

Predictors Of Faculty Diversification In Journalism And Mass Communication Education

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Abstract

Based on data gathered between 1999 and 2013, this paper provides up-to-date information on faculty diversity in journalism and mass communication education. It examines the predictive power of four key institutional characteristics in producing diversification: accreditation status, type of control of the institution, type of mission, and region of the country. It shows diversification is increasing, but progress, particularly in terms of racial and ethnic diversity, is slow.

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The argument that faculties in a given field of higher education should reflect the diversity of the general population is based on notions of equity of access to those positions and the belief that faculty diversity serves the needs of the overall population. If entry to the occupations of the institutions of higher education is without barriers, all members of the society being served should be able to enter those occupations, and, across time, the occupations should be as diverse as the larger community. Since most occupations are expected to have impact on those served by them, society for a variety of reasons should want occupations to reflect the characteristics of society itself.

Since the academic field of journalism and mass communication education plays an important role in training and educating persons in the key communication occupations of journalism, public relations, advertising and ancillary fields, the characteristics of its faculty is particularly important (Becker & Vlad, 2009; Becker et al., 2010). Journalists select topics and create frames for those topics that have impact on what people talk about and how they see those issues (Cobb & Elder, 1971; Goffman, 1974; Entman, 1993). Public relations practitioners similarly impact the news, the social media landscape and the overall civic life of a community (Park & Reber, 2011). Advertising images and messages can have significant impact on a society (Berger, 2011).

Despite the importance of the issue of faculty diversity in journalism and mass communication education, relatively little is known about how the field is performing in terms of diversification and how closely it is to matching the society it serves. The most recent reports on faculty characteristics on two key characteristics, racial and ethnic diversity and gender diversity, are now quite dated (Becker et al., 2003; Becker & Vlad, 2009).

This paper provides more up-to-date data on faculty diversity in the field of journalism

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and mass communication education. It also examines the predictive power of four key institutional characteristics in producing diversification: accreditation status, type of control of the institution, type of mission of the institutions, and region of the country. It shows diversification is increasing, but progress, particularly in terms of racial and ethnic diversity, is slow, and few of the predictor variable account for the change.

Literature Review

In spite of initiatives designed to increase racial and ethnic diversity, faculties representing minorities have continued to be underrepresented in U.S. universities (Harvey & Anderson, 2005). The efforts to diversify the faculty started after the Second World War, but still in the 1970s over 90 percent of the professors were white and 80 percent were male, with the only exception being the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (Metzger, 1987). Statements by college and university administrators emphasize the positive effects of minority faculty on higher education, such as enabling recruitment of minority students, increasing the areas of scholarship (Antonio, 2002), and exposing the students to a broader range of ideas (Umbach, 2006). In 2005, however, only 9.9 percent of the higher education faculty in the United States were underrepresented minorities (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Even in the fall of 2011, of those full-time instructional faculty whose race/ethnicity was known, 79 percent were white (44 percent white males and 35 percent white females), 6 percent were black, 4 percent were Hispanic, and less than 1 percent were American Indians/Alaska natives or two or more races (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

The affirmative-action plans dating since the early 1970s aimed at increasing the number of minority and women faculty and protect individual rights. These included examination of policies to eliminate discriminatory practices and recruitment standards, policies that might

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adversely impact women and minorities, race or sex based selectivity, and establishment of goals that are consistent with nondiscrimination principles (AAUP Policy Documents & Reports, 2001). The emergence of anti-affirmative action sentiment, however, has changed the environment in which universities operate, although they still have to comply with federal affirmative action laws that stipulate an affirmative outreach (Muñiz, 2012). In addition, governmental regulations are considered to limit the goal of universities to develop an individualized profile and therefore, they might decrease diversity (Meek, 2000). At the same time, increased competition, a decreased governmental control or a wide variety of institutional strategies do not lead to a high level of diversity (Morphew, 2009).

Among the explanations of the slowness of the diversifying process is the low number of minority graduate students (Moody, 2004; Smith, et. al, 2004). There are also some differences among minority degrees granted by university type. Data from a survey on higher education degrees awarded to minority members from 1988-89 to 1992-1993 show that African-American degrees granted increased in secular public institutions, while Asian-American degrees granted increased in both public and private colleges and universities. While fewer African-American and Hispanic students graduated from Research I institutions than from Master's I and Associate of Arts, more Asian Americans graduated from Research I institutions (Borden, 1996).

Minorities are underrepresented in postsecondary education, which restricts the applicant pool for faculty positions and affects their upward mobility (Gasman, Abiola, & Travers, 2015). For example, African-Americans earned only 20.4 percent and 20.5 percent respectively of the master's and doctoral degrees awarded in U.S. in 2012, Hispanics 5.2 percent and 4.4 percent, Asian Americans 5.3 percent and 9.4 percent, whereas whites earned 56.8 percent, and 59.9 percent (Kim, 2013). The proportion of minority faculty is lower than their representation among

graduates, even in periods of growth in faculty hiring (Washington & Harvey, 1989).

The pipeline problem might not always be the most important factor, as, for example, survey findings among Ph.D. recipients between 1996– 2005 showed that the number of minority in the doctoral pool was much higher than the number of minority assistant professors in most disciplines (Nelson et. al., 2007). The difficulty adapting to an unfamiliar work environment and some forms of discrimination in recruitment and tenure process also have been documented as causes to the low number of minority faculty (Turner & Myers, 2000; Perna, 2001). Black faculty members are present in minority serving institutions such as HBCUs but are underrepresented in other universities (Smith, Tovar, & García, 2012). This situation sometimes negatively affects students' attitudes and behavior, as those who are not exposed to and interact with racially diverse people tend to disregard authority when faculty members are perceived as different from themselves (Jayakumar, 2008).

