that would bring new vigor and creativity to the faculty teaching, research and service enterprises.

The average number of years of teaching experience of the journalism and mass communication faculty has declined (Chart 7), as predicted, but the most recent years have brought about a reverse in that trend. The explanation is not clear, but the data are not consistent with the argument that the faculties of journalism and mass communication programs are being replenished with new, younger faculty. Similarly, Chart 8 does not suggest that a new, mobile

group of faculty is being hired in these programs.

As predicted, the journalism and mass communication faculties have become more female (Chart 9), reflecting general societal trends of an increased presence of women in the workforce. The faculty also has become more diverse in terms of race and ethnicity (Chart 10), consistent with expectation.

Salaries paid to the faculty have increased, over the period of the study, as shown in Chart 11. In 1999 the mean salary of a faculty member was \$52,785. That figure was \$77,338 in 2013. The trend is consistent over the period, as was expected. The percentage of increase for continuing faculty has been very inconsistent, reflecting the impact of the economic crisis rather clearly, as shown in Chart 12. The explanation for the increase in salaries over time in Chart 11 and the drop in the percent of increase in Chart 12 probably is that new hires even during the most difficult time received higher salaries than they were replacing. The dependent variable mean salary increase is only applicable for those faculty who are in at least their second year of employment. And the average percent of salary increase bottomed out at 1 percent in 2009. There was never a period of decline.

Supplemental Analysis

No hypotheses were offered regarding characteristics of the journalism and mass communication programs that might mitigate the relationships that were predicted. Across time, changes were most consistent for four variables, rank of the professor, tenure status of the professor, final degree held by the professor, and average number of years of professional experience. Change was predicted in all four of these variables (Hypotheses 1-4), and the data were supportive of those expectations.

To further understand those changes, three possible mitigating variables were analyzed. These were accreditation status, that is, whether the program was accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, type of control, that is, whether it was a private or a publicly funded institution, or type of educational mission of the institution. Universities can be classified in many different ways to reflect their different missions. This analysis employs a single measure of university type, namely the Basic Classification scheme of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The Basic Classification is an update

of the classification framework developed by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education in 1970 and released in 1973 for use by others. The 2010 Carnegie scheme classifies colleges and universities based on degrees granted, research activity and mission. These are: Research Universities (Very High Research Activity), Research Universities (High Research Activity), Doctoral/Research Universities, Master's Colleges and Universities (Larger Programs), Master's Colleges and Universities (Medium Programs), Master's Colleges and Universities (Smaller Programs), Baccalaureate Colleges--Arts & Sciences, Baccalaureate Colleges--Diverse Fields, Baccalaureate/Associate's Colleges, Special Focus Institutions, and Tribal Colleges. For the purposes of this report, the Carnegie 2010 scheme has been collapsed to three categories: (1) Research Universities Very High Research Activity, (2) Research Universities High Research Activity and Doctoral/Research Universities, and (3) Master's Colleges & Universities and Baccalaureate Colleges. Control of institutions is part of the Carnegie database, and it was used here. The accreditation status of the journalism and mass communication programs was taken from the Journalism and Mass Communication Directory, published each year by the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC, 2014).

Chart 13 shows that accredited institutions showed more decline in the percentage of its journalism and mass communication faculty members who held the rank of professor or associate professor than did programs not accredited by ACEJMC. Public institutions showed a larger drop than did private institutions (Chart 14). While all types of universities, based on the Carnegie classification, experienced a decline in the percentage of faculty in the top ranks, the decline was greatest for the liberal arts institutions and least for the top research universities (Chart 15).

Accredited programs showed a much steeper decline in the percentage of their faculty with tenure than did the nonaccredited programs, as shown in Chart 16. Both private and public institutions saw big declines in the percentage of faculty with tenure (Chart 17). The data in Chart 18 show that the top research universities showed the biggest decline in the percentage of faculty with tenure, followed by liberal arts institutions and institutions with a more moderate research focus. All saw significant declines.

While accredited programs showed a decline in faculty with a doctorate during the 15

years of the study, accredited programs actually saw this figure increase (Chart 19). Public institutions have had only a moderate decline in the percentage of faculty with a doctorate, while private institutions have shown considerable fluctuation and have ended with a sharp drop in recent years (Chart 20). Type of institution has had little impact on change in final degree held by faculty in journalism and mass communication programs (Chart 21). All have shown declines.

Accredited programs have seen rather consistent increases in the mean number of years of full-time communication professional experience of its faculty, while non-accredited programs have had more fluctuation, with 2010 being a particularly unusual year (Chart 22). Overall the non-accredited programs have actually shown a slight decline in the mean number of years of professional experience of its faculty. Both private and public institutions have seen an increase in the mean number of years of professional experience, with the increases noticeably greater for the private institutions (Chart 23). Top research universities have seen the greatest increase in the mean number of years of professional experience (Chart 24), with universities with less of a research focus and with a liberal arts focus showing more modest increases (Chart 24).

Across all four comparisons, accreditation has had the most significant and consistent effect. Accredited programs showed greater declines in faculty with the top academic ranks, with tenure and with a doctorate as the final degree. And accredited programs were more likely to show an increase in the mean number of years of professional experience. In general, the type of control had less of a consistent effect. Public institutions had greater declines in the percentage of faculty in the top ranks and less of a decline in the percentage with a doctorate. Public institutions overall showed less change in terms of the mean number of years of their faculty professional experience. Type of institutions based on the Carnegie classification also showed inconsistent results across time. Research institutions showed smaller declines in the percentage of faculty at the association or professor ranks but the greatest declines in the percentage of faculty with tenure. Research universities showed the largest drops in faculty with a doctorate and the greatest increase in the mean number of years of professional experience of its faculty.

Earlier analyses using these data of the predictive power of these three variables in explaining changes in faculty diversity, both in terms of gender and in terms of racial and ethnic

characteristics, had shown the variables did not explain the overall pattern of increased diversification. The dramatic change in the percentage of faculty who are female shown in Chart 9 here was not different for accredited, public or the different types of universities. That also was true for the change in racial and ethnic diversity shown in Chart 10.

This paper looks at salary and salary increase (Charts 11 and 12 respectively) as variables that changed over time. Predictions had been made for both of these variables, and the data are consistent with the expectations. These two types of compensation are rewards for faculty performance, and it is reasonable to ask which of the other characteristics of faculty shown in Charts 1-10 best predict to allocation of those rewards.

To answer that question, both of these compensation or reward variables were regressed on the other variables shown in Charts 1-10. Teaching specialty was converted to a dummy variable (with other as the dummy). An additional variable was created to reflect whether the faculty member had an administrative assignment. Both salary and increase in salary percent then was regressed on the potential predictor variables reflected in Charts 1-10 plus administration. The predictor variables were blocked, with the first block consisting of administration status, years at the university, rank, age, tenure, and years of teaching experience. The second block, was made up of the dummied measures of field, years of professional experience, and degree. This block is most interesting theoretically, for it shows the impact of the forces most under the control of labor market forces. The third block consisted of minority status and gender.

This analysis shows for salary that each block added a significant amount of additional variance. The R square increased from .380 with the first block to .384 with the addition of the second block and .385 with the third block. The adjusted R squares were .379, .384 and .385 respectively. In the final equation, tenure, age, years at the university, years teaching, rank, and administrative assignment (all from block 1) matter. All of these are positive predictors except for years at the university. In the second block, degree was a negative predicted. The higher the degree, the lower the salary. Also in that block, years of professional experience is not a significant predictor. Pay is lower if the specialty is broadcasting/telecommunications or news-editorial (print) journalism, slightly lower for public relations and higher for advertising and for

those with combined responsibilities. In the final equation, minorities remains a significant predictor, with minorities getting paid more. Gender is not a significant predictor, but the direction is toward higher compensation for males. (The use of significance here as a way of flagging the relations is wholly arbitrary, since the data are not probabilistically selected from the population. That standard has not been used in the charts, where it is possible to identify patterns more straightforwardly.)

The dependent variable mean salary increase is only applicable for those faculty who are in at least their second year of employment. Once again, the regression analysis shows that the first block of variables significantly predicts to the mean salary increase. The second block, in this case, does not, but the third block (minority status and gender) does. The R square for the first block was a very small .019. The R square for the second block was unchanged. The R square for the third block was .020. The adjusted R square for the equation after entry of the first block was 0.19, and that figure remained unchanged after introduction of the second and the third blocks. In the final equation, all of the variables except for years at the university were significant predictors, but only administrative status was a positive predictor. In the final equation, none of the variables in the second block was a significant predictor, except for the dummy for the broadcasting specialty (negative). In the final block, minority status was the only significant predictor, but here it was negative. Minorities got lower salary increases than nonminorities.

