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Where Are We Going? Where Have We Been?: The Climate for Diversity within Urban Planning Educational Programs

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Abstract

This paper summarizes findings from a nationwide survey of degree-seeking urban planning students regarding the climate for diversity within their degree programs. This study examines interactions within the classroom, with faculty, with peers, and with professional planners. From May to October 2016, we surveyed 451 students and conducted in-depth interviews with 25 students. Our results show that while the majority of students report a positive climate for diversity within their programs, many still report occurrences of bias and discrimination, describe the shortcomings of a lack of planning faculty diversity, and perceive persistent challenges around diversity within planning practice.

Keywords

planning education, diversity, climate

Introduction

This paper summarizes findings from a nationwide survey of degree-seeking urban planning students regarding the climate for diversity within their degree programs. We illustrate the experiences urban planning students have interacting within the classroom, with faculty, with peers, and with professionals as they prepare to enter into planning practice or academe. This survey was motivated in part by Howell Baum's (1997) notion that planning education must foster *acting planfully*. We take this to mean not only that the educational environment *should* serve as a mirror for students' developing sense of planning, but also that it *does* serve this purpose, whether through intentional pedagogy or through chance. The climate for diversity within our educational programs provides an important frame of reference for how planning students will approach such issues in their professional and personal lives.

This study was undertaken by the Association of Collegiate Schools of Planning (ACSP) Planners of Color Interest Group (POCIG).[1] In examining diversity within urban planning programs, we used a broad conception of diversity that includes race and ethnicity, national origins, citizenship status, disability, gender identity, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, religion, age, family composition, marital status, and political beliefs. This definition recognizes the intersectionality around our identities and our experience of diversity within a personal or institutional context (Crenshaw 1991; Hancock 2007). Although POCIG's mission focuses on advocating for the needs of faculty, students, and communities of color, we designed our sampling frame to include degree-seeking urban planning students regardless of racial or ethnic identity, because the climate for diversity within our programs affects the learning environment for all students.

We first describe studies that call for greater diversity in the field and planning education. After that, we review existing studies on institutional diversity and climate related to higher education. Then, we establish the context for this study among previously administered ACSP studies on faculty and student diversity and representation.

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Our results show that the majority of students report an overall supportive and positive climate for diversity within their programs, regardless of a student's identity. However, students still report occurrences of bias and discrimination and articulate the shortcomings of a lack of faculty diversity within planning schools. These accounts reflect a major challenge to planning education—is doing well in terms of overall climate for diversity good enough? Student accounts suggest that the answer is no. We conclude with a discussion that synthesizes results into a series of broader observations with implications for urban planning institutions.

Need for Diversity in Planning

The field of planning is changing—communities and neighborhoods are becoming more diverse with the increasing number of immigrants from Asia and Latin America and the concurrent decline of white births (Frey 2014). Planners engage with the needs of multiple publics and multicultural communities, oftentimes amid conflicting situations in the same neighborhood (Harwood 2005). As Leonie Sandercock (2004) reminds us, a critical part of planning education is preparing to tackle head-on the challenges of increasing diversity, otherness, and pluralism.

As planners confront the challenges of engaging increasingly pluralistic interests, planning schools grapple with what diversity means as they recruit and educate the next generation of individuals seeking to influence and direct urban change. Planning programs have grown more diverse. Thomas (1996) illustrates a shift toward greater gender diversity within planning programs between 1960 and 1980, but also indicates that racial and ethnic diversity remained largely stagnant during the same time period. Lowe et al.'s (2016) more recent review of undergraduate and master's student enrollment between 2008 and 2015 indicates that the majority of planning students are still white, and that the representation of minority students in planning programs has remained relatively constant. For example, among master's students in 2008, about 8% were Latino, 5% Asian, 1% American Indian or Alaska Native, and 7% Black—in 2015, about 9% of master's students were Latino, 5% Asian, 1% American Indian or Alaska Native, and 8% Black. Greater diversity in planning programs has been driven by an increasing share of international students (Lowe et al. 2016), which calls for expanding domestic planning education beyond its American bias (Sanyal 1989; Thomas 1996).[2]

Beyond student enrollment, other studies have examined curriculum and how diversity has been implemented in the classroom. Friedmann (1996) conducted one of the first studies of 20 US and Canadian planning schools and found that core planning curricula were inconsistent and too broad. He suggested additional courses to bridge the gap between education and practice and argued that the ideal core curriculum would teach six socio-spatial processes, including cultural differentiation. Edwards and Bates (2011) evaluated 30 accredited planning schools' core curricula to understand how curricula had evolved over time. The authors found that schools have incorporated more planning history, theory, and practice-oriented courses to help students learn about the profession. The study also noted an increase in seminars that address questions about planning ethics, conflict, and politics. However, no core curricula implemented a requirement that covered "cultural differentiation" or diverse populations.

More recently, Sen et al. (2016) conducted content analyses of 100 syllabi from the 2012–2013 school year. They sought to understand the representation of diversity and social justice issues within courses taught by planning faculty. They found that courses frequently examined dimensions of difference (e.g., race, gender, or income) and how they are tied to power and inequality in society. Similar to Edwards' and Bates' findings in 2011, they noted that these courses are overwhelmingly located outside of the core curriculum.

The field of planning—both planning education and practice—continues to grapple with how to address diversity. Innes and Booher (2004) found that most US public participation methods are ineffective because they do not gather a wide range of opinions, but rather antagonize the public and pit groups against each other. Beebeejaun (2004) illustrated how planning institutions superficially engage with nonwhite groups. At best, planners may unconsciously be biased and work to perpetuate societal stratification, while nonwhite groups remain disproportionately affected by planning institutions (Harwood 2005; Frasure-Yokley 2015).

The concern for adequately meeting the challenge presented by diverse students and communities is not lost on planning academics or administrators. However, coming up with adequate solutions involves hitting moving targets. This study adds to our collective understanding of how climate around diversity within higher education, and specifically urban planning educational programs, is experienced by planning students, and how students view this climate as contributing to their capacity to more effectively meet social challenges related to diversity head-on.

Existing Studies on Institutional Climate and Diversity in Higher Education

A number of higher education studies provide contextualization for our study on urban planning programs. We focus on three main research findings related to institutional climate and diversity: (1) an inclusive campus climate goes beyond representation in numbers, and accounts for the effects of discrimination and historical legacies of exclusion; (2) minority students experience more hostile campus climates than white students; and (3) greater diversity on campus is linked to improved educational outcomes. These studies also provide insights on how to expand the pipeline beyond

recruitment, to include retention and matriculation of students into the planning field or faculty positions.

Higher education institutions tend to emphasize meeting proportional representation of racial and ethnic groups. Higher education institutions must simultaneously work to recruit diverse students and improve learning environments for all students. Hurtado et al. (1999) argue that there are four factors that affect racial campus climates: (1) historical legacies of inclusion and exclusion; (2) structural diversity; (3) behavioral dimensions; and (4) psychological climate. Diverse student enrollment and faculty comprise structural diversity. However, departments also need to understand the university's context and existing policies that affect students, such as financial aid programs or affirmative action. Behavioral dimensions include how racial and ethnic groups interact on campus and the classroom. Finally, psychological climate encompasses perceptions of racial and ethnic relations, discrimination, and prejudice.

Previous studies have consistently demonstrated that minority students experience more hostile campus climates than white students. Ancis, Sedlacek, and Mohr (2000) examined differences in undergraduate student background and perceptions of campus and individual racism at a large university; they found that African-American students perceived more racial conflict on campus than other groups, while African-American, Asian, and Latino students experienced more individual forms of racism. Similarly, Reid and Radhakrishnan (2003) found that undergraduate and graduate students of color, especially African-Americans, reported more negative experiences with campus academic and racial climate. These findings are consistent with Rankin and Reason's (2005) study of 10 campuses, where students of color experienced greater harassment and perceived their campus to be more racist than did white students.

It is also important to acknowledge differences among groups based on the intersections of identities or racial and ethnic subgroups. While beyond the scope of this review, there are important distinctions among racial and ethnic groups based on differences in racialization or immigration histories as related to educational institutions (for example, see Maramba 2008; Yosso et al. 2009; Maramba and Palmer 2014). Differences are also observed based on sexual orientation and citizenship status—queer students and recent immigrants report similar negative perceptions of campus climate and experiences of discrimination (Stebleton et al. 2014; Woodford and Kulick 2015). Perceptions of campus climate are also linked to negative perceptions of the school's commitment to diversity, and directly to the perception of whether or not the individual student feels supported and welcome (Reid and Radhakrishnan 2003).

