Title
The Hybrid Public Research University: A Comparative Case Study of Two Self-Sustaining Degree Programs in Public Health

Author
Hagigi, Farhad A

Publication Date
2014

Peer reviewed|Thesis/dissertation

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Los Angeles

The Hybrid Public Research University: A Comparative Case Study of Two Self-Sustaining Degree Programs in Public Health

A dissertation submitted

in partial satisfaction of the requirements

for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Education

by

Farhad Abas Hagigi

2014

Abstract of the Dissertation

The Hybrid Public Research University: A Comparative Case Study of Two Self-Sustaining Degree Programs in Public Health

By

Farhad Abas Hagigi

Doctor of Philosophy in Education

University of California, Los Angeles, 2014

Professor Walter R. Allen, Co-Chair

Professor José Luis Santos, Co-Chair

Decreased public funding, diminishing political and societal support, and increased competition from private institutions have led public research universities (PRUs) to undergo monumental changes. This diminishing public support for higher education and the resulting steep funding cuts prompted public universities to move towards self-sufficiency and to pursue alternative sources of revenue independent of state funding(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006)(Priest & St. John, 2006) (Priest & St. John, 2006) through market-like activities. One such example is the PRUs' shift towards Self-Sustaining Programs (SSPs) in all three core mission domains of research, teaching, and service. The increase in SSPs was a strategic realignment for PRUs to meet their financial obligation and their mission objectives. Included within the SSP strategies are degree programs, non-degree certificates programs and continuing education opportunities, however, the Self-

Sustaining Degree Program (SSDP) will be the focus of this study, with particular emphasis on programs of Public Health (SSDP-PH).

The accelerated change in funding sources and trends towards self-sufficiency resulted in a shift in focus and adjustments in policies and procedures at PRUs from addressing public good to that of individual and market good. The shift away from education as a public good has led some PRUs to follow the path taken by several leading public institutions. Some higher education literature refers to this changing character of public universities as "privatization" and/or "hybridization," which is a higher education institution that would utilize various sources of revenue and funding to deliver a broad range of products and services in the world market and society.

PRUs need to increase their institutional capacity to respond to changes in the external environment of government, business, and community while trying to maintain their institutional character.

In order to identify potential best practices for establishment and operation of SSDPs, my goal was to understand the purpose of starting SSDPs and whether the operational policies of the SSDPs remained congruent with the initial mission of the SSDP and that of the PRU. Based on the information from a pilot study previously conducted, I designed and completed this study to capture structures, processes, and outcomes of SSDP-PH at two PRUs. I used three theoretical perspectives (i.e. resource dependency, isomorphism, and academic capitalism) to guide my research questions, each of which was useful in framing my interview questions and data analyses. I conducted multiple – comparative case studies analyzing institutional documents and conducting semi-structured interviews with 46 faculty, alumni, and administrators in the

two SSDP-PH programs and other leading PRUs. Some key themes that emerged as important factors in SSDPs include: mission and public good, market demand, ranking and brand, curriculum and technology adoption, faculty role and shared governance, mission drifts and realignment, and outcomes for students and alumni.

My key findings confirmed my hypotheses with some variations between the two institutions which were subjects of this comparative case study. The results showed that in pursuit of alternative sources of revenues, PRUs can still maintain their focus on public good. The results further showed that leadership commitments to quality, access, and equity at campus and unit levels where the SSDP operates determine whether the PRU will drift from its stated mission of serving public good while establishing and operating SSDPs.

The implications of this study suggest the need for a systematic evaluation of the rationale for establishing a SSDP and to improve the prediction of long-term challenges associated with sustaining programmatic congruence. This study helps to guide future research in evaluating various outcomes of these programs at the student, program, and institutional levels.

The dissertation of Farhad Abas Hagigi is approved.

_____
Edith Mukudi Omwami

_____
Alfred E. Osborne, Jr.

_____
Walter R. Allen, Committee Co-Chair

_____
José Luis Santos, Committee Co-Chair

Dedication

To my teacher and mentor, Professor Walter R. Allen for his unwavering support of my latest educational pursuit.

To my mentor and friend, Dr. Jonathan E. Fielding who has been a source of inspiration to serve in the field of public health.

To my late professor Ruth Roemer, whose commitment to social justice and public health will continue through advocacy of her students for the underserved population.

To my father Ata and my son Farbod who are my inspirations for perseverance in serving the underserved.

To my wife Latifeh, for more than four decades of friendship.

Table of Contents

List of Figures and Tables

Key Terms

- Academic adviser: A member of a school's faculty who provides advice and guidance to students on academic matters, such as course selections.
- Academic Capitalism: the involvement of colleges and faculty in market-like behaviors.
- Academic Rigor: Stringent preciseness, accuracy, or adherence to the methods, discipline, standards, or attainments associated with scholarly work
- Academic Unit, Primary: The immediate organizational and administrative unit in which the program is located
- Academic year: Annual period during which a student attends and receives formal instruction at a college or university, typically from August or September to May or June. The academic year may be divided into semesters, trimesters, quarters, or other calendars.
- Accreditation: A status granted to an educational institution or program that has been found to meet stated criteria of educational quality. In the United States, accreditation is voluntarily sought by institutions and programs, and is conferred by non-governmental bodies. The two fundamental purposes of accreditation are to ensure the quality of the institution or program, and to assist in the continuous improvement of the institution or program.
- Accredited: Official recognition that a college or university meets the standards of a regional or national association. Although international students are not required to attend an accredited college or university in the United States, employers, other schools, and governments worldwide often only recognize degrees from accredited schools.
- Affidavit of Support: An official document proving adequate funding from an individual or organization to cover an international student's educational and living expenses while enrolled at a U.S. college or university.
- Applied Knowledge: To put into practice or adapt learned information, perceptions, or discoveries that have been gained through experience or study
- Assistantship: A financial aid award granted to a graduate student to help pay for tuition that is offered in return for certain services, such as serving as a teaching assistant or research assistant.
- Audit: To take a class to gain knowledge about a subject, but without receiving credit toward a degree.
- Bachelor's: An undergraduate degree awarded by a college or university upon successful completion of a program of study, typically requiring at least four years (or the equivalent) of full-time study. Common degree types include bachelor of arts (B.A. or A.B.), which refers to the liberal arts, and bachelor of science (B.S.). A bachelor's is required before starting graduate studies.

- CAHME Action: The decisions of the CAHME regarding accreditation of a program. Site visits conducted during the Fall are acted on at the Spring meeting, and Spring visits are acted on at the Fall meeting. The process leading to an Action consists of: presentation of the draft site visit report and program response; presentation by the reader; clarification of fact; presentation of the site visit team recommendation for action to the Accreditation Council; a vote by the Accreditation Council; and recommendation by the full Accreditation Council for vote by the CAHME Board of Directors.
- CAHME Criteria for Accreditation: The standards by which a program is evaluated. The criteria used for this guide were formulated in 2006 and apply to site visits in the Fall of 2008 and beyond.
- CAHME Customers: Individuals, groups, or prospects that engage in social and managerial processes to obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging products, services, and value with others
- CAHME Fellow: Faculty or practitioners appointed by the CAHME serve as secretary on site visits to study the activities of the CAHME and learn about accreditation.
- CAHME: The Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Management Education, the specialized accrediting body recognized by the U.S. Department of Education and the Council for Higher Education Accreditation as the only accrediting body for healthcare management programs at the master's level. Also referred to as "The CAHME."
- Career Progression: A continuous or sequential path or course of development through a chosen pursuit, profession, or occupation. The method by which a program evaluates its influence in the first five years after a person graduates from the program.
- Coed: Open to both men and women (often used to describe a school that admits both sexes and a dormitory that houses both genders).
- Coercive Isomorphism: results from both formal and informal pressures exerted on organizations by other organizations upon which they are dependent
- College: A postsecondary institution that typically provides only an undergraduate education, but in some cases, also graduate degrees. "College" is often used interchangeably with "university" and "school." Separately, "college" can refer to an academic division of a university, such as College of Business. (See *U.S. News*'s rankings of Best Colleges.)
- Commencement: A graduation ceremony where students officially receive their degrees, typically held in May or June at the end of the academic year, though some colleges and universities also hold August and December ceremonies.
- Common Application: A standard application form that is accepted by more than 450 member colleges and universities for admissions. Students can complete the form online or in print and submit copies to any of the participating colleges, rather than

filling out individual forms for each school. However, international students will typically need to submit additional application materials unique to each college.

- Community college: A public, two-year postsecondary institution that offers the associate degree. Also known as a "junior college." Community colleges typically provide a transfer program, allowing students to transfer to a four-year school to complete their bachelor's degree, and a career program, which provides students with a vocational degree.
- Competence/Competency: Effective application of available knowledge, skills, attitudes and values (KSAV's) in complex situations. The essential knowledge, skills, and other attributes (KSO's) that are essential for performing a specific task or job.
- Concepts, Key: Defined by course instructor/program for each course. The knowledge, skills and outcomes students are expected to gain from each course.
- Conditional admission: An acceptance to a college or university that is dependent on the student first completing coursework or meeting specific criteria before enrollment. For an international student, this can include a requirement to attain a certain level of English-language proficiency if the student's TOEFL score doesn't meet the minimum required.
- Continuing Education: Non-degree granting program-sponsored conferences and seminars for faculty and practitioners to further develop the profession.
- Core requirements: Mandatory courses that students are required to complete to earn a degree.
- Course load: The number of courses or credits a student takes during a specific term.
- Course: A regularly scheduled class on a particular subject. Each college or university offers degree programs that consist of a specific number of required and elective courses.
- Culture shock: Feelings of uncertainty, confusion, or anxiety that can occur when adjusting to a new country and culture that may be very different from your own. International students may also experience "reverse culture shock" upon returning to their home country, after they have become accustomed to the new country and culture.
- Curriculum: A program of study made up of a set of courses offered by a school.
- Dean: The head of a division of a college or university.
- Deferral / Deferred admission: A school's act of postponing a student's application for early decision or early action, so that it will be considered along with the rest of the regular applicant group. A "deferral" can also refer to a student's act of postponing enrollment for one year, if the school agrees.
- Degree, Dual: All multi-degree programs for which information is requested, e.g., MBA/MPH, MHA/MBA programs.

- Degree: A diploma or title awarded to students by a college or university after successful completion of a program of study.
- Degree: The academic award conferred by a university upon completion of the program of study. Various degrees are granted by the programs accredited by CAHME, including the MHA, MBA, MPA, MPH, etc.
- Department: A division of a school, made up of faculty and support staff, that gives instruction in a particular field of study, such as the history department.
- Discipline: An area of academic study.
- Distance Learning: Distance learning is a formal educational process in which the majority of the instruction occurs when the learner and the instructor are not in the same place at the same time. In this process, information or distributed learning technology is the likely connector between the learner, the instructor or the site of program origin.
- Diverse: Composed of distinct or unlike elements or qualities
- Diversity: Valuing and benefiting from personal differences. These differences address many variables including, race, religion, color, gender, national origin, disability, sexual orientation, age, education, geographic origin, and skill characteristics as well as differences in ideas, thinking, academic disciplines, and perspectives.
- Doctorate (Ph.D.): The highest academic degree awarded by a university upon successful completion of an advanced program of study, typically requiring at least three years of graduate study beyond the master's degree (which may have been earned at a different university). Ph.D. candidates must demonstrate their mastery of a subject through oral and written exams and original, scholarly research presented in a dissertation.
- Dormitories (dorms): Student housing provided by a college or university, also known as "residence halls," which typically includes rooms, bathrooms, common areas, and possibly a kitchen or cafeteria.
- Drop: To withdraw from a course. A college or university typically has a period of time at the beginning of a term during which students can add or drop courses.
- Dual degree: Program of study that allows a student to receive two degrees from the same college or university.
- Eligibility Statement: The Program document which addresses the CAHME eligibility requirements. For initial accreditation reviews, the statement is submitted one year in advance and a copy included with the initial self study document. For reaccreditation reviews a new eligibility statement is submitted with the completed self-study. (See Eligibility Statement)
- Equity: is the study and achieve of fairness in education

- Exempt: Not required to do something that other students may be required to do. For example, a school may require all students to take a freshman English course, but some students may be exempt based on their high scores on a college entrance exam or their previous coursework.
- Experiential Learning: Formal and structured faculty and/or preceptor-directed practical experience as part of the requirements for a graduate degree as well as learning from work experience that is evaluated as to level of competency attained.
- Extracurricular activities: Optional activities, such as sports, that students can participate in outside of academic classes.
- Faculty, Adjunct: Faculty who have involvement as lecturers, advisors, mentors, preceptors, etc. for the Program but who do not share major responsibility for the teaching and advising functions. The faculty may carry appointments as adjunct, clinical, or preceptor faculty.
- Faculty, Joint: Full-time faculty members within the university having primary appointments outside the academic unit of the Program but who share major responsibility for teaching, advising and/or administration of the Program.
- Faculty, Part-Time: Faculty members who have non-faculty duties outside the Program but who share major responsibility for teaching, advising and/or administration of the Program.
- Faculty, Participating: Faculty members who are engaged in an ongoing basis in the activities of the academic life of the program and who are supported in their continuing professional development.
- Faculty, Program: Faculty members within the university whose primary appointment is within the primary academic unit, and whose primary responsibility is for teaching, advising and administration within the Program.
- Faculty, Supporting: Faculty members who are ad hoc appointments to the instructional staff with little, or no, engagement in activity beyond their direct instructional function
- Faculty: A school's teaching and administrative staff who is responsible for designing programs of study.
- Fellowship: An amount of money awarded by a college or university, usually to graduate students and generally based on academic achievement.
- Field Work: The time a student spends working in the field as part of the program; this is defined by the program in terms of length of time spent in the field, sequencing in the curriculum, meeting objectives for the student, and relationship to course work.
- Financial aid: All types of money offered to a student to help pay tuition, fees, and other educational expenses. This can include loans, grants, scholarships, assistantships, fellowships, and work-study jobs. (See the *U.S. News* paying for college and paying for grad school guides for more information.)

- Fiscal Year: lost recently completed fiscal year as defined by the university for which data are complete and can be verified. If the University fiscal year does not correspond to the academic year, this should be noted.
- Fraternity: A student organization, typically for men, formed for social, academic, community service, or professional purposes. A fraternity is part of a college or university's Greek system. Some fraternities, such as those with an academic or community service focus, may be coed.
- Freshman: A student in the first year of high school or college / university.
- Full-time student: A student who is enrolled at a college or university and is taking at least the minimum number of credits required by the school for a full course load.
- GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test): A standardized graduate business school entrance exam administered by the nonprofit Graduate Management Admission Council, which measures verbal, quantitative, and analytical writing skills. Some business schools accept either the GMAT or GRE. In June 2012, the GMAT will incorporate an integrated reasoning section designed to assess how applicants analyze different types of information at once. (See the *U.S. News* business school test prep guide for more information.)
- Goals and Objectives, Program: Written targets for achievement that arc measurable and provide a baseline against which to evaluate Program effectiveness.
- Grade point average (GPA): A student's overall academic performance, which is calculated as a numerical average of grades earned in all courses. The GPA is determined after each term, typically on a 4.0 scale, and upon graduation, students receive an overall GPA for their studies.
- Graduate school: The division of a college or university, or an independent postsecondary institution, which administers graduate studies and awards master's degrees, doctorates, or graduate certificates. (See *U.S. News*'s rankings of Best Graduate Schools.)
- Graduate student / graduate studies: A student who already holds an undergraduate degree and is pursuing advanced studies at a graduate school, leading to a master's, doctorate, or graduate certificate. A "graduate" can also refer to any student who has successfully completed a program of study and earned a degree.
- Grant: A type of financial aid that consists of an amount of free money given to a student, often by the federal or a state government, a company, a school, or a charity. A grant does not have to be repaid. "Grant" is often used interchangeably with "scholarship."
- GRE (Graduate Record Examination): A standardized graduate school entrance exam administered by the nonprofit Educational Testing Service (ETS), which measures verbal, quantitative, and analytical writing skills. The exam is generally required by graduate schools, which use it to assess applicants of master's and Ph.D. programs. Some business schools accept either the GMAT or GRE; law schools generally require the LSAT; and medical schools typically require the MCAT. Effective August

2011, the GRE will incorporate key changes in the content, length, and style of the exam. (See the *U.S. News* GRE guide for more information.)

- Handbook: The Handbook of Accreditation Policies and Procedures, which is a compilation of all policies and procedures related to specific activities of CAHME.
- Hybridization (financial): an institution with many traditions and functions still within the public realm, but with other characteristics that are more in line with those of private colleges and universities. (Yudof, Change Magazine March/April 2002)
- Independent study: An academic course that allows students to earn credit for work done outside of the normal classroom setting. The reading or research assignment is usually designed by the students themselves or with the help of a faculty member, who monitors the progress.
- Infrastructure: The underlying base or foundation for an organization or system, including basic facilities, services, and installations needed for its functioning.
- Institute: An organization created for a specific purpose, usually for research, that may be located on a college or university's campus.
- Integrative Experiences: The combining of a variety of prior courses from the Program curriculum into a single coursework environment such as an experiential field experience (for example, an administrative residency or administrative internship), or a capstone course, which makes course content relevant to career advancement: the collection of skills, knowledge and abilities developed over the didactic curriculum.
- Inter-professional: The application of interactive, group-based [learning], which relates collaborative [learning] to collaborative practice within a coherent rationale which is informed by understanding of interpersonal group, inter-group, organizational and inter-organizational relations and processes of professionalization.
- Interdisciplinary: The collaborative/cooperative integration of knowledge and perspective of multiple areas of expertise to holistically solve problems through research and education. "All health workers should be educated to deliver patient centered care as a member of an interdisciplinary team..." team members from medicine, nursing, allied health, management, and other appropriate professionals.
- International student adviser: A school official who assists international students, scholars, and faculty with matters including orientation, visas, income taxes, insurance, and academic and government rules, among other areas.
- Internship: An experience that allows students to work in a professional environment to gain training and skills. Internships may be paid or unpaid and can be of varying lengths during or after the academic year.
- Isomorphism: is a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions. Under this theory, organizations compete not just for resources and customers, but for political power and institutional legitimacy, for social as well as economic fitness.

- Isomorphism: is a similarity of the processes or structure of one organization to those of another, be it the result imitation or independent development under similar constraints.
- Job Readiness: The [relative level of] skills required to find and maintain employment, to include conducting a job search, problem solving skills, oral communication skills, personal qualities and work ethics, and interpersonal teamwork skills [as well as relative competency in job specific technical skills].
- Letter of recommendation: A letter written by a student's teacher, counselor, coach, or mentor that assesses his or her qualifications and skills. Colleges, universities, and graduate schools generally require recommendation letters as part of the application process.
- Loan: A type of financial aid that consists of an amount of money that is given to someone for a period of time, with an agreement that it will be repaid later. International students are generally not eligible for U.S. federal government loans and will typically require an American cosigner to apply for a private bank loan.
- Longitudinal: A study designed to follow subjects forward through time.
- LSAT (Law School Admission Test): A standardized law school entrance exam administered by the nonprofit Law School Admission Council, which measures reading comprehension, analytical reasoning, and logical reasoning skills. There is also a writing section; although it is not scored, it is sent to each law school to which a student applies. (See the *U.S. News* LSAT test prep guide for more information.)
- M.B.A.: A master of business administration degree.
- Major: The academic subject area that a student chooses to focus on during his or her undergraduate studies. Students typically must officially choose their major by the end of their sophomore year, allowing them to take a number of courses in the chosen area during their junior and senior years.
- Master's: A graduate degree awarded by a college or university upon successful completion of an advanced program of study, typically requiring one or two years of full-time study beyond the bachelor's degree. Common degree types include master of arts (M.A.), which refers to the liberal arts; master of science (M.S.); and master of business administration (M.B.A.).
- Matriculate: To enroll in a program of study at a college or university, with the intention of earning a degree.
- MCAT (Medical College Admission Test): A standardized U.S. medical school entrance exam administered by the nonprofit Association of American Medical Colleges, which measures verbal reasoning and writing skills and physical and biological sciences knowledge. The MCAT will likely undergo significant changes in 2015, with new areas added, such as genetics, cell and molecular biology, psychology, and sociology.

- Mimetic Isomorphism: refers to the tendency of an organization to imitate another organization's structure because of the belief that the structure of the latter organization is beneficial.
- Minor: An academic subject area that a student chooses to have a secondary focus on during their undergraduate studies. Unlike a major, a minor is typically not required, but it allows a student to take a few additional courses in a subject different from his or her major.
- Mission Congruency: Alignment of goals to achieve an overarching mission
- Mission Drift: when an organization has moved away from its mission; or the organization consciously moves into a new direction from its mission statement
- Mission, Program: The broadly stated purpose providing the vision and emphasis, including any uniqueness, of the Program.
- Multiple Sites: Various geographic locations in which the curriculum for the program being accredited is offered. All sites covered by the accreditation action must be specified in the Eligibility Statement.
- Neoliberalism: is a label for Economic liberalism, advocates of which support economic liberalization, free trade, and open markets, privatization, deregulation, and decreasing the size of the public sector while increasing the role of the private sector in modern society.
- Net price calculator: An online tool that allows students and families to calculate a personalized estimate of the cost of a specific college or university, after taking into account any scholarships or need-based financial aid that an applicant would receive. By Oct. 29, 2011, each higher education institution in the United States is required by law to post a net price calculator on its respective website.
- Nonresident: A student who does not meet a state's residence requirements. A college or university may have different tuition costs and admissions policies for residents versus nonresidents. In most cases, international students are considered nonresidents. A "nonresident alien" is a person who is not a U.S. citizen and is in the country on a temporary basis.
- Normative Isomorphism: stems primarily from professionalization which is the collective struggle of members of an occupation to define the conditions and methods of their work, to control the production of producers, and to establish a cognitive base and legitimation for their occupational autonomy.
- Notarized: Certified as authentic by a public official, lawyer, or bank. Colleges and universities often require international students to submit notarized documents, such as the Affidavit of Support or high school transcripts.
- Objectives, Behavioral: These objectives indicate the specific behaviors students must demonstrate to indicate that learning has occurred.
- Objectives, Course: Objectives for a particular course, including student behavioral learning objectives, which address a subset of curriculum objectives.

- Objectives, Curriculum : Program-wide objectives; these are the overarching objectives which the Program seeks to fulfill, and which serve as the basis for the evaluation for accreditation.
- Objectives, Learning: Brief, clear, specific statements of what students will be able to perform at the conclusion of instructional activities.
- Open admissions: A college or university's policy of accepting all students who have completed high school, regardless of their grades or test scores, until all spaces are filled. Most community colleges have an open admissions policy, including for international students.
- Orientation: A college or university's official process of welcoming new, accepted students to campus and providing them with information and policies before classes begin, usually in a half-day or full-day event. Many colleges and graduate schools offer a separate orientation just for international students to cover topics such as how to follow immigration and visa regulations, set up a U.S. bank account, and handle culture shock.
- Outcomes: Personal or organizational changes or benefits that follow as a result or consequence of some activity, intervention, or service. Some outcomes relate to the organization and some to a person. Outcomes can be short, intermediate, or long-term.
- Part-time student: A student who is enrolled at a college or university but is not taking the minimum number of credits required for a full course load.
- Ph.D.: A doctor of philosophy degree. (See "doctorate.")
- Post doctorate: Academic studies or research for those who have completed a doctorate. A "postdoc" can refer both to a person who is pursuing a post doctorate and to the post doctorate itself.
- Prerequisite: A required course that must be completed before a student is allowed to enroll in a more advanced one.
- Priority date: The date by which an application must be received in order to be given full consideration. This can apply to admissions, financial aid, and on-campus housing. After the priority date passes, applications may be considered on a case-by-case or first-come-first-served basis.
- Private school: A postsecondary institution controlled by a private individual(s) or a nongovernmental agency. A private institution is usually not supported primarily by public funds and its programs are not operated by publicly elected or appointed officials. Stanford University, for example, is a private school.
- Privatization: changing something from state to private ownership or control
- Probation: A status or period of time in which students with very low GPAs, or whose academic work is unsatisfactory according to the school, must improve their performance. If they are unable to do so, they may be dismissed from the school.

Students may also face "disciplinary probation" for nonacademic reasons, such as behavioral problems in the dorms.

- Process: Noun: method. A series of actions, changes, or functions bringing about a result. Verb: make ready. To subject to a treatment with the aim of readying for some purpose, improving, or remedying a condition; to deal with in a routine way.
- Professional achievement: Refers to the attainment of relatively sufficient recognition by credentialing, certifying, and/or licensing organizations so as to confer formal acknowledgement of achievement in such forms as title, diploma, licensure, registry, etc. Recognition generating organizations could include state, regional, national, and/or international level formally structured organizations such as the American College of Healthcare Executives, Healthcare Financial Management Association, American College of Surgeons, State Board of Nursing, and the like.
- Professional school: A higher education institution for students who have already received their undergraduate degree to gain training in specific professions, such as law, medicine, and pharmacy.
- Program of Study: The complete program for which accreditation is sought. CAHME grants accreditation to the program of study, rather than to the degree granted.
- Program Readiness: The relative level of ability/abilities [of an academic program] to accomplish program mission, goals and objectives, based upon a predetermined set of criteria and related standards.
- Program(s): The healthcare management program(s) of study for which the university is seeking accreditation. All programs covered by the accreditation action must *be* specified in the Eligibility Statement. CAHME will designate Program with the first letter capitalized when referring to the administrative unit and not the course of study.
- Provost: The senior academic officer of a college or university who typically oversees all academic policies and curriculum-related matters.
- PSAT: The Preliminary SAT, a standardized practice test cosponsored by the nonprofit College Board and the National Merit Scholarship Corp., which measures reading, writing, and math skills, giving students experience with the SAT. Students usually take the PSAT in their junior year of high school, and U.S. citizens and permanent residents can submit their scores to qualify for National Merit scholarships. (See the *U.S. News* college test prep guide for more information.)
- Public school: A postsecondary institution that is supported mainly by public funds and whose programs are operated by publicly elected or appointed officials. The University of California—Berkeley, for example, is a public school.
- Qualified, Academically: A faculty member is academically qualified by virtue of formal educational background and continued intellectual contributions.

- Qualified, Professionally: A faculty member is professionally qualified by virtue of academic preparation (normally at the master's level) and significant professional experience relevant to the teaching assignment.
- Quarters: Periods of study that divide the academic year into four equal segments of approximately 12 weeks each, typically including the summer.
- Reader System: A methodology used during CAHME meetings to audit the site visit team reports and derive the final decision. This approach improves the accuracy, consistency, and value of the CAHME reports and identifies any general educational issues worthy of discussion by CAHME.
- Registrar: The college or university official who is responsible for registering students and keeping their academic records, such as transcripts.
- Registration: The process in which students choose and enroll in courses to be taken during the academic year or in summer sessions.
- Regular decision: An admissions process used by colleges and universities that typically requires applicants to submit their materials by January 1; an admissions decision is generally received by April 1, and if admitted, students usually have until May 1 to respond to the offer. The majority of applicants are evaluated during regular decision, rather than early action and early decision.
- Resource Dependency Theory: the study of how external resources of organizations affect the behavior of the organization.
- Rolling admissions: An admissions process used by some colleges and universities in which each application is considered as soon as all the required materials have been received, rather than by a specific deadline. Colleges and universities with this policy will make decisions as applications are received until all spaces are filled.
- Scholarly Activities: The creation of a discipline-appropriate product and the discipline-appropriate presentation of that product. Scholarly activities are framed by discovery, teaching, application, and integration.
- Scholarship: A type of financial aid that consists of an amount of free money given to a student by a school, individual, organization, company, charity, or federal or state government. "Scholarship" is often used interchangeably with "grant." (See the *U.S. News* scholarship guide for more information.)
- Scholarship: Scholarship is the result of academic research in conjunction with institutions of higher education wherein deep mastery of a subject is obtained; it consists of knowledge that results from study and research in a particular field.
- School: Any educational institution, including those that provide elementary, secondary, and postsecondary education. In the latter case, "school" is often used interchangeably with "college" and "university."
- Self-Study Document: The documentation submitted for review, organized in two volumes as defined in this guide.

- Self-Study Year: The last full academic year (as defined by the university) for which data is complete and can be verified. This is the year upon which the Self-Study is based; all documentation should relate to this year.
- Semesters: Periods of study that divide the academic year into two equal segments of approximately 15 to 18 weeks each. Some schools also offer a shorter summer semester, beyond the traditional academic year.
- Seminar: A course offered to a small group of students who are typically more advanced and who meet with a professor to discuss specialized topics.
- Senior: A student in the fourth year of high school or college / university.
- Site Visit Team: The group of persons appointed by the CAI-IME to conduct the site visit. The team is normally chaired by a member or former member of the CAI-IME Accreditation Council; the remainder of the team consists of a faculty member from another accredited program and/or practitioner, and a Fellow who serves as the secretary to the team. For initial site visits, a fourth member is added (either faculty or practitioner). Each team will have at least one practitioner.
- Site Visit: The on-campus visit conducted by CAHME, which occurs in two phases. On the first day, the Fellow reviews the records and resources of the Program. On days two and three, the full team completes an extensive evaluation of the Program.
- Social Mission: mission statement that describes how the organization views its role in making the world a better place.
- Standardized tests: Exams, such as the SAT, ACT, and GRE, which measure knowledge and skills and are designed to be consistent in how they are administered and scored. Standardized tests are intended to help admissions officials compare students who come from different backgrounds.
- Student Driven/Student Focused: Designed (driven) to meet the needs of CAI IME student customers
- Teaching assistant (TA): A graduate student who assists a professor with teaching an undergraduate course, usually within his or her field, as part of an assistantship.
- Team Building: Team building is an effort in which a team studies its own process of working together and acts to create a climate that encourages and values the contributions of team members. -Their energies are directed toward problem solving, task effectiveness, and maximizing the use of all members' resources to achieve the team's purpose. Sound team building recognizes that it is not possible to fully separate one's performance from those of others.
- Team-based Learning: An approach to learning which emphasizes the process of transforming heterogeneous students into cohesive teams dedicated to a common set of goals. This can be accomplished via team building: 1. Effective team formation; 2. Accountability based on team/group work; 3. Group-related assignments; 4. Timely feedback on work related goal achievement.

- Tenure: A status offered to high-level faculty members at a college or university that allows them to stay permanently in their positions, after demonstrating a strong record of teaching and published research.
- Term: Periods of study, which can include semesters, quarters, trimesters, or summer sessions.
- Thesis: A formal piece of writing on a specific subject, which may be required to earn a bachelor's or master's degree.
- Transcript: An official record of a student's coursework and grades at a high school, college, or university. A high school transcript is usually one of the required components of the college application process.
- Transfer credit: Credit granted toward a degree on the basis of studies completed at another college or university. For instance, students who transfer from a community college to a four-year college may earn some transfer credit.
- Trimesters: Periods of study that divide the academic year into three equal segments of approximately 10 to 12 weeks each.
- Tuition: An amount of money charged by a school per term, per course, or per credit, in exchange for instruction and training. Tuition generally does not include the cost of textbooks, room and board, and other fees.
- University: A postsecondary institution that typically offers both undergraduate and graduate degree programs. "University" is often used interchangeably with "college" and "school."
- Values: An abstract generalized principle of behavior to which members of a group feel a strong emotionally-toned commitment and which provides a standard for judging specific acts and goal.
- Wait list: A list of qualified applicants to a school who may be offered admission if there is space available after all admitted students have made their decisions. Being on a wait list does not guarantee eventual admission, so some students may choose not to remain on the list, particularly if the school is not their first choice.
- Withdraw: To formally stop participating in a course or attending a university.

Acknowledgments

Many individuals have contributed to my character and sense of self in different stages of my life journey, which has now culminated with this work. Each individual has been an important building block of my character and knowledge, which will continue to be a work in progress.

I owe completing this important and latest chapter of my life-long learning to Professor Walter Allen, whose belief in my potential contribution in the field of higher education allowed me to become a member of a highly regarded faculty and student body.

My professors and members of my dissertation committee have been the guiding lights throughout this process. Drs. Walter Allen and José Luis Santos, my dissertation committee co-chairs, have tirelessly supported my educational endeavor and guided me in fine-tuning this research. Drs. Alfred Osborne and Edith Omwami have enriched my understanding of higher education and public health issues facing the underserved in developing countries.

My Higher Education and Organizational Change family of fellow students and administrators were instrumental in my navigating the institutional and educational processes for my more effective learning and efficient completion of degree requirements. I am especially thankful to Dr. Amy Gershon, Director of OSS, for her guidance prior to my admission to the HEOC program and her continued support during my degree completion. I am extremely grateful to Dr. Christopher Newman, currently a professor at the University of San Diego, who served as a Teaching Assistant for several courses in which I was enrolled while completing his doctoral degree in HEOC. His peer-

support and guidance was invaluable in helping me develop a deeper understanding of issues with which I was not familiar.