Conclusions

This paper looks at the changes in U.S. journalism and mass communication education over a period of time of dramatic turmoil in both the academic world and the professional communication industries. It examines how the characteristics of the faculty have changed, with a focus on the professional versus academic credentials.

The paper hypothesized a decline in the percentage of full-professors, the percentage of faculty with tenure and with a doctorate, the percentage of faculty with a narrow teaching specialty in journalism, the average number of years of teaching experience, and the average number of years at the same university. At the same time, it predicted an increase in the average

number of years of non-academic professional experience of faculty, the age of the professoriate, the percentage of faculty who are female or who represents racial and ethnic minorities, and the faculty salaries (except for the period of the economic crisis of 2008-2009).

The data for the analysis have been collected through the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication Annual Faculty Salary Survey for 15 years, from 1999 to 2013. Administrators were asked to provide data on the total salary received, data on salary increases and new hires, as well as data on academic ranks, teaching specialty, highest degree, years of full-time teaching, years of full-time professional, years at their current university, and demographic characteristic including age, gender, and race/ethnicity.

Data show that the percentage of full-professors, the percentage of faculty with tenure,¹ the percentage of faculty holding a doctorate as the final academic degree and faculty with a specialization in broadcasting and news editorial (print) journalism have declined as expected. The average number of years of teaching experience also has declined as predicted, but the most recent years have brought about a reverse in that trend. The average number of years of full-time professional experience over the study period has increased as expected, markedly in the years after the economic crisis. The faculty also has become more diverse in terms of gender, race and ethnicity, consistent with the expectations. Counter to the initial expectation, the faculty have gotten older over the last 15 years, as more senior professionals have been hired. Salaries paid to the faculty have increased over the period of the study, although the percentage of growth has been very inconsistent, reflecting the impact of the economic crisis.

Across time, changes have been most consistent for four variables – academic rank, tenure status, final degree held by the professor, and average number of years of professional experience. To further understand the changes, three possible mitigating variables were analyzed -- accreditation status, Carnegie classification university type, and type of control of the institutions. Across all four comparisons, accreditation has had the most significant and consistent effect. Accredited programs have showed greater declines in faculty with higher academic ranks, with tenure and with a doctorate as the final degree. Accredited programs also have been more likely to show an increase in the mean number of years of professional experience. In general, the type of control and the type of institutions based on the Carnegie

classification have had less of a consistent effect. Public institutions have had greater declines in the percentage of senior faculty and less of a decline in the percentage with a doctorate. Research institutions have shown smaller declines in the percentage of faculty at the associate or full professor ranks but the greatest declines in the percentage of faculty with tenure. Research universities have shown the largest drops in faculty with a doctorate and the greatest increase in the mean number of years of professional experience of its faculty.

These three mitigating variables—accreditation, control, and type of university—are not independent of each other, so it is difficult to argue that accreditation alone is producing these changes. What is clear is that accreditation as the single predictor is most consistent. That finding suggests that accreditation as a force in journalism and mass communication education is worthy of additional critical assessment. It seems that accreditation is pushing the U.S. journalism and mass communication educational system more in the direction of the Missouri than the Wisconsin model. Wisconsin, in fact, has dropped out of the accreditation process, protesting the constraints placed on it by the accrediting standards. These data suggest that those standards direct journalism and mass communication programs to adopt faculty hiring and retention procedures that make those programs more professional and less academic in nature. Without the scholarship that comes from hiring and promoting faculty with advanced degrees and with tenure, the journalism and mass communication programs cannot contribute to the central mission of the university envisioned by the advocates of the Wisconsin model.

The paper has also looked at the salary and salary increase as variables that have changed over time. These two variables were regressed on the other variables analyzed in the study to see which of the other characteristics of faculty best predict variability in the allocation of salary. The predictor variables were blocked, with the first block consisting of administration status years at the university, rank, age, tenure, and years of teaching experience. The regression analysis shows that all of these variables matter and significantly predict the mean salary increase. The second block was made up of the measures of field, years of professional experience, and degree. The years of professional experience were not a significant predictor, while the degree was a negative predictor. Pay was lower if the specialty was broadcasting/telecommunications or news-editorial (print) journalism, slightly lower for public relations, and

higher for advertising and for those with combined responsibilities. The third block consisted of minority status and gender. Gender was not a significant predictor, but the direction remained toward higher compensation for males. Minorities remained a significant predictor, with minorities getting paid more, but receiving lower salary increases than nonminorities. The predictor variables are highly correlated, so interpretation of the individual contributions must be viewed cautiously.

The paper began by raising the question about the impact of the economic crisis on changes in journalism and mass communication education in general and on the characteristics of the faculty in particular. It is impossible to say, from the data at hand, that the observed changes in the nature of journalism and mass communication faculty would not have taken place without the changes in the workplace of journalism and mass communication professionals that made available to the university a new supply of workers with extensive professional experience but limited academic experience. The journalism and mass communication faculty have become more professional and less academic during the time period, the data show. The availability of the professional most likely didn't bring about that change, but it likely facilitated it.

The analysis of faculty characteristics is important, as the faculty are the key component of an academic program, and its quality directly impacts students' education and careers. The changes in the academic world and the communication industry, due to external factors such as the economic crisis or new developments in technologies, impact the students and their needs for achieving a successful career. In this context, understanding the evolution of the changes in the U.S. journalism and mass communication education and of its faculty represents an important step in adapting and maintaining the quality of the educational services.

References

Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (2014). Journalism and Mass Communication Directory. Columbia, South Carolina.

Allen, W. R., Epps, E. G., Guillory, E. A., Suh, S. A. & Bonous-Hammarth, M. (2000). The Black Academic: Faculty Status among African Americans in U.S. Higher Education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 69(1/2), 112-127.

American Association of University Professors. (2005). *Background Facts on Contingent Faculty*. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from <http://www.aaup.org/issues/contingency/background-facts#top>.

American Federation of Teachers. (2011). *Promoting Gender Diversity in the Faculty: What Higher Education Unions Can Do*. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED520168.pdf>.

Barnett, S. (2009). Media ownership policy in a recession: redefining the public interest. *Interactions: Studies in Communication and Culture*, 1(2): 217–232.

Becker, L.B., & Vlad, T. (2015). *ASJMC faculty salary survey 2013-2014*. ASJMC, Columbia, SC.

Becker, L.B., Vlad, T. & Desnoes, P. (2010). Enrollments decline lightly and the Student Body Becomes More Diverse. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator* 65, 224-249.

Becker, L.B., Vlad, T., & Simpson, H. (2013). 2012 Annual survey of journalism and mass communication enrollments: Enrollments decline for second year in a row. *Journalism & Mass Communication Educator*, 68(4) 305–334.

Becker, L.B., Vlad, T., & Simpson, H. (2014). 2013 Annual survey of journalism & mass communication enrollments: Enrollments decline for third consecutive year. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator*, Fall, 1-17.

Berg-Cross, L. & Green, R. (2010). The Impact of the recession on college students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy*, 24:2–16.

Bronstein, C. & Vaughn, S. (1998). Willard G. Bleyer and the relevance of journalism education. *Journalism and Mass Communication Monographs*, 166: 1-36.

- Carlson, T. N. (2008). Current funding practices in academic science stifle creativity. *Review of Policy Research* (Dupont Summit issue), 25, 631-642.
- Chabotar, K. J. (2010). What about the rest of us? Small colleges in financial crisis. *Change: The Magazine on Higher Learning*, July/August: 7-12.
- Challinor, M. (2013). *What's next for print in an increasingly mobile world?* Retrieved on April 7, 2015, from <http://www.inma.org/blogs/mobile-tablets/post.cfm/what-s-next-for-print-in-an-increasingly-mobile-world>
- Christopherson, S. (2013). Hollywood in decline? US film and television producers beyond the era of fiscal crisis. *Cambridge Journal of Regions, Economy and Society*, 6: 141–157.
- Crook, J. A. (1995). “1940s: Decade of adolescence for professional education,” *Journalism Educator*, 50 (1): 4-15.
- Curtis, J. W. & Thornton, S. (2014). *Losing Focus: The Annual Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, 2013-14*. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from <http://www.aaup.org/file/zreport.pdf>.
- Deuze, M., Elefante, P. & Steward, B. (2010). Media work and the recession. *Popular Communication*, 8(3): 226-231.
- Doherty, S. (2012). Will the geeks inherit the newsroom?: Reflections on why journalists should learn computer science. *The International Journal of Technology, Knowledge, and Society*, 8(2): 112-121.
- Emery, E. & McKerns, J. (1987). AEJMC: 75 years in the making, *Journalism Monographs*, 104: 1-91.
- Folkerts, J. (2014). A history of journalism education. *Journalism and Communication Monographs*, 16 (4): 227-299.
- Gamse, N. (2011). Legal remedies for saving public interest journalism in America. *Northwestern University Law Review*, 105(1): 329-366.
- Gasman, M., Abiola, U. & Travers, C. (2015). Diversity and senior leadership at elite institutions of higher education. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 8 (1), 1-14.
- Good, H. G. (1962). *A History of American Education* (2nd Edition). New York: The Macmillan Company.