If data indicate that minorities are underrepresented at graduate levels, however, the explanation does not hold for women. For example, in 2000, women earned more than half of the bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees at the national level, although their status and rank in the academia is lower when compared to men. Furthermore, women and minorities are more likely to work at less prestigious universities and have lower salaries, while white men occupy the majority of the positions in prestigious institutions, at the senior ranks level, tenured status and full-time employment (Trower & Chait, 2002). Besides race and ethnic bias, women have to negotiate their place in the academia to maintain authority, credibility and discipline to receive positive evaluations. African-American women faculty are sometimes described as marginalized, while Asian women are sometimes perceived as having less authority than their white counterparts (Aguirre, 2000; Fong, 2007). Moreover, student evaluations for diverse

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women faculty's teaching are often negative, their performance being considered marginal and having an adverse impact when it comes to receiving tenure or promotions (Han, 2011).

Performance expectations become more positive as the proportion of women increases and less attention is paid to gender (Valian, 1998).

Recruiting and admitting a diverse student and faculty body help students achieve important education goals and enrich their educational experience (American Council on Education & American Association of University Professors, 2000). Furthermore, content related to diversity and racially and ethnically diverse issues helps in the development of an increased critical thinking capacity and cross-cultural learning (Gudeman, 2000; Marin, 2000). African-American faculty are considered to provide support, mentoring and role models for minority students, and ensure a multi-faceted learning environment and exposure to diverse ideas (Umbach, 2006; Antonio, 2002). Diversity in higher education influences productivity, helps develop intellectual personality, fosters creativity, enhances the richness of teaching and research environments, ensures the basis of a dynamic community, and creates respect for other's cultures. According to some educators, diversity should be taken into account in every aspect of education to ensure effectiveness in pluralistic societies and to help students embody the awareness of diversity (Lumby & Coleman, 2007).

As a negative factor, increasing diversity might contribute to a less cohesive environment, inefficient communication, anxiety or discomfort for students or staff (Fine & Handelsman, 2010). In order to achieve the advantages of a diverse racial and ethnic context, a variety of factors have to be taken into account, such as the characteristics of faculty members, curricula, teaching methods, interaction and classroom climate (Marin, 2000). Campus communities should be enabled to have access to an inclusive learning and working

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environment, and chief diversity officer positions in universities can expand representation of a diverse higher education environment (Worthington, Stanley & Lewis Sr., 2014). In the past decades, universities have included in their goals and mission the diversification of students and faculty in higher education, trying to assess and improve the campus climate for diversity (Turner, Gonzalez, & Wood, 2008; Worthington, 2008). Higher education institutions should increase the efforts in diversifying their faculty and students pools and create policies so that to avoid exclusion and inequity based on gender, race and ethnicity (Iverson, 2007). If universities are to be successful in an interconnected world, they need better ways to communicate and integrate diversity, and they have to increase the exposure, interactions and, consequently, the ability to work with individuals from different cultures and populations (Wilson, 2013).

An efficient strategy to recruit underrepresented categories is the “special hire intervention”—a process through which regular searching procedures are eluded, and it is often combined with the use of diversity indicators in describing the position. It can also include a waiver in terms of certain searching criteria, targets or spousal hire. Almost half of African-American and American Indian have occupied a faculty position as special hires (Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi & Richards, 2004). This strategy is usually described by such terms as “exceptional hires,” “search waivers,” “truncated search process,” and “out-of-cycle hiring.” These have proven to be useful tools in targeting specific applicants and increasing the diversity level among faculty members (Smith, 2011). Diversification of higher education faculty requires a sustained effort and strategic interventions.

Diversity levels might differ according to programs, regions, and type of universities. In this regard, a surveys conducted from 1989 to 2005 (Subervi & Cantrell, 2007; Ross et. all, 2007) among accredited and non-accredited Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and

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Mass Communications programs reveal that accredited units make more efforts in recruiting, retaining and promoting minority faculty and therefore, these have enhanced levels of faculty diversity. Diversity levels are higher among accredited programs as these units are evaluated based on standards that target aspects as budget, administration, alumni activities and diversity levels. Accredited programs are also significantly more diversified in terms of the enrolled students. This is significant since, as another survey conducted in 2009 shows, universities with a higher proportion of minority students attract minority faculty at a double rate than those where these students are underrepresented (Sabharwal & Geva-May, 2013). The low number of non-white students earning doctorates, however, makes it more difficult to diversify faculty because of insufficient diversity in the labor force pool.

Moreover, demographics can play a role in determining the ratio of minority faculty. In states with larger minority population, minority students and faculty members can be found in a greater number (Subervi & Cantrell, 2007). Geographic regions can be a characteristic that determines differences in the distribution of faculty by racial or ethnic aspects. An analysis based upon the 1992-1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty reveals that blacks are more likely to work in the Southeast and Southwest, while Hispanic and Asian faculty are more likely to work in the far western and the southwestern regions of U.S. (Nettles, Perna, Bradburn & Zimble, 2000).

A study of top 28 liberal arts colleges, as ranked by U.S. News and World Report, showed that both the public and the private schools in the country included diversity in their mission statements. The nine goals most often included in the mission statements of these colleges are (in order of frequency of mention): (1) the acquisition of intellectual mastery and rigor; (2) learning to value service to community; (3) learning perspectives from diversity; (4)

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developing self-knowledge and growing personally; (5) developing and nurturing a liberated, creative mind; (6) gaining an increased capacity for tolerance, respect, and concern for others; (7) acquiring the skills and motivation for social leadership; (8) developing ethical and moral judgment; and (9) fostering creativity and imagination (American Council of Education, 2000).