My Public Health family, especially several colleagues with whom I served for a decade before we all transitioned to different organizations, remains my source of wisdom and sound advice. Ms. Nanette Ramzan, Drs. Amardeep Thind, Jeff Luck, and Aram Dobalian have all been instrumental in advancing my knowledge both within and outside specific areas of my interest. Their continued friendship has supported my educational endeavors, for which I am immensely grateful.

Vita

Education

2010	MA, Higher Education, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA
1999	DrPH, Healthcare Management; Marketing Strategy, UCLA
1997	MPH, Healthcare Management & Policy UCLA,
1982	MBA, International Finance & Operations Texas A & M International University, College, TX
1981	BS, Finance; Management & Industrial Engineering University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT

Honors & Awards

2013	Global Health Leadership Award, UCLA School of Nursing
2010	Exemplary Service Award, Association of Kenyan International Medical Professionals
2009& 2010	Teaching Excellence Award-Professor of the Year nominee UCLA Public Health Student Association
2009	Outstanding Contribution Award, Medical Travel &Tourism Association
2007	UCLA Distinguished Teaching Award, UCLA Academic Senate
2006	Inspirational Professor Award, UCLA EMPH Program
2005	Professor of the Year, UCLA Public Health Student Association
2005	Upsilon Phi Delta, Honor Society in Healthcare Management
1999	Delta Omega Honor Society in Public Health
1997 & 1998	Milton and Ruth Roemer Fellow, UCLA School of Public Health
1983 & 1985	Outstanding Service Award Women & Business, Utah Governor

Academic Experience

2011– Present	Adjunct Professor, UCLA Anderson School of Management, Los Angeles, CA
2011-Present	Deputy Director, Education Research & Training, Veterans Emergency Management Evaluation Center, U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs
2010-Present	Director, Global Health Initiatives, Department of Family Medicine, David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA
2010-Present	Adjunct Professor, Department of Family Medicine, David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA
2006–2010	Director, Executive Education Programs UCLA School of Public Health, Los Angeles, CA
2001-2006	Associate Director, EMPH Program, UCLA School of Public Health, Los Angeles, CA
1997 – 2010	Adjunct Faculty, Department of Health Services UCLA School of Public Health, Loa Angeles, CA
1982–1986	Director, Small Business Institute, Adjunct Faculty School of Business, University of Utah Salt Lake City, UT

Industry Experience

1979- Present	Operations Management & Finance Consultant Private, Government, International Organizations
1982- Present	Invited Speaker, Workshop & Panel Participant Local, National, and International Presentations

Professional Affiliation

Academy of Management
American Educational Research Association
American Institute of Certified public Accountants
American Public Health Association
Institute of Industrial Engineers– Senior Member

Chapter One – Introduction

Public Research Universities (PRUs) in the United States have been forced to transition towards less financial dependence on state funding. In the past two decades, the concept of "doing more with less" has steadily become the new norm for public universities due to cutbacks in state and federal funding. Figure 1.1 presents PRUs' state funding over 35 years, through 2012. The figure also shows the continuous growth in student enrollment over the same period as PRUs have experienced financial challenges due to the funding cuts. This dichotomy of decreased funding support (blue line, Fig. 1.1) and increased enrollment (red line, Fig. 1.1) has been the primary reason for the PRUs to raise the cost of education through tuition and fee hikes (green bars, Fig 1.1) in order to cover the gap in revenues and operating expenses.

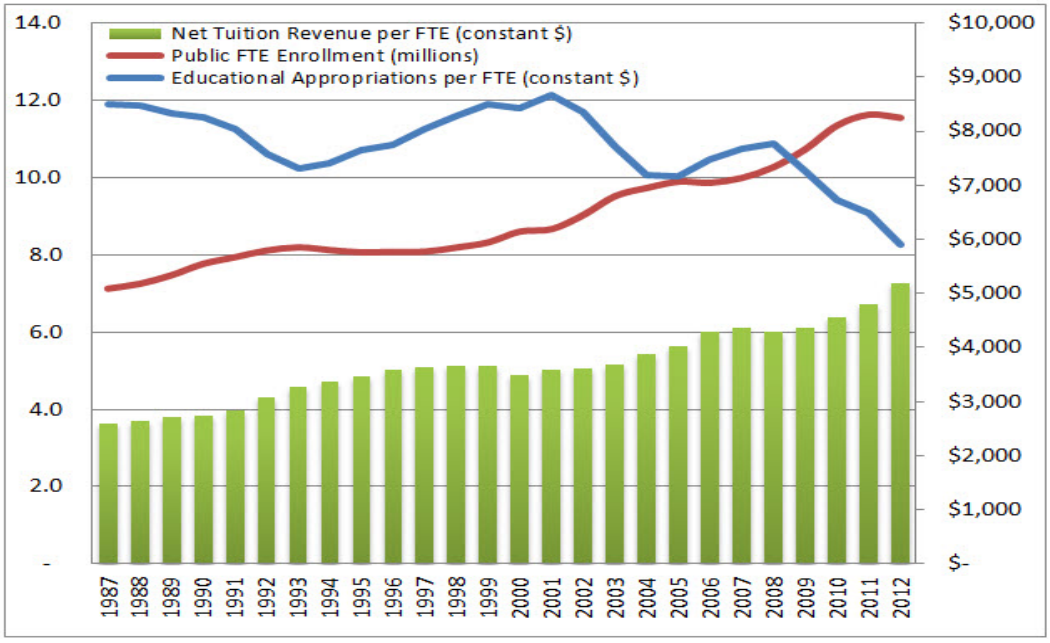


Figure 1.1: Tuition, enrollment and state support
This figure illustrates PRUs' state funding over 35 years, through 2012. Adapted from "State Higher Education Finance FY 2012," by State Higher Education Executive Officers, p. 21. Copyright 2013 by State Higher Education Executive Officers.

Other strategies employed by PRUs to address reduced state funding and move towards self-sufficiency have been: participation in public-private partnership programs, direct industry contracts and grants, and creation of various SSPs.

Problem Statement

Since the early 1980s, public universities and colleges have been undergoing monumental changes: diminished political and societal support, decreased public funding, and increased competition from private institutions (Duderstadt & Womack, 2003; C. Morphew & Eckel, 2009; Newfield, 2008; Priest & St. John, 2006). The National Science Board (2012) highlighted the continuing drop in state-level support for 101 major public universities (Basken, 2012). The erosion of public support for higher education and the resulting steep funding cuts (Archibald & Feldman, 2006) prompted public universities to move towards self-sufficiency and to pursue alternative sources of revenue independent of state funding (Priest & St. John, 2006).

The continuing change in financial support has impacted all stakeholders in higher education. Students, faculty, institutions, and their affiliated stakeholder groups have each been affected to varying degrees. For students, the primary challenge has been paying increasingly higher tuition and fees for their education. State funding has declined since the 1970s, forcing universities to balance their losses with revenues through dramatic tuition increases. Figure 1.2 captures the dramatic tuition and fee increases over the past two decades, in which net tuition as a percent of public education expenditures rose from 23.3% in 1987 to 47.0% in 2012. As cost is one of the most important factors for those interested in working with underserved and underrepresented populations in higher education, the push towards a more privatized model, which spurs increases in

tuition, reduces affordability and subsequently access for these populations (Archibald & Feldman, 2006). For faculty, the challenge has been a lack of financial stability and academic freedom. Faced with teaching load pressures and the need to raise an increasing proportion of their own salary, some faculty have chosen to secure research funding for course buy-out and salary augmentation through external sources of revenue (Fairweather & Beach, 2002). For institutions, the impact of reduced state and federal funding in grants has been felt most keenly in operations and infrastructure. Zemsky and Wegner (1997) presented the primary questions that have been reverberated in academia: Who should pay? From what sources? For what purpose? Who actually pays? Who benefits? The responses to each of these questions will define the mission and values of PRUs. Changes in external and internal environments in which PRUs operate may also change their strategic objectives, which in turn may alter their institutional mission.

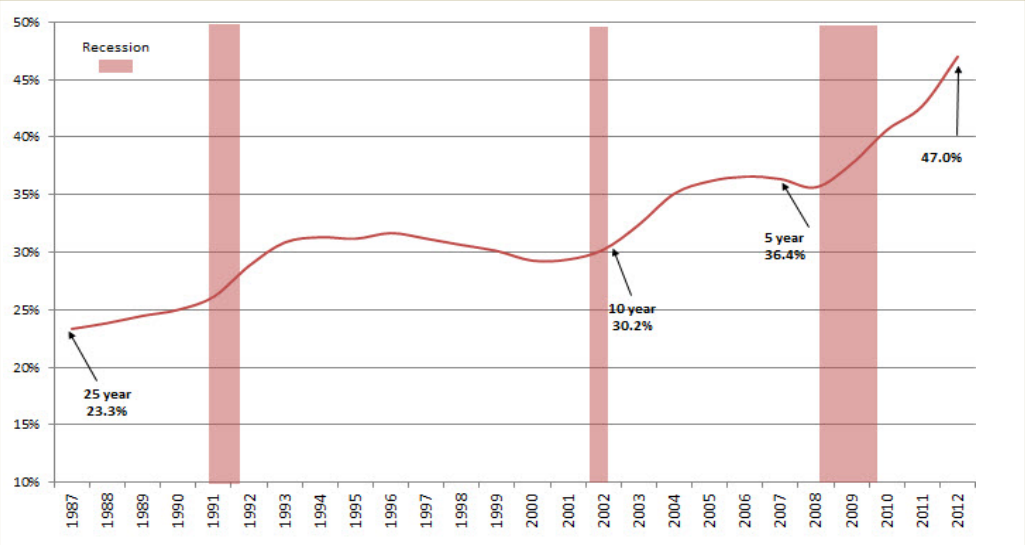


Figure 1.2 - Net Tuition as a Percent of Public Higher Education.
Reprinted from "State Higher Education Finance FY2012," by State Higher Education Executive Officers, p. 25. Copyright 2013 by State Higher Education Executive Officers.

The accelerated change in funding sources and trends towards self-sufficiency resulted in a shift in policies and procedures from addressing public good to individual and market good. To address the needs and demands of society while maintaining fiscal responsibility with no reliance on state financial support, PRUs increasingly engaged in offering Self-Sustaining Programs (SSPs) in their core operating areas of research, teaching, and service. The increase in SSPs was a strategic realignment for PRUs to meet their financial obligation and their mission objectives. SSPs in research areas focused on private industry contracts, while consulting and technical assistance was to complement their service mission. In the teaching mission category, there has been growth in continuing education and degree programs where market strategy has been strong.

The market demand for professional degrees resulted in the creation of Self-Sustaining Degree Programs (SSDPs). The Master's Degree in Business Administration (MBA) has seen the largest expansion in all other professional degrees. Described as the ultimate preparation for management careers (Mintzberg, 2004), the degree attracts individuals focused on social mobility through increased employment or career advancement. The MBA degree completion grew from 3,200 in 1956 (Zimmerman, 2001) to 26,000 in 1970 and 168,000 in 2009 (Yeaple, 2012).

While business-oriented graduate degree programs such as the MBA enjoy a strong market demand for business professionals, a broader community need has been growing for health professionals to address population-based and community-centered health care issues. The growing need for public health professionals to address issues of environmental safety, disease prevention, quality of life, food safety, and other population-based issues has led to the creation of SSDPs in Public Health (SSDP-PH).

Population-based interventions by public health professionals were widely credited for much of the mortality and morbidity declines in the past century (Arias, 2008; Kochanek, Arias, & Anderson, 2010). However, shortages of health professionals (Kreitzer, Kliewer, & Meeker, 2009; Perlino, 2006) continue, as society is confronted with complex public health problems of an increasingly diverse population in the U.S. (Brian D Smedley, Stith, & Nelson, 2003). The established interdependence of health and education (Gan & Gong, 2007) needs to be revisited with a special focus on the impact of SSDPs in the public health professions.

The continuous changes in funding sources and transition towards financial self-sufficiency have been altering the character and culture of PRUs, which have greatly concerned many stakeholders. These issues will be further elaborated in the literature review chapter.

Issue Background

The adverse effect of the global recession that started in 2008 continues to challenge PRUs to identify alternative funding sources to mitigate the impact of further reductions in state support. State revenues were dramatically reduced due to higher unemployment rates, the real estate and financial crises, and aging infrastructure, while states' expenditures were substantially increased to address the impact of the great recession and the rising need for basic social services for their residents.

The American Reinvestment and Recovery Act (ARRA), approved in February 2009, was an attempt by the federal government to assist states with their critical infrastructure and funding for higher education. President Obama (2009) addressed the transition to a knowledge economy:

> In a global economy where the most valuable skill you can sell is your knowledge, a good education is no longer just a pathway to opportunity; it is a prerequisite. The countries that out-teach us today will out-compete us tomorrow.

Funding from ARRA provided temporary relief and served an important role in stabilizing PRUs' financial quandary. Figure 1.3 presents levels of state financial support from 1991 to 2011, showing how state funding of higher education would have looked in the absence of ARRA stimulus funding. By 2012, ARRA funds were mostly spent. The post-stimulus scenario of decreased state support ("fiscal cliff") emerged, a result that was accurately projected with the expiration and phasing out of ARRA funding with continual sluggish economic recovery. In addition, the near collapse of the stock market, precipitous drops in market value of the endowments, and massive investment losses were projected to lead to difficulties that may last for years (Humphreys, 2010).

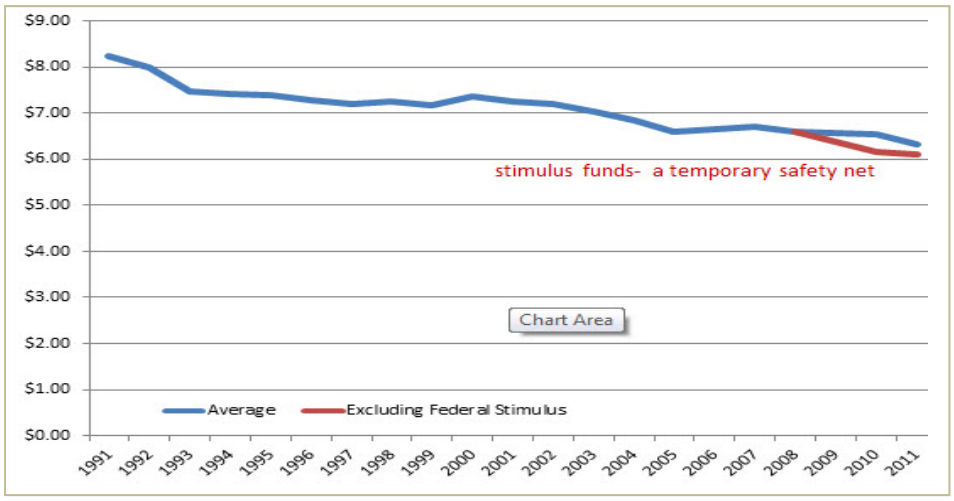


Figure 1.3 State Funding for Higher education per $1,000 of Income
Adapted from "Historical Data," by Illinois State University. Retrieved September 1, 2013 from http://grapevine.illinoisstate.edu/historical/. Copyright 2013 by Illinois State University.

The shift away from education as a public good has led universities to follow the path taken by several leading public institutions. For example, the University of Virginia's leadership negotiated agreements with state agencies that allowed them to

make cuts in proportion to a department's or school's alternative revenue options and to negotiate further autonomy (University of Virginia, 2012). Some higher education literature refers to this changing character of public universities as "privatization." The term "hybridization," however, may more accurately reflect the possible metamorphosis of today's PRU to the new Hybrid University, a higher education institution that would utilize various sources of revenue and funding to deliver a broad range of products and services in the world market and society.

Diminishing State Financial Support

Several factors, including the changing economy, led many institutions to conclude that their survival depended on their being more responsive to market forces. These trends resulted in the growing adoption of the mantras "no margin, no mission" and "market-smart and mission-centered" (Robert Zemsky, Wegner, & Massy, 2005) by higher education institutions. One measure of the consequences of the financial crisis being faced by public institutions was their ratio of spending per full-time student relative to that of private institutions. In 1980s, public institutions spent 70 cents for every one dollar spent at private colleges and universities, which by the late 1990s had fallen to 55 cents (Archibald & Feldman, 2006). State appropriations as a share of universities' operating revenues steadily declined (National Science Board, 2012), as illustrated in Figure 1.4. A comprehensive report on state budget cuts entitled "Diminishing Funding and Rising Expectations: Trends and Challenges for Public Research Universities."

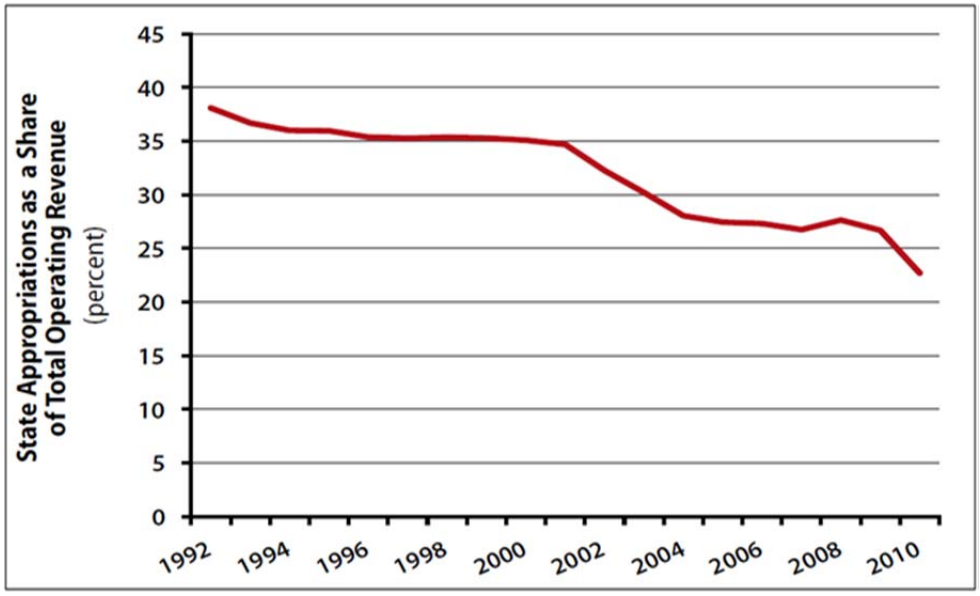


Figure 1.4 Declining State Funds as a Share of PRU Operating Revenue
Reprinted from "Diminishing Funding and Rising Expectations: Trends and Challenges for Public Research Universities," by the National Science Board, p. 10. Copyright 2012 by the National Science Board.

The National Science Board (2012) sounded the alarm that continuing cuts in per-student funding in over 100 public universities threaten the future of higher education. Some of the top-tier and flagship PRUs partially compensated for these funding gaps with private industry and philanthropic fundraising, but most others resorted to reductions in course offerings and the elimination of programs deemed less likely to secure outside funds (Oliff, Palacios, Johnson, & Leachman, 2013, p. 2). Most states reduced funds for higher education, causing some major universities to experience significant losses in financial support over the past decade (National Science Board, 2012). Figure 1.5 presents the fluctuations in state funding in constant dollar support. In response to major cuts in financial support by state governments, PRUs engaged in strategies to identify alternative sources of revenue.

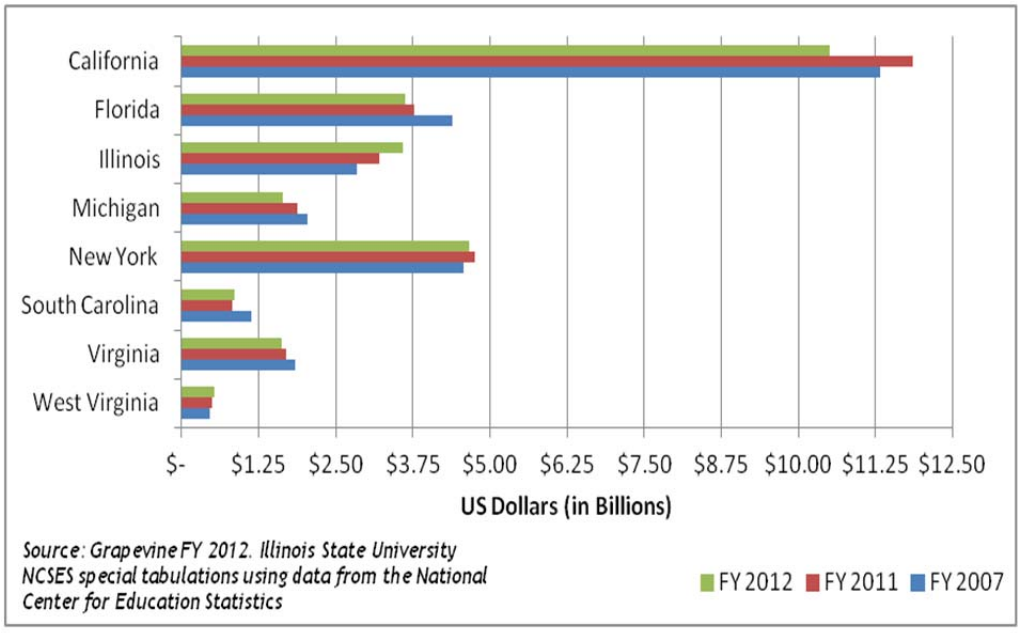


Figure 1.5 Unstable and Diminishing State Support by Selected States.
Adapted from "Historical Data," by Illinois State University. Retrieved September 1, 2013 from http://grapevine.illinoisstate.edu/historical/. Copyright 2013 by Illinois State University. Adapted from "Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System," by National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved August 1, 2013 from http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/. Copyright 2013 by U.S. Department of Education.

Stakeholders and Competing Interests

Morphew and Eckel (2009) expressed concern that public universities may not be able to meet their public service orientation in a privatized model where the universities' operational mandates would come from students who are paying an increasingly higher share of the expenses at PRUs through increased tuition. Corporate sponsors/partners, philanthropic donors, and the drive for external research funding are other factors that influence PRUs' strategies. As the states constitute a smaller share of the overall budget of universities, they will have less power to exert authority in decision making (C. Morphew & Eckel, 2009). The competing interests in the decision-making processes of public universities make promoting a public policy agenda and issues of accessibility more challenging.

Institutions

PRUs have been striving to meet demands of their constituents while they try to sustain revenues and control costs. In analyzing the imbalance between demands and PRUs capacity, Clark (1998a) suggested that PRUs need to increase their institutional capacity to respond to changes in the external environment of government, business, and community while trying to maintain their institutional character. PRUs' primary source of funding was through the state. Many PRU leaders reportedly share the collective sentiment that "We used to be state supported; then we were state assisted; and now we are state located" (Thelin, 2011, p. 359). Public higher education institutions are operating in an increasingly complex environment with fast-changing external and internal factors that impact their operations and interaction among the stakeholders.

The 2001 Arizona State University (ASU) financial crisis serves as an example of how stakeholders are affected by decreased state support. In 2002, ASU President Michael Crow had promised a "New American University" that would "break down the musty old boundaries between disciplines, encourage advanced research and entrepreneurship to drive the new economy, and draw in students from underserved sectors of the state" (Lewin, 2009)—a trend of the higher education model. During the decade (2002-2012) of ASU's transition towards increased self-sufficiency, ASU had to endure major cuts in its operating expenses to address the reductions in state funding, such as eliminating 500 jobs on campus, closing 48 programs, limiting enrollment, and incorporating 10 to 15 unpaid furlough days (Lewin, 2009).

This experience is not unique to ASU; other major PRUs were compelled to make similar, drastic measures to continue their operations. An ongoing challenge for PRUs is

to sustain a system of higher education that is characterized both by quality and broad accessibility (R. Zemsky & Wegner, 1997). Higher education faces the irony of high desirability by key constituents while constrained in its ability to gain financial support from its traditional funding sources (Zumeta, 2004).

Faculty

The global transition towards a knowledge economy places universities and their highly skilled faculty in demand by industry and other academic institutions. Faculty play a critical role in the productivity and expansion of industry through PRUs. The involuntary transition from a state-supported financing model to various hybrid models has placed PRUs at a disadvantage in securing high-quality faculty. Figure 1.6 presents PRUs' dilemma in their inability to compete in hiring faculty with their equally ranked private institutions, which can offer more attractive compensation packages.

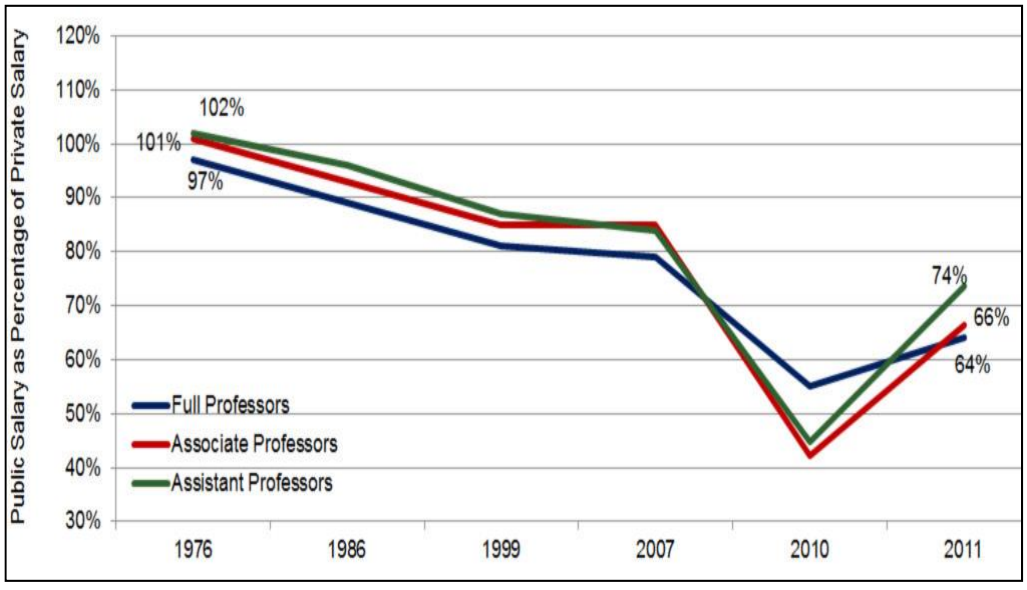


Figure 1.6 Compensation PRU vs Private U.
Adapted from "Funding Restrictions at Public Universities: Effects and Policy Implications," by T. Kane and P. Orszag, 2003. Adapted from "It's Not Over Yet: The Annual Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, 2010-11," by American Association of University Professors, 2011, pp. 11-13.

The salary for PRU faculty has been on a declining path since the mid-1970s and at its lowest comparative level in 2010, though the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) did provide some temporary relief from free-falling comparative compensation. The Higher Education Research Institute's (HERI) national survey (2010-2011) of approximately 24,000 faculty members at over 400 universities, found that decreasing stability in institutional finances and budget was the primary source of stress for faculty at research universities (Figure 1.7). The survey also found that this faculty concern was twice as high at PRUs as at private research universities. Other stressors included "procedures and red tape" and the demand for research grants and publications. The survey also identified that faculty had concerns about race and gender bias, with approximately 62 percent of women faculty and 64 percent of African-American faculty reporting "subtle discrimination" as a stress factor. The discrimination issue was also reported by the Latino faculty (Hurtado et al., 2012).

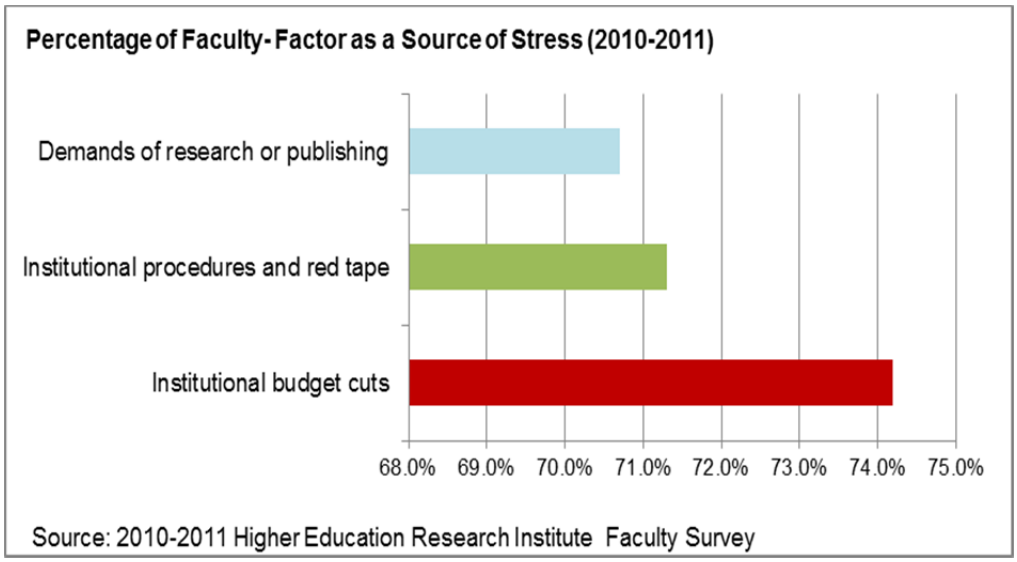


Figure 1.7 Faculty Concerns.
Adapted from "Undergraduate Teaching Faculty: The 2010-2011 HERI Faculty Survey," by S. Hurtado, K. Eagan, J. Pryor, H. Whang, and S. Tran,, p. 4. Copyright 2012 by the Regents of the University of California.

Direct and indirect consequences of funding cuts by the states resulted in another PRUs' policy and procedural shift in hiring of faculty and staff in part-time, temporary, and adjunct categories, a trend that continues to expand in academe. The inability of institutions to secure state-funded replacement for retired faculty is the primary reason for this shift in hiring adjunct faculty (also referred to as "clinical" in law and medicine). Adjunct faculty members are hired mostly to address the teaching needs of PRUs in their traditional in-residence (face-to-face) programs and the SSPs at lower rates of compensation than their tenured counterparts. Figure 1.8 shows a steady decline in tenured faculty, with a corresponding increase in part-time and adjunct faculty.

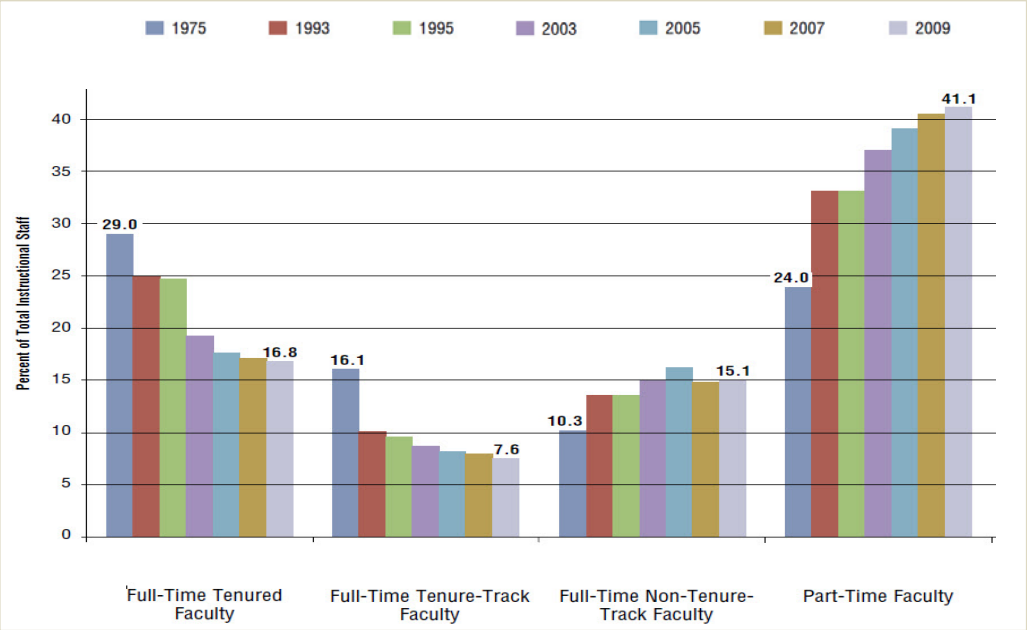


Figure 1.8 -Trend in Composition of Faculty Affiliation.
Adapted from "Trends in Instructional Staff Employment Status, 1975-2011" by American Association of University Professors. August 1, 2013 from http://www.aaup.org/sites/default/files/files/AAUP_Report_InstrStaff- 75-11_apr2013.pdf. Copyright 2013 by American Association of University Professors.

Another reason for the rise in hiring of adjunct faculty is PRUs' shift in teaching requirements for tenured faculty. Many PRUs are now allowing tenured faculty members

who have secured higher levels of research funding to "buy-out" portions of their teaching responsibility, which will be fulfilled at a lower compensation rate by an equally qualified part-time adjunct faculty. The trend towards higher numbers of adjunct faculty is also changing the dynamics of shared governance and culture. For example, in a majority of PRUs, the adjunct and part-time faculty do not have the same voting privileges as tenured faculty in the institutional decision process, and will not draw the employment benefits that are afforded their tenured colleagues. This trend has the potential to erode the research capacity at PRUs since part-time faculty members are traditionally hired from industry to contribute in teaching a specific competency or knowledge.