Hartley, J. (2010). Attack of the creationist reverberators! Or: the end of the world (as we know it). *Popular Communication*, 8(3): 180-185.

Hodgson, G. (2000). The end of the grand narrative and the death of news Reuters Foundation. *Historical Journal of Film, Radio and Television*, 20(1): 23-31.

Kirchhoff, S. M. (2011). The U.S. newspaper industry in transition. *Journal of Current Issues in Media and Telecommunications*, 2(1): 27-51.

Lotz, A. D. (2010). US television and the recession: Impetus for change?. *Popular Communication*, 8(3): 186-189.

Louder, A., Waugaman, C., Kenyon, M., Levine, A., Meekins, M. & O'meara, K. (2011). Following the cuts. How Is the recession affecting faculty work?. *Liberal Education*, Winter, 20-29.

McTighe Musil, C. (2000). *Faculty Development & Democratic Spaces of Possibility: Building Communities of Knowledge, Inclusion, & Commitment* (pp. 89-110). In E. F. Beckham (Ed.), *Diversity, Democracy, and Higher Education. A view From Three Nations*. Association of American Colleges and Universities: Washington, DC.

Medina, M. & Barron, L. (2013). The impact of the recession on the TV industry in Mexico and Spain. *Communication & Society*, 26(2): 27-46.

Mensing, D. (2010). Rethinking the future of journalism education. *Journalism Studies*, 11(4): 511-523.

Morris, L. V. (2009). Faculty redefined. *Innovative Higher Education*, 34:131-132.

Mutter, A. (2012). Are newspaper audiences really shrinking?. *Columbia Journalism Review*. Retrieved on April 2, 2015, from http://www.cjr.org/the_audit/weakened_newspapers_expanding.php?page=all.

Orfield, G. (2011). *Faculty under Siege: Demoralization and Educational Decline in CSU*. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu.

Project for Excellence in Journalism. (2010). State of the news media. Retrieved on April 2, 2015, from <http://www.stateofthemedias.org/2010/newspapers-summary-essay/economics/>

Project for Excellence in Journalism. (2009). State of the news media. Retrieved on April 2, 2015, from <http://www.stateofthemedias.org/2009/>

Project for Excellence in Journalism. (2013). The state of the news media 2013. Retrieved on April 2, 2015, from <http://stateofthemedias.org/2013/overview-5/>.

Project for Excellence in Journalism. (2015). State of the news media 2015. Retrieved on June 2, 2015, from <http://www.journalism.org/2015/04/29/state-of-the-news-media-2015/>

Reinhart, C. M. & Rogoff, K. S. (2009). *The Aftermath Of Financial Crises*. National Bureau Of Economic Research. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from <http://www.nber.org/papers/w14656>.

Seifert, T. A. & Umbach, P. D. (2007). *The Effects of Faculty Demographic Characteristics and Disciplinary Context on Dimensions of Job Satisfaction*. Retrieved on May 3, 2015, from <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11162-007-9084-1/fulltext.html>

Sloan, W.D. (1990). *In search of itself: A history of journalism education*. In W.D. Sloan (Ed.), *Makers of the Media Mind*, Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates, 1-22.

Spivak, C. (2011). Pay to play. *American Journalism Review*. Retrieved on April 2, 2015, from <http://www.ajr.org/Article.asp?id=5017>

Stemers, J. (2010). The 'Canary in the Coalmine': The recession and the crisis in the production of British children's television programming. *Popular Communication*, 8(3): 213 - 217.

Trower, C., & Chait, R. (2002). Faculty diversity: Too little for too long. *Harvard Magazine*, 33-37, 98.

U.S. Department of Education. (2014). *National Center for Education Statistics. The condition of education 2014 (NCES 2014-083), Characteristics of postsecondary faculty*. Retrieved in March, 2, 2015, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2014/2014083.pdf>.

Veysey, L.R. (1965). *The Emergence of the American University*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Weinhold, W. M. (2008). Newspaper negotiations. *Journalism Practice*, 2(3): 476-486.

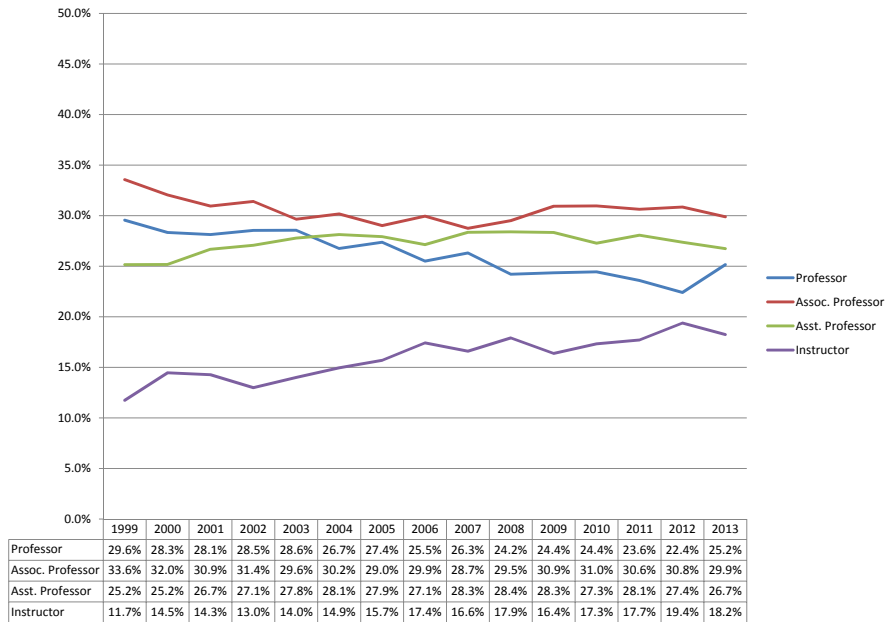
World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers. (2009). Charting the course for newspapers. Retrieved on April 6, 2015, from <http://www.wan-iffra.org/reports/2009/12/18/charting-the-course-for-newspapers>

World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers. (2013). Trends in newspaper

production. Retrieved in April 8, 2015, from <http://www.wan-ifra.org/reports/2013/08/16/world-press-trends-report-2013>

Young, S. (2010) The journalism ‘‘crisis’’. Is Australia immune or just ahead of its time?. *Journalism Studies*, 11(4): 610-624.