An experiment was conducted on the top 259 universities in the U.S. as ranked by U.S. News and World Report in 2010 (Milkman, Akinola & Cugh, 2011). Thirty-seven percent of the universities in the sample were private, and 63 percent were public. From these universities, 6,300 doctoral programs and 200,000 faculty affiliated with those programs were identified. Then, one to two faculty from each doctoral program were selected, yielding 6,548 faculty subjects. The final sample of faculty included was composed of 43 percent full professors, 27 percent associate professors, 25 percent associate professors, and 5 percent professors who were either emeritus or of unknown rank. In total, 6,548 emails were sent to the faculty from fictional prospective doctoral students seeking a meeting to discuss research opportunities to faculty, or one per professor included in this study. Names of students were randomly assigned to signal gender and race (Caucasian, Black, Hispanic, Indian, Chinese), but messages were otherwise identical. Faculty ignored requests from women and minorities at a higher rate than requests from White males, indicating that bias exists in business, education, human services, engineering and computer sciences, life sciences, and the natural/physical sciences and math. Furthermore, bias against women and minorities was worse in higher-paying disciplines and at private institutions, but uncorrelated with the representation of women or minorities in a discipline or university.

Faculty diversification in the field of journalism and mass communication education has been slow, following the general academic pattern. A study that examined the characteristics of

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faculty in journalism and mass communication from 1989 to 1998 showed that the change was so slight that it would be about year 2035 before the faculty looked like students then enrolled in journalism and mass communication programs in terms of gender and race/ethnicity (Becker, Huh & Vlad, 2001). An update to that report found that just fewer than three in 10 of the full-time journalism and mass communication faculty members were women, in 1989, while in 2001 the ratio was just fewer than four in 10. Faculty who were members of racial or ethnic minority groups and female faculty continued to be concentrated at the lower academic ranks, where they have less job security and less influence on curricula development and faculty governance (Becker et al., 2003). Based on a survey of ASJMC schools 2006-2007, the estimates were that the number of African-Americans faculty would be about 300, the number of Hispanics would be about 90, the number of Native Americans would be about 25, the number of Asian-Americans would be about 110, and the number of Americans from the Pacific Islands would be about 15, while women would make up 1,640 of the 3,570 faculty members (Becker & Vlad, 2009).

This increase in women and minority faculty does not match the growth in the number of journalism and mass communication students with those characteristics. In the fall of 2012, students classified as members of racial and ethnic minorities made up 33.7 percent of the students enrolled in journalism and mass communication programs in the United States, the highest figure ever recorded. In the same year, women represented two-thirds of the total number of students (Becker, Vlad, & Simpson, 2013).

In 2010-2011, 82 universities around the country reported granting 671 doctoral degrees that were classified in the communication categories. Women dominate the field, earning 64.4 percent of the doctoral degrees conferred in communications. This figure is the highest ever

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recorded. Among domestic graduates of these doctoral programs, members of racial and ethnic minorities were few: Only 7.6 percent of the degrees granted went to African-Americans, and 3.3 percent went to Hispanics, while Asian Pacific Islanders earned 3.5 percent of the doctoral degrees (Becker et al., 2012).

Hypotheses

This paper focuses on the power of four variables to produce and predict to diversification in terms of race/ethnicity and gender: accreditation, control (private vs. public), type of institution (Carnegie classification) and region of the country.

One of the ACEJMC accrediting standards is Diversity and Inclusiveness. An indicator of this standard is: The unit demonstrates effective efforts to recruit women and domestic minority faculty and professional staff and, where feasible, recruits international faculty and professional staff (ACEJMC, 2012).

Four hypotheses are tested in this paper:

H1. Accreditation should lead across time to increased diversification.

H2. Public institutions should become more diverse across time, while change at private institutions should be at lower levels.

H3. Research universities should have a harder time diversifying across time because of the weakness of the pool (narrowness of the funnel) for doctoral programs.

H4. The south should lag in terms of diversification, given its past history, and that the northeast should lead.

Methodology

The Association of Schools of Journalism and Mass communication made available for analysis data from the Annual Faculty Salary Survey for 15 years, from 1999 to 2013. ASJMC

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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 that are consistent with the stated hypotheses.

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 various demographic characteristics of the faculty member, including race/ethnicity and gender.

The salary survey instrument (consisting of Form 1 and Form 2) was mailed each year to the domestic ASJMC members. 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

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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 come from Form 2. Administrators were asked to classify their faculty members in terms of racial and ethnic diversity using the following categories: 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. Faculty were classified by gender as well.

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

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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

The data available from the ASJMC Faculty Salary Survey are not a census. As the Appendix shows, return rates vary by year, with some schools explicitly refusing to participate and others simply not returning either one or both of the forms that make up the survey. An analysis of the characteristics of the data based on the four independent variables, accreditation, control, type of university and region, shows deviations in sample based on these characteristics year-to-year. One strategy to deal with this would be to create a weight for each case that would

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standardize responses in a given year to the average on these four characteristics across the 15 years of available data. That turned out not to be possible, as some of the cells in a given year were missing, meaning there were no cases to use in the weighting. As a consequence, the strategy was to test the hypotheses in terms of the bivariate relationships predicted in each of the four hypotheses. Multivariate analyses would follow as appropriate.

Racial/ethnic diversity and gender diversity are two prominent indicators of diversity of faculty, but they are not the only ones that might be used. They also are not identical. These were the only diversity measures available from the ASJMC data file. The data analysis that follows focuses first on one of these measures—racial and ethnic diversity—and then on the other—gender diversity.