Diversity-related resources drive positive educational outcomes. Students who enroll in classes that address issues of diversity or cross-racial interactions have higher ratings of self-efficacy, their own academic skills, and ability to work with cross-racial differences (Denson and Chang 2009). Cole and Zhou (2014) found that involvement in multicultural courses, workshops, or interracial interactions promotes student civic engagement. Engaging with diverse students also promotes critical and complex thinking (Antonio et al. 2004). These positive effects also persist in longitudinal studies, where interactions with diverse peer groups promoted long-term positive perceptions of other groups (Milem, Umbach, and Liang 2004; Sáenz et al. 2007).

Study Context: Addressing Diversity Concerns in the Planning Academe

The ACSP has worked to identify and address the need for greater diversity in planning education for several decades. In 1989, the ACSP Committee on the Retention/Recruitment of Women and People of Color as Faculty and Students was created to examine hiring and tenure of women and minorities and to follow the career paths of these groups (Ross 1990). This committee also created a survey of planning doctoral student graduates, chairs of planning departments and programs, and minority or female faculty to learn about their experiences in academe. This ad hoc committee ended a few years later. Later in ACSP's institutional history, a number of interest groups formed, including the Faculty Women's Interest Group (FWIG) in 1997, the Global Planning Educators Interest Group (GPEIG) in 1998, and the POCIG in 2007 (Hibbard et al. 2011).

After POCIG formed, they initiated and completed a 2008 survey on faculty and their perceptions of diversity and institutional climate (Wubneh 2011). This report identified an increase in minority faculty, in part due to the strengthening of diversity requirements in the Planning Accreditation Board (PAB) accreditation guidelines. At the same time, the findings noted that minority faculty experienced persistent discrimination and racial microaggressions, suggesting room to improve planning program social and institutional climates.[3]

In continuity with the survey, an ACSP task force was created in 2010 to create a model for planning programs to address issues of recruitment, retention, and tenure of underrepresented minority faculty (Hibbard et al. 2011). The task force offered a number of recommendations regarding institutional support. Their report emphasized the need for curriculum to address issues of diversity and to recruit and retain underrepresented students to doctoral programs. This task force later became the ACSP Committee on Diversity, which is responsible for supporting and implementing initiatives related to diversity within planning schools. The committee currently maintains responsibility for implementing activities focused on increasing representation of underrepresented populations among planning students and faculty, and expanding diversity within urban planning curricula.

The American Planning Association (APA), ACSP, PAB, and the American Institute of Certified Planners (AICP) formed a PAB Diversity Task Force in 2015. The PAB

initiated this task force because some schools continually failed to meet the diversity criteria present in accreditation standards. The task force surveyed students, faculty, and curricula of PAB-accredited programs to understand why. In May 2015, the 76 PAB-accredited universities received the survey, and 61 completed the survey (an 80% response rate). While 41 programs submitted their student body diversity goals, more than half of responding programs noted that they did not meet their goals because they did not have the financial resources to recruit diverse applicants.

In 2015, POCIG initiated the climate study that we write about in this paper. This study follows a trajectory of efforts to improve the representation of diverse faculty and students in the planning academe. We focus on degree-seeking undergraduate, masters, and doctoral students in urban planning. Previous surveys have focused on doctoral students to understand the recruitment of underrepresented faculty (Ross 1990); however, the academic pipeline often begins in earlier stages of higher education. Additionally, we assert that students who enter the planning workforce will benefit from welcoming campus climates that embrace diversity initiatives and programs.

Our approach also examines the intersections of gender, sexual orientation, race and ethnicity, citizenship status, and other factors that offer important nuance for developing inclusive programs. We provide detailed information on student experiences using a survey and in-depth interviews. As cities and suburbs are becoming more multidimensional and multicultural, our study provides implications for how to address complicated, difficult, and necessary circumstances of these resulting population trends within planning education and practice.

Methods

To assess the climate for diversity among students in urban planning degree programs, we used two complementary instruments. First, we conducted an online survey targeting current degree-seeking students in programs listed in the 2014 *ACSP Guide to Planning Schools*. The survey instrument incorporated elements from studies of planning students (Hinojosa, Lyons, and Zinn 1992; Harris 2015), and other diversity- and climate-related planning studies (Hibbard et al. 2011; Wubneh 2011). We also incorporated elements of pre-tested student climate studies including the 2016 Diverse Learning Environments Survey (see Hurtado and Guillermo-Wann 2013), the GLSEN National School Climate Survey (Kosciw et al. 2011), the University of Texas at Austin Graduate School Climate Study (Rodruiguez and Muller 2011), and the University of Chicago Spring 2015 Climate Study (Bartalone 2015). We incorporated questions from these sources because these are large-scale surveys with similar goals of examining student diversity and climate issues at universities or around specific identities.

Respondents were asked to answer questions about their overall satisfaction with their program or department, interactions with students and faculty within and outside of the classroom, and about their perspectives on how exposure to diversity influenced their perspective on post-degree practice. The survey also collected demographic information and included open-ended questions asking students to define diversity in their own words, describe their motivation for pursuing urban planning education, and explain whether diversity played a role within their decision to pursue a planning degree.

Since there is no comprehensive list of urban planning students, we recruited survey participants via an invitation email sent to the 165 department heads and program directors listed in the 2014 *ACSP Guide to Planning Schools* (105 institutions located in the USA and Canada). The email solicitation contained a description of survey questions, and suggested text (including a survey link) to send via email to students who were currently enrolled in planning programs or departments. A follow-up email was sent to department heads from the ACSP President's office, encouraging their department to participate in the research. Information about the survey was also sent to the ACSP student bowling league listserv, which has about 1000 student subscribers.

Our second instrument collected more detailed information from students who chose to participate in the online survey. When completing the online survey,[4] respondents were offered the opportunity to participate in a follow-up interview conducted either in person, on the phone, or via a recorded video conference.[5] Interested students were then contacted by the research team to schedule an interview. In the interviews, students were asked about their motivation for pursuing planning education, their experiences with planning education, and suggestions to improve diversity and climate within urban planning degree programs. Interviews were designed to last between 20 and 45 minutes, depending upon responses to questions.

Surveys were completed between May 2 and May 20, 2016. Follow-up interviews were conducted between July and October 2016.[6] Closed-ended survey responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics on the distribution of responses. Likert scale rating responses were disaggregated by several demographic factors (race, nativity, gender, sexual orientation, and marital status), and were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on ranks, commonly known as Kruskal–Wallis tests (Kruskal and Wallis 1952). The Kruskal–Wallis test determines whether statistically significant differences exist between the distribution of responses based (in this case) on demographic characteristics.[7]

After examining response distributions, we constructed scales from our Likert responses around seven topics: (1) department climate, (2) department support for diversity, (3) personal experiences of discrimination, (4) other student experiences with discrimination, (5) classroom environment, (6) faculty support for diversity, and (7) the perceived value of diversity. These scales directly aligned with survey and interview questions (Appendices 1 and 2). The seven scales included 8–15 questions each. The language used within scales comes from previously validated institutional survey

Table 1. Selected Respondent Demographic Characteristics.

	n	%		*n*	%
Gender			Age (mean)		
Female	182	40.4	Undergraduate	23	
Male	132	29.3	Graduate, masters	28	
Gender queer	16	3.6	Graduate, PhD	34	
No response	121	26.8			
Race and ethnicity			Sexual orientation		
Asian	38	8.4	Heterosexual	258	57.2
African-American	35	7.8	LGBTQ	57	12.6
Non-Hispanic white	196	43.5	Other/self-defined	4	0.9
Latino	56	12.4	Prefer not to answer	15	3.3
Other	6	1.3	No response	117	25.9
Prefer not to answer	28	6.2			
No response	120	26.6			
Nativity/foreign-born					
Native citizen	222	49.2			
Foreign-born	34	7.5			
Other	15	3.3			
No response	180	39.9			

instruments on campus climate.[8] Response data were standardized to ensure consistency among positive and negative direction responses. Scale values for respondents who answered fewer than half of the questions in a scale were dropped from the analysis of that scale.

We averaged scale scores to generate an overall sentiment for each respondent. We report overall scores as well as scores broken down by respondent race, ethnicity, gender, sexual identity, and nativity. We then used a hierarchical linear model (HLM) specification to model responses while controlling for potential biases that may arise from latent response patterns associated with clustering of responses within specific educational institutions or degree programs. Thus, the HLM models nested individual responses within degree-seeking level (undergraduate, masters, doctoral), which are nested within educational institutions. Models were run in R using the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2015).

To complement our statistical analyses, we summarize themes from our short response and qualitative interview data. Interview audio files were transcribed in their entirety. We used an inductive coding strategy based on Strauss and Corbin (1998)—codes were developed by the research team reading interviews, identifying a list of proposed themes, rereading interviews, adjusting themes, and then coding using the final dictionary of themes. Codes were validated by multiple readers in the research team using an iterative process. Coders first coded a sample of the same interviews, compared notes for consistency with the final dictionary of themes, and also compared notes for consistency between coders. After establishing a uniform approach to coding, all interviews were coded.