Chart 1. Rank of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty



**Chart 2. Tenure Status of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
(% With Tenure)**

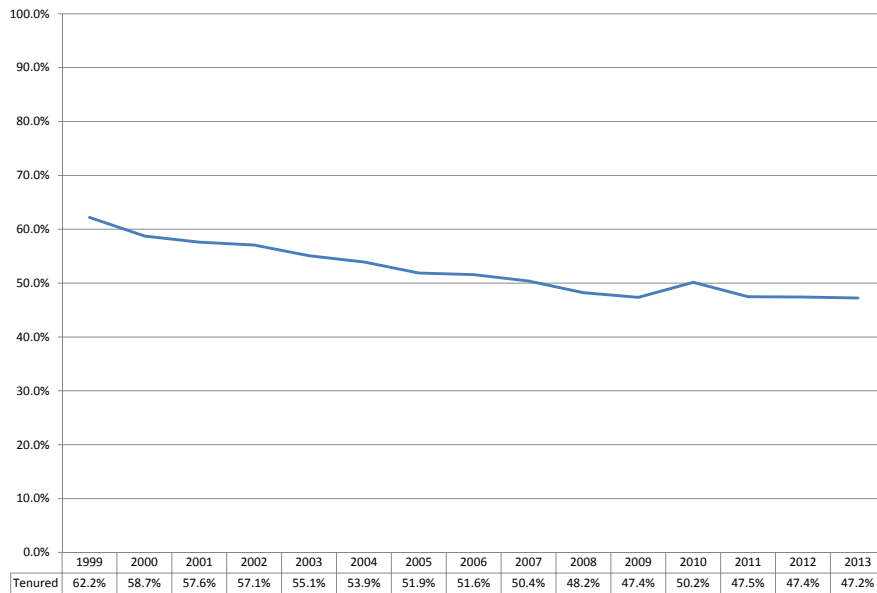


Chart 3. Final Degree of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty

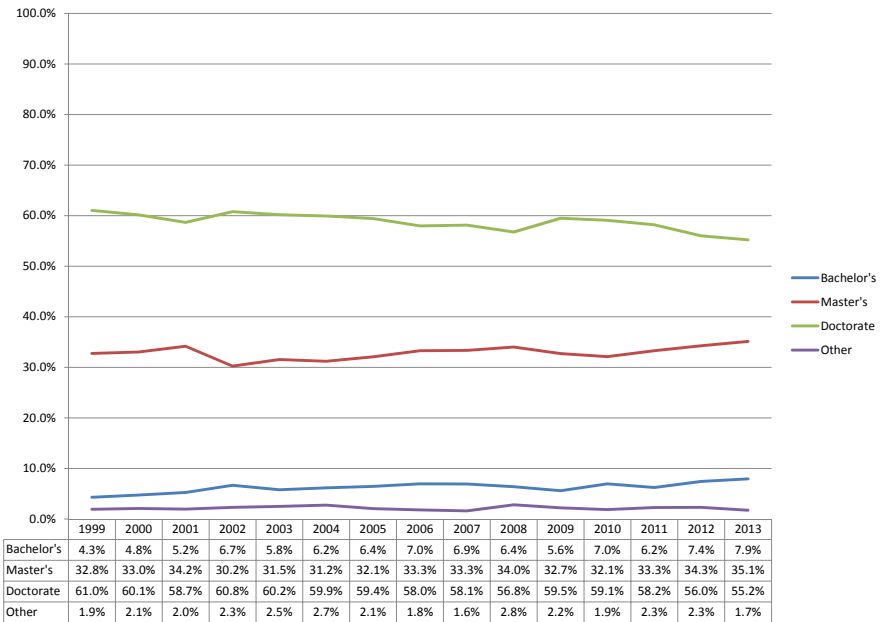
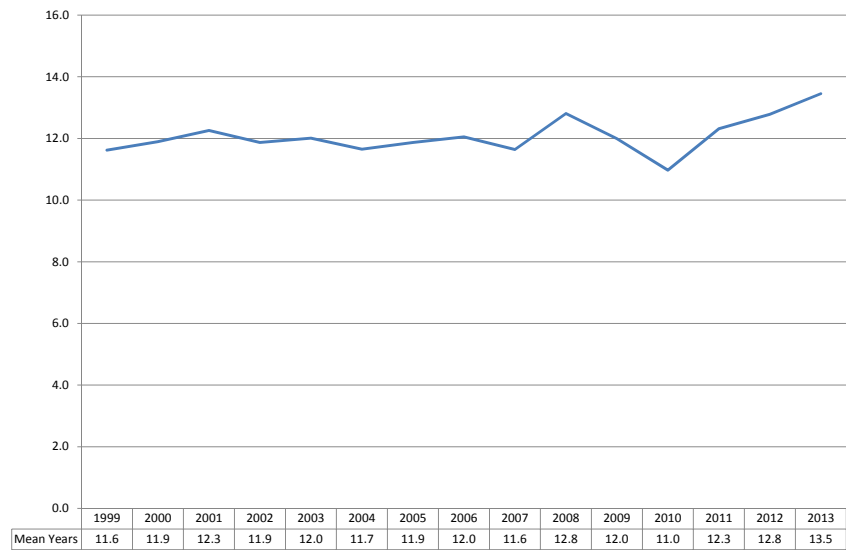


Chart 4. Average Years Full-Time Communication Professional Experience Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty



**Chart 5. Teaching Specialties
of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty**

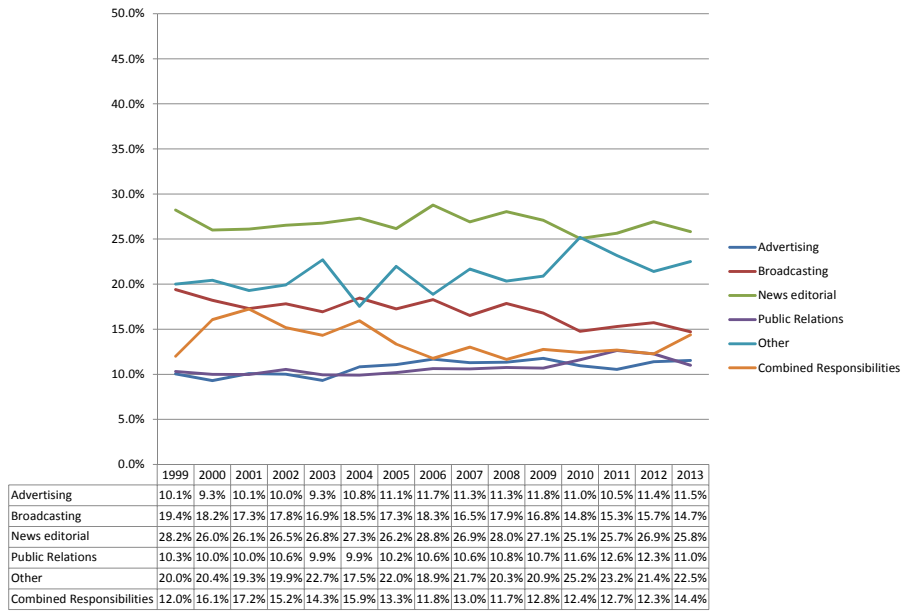
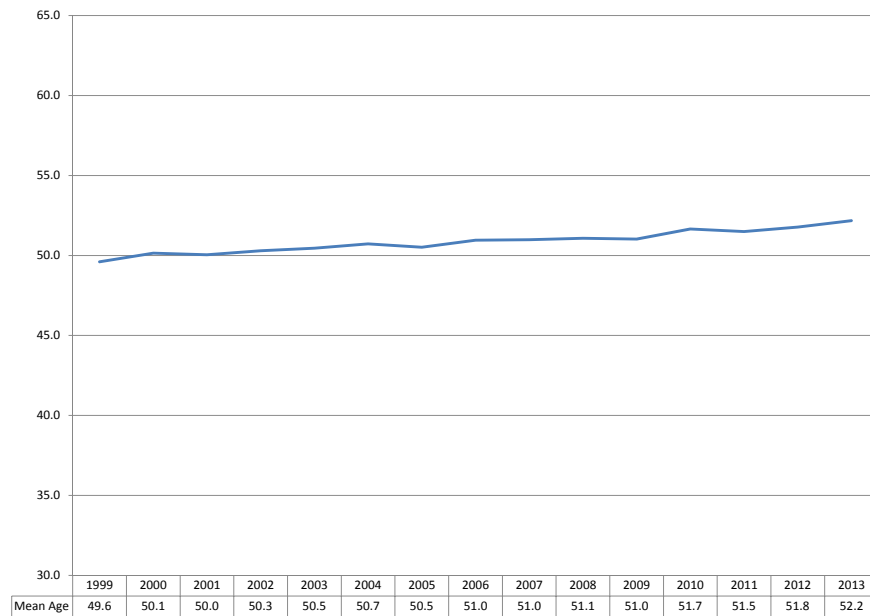
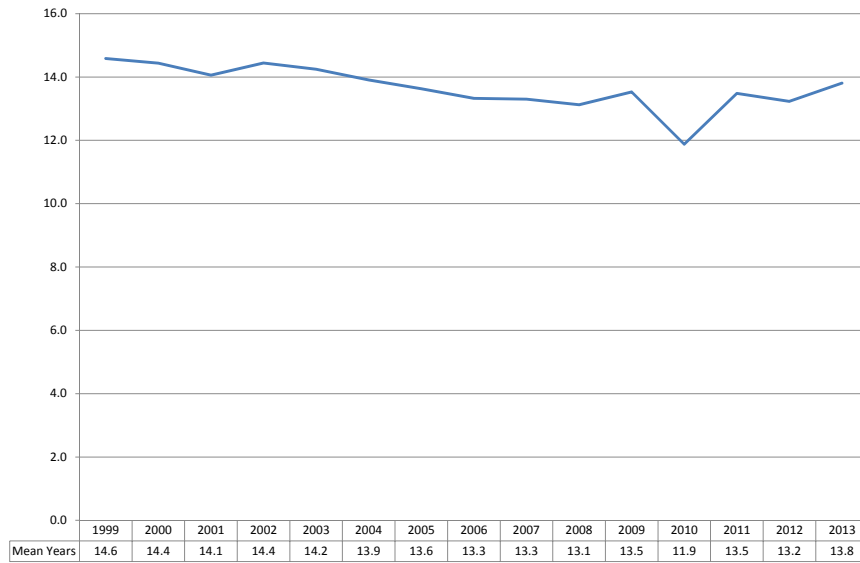