Chart 1 shows the initial trends in terms of racial and ethnic diversity. In 1999, persons who were classified in the U.S. system as racial or ethnic minorities made up 14.7 percent of the faculty, while in 2013, faculty classified as racial or ethnic minorities made up 21.3 percent. The top line in the chart shows the mirror image, as it shows the percent of the sample across the 15 years classified as White, not Hispanic. The classification of minorities includes those who were U.S. citizens, and that number increased by 2.1 percent. The largest increase was in Asian Americans, from 1.8 percent to 4.7 percent, as shown more clearly in Chart 1A. The percentage of faculty who were African American and the percentage of faculty who were Hispanic increased very little over the 15-year period. In 2013, the journalism and mass communication faculty under-represented African Americans, who made up 11.8 percent of the civilian, noninstitutional population 25 years old or older and 11.8 percent of the civilian labor force 25 years old or older. Also under-represented were Hispanics, who made up 14.2 percent of the civilian, noninstitutional population 25 years old or older and 15.2 percent of the labor force 25

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years old or older. The faculty came close to representing Asian Americans, who made up 5.4 percent of the civilian, noninstitutional population 25 years old or older and 5.8 percent of the labor force 25 years old or older. In the U.S. population, White, non-Hispanics made up 80.0 percent of the civilian, noninstitutionalized population in 2013 and 79.7 percent of the labor force 25 years old or older. The journalism and mass communication faculty actually under-represented just slightly this group (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013).

Hypothesis 1 predicts that accreditation will lead to increased diversification. In Chart 2 (and in Charts 3-5) only faculty classified as White, non-Hispanic are shown. Chart 2 provides no evidence that accreditation by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communication made any difference in the 1999 to 2013 period. This is not to say that accreditation made no difference. In every year but one (2007), the faculty at programs that were accredited were more diverse than the faculty at programs that were not accredited. But both types of faculty have changed over time, and the gap between them is not markedly different in 2013 compared with 1999. The data shown in the table are not at the program level, but they lump all accredited programs together and all nonaccredited programs together. So it is possible that institutional change is masked by this averaging across types of programs.

Chart 3 shows no support for the expectation that public institutions will have more success in diversification than private ones. From 2003 to 2013, in fact, private institutions have shown more success in diversification than have public ones. In 1999, public institutions were more diverse (4 percentage points gap in favor of public institutions) than private institutions, but in 2013, private institutions were nearly 5 percentage points more diverse than public ones.

Chart 4 shows little evidence to support the expectation that research universities, as referenced by Carnegie classification, were any less likely to diversify their faculty than other

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institutions. Movement across the types of institutions has been roughly the same across the years.

While region does make a difference in terms of diversification, the effect is not the one predicted. Southern schools were more diverse in 1999 in terms of race and ethnicity of their faculty, and that difference has persisted across time. Institutions in the west have changed the most, with 87.3 percent of the faculty in 1999 classified as racial or ethnic minorities, and 74.0 percent so classified in 2013. The other regions changed roughly the same amount during this time period.

Chart 6 shows that journalism and mass communication faculties have become more balanced in terms of gender, i.e., more diverse, across time. In 1999, 34.8 percent of the faculty in the ASJMC Faculty Salary Survey were women, while that figure had increased to 45.3 percent in 2013. The U.S. civilian, noninstitutionalized population of persons 25 years old or older in 2013 was 52.1 percent female, but the civilian labor force aged 25 years and older was 46.6 percent female, or just slightly higher than for journalism and mass communication faculty (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013).

In Chart 7 and in subsequent charts, only men are shown, to keep the charts parallel to Charts 2 through 5. Chart 7 shows no evidence that accreditation made any difference during this time period in increasing diversity of the journalism and mass communication faculty. A small gap exists between accredited and nonaccredited programs, with the former having a just slightly higher percentage of men, that is, being less diverse, contrary to the expectation that accreditation increases diversity. But that small gap has been consistent across most of the 15 years analyzed.

Type of control clearly has no impact on the diversification of journalism and mass

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communication faculties in terms of gender. Faculties at private and public institutions moved in tandem across the period from 1999 to 2013 in terms of increased female representation, as shown in Chart 8.

Similarly, type of institution, as reflected in the Carnegie classification, had no consistent impact on gender diversification. Faculties at research universities and at liberal arts institutions became more balanced in terms of gender across time (Chart 9). Men made up a higher percentage of the faculties at Research 1/Very High Research Activity universities in 2013 than at either of the other types of institutions. The gap is not trivial, but it also has not been consistent across the years. In 2008, for example, there was no evidence of a gap at all. It is true that these research faculties have shown little change in recent years, and this is worthy of monitoring.

Region of the country also plays no consistent role across time in producing diversity in journalism and mass communication faculties in terms of gender. As was the case with racial diversity (Chart 5), the northeastern part of the country has consistently shown less representation of gender diversity than other parts of the country. The Midwest and South have shown the greatest change, though change has been pronounced in the West as well. Clearly the expectation stated in the fourth hypothesis is not correct. The south is not the most resistant section of the country in terms of diversification.

Conclusions

The academic field of journalism and mass communication education plays an important role in training and educating persons in key communication occupations, and it should reflect the diversity of the general population to better serve the population's needs. This paper provides data on faculty diversity in the field of journalism and mass communication education between

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1999 and 2013, gathered through the ASJMC Annual Faculty Salary Survey, and examines the predictive power of four key institutional characteristics in producing diversification: accreditation status, type of control of the institution (private vs. public), type of mission of the institutions (Carnegie classification), and region of the country. Although diversification has increased, progress in terms of racial and ethnic diversity is slow, and few of the predictor variables account for the change. In spite of initiatives designed to increase racial and ethnic diversity, faculties representing minorities have continued to be underrepresented in U.S. universities.

Racial/ethnic diversity and gender diversity are two prominent indicators of diversity of faculty reflected in the data analysis. The paper focuses first on racial and ethnic diversity, and then on gender diversity testing if accreditation leads across time to increased diversification, if public institutions become more diverse across time, while change at private institutions registers lower levels, if research universities have a harder time diversifying across time because of the weakness of the pool for doctoral programs, and if in terms of region, the south has lower diversity levels due to past history while the northeast account for more of the change.

