# Diversity of the National Medical Student Body - Four Decades of Inequities 

Devin B. Morris, B.A., Philip A. Gruppuso, M.D., Heather A. McGee, Ph.D., Anarina L. Murillo, Ph.D., Atul Grover, M.D., Ph.D., and Eli Y. Adashi, M.D.

## S U M M A R Y

A racially and ethnically diverse health care workforce remains a distant goal, the attainment of which is contingent on the inclusivity of the national medical student body. We examined the diversity of medical school applicants and enrollees over the past four decades with an eye toward assessing the progress made. Data on the gender and race or ethnic group of enrollees in all medical doctorate degree-granting U.S. medical schools from 1978 through 2019 were examined. The percentage of female enrollees doubled during this period, and women now constitute more than half the national medical student body. This upturn has been attributed largely to an increase by a factor of 12 in the enrollment of Asian women. The corresponding decrease in the percentage of male enrollees, most notably White men, was offset by an increase by a factor of approximately 5 in the enrollment of Asian men. The percentages of enrollees from Black, Hispanic, and other racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine remain well below the percentages of these groups in the national Census.

A preponderance of scientific evidence supports the view that a diverse health care workforce constitutes a compelling national interest. ${ }^{1.7}$ In affirmation of this tenet, the National Academy of Medicine concluded that "increasing racial and ethnic diversity among health professionals . . . is associated with improved access to care for racial and ethnic minority patients." ${ }^{4}$ However, a diverse and all-inclusive health care workforce remains aspirational. Less than $12 \%$ of U.S. physicians identify as either Hispanic or Black, although according to the U.S. Census, the percentages of these groups in the U.S. population are $18.3 \%$ and $13.4 \%$, respectively. ${ }^{8,9}$ Other racial
and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine include American Indians and Alaska Natives as well as Native Hawaiians and other Pacific Islanders. ${ }^{8}$ It follows that achieving the goal of a truly representative health care workforce will require a greater degree of inclusivity in the national medical student body. It is against this backdrop that we examined the diversity of the national medical student body with respect to gender, race, and ethnic group over the past four decades.

## METHODS

The data sets for this study were provided by the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC). One data set that includes the annual number of enrollees in each of the U.S. medical doctorate degree-granting medical schools from 1978 through 2019, as well as the gender and race or ethnic group of these students, is available at https:|/figshare.com/articles/dataset/Supplemental _Table_original_data_xlsx/12842996. Enrollees who were not U.S. citizens or permanent U.S. residents were not included in our data because their gender, race, and ethnic group status was not recorded by the AAMC.

A second data set (Table S1 in the Supplementary Appendix, available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org) includes the annual number of enrollees at each of the U.S. medical schools who identified with one or more racial or ethnic groups during the 1978-2019 study period. A third data set (Table S2) includes the annual number of student applicants and matriculants (first-year entrants) at each of the U.S. medical schools during the same period, as well as their gender and race or ethnic group.

The six categories of race or ethnic group in this study conform to conventions established by the U.S. Census Bureau. These categories are

White; Asian; Black or African American (hereafter, Black); Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin (hereafter, Hispanic); American Indian or Alaska Native; and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. ${ }^{9}$ The latter four groups are underrepresented in medicine. ${ }^{8}$

For the data sets used in the study, the categories of race or ethnic group with which enrollees identified were established by the AAMC. ${ }^{10}$ Two changes in the manner in which the AAMC collected data occurred during the study period. Before the academic year 2002-2003, individual enrollees could identify with only one race or ethnic group. From the academic year 2002-2003 until the academic year 2012-2013, the AAMC collected these data from questionnaires that included two questions - one that asked students to designate one or more races and a second that asked about Hispanic origin. Since the academic year 2013-2014, the AAMC has collected data on race or ethnic group from questionnaires that include a single question. In answering this question, students can designate multiple races or ethnic groups. The Supplementary Appendix includes the relevant questionnaire content used by the AAMC during these three time periods.

The changes in the data-collection methods affected the data for the years that preceded the changes because the AAMC retroactively modified a person's profile if new information was


Figure 1. Gender Distribution in the National Medical Student Body, 1978-2019.
The percentages of total enrollees accounted for by women and by men are shown for each year from 1978 through 2019.
submitted after the original data collection. Some of our analyses include data only for persons who designated one specific race or ethnic group, and students who designated multiple categories were counted as having "multiple races" or were omitted from the analyses. In other analyses, students were included in the percentage for a category of race or ethnic group if it was the single category selected or one of multiple categories selected.