Students

Support for higher education is among the four core functions of the state government (Hovey, 1999; Roherty, 1997). Other social infrastructures that are supported by the state include K−12 education, health care, and public assistance. Demographic changes have led to changes in societal values and perceptions of the value of higher education as a societal good versus a private and individual good. This view that higher education benefits an individual more than a society—and is a private good rather than a public good (Breneman & Finney, 1997)—is among the root causes that higher education is mostly considered as a discretionary item in state budgets and hence appropriate for cuts. The economic downturns decreased states' revenues while causing an increase in expenditures for basic social and safety net programs.(R.G. Ehrenberg, 2006). Faced with additional funding cuts from their respective states, PRUs pursued alternative sources of funding and various revenue strategies to cover their expenses, primary among them were

tuition increases. Depending on the field of study, graduate-level education tends to benefit an individual more than a society and is therefore perceived as more of a private rather than a public good. This perception has made graduate and professional degree programs a target of tuition increases at a disproportionate level as compared to undergraduate and research-based graduate degree programs. Implications of shifting the cost of higher education from public to individual go beyond the direct impact on students (Breneman, 1997). Tuition increases are a major factor in making PRUs less accessible to the broader population (Alexander, 2006). Reduced affordability has an extended impact on students' immediate family members as well. The impact at the community level is a reduction in a competent workforce dedicated to the welfare of community members (Fairweather & Hodges, 2006) . Figure1.9 presents the widening gap between income and tuition as the costs of graduate education substantially increased and household income remained stagnant or declined in real value.

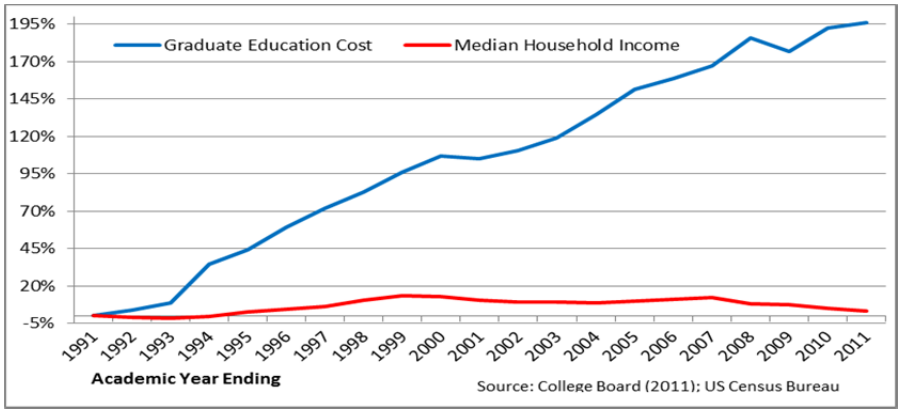


Figure 1.9 - Disproportionate Increases in Tuition Versus Income.
Adapted from "Trends in College Pricing 2011," by College Board. Copyright 2011

Unfortunately, the most common strategy in bridging this gap was to place the burden of education costs on students through tuition increases and the utilization of student loans. Figure 1.10 presents the expansion of student loans as a means of

individual financing of higher education. The rise in tuition also corresponds to an individual's loan amount. Students in the past decade have taken on larger loans than students in the previous generations. Although the rise of tuition has slowed down significantly this past year, the net price of tuition, which is defined as "the average price paid by all full-time students, on aid or not, after subtracting all grant aid and federal tax benefits" (Supiano, 2013, para. 10), has risen. Most recently, the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau announced that student-loan borrowers owe the government more than one trillion dollars (Weinberg, 2013). This is partially due to the decrease in financial aid given to students from state and federal governments during the 2008 Great Recession, which has led to the increase of student debt.

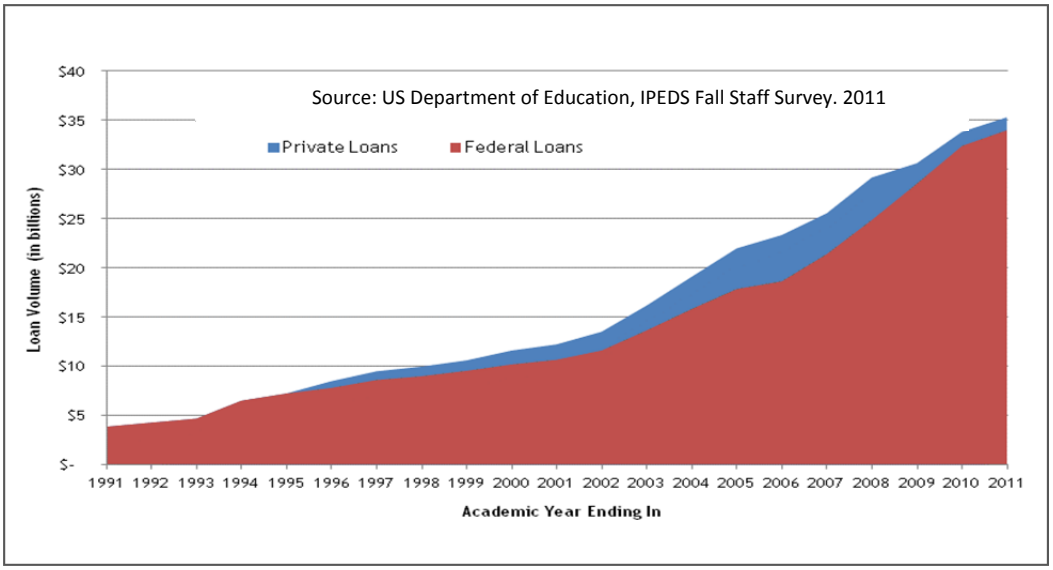


Figure 1.10 - Increase in Tuition Fees Financed by Loans.
Adapted from "Trends in College Pricing 2012," by College Board. Copyright 2012

Large student loans and a soft employment market have resulted in an increase in delinquencies of loan repayment, presented in Figure 1.11. Further, the lack of on-time payment was not limited to younger students. Delinquency in student loans can damage

an individual's creditworthiness and may reduce his or her ability to be hired in certain professions that require financial background checks by the employer.

Tuition increases recovered a portion of revenue loss in state funding. Public universities eliminated programs, reduced course offerings, changed major requirements, closed libraries, and cut staff and faculty positions to compensate for a portion of lost revenue, thus impacting the quality of education and timely graduation for students. However, as demonstrated in Figure 1.12, despite the fact that the cyclical economic downturns made it difficult for most individuals to recapture their investments in higher education, the unemployment rate for college graduates was progressively lower for higher levels of education as compared to the national average.

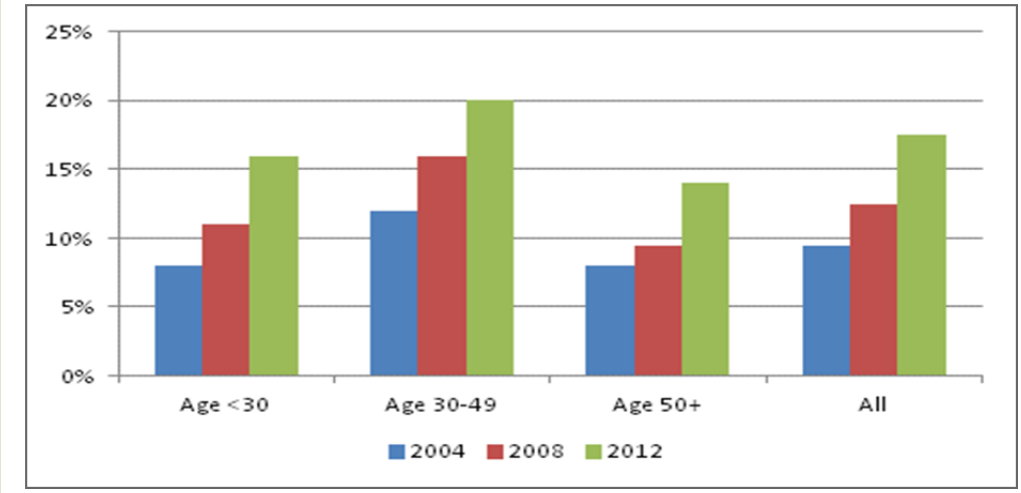


Figure 1.11- Borrowers more than ninety days delinquent.
Reprinted from "Quarterly Report on Household Debt and Credit," by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York research and Statistics Group. Copyright 2013 by the Federal Reserve Bank of NY.

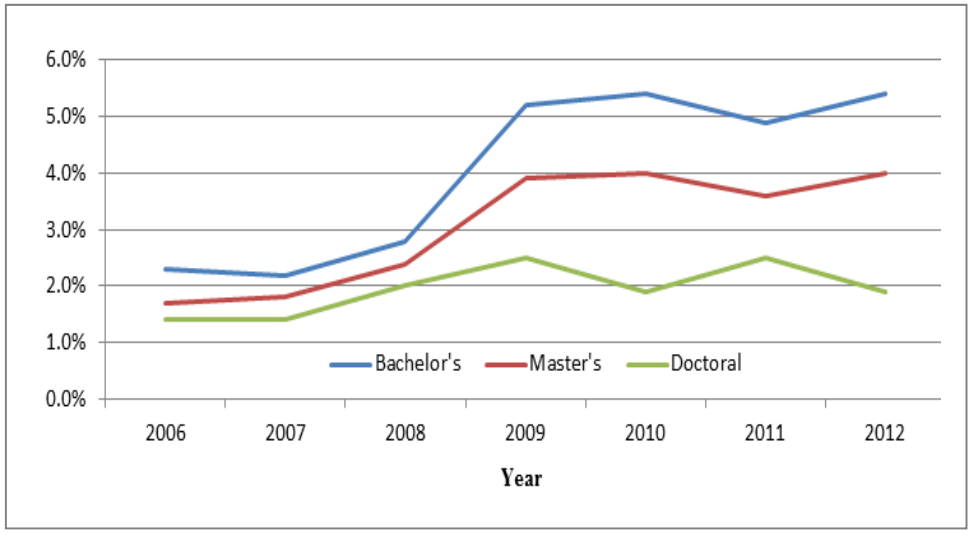


Figure 1.12 - Degree-based unemployment.
U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Data

Study Framework

This research utilized findings of my earlier exploratory pilot study, which was designed to obtain foundational information from key informants who were involved in the design and implementation of SSDPs. My goal was to understand the purpose of starting the SSDPs and whether the operational policies of the SSDPs have remained congruent with the initial mission of the SSDP and that of the university. In the pilot program, key informants were the only group who were interviewed because they were in a unique position with institutional memory and related documents, which assisted me to establish a historical roadmap and a proper perspective (See Appendix B).

Based on the information from the pilot study, I expanded the scope of the current study in order to capture structures, processes, and outcomes of SSDP-PH at two PRUs. My goal was to identify potential best practices where the need for an SSDP-PH was properly identified and addressed in a sustainable manner. Therefore, my questions were more extensive in scope and my interview subjects represented multiple stakeholders.

I used three theoretical perspectives to guide my research questions, each of which was useful in framing my interview questions and subsequent data analysis. Resource dependency, isomorphism, and academic capitalism were used to interpret the environment that led to the expansion of SSPs and, more specifically, of SSDPs. Notably, Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) provided a perspective on resource dependency: "No organization is self-sufficient, all must obtain resources from their environs. Power originates in social and economic exchanges, under uncertain conditions, when orgs [organizations] seek to acquire vital resources but avoid dependence on orgs that supply those resources" (p. 157). Also, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) described isomorphism as a "constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions" (p. 149). Additionally, Slaughter and Rhoades (2004a) defined academic capitalism as "the pursuit of market and market-like activities to generate external revenues" (p. 11).

Components of these three theories will help to evaluate critically the decision-making processes involved in creating and operating a SSDP in health care. Designed as a case study, the research provides a comparative analysis of two SSDPs in public health that are operating in two PRUs, hereafter referred to by their pseudonyms Global Public University (GPU) and International Public University (IPU). I selected GPU and IPU because each institution declared that its respective SSDP-PH was created as a response to a growing need for trained public health professionals. These institutions wanted to provide higher education options for fully employed individuals while relying on market mechanisms for funding.

Research Questions

As more PRUs follow the trend towards self-sufficiency, it is essential to review practices of existing SSDPs-PH, which may assist in the design and development of similar programs in the future. The following research questions, which emerged from my theoretical framework, guide the current study:

- What were the stated reasons for the establishment of the SSDPs?
- Has the stated mission changed over time?
- Have the outcomes met the expectations of alumni, students, and faculty?

The stated mission of each program highlights the primary purpose of creating the SSDP, which may also have been to serve as a vehicle for financial independence from state funding and/or a mechanism to address community needs at no cost to taxpayers. The institutional policies surrounding the creation and operation of SSDPs are still evolving. The existing policies at GPU and IPU make references to distinct considerations in establishing their respective SSDPs regarding the need for a professional degree program and what the market will bear with respect to setting appropriate fees. While these two considerations are not necessarily in contradiction with each other, a broader interpretation of "need for a professional degree program" in the context of the stated teaching mission of GPU poses questions in juxtaposition with the determination of market-driven fee schedules to meet such needs. In the process of reviewing the stated missions at GPU and IPU and their respective SSDP-PH operations, this study may provide relevant information regarding community need for public health

professional programs, educational and training competencies, demographics of professionals in program, and source(s) of funding.

Significance of the Study

The original social character and purpose of the academe was to contribute to society, both locally and globally, by educating students and developing a knowledge-based economy (A.J. Kezar, 2004). As public universities continue to face challenges in meeting their financial responsibilities, especially with the ongoing decreases in state support, universities and in particular programs geared toward professional degrees (e.g., engineering, business, public health, education)—which can lead to specific kinds of jobs, social mobility, and increased income—have felt pressure to explore their options for creating SSDPs. The concept and models of SSPs and SSDPs emerged soon after the first wave of funding cutbacks at the state level. In fact, a review of documents and literature showed a direct correlation between decreases in state funding with corresponding increases in tuition fees and the creation of SSPs in research, teaching, and service.

The more specific focus of this study is on SSDP-PHs because health care is one of the largest and fastest-growing costs in the United States and globally, and one that affects every single individual. Furthermore, the major problem, especially in the U.S., has been the shortage of health professionals to protect the public through proper education for prevention and competency for timely intervention. An inadequate supply of culturally and linguistically competent individuals to address preventive and population-based health care needs of communities results in lower quality of life, decreased safety, and higher costs.

Findings from this study may assist institutional leadership, program administrators, and policy makers in their decision-making process as they consider the creation of a viable SSDP with a mission that will remain congruent with the PRU's institutional mission. Additionally, administrators and policy makers may be able to better predict long-term challenges associated with sustaining programmatic congruence. This study may also help to guide future researchers who are interested in evaluating the outcomes of SSDPs in other specific focus areas to address community and market needs.

Summary

Public higher education is undergoing changes of monumental proportions on many fronts due to an uncertain economy, decreased public funding, and increased competition. In response to major cuts in financial support by the states, PRUs have adopted self-sufficiency strategies including developing SSPs. Despite this transition away from public funding, the government and the public at large expect PRUs to serve the societal needs and the communities in which they reside (B. R. Clark, 1998a, 1998b, 2003). The transition towards greater self-sufficiency, combined with the global shift towards a knowledge-based economy, has required PRUs to redefine their community in a global position and to compete beyond their former geographical coverage areas. The flagship PRUs have expanded their partnership activities at national and international levels in teaching and research to produce innovations that drive prosperity and productivity (McPherson, Gobstein, & Shulenburger, 2010a, 2010b). The challenge for PRUs is to address the competing interests of their stakeholders within the context of a rapidly changing and increasingly complex environment while simultaneously

maintaining their economic integrity and preserving the core values and foundation of public good upon which their institutions were built.

Chapter Two – Theoretical Framework Literature Review

In this chapter, I review the literature on changes in societal and governmental support for public research universities and the institutional response by PRUs to transition from being state-supported to self-sufficient. I also discuss the theoretical framework through which I analyzed these phenomena in my comparative case study.

The theoretical perspectives of academic capitalism, isomorphism, and resource dependency provide an appropriate framework to examine practices of the two programs that are the subject of this study. There has been a shift in strategy by PRUs towards financial self-sufficiency and a corresponding market approach that Slaughter and Rhoades (2000, 2004b; 2010) believe can coexist with the public-good mission of public universities. The accelerated rate of increase in expansion and creation of self-sustaining programs is a clear indicator of PRUs' new financial strategy.

My examination of the two SSDPs in the context of academic capitalism, isomorphism, and resource dependency provides an opportunity to examine critically the potential need for the refinement of policies in the creation of SSDPs that are congruent with the mission of the institution. I also highlight some of the evolving best practices in the creation and operation of SSDPs, which may lead to better implementation of SSDP policies and procedures.

A Historical Perspective

The concept of the public university dates back to the time when Thomas Jefferson advocated for state education based on scientific exploration and promoted a lecture and elective system of education. This view was a major departure from the English models in which the spiritual studies were the norm (Brickman, 1972).

The American public university itself emerged in the nineteenth century as a "core social organization" with the Morrill Land Act of 1862, which provided the public financial commitment for research-based public universities (M.R. Nemec, 2006). Through this legislation, the federal government donated public lands to a number of states and territories in order to establish at least one institution of higher learning in the areas of agriculture and mechanical arts without excluding scientific and classical studies. The Morrill Land Act presented the opportunity for "the coordination and entrepreneurship that would be essential for the formation of research universities" (Mark R. Nemec, 2006, p. 47) and created the foundation for expansion of PRUs. Additional federal support was made through the passage of the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, which made funding available for the dissemination of research beneficial for public use and service (Rudolph & Thelin, 1990; Thelin, 2011). Federally funded basic research and scientific training at universities were valued as drivers for innovation, economic progress, and national development. This important function of the public university redefined these universities as public entities. As federal grant institutions, PRUs had a "national scholar" role and became a system of professional organizations where research was integrated with teaching. Efforts were made in the basic sciences for industrial innovation in order to develop social and economic infrastructure in the community. In exchange for the investments made by the government, the universities were to provide public-good research that could help the nation. However, the social contract that was believed to have existed between public research universities and their respective communities has come under political and financial pressures of changing economic and demographic forces (Rudolph & Thelin, 1990; Thelin, 2011; Tierney, 2006).

The Bayh-Dole Act of 1980, a more recent piece of legislation to foster greater collaboration between universities and industry, was intended to encourage the dissemination and commercialization of inventions from government-sponsored research (Geiger & Heller, 2011; Giroux, 2002; Rhoten & Powell, 2011). Patent right clauses were incorporated into federal funding and direct and subcontract agreements. To further encourage and reward innovation, the contracting academic institutions could elect to retain the rights to the invention title.

The last decade of the twentieth century saw considerable concern about how privatization, as a response to projected increased financial cutbacks, would impact universities. In recent years, several flagship PRUs have led the privatization process, such as the University of Michigan and the University of Virginia. They accurately predicted the trajectory of financial cutbacks and the consequences for the public university (Priest & St. John, 2006; University of Virginia, 2012).

In the past decade, Medicaid, welfare, prisons, and K−12 education were given higher priority than higher education (T. J. Kane, Orszag, & Gunter, 2003; T. J. Kane & Orszag, 2004). The higher education budget cutbacks in states such as New York, California, Minnesota, and Michigan provide a clear perspective on the budgeting phenomenon (Breneman, 1997; Zumeta, 2009, 2012). Even when states enjoyed excess revenues and resulting budget surpluses, universities were subjected to budgetary constraints, which gave rise to intensified private fundraising, cost cutting, and drastic increases in tuition aimed at all students with differentiated rates for professional schools (Breneman, 1997). While all PRUs have been affected by budget cuts and a decline in

support in general, the process of privatization can be most clearly traced by focusing on the prestigious flagship campuses.

At flagship universities such as the University of Michigan (UM), state support per student has declined by more than 50 percent since 2002. Total state appropriations decreased from $416 million in 2002 to $208 million in 2012. State appropriations contributed only 5 percent to the total university revenue by 2012. Although a small increase in state funding was allocated in 2012−2013, this does not keep pace with increases in UM operating expenses (University of Michigan, 2012a). As a result of higher education financial cutbacks in the state of Michigan, in-state tuition has increased 24.1 percent since 2007 (CollegeBoard, 2013). The university intensified its private fundraising efforts and during the four-year "Michigan Difference" (2004−2008) campaign, UM raised $3.2 billion, surpassing their original goal of $2.5 billion. In 2011, the University of Michigan commenced its next multibillion dollar fund campaign (Woodhouse, 2012).

The University of Virginia (UVA) also experienced drastic cutbacks in state support. In 2013, state appropriations contributed approximately 5.8 percent of the total university revenue. Between 2007 and 2012, UVA received a reduction of $52.5 million, or 32 percent, in state taxpayer support. While in 2012−2013, UVA's appropriation was increased by $8 million in state appropriations (University of Virginia, 2013b), the funding increase is far less than the increase of the university's total spending. As a result of the state cutbacks, in-state tuition increased 28.4 percent since 2007 (CollegeBoard, 2013). The university also intensified their fundraising efforts and announced that their

"Knowledge Is Power" campaign raised over $3 billion, surpassing its original goal (University of Virginia, 2013a).

The reduction of state support forced PRUs to move towards becoming more financially independent. This strategy led to discussions among PRUs' stakeholders on cutting formal ties between the state and university completely, to free PRUs from some of the bureaucratic and legal constraints under which public universities must operate" (Breneman, 1997). However, PRUs would have to increase their alternative funding (e.g., endowments, capital funds) substantially to replace the state's contribution. As the amount and reliability of private contributions change, PRUs cannot completely privatize and must continue to operate within the state.

In the case of University of Virginia and many other PRUs, an easier alternative source of revenue has been tuition increases. However, replacing state appropriations with student fees would limit access, increase debt burden on the students, and result in tuition fees near that of private universities. UVA has been among the leading PRUs that are compensating for declining state funding by making incremental changes in their funding and revenue strategies which include tuition increases.

However, the shift towards self-sufficiency has also highlighted a universal trend—that those who provide funding will also gain access in governance and all that is encompassed in the management of a university. Governance in the new business formats adopted for sustainable privatization has in fact increased some freedoms, but it also presented PRUs with a future where political and economic forces drive decision making (Breneman, 1997).

Figure 2.1 provides a visual perspective of the conceptual framework for this study, drawing on the reality of waning public support, reduced state financial support, the fluctuating economy, and response by PRUs.

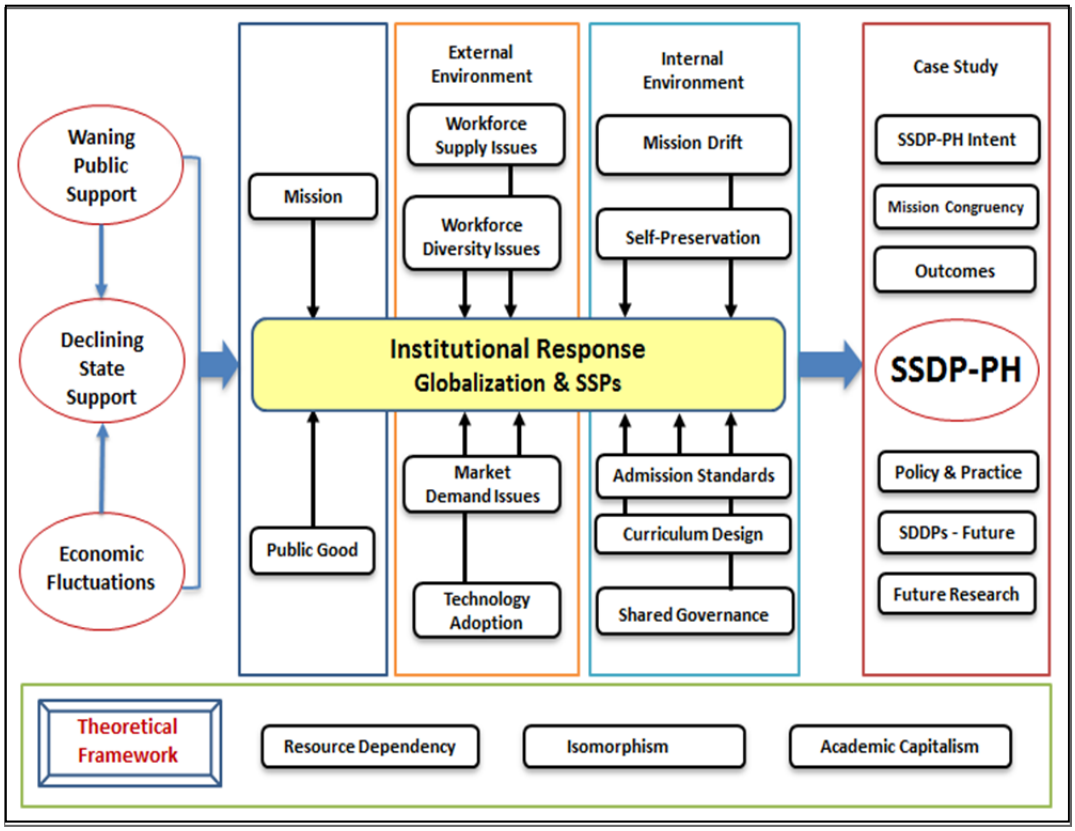


Figure 2.1 - Conceptual Framework: Working Research Model

The three theoretical perspectives and the changing role of PRUs are the lenses through which I interpret the response of PRUs to their external and internal environments. Workforce supply issues, the shifting market demand, the changing role of external stakeholders, a need for workforce diversity, and adoption of technology are among the leading external environment challenges for PRUs. The interconnection of external forces and their interaction with internal factors and the stakeholders have presented a unique and extremely challenging management task for PRU leaders. Additionally, PRUs encounter internal challenges that revolve around the stakeholders' values, the public

policy perspective of their mission, and mission drift, as PRUs attempt to ensure institutional survival and integrity.

Mission

The distinctive mission of the university is to serve society as a center of higher learning and to provide long-term societal benefits through transmission of advanced knowledge, discovery of new knowledge, and as an active, working repository of organized knowledge. That obligation, more specifically, includes undergraduate education, graduate and professional education, research, and other kinds of public service, which are shaped and bounded by the central pervasive mission of discovering and advancing knowledge.

All mission statements have one thing in common—that a great deal of time and energy was spent on writing, refining, and updating them. It may be productive to ask then at least two related questions: who are these mission statements for, and why are they persistently written and included in publicity materials deemed fundamental by educational institutions, online or otherwise? Public research universities define themselves through their mission statements and their commitment to the three primary missions of teaching, research, and service. PRUs regularly revisit and refine their mission statements for further alignment with the changing environment and their respective stakeholders. A 2004 survey conducted by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U) found that 80 percent of universities were making major revisions in their mission statements (C. C. Morphew & Hartley, 2006).

PRUs have shifted their focus from serving the people of the local community and the state to that of a global community. This modification in scope is a reflection of the

change in influence of stakeholders. PRUs active recruitment of international students who incur a higher tuition rate than their resident counterparts has effectively changed the status of this stakeholder group status to that of a "customer". To be competitive globally, PRUs are increasingly including their global vision and reach in their mission, which signals the understanding and commitment to the needs and wishes of these stakeholders (C. C. Morphew & Hartley, 2006). Flagship PRUs have increasingly redefined their community to include local, national, and global markets. (Rhoads & Liu, 2009).

A review of the mission statements presented by some of the major PRUs, which have pioneered a hybridization movement due to budget cuts, provide a window to these institutions' struggles to maintain their image and balance between the public mission and institutional survival (Weisbrod, Ballou, & Asch, 2008). For example, the University of Texas begins its mission statement with its teaching focus, stating that "the mission of the University of Texas System is to provide high-quality educational opportunities for the enhancement of the human resources of Texas, the nation and the world through intellectual and personal growth" (University of Texas System, 2012). The University of Michigan's mission is "to serve the people of Michigan and the world . . . by creating, communicating, preserving and applying knowledge" (University of Michigan, 2012b). Michigan, however, integrates the traditional three activities of teaching, research, and service with a broader statement than their counterpart public universities, stating that "we serve our multiple constituents by providing access to and participation in scholarly and creative endeavors. . . . Our academic research enterprise affects the world" (University of Michigan, 2012b). As for the University of California (UC), its mission statement opens with a similar focus on "learning and teaching," but expands the learning

concept to “communities and organizations beyond the university” (University of California System, 2012). The concept of research also is presented in a broader term as “discovery, creativity and innovation” to address pressing societal needs. Similar to the University of Texas system, the UC describes its reach for community service (“civic engagement”) as “partnership locally and globally” to serve the society (University of California System, 2012).

A global scope raises issues for mission revision discourse in order to express a changing social mission, issues that are intricately bound up with perceptions of the scope and responsibilities implied by the fundamental principle of public good (Rhoads & Liu, 2009). Globalization of higher education institutions have a profound impact with respect to PRUs’ self-image and sense of social mission for the public good (Hazelkorn, 2012). The perceived need to compete in the global market place, not only by the university but by the students, is placing pressure on PRUs to justify broader visions of purpose and responsibility. In so doing, PRUs need to redefine their role, their concept of diversity, and safeguard their local, regional, and national validity in the glare of the top-ranking universities. Yet McCormick and Zhao (2005) recognized that “many pre-selected indicators and categories are a disservice to diversity; they end up controlling rather than profiling differences between institutions” (p. 52).

PRUs have felt the pressure to emulate top-ranking private universities, such as Harvard and Stanford, in order to attract high-caliber students and faculty in the ever-evolving global competition for resources (Hazelkorn, 2012). Higher education institutions are challenged to redefine themselves in the new knowledge-based economy while they are being swept along by the process and are being reshaped by the changing

global economy (Rhoads, 2011). Seeking to achieve the image of currently top-ranked universities may not be the best political, social, or financial strategy. The challenge for new models of governance and global presence is to create competitive yet mission-serving strategies.

In the face of rising college costs and budget cuts, constant concerns about access and universities relying on market-driven strategies, Santos, Luca and Rhoades consider the problem of competing institutional goals to: increase net tuition revenue, increase student diversity and increase student quality (José L. Santos et al., 2014). They specifically consider how resource allocation reflect the universities' commitment to diversity, access and affordability. By comparing official university discourse on diversity and quality with actual records of resource allocation, the study found that university administrators' discourse prioritizes quality and revenue-generating more than diversity, though all are part of institutional discourse. Researchers found that the institution is seen as a fitting model of academic capitalism (which will be discussed in-depth later in this chapter) by prioritizing, both in institutional discourse and resource allocations, behaviors that maximize institutional prestige. Findings from this study raises concerns over the implications for the priority that public universities place on access, outreach, recruitment and education of minority and low-income students.

Resource Dependency

Resource dependency theory is "manifested in organizations that see the possibility of effective action vis-à-vis the external environment" (Bess & Dee, 2008, p. 148). Under this theory, organizations are dependent on external entities in order to receive all or part of their required resources to survive (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003).

Organizations try to reduce their degree of dependence and therefore power of a respective supplier through diversification.

Public Research Universities have historically relied on public funding, and more specifically on financial support of their respective states. In the past two decades the states' funding levels for PRUs were reduced, accelerating their downward trend during economic downturns. In 2009-2011 higher education avoided huge cuts in state appropriations largely due to the stimulus package, which accounted for four percent of total state support for colleges (Kelderman, 2011). During the same period 13 states cut higher education appropriations by more than 10 percent. In contrast, 18 states increased money for higher education, in particular energy-rich North Dakota and Wyoming. According to Kelderman (2011), while the nation's economy was slowly recovering, there was an anticipated shortfall in revenue by about 35 states. Kelderman (2012) used 2011 survey data from the annual report *The Grapevine Project* (J. C. Palmer, 2012) to show that total state support for higher education declined 7.6 percent. Twenty-nine states appropriated less for higher education in 2012 than they did in the previous five years. The large decline in 2012 was due in part to the expiration of about $40 billion in federal stimulus money (Kelderman, 2012).

Response in this fiscal landscape varied state to state; at least 12 states, among them Nevada, for example, planned not to increase taxes to fill the budget gaps. Other states, such as California, recommended budget cuts to higher education funding with proposed reductions in spending for the two university systems (the University of California and California State University) by 17 percent and 18 percent, respectively (Kelderman, 2011). In contrast, a few states (e.g., Virginia, Kansas, Michigan, New

Jersey, Nebraska) were optimistic of support to higher education, based on strategic planning over several years. For example, the state of Kansas was confident of revenue over three years from market needs-based programs that would lead to high-paying jobs in cancer research, aviation, and engineering (Kelderman, 2011).

Although a number of states reported economic improvement, their economies did not recover sufficiently by July 2013 to allow officials to replace the lost federal dollars. Therefore, state support for colleges, when federal stimulus money was factored out, declined by approximately 4 percent during 2011−2012. California's extensive budget cuts in higher education accounted for more than a quarter of the total decrease in state support and impacted the picture of support for higher education across all states. Extremes ranged from New Hampshire's higher education budget cut of more than 41 percent to California's 13 percent to; by contrast, Montana increased spending for colleges by more than 17 percent (Kelderman, 2012, 2013).