In terms of racial/ethnic diversity, whites, non-Hispanic remained the predominant group across years, while the percentage of African American and Hispanic faculty increased very little over the 15-year period. The largest increase was in Asian Americans and, compared to the US population, the faculty came close to representing this group. Diversity has increased in both accredited and non-accredited programs, and the gap between them is not markedly different in 2013 compared with 1999 as the faculty at programs that were accredited were more diverse across time than the faculty at programs that were not accredited. No evidence has been shown

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for the expectation that public institutions would have more success in diversification than private ones.

Change in diversity also has been roughly the same across the years in different types of institutions, and data showed little evidence to support the expectation that research universities are less likely to diversify their faculty than other institutions. While region makes a difference regarding diversity levels, the trend is not the same as the one predicted. Even though change has been present in all the regions, Southern universities have reached a higher diversity level across time than others.

In terms of gender, journalism and mass communication faculties have become more balanced, as the number of women faculty has constantly increased over the years. Nonaccredited programs have just a slightly higher percentage of men, however, contrary to the expectation that accreditation increases diversity. Even though diversity has increased in both public and private journalism and mass communication programs, the type of control has no impact on the diversification in terms of gender. The differences among types of universities have not been consistent across the years. Although research universities and liberal arts institutions have become more balanced, men are still better represented in Research I universities. Region of the country also plays no consistent role in producing diversity, though the Midwest and South have shown the greatest change compared to other regions.

These analyses have not identified the predictors of the change in diversification of the faculty. The suggestion is that the diversification of journalism and mass communication faculties is simply a reflection of changes in the broader society. This study has some limitations: As mentioned before, it does not reflect the entire field of journalism and mass communication higher education. The data come from a subset of ASJMC programs and are biased in favor of

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Research and Doctoral Universities, programs accredited by the Accrediting Council on Education in Journalism and Mass Communications, and programs at public institutions. In addition, the data do not allow an examination of the impact of the variability in strategic diversification initiatives at the studied universities. Clearly, the environment in which universities operate has changed over the years and diversity has increased both in terms of race/ethnicity and gender. Even though White non-Hispanic males are still the majority group and the progress is slow, the representation of minorities and women in journalism and mass communication programs in U.S. has increased across time. Sustained effort and strategic interventions are required to increase the level of diversification of higher education faculty and support change.

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Chart 1. Faculty By Race

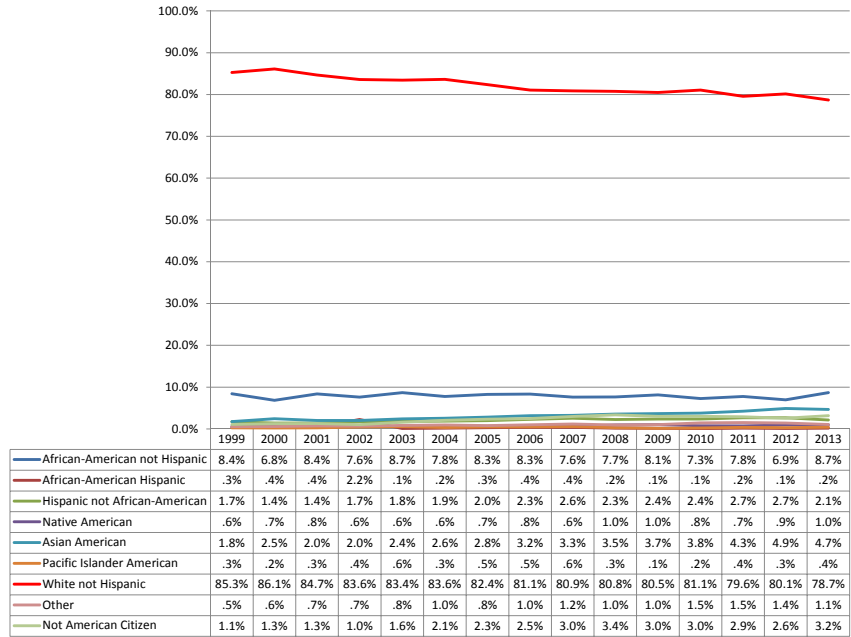
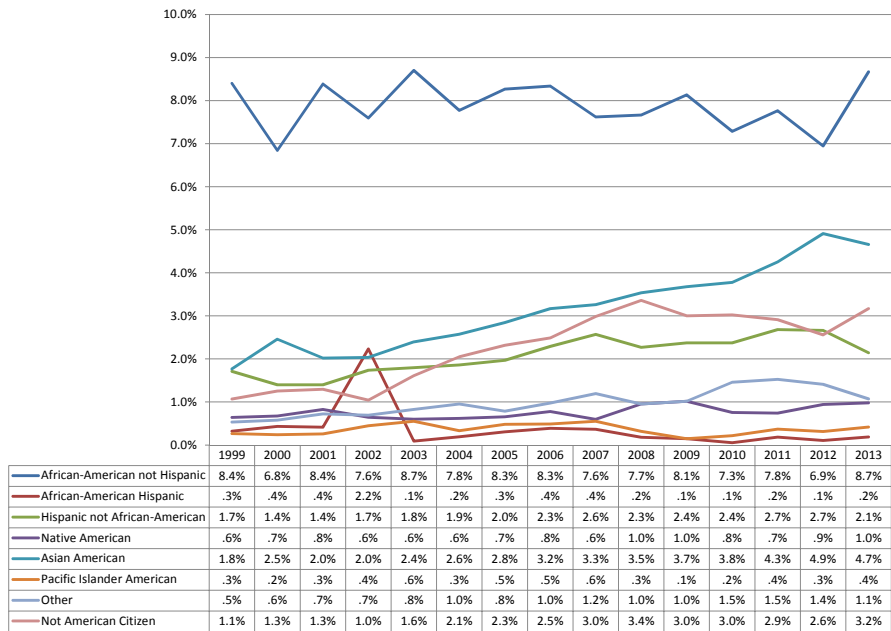
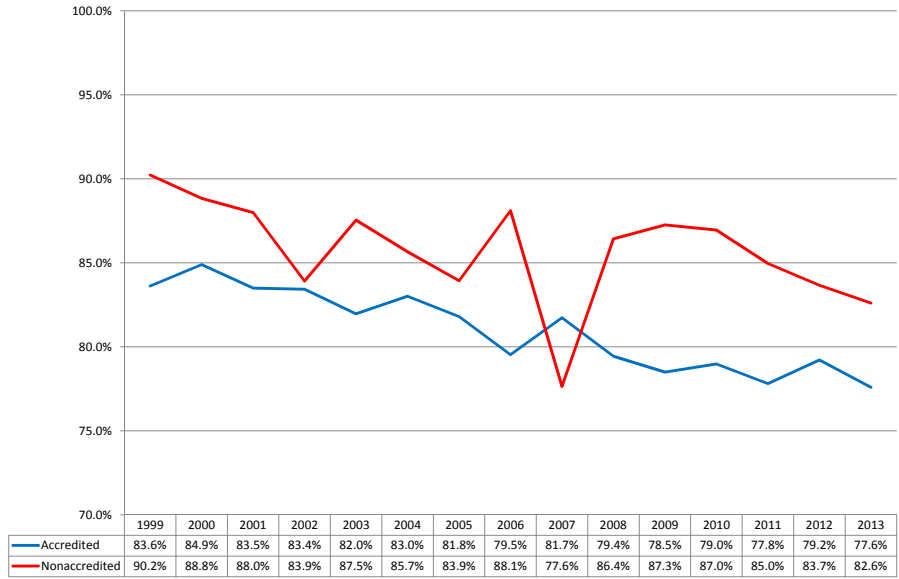