The percentages of enrollees in each category of gender and race or ethnic group were compared over time. Similar analyses were conducted on the basis of medical school characteristics (e.g., geographic region and private or public status). The geographic regions used in comparisons of the diversity of medical schools were based on the regional definitions of the Census Bureau. ${ }^{11}$ In addition, to assess the effect of historically Black medical schools on the racial and ethnic diversity of the national medical student body, we performed a further analysis using data with or without enrollees from Howard University College of Medicine, Meharry Medical College, Morehouse School of Medicine, and the Charles R. Drew-UCLA Medical Education Program. ${ }^{12}$

To evaluate additional changes over time in the diversity of the national medical student body, we compared the percentages of men and women enrollees who identified with the racial and ethnic groups with the percentages of men and women in these groups in data from the Census in 1980, 2000, and 2019. ${ }^{9,13,14}$ Given the principle that the diversity of the populations of physicians should reflect that of the populations they serve, we used aggregate Census data that included persons of all ages in each category of race or ethnic group. The use of the 1978 population estimate of the Census Bureau (the starting point of the study period) was precluded by the absence of data on Hispanic origin. Matriculation rates were calculated by dividing the number of matriculants in a specific category of race or ethnic group by the number of applicants in that same category.

## RESULTS

## CHANGES IN THE DIVERSITY OF THE MEDICAL

 STUDENT BODY OVER TIMEAssessment of the gender distribution of the national medical student body over the study period revealed that the percentage of women


Figure 2. Racial and Ethnic Groups in the National Medical Student Body, 1978-2019.
Shown are the percentages of women (Panel A) and men (Panel B) enrolled as medical students who identified solely as White or Asian, relative to all enrollees (both men and women). Data are for each year from 1978 through 2019. Also shown are the percentages of enrollees who identified with more than one race or ethnic group. Before the academic year 2002-2003, students could designate only one race or ethnic group on the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC) questionnaire. The percentages of women (Panel C) and men (Panel D) from groups that were underrepresented in medicine (Blacks, Hispanics, American Indians or Alaska Natives, or Native Hawaiians or other Pacific Islanders) in each year from 1978 through 2019 are shown relative to all enrollees (both men and women). The marked decrease in Hispanic enrollees between 1997 and 2004 (Panels C and D) coincided with the introduction of the multiplerace designation on the $A A M C$ questionnaire (Panels $A$ and $B$ ).
enrollees increased substantially from $24.4 \%$ in 1978 to $50.6 \%$ in 2019 (Fig. 1). Most of the increase (from $24.4 \%$ to $48.6 \%$ ) transpired from 1978 to 2005.

Over the same period, the percentage of White women in the national medical student body increased from $18.4 \%$ to $24.1 \%$ relative to the total national student body (including both men and women), and the percentage of Asian women in the national student body increased by
a factor of 12 (Fig. 2A). A modest increase was also noted in the percentage of Black women (from 3.6\% to 4.4\%) (Fig. 2C). A more marked increase in the percentage of Hispanic women (from $0.7 \%$ to $3.2 \%$ ) occurred despite an apparent intervening decrease that coincided with the introduction of the option to select multiple categories of race or ethnic group on the AAMC questionnaire (Fig. 2C).

The aforementioned increase in the percent-
age of women over the study period coincided with a marked decrease in the percentage of White men, from $61.2 \%$ to $25.7 \%$ (Fig. 2B). In contrast, the percentage of Asian men increased from $2.1 \%$ to $10.7 \%$ (Fig. 2B). There was a small decrease (from $3.1 \%$ to $2.9 \%$ ) in the percentage of Black men (Fig. 2D). There was an increase in the percentage of Hispanic men from 1978 through 1982, but only a minimal net change from 1982 through 2019 (Fig. 2D). Men and women who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander composed less than $1 \%$ of the total enrollee population throughout the study period (Fig. 2C and 2D).

At the outset of the study period (Fig. S1A), $18.2 \%$ of Black women and $21.6 \%$ of Black men in the national student body were enrolled in historically Black medical schools, and by the end of the study period, $14.2 \%$ and $14.9 \%$, respectively, were enrolled in these schools. Examination of the percentage of Black enrollees in historically Black medical schools relative to all Black enrollees in medical schools (Fig. S1B) revealed consistent contributions of historically Black medical schools to the national medical student body throughout the study period.