While a climate of economic recovery was generally agreed upon, the long-term effects of decreased spending on higher education was a cause of concern, particularly the consequences for the economically less privileged. The impact was felt by policy makers who were challenged to focus on economic recovery while not shifting away from the universities' social mission. Among the issues were access and student tuition increases leading to adverse effects on students and faculty. Public outcry drew attention to the mounting inability of students to pay for tuition while cost reduction measures resulted in fewer course offerings and overcrowding in courses offered. Students either paid more or could not enroll in classes for timely graduation. Additionally, the cuts in faculty development raised fears that students learned less. Paul E. Lingenfelter, the

president of the State Higher Education Executive Officers association, predicted that "even with an economic recovery under way, the decreased spending on higher education will have long-term effects" (Kelderman, 2012, para.10). It is clear that parents and students have become increasingly conscientious of tuition and fees when selecting a college, their mindset reflecting a climate forced by years of stringent cuts in higher education.

While data collected over the last twenty years can be used for and against a number of hypotheses seeking to predict the short- and long-term future of higher education and in what form (public, privatized or hybrid), there was clearly a shift from a general valuing of the acquisition of knowledge for many outcomes to what appears to be a generalized expectation that higher education will have measurable outcomes in terms of jobs and income and that degrees should be valued accordingly. When an industry leader expressed concerns about the shortcomings of PRUs, there was an immediate response from the local PRU presidents (Schatz, 2013). Presenting the corporate perspective, the industry leader's comment was that "universities aren't preparing students for the job market. Schools funding should not be based on how many butts are in seats, but how many of those butts can get jobs" (Schatz, 2013, para. 19). The University of North Carolina President Tom Ross responded that the school's value to the state "should not be measured by jobs filled alone" (Schatz, 2013, para. 21). This response was an oversimplification of a complex issue.

As Figure 2.2 shows, the governmental financial support continued to fall in 2011 and 2012, forcing the universities to seek other sources of funding for operations and

development. In order to fill the void in state appropriations, universities expanded public-private partnership programs in research, teaching, and community engagement.

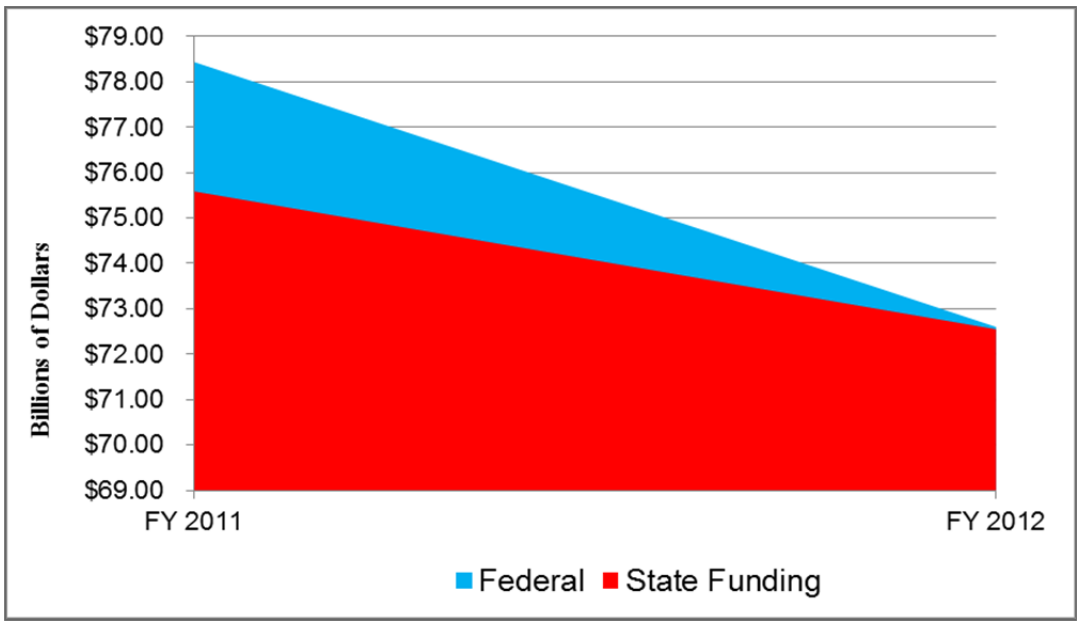


Figure 2.2 - Sharp Decline in Federal Funding Will Continue.
Adapted from "State Fiscal Support for Higher Education, by State, Fiscal Years 2007-08, 2010-11, 2011-12, and 2012-13," by J. Palmer. Copyright 2013 by Illinois State University.

Other private-partner strategies focus on the networks linking higher education institutions to the new economy, which include expanded circuits of knowledge and intermediating networks that operate between public, nonprofit, and private sectors. Some examples of these new ventures include technology licensing, economic development, trademark licensing, fundraising and educational profit centers that focus on niche markets (Rhoades & Slaughter, 2010).

Isomorphism

Isomorphism is a "constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 149). Under this theory, organizations "compete not just for resources

and customers, but for political power and institutional legitimacy, for social as well as economic fitness" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). This theory can be further defined by the application of its three attributes: Coercive, Mimetic, and Normative.

Coercive Isomorphism

In the first facet, coercive isomorphism "results from both formal and informal pressures exerted on organizations by other organizations upon which they are dependent" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). For U.S. colleges and universities, federal and state governments have historically exerted the most coercive pressures (Gladieux & King, 2011; McGuinness Jr, 2011) through mandated legislation or executive orders. In more recent years, affirmative action was at the center of controversy and played a significant role in shaping higher education in the U.S. Several legislative measures modified and, in some cases, ended affirmative action policies, such as the 1978 Bakke case, Proposition 209 in California, and the 2003 University of Michigan Gratz and Grutter cases (Baez & Olivas, 2011). In the 1978 Bakke case, a white male applicant, who was denied entrance to UC Davis medical school, sued the Regents of the University of California for implementing an unfair quota system that reserved sixteen spaces for minority applicants. The Supreme Court ruled in favor of Bakke, maintaining that race may be used as a factor for the inclusion of diversity but that quota systems were a violation of Title VI and the Civil Rights Act. These laws and court rulings affect how colleges and universities make admissions decisions (Chang, Witt, Jones, & Hakuta, 2003). As a result, the recent attacks on affirmative action have almost reversed the previous thirty years of access and equity gains (Allen, Teranishi, Dinwiddie, & González, 2002).

While Lyndon Johnson's Executive Order mandated the implementation of affirmative action, state legislation (e.g., Prop 209) and court cases (e.g., Bakke) limited the utilization of affirmative action policies through coercive isomorphism. This action demonstrates the dynamic and changing environment characterized by DiMaggio and Powell (1983) and how institutions must adapt to constant change. A possible advantage for SSDPs in dealing with coercive isomorphism is that SSDPs do not utilize state funds. As a result, they are allowed more flexibility in admissions and other key areas with regard to anti-affirmative action legislation.

Mimetic Isomorphism

The second facet of isomorphism is characterized as mimetic. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) described the process of mimetic isomorphism as: "Uncertainty is also a powerful force that encourages imitation. When organizational technologies are poorly understood, when goals are ambiguous, or when the environment creates symbolic uncertainty, organizations may model themselves on other organizations" (p. 151). An appropriate example with relation to SSDPs is the push for universities to imitate higher tuition models. The major test of a modern U.S. university is how wisely and how quickly it is able to adjust to important new possibilities (Kerr, 2001). Kerr's assessment is even more applicable now, a decade later, as the financial support for public universities continues its downward spiral at an accelerated rate. In a downturn economy, academic institutions are adversely impacted at every source of their funding. In addition to reduced public financial support, commitments by individual benefactors are reduced as the value of the individual's wealth is diminished. At the institutional level, the value of the endowments and their corresponding revenues are also reduced. In response to

these harsh realities and to compensate for the shortfall in public financing, several public flagship universities have adopted new strategies to identify and secure alternative sources of revenues as illustrated in the examples below.

The University of Michigan was among the early adopters of these new strategies. In the 1980s, the university experienced major cuts in state funding due to the economic downturn and the shift from heavy industry. In response, the university adopted the strategic plan of reducing the campus' financial dependence on the state and rebranding the university as a "privately-supported public university." The University of Virginia, facing similar cutbacks, was successful in securing partial deregulation and was "semi-privatized" by the Virginia's General Assembly to extend their autonomy in raising tuition. Other universities have followed this pattern, acknowledging that they are no longer purely public.

A simple strategy in securing revenues for most of these universities has been to increase tuition and fees while reducing or eliminating educational offerings (e.g., liberal arts) that are not in demand among students, as higher education has become a means to an end—i.e. a means towards social mobility, prestige, and political and economic power (Bowen, 1997a, 1997b). Tuition increases as a source of financing are challenging for all stakeholders due to the impact on access for most students, particularly those from underserved populations (Heller, 2011). However, imitating the tuition increase strategy has not always been successful. For example, in 2004, Miami University of Ohio adopted the tuition model of private colleges—that is, not differentiating between in-state and out-of-state residents—which significantly raised tuition. Although it attempted to attract in-state students with high scholarships, the "high tuition/high aid" strategy failed with a

corresponding decline in enrollment. Four years later, Miami University abandoned this tuition model (Nishimura, 2009).

Flagship universities have also been pursuing other potential national as well as international revenue sources through external public and private research contracts, recruitment of non-resident and international students, development of distance and blended education, and various professional and graduate stand-alone/self-sustaining degree programs. Many have observed that universities are in a transformative process, which reflects an institutionalization of organizational structures taken from the commercial world. Public universities are impacted in every area of their existence and at times show a decoupling, a term generated by neo-institutional sociology theory, of internal and external images as former values of mission and the values of the new management style merge and color each other (Parker, 2011). The need for creative innovation involves freedom at many levels; one is in provision of attractive valued courses by many universities, seeking to become a player in the global higher education market.

The focus on the global marketplace requires assessment and response to market needs at global levels. Universities find themselves faced with a dilemma: there is a temptation to follow a pattern of global institutional isomorphism in the name of a perceived modernization with visible global thinking that mimics that of high-ranking universities, yet the national or regional context for public good has needs for courses and curriculum content that may not hold value in a competitive global marketplace. The question of the role of higher education and social mission becomes more complex as universities add more online or hybrid programs. Campbell (2011) suggested that

understanding the distinct roles that higher educational institutions play in societies should be in the interest of the people informed by local needs and aspirations rooted in dignity (p. 6). In the new knowledge-based and globalized economy, the social missions and well-being of the worldwide community have emerged as the new mission for many PRUs and at times at the expense of meeting local needs (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000).

Normative Isomorphism

The final facet of isomorphism is characterized as normative. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) stated that normative isomorphism "stems primarily from professionalization," which is "the collective struggle of members of an occupation to define the conditions and methods of their work, to control the production of producers, and to establish a cognitive base and legitimation for their occupational autonomy" (p. 152). In other words, normative isomorphism creates standardized norms to regulate the qualifications for who can become a member of a profession. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) observed "many professional career tracks are so closely guarded, both at the entry level and throughout the career profession, that individuals who make it to the top are virtually indistinguishable" (p. 152). In order to meet the standards of a profession, individuals must conform to the norms. The resulting conformity required for professionalization affects the establishments to which the professionals belong; in the process, the organizations also become more similar.

Academic Capitalism

Slaughter and Rhoades (2010) examined "profit-oriented activities as a point of reorganization by higher education institutions to develop their own capacity . . . to market products created by faculty" (p. 11) in the new knowledge economy. In their

work, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) described "the reality of the nascent environment of PRUs, an environment full of contradictions, in which faculty and professional staff expend their human capital stocks increasingly in competitive situations" (p. 9). They stated that the idea of academic capitalists is one of "academics who act as capitalists from within the public sector; they are state-subsidized entrepreneurs" (p. 9). In other words, the networks or linkages within higher education institutions enhance the institution's ability to generate and market products that are created under the auspices of the public institution.

Researchers at PRUs have traditionally relied on public funding to conduct their projects. Beginning in 1999, federal funding in targeted research areas were increased by 100 percent for a period of five years. At the conclusion of the five-year extension, the federal funds were reverted to their previous levels and, adjusted for inflation; they were even lower than their original amounts. In the meantime, the reduction of state funding for the PRUs had continued.

The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (stimulus funds) was a temporary mitigation of the funding decline, especially for flagship PRUs, which received a higher proportion of these funds. As the remaining funds from the stimulus will be spent over the next few years, the same flagship PRUs that received a disproportionately larger portion of the funding will equally be impacted once these funds are reduced and subsequently eliminated. The effect on researchers at the University of Texas at Austin (UTA), who received more than $117 million to fund major pieces of their research in health, energy, and supercomputing, will have a difficult time continuing their work at the same level and scope without a funding substitution.

The PRUs have to look beyond governmental grants to continue their research missions. Alternatives include reaching out to foundational and industrial sources. Figure 2.3 shows a gradual but steady decline in public financial support, replaced with partnership and contractual research with industry. Although the shift from public financial support for research has been gradual as a percentage, the multi-billion dollar market in private research and joint patent ownerships have resulted in substantial shift in constant dollar amounts in PRUs revenue streams. As PRUs further increase their public-private partnerships in pursuit of entrepreneurial research and commodification of knowledge, they increasingly exhibit market-like behavior, focusing on maximizing their return on investments. Entrepreneurship Centers, University Research Parks, and Technology Transfer Offices have been created as SSPs in order to offset the continuing decrease in public funding of research projects.

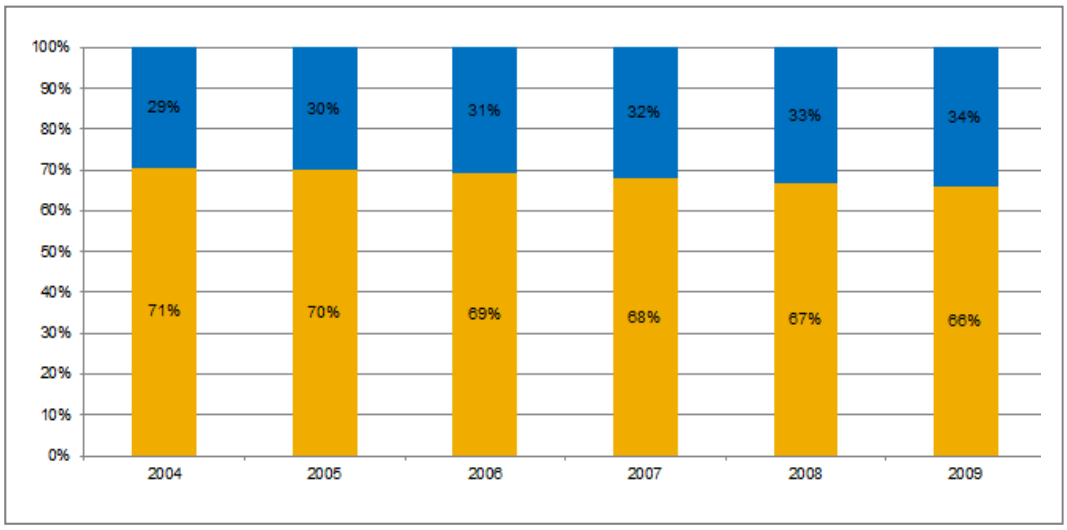


Figure 2.3 - Transition from Public to Private Research Funding.
Adapted from "Diminishing Funding and Rising Expectations: Trends and Challenges for Public Research Universities," by the National Science Board. Copyright 2012.

Research funding from industry, however, has the potential for real or perceived loss of independence and unbiased outcomes. In order to prevent outside influence, and

to remove the perception of compromised outcomes, PRUs have incorporated many restrictions around industry-supported research. To avoid potential or the perception of conflict, a researcher who also is a patent holder in a healthcare product development may not participate in the clinical trials of that product. Such safeguard measures have created additional barriers for faculty researchers who would like to access industry funding. Nonetheless, the institutions actively encourage faculty to engage in privatizing and commercializing research through licensing and patent registrations. Figures 2.4 and 2.5 present the extent to which PRUs' revenues from patent loyalty have increased in the past two decades. At PRUs, faculty are supported and rewarded for entrepreneurial activities that can benefit their respective organizations. Flagship PRUs have increasingly created and expanded campus-affiliated technology and business incubators to capture a larger share of academic-industry partnerships, and to create longer-term revenue streams from patent registration, which are sold to industry or licensed for fees.

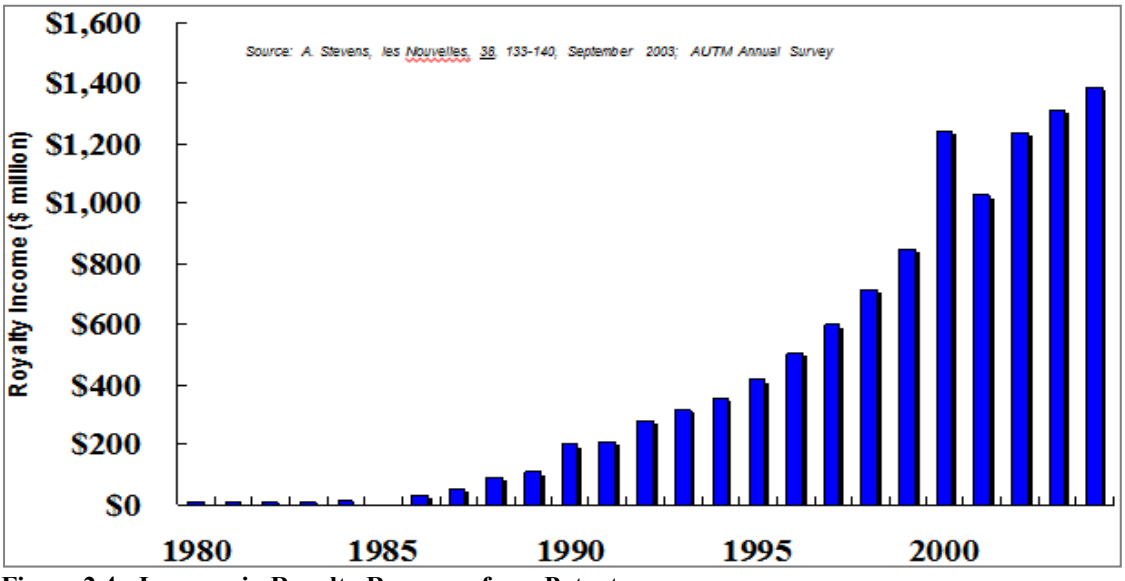


Figure 2.4 - Increase in Royalty Revenues from Patents.
Adapted from "20 Years of Academic Licensing-Royalty Income and Economic Impact," by A. Stevens, 2003, Journal of the Licensing Executives Society, 38(3), pp. 133-140. Copyright 2003.

The market orientation of PRUs extends to their teaching mission, in part due to significant increases in tuition and fees to compensate for losses in state funding. The students, especially in SSDPs, are treated as consumers, demonstrating the institutional shift by PRUs in attitude and strategy towards the students and alumni as continuing sources of revenue and philanthropy. This shift in behavior has not eliminated the notion of public good and service from PRUs. In their 2008 study, Mars, Slaughter, and Rhoades (2008) presented community outreach activities of PRUs as "social entrepreneurship" in collaboration with corporate social responsibility of activities of publicly held corporations and their affiliated not-for-profit foundations.

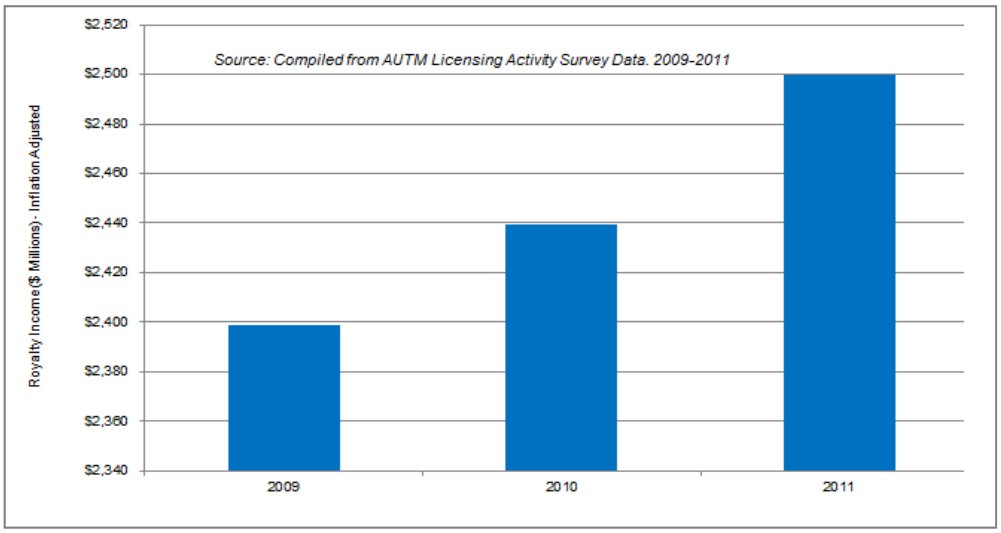


Figure 2.5 - Continued Increase in Patent Revenues.
Adapted from "Licensing Surveys" by Association of Technology Managers. http://www.autm.net/Licensing_Surveys_AUTM.htm. Copyright 2013 by Association of University Technology Managers.

Using the theory of academic capitalism as a lens, they also examined the process, mechanisms, and behaviors through which an academic capitalist knowledge/learning regime is integrated and functions. Slaughter and Rhoades (2010) described academia's response to the new economy as a self-protecting (self-preserving) mechanism. The

networking of the actors in the academic environment enables them to adapt and survive in the new order by taking advantage of the nontraditional revenue-generating opportunities that academic capitalism presents. Slaughter and Rhoades (2010) acknowledged the changes, maintaining that academic capitalism and education as a public good can "coexist, intersect, and overlap" (p. 29).

Public Good

PRUs pride themselves on the achievements of their faculty, students, alumni, and administrators. The three pillars of academia—research, teaching, and service—are highlighted through various university marketing and promotional media (e.g., annual reports, university websites, recruitment materials) to draw the attention of stakeholders in their respective areas of interest and commitment. The perception and delivery of the third mission of higher education, i.e. service, have evolved as a result of changes in the economic, demographic, and political landscape in which the PRUs operate (Roper & Hirth, 2010). This evolution towards a "fee-for-service" behavior is the outcome of decreased state funding for public service and outreach activities.

Land-grant universities have largely conceived service as an outreach activity. However, Boyer's (1996) definition of community engagement extended the idea of public service to include activities that integrate social issues with the PRUs' teaching responsibility. Ernest Boyer (1996) defined community engagement as a strategic tool, one which can serve to transform the academy and the community through the sharing of knowledge that promotes the public good. Although the higher education environment is changing, the "public good" continues to be a major strategic component by which university leaders, scholars, and national leaders legitimate existing public service and

outreach partnerships. PRUs have continued to identify areas for collaborations in community engagements and outreach activities that are mutually beneficial to the institution and their respective stakeholders.

The current model of public good and community engagement is mutuality, shared responsibility, and shared governance. Each of the stakeholders in these partnerships will in turn benefit from their respective endeavors with the university. The benefit for Community Based Organizations (CBOs) is the affiliation status, participation and possible access to federal research funding, and social and economic transformation. Kezar, Chambers, and Burkhardt (2005) advocated community engagement and public good as a social contract made by the PRUs to identify benefits for the various stakeholders, which can lead to solutions for prevailing issues.

Considering the role of PRUs in the U.S. and in global context, the concept of public good has clearly been highlighted as PRUs play a vital role in nation building (Findlay & Tierney, 2010) and in a nation's international relations. History has shown repeatedly that when a country loses its hold on the provision of education, stability on all levels becomes increasingly compromised. Conversely, a nation state that is failing or has become a failed state, with no functioning tertiary education, has little means for generating a necessary middle class with the competencies and leadership skills required to build and sustain the socioeconomic structures that would enable the country to stabilize and prosper. Ghani and Lockhart (2009) suggested that college education creates responsible and skilled citizens who support development of the economy and community. Such an approach links investments in human capital to the goal of forming a large middle class, which has historically been the vehicle for consolidating democracy.

Higher education while historically was treated as a privilege or luxury, has in fact shown itself to be crucial to a nation's well-being. In the global connectedness of the twenty-first century, tertiary education is recognized as a driving force for prosperity (Findlay & Tierney, 2010) and its absence is a cause for concern. Especially when combined with inner turmoil and violence, there is legitimate fear that such a combination will spread to threaten beyond its national borders. The potential or actual international reach of tertiary education calls into focus the role of universities and the public good in a global context. PRUs became key partners at the regional, national, international scenes to provide relative educational stability and to support communities in building capacity towards prosperity. The global public-good partnership can be traced amid fragmentation of social and economic structures of developing countries.

Higher education worldwide has seen similar patterns of change: Enrollments have increased to the extent of massification (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009) in many countries; public support has declined; and funding higher education is challenging, for a variety of reasons. There has been a rise in private higher education institutions and an equal or greater surge in interest in online courses, providing access to higher education regardless of geographical location. At the same time, the world seems smaller in the sense that nations recognize that they function within a global environment where each part affects the whole and vice versa in all areas from the economy to energy to food production and safety. Although the global primary focus remains on child education through formation of training of future global leaders who will be sensitive to the well-being of country and the world has become a new priority of universities worldwide. There has been a significant neglect of global higher education, which traditionally has

shown itself to be vital for producing the skills and competencies, knowledge, and research for continued innovative competitive participation in the global marketplace (Levin, 2006).

Summary

Public universities were founded on providing service to the public for over 150 years. With state and federal financial support, public research universities were key drivers of innovation, economic progress and national development. However, public research universities today face greater challenges to meet the growing national demand for higher educated graduates, new research and community engagement. In the last decade of the twentieth century many institutions of higher education faced increased governmental financial cutbacks and continued decline in other financial support. In response to these harsh realities and to compensate for the shortfall in public financing, several public flagship universities adopted new strategies to identify and secure alternative sources of revenues.

To address this gap in appropriations, universities formed public-private partnerships in research, teaching and community engagement. This hybridization of public universities, as defined by Yudof, states that institutions still function within the public realm, while having characteristics that are more in line with those of private colleges and universities. (Yudof, Change Magazine March/April 2002).

The distinctive mission of the university is to serve society as a center of higher learning and to provide long-term societal benefits through transmission of advanced knowledge, discovery of new knowledge, and as an active, working repository of organized knowledge. This chapter also covered how PRUs have shifted their focus from

serving the local community and the state to that of a global community. This modification in scope is a reflection of the change in influence of stakeholders to a more global scale. This global scale, however, raises issues for mission shift to consider changes in the social mission of the university, which is linked to the fundamental principle of public good (Rhoads & Liu, 2009).

The social contract that was believed to have existed between public research universities and their respective communities has come under political and financial pressures of changing economic and demographic forces (Rudolph & Thelin, 1990; Thelin, 2011; Tierney, 2006). Drawing on the reality of waning public support, reduced state financial support, the fluctuating economy, the changing role of two public research universities is assessed through the lenses of three theoretical perspectives: resource dependency, isomorphism and academic capitalism. Under the theory of resource dependency, organizations are viewed as being dependent on diverse external entities to receive all or part of their required resources to survive (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). The theory of isomorphism helps to contextualize how organizations not only compete for resources and customers, but also for political power, institutional legitimacy, and social and economic fitness" by conforming (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). Since the PRUs have to look beyond governmental grants to continue their research missions, many seek public-private partnerships. This pursuit of entrepreneurial research and commodification of knowledge, thus increasingly exhibiting market-like behavior focusing on the maximization of their return on investments, PRUs can be viewed through the lenses of academic capitalism. It is through this market driven paradigm that PRUs increase tuition and fees to compensate for the loss in public funding. In SSDP

especially, students are treated as consumers thus demonstrating the institutional shift by PRUs in attitude and strategy towards the students and alumni as continuing sources of revenue and philanthropy. Using the theory of academic capitalism as a lens, they also examined the process, mechanisms, and behaviors through which an academic capitalist knowledge/learning regime is integrated and functions. Slaughter and Rhoades (2010) described academia's response to the new economy as a self-protecting (self-preserving) mechanism. The networking of the actors in the academic environment enables them to adapt and survive in the new order by taking advantage of the nontraditional revenue-generating opportunities that academic capitalism presents. Although the higher education environment is changing, the "public good" continues to be a major strategic component by which university leaders, scholars, and national leaders legitimate existing public service and outreach partnerships.

Workforce supply issues, the shifting market demand, the changing role of external stakeholders, a need for workforce diversity, and adoption of technology are also among the leading external environment challenges for PRUs. The interaction between external forces and the internal institutional factors have presented a unique and extremely challenging management task for PRU leaders. The interconnection between external forces and internal challenges that revolve around the stakeholders' values, the public policy perspective of their mission, and mission drift, as PRUs attempt to ensure institutional survival and integrity will be further discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter Three – Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

In this chapter, I discuss the conceptual framework used to analyze an institutional response to forces of change through the establishment of self-sustaining programs. I also review the external and internal environments and factors to which PRUs need to adjust and respond in their transitional efforts from state-supported institutions towards self-sufficiency. Figure 3.1 presents the overall conceptual framework for this study, which I described in chapter two.

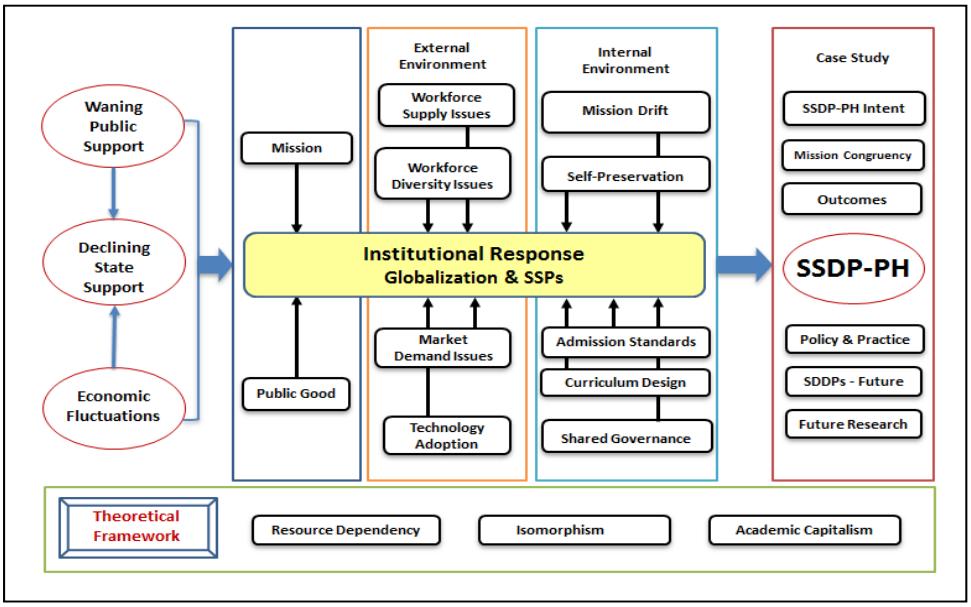


Figure 3.1 - Conceptual Framework

The core mission of PRUs is shaped by the universities' responses to their external and internal environments. More specific factors contained in the respective environments impact strategic plans and operational policies of PRUs, which impact their relationship with their stakeholders. Figure 3.2 provides a focused visual perspective of the external and internal environments and the factors that are more relevant to this study and which have drawn the specific response of PRUs, including SSDP-PH, which is the focus of this research. Workforce supply issues, shifting market demand, the changing

role of external stakeholders, a need for workforce diversity, and adoption of technology are among the leading external environment challenges for PRUs. The interconnection of external forces and their interaction with internal factors provides opportunities and challenges for the institutional response and PRUs' relationships with their various stakeholders.

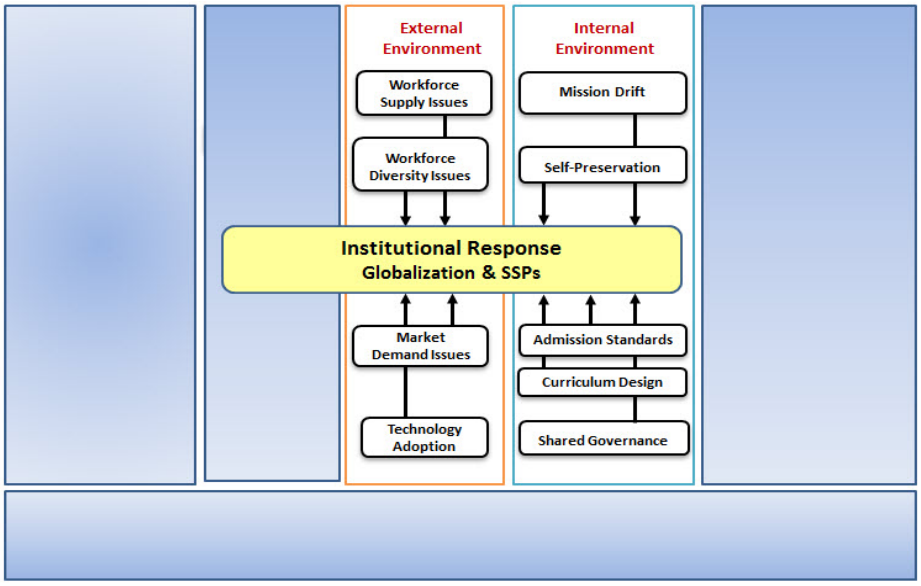


Figure 3.2 - External and Internal Environments

External Environment

The relationship between an institution and its external environment drives its core objectives. The various factors and issues that impact the PRUs' short-term and long-term strategies are themselves subject to broader global changes.