Results

A total of 451 complete survey responses were collected. It is difficult to generate a response rate because the total number of students in planning programs are not available. However, the 2014 *ACSP Guide to Planning Schools* enumerated 5044 master's-level planning students and 914 PhD-level planning students (undergraduate student enrollment is not reported). Table 1 summarizes survey respondent demographics. Around 40% of all respondents identified as female, 30% identified as male, and 4% identified as gender queer. Approximately 44% of our sample identified as non-Hispanic white, 12% identified as Latino, 8% identified as Asian, and 8% identified as African-American.[9] As a complement to these "visible" forms of diversity, we also focus in our analysis on two measures of "invisible" diversity—sexual orientation and nativity. About 8% of respondents identified as foreign-born, and 13% of our sample identified as LGBTQ. About 27% of respondents chose to not identify their racial background or gender, and 40% did not select their nativity. We attribute these missing data to the sensitive nature of the survey questions and respondents' potential fear of self-identification through responses.

Figure 1 displays response distribution by state (about one-third of students did not identify their institutional affiliation or state or country of the educational program).[10] California had the highest number of respondents (53), followed by New York (48) and Illinois (32). Sixteen respondents were from Canadian schools and eight were from Puerto Rico.

Table 2 provides a summary of our sample based on educational status, degree level, and areas of study. The

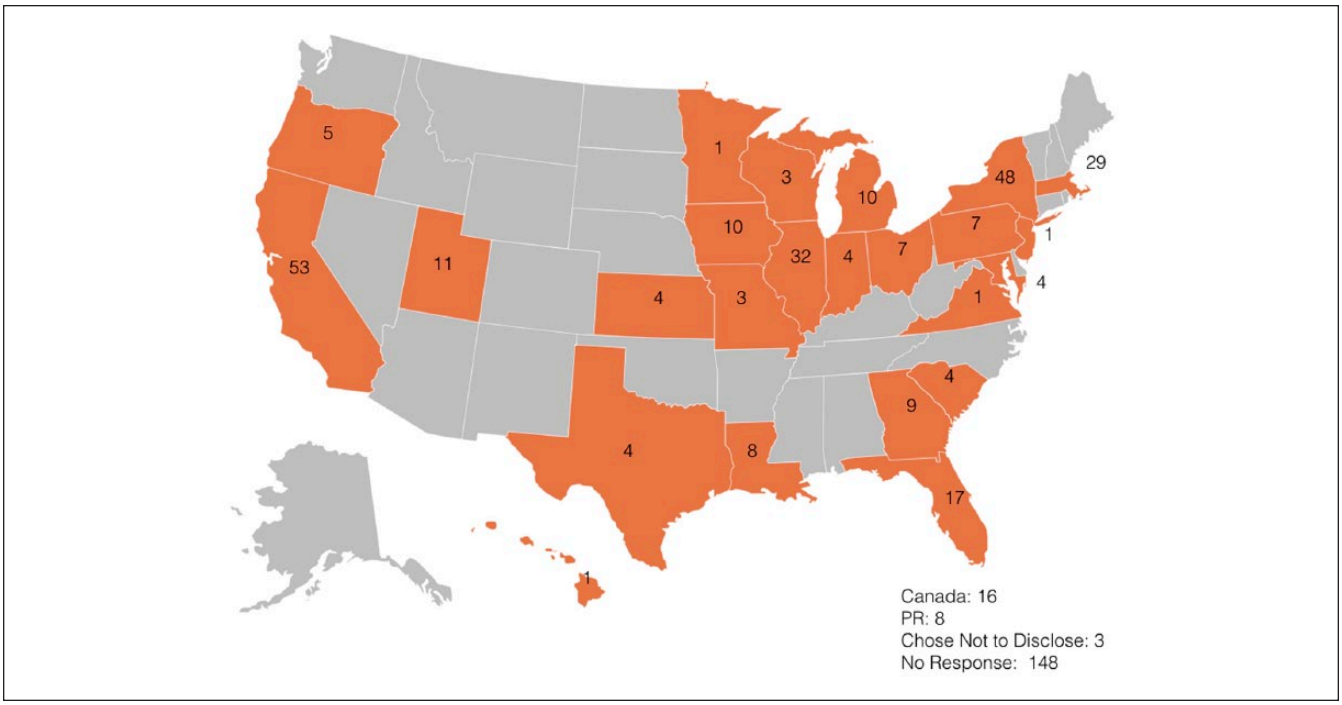

Figure 1. Respondents by location.

Table 2. Respondent Education Characteristics.

	n	%
Degree level		
Undergraduate	45	9.98
Graduate, masters	314	69.62
Graduate, PhD	87	19.29
Dual degree	3	0.67
No response	2	0.44
Student status		
Full-time student	377	83.59
Part-time student	69	15.30
Not currently enrolled	4	0.89
No response	1	0.22
Semesters of study		
1 semester	18	3.99
2 semesters	132	29.27
3 semesters	29	6.43
4 semesters	114	25.28
≥ 5 semesters	153	33.92
No response	5	1.11

majority of survey respondents were enrolled full-time (84%) in master's-level graduate programs in urban planning (70%).

An additional 23 in-depth qualitative interviews were conducted. Interviewees represented 13 institutions in eight states: Massachusetts, California, Florida, Illinois, Iowa, New York, Pennsylvania, and Utah. There were 16 females and 7 males. A total of 10 participants identified as white, 5 were Asian, 4 were Black, 4 were Latinos, 2 were mixed-race, and 1 was indigenous.

We start by presenting a summary of results from our descriptive analysis of responses. We examine response distributions for the seven scales disaggregated by respondent demographic characteristics (Table 3). There were a number of statistically significant differences in responses within the seven topics (shaded cells in Table 3). Racial and ethnic group differences had the highest number of statistically significant differences in responses—for six of the seven topics. Three areas are statistically differentiated by gender identity. When examined by the seven areas, personal experiences of discrimination had statistically significant differences based on institution, race and ethnicity, sexual orientation, and nativity. Classroom experiences differed by race and ethnicity and sexual orientation. While this descriptive approach highlights areas of difference in responses, it does not identify the direction of the difference or which specific demographic groups have statistically significant differences.

Our hierarchical regression models control for differences that may be associated with level of degree program and specific institutions. For the seven developed scales, we tested differences in gender identity, age, race and ethnicity, sexual orientation, and nativity. We ran two models—one that includes visible identity characteristics including gender identity, age, race, and ethnicity, and another that adds "invisible" identity characteristics including sexual orientation and nativity. Table 4 summarizes areas where statistically significant differences in responses are observed. Compared to the results from the Kruskal–Wallis tests, differences regarding

Table 3. Kruskal–Wallis Tests for Differences in Responses.

Characteristic	Departmental Climate	Atmosphere for Diversity	Personal Experience of Discrimination	Others' Experience of Discrimination	Classroom Environment	Faculty Support for Diversity	Value of Diversity
Institution	0.0678	0.1674	0.0158	0.0328	0.0879	0.1554	0.6207
Degree level	0.0281	0.1107	0.4042	0.1476	0.2259	0.0621	0.1025
Gender identity	0.0840	0.0180	0.1769	0.0734	0.2448	0.4659	0.7697
Race and ethnicity	0.0293	0.0005	0.0075	0.2768	0.0007	0.0491	0.0022
Sexual orientation	0.2522	0.1887	0.0056	0.0079	0.0292	0.2546	0.1591
Nativity	0.3195	0.2724	0.0007	0.0572	0.1567	0.0540	0.4428

Note: Shaded values represent *p* values of less than 0.05.

Table 4. Regression Model Results (Sign and Level of Statistical Significance).

Characteristic	Departmental Climate	Atmosphere for Diversity	Personal Experience of Discrimination	Others' Experience of Discrimination	Classroom Environment	Faculty Support for Diversity	Value of Diversity
Gender							
Male (reference)							
Female	– *** / – ***	– *** / – ***					
Gender queer	– ** / – *	– ** / – **		+ ** / + ***	– ** / – **		
Prefer not to answer							
Age							
Race and ethnicity							
Asian							
African-American						+ * /	
Non-Hispanic white			– * /		+ * / + *	+ ** / + *	/ + *
Prefer not to answer							
Latino	– ** / – *						
Not Latino (reference)							
Sexual orientation/LGBTQ							
Nativity/foreign-born			NA / + ***	NA / + ***			
Sign interpretation	− less favorable	− less favorable	+ less favorable	+ less favorable	− less favorable	− less favorable	− less favorable

Note: Positive or negative sign indicates direction of difference, and interpretation is provided at the bottom of the table. Left-hand values reflect models incorporating gender, age, race and ethnicity. Right-hand values reflect models which add sexual orientation and nativity. *$p < 0.1$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$.

age and sexual orientation are not significant in the models. Differences persisted for female and gender queer students, African-American and non-Hispanic white students, Latino students, and foreign-born students.