The institution of the option for enrollees to indicate on the AAMC questionnaire that they identified with one or more categories of race or ethnic group coincided with an inflection in several of the curves showing the percentages of enrollees who identified with a race or ethnic group over the study period (Fig. 2). Although the percentages of White enrollees and Asian enrollees were minimally affected by this questionnaire change (Fig. S2), there was a marked, if temporary, decrease in the percentage of Hispanic enrollees (Fig. 3C and 3D). This decrease was associated with enrollees who identified solely as Hispanic and coincided with a steady increase in the proportion of enrollees who identified as Hispanic as well as with another race or ethnic group, most notably White race (Fig. 3). Similarly, in 2019, the proportion of enrollees who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander as well as with another race or ethnic group was several times higher than the proportion of those who identified with just one race or ethnic group (Fig. 3). In contrast, few men and women enrollees who identified as Black

Figure 3 (facing page). Medical Students Who Identified with at Least One Race or Ethnic Group That Is Underrepresented in Medicine.
Shown are the percentages of enrollees from racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine relative to all enrollees (both men and women) for each year from 1978 through 2019.
also identified with at least one other race or ethnic group (Fig. 3).

## APPLICANTS AND MATRICULATION RATES

An analysis of the trends in the gender, race, and ethnic group of student applicants over the study period (Fig. S3) revealed increases in the percentages of Asian, Black, and Hispanic women. Whereas the percentage of applicants who were White men decreased by more than half during the study period, the percentage of Asian men more than doubled. In contrast, among the applicants, the percentage of men from racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine remained stationary, as did the percentage of women who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander.

There was considerable variability over the study period in matriculation rates derived from applicant and matriculant data (Fig. S4). However, the matriculation rates among men and women were similar in all six racial and ethnic groups in the study, irrespective of the status of these groups with regard to representation in medicine.

## DIVERSITY OF THE NATIONAL MEDICAL SCHOOL BODY AS COMPARED WITH THE U.S. CENSUS

To further assess the racial and ethnic diversity of the national medical student body, we compared the percentages of enrollees who identified with at least one of the six racial and ethnic groups with the respective percentages of persons in these groups in the national Census in 1980, 2000, and 2019. As shown in Figure 4, the percentages of male enrollees who identified as Black, Hispanic, or American Indian or Alaska Native were lower at all three time points than the respective percentages of persons in these groups in the U.S. Census. In contrast, the relative representation of White, Black, and Asian women increased from 1980 through 2019; in these three racial and ethnic groups, the most

| A Black Women | B Black Men |
| :---: | :---: |
| C Hispanic Women | D Hispanic Men |
| E American Indian or Alaska Native Women | F American Indian or Alaska Native Men |
| G Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Women | H Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander Men |




Figure 4. Representation of Racial and Ethnic Groups in the National Medical Student Body as Compared with That in the U.S. Census.
To determine underrepresentation and overrepresentation, the percentages of all the racial and ethnic groups in the medical school body were compared with the corresponding percentages of persons in these groups in the U.S. Census in 1980, 2000, and 2019. Data on women and men were analyzed separately. As shown in Panel A, in 1980, the percentage of female medical students who were White was 1.9 times as low as the percentage of U.S. women of all ages who were White. As shown in Panel B, in 1980, the percentage of male medical students who were White was 1.7 times as high as the percentage of U.S. men who were White. In the 1980 Census, the "Asian" category included Native Hawaiians and other Pacific Islanders.
pronounced increase occurred in the percentage of Asian women (an increase from a factor of 1.3 in 1980 to a factor of 4.8 in 2000 and a factor of 3.6 in 2019). Hispanic women continued to be consistently underrepresented at all three time
points. There was a marked decrease in the percentages of men and women who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander over the same period.

## MEDICAL SCHOOL ATTRIBUTES

To further characterize the diversity of the national medical student body with respect to gender, race, and ethnic group, we explored the potential importance of several medical school attributes. As shown in Figure S5, the diversity trends in the national medical student body were similar in public and private medical schools. Similar conclusions held for the four geographic regions in the study (Fig. S6).

## DISCUSSION

In the past four decades, U.S. medical schools have made sustained efforts to enhance the gender distribution and racial and ethnic diversity of the national medical student body. The most tangible achievement, apparent as early as 2005, was the attainment of gender parity. Regrettably, however, the racial and ethnic composition of the latest cohort of women enrollees remains uneven and largely composed of White and Asian women. The percentages of women enrollees from racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine increased slightly over the study period but remain well below the corresponding percentages in the U.S. Census.