Workforce Supply Issues

Lack of funding, growing student numbers, and expectations to qualify to meet specific market needs have all contributed to the particular workforce supply issues

within PRUs—i.e. the adjunct faculty. The exponential increase in reliance on part-time faculty (also referenced to as adjunct or clinical) has been the focus of attention in a recent survey. The Coalition on the Academic Workforce (2012) questioned prevailing assumptions regarding the quality and commitment of adjunct faculty and also looked at attitudes towards and treatment of them. The result of this survey presented the view that part-time faculty members demonstrate a level of commitment to teaching and to the institutions that employ them, but those institutions in terms of compensation or other types of professional support do not reciprocate this commitment. Pay per course is strikingly low, especially in light of the professional credentials and length of service of many of these faculty members (2012, p. 14).

A Question of Right or Privilege

The terms *equity*, *access*, *opportunity*, and *equality* have been used to describe the U.S. higher education system. Although more underrepresented students have had access to higher education, the distribution of these students has received little attention (Oseguera & Astin, 2004). It is striking that 45 years after President Johnson's call to action, underrepresented racial/ethnic minority groups are still struggling with a high level of inequity. For example, while African Americans and Latinos comprise approximately 33 percent of the college-age population, African Americans received less than 9 percent and Latinos only 6 percent of all bachelor degrees (Zusman, 2005). The current market need reflected in individual perceptions and expectations of career advancement may not be in line with the societal and community need for professionals. As a consequence, the health and welfare of the community may be affected.

Similar to education, health care is generally deemed to be a public good and a basic human right. However, the paradigm shifted as economic, political, and public support for the notion of health care as a public good has diminished only to be replaced with the neoliberal view that health care is a commodity that should be purchased on the marketplace by individuals who can afford it. The decrease in access to higher education by underserved and underrepresented students is paralleled by their lack of access to health care, placing health care and education at a policy crossroads. The shortage of health care professionals in underserved communities only exacerbates the problem because lack of health care leads to sicker individuals and a sicker community.

The Association of Schools and Programs of Public Health (ASPPH) (2008) estimated that the shortfall of public health professionals will reach 250,000 by the year 2020. The impact of these shortages will be disproportionate among communities and could be dire, depending on the socioeconomic status and demographic characteristics of those communities. The cuts in funding and support affect not only the individual's health, but also the health of the entire community, especially with regard to chronic conditions such as diabetes and high blood pressure as well as communicable diseases such as tuberculosis and sexually transmitted infections. Population-based health care interventions, more so than individual-focused services, have been widely credited with much of the mortality and morbidity decline in the past century.

Workforce Diversity

Training health professionals who are capable of identifying, analyzing, and intervening on a wide array of health-related issues is one of the critical responsibilities of the nation's health sciences schools. Care provided by culturally and linguistically

competent health professionals enhances quality of care and also increases compliance by patients, leading to a healthier community. Figure 3.3 shows the projected growth in the underserved population by race and ethnicity, which requires a timely supply of professionals to meet the health needs of these growing communities.

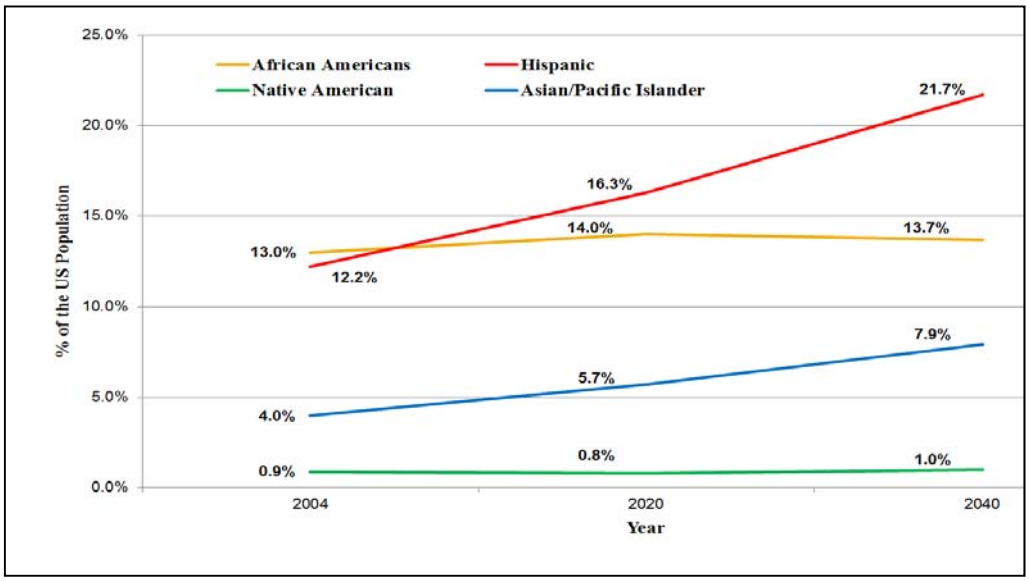


Figure 3.3 - Population Growth Projection by Race/Ethnicity
Adapted from "2012 National Population Projections" by United States Census Bureau. http://www.census.gov/population/projections/data/national/2012/summarytables.html. Copyright 2013 by United States Census Bureau.

Despite past and projected growth in the underserved communities presented in Figure 3.3, there is no indication of a corresponding change in the supply of professionals to address the need as presented in Figures 3.3 and 3.4. The shortage of health care professionals may be due to immediate economic causes or the continued dearth of educated professionals in the graduate/professional school pipeline, such as physicians, dentists, nurses, and other allied health care professionals who are committed to working in underserved communities.

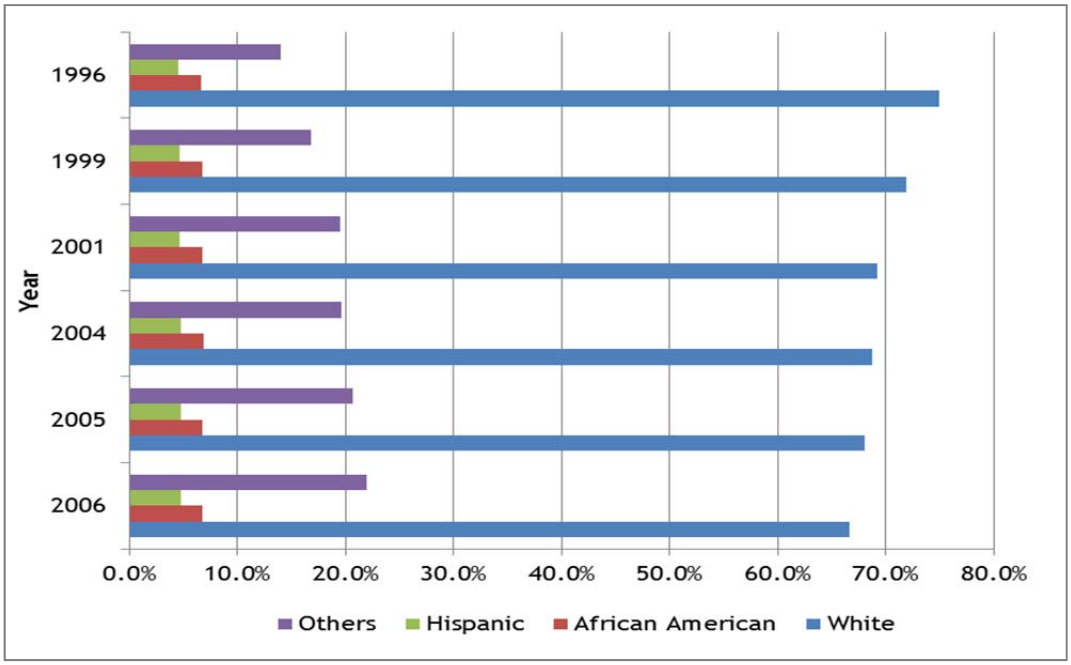


Figure 3.4 - Professional Degrees by Race/Ethnicity
Adapted from "The Condition of Education 2012," by Aud et. al. Copyright 2012 by The National Center for Education Statistics.

Health professionals are trained in a range of disciplines, representing various backgrounds and health care settings, with a focus on individual, population-based, and community-based levels. The health profession has evolved to encompass a wider definition of a person educated in health or a related discipline who is employed to improve health through a population-based and intervention focus. Serving as a national health advisory body and as the health arm of the National Academy of Sciences, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) (2009) warned of the shortage of health professionals, specifically those with a population-based focus.

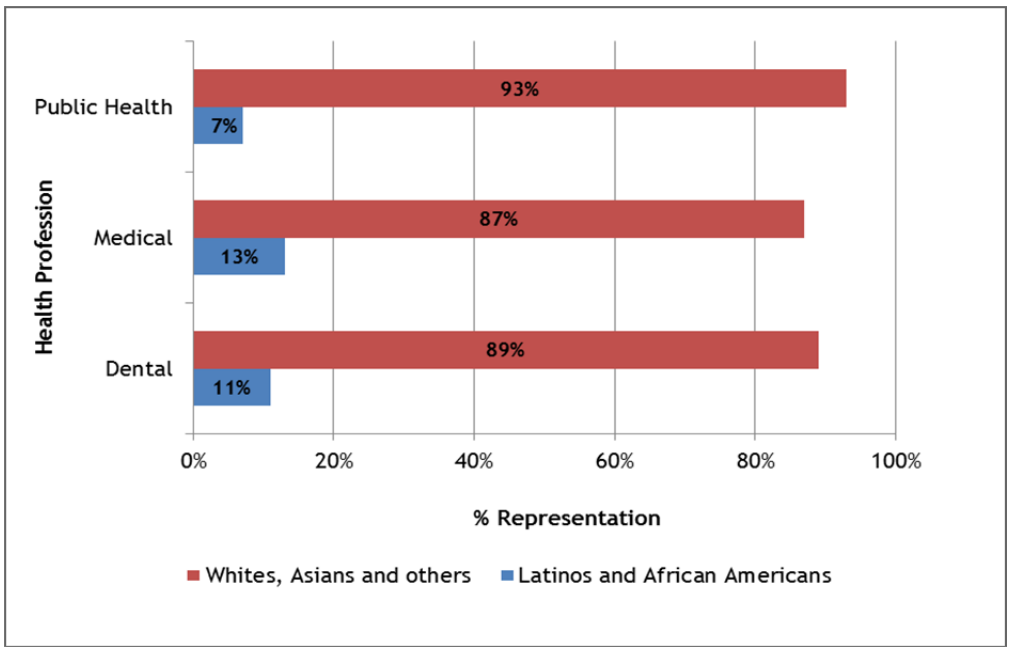


Figure 3.5 - Underrepresentation of Latinos and African Americans
Adapted from "Missing Persons: Minorities in the Health Professions," by the Sullivan Commission. Copyright 2007 by W.K. Kellogg Foundation.

Several areas are identified as being especially significant to prepare individuals for positions of senior responsibility in practice, research, and teaching; those areas include cultural competency, communication, and leadership. The IOM report (2009) also highlighted that health professionals should understand the needs and perspectives of culturally diverse communities and to be prepared for confronting the complex problems of an increasingly diverse population in the U.S., especially in large metropolitan areas such as New York, Boston, San Francisco, and Los Angeles (Kreitzer et al., 2009; B.D. Smedley et al., 2009). Teixeira (2006) addressed the fears often intimated by higher education faculty that privatization would affect the diversity of courses and students negatively due to its increased self-modeling of the corporate world and its tendency to

narrow choices to those analyzed to be successful. In positive contradiction, Teixeira offered an alternate view, citing Geiger:

> There is a widespread conviction that the "market" will be more effective than state regulation in promoting diversity of higher education systems, in terms of both institutional types and programs and activities. Geiger (1996), considering that at times when resources are scarce the fight for survival takes place under market co-ordination, argued that institutions would diversify in search of market niches and new clienteles (2006, p. 13).

Market Demand

The focus of PRUs has shifted to address students' and employers' demand and to treat them as customers or clients. The search for knowledge for the sake of knowledge moved to the acquisition of knowledge and skills as a means to an end. This shift from societal good to individual entitlement has reshaped higher education and has increased concern for equity and access.

In a 1996 policy statement, the State Public Research University (SPRU) system under which GPU operates, reframed its 1979 policy on SSDPs, stating, "The University has entered an era in which state funding for higher education has been reduced and is not expected to represent in the future the proportion of the University's budget that it has in the past" [State Public Research University, 1996]. The question then for the PRU was How can the university find new and creative ways to fund its degree programs? One idea was the creation and expansion of SSDPs where operating revenues are generated entirely by tuition, which would also contribute towards university operations through cost sharing of overhead expenses (i.e., indirect charges) to these programs. The policy statement pointed out that the "purpose for offering graduate professional degree programs is to serve a public need" [State Public Research University, 1996]. The 1996 policy on SSPs stated that "it is likely that the more specifically a program addresses

training needs for a profession, the likelier it is that the program should be self-sustaining. Market factors play a key role in making this decision and guiding appropriate fee levels" [State Public Research University, 1996]. The emphasis was placed on market demand by professionals, a demand grounded in the investment of the individual in education for career advancement and social mobility. In the GPU's parent system, more than three-quarters of enrollment in professional SSDPs are concentrated in the business and management category as demonstrated in Figure 3.6, with public health programs comprising less than four percent of the total enrollment in these programs. It is noteworthy to reiterate that the primary objective for students enrolled in professional degree programs is the potential for social mobility and a faster return on their educational investments.

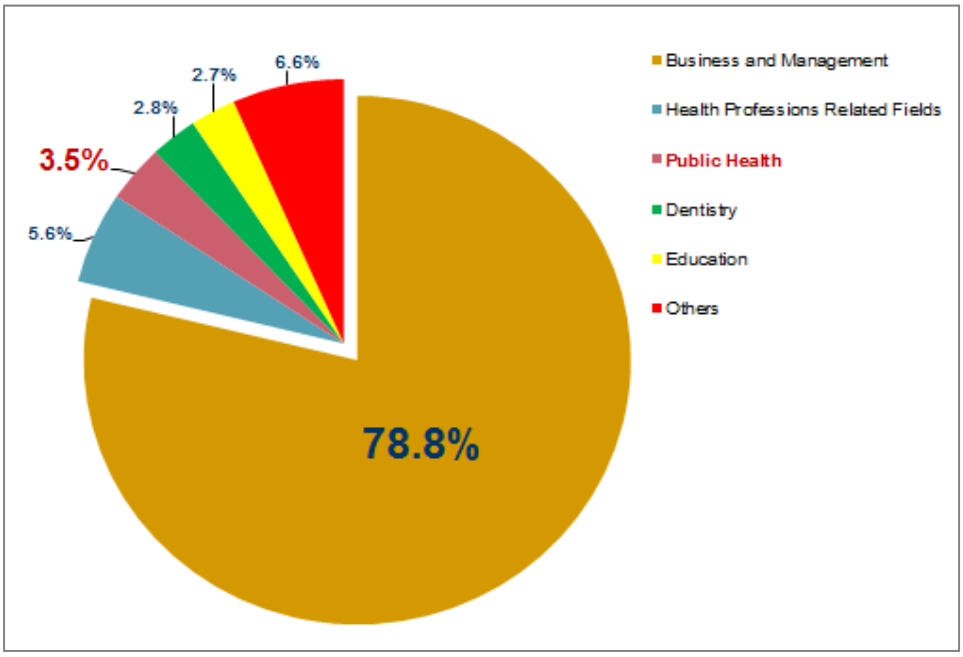


Figure 3.6 - Enrollments in SSDPs by Discipline.
Adapted from GPUs[System-wide]PRU. State Public Research University Data

A similar pattern is seen at other flagship PRUs impacted by the cuts in financial support. One evolving concept engendered by market demand is that of partnership and

collaboration, specifically between the business school and other schools of a university. It is isomorphic in character in that the business school is offering itself to be worthy of mimicking. The challenges confronting universities in the face of mounting costs, competition for attracting students, and the need to supplement or replace traditional sources of funding for sustainability are in most cases felt in all schools and departments. Business schools in the U.S and in many other countries have become so accurate a mirror and predictor of financial health and future viability that over the last twenty years, a growing trend in the microcosm of the business school is to regard itself as having the responsibility to become a catalyst for changes needed for a financially successful, income-generating model for the university as a whole. This trend is not without its detractors among academics who are wary, if not fearful, of the possible consequences to the social mission of public universities and changes in traditional modes of governance.

More significant was another shift in thinking: the search for strategies for survival became imbued with the entrepreneurial spirit of a business school and fueled an idea of transference, at least at the level of concept, to other schools and departments. While the perceived need for new financial models moved hand-in-hand with recognition by business schools that to compete in the marketplace, they must explore all avenues for income generation, they believed that the business school could especially apply their innovative entrepreneurial spirit to their self-management for sustainability. This self-scrutiny focused on analysis of management strategies now spearheads action for sustainability, particularly in the U.S. and in the U.K. Both countries have openly engendered a subtle shift in the scope of civic responsibility, from the imperative to make

the business school profitable without compromising the mandate of the public university to serve the public good, to recognition that service to the public good itself requires an overhaul of management style and policies of the university.

The shift to performance-based management styles for universities—inevitably bringing to the governance table the business school ethic—changed the balance of power; moreover, it changed the concept of power itself, from academic excellence first and foremost to financial sustainability. The far-reaching effects of such interventions or interference, depending on the viewpoint regarding the business world in education, has already affected serious changes in K−12 education in areas of delivery and accountability, which has in turn affected academic freedom (e.g. who dictates curriculum content) and other issues.

Due to necessity, higher education became available in an increasing variety of forms, institutionalized and not. Its scope and access to that scope are fast-changing and ever more diverse as is the face of the stakeholder, which is now recognized to be comprised of all that existed before, such as an elite knowledge-seeking, knowledge-generating body in addition to the masses of students enrolling worldwide and the teachers, tutors, and researchers needed to support such masses. Also part of the stakeholder group is the governments that require universities to help shape the nation and leverage its capacity to become an increasingly strong player in the global economy, which is affecting every aspect of the knowledge business from content to policymaking. Higher education, therefore, finds itself in need of a capacity and capability through policies and structures for governance and collaborations, for rapid ongoing transformation. A number of models emerged, offering conceptual ways to approach the

complexities involved in generating a transformational process of such magnitude that would factor in PRUs' organic nature and global context. Of these models, a comparison may be useful between the two theoretical approaches of internationalization and globalization.

Market Demand and Community Need

As PRUs focus on market demand to increase their financial sustainability, there exists a danger of ignoring community needs and especially those of the underserved communities where the need is greatest and the resources are scarce. The core value of PRUs, and the foundation upon which they were established, has been based on public good, but the private good has become the strategic focus of PRUs as a measure of financial survival.

Considerable international research provides strong evidence of the interconnection between education and health (Feinstein, Sabates, Anderson, Sorhaindo, & Hammond, 2006). Figure 3.7 presents a model presentation of the interdependence between education and health. Historically, PRUs have been an important component and change agent to address the educational needs of underserved communities. In addition to and at times as a substitute for formal education, health education has been an important form of health intervention in underserved communities around the world. Public health professionals have been at the forefront of this effort at the local and global level. Through individual and mass social marketing, their efforts have prevented spread of infectious diseases and identified a growing need for chronic disease management. PRUs can play an important role in addressing the need for these professionals' educational and training needs. By placing their focus and intent on community needs for public health,

PRUs can establish SSDPs in Public Health (SSDP-PH) at no cost to the general public. Several such programs have been established around the country. This study attempts to identify a means through which an SSDP-PH can be established. The findings from the comparative case study of SSDP-PH in this research provide a general road map towards this effort.

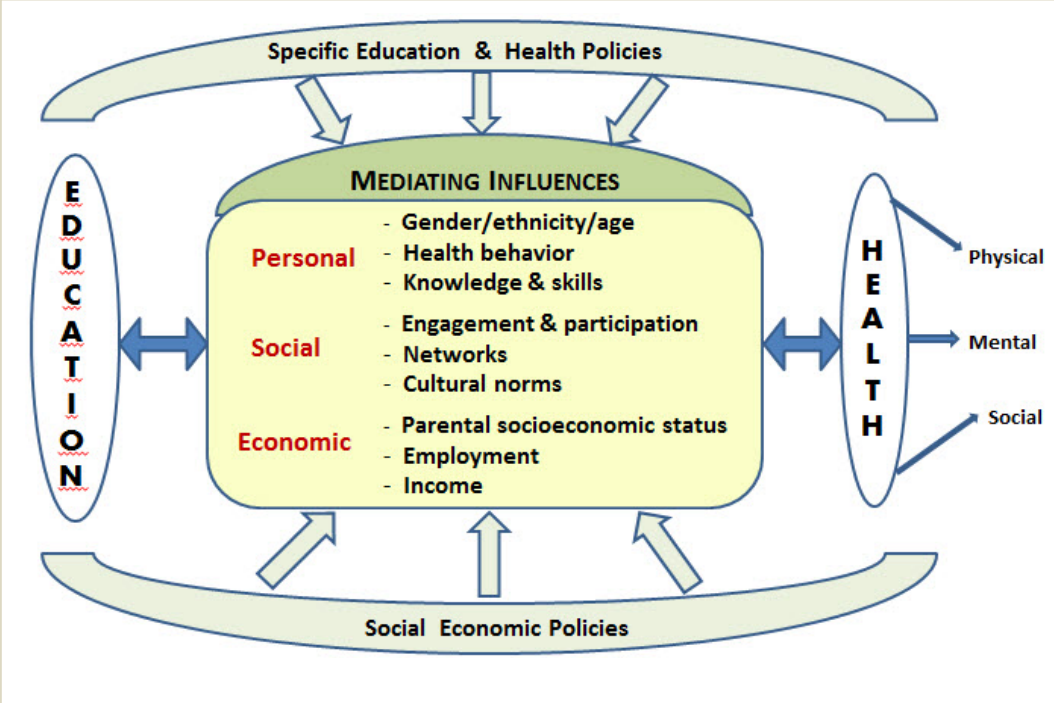


Figure 3.7 - Interconnection of Health and Education
Adapted from Commission on Public Health

Ranking – A Response to Market Demand

The traditional American model of higher education was based on the perception that higher education should be a public good and that the purpose of higher education should be to develop the critical thinking skills of young adults as well as to serve as "sanctuaries of non-repression," defending and preserving academic freedom and freedom of the academy (Gutmann, 1999a, 1999b). Over the last two decades, however,

there has been a gradual shift in paradigm from higher education as a public good to higher education as a means to an end (A. M. Cohen, 2009). For some high school students and their parents, higher education may be viewed as a means to better jobs and social mobility after graduation (Bowen, 1997a).

Out of growing public interest in accountability and assessment, colleges and universities engage in the ranking process on the basis of educational quality. Parents and prospective students take these rankings at face value and use that information to confirm their choices or eliminate colleges in the selection process (Don Hossler & Foley, 1995; McDonough, Lising, Walpole, & Perez, 1998). Due to the prominent role of guidebooks and rankings in the college selection process, many colleges and universities tend to include ranking information in their promotional materials (D. Hossler, 2000). However, there is evidence that the use of such information is problematic and sometimes inaccurate to improve the institution's ranking.

For higher education institutions, the focus has shifted slightly in response to both economic and financial pressures and shifting demographics. Colleges and universities need students to survive, and market-based competition for high-achieving or talented students is a fact of life. They must now compete for the best students— however "best" is defined—and one way is to have a high ranking in a college list.

In today's consumer-oriented, and accountability-focused educational environment, the ranking of institutions of higher learning serves two primary purposes: to provide "objective" information about colleges so that students can compare and make informed decisions about the colleges to which they plan to apply, and to provide the universities with a marketing tool to reinforce their competitive advantages (McDonough

et al., 1998). *The U.S. World News & Report* (USWNR) is the current leader in ranking colleges, but other organizations such as *Newsweek/Kaplan, Time/Princeton Review, Money Magazine,* and *Business Week* have also issued popular annual publications that rank colleges and graduate programs.

While the college ranking system may seem like a harmless game of bragging rights among select colleges, there are several reasons to be concerned about the current system, including how to quantify academic quality, how the rankings encourage some schools to "game" or manipulate the system or make questionable strategic admissions decisions, the methodologies used to determine the rankings, the tendency to present a single definition of university and academic quality, and the comparability of schools with diverse missions (Hazelkorn, 2008). The USWNR itself suggests that the rankings should be used to supplement— not substitute for—careful thought and personal research into the various programs and institutions. If parents and potential students, who stand to gain or lose the most in terms of quality of education and educational experience, and value for money, were to consider more critically how the rankings are produced and by whom, they might weigh market-driven decisions against life experience benefits. As will be discussed, the percentages that rank serve some purposes but not necessarily the ones most crucial for the original, underlying mission of higher education to form the character and mind of a student to become a critically thinking, public-spirited contributor to society. For example, a quality such as leadership is difficult to quantify, yet it has been shown to be correlated with success in school. However, whether a program offers opportunities to hone these skills is not considered in the ranking process. Rankings cannot provide insight into campus life, its richness, the match of the faculty and research

areas and likelihood of post-graduate funding, and the programs' contents with the interests and personality preferences of the individual student—all of which should be of paramount concern for all students.

Overview of the Ranking System

Ranking of American higher education institutions is not new; the U.S. government has ranked universities for over 100 years for statistical purposes (Meredith, 2004). Today the ranking system has evolved into a commercial enterprise that impacts almost all stakeholders in the higher educational system—from the academic institution being ranked to the applicants and their parents, faculty, alumni, and donors (Hazelkorn, 2008). The USWNR is arguably the dominant player in the ranking system, and its success has spawned a host of similar "Best" lists by other companies.

Ranking colleges and universities based on certain measures fulfills specific needs of stakeholders. Postsecondary institutions use these rankings to compare and benchmark theirs and others' performances in certain areas. They also use these rankings to satisfy calls for accountability and transparency in terms of quality of education and accessibility of information. The information found in the rankings also enables colleges and universities to attract or recruit higher-performing students and faculty as well as to solicit more donations from alumni and other donors. A high ranking may serve as a major component in marketing, as it reinforces a school's reputation and competitive position and validates, for some, the quality of the education. Because knowledge and education are intangible, it is difficult to measure an academic institution's primary product. Rankings provide schools with an indirect way to measure and promote its primary goods: knowledge and education (McDonough et al., 1998).

For students and their parents, rankings may serve as a source of arguably reliable, unbiased information from an outside source that consumers may use to indirectly measure and compare the primary products (knowledge and education) of academic institutions. They may use the reputational rankings as a way to gauge academic quality, reputation, and selectivity, and to lower the risks involved in selecting and applying to colleges, as the information may offer guidelines to deciding what is important to them in an academic institution (McDonough et al., 1998).

How Ranking is Calculated

For the 2009 rankings that came out in Fall 2008, 1,476 colleges were surveyed and the top 100 colleges were divided into quartiles. The current ranking system—as epitomized by USWNR—is based on self-reported objective and reputational data that include peer assessment (weighted 25%), retention rate (weighted 20–25%), faculty resources (weighted 20%), student selectivity (weighted 15%), financial resources (weighted 10%), graduation rate performance (weighted 10%), and alumni giving rate (weighted 5%). USWNR asserts that these indicators are reliable in measuring academic quality (Morse & Flanigan, 2008). After calculating and weighing the scores, USNWR ranks the schools in descending order. Schools that tie for a position are listed in alphabetical order (Morse & Flanigan, 2008). For the 2014 rankings, new peer surveys and new rankings were published for the Ph.D. and Master's degrees in a wider variety of programs (e.g., public affairs, library studies, economics, political science, psychology) (Morse & Flanigan, 2013). According to Hossler (2000), these measures and the methodology used to calculate the rankings may differ from year to year. Critics call this

manipulation of data to maintain the status quo (D. Hossler, 2000); USWNR claims that it is part of their efforts to get the best and most reliable results.

The magazine's strategy of increasing and diversifying ranking lists has proven to be a good financial decision because institutions and programs may rank highly in more than one category, and an increased number of institutions may rank highly in at least one specialized list of schools. Such results may lead to gratified institutional participants who will use that information on their websites and promotional materials (McCormick, 2007).

Issues and Concerns

Critics of the USWNR rankings voice many concerns about rankings, such as the degree to which it is possible to quantify academic quality and to characterize university and academic quality with a single definition or ranking (Hazelkorn, 2008). The USWNR uses the Carnegie Classification system as its framework, which groups postsecondary institutions "according to what they did and who taught whom" (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 52) and was originally intended to be an aid to higher education research and analysis. The classification system was "not intended as a ranking system" (Hurtado, 2003, p. 30). Critics claim that the USWNR methodology represents an improper use of the Carnegie system to group and compare institutions with "inconsistent and bizarre" results (McCormick, 2007).

Because it is intrinsic that the ranking methodology changes in some aspects each year, as mentioned below in another context, any year may be viewed for the following point. For example, in one list of schools, the USWNR includes the University of La Verne and the University of Massachusetts−Lowell as national schools along with the

University of California, Los Angeles, and Harvard because they award at least 20 doctoral degrees per year, while schools such as Villanova University and James Madison University are categorized as regional schools because they award fewer than 20 doctoral degrees per year (McCormick, 2007). The USWNR makes no effort to differentiate between the University of La Verne and UCLA, which are regional and national in focus, respectively, and which have different missions and selectivity scales. Instead, these two institutions are grouped together simply because the Carnegie Classification system groups them together according to its own specific methodology. Thus the USWNR homogenizes diverse types of institutions and actually does its intended market—students and their parents—a great disservice by stripping away, or at the very least downplaying, characteristics such as student body variety, location, and major offerings (Robert Birnbaum & Edelson, 1991), some or all of which may be important to students and their parents when considering to which institutions to apply.

The USWNR rankings also highlight the issue of whether it is possible to quantify academic quality or to characterize university and academic quality with a single definition or ranking. Even though quantitative information was obtained from the responding colleges or from other sources, these numbers—individually and in aggregate—provide a snapshot of the institution at a moment in time with respect to the indicator (e.g., student selectivity or alumni giving), not necessarily to the quality of the institution as a whole or its academic quality. Furthermore, the input variables requested by the USWNR are not necessarily the best indicators of institutional or academic quality; they are "only indirect and not necessarily good predictors of the quality of the undergraduate educational experience" (D. Hossler, 2000, p. 23).

Another issue that critics raise is that the data the USWNR collects are self-reported, providing an opportunity for institutions to game the system in order to move up in the rankings. For example, institutions may change their admissions procedures in order to attract more high-achieving students and to appear to be more selective, or they may manipulate or provide false or misleading data in order to cast their school or department in a more favorable light (D. Hossler, 2000). Moving up in the rankings is of great import to the institution and its stakeholders in terms of recruitment and admissions of high-achieving students, faculty and staff recruitment, and funding and gifts In light of the unethical ends to which some universities may be driven to compete, the fact that a ranking report based on answers from a small number of faculty – who are often asked to complete questions about other departments of which they have little knowledge – has such power to potentially alter fundamental choices and behaviors deserves critical appraisal in itself. Does such an effect of an unintended use of the Carnegie Classification system worthy of the weight given to the system?

Another concern is how the USNWR college ranking affects admission outcomes. Transition within the top 25 institutions and between the first two quartiles was found to have a significant impact on admissions outcomes In particular, movement in and out of the first quartile—placed on the first page of the rankings—had a large impact on admissions outcomes, especially at public schools. This may be due to the ability of private schools to be more flexible than public schools in adjusting net tuition in response to changes in USNWR rank (Meredith, 2004).

Anecdotal evidence supplied by Hossler (2000) illustrate ways that colleges and universities game or manipulate the system. For example, one college developed an

application with two parts, each of which was counted as an application—effectively doubling the number of student applications and altering the selectivity score of the institution. Another institution provided very little information on its application in the hope that more students would apply and more could be rejected, thus increasing its selectivity score. Another recent example occurred in 2008 at Baylor University, when the administration admitted to offering and paying large financial incentives to admitted freshmen to retake the SAT in an effort to increase their scores. This ruse was denounced as an attempt to improve Baylor's ranking in the USWNR (Jaschik, 2008a).