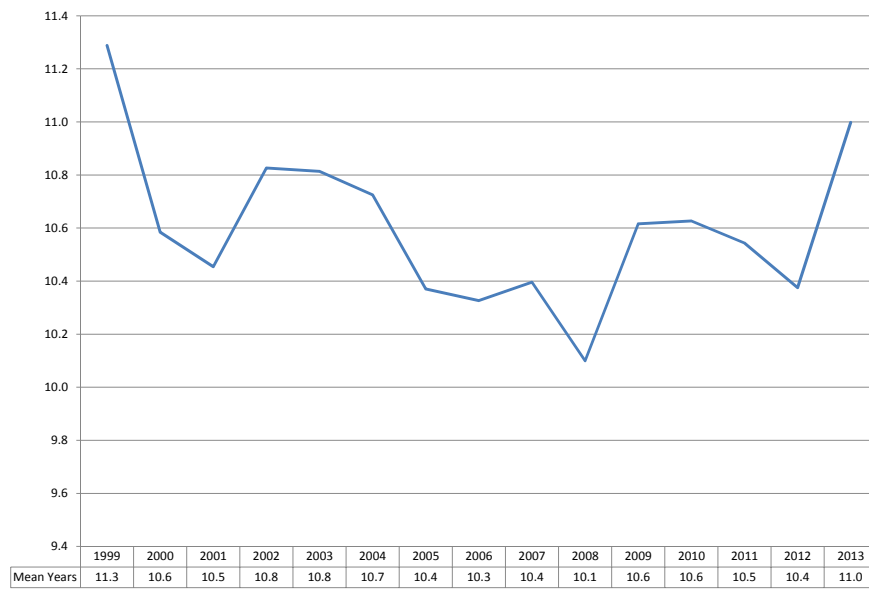
Chart 6. Average Age of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty



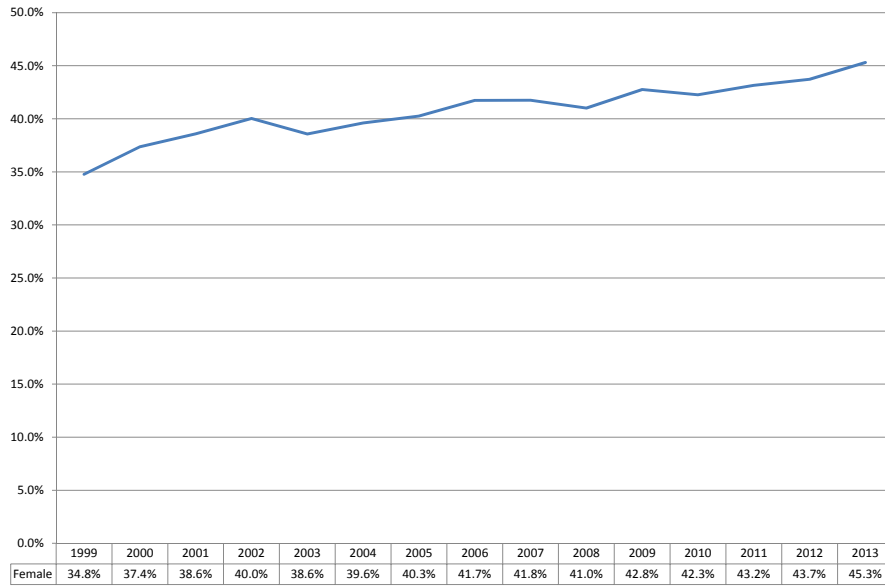
**Chart 7. Average Years Full-Time Teaching
Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty**