Among male enrollees, limited progress was also noted in the percentages of those from racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine. There has been little progress in increasing the proportion of enrollees who are Black men. ${ }^{15,16}$ In 1978, Black men accounted for $3.1 \%$ of the national medical student body. By 2019, the cognate figure was $2.9 \%$. This lack of progress is brought into sharp focus by the fact that $15 \%$ of Black men who are currently enrolled are enrolled in historically Black medical schools. Without these schools, the percentage of enrollees who are Black men would have remained a constant $2.4 \%$ for the duration of the study period.

Relative to their proportions in the U.S. Census, both Hispanic men and Hispanic women proved to be underrepresented throughout the study period. When a single race designation
was used in the analysis, there was an apparent decrease in the representation of Hispanic enrollees of both genders. This decrease reflects changes in AAMC data-collection procedures that permitted enrollees to designate more than one race or ethnic group. By 2019, nearly half the men and women enrollees who identified as Hispanic also identified with another race or ethnic group, most notably White race. Nearly $80 \%$ of the men and women who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander also identified with another race or ethnic group; nevertheless, these groups were underrepresented for the duration of the study period.

Much has been written about the relative merits of strategies to enhance the diversity of the national medical student body. Leading the way is the drive to institute "holistic review" admissions policies replete with scholastically blind interviews and community-suffused admissions committees so that balanced consideration is given to experiences, attributes, and academic qualifications. ${ }^{17-20}$ In part, it is the objective of the holistic construct to reframe the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT) as but one of several indicators for admission. Recent research affirms this changing reality by showing increasing rates of acceptance of applicants with a broad range of scores on the MCAT. ${ }^{21,22}$ A 2014 report on findings from a national survey concluded that the "holistic review is an effective strategy for schools that seek to increase the diversity of their student bodies." ${ }^{23}$

Apart and distinct from the cultivation of enlightened admissions policies, more must be done to enhance the diversity of applicants in the pipeline. Investment in undergraduate bridge programs such as after-school mentoring of disadvantaged middle- and high-school students appears to be well worth the effort. ${ }^{24,25}$ Consideration may also be given to a revision of current undergraduate "pre-med" constructs through the enhancement of advising, the redress of unconscious bias, and the provision of learning environments that incorporate positive reinforcement. Finally, increasing consideration must be given to medical education with reduced or free tuition in order to increase diversity. ${ }^{26-29}$

In the past four decades, major strides have been made in the representation of women in the national medical student body. However, the
proportions of enrollees from racial and ethnic groups that are underrepresented in medicine remain at levels well below their proportions in the national Census. These observations speak to a persistent failure to substantially improve the racial and ethnic diversity of the national medical student body. Future progress will require a variety of approaches, including those that may promote the diversity of the medical school applicant pool.

Supported by the Primary Care-Population Medicine program of the Warren Alpert Medical School and by a grant from the Association of American Medical Colleges (AAMC).

Disclosure forms provided by the authors are available with the full text of this article at NEJM.org.

We thank David S. Guzick, M.D., Ph.D., of the University of Florida, Gainesville, for reviewing an earlier version of the manuscript, Kristina A. Monteiro, Ph.D., of the Warren Alpert Medical School for assisting with the data analysis, and Marie Caulfield, Ph.D., and Brianna Gunter, M.P.A., of the AAMC for assisting with the generation of the data sets.

From the Warren Alpert Medical School, Brown University, Providence, RI (D.B.M., P.A.G., H.A.M., A.L.M., E.Y.A.); and the Association of American Medical Colleges, Washington, DC (A.G.). Address reprint requests to Dr. Adashi at the Warren Alpert Medical School, Brown University, 222 Richmond St., Providence, RI 02903, or at eli_adashi@brown.edu.