Ultimately, rankings should be viewed with skepticism. The information found in college rankings was originally intended to serve as a guide to students and their parents when applying to colleges. However, factors such as changing demographics, declining applicant pools, rising college costs, and the increased premium of a degree earned from an elite institution (Meredith, 2004) have underscored both the risks and the importance of applying to and being accepted to the "right" college. As mentioned earlier, knowledge and education are intangible goods that are difficult to quantify, and consumers of higher education seek to lower their risks (quality of education and financial) by using the seemingly unbiased and reliable information provided by national rankings such as those from USNWR (McDonough et al., 1998).

The critics' challenges suggest that such rankings may be of questionable value, and more research is needed to determine whether a correlation exists between changes in rankings and changes in actual quality (Meredith, 2004). Furthermore, some challenges have appeared in another form, as "more colleges than ever are declining to participate" (Jaschik, 2008b, para. 1) in the USNWR "reputational" survey, which is "the single

largest part of the magazine's formula" (Jaschik, 2008b, para. 1). Participation has dropped from 67 percent only a few years ago to 46 percent today (Jaschik, 2008b, para. 3). It will be interesting to see how this trend will impact the influence of rankings such as USNWR's.

Accreditation − A Response to Market Demand

The public has demonstrated a demand for institutional accountability. As a result, many academic institutions have made progress towards measuring the quality of not only the academic program but also support resources. By definition, accreditation is the "process by which an organization grants approval to an educational institution" (Floden, 1983, p. 35). Accreditation has been typically described as a public statement that a certain threshold of quality has been met or surpassed (C. Campbell & Van der Wende, 2000; Kristoffersen, Sursock, & Westerheijden, 1998). More so than ranking, market demand has emphasized the issue of accreditation, which can be viewed as both a process and a status. In the U.S., the accreditation process is used to assure and improve academic quality and to assist institutions and programs in using peer-developed standards to measure quality. Once an institution or program has completed their accreditation process, they are awarded with the "accredited status" that many students seek (Eaton, 2012). In many fields, especially the health professions, graduating from an accredited program is a requirement for receiving a license to practice professionally. Therefore, there are multiple accrediting bodies that specifically set standards based on the skills needed for that profession.

General standards address key areas related to faculty, student support services, facilities, financial support, curricula and student learning outcomes (Eaton, 2012).

Through a process of self-review and on-site visits by an evaluation team, institutions and programs can undergo a rigorous assessment process prior to the decision awarding accredited status. This type of review is conducted every three to ten years, depending on the institution.

Background on Accreditation

In the U.S., the higher education accreditation was developed to "protect public health and safety, and to serve the public interest" (Eaton, 2012, p. 1). While accreditation is a private form of self-regulation, it serves higher education and stakeholders such as students, the government, and the public. According to the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (2006a, 2006b), accreditation has come to play four pivotal roles for society. Accreditation:

- Sustains and enhances the quality of higher education
- Maintains the academic values of higher education
- Is a buffer against the politicizing of higher education; and
- Serves public interest and need.

There are two main types of educational accreditation, institutional and programmatic or specialized. Institutional accreditation typically applies to an entire institution, indicating that each component of an institution contributes towards the institution's objectives. The other basic type of accreditation is programmatic or specialized accreditation, which typically applies to programs, departments, or schools that are parts of an academic institution. Six regional accrediting bodies that maintain eight separate commissions are responsible for accrediting postsecondary institutions. Certain agencies accredit professional schools, such as medical, law, and public health.

A professional accrediting body also plays a major role in shaping the curriculum and operation of professional degree programs within an institution.

Accreditation Value: Stakeholders' Perspective

Accreditation serves multiple purposes for different stakeholders. In general, specialized accreditation testifies to the quality of an educational program that prepares its students for entry into a recognized profession. For the public, accreditation promotes the health, safety, and welfare of society by assuring competent public health professionals. For prospective students and their parents, accreditation serves a consumer protection purpose, providing assurance that the school or program has been evaluated and has met accepted standards established by and with the profession. For prospective employers, it provides assurance that the curriculum covers essential skills and knowledge needed for certain jobs. For graduates, it promotes professional mobility and enhances employment opportunities in positions that base eligibility upon graduation from an accredited school or program. Looking more specifically at the public health profession, for public health workers, accreditation involves practitioners in the establishment of standards and assures that educational requirements reflect the current training needs of the profession. For the profession, whether it is public health or architecture, it advances the field by promoting standards of practice and advocating rigorous preparation. For the federal government and other public funding agencies, it serves as a basis for determining eligibility for federally funded programs and student financial aid. For foundations and other private funding sources, accreditation represents a highly desirable indicator of a program's quality and viability. For the university, it provides a reliable basis for inter- and intra-institutional cooperative practices, including

admissions and transfer of credit. For the faculty and administrators, it promotes ongoing self-evaluation and continuous improvement and provides an effective system for accountability. For the school or program, accreditation enhances its national reputation and represents peer recognition.

Accreditation in the Health Profession

The genesis of accreditation procedures in health professions can be traced to field of medicine. Accreditation of medical professionals has been used as an example of the potential value and process of accreditation. The 1910 Flexnor report was a study of medical education. The Flexnor study was part of an effort by the American Medical Association (AMA) to increase the quality of medical education, which resulted in reduction of in the number of medical schools. The Flexnor study aimed to bring all the medical schools in line with a set of quality standards (Floden, 1983). Flexnor's work has been credited with triggering education reforms in the standards, organization, and curriculum of North American medical schools (Johnson & Green, 2010).

Accreditation for Public Health

The primary purpose of public health education has been to prepare professionals who can design interventions to prevent diseases and injuries and to manage conditions to reduce the spread of diseases. Public health programs primarily provide the training for monitoring, prevention, and detection for public safety. Various professional degree programs offer public health training. Public health degree programs may be housed in a School of Public Health (SPH) or other professional schools. Schools of medicine, nursing, business, and public policy offer degrees or concentration in public health or healthcare management. Public health training may be in specific areas of concentration,

such as epidemiology, environmental health, health education, healthcare management, or in an interdisciplinary format. Core courses in each of these areas is typically required in any MPH program, similar to traditional Master of Business Administration (MBA) programs where students are required to take core courses in areas of specialization such as finance, strategy, and marketing.

For much of the nineteenth century, there was no nationally organized profession of public health; however, public health activities occurred locally. The Association of Schools and Programs of Public Health (ASPPH) was founded in 1941 by a group of seven SPHs concerned about the growth of public health education programs. The ASPPH, in collaboration with the American Public Health Association (APHA), developed standards for SPHs and began conducting accreditations in 1945. Initially, accreditation was only given to SPH-based programs, but later included programs with a public health focus that were housed in other professional schools. In the early 1970s, the responsibility of conducting accreditations was transferred to the independent Council on Education for Public Health (CEPH). The Master of Public Health (Humphreys, 2010) degree is a broad-based degree similar to the MBA degree where students' education in core competencies are expected in several areas and are evaluated by CEPH. CEPH evaluates the quality of instruction, research, and service efforts at national and international public health degree programs. Figure 3.8 shows the geographic distribution of accredited public health programs, with high concentration of these programs in the eastern half of the U.S. This concentration is not surprising since major metropolitan areas were started in the eastern part of the U.S., and Boston originated the public health concept in 1798. The first school of public health was established at Tulane University in

1912. As the first independent school, the Johns Hopkins School of Public Health was established in 1916 and was used as a model for Columbia, Harvard, and Yale universities to create their own SPH programs.

Figure 3.8 - ASPPH Accredited and Associated Members.
Reprinted from "Map of ASPPH Accredited and Associate Members," by Association of Schools of Public Health and Programs of Public Health. Retrieved September 1, 2013 from http://www.asph.org/userfiles/asph_map.pdf. Copyright 2012 by ASPPH.

While the CEPH is the accrediting body for public health programs in general, other organizations provide accreditation of particular programs of specialty within the larger unit where a program resides. In addition to the CEPH, programs that have specialized designation may have their respective industry standards that will require specific accreditation. For example, the Commission on Accreditation of Health Management Education (CAHME) is the accrediting body for programs in healthcare management at various schools that are home to programs with a focus on management and leadership in public health and in the health care sector in general. A trend toward a

new focus on the use of competencies in the evaluation of the instructional, research, and service efforts in the graduate schools accredited by CEPH is evidenced in the differences in the accreditation standards amended in 2002 and again in 2005. The most current CEPH standards, the June 2005 *Accreditation Criteria for Schools of Public Health* (Council on Education for Public Health, 2005), contains more than 30 references to competencies with an entirely new section specifically addressing "Required Competencies." The 2005 standards also outline the interpretation of competencies, their relation with instructional objectives, and required documentation for the review process associated with the required competencies. The newer standards also differentiate between "competencies" and "learning objectives," stating that the "relationship between competencies and learning objectives (the incremental learning experiences at the course and experiential levels that lead to the development of the competencies) should be explicit" (Council on Education for Public Health, 2005). More specifically, the Public Health Competencies include:

- Five core discipline-specific domains (Biostatistics, Environmental Health Sciences, Epidemiology, Health Policy Management, and Social and Behavioral Sciences); and,
- Seven interdisciplinary, crosscutting domains (Communication and Informatics, Diversity and Culture, Leadership, Professionalism, Program Planning, Public Health Biology, and Systems Thinking).

Ultimately, it should be recognized that competency- or outcomes-based education could improve individual performance, enhance communication and coordination across courses and programs, and provide an impetus for faculty

development, curricular reform, and leadership in educational innovation. In addition, explicitly specified, action-oriented behavioral competencies can significantly enhance learning and outcomes. Figure 3.9 illustrates the relationship between core competencies and broader learning objectives of interdisciplinary domains.

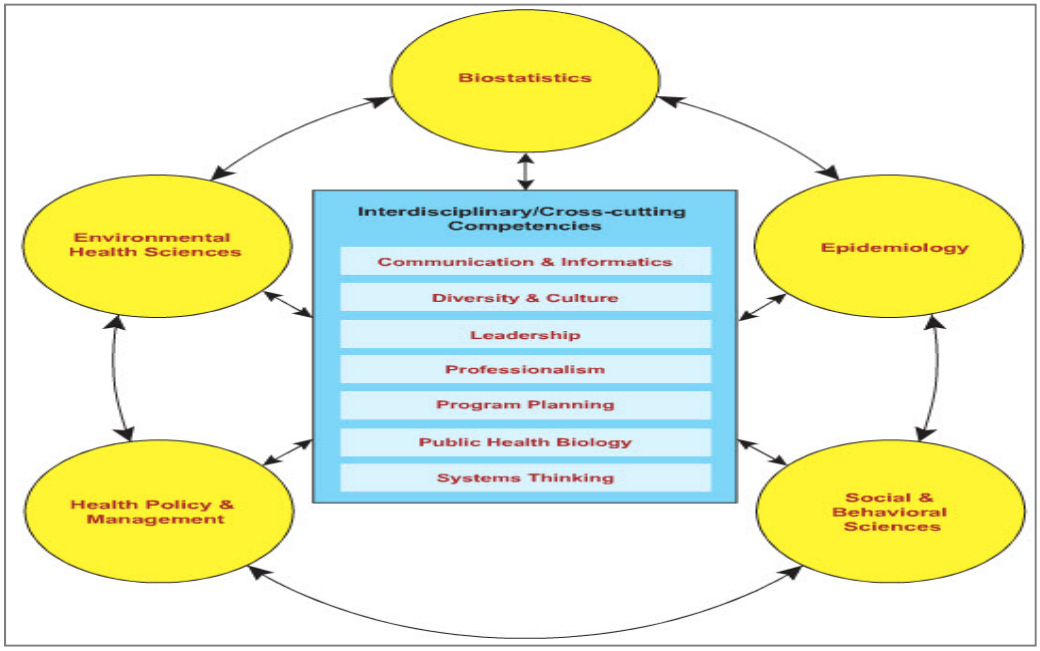


Figure 3.9 - Association of Schools of Public health Core Competency Model
Reprinted from, "Development of a Core Competency Model for the Master of Public Health Degree," by J. Calhoun, K. Ramiah, E. McGean Weist, and S. Shortell, 2008, American Journal of Public Health, 98(9), pp. 1598-1607. Copyright 2008 by the American Public Health Association.

Accreditation and Distance Learning

Due to the popularization of distance learning and the access to higher education opportunities, institutions and accrediting associations have been forced to examine the linkages between the ways in which learning is facilitated and the demands of educational consumers.

The nexus between distance education, competencies, and accreditation is expanding as most academic institutions are compelled to address the issue of new and

changing markets. The Council for Regional Accrediting Commissions (CRAC) proposed guidelines for the evaluation and assessment of distance learning programs. CRAC is a amalgamation of regional accrediting bodies aimed at promoting "interregional dialogue and convergence on uniform process for documenting quality" (Terkla, 2001, p. 76). CRAC has recommended that program effectiveness be determined based on the following criteria (Terkla, 2001, pp. 77-78):

1. The extent to which the student learning matches the overall learning objectives and outcomes of the major.
2. The extent to which the student initial intent is met.
3. Student retention rates, including variation over time.
4. Student satisfaction based on surveys.
5. Faculty satisfaction, based on surveys.
6. The extent to which access is provided to students not previously served.
7. Measures of the extent to which student support resources (library and learning resources) are used appropriately by the student.
8. Measures of student competence in fundamental skills (e.g., communication, comprehension and analysis).
9. Cost effectiveness of the program to its students, as compared with campus-based activities.

Effective use of technology can enable people to be engaged in their own education; however, the cost-effectiveness of such strategies should be assessed. Ultimately, the extent to which distance education can truly transform the educational

process will determine in large part the future commitment of regional accreditors to full-scale competency review (Terkla, 2001).

Technology Adoption

Technology offers PRUs tools of enormous potential with which to act upon their core principles for provision of education for the public good. It can provide the opportunity to address issues of access and equity in areas of research, teaching and service, from local to global communities and for the under-represented. The adoption of technology has for some time become an insistent voice in higher education deliberations. Technological advancements in teaching which have expanded to include mobile devices and cloud-based media, offer the prospect of increase in equitable access. This in part is due to the inherent promise of reduction in cost and flexibility for knowledge transfer. Greater numbers of students have gained access to laptops and mobile units as the cost of these devices continue to drop. Smart classrooms, MOOCS, flipped courses, on-line education and many similar buzzwords are now common within the academic world.

As PRUs strive to reduce their operating expenses through efficient use of technological advances in teaching and learning, entrepreneurs in education technology are responding to this growing need. Publishing and education companies such as Pearson as well as venture capital firms have increased their level of investments in education-technology start-up companies from $146 million in 2002 to more than $1 billion in 2012 which includes 128 education companies as recipients of venture capital funding (Booker, 2013). Figure 3-10 presents the cumulative increase of these investments and its acceleration in the recent years.

Figure3.10 - Venture Capital Investment in Education Technology

While the rate of technology adoption in teaching has accelerated, faculty and administrators differ in their views on technology's impact in higher education. Figure 3.11 provides the perspectives of these two primary decision maker groups on the topic.

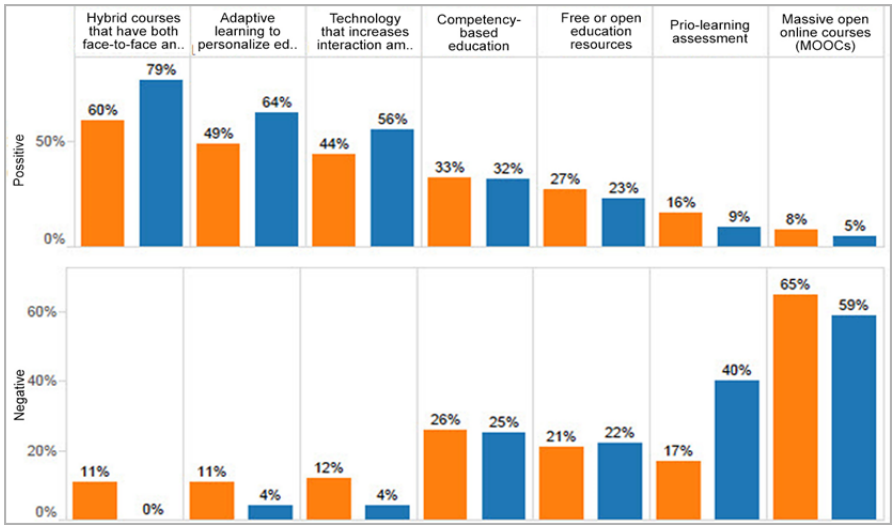


Figure 3.11- Faculty and Administrators
Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education's Survey of College Presidents and Faculty

The introduction of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), some of which were offered for free as an effort to provide more equitable access to the underserved and

underrepresented individuals. Coursera, a northern California based company offered free college courses on line. In order to create a revenue model to support its noble cause, Coursera offers on-campus services to assist with conversation of courses to "flipped" class model where students learn foundational material at home with the aid of videos and online material, reserving classroom time for discussion and completing "homework" assignments in group or individually. Some in the academic circles have made the assertion that students receive a sub-standard education through the MOOC platform. These views were somewhat validated with the July 2013 disclosure by Udacity and its academic partner through which five courses were offered that more than half of the student who took online courses failed their final exam (Mangan, 2013).

Other companies in the MOOCs landscape like Udacity and edX are also exploring alternative and revenue-generating business models and remain sustainable (Mangan, 2013). For example edX has secured contracts with the International Monetary Fund and other non for profit organizations to provide employee training through their online medium. Many believe that the ultimate source of revenue will reside in future long term contract with academic institutions. The retreat from MOOC was deemed by some as a potential abandonment of online education models, referring to a New York Article that "2013 might be dubbed the year that online education fell back to earth."

Although the pure online model may not be the best option for everyone, and only highly motivated students may succeed in an all online educational environment, the blended model and flipped classroom model appear to be thriving as more flagship PRUs are introducing "flexible" education models which is a synonym for the blended learning model. Opinion leaders in this field, including the Stanford Professor and inventor who

designed the “Artificial Intelligence Course” which was at the forefront of the MOOC revolution, now believes that the viability of online education will depend on a balance in adoption of classroom and online technology in combination with human connection.

Internal Environment

The environmental factors influencing higher education bring to the forefront the discussion about the role of public higher education in a society. As Gumport (2000) stated, there are two conflicting views about the role of public higher education in a society. One view is of higher education as an industry, with activities and priorities similar to the ones espoused by businesses: “to produce and sell goods and services, train some of the workforce, advance economic development, and perform research” (pp. 70−71). All of these activities should be accompanied by flexibility, to be able to respond to changes in a rapid manner, adjust programs and activities as needed, and improve efficiency and customer satisfaction. On the other hand, for those who view higher education as a social institution, its primary functions should include “cultivation of citizenship, the preservation of cultural heritage(s), and the formation of individual character and habits of mind” (Gumport, 2000, p. 71).

Mission Drift

Universities have a complex structure and mission. The mission of universities is far more complex than the simple core statement of purpose of teaching, research, and service (Balderston, 1995). Mission in universities, as in non-profits and governmental agencies, drives operations, something not requisite in corporations. The mission of a PRU is expected to encapsulate and express the core values and purpose of its existence. It is upon this mission that the institutional vision is built, showing its future path. The

mission and vision of an institution are the guiding principles on which objectives and strategic plans are designed and constructed.

Mission drift occurs when an institution deviates from its implicit or explicit goals and disconnects from the core values on which they were established. Duderstadt (2000) defined the modern university as a complex organization where competing interests can threaten organizational culture. His reference to "University of Michigan Incorporated" can now apply to many other flagship PRUs. Santos, Luca and Rhoads demonstrated that institutions pattern of budgetary and resource allocations often highlight the direction and balance of emphasis that the university administration places on diversity, quality and revenue. Even though senior administration may express commitments to expanding student diversity and allocate resources accordingly, it is significant to consider the position of diversity relative to net revenue generation and quality enhancement (José L. Santos et al., 2014). Therefore it is not only essential to assess the institutional discourse regarding the university's core values and purpose, but also assess the resource allocation patterns of institutions to determine whether the practices and current trajectory of the university is aligned with its core mission.

Self-Preservation

With diminishing political and societal support, decreasing public funding, and increasing competition from private institutions, public universities have been prompted towards efforts of self-preservation. The economic crisis, however, has led to urgency on the part of some public universities to operate more like private institutions not only to protect themselves from the recession and volatile state budgets, but also for their survival. As a result of rising costs, education has become something more of a

commodity that can be purchased or acquired. In an effort to differentiate themselves from the competition and to ensure their survival, many higher education institutions are increasingly engaging in *academic capitalism* (Rhoades & Slaughter, 2010; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997).

Philip Hanlon, vice provost for academic and budgetary affairs at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, which acquires approximately 7 percent, or $320 million, of its revenue from the state, mentioned that public universities that aim to thrive in the future should seek to earn revenue from a variety of sources while continuing to limit costs in ways that do not diminish the quality of instruction (Kelderman, 2009). In face of these financial constraints and competition, many public universities aim to preserve the quality of faculty, staff and facilities; expand financial support for both lower and middle income students; and increase access by investing in enrollment growth while also pursuing new revenue sources and cost reductions. One strategy for compensating for reductions in state support includes seeking increased endowments and annual giving. However, public higher education institutions compensating for diminishing state support will have to focus efforts to increase their net tuition revenues.

Flagship public universities should be concerned about maintaining the selectivity of their student bodies since large tuition hikes may make private competitors appear more attractive to many top applicants who do not have financial need. Therefore, a share of the extra tuition revenue that public universities receive form higher tuition would go directly towards merit-based scholarships (R.G. Ehrenberg, 2006).

Faculty also feels the pressure of the economic crisis and the changing university culture. Tenured and tenure-track faculty in both public and private research institutions

are increasingly focused on research, publications, grants, and educating graduate students (Cross & Goldenberg, 2009). Institutions' need to attract external funding, which is provided through grants and other awards, has contributed to prioritizing research activity. This type of funding has driven tenured and tenure-track faculty into more entrepreneurial roles. As a result, institutions have turned to non-tenure-track faculty, particularly part-time faculty, to teach an increasing share of undergraduate courses to make tenure-track faculty available for pursuing external funding. Consequently, mostly non-tenure-track faculty comprises a large portion of the professoriate (Cross & Goldenberg, 2009). Among disciplines, the largest increases in part-time faculty occurred in education between 1987 and 2003, an increase of 27.7 percent to comprise a total 55.5 percent. The greatest increase of full-time non-tenure-track faculty between 1969 and 1998 was in the health sciences, comprising 44.1 percent of all full-time faculty in the health sciences in 2003 (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

The role of state appropriations in the use of contingent faculty is quite evident. Gappa and Leslie (1993) observed that a state's budgeting process affects the hiring of part-time faculty, particularly when administrators speculate that a shortfall in state appropriations is on the horizon. Ehrenberg and Zhang (2005) and Liu and Zhang (2007) examined four-year institutions and found that as current revenues increase at an institution, there is typically a smaller share of faculty who are part-time. Baldwin and Chronister (2001) noted that administrators tend to favor hiring non-tenure-track faculty because of the flexible nature of their appointments. In times of rapid change and limited financial resources, the employment of non-tenure-track faculty meets that flexible need.

In April 2013, the *New York Times* (Lewin, 2013) reported that 76 percent of American university faculty are adjunct professors. Unlike tenured faculty whose annual salary can be as high as $160,000, adjunct professors typically average $2,700 per course and receive no health care or other benefits. Adjuncts generally do not have a personal office available to them through their department nor can they participate in faculty meetings (Kendzior, 2013). In addition, they often do not sit on doctoral committees, do not receive a travel budget, nor receive support to seek research grants (Liu & Zhang, 2007). Thus, part-time faculty cost universities less to have on hand and can be allocated in ways to improve market efficiencies for universities. Furthermore, both part-time and non-tenure-track employees can be hired and released more easily due to changes in external market structures. In contrast, tenure-track or tenured faculty are often paid more, have greater benefits, and have stronger job security than other faculty members (Liu & Zhang, 2007).

Admissions Standards

In higher education, standardized testing has been used to assess students' ability to succeed in an academically rigorous environment. The Graduate Record Exam (GRE), published by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), is a widely used criterion for graduate school admissions. The GRE was originally designed to be a supplementary metric to inform the admissions decision-making process; it was not intended to be the sole measure to establish primary cut-off points for admission consideration. First published in 1949, the GRE was a three-part, multiple-choice exam composed of quantitative, verbal, and analytical sections. In the mid-1990s, the exam was

computerized and then later, the analytical section was replaced to include two written essays to better assess applicants' writing skills.

Various studies have investigated whether the GRE is an accurate tool to predict the success of graduate students, but the metric of success also needs to be considered. In a meta-analysis, (Morrison & Morrison, 1995) found statistically non-significant correlation coefficients between first-year graduate grade point average (GPA) and GRE verbal and quantitative scores, suggesting that the GRE components provide only minimal predictive value. Another meta-analysis of nearly 100 studies and 10,000 students found that GRE scores predict first-year GPA, overall graduate GPA, and faculty ratings well for both master's and doctoral students (Nathan R. Kuncel, Wee, Serafin, & Hezlett, 2010). The measures used to determine success was the correlation between GRE scores and GPA but with limited ability to predict long-term success. According to an earlier meta-analysis conducted by Kuncel et al. (2001), the GRE is a better predictor of success for overall graduate GPA, first-year graduate GPA, comprehensive exam scores, and faculty ratings than for research productivity, number of publication citations, time-to-degree completion.

Access to higher education is essential to lifetime advances in knowledge, skills, employment opportunities, and socioeconomic progress (Gutmann, 1999b). There has been concern over whether the GRE accurately predicts graduate success across different minority, gender, and age groups. The ETS report (Bridgeman, Burton, & Cline, 2008) highlighted that while the GRE is a valid predictor of first-year graduate GPA when all studies are averaged, racial/ethnic minority populations composed a small portion of the participant pool. Therefore, the data from the GRE may not take into account potential

differences in culture, language, and educational background among these populations. According to the ETS report, minority students score significantly lower than White students across all subtests, with the exception of Asian students who score higher on the quantitative section (Educational Testing Service, 2008). Research investigating the predictive validity of the GRE for minority groups typically does not consider the variation among minority groups. In most studies, minority students are lumped together into one category regardless of their ethnicity, and this lack of specificity prevents a clear understanding of how the GRE predictive validity varies across groups (Lightfoot & Doerner, 2008; Reisig & DeJong, 2005). Traditional admissions metrics are also biased against women.

When considering factors that may be relevant to the GRE predictive validity, it is also important to consider that many minorities entering higher education may be first-generation college students (Chapa & De La Rosa, 2006). According to the 2006−2007 ETS report, first-generation college students scored significantly lower in all three GRE components than students with parents holding college degrees (Educational Testing Service, 2008). Findings related to English as a Second Language should be highlighted because they are confounded by the fact that low SES and minority students are more likely to be first-generation students when compared to other groups.

Standardized tests scores have also been found to be lower among older students and under-predict their aptitude (Brazziel, 1992; M. J. Clark, 1984; Swinton, 1987). It has been found that GRE scores were found to over-predict the graduate performance of younger students and under-predict the grades earned by older students (House, 1989).

The predictive validity of the GRE may also vary across disciplines. In an ETS study, the GRE verbal component was a better predictor of first-year graduate GPA for the humanities and social sciences than for math, physical sciences, and life sciences. The GRE quantitative score, on the other hand, is a stronger predictor of first-year graduate GPA for mathematical, physical, and social sciences than for the life sciences and humanities (Educational Testing Service, 2008; N.R. Kuncel et al., 2001). Extensive research found that the GRE does not accurately assess an applicant's full potential for success in academic, professional, and personal ventures. Factors such as mentoring relationships, environment, and student involvement may actually affect graduate student behavior more closely than GRE scores and previous academic experience.

Curriculum Design

Changes in the field of public health have impacted how schools of public health train future graduates, ensuring that graduates with Masters of Public Health degrees are equipped to meet the current challenges of public health practice. One evident change is that students of public health are now younger and more diverse in their academic backgrounds and in the perspectives they bring to the profession. Previously, public health professionals were mostly mature graduates from medicine or biological sciences. However, now many of the public health trainees are individuals who directly go to graduate school or after two to three years of initial training in fields as diverse as business, social sciences, mathematics, and various others. Students who apply for training in public health programs are also more varied in terms of ethnicity, race, culture, and gender. This change in the public health pool reflects major demographic

changes occurring in the general U.S. population, including the fact that more women are attending professional graduate schools.

The context of work has also changed because public health practitioners in the workforce today must interact with colleagues from diverse fields. In addition, public health practice has expanded to include virtually every sector of society from health care to law to agriculture. Therefore, there is greater need to build interpersonal skills and employ team approaches to decision-making and problem solving. In an effort to better train the future public health workforce, there has been a trend towards competency-based education for the public health field. Competency-based education is a process that moves education from focusing on what academics believe graduates need to know (instructor-focused) to what students need to know and be able to do in diverse complex situations (student-focused). Competency-based education is focused on outcomes (competencies) that are linked to workforce needs, as defined by employers and the profession. Competency-based education outcomes are complex, rather than merely being based on a list of objectives (Calhoun, Ramiah, McGean Weist, & Shortell, 2008).

In addition to developing educational outcomes related to workforce needs, competencies also link course's learning objectives to the school's instructional objectives. For example, the CEPH criteria require each school of public health to state a mission that is supported by institutional goals for teaching, service, and research (Council on Education for Public Health, 2005). These competencies are not designed to serve as a framework for specific, required core courses or for one-to-one development of a core curriculum, but they are aimed at providing a baseline overview of the knowledge, skills, and other attributes that might be expected for emerging public health

professionals. Competencies should be reviewed regularly and redefined to reflect the changing needs of public health practice.

Competency-based education has helped to redefine accreditation and certification activities throughout the health profession, more recently in the field of public health. In 2004, the Association of Schools and Programs of Public Health (2006) initiated the development of the MPH core competencies as a result of a number of factors including:

- Twenty-first century challenges to public health practice,
- Increase in competency-based training in the field of public health,
- Increase in accountability in higher education,
- Recommendations by national organization regarding competency domains,
- Increasing incorporation of competencies into accreditation criteria, and
- Development of a voluntary credentialing exam for public health.

The competencies are intended to serve as a resource and guide for those setting out to improve the quality and accountability of public health education and training. These competencies are not meant to delineate the methods or processes for teaching, however, the implementation of the competencies may depend on the goals and mission of the university. As evident in the MPH Core Competency Model, interdisciplinary education plays an integral part in the training of future health professionals. The Council of Public Health Practice Coordinators (1999) noted that:

The traditional academic model of increasing specialized knowledge will not be adequate to address complex public health programs without also recognizing the need for interdisciplinary expertise. . . . If the importance of cross-disciplinary understanding is

not recognized by the school and the university, the charge that academic public health is isolated from practice will prevail (p. 9). This report recommended "adapting and changing curricula to accommodate practice-based needs for preparation and continuous development of practitioners, including the use of technology-mediated instruction" (Council of Public Health Practice Coordinators, 1999, p. 6).

Several public health programs have responded to these recommendations and associated market demands by developing interdisciplinary degrees and certificate programs. Many certificate and continuing education opportunities are being offered to improve leadership and management skills. One such example is the University of North Carolina School of Public Health, which offers a distance and hybrid program in public health leadership. Established in 1997, the program is designed to "provide experienced public health practitioners with knowledge and skills needed to lead effective assessment, assurance and policy development activities" (Umble, Shay, & Sollecito, 2003, p. 125). The distance program has the same requirements as the residential public health leadership program. Most courses are delivered by a combination of online and video-conference presentations. Interactive videoconferences are supplemented with discussion forums and administrative support.

Shared Governance

The complexity of university governance with its multiple levels and interconnections makes analysis of stakeholders' needs, and institutional response to their concerns with a business-like strategy varied and complicated. The historical social responsibility and the process of internal decision making to address external forces of change provide unique challenges and opportunities for PRUs to redefine their roles in

their expanded environment and with their diverse stakeholders. Historically, the path higher education management has followed is much the same as that found in surveying organizational theory. The theories of Weber and Taylor regarding bureaucracy and scientific management, respectively, largely centered on rational decision making (Peterson & Mets, 1987; Taylor, 1914; Weber, 1947). These theories informed most thinking about university management until the 1960's. Public university administrators expected to control higher education institutions effectively and to predict the direction the organization should take and the goals to be reached. Students and faculty alike largely rejected theories that were perceived as upholding rigidity, complexity, and the impersonal nature of university functioning. New theories evolved that placed more importance on stakeholders' powers towards shared governance (Baldridge, 1971).