**Chart 8. Average Years at Current University
Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty**



**Chart 9. Gender of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
(% Female)**



**Chart 10. Race of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
(% Minority)**

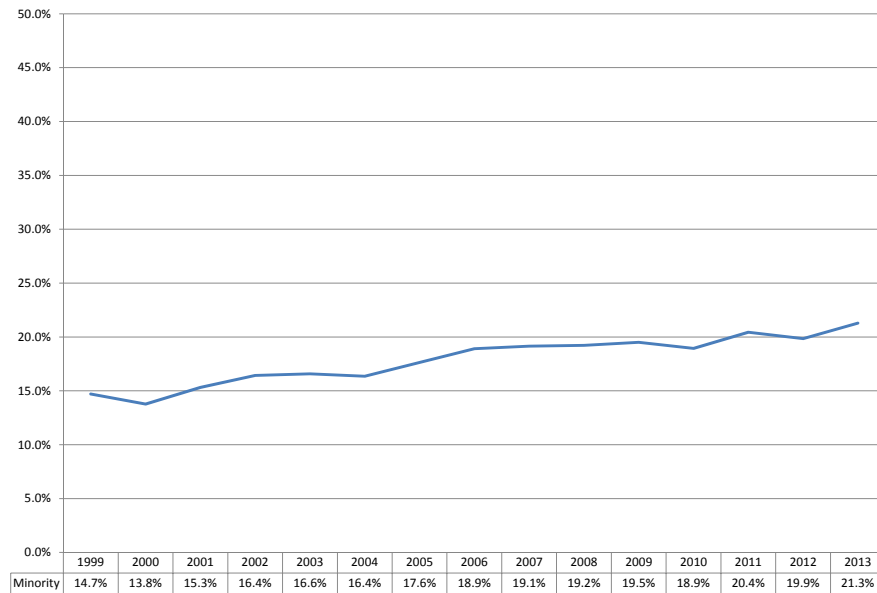


Chart 11. Mean Salary Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty

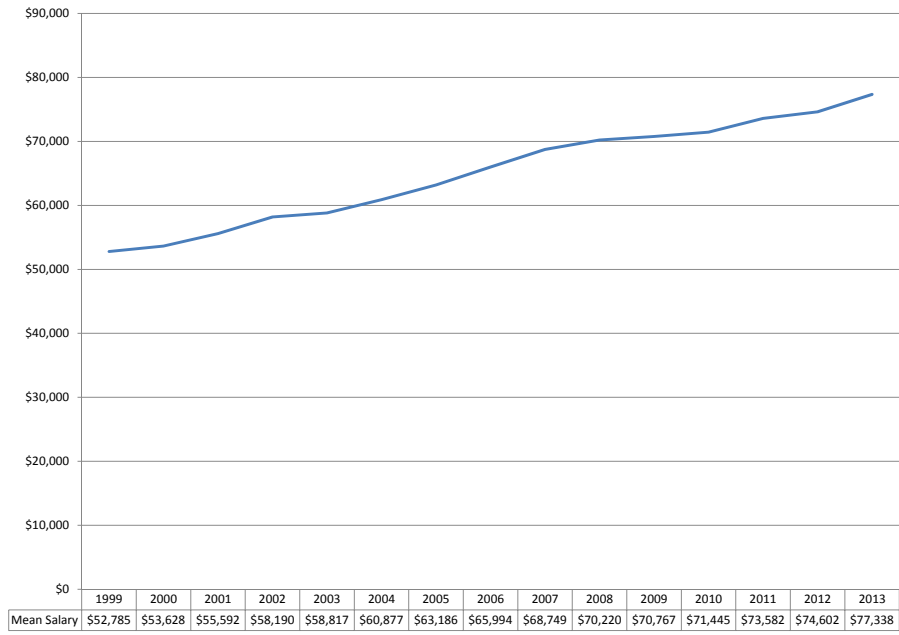
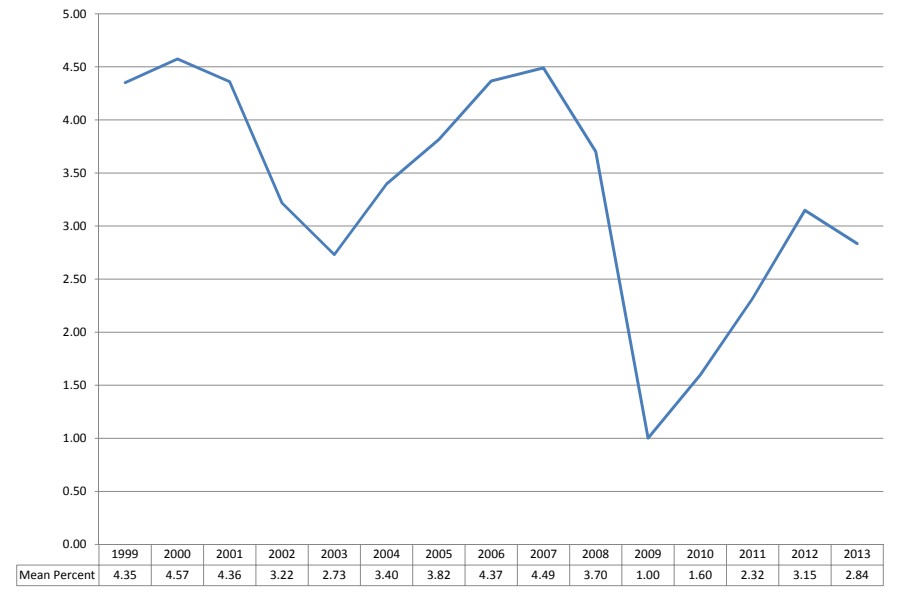
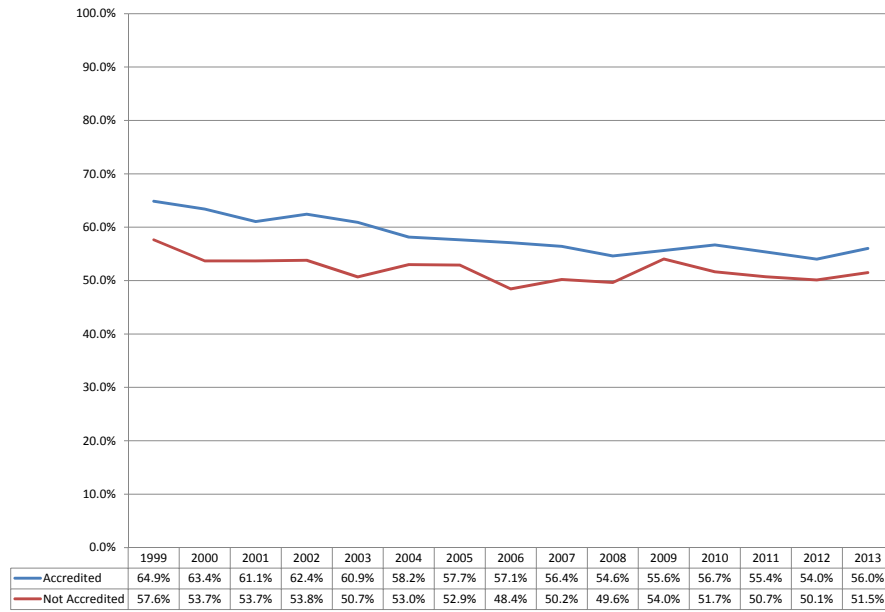


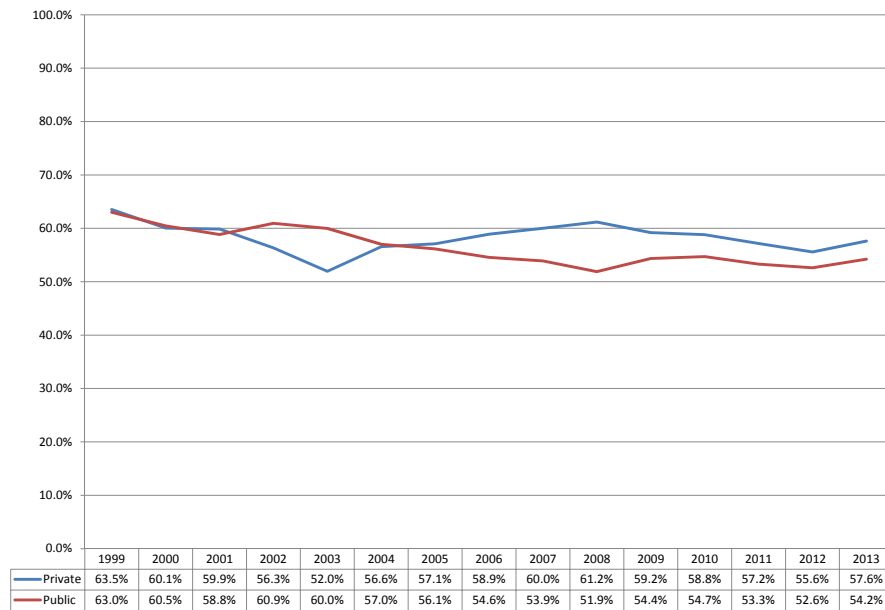
Chart 12. Mean Salary Increase Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty (Mean Percent)



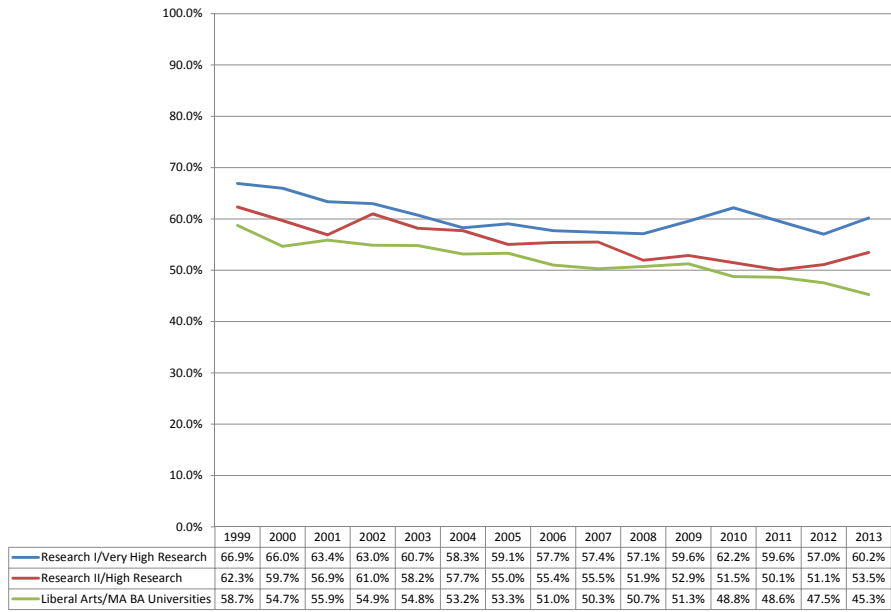
**Chart 13. Rank of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Accreditation Status (% Associate and Professor)**



**Chart 14. Rank of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Control (% Associate and Professor)**



**Chart 15. Rank of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Carnegie Type (% Associate and Professor)**



**Chart 16. Tenure Status of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Accreditation Status (% Tenured)**

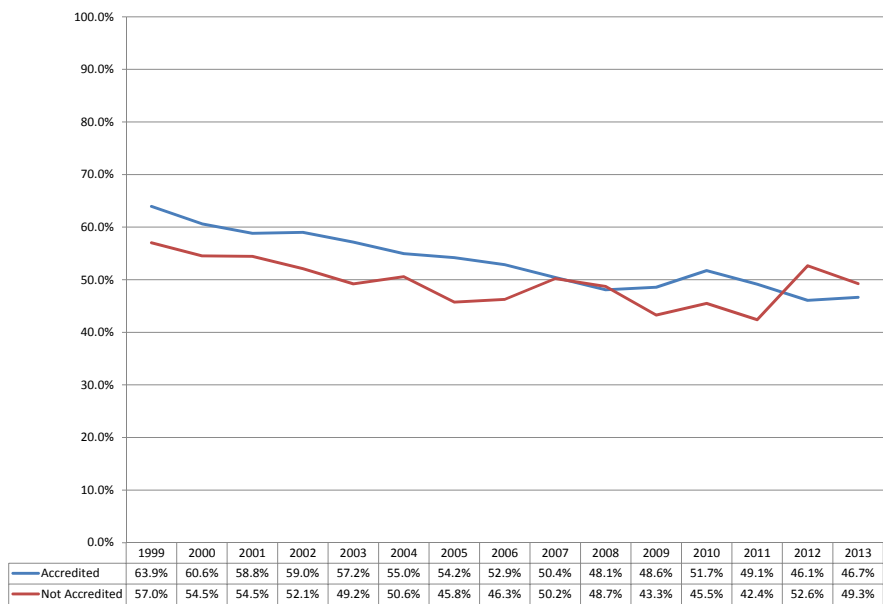


Chart 17. Tenure Status of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty By Control (% Tenured)