1. Moy E, Bartman BA. Physician race and care of minority and medically indigent patients. JAMA 1995;273:1515-20.
2. Komaromy M, Grumbach K, Drake M, et al. The role of black and Hispanic physicians in providing health care for underserved populations. N Engl J Med 1996;334:1305-10.
3. Cohen JJ, Gabriel BA, Terrell C. The case for diversity in the health care workforce. Health Aff (Millwood) 2002;21:90-102.
4. Institute of Medicine. In the nation's compelling interest: ensuring diversity in the health-care workforce. Washington, DC: National Academies Press, 2004.
5. Marrast LM, Zallman L, Woolhandler S, Bor DH, McCormick D. Minority physicians' role in the care of underserved patients: diversifying the physician workforce may be key in addressing health disparities. JAMA Intern Med 2014;174:289-91.
6. Silver JK, Bean AC, Slocum C, et al. Physician workforce disparities and patient care: a narrative review. Health Equity 2019; 3:360-77.
7. Institute of Medicine. The right thing to do, the smart thing to do: enhancing diversity in the health professions - summary of the symposium on diversity in health professions in honor of Herbert W. Nickens, M.D. Washington, DC: National Academies Press, 2001.
8. Diversity in medicine: facts and figures 2019. Washington, DC: Association of American Medical Colleges, 2019 (https:// www.aamc.org/data-reports/workforce/report/diversity-medicine -facts-and-figures-2019).
9. Population Division. National population by characteristics: 2010-2019. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau, June 2020 (https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/popest/ 2010s-national-detail.html).
10. FACTS glossary. Washington, DC: Association of American Medical Colleges, 2019 (https://www.aamc.org/data-reports/ students-residents/interactive-data/facts-glossary).
11. Map of the United States, showing census divisions and regions. In: Statistical abstract of the United States: 1995. 115th ed. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1995 (https:// www.census.gov/prod/1/gen/95statab/preface.pdf).
12. Rodríguez JE, López IA, Campbell KM, Dutton M. The role of Historically Black College and University medical schools in academic medicine. J Health Care Poor Underserved 2017;28: 266-78.
13. U.S. Bureau of the Census. 1980 Census of population. Vol. 1. Characteristics of the population. 1980 (https://www2.census .gov/prod2/decennial/documents/1980/1980censusofpopu8011u _bw.pdf).
14. Census 2000: summary file 1. U.S. Census Bureau, 2001 (https://www.census.gov/prod/cen2000/doc/sf1.pdf).
15. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. An American crisis: the growing absence of Black men in medicine and science: proceedings of a joint workshop. Washington, DC: National Academies Press, 2018.
16. Altering the course: Black males in medicine. Association of American Medical Colleges, 2015 (https://store.aamc.org/ altering-the-course-black-males-in-medicine.html).
17. Addams AN, Bletzinger RB, Sondheimer HM, White SE, Johnson LM. Roadmap to diversity: integrating holistic review practices into medical school admission processes. Washington, DC: Association of American Medical Colleges, 2010 (https:// store.aamc.org/downloadable/download/sample/sample_id/195). 18. Witzburg RA, Sondheimer HM. Holistic review - shaping the medical profession one applicant at a time. N Engl J Med 2013;368:1565-7.
18. Roadmap to diversity and educational excellence: key legal and educational policy foundations for medical schools. 2nd ed. Association of American Medical Colleges, 2014 (https://store .aamc.org/roadmap-to-diversity-and-educational-excellence-key -legal-and-educational-policy-foundations-for-medical-schools -pdf.html).
19. Talamantes E, Henderson MC, Fancher TL, Mullan F. Closing the gap - making medical school admissions more equitable. N Engl J Med 2019;380:803-5.
20. Lucey CR, Saguil A. The consequences of structural racism on MCAT scores and medical school admissions: the past is prologue. Acad Med 2020;95:351-6.
21. Terregino CA, Saguil A, Price-Johnson T, Anachebe NF, Goodell K. The diversity and success of medical school applicants with scores in the middle third of the MCAT score scale. Acad Med 2020;95:344-50.
22. Glazer G, Danek J, Michaels J, et al. Holistic admissions in the health professions: findings from a national survey. Washington, DC: Urban Universities for HEALTH, 2014 (https:// urbanuniversitiesforhealth.org/media/documents/Holistic_ Admissions_in_the_Health_Professions_final.pdf).
23. American Medical Association. Increasing minorities in medical schools: programs alter the pipeline. February 11, 2016 (https://www.ama-assn.org/education/medical-school-diversity/ increasing-minorities-medical-schools-programs-alter-pipeline). 25. P4 physician pipeline preparatory program: inspiring teens toward medical careers. Southern Illinois University School of Medicine, 2020 (https://www.siumed.edu/diversity/p4-physician -pipeline-preparatory-program.html).
24. Adashi EY, Gruppuso PA. The unsustainable cost of undergraduate medical education: an overlooked element of U.S. health care reform. Acad Med 2010;85:763-5.
25. Thomas B. Free medical school tuition: will it accomplish its goals? JAMA 2019;321:143-4.
26. Jaschik S. Free-tuition idea spreads in med schools. Inside Higher Ed. April 17, 2019 (https://www.insidehighered.com/ news/2019/04/17/med-school-washington-university-st-louis-will -be-tuition-free-more-half-new).
27. Asch DA, Grischkan J, Nicholson S. The cost, price, and debt of medical education. N Engl J Med 2020;383:6-9.

DOI: 10.1056/NEJMsr2028487
Copyright © 2021 Massachusetts Medical Society.