To efficiently analyze the results from these models, we divide model results into the following categories for further analysis: the value of diversity, managing relationships, the educational environment, and departmental climate. For each category, we provide detailed descriptions of survey responses and model results and then utilize evidence from in-depth interviews to contextualize group differences.

Value of Diversity

Our survey included two scales related to the value of diversity. One scale examined the atmosphere for diversity and the other examined the value of diversity. Our atmosphere for diversity scale asked a series of questions about student perceptions of faculty, student, and staff racial and gender composition, respect for difference, and sense of community. With regards to the atmosphere for diversity, our analyses indicated statistically significant differences by race and ethnicity (Table A1, $p < 0.05$), with non-Hispanic white students reporting a more favorable view of the atmosphere for diversity when compared to students from other racial groups. Male students also reported a more favorable atmosphere for diversity when compared to other gender identities ($p < 0.01$). When these data were modeled (Table 5, models 1 and 2), effects for gender identity were statistically significant. Controlling for other factors, female and gender queer students gave less positive overall views about the atmosphere for diversity. Non-Hispanic whites tended to

Table 5. Model Results: The Value of Diversity.

	Dependent Variable			
	Mean			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gender, no response	0.034	0.034	0.065	0.061
	(0.451)	(0.450)	(0.503)	(0.500)
Gender, female	−0.198***	−0.195***	−0.058	−0.055
	(0.064)	(0.064)	(0.070)	(0.070)
Gender, gender queer	−0.342**	−0.353**	−0.116	−0.154
	(0.146)	(0.149)	(0.169)	(0.173)
Age	−0.003	−0.003	−0.003	−0.003
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Asian	−0.001	0.012	0.093	0.113
	(0.151)	(0.151)	(0.166)	(0.166)
African-American	−0.169	−0.143	−0.029	−0.002
	(0.142)	(0.145)	(0.156)	(0.160)
Non-Hispanic white	0.126	0.150	0.234	0.260*
	(0.136)	(0.140)	(0.150)	(0.154)
Race, prefer not to answer	−0.069	−0.062	0.024	0.038
	(0.169)	(0.169)	(0.189)	(0.189)
Latino ethnicity	−0.222	−0.202	0.094	0.112
	(0.147)	(0.150)	(0.161)	(0.164)
LGBTQ		0.040		0.092
		(0.083)		(0.092)
Foreign-born		0.083		0.094
		(0.112)		(0.123)
Constant	3.101***	3.062***	2.916***	2.862***
	(0.212)	(0.215)	(0.232)	(0.235)
Observations	199	199	197	197
Log likelihood	−115.401	−115.023	−130.882	−130.122
Akaike information criterion	256.801	260.046	287.765	290.243
Bayesian information criterion	299.614	309.445	330.446	339.491

*$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$.

have a more favorable view of the atmosphere for diversity when compared to other racial groups, although this difference was not statistically significant.

A second scale focused on the value of diversity (see Table 5, models 3 and 4). This scale asked students to describe their perceptions of how diversity is valued within the classroom and within interactions with peers and faculty. Statistically significant differences exist for responses by race and ethnicity, with non-Hispanic white respondents reporting a more favorable view of the ways in which diversity is valued in planning programs. This relationship was also reflected within the models for this response, with a statistically significant effect associated with non-Hispanic white respondents.

In interviews, students defined diversity in different ways—with gender, race, and socioeconomic status being frequently mentioned features of their definitions. Because not all of the categories of diversity can be discussed within the scope of this article, we concentrate on how students conceive of and value diversity. Most students understood that diversity is important because planners (1) are responsible for advancing a more just and equal society, and (2) work in communities featuring many types of diversity or heterogeneity.

In the survey and in follow-up interviews, students were asked directly to provide their definition of diversity. One student noted:

> I definitely can define what diversity is not. Where I grew up is not diverse. Well, it wasn't diverse racially, but it was diverse in income. So I guess, I don't know. I honestly don't know if I have a vocabulary for describing diversity. But just saying lots of different people from lots of different backgrounds, and maybe that can be an ethnic background, racial background, income background, language background, kind of eye color.

Interviews revealed that students share a small core understanding of diversity which is then complemented by a divergent working definition for diversity. Students' definitions range from the expected—differences that deal with inequality and representation (like race and gender)—to those that are trivial (e.g., eye color).

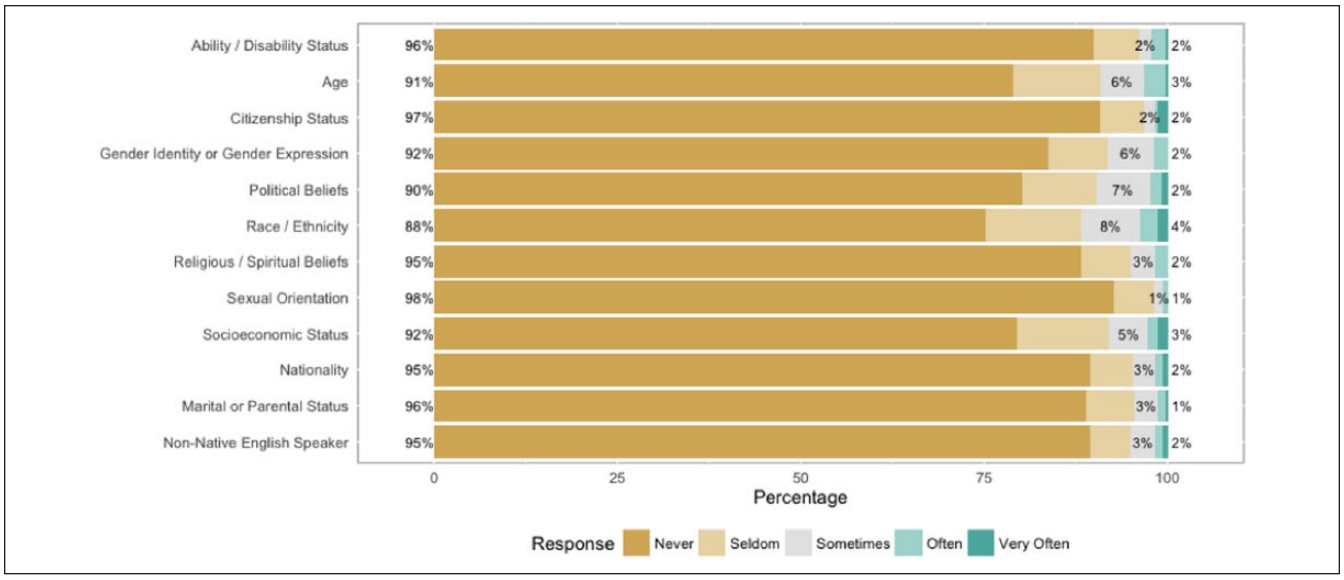

Figure 2. Thinking about interactions within your department, have you personally experienced bias/harassment due to your…

Despite a broad definition of diversity, students recognized the value of diversity as it related to their decision to pursue urban planning education. Many students saw the value of diversity through an understanding of the principles of social justice and equality. As one student pointed out:

> A lot of times we'll try to start these conversations about making sure that plans are racially equal. But most of the people in my classes have no idea. We talk about zoning laws and how they were used. A lot of people were like—I had no idea. Where you place a waste treatment facility? Yes, you're totally targeting these lower income neighborhoods because the rich people don't want this in their backyard. That's unfair and racist.

Students were also asked about whether diversity factored into their decision to pursue planning education. Students responded to this question in three different ways. Some students discussed their motivation to change the representativeness of planning practice: "I don't see a lot of people from my background, both racially and economically, working in this field. So, I think I could provide a unique perspective." Others reflected on expectations regarding the relationship between the climate for diversity within their degree program and their sense of planning practice: "I wanted it to at least be on their radar and be a value, which I saw before I visited. I felt that to truly understand and be effective in community work and urban planning, the program should be conscious of the importance of diversity to interrupt patterns of structural racism and oppression of all kinds." In contrast, other students indicated that their expectations for diversity within planning education and practice were low: "I wasn't expecting much. Planning is basically a white man's profession."

Many students reflected on diversity as a retrospective component of their decision to pursue planning education at a specific institution: "I didn't even think of this as something to consider until I was in the program. I wish I would have understood how important this actually is to me when I was looking into programs … This is not the experience I would expect to have in a planning department." Finally, some students reflected upon why planners should care about diversity: "We don't live in monolithic communities. And planners, hopefully, even if you're an academic, I think you hope that your work is important for communities that you work in or that you hope to impact."

Managing Peer and Faculty Relationships: Bias and Discrimination

Our survey asked students whether they felt they had personally experienced bias or harassment within departmental interactions, and asked students to identify the basis for such discrimination. Across all demographic characteristics, more than 75% of students reported never experiencing direct bias or discrimination within their department (Figure 2). For students who did report bias or discrimination, these experiences were based most frequently on citizenship status, political beliefs, race and ethnicity, or socioeconomic status.