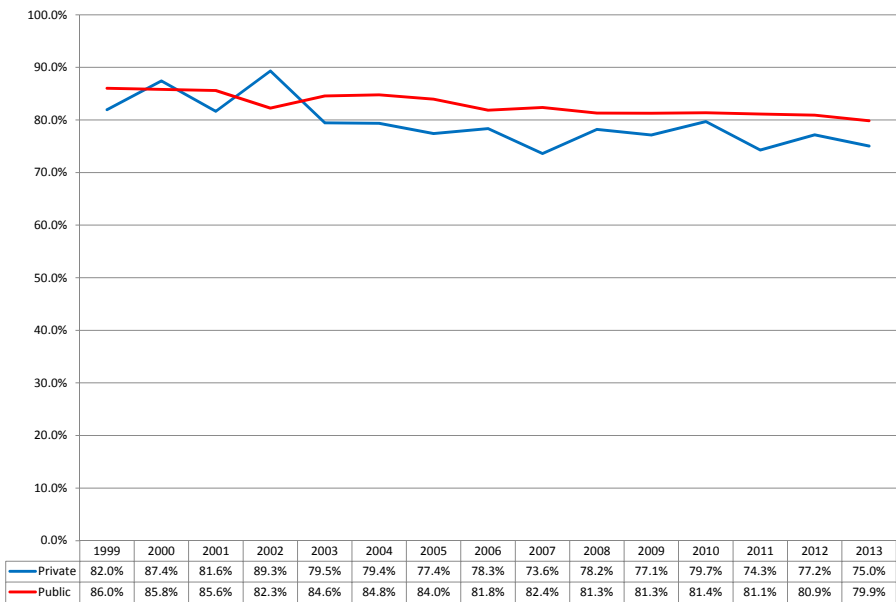
Chart 1A. Faculty By Race (White Non-Hispanic Eliminated)



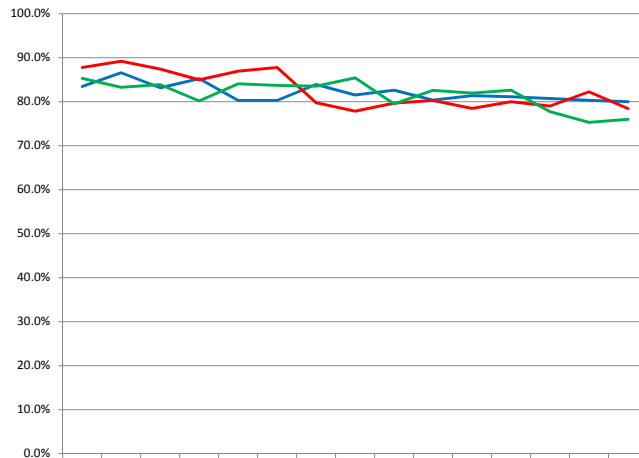
**Chart 2. Faculty By Race By Accreditation Status
(White Non-Hispanic Only)**