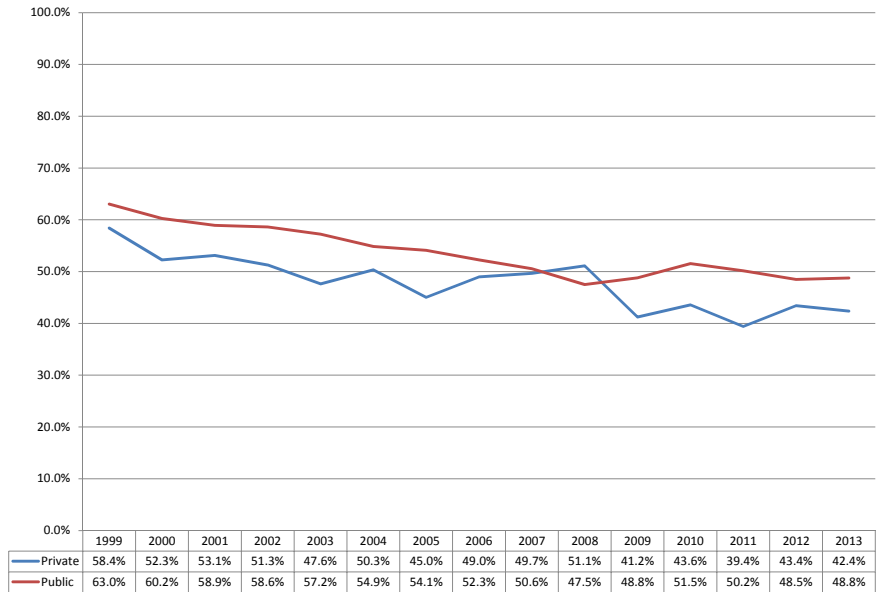
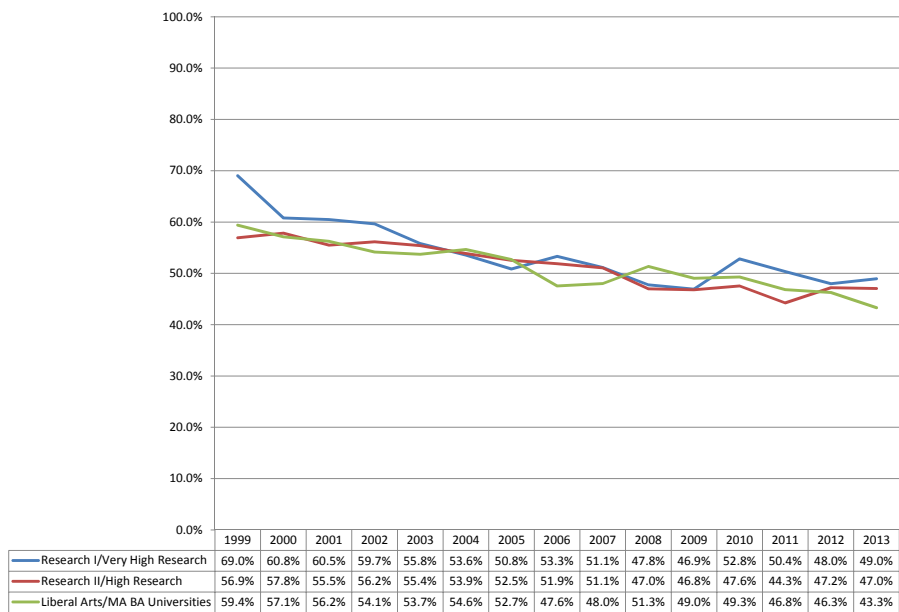
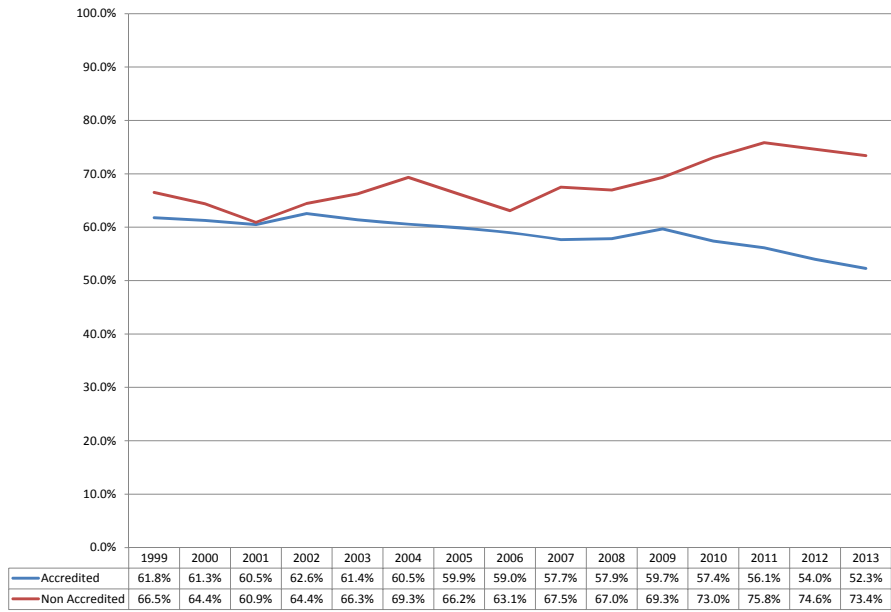


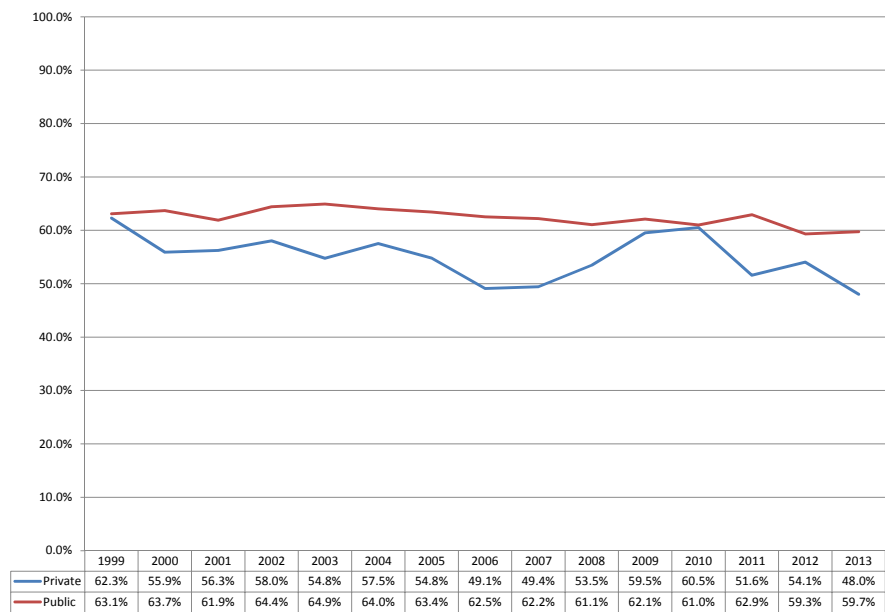
Chart 18. Tenure Status of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty By Carnegie Type (% Tenured)



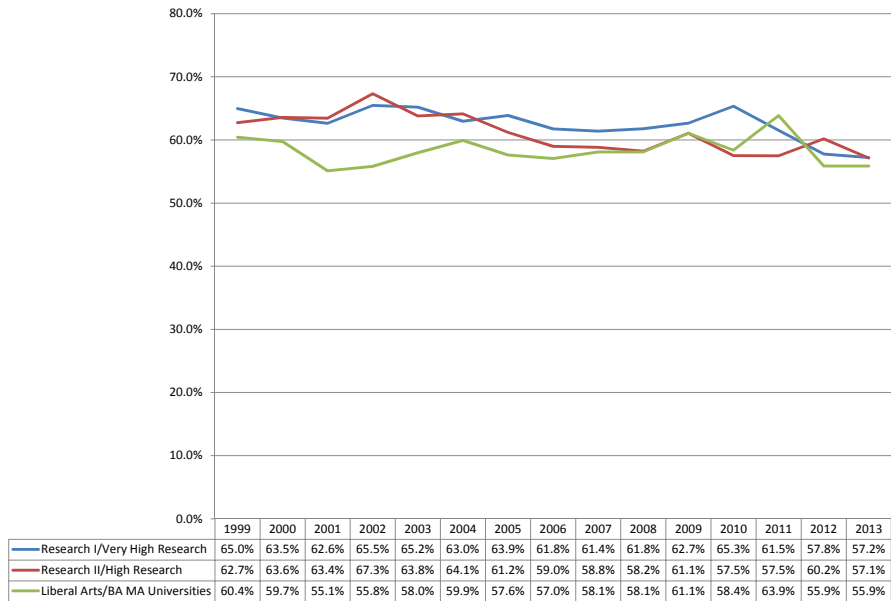
**Chart 19. Final Degree of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Accreditation Status (% Ph.D.)**