Models of personal experiences of discrimination indicate significant effects for foreign-born students, who reported more frequent instances ($p < 0.01$; see Table 6, model 2). Non-Hispanic white students reported less frequent instances of personal bias or discrimination ($p < 0.l$; see Table 6, model 1). Students were also asked whether they had observed bias or discrimination against others in their departments (Table 6, models 3 and 4). More than 50% of respondents reported never witnessing bias or discrimination against others in their

Table 6. Model Results: Managing Relationships.

	Dependent Variable			
	Mean			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gender, no response	0.260	0.278	−0.311	−0.290
	(0.383)	(0.359)	(0.513)	(0.498)
Gender, female	−0.007	−0.007	−0.022	−0.028
	(0.053)	(0.050)	(0.072)	(0.071)
Gender, gender queer	0.129	0.176	0.436**	0.476***
	(0.128)	(0.124)	(0.174)	(0.175)
Age	0.005	0.004	−0.001	−0.002
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.006)
Asian	0.122	0.153	0.174	0.202
	(0.126)	(0.119)	(0.172)	(0.168)
African-American	−0.141	0.002	0.005	0.125
	(0.118)	(0.115)	(0.162)	(0.161)
Non-Hispanic white	−0.198*	−0.056	−0.035	0.088
	(0.113)	(0.110)	(0.155)	(0.155)
Race, prefer not to answer	0.191	0.172	0.284	0.262
	(0.143)	(0.135)	(0.195)	(0.190)
Latino ethnicity	0.004	0.133	0.150	0.266
	(0.121)	(0.118)	(0.166)	(0.166)
LGBTQ		−0.014		−0.028
		(0.066)		(0.092)
Foreign-born		0.433***		0.413***
		(0.088)		(0.125)
Constant	1.184***	1.046***	1.382***	1.260***
	(0.174)	(0.169)	(0.242)	(0.241)
Observations	199	199	199	199
Log likelihood	−76.717	−65.543	−140.455	−135.083
Akaike information criterion	179.433	161.086	306.910	300.165
Bayesian information criterion	222.246	210.485	349.723	349.565

*$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$.

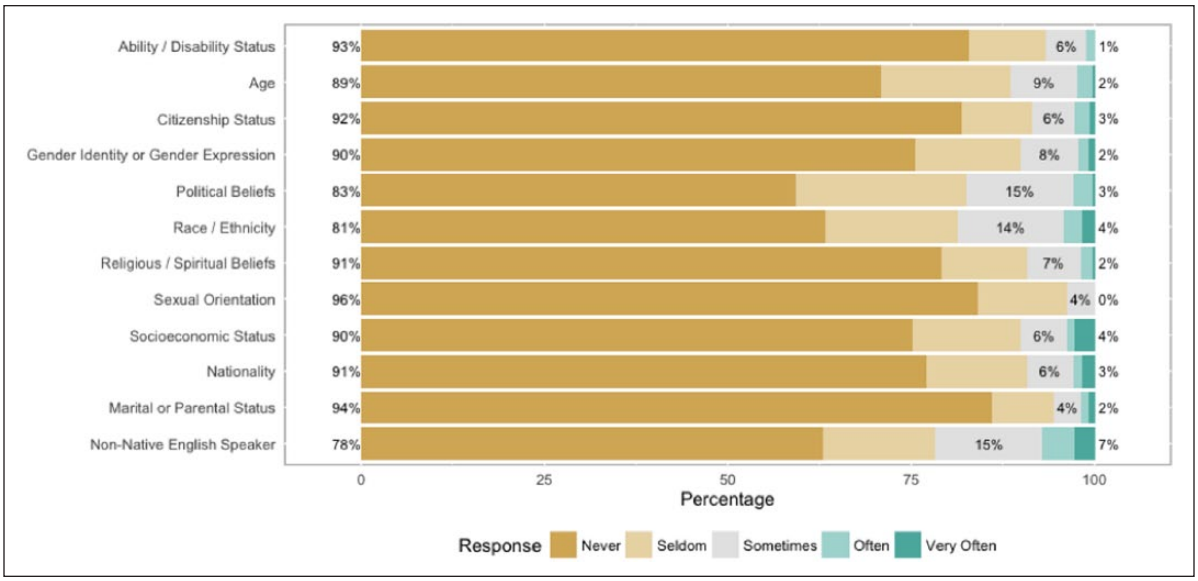

Figure 3. Have you witnessed others experiencing bias/harassment due to their…

department across all categories we measured (Figure 3). Nevertheless, among those who did witness others experiencing bias or discrimination, students identified these incidences stemming from political beliefs, race and ethnicity, nationality, and ability to speak English. Significant effects were observed for gender queer students and foreign-born students.

Although the proportion of students surveyed who related that they or others close to them had experienced bias and discrimination is small, two important themes emerged within our interviews: (1) experiencing microaggressions and (2) experiencing isolation. Interviewees who experienced microaggressions discussed: (a) feelings of being treated as marginalized within their department; (b) that their knowledge is questioned or singled out based upon their identity; and (c) that they are subjected to prejudice and criticism. As an example of being tokenized, a student recalls being told: "You know, your people always come here asking for things. And we don't owe you anything." Other students were questioned about their expertise. For example, a Chinese student had instructors who had been to China, "so they feel like they know more about China than me." Another student felt prejudice and criticism from other students: "Someone in my cohort told me that she loves Korean humor because everything is a bathroom joke based off one TV show that she would watch. If you had any kind of critical thinking you would know that's like saying The Simpsons is all of American humor."

While extreme forms of bias and discrimination are not rampant within many planning programs, our study provides evidence that these discriminatory attitudes still exist through microaggressions, particularly around race, ethnicity, nativity and country of origin, and English-language proficiency. These negative interactions shape students' approaches to their planning education and each other. We next turn to examining several of the ways in which students responded to perceived bias and discrimination within their department.

Managing Peer and Faculty Relationships: Isolation

Isolation was a common theme for students—at times, students chose to isolate themselves to protect themselves, while some students felt that others isolated them. Students also described feeling isolated due to several reasons. First, students felt they were the sole representative of their identity group. Second, students shared that they lacked peers or mentors that could relate to their experiences. Third, students' approach to planning, methods, or areas of interest were considered illegitimate or subordinate to other approaches (e.g., qualitative research methods or working with minority groups). Finally, some students experienced anxiety and isolation because of language barriers.

As a result of experiencing microaggressions, in some cases students adapted and selectively isolated themselves to protect themselves against particular students or faculty members who made these comments. In other cases, students chose to withdraw more generally from particular actions within their department. A student describes their strategy for interacting with their cohort: "And so obviously, I have learned to censor myself because of these microaggressions. And our cohort does meet up once or twice every quarter, but I go to them out of professional obligation." For others, they felt isolated because they are "the only one" of their identity group. As one student commented: "My first year was a shock, and I told you where I definitely felt like I was the token person. I was like the only domestic Asian student in my cohort, and it was very pronounced."

This feeling of being the only one is augmented by the lack of diversity at both the student and faculty level. Another student commented: "There are very few African American faculty and very few African American students. And they felt very isolated. Certain people might not feel heard or they might not have faculty members who are open to diversity or other ways of being more generally. Sometimes different people are looking for role models in different ways and there aren't any in the department."

Similarly, international students oftentimes feel isolated on the basis of language. One student described discomfort in the classroom:

> I felt uncomfortable all the time. It was really hard to speak because my English was not good enough compared to others. I could not do more in classes. At some point, I was separated from the class, I think, in terms of language. And so I felt lost and I cannot answer these questions. And this was a pattern. The only class that I didn't have this problem was [a professor's] class because she was, like, all time pushing me and the others to talk and she would say "Come on. I know you have experiences. Talk, talk, talk, talk." Not, like, sometimes, but all time. And that helped me a lot.

Feelings of isolation are pernicious because they represent everyday challenges for students, but also whether or not students can make use of resources available to them—especially faculty mentorship and guidance. On one hand, faculty that encourage students from different backgrounds to engage in classroom discussion is a useful pedagogical tool; on the other hand, it can also reinforce feelings of being singled out. These types of experiences resonate deeply with many students of color, from international backgrounds, or for whom English is not their first language. These observations are not unique to planning education, but are also reflective of a broader structural challenge facing higher education (Rankin and Reason 2005). However, it is important to point out how these feelings of isolation permeate beyond personal and collective identity politics.