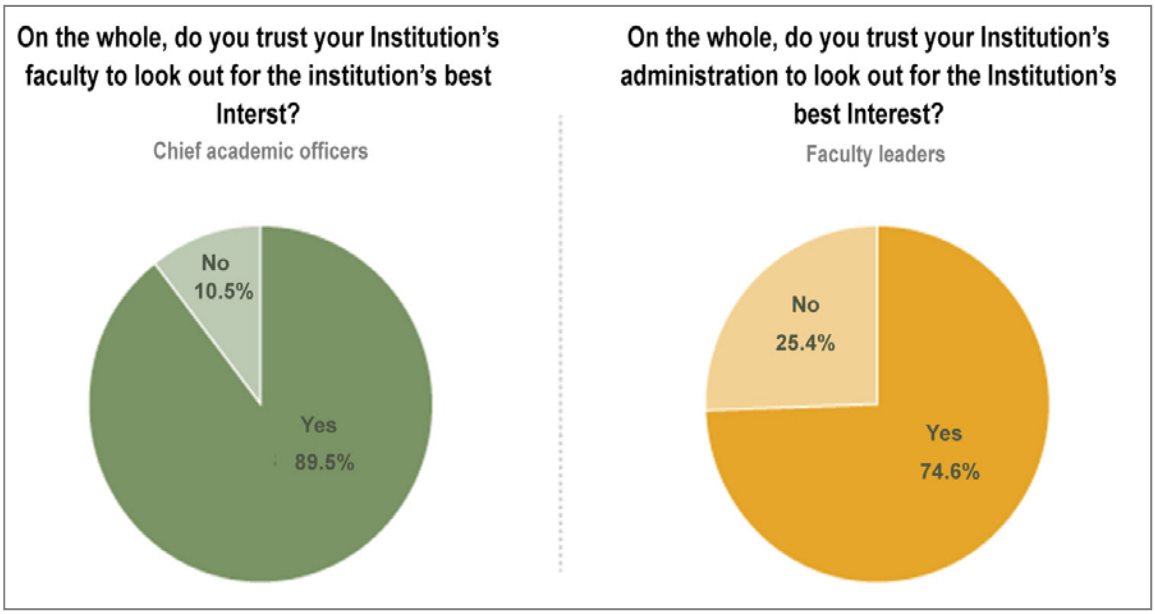


Figure 3.12 Faculty and Administrator Perceptions
Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education's Survey of College Presidents and Faculty

Theoretical preference was for resolution of differences between contending groups; trustees, administrators, government, faculty, alumni, and students to be achieved through sharing of ideas and political exchange. Cohen and March (1986) presented the

thrust of thought on management with their theory—that trust in attempts at rational or political decision making was unlikely to predict any outcome accurately and what may emerge and be achieved from the mix of problems, opportunities, solutions, and participants were the domain of time and chance. Cohen and March also captured the climate of opinion regarding the unpredictable nature of change, that it is organized anarchy as a result of the character of stakeholders. Cybernetic institutional theory (R. Birnbaum, 1989) sought a coalescence of collegial, bureaucratic, political, and anarchical perspectives. Other theories continued to move away from a concept of control to the notion of organizational complexity with competing stakeholder interests, which required a cultural awareness with a flexible rationale for any conceptualization of the decision-making process in academia. The decision-making processes in universities present a number of distinguishing characteristics that may offer valuable insights for issues such as financial independence from tax payer-based support. Below are some of the organizational theories that provide an analytical lens for evaluating the leadership environment of a public research university. Weick (1976) proposed the usefulness of seeing the organizational management of universities as a loosely coupled system as opposed to the military image of running a tight ship. The loose links between parts of the university allow for freedom to meet needs with more autonomy.

Institutional Response

In response to the continuing funding cuts, PRUs have identified potential areas of alternative funding sources in teaching, service, and research. The focus of this study is the efforts of these universities to secure revenues through expansions and conversions

in professional degree programs and the potential impact of these strategic decisions on students and the public at large.

The pace of movement towards stand-alone degree programs and SSDPs has corresponded to the degree to which the universities have been subjected to funding cuts by their respective states. The shift towards additional self-sustaining programs dates back beyond the past decade; It corresponds to early cuts in financial support by the states. Universities have presented their shift towards SSDPs in their policy statements in different ways. Although the loss of financial support for flagship universities, such as the University of Michigan and the University of California, is not a new experience, the pace and extent of the cuts have caused major ramifications, including substantial increases in tuition fees.

Summary

The challenges for organization and governance of universities, in particular public institutions, in the U.S. are not unique; they are shared internationally. The trend which gives increasing momentum to demands that universities adopt more and more characteristics of corporate businesses in their struggle to survive financially and to thrive competitively in a global marketplace, is recognizable in all developed and many developing countries. Rarely are changes executed overnight; the complexity of university governance with its multiple levels and interconnections of accountabilities, makes analysis of the layered of needs of stakeholders in this emerging response to "behave like a business" equally complex and varied.

The globally shared thrust for operational changes in response to the external pressures of the market demands, channels the questions regarding transformation of

governance into philosophical areas. For example, there is a question whether international collaborations in research and teaching, and accessibility for students will bring evolution or damage to mission and quality of higher education. International collaborations also raise questions about whether it signals a trend towards a global standardization of education. While global standardization may be necessary for equity in qualifications and assurance of competencies, it in turn demands focus on social responsibility issues reflective of social mission to meet diverse needs and ultimately leads also into the areas of curriculum and admission standards. Higher education may learn to operate more efficiently by turning to business models, but the corporate world also has a great deal to learn about the constantly changing, necessarily diverse nature of the commodity (i.e. education) it is looking to manage, buy, and sell.

Chapter Four - Methods and Context for Study

In this chapter, I present the overall objective of this study and the research questions derived from the initial pilot study, which laid the foundation of this research. I also sketch the larger historical economic and institutional context for this study. The objective of this research is to identify various organizational design and delivery options for SSDPs, which may take advantage of their privatized and self-sufficient nature to address some of the access and equity issues of underrepresented groups (e.g., use of technology, political bypass of barriers preventing the publicly supported activities).

Research Design

Based on the information obtained through my earlier pilot study, I utilized a comparative case study approach, which was the best fit for reviewing complex issues surrounding organizations, policies, or processes. The case study method is an empirical examination of a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context; multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin, 2013). This method provides researchers with an opportunity to analyze events and the conditions that led to these events. Using the case study method also provides researchers with a window through which relational factors among people, organizations, and situations can be explored and examined. This study is based on document analysis and one-on-one, face-to-face interviews with 16 faculty members, 4 administrators, and 15 students/alumni. In addition to qualitative analysis of internal and external organizational documents, a quantitative process was used for secondary data from various government-based and industry-based organizations.

Research Questions

In light of the accelerated changes in funding sources and trends towards self-sufficiency, it is essential to investigate the policies and practices of such existing programs, which may assist in the design and development of similar programs in the future. The following research questions will guide this study:

1. What were the stated reasons for the establishment of the SSDPs?
2. Has the stated mission changed over time?
3. Have the outcomes met the expectations of alumni, students, and faculty?

Working Hypotheses

Informed by the pilot study, I developed the following working hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The primary reason for PRUs' shift to SSDPs is financial survival.

Hypothesis 2: The primary reason for enrollment in SSDP-PH was career advancement.

Hypothesis 3: The support of faculty for SSDPs will depend on their PRU affiliation.

Comparative Case Study

The selection of International Public University (IPU) and Global Public University (GPU) were based on a number of factors. These two institutions were selected because they are both top-ranked public universities located in urban environments. Additionally, both institutions are strong research universities with schools of public health that offer "quality" education.

The primary difference between these two institutions is the curriculum design of their SSDP-PH programs. IPU offers blended learning (hybrid- 80 percent online and 20 percent in-residence) while GPU only offers their students in-class education. The blended learning format requires IPU to have a different set of protocols and processes

that it must follow. For example, the IPU program requires faculty training to adapt public health curriculum to the online platform while still addressing public health competencies. As a result of the online platform, a separate process has been put in place to test the technology at IPU. At the time of this study, another key difference between IPU and GPU is variations in alumni engagement. While IPU currently has no alumni due to younger age of the program, GPU offers some alumni engagement opportunities.

Similarities between the two universities:

- Both are public institutions.
- Both are top ranking among public universities in the U.S.
- Both are located in urban settings near major employment hubs.
- Both have a Self-Sustaining Degree Program in Public Health (SSDP-PH)
- Both face financial difficulties.
- Differences between the two universities:
- IPU has an online (blended) while GPU offers face-to-face education.
- IPU follows a different set of protocols and processes due to its online format.
- IPU program requires training for faculty to adapt to online platform.
- A separate process needs to be in place to test the technology at IPU.
- GPU's SSDP-PH is 15 years older than IPU's SSDP-PH.
- IPU's SSDP-PH completion cost is the same as its state-supported degree.
- Alumni engagement varies:
    - IPU has no alumni yet because it is a new program.
    - GPU has limited alumni engagement.

Documents Analyses

To answer these questions, I first conducted a comprehensive document analyses that consisted of a variety of official minutes of meetings, memoranda, mission statements, internal studies by task forces, previously conducted and publicly available surveys of stakeholders, external accreditation reports, official manuals of policies and procedures, and programmatic reviews. Additional documents were identified and selected at state's system-wide university where each of the case study subjects was located. Documents of governing boards were also reviewed and analyzed. Privileged documents were primarily used for verification, clarification, and to triangulate various data and interviews. The reason for this broad and comprehensive approach in reviewing and analyzing documents at both breadth and depth was to provide the most complete narrative possible. The analysis was a two-phase process. In phase I, I used a key-words-in-context (KWIC) analysis (Ryan & Bernard, 2003) to assess the institutional commitment to community needs versus a strategic financial decision to access the professional student market. Changes in policy and organizational processes related to admissions standards, fee decisions, curriculum decisions, and evaluations were also examined through this initial phase of document analysis.

In phase II, I used a document summary form (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Each document was reviewed and summarized to include notes on the document name, purpose, significance, and key issues related to the rationale for creating the self-sustaining program and the decision-making processes for its policies and procedures.

Interviews

In addition to reviewing documents, I conducted individual interviews either face-to-face or via telephone at the two PRUs. The interviews were conducted over a nine month period. I purposefully selected and interviewed multiple stakeholders affiliated with public health programs, which included the following stakeholders:

1. Clinical and adjunct faculty (full-time and part-time)
2. Tenured faculty
3. Administrators (operations and leadership levels)
4. Students (at different stages of degree completion)
5. Alumni (from different years of graduation)

In my sampling procedure, I identified study participants from the various specialization areas of public health programs. The sampling process provided the opportunity to interview stakeholders, who are uniquely informative (Maxwell, 2012). The interview format was semi-structured, with pre-designed foundational questions that allowed relational responses, such as value and effectiveness. Additionally, these foundational questions became the basis for more specific questions (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004). The grouping of interview questions allowed for a systematic and efficient collection of data within the interview time boundary of 45 to 90 minutes. The semi-structured technique increased the internal validity and contextual understanding of the processes and outcomes because it allows for a better understanding of the interviewees' comments (Maxwell, 2012). All interviews were professionally transcribed verbatim and checked for accuracy. Additionally, all participants either selected their own pseudonym or were assigned a pseudonym retrospectively. Assigning pseudonyms was one way to establish

the confidentiality of this research study. Providing confidentiality to study participants increased trustworthiness and the validity of this study because comments were not attributed to specific participants. This practice encouraged participants to be more open and honest about their opinions and experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

In total, I interviewed 40 direct stakeholders of both SSDP-PH. In addition, I interviewed 6 stakeholders at other institutions for a qualitative comparison of trends in the subject matter. At the SSDP-PH at GPU, which is a more established program after having been in operation for over 15 years, I interviewed 27 individuals: 12 faculty members (6 tenured, 6 adjunct); 7 administrators; and 8 alumni from various graduation years. At IPU, I interviewed 13 individuals: 4 faculty members (2 tenured, 2 adjunct); 4 administrators; and 5 students. These interviews provided unique and diverse perspectives on SSDP-PH at the two institutions.

Data Analysis

As is typical of case study research, this study generated large quantities of data that needed to be reduced into meaningful segments (Yin, 2013). Data analysis techniques employed in this study include triangulation, thematic analysis, and cross-case synthesis. First, I reviewed all the document summary forms and made notes on key themes related to the first research question. These themes were used to formulate interviews and to guide the analysis of the interviews. Next, I read the transcribed interviews and took notes on my thoughts and assumptions related to the themes revealed in the document analysis. Then, I created a codebook that provided a clear description of each code and defined the parameters of code usage.

The codes included various categories related to the thoughts and feelings of each stakeholder group about admissions, curriculum, operational policies, and outcomes. After coding each transcript by utilizing the HyperSoft, a qualitative data analysis program, I ran reports for each code to produce systematically derived themes from the faculty, administrator, and student/alumni interviews. The program was also used to generate the frequencies by which each code appeared, presented in Table 4.1 on page 107. Subsequently, interview data and document-based data from organization and other sources were cross-referenced and complemented for each case study. Following this step, cross-case analysis of the data was facilitated by placing the evidence in a matrix of categories to examine similarities and differences across cases (Bland, 2009; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Table 4.1- Coding Frequency Report

Code	Total	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev	Bar G
Access	12	0	3	0.444	0.801	
Accreditation	11	0	2	0.407	0.572	
Admissions General	10	0	2	0.37	0.629	
Admissions Impact	8	0	1	0.296	0.465	
Alumni Outreach	22	0	10	0.815	1.962	
Alumni Participation	14	0	3	0.519	0.893	
Brand	16	0	5	0.593	1.083	
Career Advancement	11	0	3	0.407	0.747	
Contribution/learning	11	0	2	0.407	0.636	
Curriculum Design	9	0	7	0.333	1.359	
Curriculum Development	4	0	1	0.148	0.362	
Curriculum Rigor	5	0	2	0.185	0.483	
Entrepreneurial vs Traditional	10	0	8	0.37	1.548	
Evaluation	10	0	5	0.37	1.115	
Faculty/Leader	57	0	11	2.111	2.547	
Flexibility	24	0	8	0.889	1.761	
Globalization	14	0	3	0.519	0.849	
Hybrid	31	0	6	1.148	1.61	
Improvements	21	0	5	0.778	1.34	
Learning Outcomes	22	0	4	0.815	1.039	
Market Demand	22	0	7	0.815	1.545	
Marketing	11	0	3	0.407	0.694	
Mission	16	0	4	0.593	1.118	
Network	23	0	6	0.852	1.657	
Online vs. Traditional	21	0	5	0.778	1.188	
Other	1	0	1	0.037	0.192	
Outcome Value for Students	19	0	8	0.704	1.898	
PD Negative	9	0	5	0.333	1	
PD Neutral	8	0	2	0.296	0.542	
PD Positive	21	0	4	0.778	1.188	
Process of Establishing or Sustaining SSP	39	0	7	1.444	2.17	
Program Satisfaction	12	0	3	0.444	0.751	
Program Strengths	27	0	7	1	1.468	
Program Value to University or Faculty	23	0	5	0.852	1.433	
Program Weaknesses	27	0	6	1	1.414	
Public Good	4	0	3	0.148	0.602	
Quality Neutral	5	0	2	0.185	0.483	
Rankings	17	0	4	0.63	1.149	
Revenue Generation/Funding	29	0	5	1.074	1.639	
Self Protection/Self Interest	10	0	6	0.37	1.275	

Code	Total	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev	Bar G
SSP Improvements	9	0	2	0.333	0.62	
SSP Negative	20	0	4	0.741	1.318	
SSP Positive	36	0	7	1.333	2.236	
Staff Negative	7	0	2	0.259	0.594	
Staff Neutral	1	0	1	0.037	0.192	
Staff Positive	33	0	4	1.222	1.281	
Standardized Tests	23	0	4	0.852	0.949	
State Support/Economy	7	0	4	0.259	0.859	
Student Quaility/Diversity	27	0	3	1	0.961	
Student/Faculty Engagement	33	0	14	1.222	2.764	
Technology Adoption	26	0	8	0.963	1.786	
Technology Negative	23	0	3	0.852	1.099	
Technology Neutral	10	0	2	0.37	0.629	
Technology Positive	78	0	10	2.889	2.694	
Tuition/Finance	24	0	6	0.889	1.625	

Role of the Researcher

Merriam (1998) highlighted that a researcher's "observations and analyses are filtered through the researcher's worldview, values, and perspectives" (p. 22). Therefore, the researcher should identify her or his attributes, which will lead to better understanding of the setting and topic that may influence her or his interpretation of the phenomenon (Creswell, 2008). Creswell (2003) suggested that a researcher using qualitative methods should be sensitive to the risk that the "personal-self becomes inseparable from researcher-self" (p. 182). It is also important to acknowledge a researcher's background, which forms personal interests, biases, and values. To reduce potential risk of introducing biases in the study, I engaged in a level of self-interrogation (Schensul, Schensul, & LeCompte, 1999) to keep the conclusions and interpretations that I draw from my individual interviews and analyses of documents. Continuous use of this process at every stage of the research enabled me to identify and mitigate if and when such biases impacted objectivity during this study.

I identified and assessed several biases in order to address their potential impact on my design and application of this research. These biases include my philosophical beliefs and my professional experiences specific to the subject and field of this study. My initial interest in the topic and my hypotheses are primary indicators of my potential and systematic biases. My reference to education and health as basic human rights with an attempt to validate this belief using United Nations Charters provides a window into my core values and policy biases. Presenting issues of the need for diversity, language, and cultural competencies in health care delivery systems through my literature review are yet another indicator of areas for potential biases.

My guiding principle and personal philosophy regarding education and health are that they both are considered basic human rights. This view is further validated by United Nations' Article 26 on education, whereby most of the world's community agreed that education is a human right, that "technical and professional education . . . and higher education shall be equally accessible to all" (United Nations General Assembly, 1948). The world community also agrees on health as a human right, "to protect and promote the health of all people . . . reaffirms health as a human right" (World Health Organization, 1978). I strongly believe that education is one of the most fundamental individual rights and the most important component of the fabric in society. It is also a barometer of a society's accomplishments and future potential in terms of advancements in social justice. The foundation of a society's advancements in economics is also rooted in education as well as health care, another important individual right. If our society continues to deny, be it implicitly or out of ignorance, access to higher education for marginalized or disadvantaged populations on the basis of race or socioeconomic status, then we will be complicit in perpetuating the myth that some segments of our population are not deserving of nor capable of the opportunity to become full and contributing members of our society. Higher education is, in a sense, a great social equalizer.

As a professional in the field of health and education, I served several roles in SSDPs and consider myself an "insider" with 20 years of firsthand knowledge of stand-alone and self-sustaining programs. As a former student of an SSDP, I became actively involved in alumni leadership roles. As a faculty member, I taught in various SSDPs over the past two decades. Finally, I assisted in the creation of SSDPs at public and private

research universities and was also involved in leadership roles in higher education programs.

Although there was an inherent risk of bias when I interviewed my participants, I believe that the multiple roles in which I have been involved, the rapidly changing landscape of SSDPs, and the diversity in institutional settings and cultures most likely have balanced these potential biases. Moreover, as a result of this awareness and as an attempt to mitigate my personal biases, I informed the study participants of my experience and gave them the opportunity to provide feedback to my analyses and interpretations during the data analysis phase (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I adopted a detached and broad approach in analysis that differs from my previous roles. I did not share my core values, beliefs, or outcome of experiences with participants to avoid influencing their responses to my interview questions.

Chapter Five- Findings – Documents

In this chapter, I present the findings from reviewing internal and public documents from both SSDP case studies. Review of these official documents provides insight into the creation and operation of SSDPs leading to graduate professional degrees in Public Health in both these institutions. Analysis of these documents provides understanding into the divergent nature of these two SSDPs even though they are under the umbrella of same state-wide system of policies and regulations. What is unique to both these institutions are the different set of protocols and processes which were in place to align with their respective institutional and program objectives. Document review allowed me as a researcher to determine whether the motivation to establish a SSDP and decrease dependence on public funds was mission-driven or provided an additional channel to enhance revenue. Analysis of faculty surveys from GPU SSDP-PH shows general support for SSDPs and shared opinion that the quality of students within these programs have improved in comparison to in-residence programs. In terms of perception, majority of the respondents thought that the GPU SSDP programs' impact was positive in terms of financial and non-financial contributions to the division, SPH and GPU because the benefits of the program exceeded the costs. Detailed analysis and review of the internal and public documentation also allowed for the comparison of both these institutions in terms of establishment, program design, support provided to faculty, resources provided to students, and the perceptions that defined the design of each respective program.

Global University SSDP-PH

Review of internal and public documents at the GPU provided insight into the genesis of its SSDP-PH and the process through which its programs were established. In the years leading to the start of the program, several GPU faculty members with public health focus received inquiries from various health professionals regarding programs tailored for full time working professionals. In the late 1980s to early 1990s studies were conducted to gauge market demand for such programs and to identify a pricing (tuition) range for its potential target audience. One study specifically was to address the following questions:

- Who to target in terms of marketing the SSDP-PH
- How to position the SSDP-PH
- How much to charge for the SSDP-PH
- Whether the design and structure can effectively meet customer demand

The research objective was to identify the most appropriate target group. According to this final marketing research report, in-person and phone interviews were conducted among key-stakeholders within GPU and at the community level. Community level stakeholders included health professionals and administrators at private, government, and non-governmental organizations. In addition, surveys were administered with questions designed to determine the level of demand among various target groups. The study identified three potential market segments which included physicians, consultants, and administrators in healthcare sectors.

The competitive and viability analysis through this study identified other similarly-ranked academic institutions with SSPs and SSDPs with healthcare

concentration. Interviews with administrators and faculty members of SSDP-PH programs were conducted these other institutions, including University of Michigan and University of North Carolina to gain insight into design and operational challenges of SSDP-PH programs with additional focus on curriculum and pricing strategies. Interviews with program directors and review of SSPs at other similarly ranked universities in other regions had revealed and wide spectrum of successful program with different target markets. Some programs were catered towards middle managers in public and private organizations with their highest educational attainments at baccalaureate level. Others, including Harvard, were tailored towards highly educated and advanced professionals. Additional review and interviews regarding format, scheduling, and venue selection provided information on other SSP programs' marketing and operational strategies. Some programs were structured to bring students from across the nation, with classes over an extended period of time during the summer or once a month for a long weekend, while others brought instructors to specific territories every week. The exploratory research of other programs demonstrated the importance of identifying the appropriate target group and the corresponding curriculum format. Information on desirability of curriculum content, scheduling, and tuition range provided valuable guidance on potential revenue stream, which was high among the institutional objectives in starting SSPs. The results of the interviews and surveys supported the perceived demand for SSDP-PH at GPU. The interviews suggested several potential target groups in both public and private sectors. The survey results estimated strong demand among clinicians, followed by administrators and allied health professionals. Among the respondents with strong interest for enrollment in SSDP-PH programs, 70 percent were

physicians and nurses. The remaining 30 percent of interested professionals represented non-clinical middle management personnel in healthcare organizations (11%), pharmacists and allied healthcare providers (11%), and researchers and business community professionals (bankers, lawyers, etc.) representing the remaining groups (8%) who were interested in enrollment in such a degree-based programs. Feedback regarding the proposed course offering and curriculum format was very positive with 100 percent of the respondents indicating that both format and delivery design was acceptable. On the question of curriculum meeting potential participants' professional and personal goals, the respondents' responses yielded mean scores of 6.0 and 6.3 (ranked on scale of 1-7) respectively. Result of the interviews and surveys, lack of competition in the region at the time of the study, and success of similar programs in their respective regions provided the incentive for the unit-level leadership to initiate application process for starting the SSDP programs.

Policies and Procedures for SSPs

Similar to many other flagship universities in the U.S., GPU is part of a larger system of a State Public Research University (SPRU) and is subject to various policies and procedures, including those related to starting and operating SSPs and SSDPs. Review and analysis of the SPRU with which GPU is affiliated provides an insight in transition and modifications of policies and procedures for SSPs and SSDPs. The oldest SSDP-related policy document identified for this research through public and institutional-level search is an "Internal Correspondence" dated July 30, 1979 (State Public Research University Documents, 1979-2013).

In this document in which the implementation of policies was made "effective immediately," development of SSDPs for professionals is attributed to the need for "extending the opportunity … to those who need to continue their employment while studying …" This communication also refers to creating SSDPs "… is consistent with the University's mission …" Specific guidelines were provided for the affiliated PRUs to follow in their decision to create and operate SSDPs. The guidelines address the process for needs assessment, interaction of SSDPs with traditional degree programs, SSDP proposal and review process for approval within the affiliate PRU and by the SPRU. The policy announcement also addressed operating guidelines including admissions, enrollment, student fees, and funding. More specifically, in order to establish a SSDP the academic unit under which the SSDP was proposed to operate had to "… demonstrate [that there was] a need for them to exist." Furthermore, the policy stated that the SSDP "… shall not be undertaken if they strain the resources …" of the unit that "sponsors them." The SSDPs were envisioned as programs to be housed outside the main campus of the university under which they were to operate. Although the programs were to be housed off-campus, flexibility was afforded the local unit to show justification for on-campus operations. The primary focus on pricing the tuition was that "In exceptional cases, special student fees, over and above regular fees may be levied to meet portion of the cost of the program." The 1997 policy suggests a more mission-driven approach compared to later policies that may be seen as revenue driven.

A revision to the 1997 policy was communicated in June 1996. The language in the new directive's preamble presents a clear transition in policy from "extending the opportunity … to those who need to continue their employment while studying …" to

"The University has entered an era in which state funding for higher education has been reduced and is not expected to represent in the future the proportion of the University's budget that it has in the past." The policy statement presents two "… interrelated challenges: How can the University extend its degree programs to serve new groups of students? And how can the University find new and creative ways to fund degree programs?" The content of this document provides an insight into the intricate process for a public university to modify its policies and procedure. PRUs requirements and adherence to shared governance also extends the timeline for building consensus towards a common goal. The document reveals a two year process for the SPRU to enact modification of its 17 year-old policy on SSDPs. The revised policy encourages "expanding" SSDP, offering programs "… in both on-campus and off-campus locations and through electronic means." The 1996 policy statement clarifies SPRU's position on initial start-up cost of a SSDP program with the provision of "… becoming fully self-supporting as quickly as possible." The revised objectives for creation of SSDPs include sponsoring academic unit's "… access to additional field-based resources (working students, their employers, and field –based lecturers) that is beneficial to students and university. In contrast to the 1979 policy where a SSDP was required to operate in facilities off campus, the 1996 policy provided flexibility by allowing SSDPs to offer courses at on-campus or off-campus locations.

In a subsequent policy revision (15 years later) the presented in September 2011, the SPRU policy statement shows further shift towards revenue generation as it articulates the objectives for creation of SSPs and SSDPs.

Faculty Survey

In 2010 GPU's SSDP-PH administrative staff surveyed its faculty members to assess the faculty members' perception of the SSDP-PH operations. Based on response data from the faculty survey where 31faculty members were surveyed, not all answered every question. Of the 28 faculty who responded, 14 (50%) were affiliated with GPU as adjunct faculty and 11 (39%) were considered tenured faculty. Smaller portions of the faculty were made up of visiting faculty and lecturers.

Of the 26 respondents who listed their GPU academic ranking, 12 were Professors, 8 were Associate Professors, 5 were Assistant Professors, and 1 was a Lecturer. Of those who responded to this survey question (n=29), 13 of respondents had less than 10 years of experience in academic teaching. Seven faculty respondents had 10-20 years of academic teaching experience and 9 respondents had greater than 20 years of experience. When asked about years of academic teaching at the GPU SSDP-PH, 15 of the 25 faculty respondents had been teaching for less than five years, and 10 of the 25 had been teaching greater than five years. This can be related to the age of the program or change in administration or program style. Of the 27 respondents, 15 faculty members had greater than 21 years of experience in the healthcare industry. Three of the 27 respondents had between 5-10 years of experience, while nine had between 11-20 years of experience in the healthcare industry.

In terms of experience at GPU SSDP program, at the time when the survey was conducted, 19 of the 25 respondents were then current faculty members. In a program of this size, those involved fulfilled multiple roles. Eight of the respondents had experience with having served in advisory capacity for the GPU SSDP-PH strategic planning. When

asked whether faculty were aware of the SSDP's contributions to the division, school or university, 24 of the responses said that they were aware that the program provided direct/indirect financial contribution to the division, SPH and GPU. Twenty-five of the responses were aware of GPU SSDP contributions to the division, SPH and GPU in the form of direct/indirect non-financial contributions, such as graduates, alumni, doctoral students and image.

In terms of perception, majority of the respondents thought that the GPU SSDP programs' impact on the division, SPH and GPU was positive in terms of financial contributions because the benefits of the program exceeded the costs. Some also thought that the SSDP provided non-financial contribution to the division, SPH and GPU. A smaller portion of the faculty respondents felt that the program should provide additional information to its' faculty. With respect to the SSDP's the negative impact on the home department, SPH, and GPU, only 11 out of 31 faculty members answered this question. Majority of the respondents stated that the program should provide additional information to faculty, whereas only 1 respondent thought that the impact of the SSDP on the division, SPH and GPU was negative with respect to financial contributions since the costs exceeds the benefits. The response data revealed that SSDP-PH faculty relied on various methods to measure and assess students' performance and competencies. Figure 5.1 provides a view of faculty members' mix of methods for assessment. Analysis of the descriptive responses revealed that the modes of assessments were also content – dependent. For example, a quantitative-oriented course had a higher portion of the grades based on exams, whereas a leadership or evaluation course had a higher percentage of the grades associated with written analysis. Competency of the student were measured based

on all the domains listed in Figure 5.2 below. Students' competencies and grading is assessed mainly on their written and individual work. Exams and quality of group work are also other categories of assessment used by the faculty.

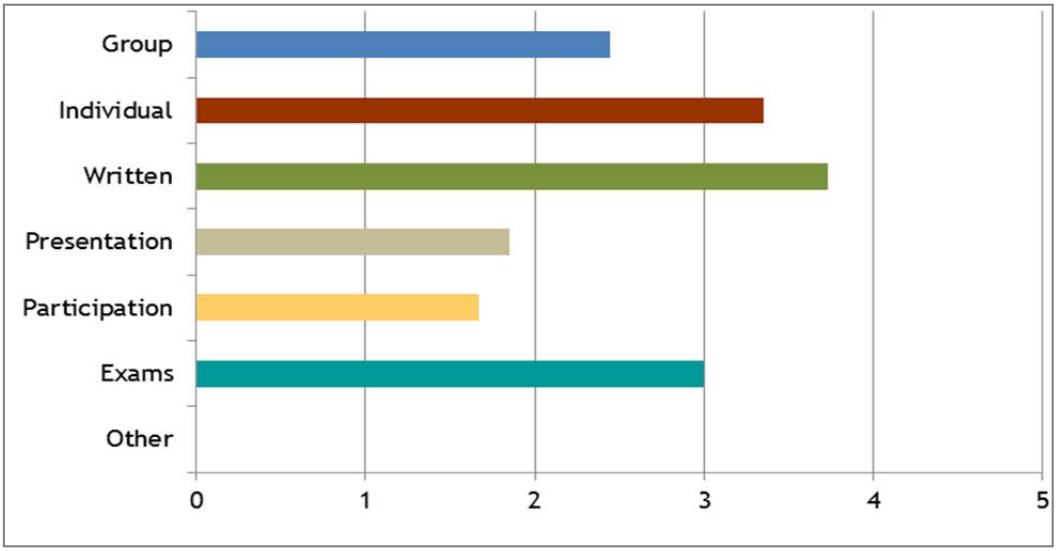


Figure 5.1 - Categories of student competencies and grading.
This figure illustrates the categories faculty use to assess student grades and competencies

.

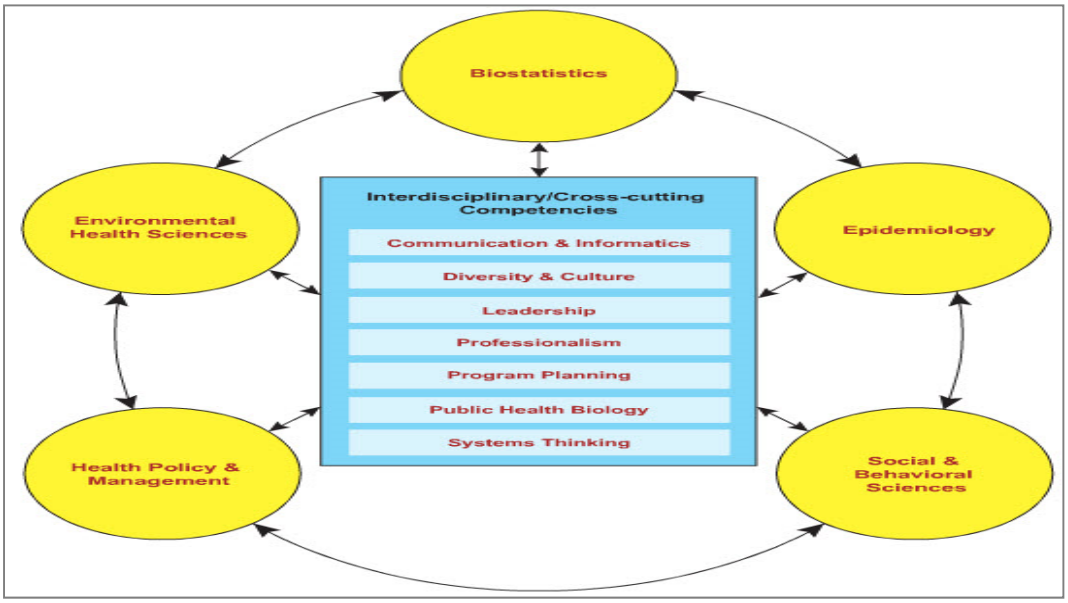


Figure 5.2- Association of Schools of Public health Core Competency Model
Reprinted from, "Development of a Core Competency Model for the Master of Public Health Degree,"

When asked to consider the quality of regular program students, majority of faculty thought that the quality of SSDP-PH students were of higher or equal quality when compared to their counterpart in the regular in-residence day program. Of those who were of the opinion that the quality of SSDP-PH students were of equal or of greater quality than regular program students, respondents stated that the quality of SSDP-PH students could be improved beyond its current level with the use of boot-camps and curriculum primers before the start of the program, while others supported the increased use of technology.