**Chart 20. Final Degree of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Control (% Ph.D.)**



**Chart 21. Final Degree of Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Carnegie Type (% Ph.D.)**



**Chart 22. Average Years Full-Time Communication Professional
Experience Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty
By Accreditation Status (Mean Years)**

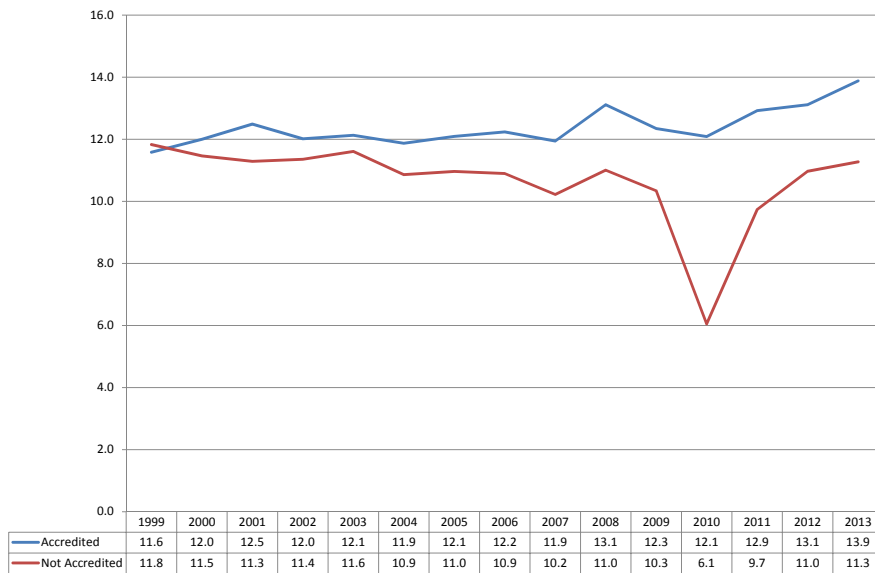


Chart 23. Average Years Full-Time Communication Professional Experience Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty By Control (Mean Years)

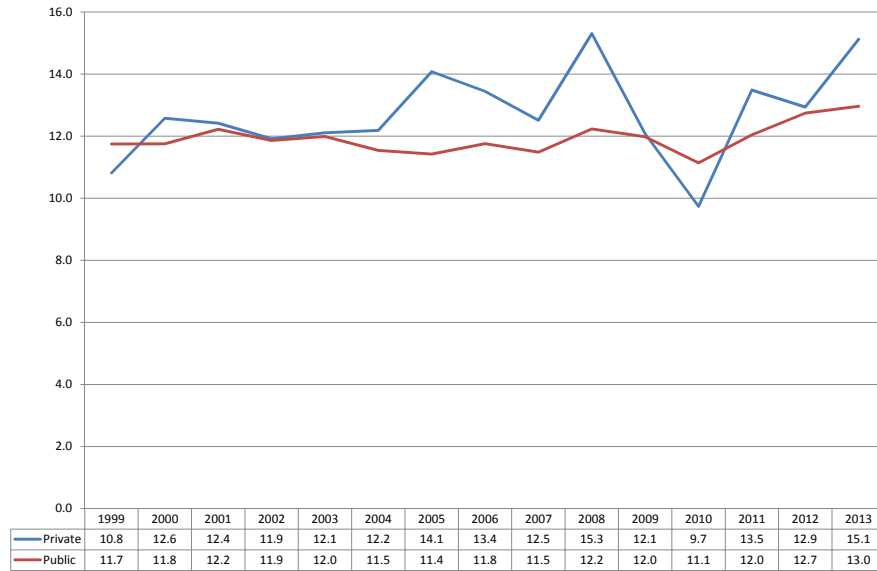
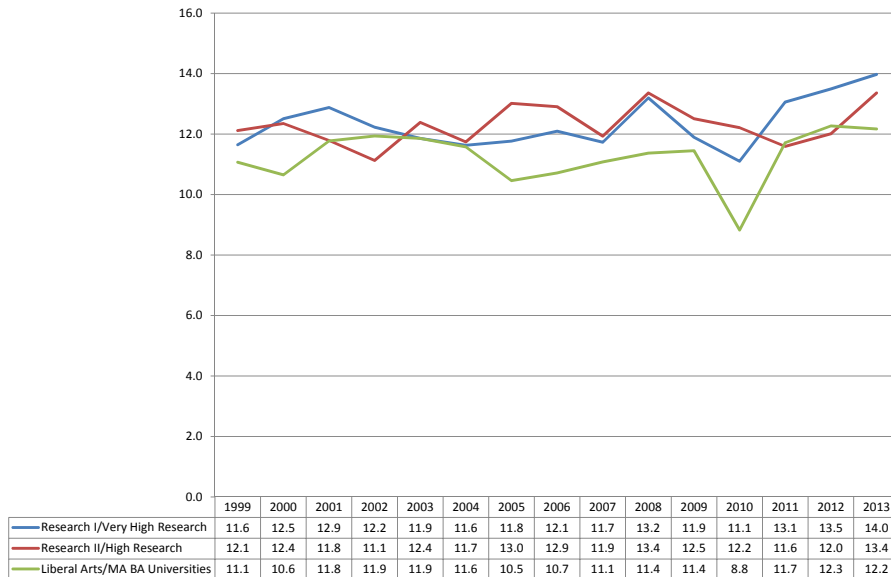


Chart 24. Average Years Full-Time Communication Professional Experience Journalism and Mass Communication Faculty By Carnegie Type (Mean Years)



Appendix: Return Rates for ASJMC Faculty Salary Survey 1999-2013

Return Rates									
Academic Year	Returned Form 1: Budgetary data	Returned Form 2: Individual faculty salary data	Returned Form 2: Individual faculty salary data						
			Research Universities Very High Research Activity	Research Universities High Research Activity and Doctoral/ Research Universities	Master's Colleges & Universities and Baccalaureate Colleges	Accredited Programs	Nonaccredited Programs	Public Institutions	Private Institutions
1999-2000	67.2%	66.5%	76.7%	75.0%	56.7%	81.6%	49.4%	75.4%	43.1%
2000-2001	68.8%	70.3%	81.8%	70.4%	64.9%	81.0%	58.7%	77.0%	52.8%
2001-2002	65.3%	60.6%	66.7%	66.7%	54.6%	74.2%	46.9%	65.7%	47.2%
2002-2003	62.4%	60.9%	77.8%	63.5%	52.0%	78.9%	44.1%	67.1%	46.3%
2003-2004	60.7%	62.2%	80.0%	64.8%	52.6%	82.3%	43.0%	70.9%	40.0%
2004-2005	61.6%	62.2%	81.0%	74.5%	46.7%	79.8%	44.0%	68.7%	45.1%
2005-2006	63.1%	64.2%	87.2%	71.7%	47.5%	81.5%	46.0%	69.5%	50.0%
2006-2007	58.2%	57.6%	82.1%	63.5%	41.5%	78.1%	35.2%	65.7%	36.0%
2007-2008	65.5%	63.8%	81.1%	69.4%	50.7%	78.7%	46.3%	71.4%	43.8%
2008-2009	60.3%	60.9%	75.7%	67.7%	48.1%	80.2%	38.6%	69.8%	38.0%
2009-2010	55.4%	55.9%	67.6%	59.4%	47.4%	69.1%	40.0%	62.3%	38.3%
2010-2011	56.6%	56.0%	70.3%	59.4%	45.9%	66.3%	43.8%	62.8%	37.0%
2011-2012	58.3%	54.3%	72.1%	56.5%	41.4%	68.1%	38.3%	59.7%	30.1%
2012-2013	45.4%	49.4%	65.1%	54.1%	35.7%	62.1%	34.2%	54.7%	34.8%
2013-2014	56.7%	54.8%	65.3%	63.2%	39.4%	72.4%	35.1%	60.3%	35.9%