Curriculum and Departmental Climate

We asked students to provide an overall perspective on departmental climate (Figure 4). These questions focused on perceptions of the departmental support for and commitment to diversity, and the ways in which the department embodies a commitment to diversity through action and the support of

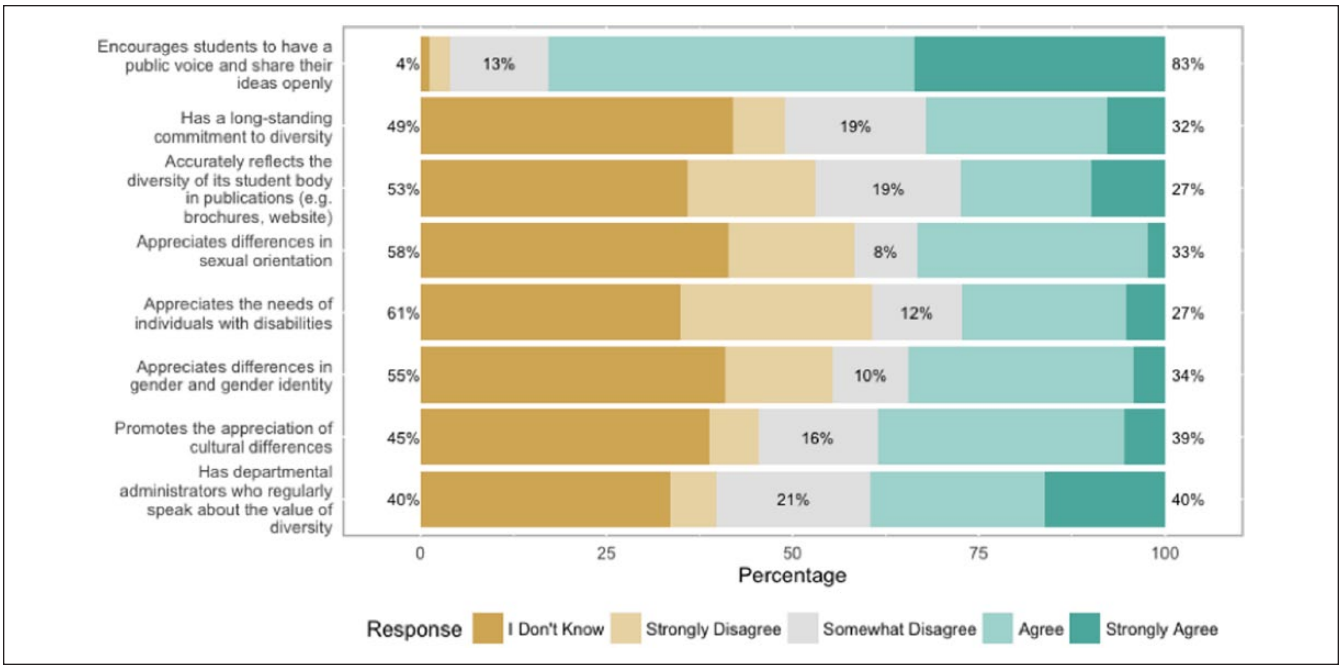

Figure 4. Departmental climate.

administrators. While a large proportion of students felt that they did not know whether their department was implementing such activities, students who could identify these activities had generally positive responses. The models for this scale show that females and gender queer individuals, as well as Latino individuals, were more likely to indicate less favorable levels of support within their department—these results are statistically significant (Table 7, models 1 and 2).

We then asked students to respond to questions about the classroom environment, focusing on the value of diversity within instructor pedagogy, departmental curriculum, and in-class interactions. Students respond that they experienced a largely positive environment in which they are comfortable making contributions, felt that they are learning and are being exposed to new perspectives, and were exposed to diverse viewpoints (Figure 5).

However, when disaggregated by student racial identity, there is evidence of disagreement on classroom climate. Non-white students are less likely to feel comfortable sharing their perspectives and more likely to feel singled out based on their identity than are white students. Non-white students also feel they have to work harder, experience less exposure to new perspectives, and are more likely to disagree that their department provides exposure to practitioners with diverse experience and identity characteristics when compared to their non-Hispanic white counterparts.

Our composite scale of perspectives on classroom environment (Table 8, models 1 and 2) also indicates significant differences in perspectives based upon gender and race. Individuals identifying as gender queer rated the classroom environment as being significantly less supportive ($p < 0.05$). With regards to race, non-Hispanic white respondents were more likely to rate the classroom environment as being more supportive. While other racial identifications also indicate positive signs, only the signs for non-Hispanic white respondents were statistically significant.

Our interviews revealed that diversity is broadly discussed in classrooms rather than through deep engagement and dialogue. A student shared:

> You talk about diversity on a much more general scale … Or like, you know, the separation of people is an issue […] So it doesn't feel like it's tangible or, you know, people's lives. I would say we talked more about income disparity more than diversity itself.

While students acknowledged having superficial discussions on diversity within classroom interactions, only a few mentioned that issues of race, identity, and culture are embedded through classroom content and discussions. Students frequently linked a deficit in discussion and focus on diversity within the classroom to deficits around the translation of course content into concrete examples and practical applications within practice contexts. Also missing are curriculum items that specifically address cultural competency and how students will work in the kinds of diverse communities that they will engage in as practitioners.

Furthermore, students observed that diversity issues were not integrated into the core curriculum. If students wanted to learn more about diversity, they either had to enroll in elective courses or relevant courses outside of the department. A student explained this process:

Table 7. Model Results: Departmental Climate.

	Dependent Variable	
	Mean	
	(1)	(2)
Gender, no response	0.552	0.547
	(0.605)	(0.605)
Gender, female	−0.235***	−0.243***
	(0.088)	(0.089)
Gender, gender queer	−0.417**	−0.370*
	(0.197)	(0.203)
Age	−0.003	−0.003
	(0.007)	(0.007)
Asian	−0.135	−0.141
	(0.207)	(0.207)
African-American	−0.195	−0.180
	(0.193)	(0.198)
Non-Hispanic white	−0.028	−0.007
	(0.186)	(0.191)
Race, prefer not to answer	−0.103	−0.119
	(0.230)	(0.230)
Latino ethnicity	−0.395**	−0.365*
	(0.201)	(0.205)
LGBTQ		−0.106
		(0.115)
Foreign-born		0.051
		(0.154)
Constant	3.310***	3.318***
	(0.293)	(0.297)
Observations	193	193
Log likelihood	−172.088	−171.612
Akaike information criterion	370.176	373.224
Bayesian information criterion	412.591	422.165

*$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$.

> We're encouraged to take courses outside of our department a lot […] And then we do everything else outside … I've taken courses in the humanities and the Chicano Studies Department and the Asian American Studies Department […] I've taken some good classes that have components of diversity in them, but they haven't necessarily been in our department.

Many students noted the benefits that are achieved through greater exposure to courses on diversity and the value it brings to the classroom. This value is certainly supplemented by elective offerings and offerings from other departments; however, students noted that more exposure to similar perspectives within the core would not only legitimate the value of that content, but would also force similar issues to be addressed in greater depth in elective course offerings.

Lack of Faculty Representation, Expertise, and Openness

These issues of diversity extend to department faculty. We asked students to assess qualities of faculty engagement with students, particularly around issues of diversity. When asked about core faculty in their departments, students painted a favorable picture of their interactions with faculty and faculty engagement with diversity (Figure 6). For example, 70% of students either agreed or strongly agreed that their departmental faculty encourage students from diverse backgrounds to work together.

Table 8 also includes the models for faculty support (see models 3 and 4). Overall, students indicated statistically significant positive results for African-American students ($p < 0.1$) and non-Hispanic white students ($p < 0.05$, see model 3). The signs for females, students identifying as gender queer, and foreign-born students were negative, indicating less positive perceptions of faculty support, but were not statistically significant.

Faculty representation was also deemed important. Students frequently perceived that, when faculty of color were present within their department, they bore the responsibility of teaching courses around issues of diversity. A student explained why low numbers of diverse faculty is a problem:

> I've had a lot of conversations with my classmates where we're all on the same page of like, this is someone who everyone should be taking a class with because of how she presents it. But it's also this further issue of it shouldn't be her responsibility to be teaching everyone this stuff […] We should have enough faculty available to us … It shouldn't be on that one person to kind of enlighten the whole cohort to these issues.

In addition to the lack of representation of faculty of color, students also discussed the challenges of having so few faculty with the expertise in teaching about issues of diversity, particularly to fill in when other faculty are on leave. Several students explained that when faculty designated to teach courses that focus on issues of diversity are on sabbatical, this leaves a gap in the curriculum where these pertinent topics are not covered. Additionally, remaining faculty may instead attempt to cover content within other courses, while key classes are left unavailable for students. This increasingly occurs when courses that focus on diversity are not part of the core curriculum, where departments will ensure that core courses are covered when faculty are on leave.

Students felt that non-minority faculty face challenges integrating social justice and equity issues in conversations about communities of color, and that this discomfort or lack of perspective contributes to superficial discussions around diversity in the classroom:

> I do think that it impacts the opportunities in terms of their research and the instruction that we get. I think that a lot of times if we're talking about, you know, the environment, for example, there isn't as big a focus on, like, social justice or environmental justice for communities of color that we talk about. And I think that that comes from the fact that the faculty doesn't have those experiences.