**Chart 3. Faculty By Race By Control
(White Non-Hispanic Only)**

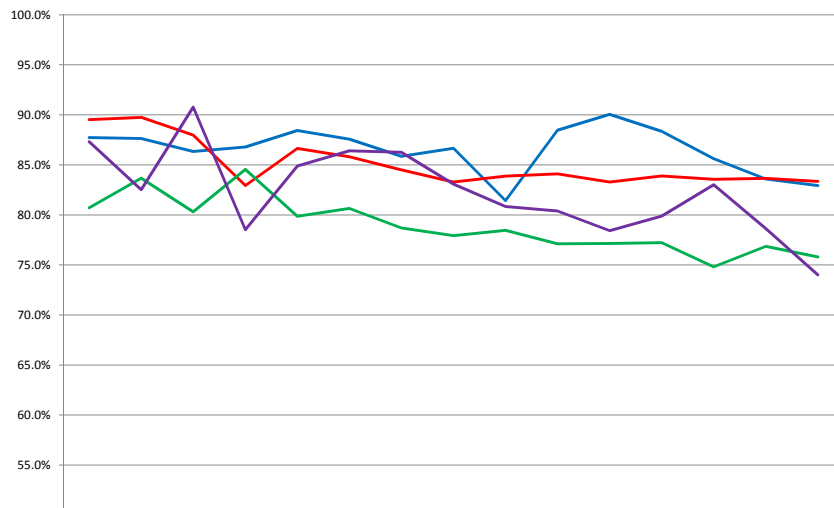


**Chart 4. Faculty By Race By Carnegie Classification
(White Non-Hispanic Only)**



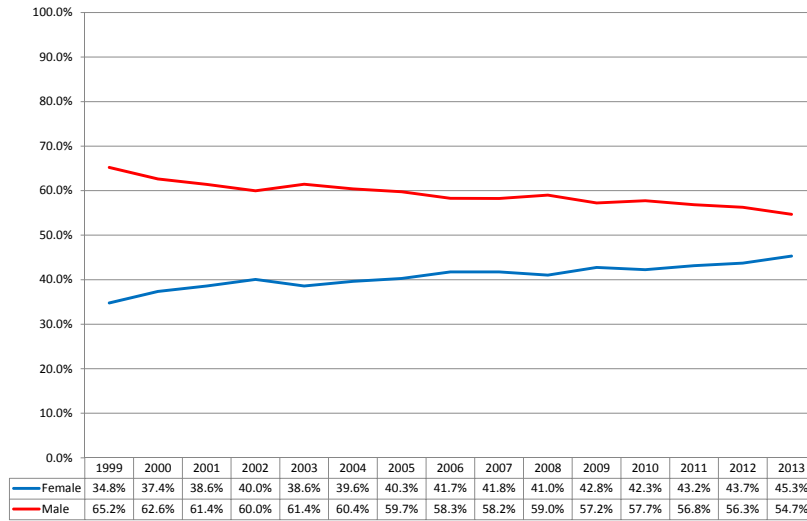
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Research I/Research University Very High Research Activity	83.4%	86.6%	83.2%	85.2%	80.3%	80.3%	83.9%	81.5%	82.6%	80.3%	81.4%	81.1%	80.7%	80.3%	80.0%
Research II Doctoral 1 & 2/Research University High Research Activity, Doctoral Research University	87.8%	89.2%	87.4%	85.0%	86.9%	87.8%	79.8%	77.8%	79.7%	80.3%	78.5%	80.0%	79.0%	82.2%	78.4%
Comprehensive & Liberal Arts/Masters Colleges & Universities, Baccalaureate Colleges	85.3%	83.3%	83.9%	80.2%	84.1%	83.7%	83.5%	85.4%	79.5%	82.6%	82.0%	82.6%	77.7%	75.3%	76.0%

**Chart 5. Faculty By Race By Region
(White Non-Hispanic Only)**

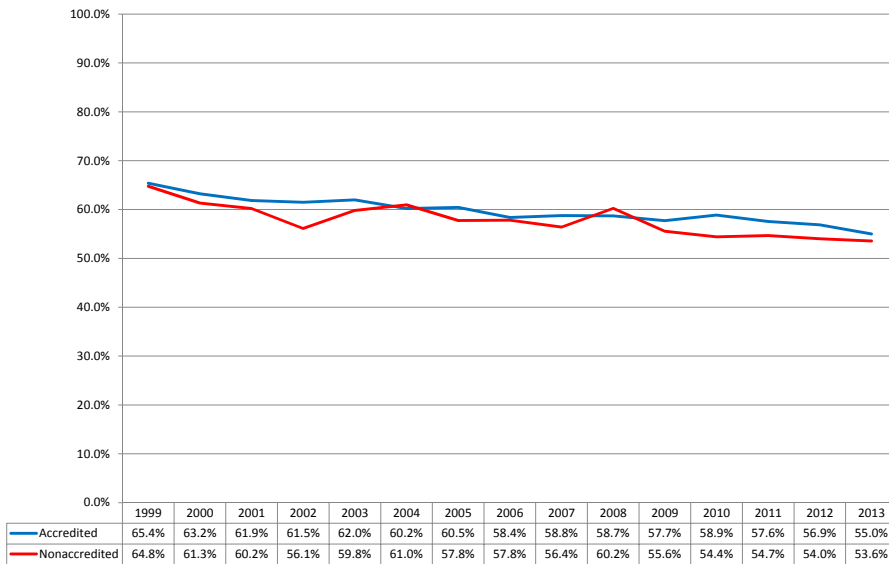


	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Northeast	87.7%	87.6%	86.3%	86.8%	88.4%	87.6%	85.9%	86.7%	81.4%	88.5%	90.1%	88.3%	85.6%	83.6%	82.9%
Midwest	89.5%	89.8%	88.0%	82.9%	86.6%	85.8%	84.5%	83.3%	83.9%	84.1%	83.3%	83.9%	83.6%	83.6%	83.4%
South	80.7%	83.7%	80.3%	84.6%	79.9%	80.7%	78.7%	77.9%	78.5%	77.1%	77.1%	77.2%	74.8%	76.9%	75.8%
West	87.3%	82.5%	90.8%	78.5%	84.9%	86.4%	86.3%	83.1%	80.8%	80.4%	78.4%	79.9%	83.0%	78.6%	74.0%