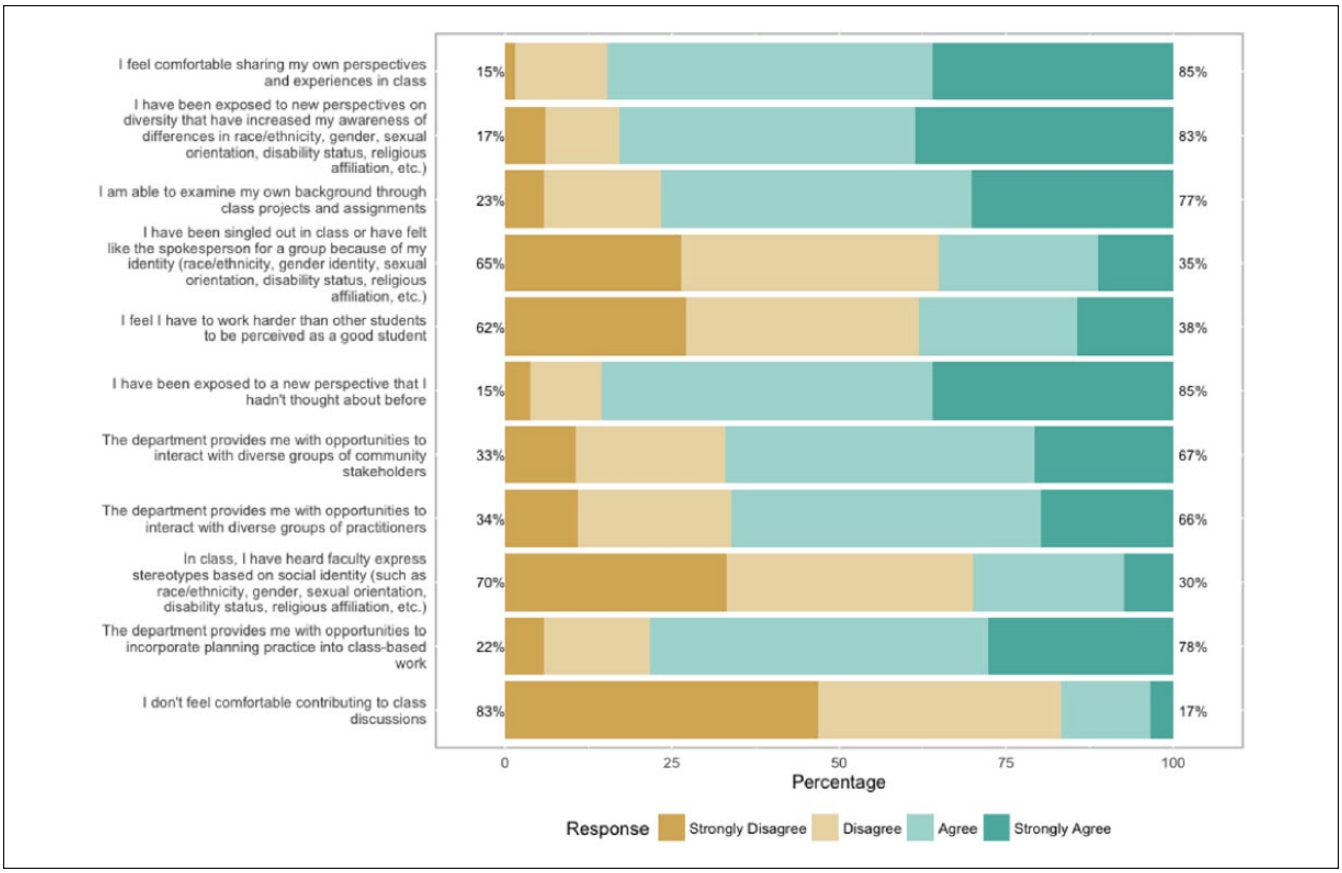

Figure 5. Classroom environment.

This comment brings up questions about how non-minority faculty may be limited in exploring topics that are not in their specific areas of expertise. However, when faculty move away from these discussions, students still feel uncomfortable:

> In my class, there were a few times that a student tried to bring up Native Americans and Native American treatment in planning, and the professor seemed to shy away from the conversation. And I don't know if it was just because that professor didn't feel comfortable having that conversation or they didn't feel like there was enough time for it during the class session.

To integrate more perspectives into planning curriculum, faculty and planning departments need to explore various ways to be more inclusive, not only in the hiring of faculty of color, but also supporting faculty and curriculum that offer different perspectives on planning.

Discussion and Conclusion

Taken together, our survey and interviews show that despite concerted efforts and concern on the part of planning faculty and planning institutions, and despite overall indications of positive experiences of the climate for diversity within urban planning programs, there are still issues of bias, discrimination, and a lack of representation which infiltrate the experiences of planning students. We found in particular that female, gender queer, non-white, and foreign-born students were more likely to experience difference or discrimination in their educational institutions. These occurrences make students feel isolated and alienated, which detracts from their learning experiences. When students do not feel accepted, they feel limited in who they can talk to and are restricted in resources they can access. What we find largely corresponds with the experiences of minority faculty (Wubneh 2011; Hibbard et al. 2011) and other higher education climate studies (Ancis, Sedlacek, and Mohr 2000; Rankin and Reason 2005).

While students of color, foreign-born students, and students who belong to other minority identity groups report bearing more of the burden, the climate within planning programs impacts all students. By asking questions regarding educational climate to all degree-seeking planning students, we learned that these students perceive these burdens both within the classroom environment and within interactions with faculty, and within interactions with peers. If these students' individual experiences are not adequately addressed within planning education, can we expect students to rise to the challenge of 21st

Table 8. Model Results: Curriculum and Educational Environment.

	Dependent Variable			
	Mean			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gender, no response	−0.218	−0.216	0.365	0.362
	(0.458)	(0.458)	(0.622)	(0.617)
Gender, female	−0.083	−0.087	−0.007	0.003
	(0.064)	(0.064)	(0.089)	(0.088)
Gender, gender queer	−0.379**	−0.359**	−0.209	−0.281
	(0.155)	(0.159)	(0.211)	(0.217)
Age	−0.005	−0.006	−0.0002	0.001
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.007)
Asian	0.067	0.068	0.064	0.067
	(0.153)	(0.153)	(0.209)	(0.208)
African-American	0.072	0.094	0.347*	0.299
	(0.144)	(0.147)	(0.197)	(0.200)
Non-Hispanic white	0.237*	0.261*	0.406**	0.354*
	(0.137)	(0.141)	(0.189)	(0.193)
Race, prefer not to answer	−0.006	−0.015	0.187	0.216
	(0.171)	(0.172)	(0.234)	(0.234)
Latino ethnicity	−0.041	−0.016	0.175	0.115
	(0.148)	(0.151)	(0.203)	(0.206)
LGBTQ		−0.036		0.136
		(0.084)		(0.115)
Foreign-born		0.079		−0.168
		(0.113)		(0.155)
Constant	3.095***	3.084***	2.692***	2.703***
	(0.213)	(0.217)	(0.295)	(0.298)
Observations	200	200	198	198
Log likelihood	−117.233	−116.893	−179.271	−177.983
Akaike information criterion	260.465	263.786	384.542	385.966
Bayesian information criterion	303.344	313.260	427.289	435.290

*$p < 0.1$; **$p < 0.05$; ***$p < 0.01$.

century planning practice in which the politics and concerns related to diversity are even more multivalent?

We offer the following recommendations to strengthen planning programs based on several points of evidence from our study.

First, planning faculty and administrators need to collectively acknowledge that bias and discrimination continue to exist within our programs and influence the learning environment for our students. While some students reported overt bias or discrimination from faculty or fellow students, students more often experienced microaggressions. Microaggressions can be subtle in form, but faculty and program administrators should not shrug off these incidences. We recommend that departments offer training on examples of microaggressions and include questions related to these occurrences in exit surveys to understand the prevalence. As a result of microaggressions, students feel alienated and suffer significant stress (Yosso et al. 2009).

Second, particularly minority students perceive planning programs to minimally address issues of diversity and inadequately train for practice in diverse contexts. Participants acknowledge the importance of integrating issues of diversity into planning curricula, regardless of their background. Students found that core curricula are missing information on diverse perspectives on planning—as a result, students are forced to grapple with such issues in electives or classes outside of the department. Again, representation does not only imply many perspectives being present within the classroom, but also exposure for many frameworks for interpreting perspectives and viewpoints. Integrating courses on diversity into the core curriculum with more explicit requirements from the PAB will provide more opportunities for all students to be exposed to much-needed content on diversity and otherness.