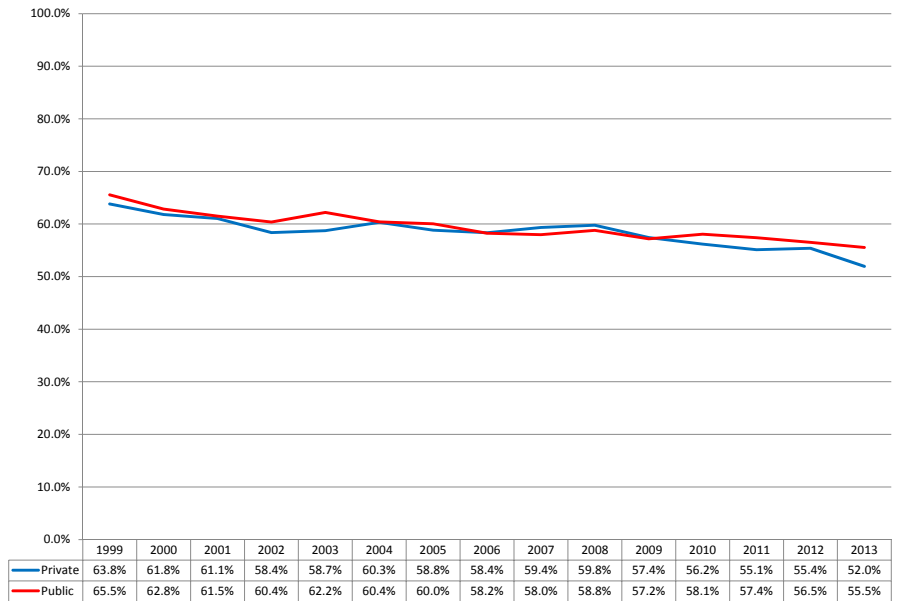
Chart 6. Gender By Year



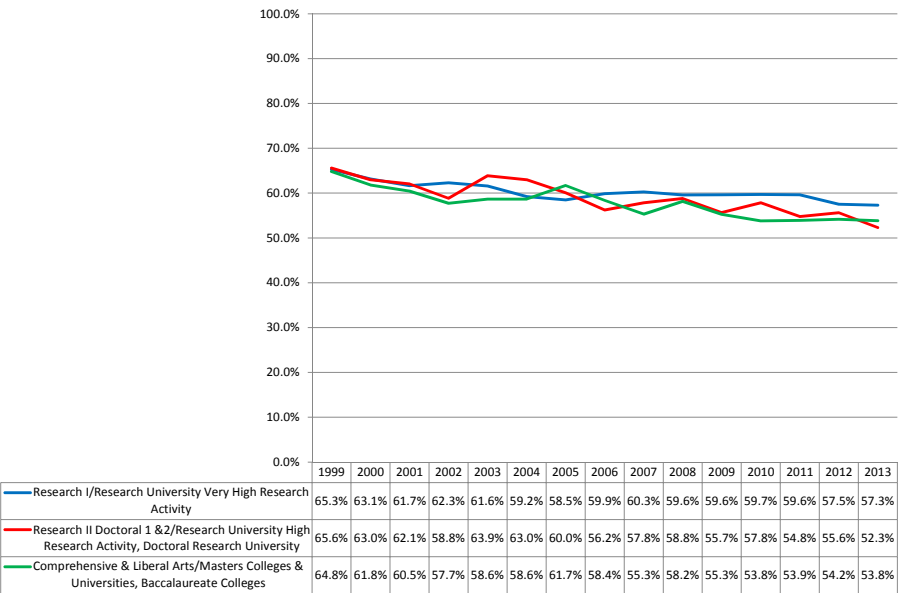
**Chart 7. Gender By Year By Accreditation
(Males Only)**



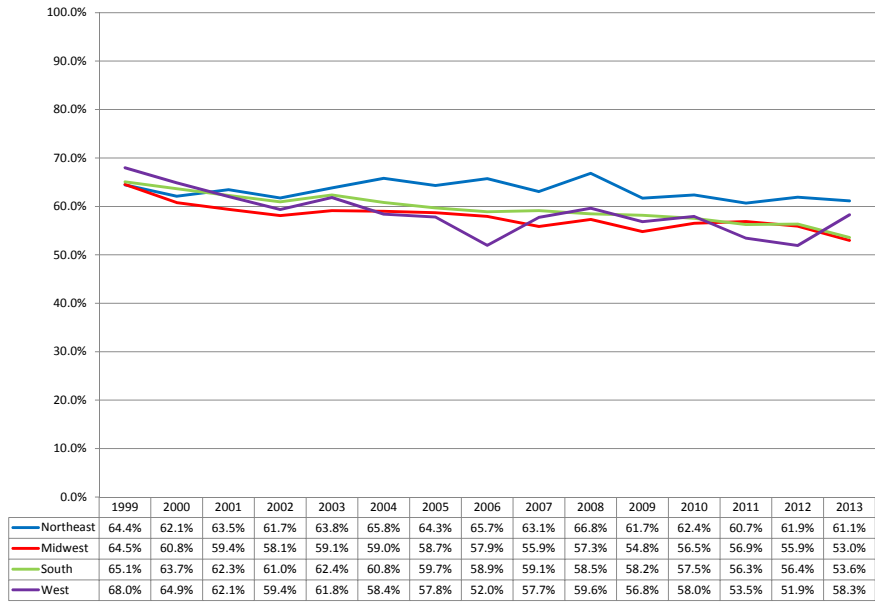
**Chart 8. Gender By Year By Control
(Males Only)**



**Chart 9. Gender By Year By Carnegie Classification
(Males Only)**



**Chart 10. Gender By Year By Region
(Males Only)**



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%