Third, students highlight the importance of multiple facets to create healthy campus climates (Hurtado et al. 1999). While respondents overall had positive experiences in their departments, they also saw a need for greater representation of diverse backgrounds among students and faculty to create more space for students' experiences in the classroom, department, and educational institution. For international students, these open discussions are particularly important

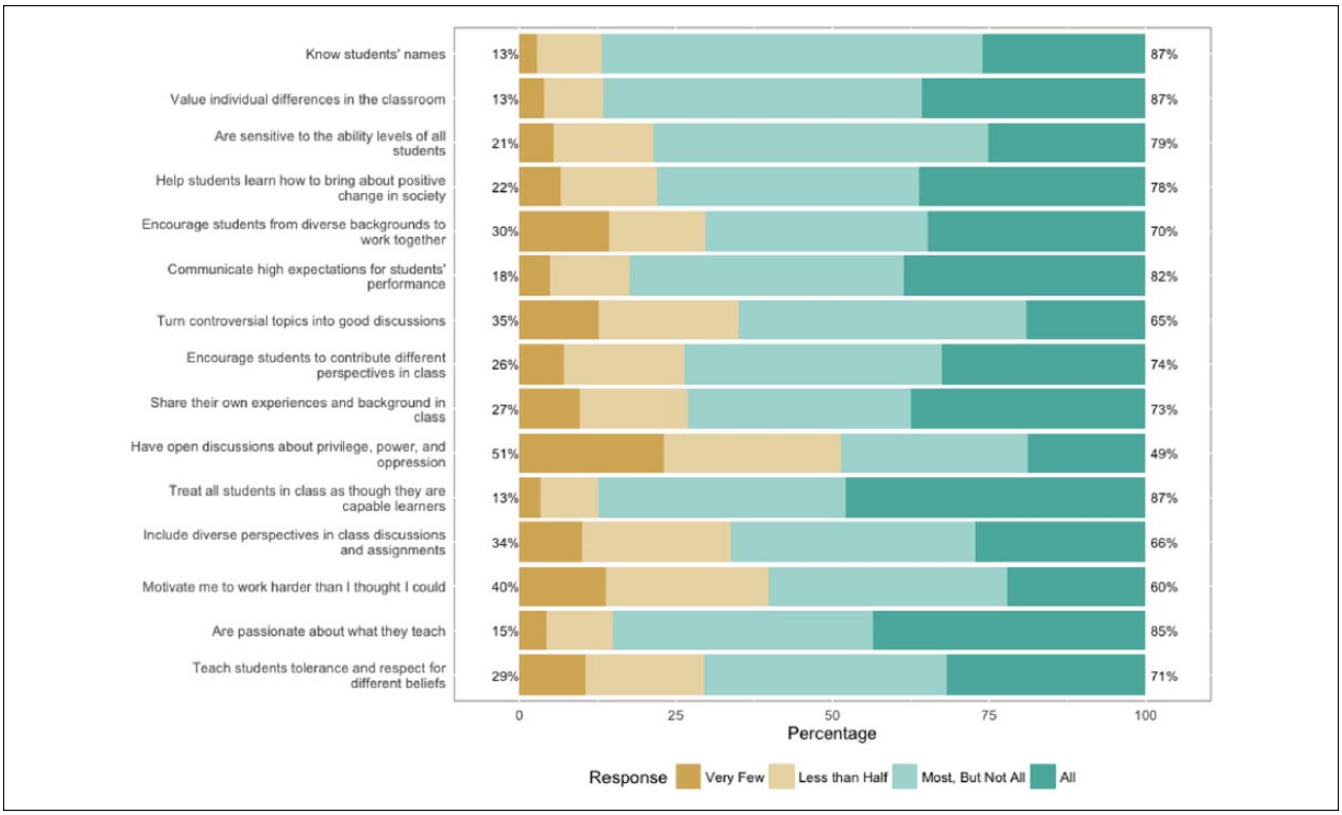

Figure 6. Faculty support for diversity: please indicate how many of your faculty or instructors in your department…

and can help them adjust and thrive in a new environment. Enrollment and diverse representation do not minimize the need for intentionality in curricular design, pedagogy, and maintaining a supportive environment for all students. Nevertheless, we echo the recommendations from previous ACSP projects to support the recruitment, retention, and matriculation of diverse students (Hibbard et al. 2011). This type of proactive work and the learning it entails also has an enormous pedagogical potential, particularly around building bridges between planning education and practice (Harper and Hurtado 2007).

Fourth, courses and experiences coming from outside of the department form an important complement (but not replacement) to treatments of diversity within the planning curriculum. Looking beyond core curricula, we observed two important trends: (1) needing to supplement coursework outside of planning departments; and (2) limited faculty representation and expertise and openness to diversity issues. To obtain adequate expertise in working with communities of otherness, students had to seek out opportunities in other departments. They subsequently bore the burden to supplement their own educational experiences without formal department support. This burden was not only on students. When students noted a gap in faculty expertise about communities of color, students observed that faculty of color are tasked with, or take on the task of, contributing curricular offerings around race, ethnicity, class, and gender. Students perceived that the onus was on themselves to create an adequate discussion and climate for diversity within their educational programs. While this arguably reflects elements of what students will confront within practice contexts, it also speaks to the need for stronger institutional supports for diversity within urban planning institutions, but also within individual educational institutions.

Planners work alongside community stakeholders to facilitate the development of plans to revitalize neighborhoods, cities, and regions. They are then inherently asked to distribute scarce resources and transform areas equitably, confronting issues of injustice head-on. As communities become increasingly diverse, planners will also increasingly mediate multiple and often conflicting interests. It is unreasonable to expect that planning faculty can adequately address all conceivable challenges related to diversity which future practitioners or planning educators will face. Some mediation skills have to be learned through real-world experience. Yet, faculty can take critical steps to bridge planning education and culturally competent practices, and can foster a greater sense of the challenges associated with truly listening to and attempting to understand community needs and visions for the future. Regardless of the context in which planning students choose to work, these skills are crucial (Greenlee, Edwards, and Anthony 2015). Despite the

similarity in findings, our study was not set up to assess whether the climate within planning programs was better or worse than that in other similar programs, or how the climate within planning programs compared to that in other degree programs at the same institutions.

Our findings largely conform with other studies about campus climate research—underrepresented students relate differential perceptions of departmental climate and perceive bias and prejudicial treatment based upon their identity (Harper and Hurtado 2007). The stakes associated with the climate in planning programs (and in educational settings more generally) are high. These findings underscore progress that departments have made to teach diversity. At the same time, there remains much work to be done within our classrooms, the communities at large which we serve, and how we interact as colleagues. The strength and promise of our work, however is truly transformational in its nature. Emphasizing the practice of diversity within our departments, and innovating around how we teach and model this practice for our students, helps to cement the relevance of planning for future generations of planning students, faculty, and the communities we seek to serve.

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Notes

1. This research was conducted by a team consisting of members of the ACSP POCIG and was generously funded by the ACSP.
2. The report is limited because it does not include detailed race or ethnicity data beyond: black or African-American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and Hispanic/Latino. It also does not break down the category "foreign" by country of origin.
3. The term *racial microaggression* was first coined by Chester Pierce (1970), who described a series of offensive mechanisms used to marginalize people of color. Sue et al. (2007, 273) describe racial microaggressions as "brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults to the target person or group."
4. If the participant responded in the affirmative, the survey asked for the participant's email address for contact purposes. This email address was stored separately from individual survey responses to protect the confidentiality of those responses.
5. We used the zoom.us videoconference service for follow-up interviews. Zoom.us allows for local recording of both video and audio from interviews. We retained only the audio recordings from our interviews to be analyzed alongside audio recordings of in-person interviews.
6. The time gap between survey collection and follow-up interviews was due to delays in seeking multi-institutional human subjects review approval. The survey was conducted under human subjects review at University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The interviews were conducted under human subjects review approved by each of the research team's home institutions: Florida State University, Stanford University, University of California Los Angeles, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, and University of Utah.
7. We provide an overall summary of these tests in our results section. More detailed test descriptives are available in the Appendices.
8. These include the 2016 Diverse Learning Environments Survey (see Hurtado and Guillermo-Wann 2013), the GLSEN National School Climate Survey (Kosciw et al. 2011), the University of Texas at Austin Graduate School Climate Study (Rodruiguez and Muller 2011), the University of Chicago Spring 2015 Climate Study (Bartalone 2015), and Harris' (2015) survey of urban planning students regarding diversity and planning practice.
9. Respondents could identify with multiple racial categories in their responses.
10. To validate whether there is a latent pattern of responses by institution or location context, we modeled the probability of receiving a survey response from each program included in our sample, controlling for respondent demographics, program demographics, location, and whether a member of the research team was affiliated with the institution. No significant statistical relationship was found for any of these characteristics.

Supplemental Material

Supplemental material for this article is available with the manuscript on the *JPER* website.

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