Majority of the faculty are of the opinion that the quality of students in terms of engagement and participation has improved over the years. Fourteen percent of responses felt the quality of students in terms of engagement and participation has decreased while 24% of responses were of the opinion that the quality had remained the same. Another category used to assess the quality of students is based on the quality of their written reports. Approximately 11% of 19 respondents were of the opinion that the quality significantly improve, nearly 37% said that the quality improved, 47% thought the quality stayed the same while 5 % thought the quality decreased50% of 18 respondents said the quality of students based on presentation skills stayed the sample, while the other 50% thought the quality improved. No respondents stated that the quality of students decreased based on presentation skills. 53% of respondents said the quality of students based on integration skills improved, of which 10.5% said that the quality of students significantly improved. While 47% of respondents said the quality remained the same. In terms of analytical skills, approximately 43% of the respondents thought the quality of students within the GPU SSDP-PH had improved over the years, nearly 53% of

respondents thought the quality had stayed the same and a little over 5% (1 respondent) thought the quality of students had decreased when assessed based on their analytical skills. In regard to quality of SSDP-PH students in terms of leadership potential, nearly 45% of 20 respondents thought the quality of students had improved, while approximately 45% thought quality had stayed the same and less than 10% (2 respondents) thought the quality had decreased. In regard to the students understanding of the healthcare industry, 50% of the 20 respondents thought the quality of SSDP students has stayed the same, 40% are of the opinion that quality of students had improved and 10% think that quality had decreased.

When asked to select the key strengths based on the categories listed in Figure 5.2, the quality of the faculty, students and affiliation with the GPU School of Public Health were the top selected. Figure 5.2 illustrates the faculty's perception of the key strengths and weaknesses of the SSDP.

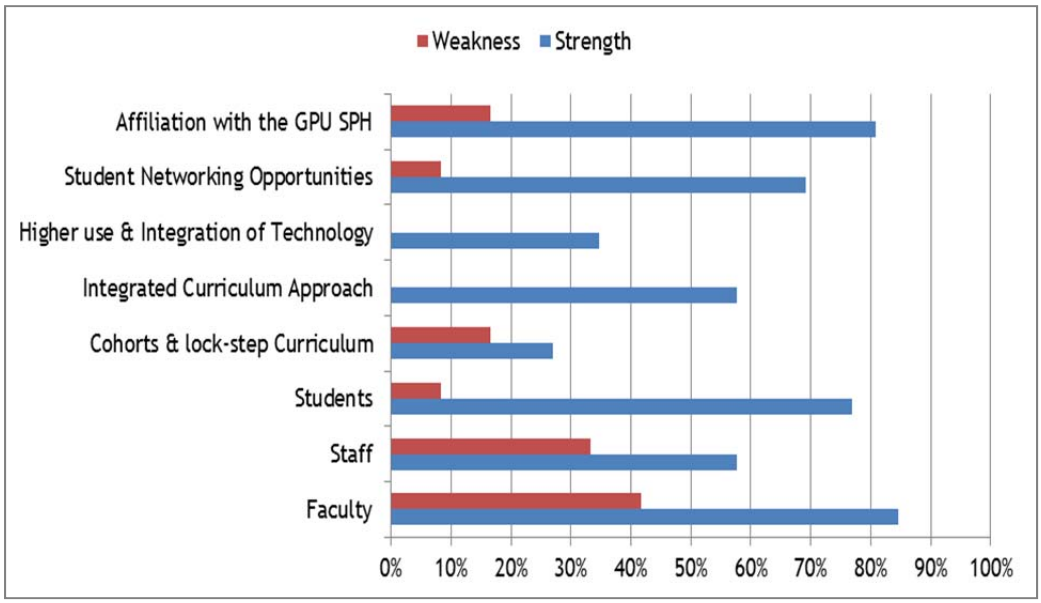


Figure 5.3 – Strengths and weaknesses of SSDP.
This figure illustrates the key strengths and weaknesses of the SSDP according to the faculty.

International University SSDP-PH

Review of documents at the International Public Research University (IPU) and its state-wide system (SPRU) provided information on IPUs previous attempts to establish a SSDP-PH, with their final effort leading to the launch of the current hybrid program. Documents also revealed that a concerted effort was championed by a member of the faculty who had gained the respect of his colleagues and administrative body.

During each of the previous attempts to establish a SSDP-PH program, the IPU conducted a market analysis in order to gauge the community need and individual demand for the degree-based program. IPU's institutional-level requirement for operating a SSDP is to incorporate appropriate time-line within which the program will achieve financial independence and become sustainable in order to subsequently provide additional resources to the institution.

IPUs earliest attempt (1996) at establishing its SSDP-PH was met with resistance by fellow faculty members and institutional obstacles. Those faculty members who resisted the establishment of a SSDP voiced their concern on potential issues of capacity and sustainability. Many were concerned about the lack of tenured faculty to adequately expand their teaching in order to cover the core courses for the proposed SSDP. The faculty members at IPU were mostly focused on research and publications, and were more interested in "course buy-out" (paying the university to reduce their teaching load). Furthermore, at the time of initial proposal the tenured faculty members were reluctant to expand teaching capacity at IPU through hiring of adjunct and part-time faculty, although various university documents indicate that the university charter provided for this option. As a result of this resistance and to avoid discourse, this proposal was stalled.

Fifteen years following the earliest attempt, the proposal to create this particular SSDP received support at various levels of IPU leadership. Over the past decade, existing SSDPs at IPU had raised substantial funds for the institution. The design and delivery of blended learning programs further enhanced revenues with increased enrollments from diverse geographical areas including many international sites.

Public research university governance is a shared model between faculty and administration. Although the administrative leadership was very supportive of the proposal to create and expand SSDPs, proposal for these programs has to be presented to the faculty for their support and approval. Justifications presented by the administrative leadership and supporting faculty included the following:

- Existing SSDPs served the mission of the university.
- SSDPs brought unique student cohorts of working professionals.

Those faculty members in support of the creation of these programs presented their more reluctant colleagues their views that teaching in SSDP programs provided unique and interesting challenge due to interaction of experienced professionals with varied perspectives. The leadership and supporting faculty who proposed the new blended SSDP-PH believed that the success of an SSDP will depend on broad faculty support and their willingness to engage in various capacities of teaching, advising, or mentoring SSDP students.

In response to questions raised by faculty members who were not clear on the value and purpose of SSDPs, the leadership had responded that SSDPs had proven to be a successful approach, especially for professional schools to start these programs that would otherwise be too expensive to offer through conventional methods. Further

discussion focused on institutions' continued decline in receiving public financial support, and that SSPs and SSDPs can serve as an effective vehicle for revenue generation. From these revenue sources, in-residence students who are increasingly affected by tuition increases have been able to receive some relief in the form of scholarships and teaching assistant opportunities.

The system-wide changes and additional flexibility afforded the university, combined with the "can-do" attitude of new leadership at several levels of IPU, provided the positive environment to initiate this program. This SSDP was designed with the complete parity with regular (in-resident) program, which is mostly supported by student fees and tuition and supplemented with state funding, whereas the SSDPs are solely supported by student fees and tuitions. The program was designed for an equal number of tenured and adjunct/lecturer faculty to engage in teaching activities. The program financial projection was based on a break-even point to occur within four years of its inception. A line of credit was extended to the program by IPU campus, from which to draw and to cover operating expenses. The credit line was proposed to be paid off from future profits of the program.

Due to the changing economic landscape and perceptions, tenured faculty had less resistance to the idea of hiring adjunct and part-time faculty since the diminishing public funding had substantially reduced institutional ability to recruit and retain faculty in tenured positions. Many members of tenured faculty also agreed with the administrative leadership that the use of adjunct/part-time faculty in professional degree programs would have a complementary effect resulting in the melding of theory with industry

practice, which was demanded by students and proved to be beneficial to their learning experience.

Review of the documents revealed sentiment of some who had made the assertion that SSDPs will take away resources from in-resident programs, which in response, the leadership made further assertion that the SSPs and SSDPs had not jeopardized the quality and access to regular in-residence programs. In response to some faculty concern that access to faculty may be crowded, evidence was provided that the faculty – student ratio had not changed when SSDPs successfully recruited highly qualified part-time and adjunct professionals to supplement the in-resident and tenured faculty, alleviating potential overload in student contact hours for faculty. Finally, in response to concerns for crowding of staff with student services; which may result in reduced faculty support by the staff, the leadership had provided evidence that through revenues generated from SSPs and SSDPs and their sharing arrangements with the operating units (division, department, school, etc.), support of core faculty had become more sustainable despite reductions in public funding for staff and infrastructure.

For a public research university of its caliber, especially within the state in which it resides, this program was the first of its kind in its delivery and its geographical reach due to its adoption of blended/online learning. The wider geographic reach provided resources for its operating unit and the institution. The leadership presented that the financial contributions of SSDPs and other SSPs have provided a solid support for common goods by reducing institutional dependence on the dwindling public support and funding. According to its system-wide policy on SSDPs, the programs were designed to adhere to the same review and quality control process as any other in-resident degree

programs. Hiring and retention of faculty in these programs were to be in line with the same standards as those in the "regular" state-supported programs. Applications and admissions to SSDPs were to follow the same criteria as those in the regular programs. For the IPU's SSDP-PH, while the admissions process was the same as the in-resident programs, the frequency of its application, admissions, and matriculation was expanded to three times in an academic year compared to the once-per-academic-year application and admission in the regular in-resident programs.

Based on the review of documents, recommendations associated with expansion of SSDPs include the following:

- The establishment of SSDPs should serve the interests of the institution.
- There should be broad consultation and collaboration within the institutions.
- SSDP proposals should incorporate market analysis to assess the need.
- SSDP students should be allowed to enroll concurrently in regular courses.
- SSDPs should allow concurrent enrollment of their students in regular courses.
- Guidelines should favor SSDPs hiring extra teaching capacity and redistribution.
- SSDP responsibilities should not have negative impact on regular programs.
- SSDP program revenues should be shared with other units by way of a MOU.

Summary

Both GPU and IPU are top-ranking public universities under an umbrella of a larger state-wide public research university system and are subject to common policies and procedures. These universities have been branded as high-ranking institutions that provide high-quality education and research. Located in urban settings centered near key

employment hubs, both public institutions attract highly qualified students and have developed strong alumni networks.

Diminishing state financial support has led both institutions towards the development of SSDPs in various disciplines. The primary focus of this case study has been on the creation and operation of SSDPs leading to graduate professional degrees in public health. While GPU offers a more traditional in-class experience for their students, IPU provides a blended (in-resident and online) education that caters to students who are working professionals. Due to the different set of protocols and processes required of blended education, the IPU program requires training of faculty to adapt their curriculum to the online platform while still addressing the competency-based education for their students and to meet related accreditation requirements.

Review and analysis of GPU's internal and public documents provided insight into the processes, policies, and politics in institutions of higher education through the lens of these case study subjects. Review of survey documents provided key insight into the strengths and weaknesses of the GPU's SSDP-PH. In terms of alumni engagement, many alumni believed that there was a lack of sustained commitment by their SSDP. They also felt that alumni engagement should go beyond the usual fundraising goals. Many advocated for learning opportunities to continually refine their skill sets.

Review of documents at the International Public Research University (IPU) and its state-wide system (SPRU) provided information on IPUs previous attempts to establish a SSDP-PH, with their final effort leading to the launch of the current hybrid program. Documents also revealed that a concerted effort was championed by a member of the faculty who had gained the respect of his colleagues and administrative body.

Chapter Six: Findings and Discussion

In this chapter, I present findings from two case studies conducted at Global Public University and International Public University, which are both PRUs in the United States. I introduce seven key themes emerging from the data collected, which include mission and market demand, admissions and branding, curriculum and technology adoption, mission drift and realignment, faculty and shared governance, student outcomes, and the future of SSDPs. I present data from interviews I conducted with 46 faculty, administrators, students, and alumni.

Mission and Public Good

Participants revealed the complexity associated with a public research university hosting self-sustaining programs. Faculty members, administrators, and alumni described how the role of a public university had slowly drifted away from the original mission for which these institutions were created. A number of participants cited how public universities have to meet the needs of individual citizens and society as a whole, but they also have to consider financial stability. For example, Jack, a tenured faculty member GPU shared:

> *A public university has to be responsive to the needs of the people and the state. I think the state has not upheld its commitment. The state established the university system with the goal of providing university education, as a public good, and the states have not maintained their commitment to funding those institutions. So the institution moves into a mode where it has to balance because it's a large organization it has a survival instinct,*

but meeting the needs of the community and surviving might lead them to go in opposite directions.

Public universities that are looking to make up for a reduction in public funding move into the realm of competing with highly resourced private institutions. Participants like Vivian, an alumna of GPU, described the challenges this created:

I think it's an abuse of the trust of who developed these programs before they were able to be privately supported. That the employees and professors they use this system, you know can't have the benefit of being on a [state system] campus and the [state system] benefits. And you can't pick and choose what you want. And the pursuit of being a strong program for [our state] to me is more important than the pursuit of being a world class program.

Some participants like Vivian believe the mission should not drift towards a private model just because of a decrease in funding. The state system campuses must continue to support the public good mission in spite of the state-funding and budget shortfalls. The drift towards prestige seeking and attempting to compete with elite institutions does not coincide with serving the public good for the state. While some participants felt that their state institution should adhere to with the public good mission no matter the circumstances, other participants like Arthur, an adjunct faculty member at GPU, believes in the inevitability of PRUs' moving towards a private model. He suggested:

They are not going to be able to survive and be competitive with private universities without [having SSDP]. And now those funds are either going

to have to come through significant funding from research and professional schools. Or really driving toward more of a private model where tuition is set more in accord with what the market can bear.

Participants who shared Arthur's sentiments believe that public institutions have to generate the revenue as a matter of surviving. Public institutions cannot serve the intended public good mission if they cannot generate enough revenue to remain viable. However, the creation of SSPs and the increased costs to students may spur public backlash as citizens see higher education at the undergraduate and graduate levels as being less accessible due to the higher cost of tuition. Adam, an adjunct faculty member at GPU, described this idea:

If you look at the mission of the university just to educate the leaders of tomorrow so in that sense anything that increases graduate student output is a benefit, so I would say it is a benefit. But I think the challenge comes in when you ascribe the prefixed self-sustaining program to it because then the context of the university becomes quite important in the sense that whether it is seen as a "rich man's playground" or a part of the university, depends on the university context there.

Participants like Adam see a fine line between SSPs and the access to these SSDPs because if the tuition is fixed at a rate in line with market demand, then the perception will be then the public perception will be that only wealthy individuals can afford those programs. From a different perspective, some participants believe that SSPs are essential to supporting the public good mission of the university through the cross

subsidy of non-revenue generating fields of study. Arthur, a tenured faculty member at GPU, contributed:

> *I think self-sustaining programs provide an opportunity to not just benefit the students, the department, or the school in which they are housed. But more broadly the entire university structure particularly by providing an opportunity to kind of fill in some of the gaps for some of those other kinds of programs. So to the extent that we feel there is value over liberal arts education. And I don't know I'm probably biased but I think that's important as an undergrad to create good citizens. A self-sustaining program is really the broader education mission.*

As Arthur described here, SSPs are helping the university to serve the public mission by indirectly subsidizing other programs that are not able to engage in market-like behavior such as liberal arts academic units. In other words, some participants suggested that without the financial subsidy provided for by SSPs, then liberal arts programs would not survive. In terms of the universities' mission to meet the needs of society, participants like Lynn, a tenured faculty member at IPU, believes that IPU is definitely serving the public mission and believes this institution can do so in a sustainable way:

> *I believe that our self-sustaining program does have a great potential to meet public health workforce needs, as you know we are looking at a demographic bolt of retirees in our PH trade workforce, but everywhere. I think that we are going to be able to do it for the long haul. And it is going to be able to continually attract students, in fact, I think we make it to the*

point in four or five years when we'll realize there is more demand than we are able to meet with the quality program.

Some participants believe that the public demand is so great that the SSPs may not have enough capacity to keep up with the workforce needs. Jack, a tenured faculty member at GPU, suggested that the SSPs survival depends largely on how the institution meets the needs of its citizens in terms of the cost of tuition and the structure of the program. He stated:

In particular, self-sustaining programs tend to meet the needs of students who are working professionals. And because of that need to be self-supporting and to focus on working students, it allows or forces them to be more creative about how to schedule classes and come up with formats for classes that meet the needs of that target population. So it serves a different set of students than the traditional university programs do and that's a public good.

In this example, Jack suggested that the SSPs have tapped into a segment of the population that was not previously given proper attention. Therefore, the self-sustaining model expands on as opposed to detract from, the public good mission of the university. However, he did point out the fine line between tapping into the market needs, and needing to pay attention to the SSDP job market salary output. His example was MBA programs and executive MBA programs, which can charge tremendously high prices because companies pay for their employees' tuition, or individuals pay for the tuition themselves and then moves into high-paying fields. In health care, students in a SSPs are not going to earn half a million dollars per year within a few years after graduating from

a program. Therefore, the consideration of what the market can bear has to be within reason of graduates' expanded or limited earning potential. The cost of the program has to be kept manageable. Participants demonstrated the intricacy accompanying the decision for a public research university to have SSPs. A number of participants cited how public universities have to meet the needs of its citizenry, but they also have to consider institutional survival.

Market Demand

The key to the survival of SSPs is the ability to bring in adequate student enrollment. In this theme, faculty, administrators, alumni, and students described their respective program's admissions policies and the role of the university brand and rankings to assess the perceived quality of the SSDPs. From the various points of view of faculty, administrator, and student, the participants provided insights from key stakeholders.

Ranking and Brand

Both GPU's and IPU's brand was a key factor in the recruitment of talented domestic and international students to their respective SSDPs. Additionally, the program delivery method, such as online, hybrid, and in-residence, also made a key difference in students' decisions to attend the program. The intersection of both international talent and program delivery method was put forward by Denise, an administrator at IPU. She described how international students were attracted to the IPU brand but, was not sold on a purely online program delivery. She stated:

> *Even with our brand names. That may start changing, I don't know because right now we find that in students in especially some countries are*

still not entirely comfortable with this notion of an online education, they very much rather come in person to [IPU] to study.

Conversely, domestic students seemed more open to online coursework, but they were focused on the brand and the perception of quality and rigor that was associated with this marker. Dana, a student at IPU, stated:

I definitely didn't look at schools that were predominantly online schools, like I think Argosy has an online program. I can't remember the names of the other ones, but I really only looked at ones that were affiliated with an actual brick and mortar school; like Johns Hopkins, USC and [IPU]. So, all of those have the same – requirements.

While the institutions' brand was important, other students described the importance of rankings, which overlap to some extent with branding. Tom, a student at IPU, focused his attention on rankings as he recounted:

Ranking, to me, is a tool to start with. It was not the final decision. So when I wanted to look at what other options I had, I did start with that list. To say; "how are these programs ranked? And then, how many of them offer online programs? And how do they structure it?"

While Tom utilized the rankings he expressed that he used caution in not weighing the rankings too heavily. Others like Mary, an alumna of GPU and a practicing physician, added to the utility of rankings:

I think that rankings have become important. And it's looking critically at what are we ranking. So one has to be able to be smart enough and have a marketing team smart enough to demonstrate value. So I think ranking is

an important piece, but so long as the ranking has meaning to the people that should be utilizing of being the benefactors of the student or the program.

Mary suggested that rankings should be used effectively to demonstrate the value of the program to prospective students and potential employers. Some students closely examined the program and its reputation. Tom, a student at IPU, best captured this idea, as he stated:

I looked at all the faculty research interest and – a lot of my interest is in Health promotion and Chronic Disease Prevention and so I think that there is a culture of that in the state and I think it's a culture that for the school. And so I think that overall that was one of the major factors. In that -- and there seemed to be a general, from what I could read and I have spoken to a few people that I know out here too; just a great amount of pride and distinction with the program within the university.

Tom insisted that the marketing and program have to be closely aligned. He stated that a good way of going about building a brand is making sure the institution's values are aligned with their actions. The reputation and brand of the institutions served as a key and determining factor for a number of study participants. While a number of students and faculty expressed the importance of branding, there were others who felt that branding was not the only key to success, but that regional quality was an important factor as well. Arthur, an adjunct faculty member at GPU, stated:

In both of the places that where I taught had very strong kind of regional standing from a quality perspective and I think that that's important. Not

all of these programs need to be able to compete nationally in order to be successful. And so I think that it's easy to kind of get a little bit too wrapped in this notion that its national reputation that's really going to lead to success from that.

In many ways, participants believed that SSDPs should focus on maintaining high standards in program quality, which would lead to a strong reputation and strengthen the branding for the institution. Additionally, institutions must demonstrate the value they add to the community and for prospective students. Lastly, participants believed that institutions have to align their mission and values statements with actions.

Admissions

Participants were divided when it came to the practicality and usefulness of standardized tests in the application process. Some participants found the standardized tests to be useful. Tom, a graduate student at IPU, stated:

I think it still matters because it still measures your readiness and ability. I mean, the thing is that the standardized test is nothing more than a set of questions that you've got to learn to prepare for just like anything else in life.

The participants that held this belief viewed standardized tests as an objective criterion for comparing applicants. Other participants like Jack, a tenured faculty member at GPU, elaborated, "I still think the GRE or GMAT is a useful test. For me if a person does really poorly on the GRE or GMAT, that is an indicator that they may have difficulty with graduate level material." This notion of standardized tests measuring an applicant's ability to prepare for academic coursework was a theme mentioned by several

participants. The participants who were supportive of standardized tests often described the tests as "fair." A key example came from Samantha, a graduate student at IPU, who stated:

> *I think it's good that they have some sort of standardized requirement. It feel like you really are trying to get into the program, and you're going through the same process that you're on-campus counterparts are going through. So that when eventually you cross paths and, you know, they're questioning and being skeptical, like, "well, online program didn't," I'm like "well, actually, no. I had to do all the things that you had to get in. And so there's no difference in terms of the structure of how you get accepted."*

Therefore, students from the SSDPs should adhere to all the program requirements similar to the traditional in-residence students, so that the SSDP will not be perceived as less rigorous. These participants described how standardized tests should serve as a benchmark and are a possible indicator for success in the program.

Other participants were less supportive of the utilization of standardized tests during the admission process. A number of participants cited the need for more flexibility for working professionals as compared to students who recently completed their undergraduate education. Susan, the director of a SSDP at GPU, described the consideration that is given to students' previous professional experience when reviewing standardized scores:

> *There is a little more flexibility in the online program in terms of GRE. We required the GRE for admission to our program, but given that we are*

getting a lot of professionals who have been out of school for a long time, depending on their experience or a previous graduate's degrees, we are a little bit more flexible when it comes to the GRE requirement.

Daniela, a GPU alumna and director of a department at a prominent health care system, provided a pertinent example of how professional experience should be considered in standardized scores as she stated:

I had MD's in my program who've passed a lot of standardized testing. So fact that they would not score high on their GRE or GMAT would not be the true representation of their capabilities and their knowledge and skills. I think it should be really considered on the one to one or individual basis, just taking the holistic approach to admissions requirements just looking at the background, professional background, educational background and achievements overall.

Moreover, participants who were less supportive of using standardized tests placed an emphasis on a holistic review of a number of factors that not only indicated success in the program, but also factored in the contribution the applicant would make towards the public good. Lynn, a tenured faculty member at IPU, stated, "Looking at the students' background and their essays, is this a person who will be able to do the work and to the extent that we can tell is this person committed to using the skills in the field." These participants described the need for flexibility in taking into consideration an applicant's professional accomplishments. Some participants believed that an applicant who has served for several years as a physician has demonstrated their capacity for

success. These participants suggested that standardized tests such as the GRE measures abilities that are not indicative of a professional's capability.

Curriculum and Technology Adoption

Curriculum development and the adoption of technology played an important role in the establishment of the SSPs at both IPU and GPU. Participants described the various opportunities and barriers presented in utilizing technology while developing curriculum.

One of the pressing issues in utilizing technology within the curriculum is the issue of ownership. Hybrid courses utilize both in-residence and online modules to deliver course content. Faculty members described the challenge this created when they would create or record something for a course. The main challenge was who owned the recordings and work products. Could the university reuse the video recordings in perpetuity without paying any royalties to the faculty member whose image, voice, and ideas were captured on the video? Faculty members were resistant to the idea of video recordings as they held the belief that the recordings could be used to reduce the need to hire faculty members. Bob, an administrator at IPU, provided an example:

> *And I did have a situation where I had written basically a laboratory manual, and had been told that someone else was going to use. And I said; "well, we need to talk about that. It's not your role to decide who's going to use it. I need to be consulted, and to hear it out." And so there was a little bit sticky. And up there, they go at the policy that if you get workload credit to develop something, then the university has ownership of those materials.*

In this example, Bob described a policy in which faculty members were paid overload stipends to create curriculum, but the university would own those materials. In addition to challenges with intellectual property ownership, some faculty had difficulty with others dictating the content and method of delivery of courses. For example, Arthur, an adjunct faculty member at GPU, stated:

> *There is a greater individual faculty autonomy I think in the non-self-sustaining programs which is both good and bad. It's not the good and bad of autonomy within that self-sustaining program that I became involved with. But there is more of a desire to think about what's relevant and important from the student context. So I think actually in some ways the students end up getting a stronger more practical model while at the same time having a good conceptual understanding or what I call underpinning of the program.*

Arthur believed the students receive a higher quality of instruction because the curriculum was developed with purpose and geared towards students' needs. In similar accord, Bob, an administrator at IPU, described the ways in which the curriculum development with a hybrid approach was beneficial to the students. Bob stated:

> *I think it's easier online. Because a lot of the resource types of things that would be missing a class session, we have those done ahead of time. I mean, we really work on the faculty to really reverse engineer their course. And I actually have a worksheet that I have them complete, that really for each module, has them first really think about what are the outcomes? What is it that they want the students to get out of it? Then,*

have them think through, well, what are you going to be assessing? And how are you going to assess it?

The faculty members were given the support they needed to develop the curriculum while incorporating the instructors' intended learning outcomes, appropriate pedagogical techniques, and course assessments that would bring their intended learning outcomes to fruition. Student participants commented on their reaction to the coursework and the technology being utilized within their coursework. Nina, a graduate student at IPU, stated:

Sure. I'm very excited about the curriculum for this program. And that was one of my deciding factors for, of course, deciding on [IPU]. As far as the fact that I live here in [International], I had been to [International] before, I had been a student here. I know how rigorous programs here are. I am also excited to see how the program progresses to adapt to the fact that students are all professionals and work full time, and to see how the program grows.

IPU met her needs as working professional while still maintaining a rigorous course of study. Other students commented on the built-in flexibility and the benefits that added to their experience, but they also brought up some of the downside to the asynchronous course materials. For example, Samantha, a graduate student at IPU, stated:

I can watch the lecture whenever I have the time to. The thing that I don't like is that I can't really interject and ask a question when something doesn't make sense or I want them to explain more. I wish there was a way that it could be more interactive once in a while. I mean, we have our

office hours where we can ask them questions, but just in the moment of the lecture being able – I miss the ability to ask a question.

While the program is flexible in course delivery, some students felt less engaged through the asynchronous learning environment, where there was no immediate feedback for questions. Therefore the lectures were not adaptive to students' needs for further explanations. Other students enjoyed a hybrid model of both online and in person course meetings. Daniela, an alumna and manager for a health system, stated:

I am actually a big supporter on this; I think hybrid programs are the future of education. It not only allows you to still have that face to face interaction with faculty and also with your classmates and establish those close relationships and networking opportunities, but it also helps to do time management in this busy environment and not to have the program at the expense of your professional life and personal life to.

Other students such as Andy, a practicing physician and alumnus of GPU, advocated for a flipped classroom, where the lectures and readings were done outside of class and the class time was devoted to project based learning. Andy stated:

I think a lot of the PowerPoint actually should just be put online, so we can look at it and then the class time should be mainly class discussion and or discussion of project or presentation of other projects but not being lectured. A straight lecturing format was very tedious especially Friday nights. Lectures can be given online. So it's very inconvenient to travel a great distance, stay overnight even to basically have mainly a PowerPoint presentation with very little interaction with the class.

This approach would further engaged those who are working professionals in applying the content they are learning and utilizing the class time to network and share best practices. Some faculty presented a number of challenges when discussing their experiences in teaching courses with an online format. An example came from Bob, an administrator at IPU, as he stated:

> *And how much you have to think things through. You don't have that flexibility to adapt as much as you do in face-to-face. And that's a challenge for the instructors in thinking through things. They're not used to coming up with that. Really thinking things through, quite this thoroughly.*

When delivering course content in face-to-face sessions, faculty members can hone in on their many years of teaching a course to fill in the gaps of the discussions, lectures, and readings. With an online format, the ability to adapt is diminished substantially as there are both asynchronous and synchronous class sessions. Lynn, a tenured faculty member at IPU, supported Bob's statements by further describing the challenges and opportunities associated with pairing technology with curriculum development:

> *It doesn't always work even in the face-to-face situation as a student has questions that they would benefit either talking to the graduate student instructors to me and I find in my experience so far that there are a number of students who are quite comfortable to engage in the distance learning format. And others who seem like they could benefit from it, but they don't quite know how.*

Lastly, the challenges associated with asynchronous sessions also impacted students because students like Samantha, a student at IPU, shared her views:

> *I can't really interject and ask a question when something doesn't make sense or I want them to explain more. I wish there was a way that it could be more interactive once in a while. I mean, we have our office hours where we can ask them questions, but just in the moment of the lecture being able -- I miss the ability to ask a question.*

Like Samantha, faculty members such as Arthur and Mary both recognized the challenges associated with asynchronous learning. Arthur stated:

> *From my perspective I think it's important to have some interaction outside of an online learning environment. I think there is valuable learning that happens between the students within the context of a learning environment. You can certainly do some of that in a blended online learning structure but it can't be asynchronous I think really to get the full benefit of that.*

Echoing this sentiment, Mary contributed:

> *So again I think that the brick and mortar whiteboard is a per se way of teaching that online models of being able to provide the individual immediate feedback to their answer to be able to allow them to gain mastery and competency and coupled with an opportunity to meet with individuals on a periodic basis. To discuss again in a way cases so that they can hear other people's ideas of how to solve a particular problem. I think is probably the best way that adults learn and retain information.*

Therefore, faculty members and students both identified the drawbacks to faculty and students' not being together when a portion of the content is delivered individually to students online.

Jack, a tenured faculty member at GPU, best captured the role and responsibility of universities, as he stated:

> *I think that universities should be doing a better job of meeting the needs of working students, whether they are undergraduates or graduate and whether they are regular programs or self-sustaining programs. I think that -- an online education is just a great way to meet the needs of working professionals it's also a great way to meet the needs of people who may be geographically distant from the university, so it expands the geographic reach of the university, which is good for the university as well as for the students.*

A hybrid course is an opportunity to meet the needs of working professionals. Additionally, it is a way to meet the needs of individuals who may be geographically isolated, so it expands the geographic reach of the university. Therefore, these hybrid SSDPs may be mutually beneficial for the university as well as for the working professional graduate students.

Faculty and Shared Governance

While the curriculum and technology adoption theme captured some of the elements of faculty's having less autonomy in a SSDP. The theme of faculty and shared governance captured the challenges associated with finding the qualified faculty members and the challenges of making decisions through a shared governance system. Decisions

are not made in isolation, but must require the input from faculty governance bodies. . Arthur, an adjunct faculty member at GPU, best articulated the challenges of finding appropriate faculty members by stating:

> *One of the big drivers of a lot of the shortages in the allied health professions broadly and even some of the more core health professions for that matter is driven often times by a lack of faculty in order to teach and do these things. Often times it's because they have more lucrative opportunities outside of the teaching aspect. So it's not really to their advantage to become involved. I have been very involved at evaluating of a program that's designed to address the faculty shortage. And so if they have more lucrative opportunities outside of it, SSDPs really provide a mechanism to go after some of these professionals and pay them potentially somewhat more in line with what they could be getting outside of it.*

A shortage of qualified faculty members who are willing to teach in a SSP may limit the number of students who are able to complete a professional degree that better serves the community. Given the limited utilization of tenure-track faculty members in SSDPs, some perceived this as an indictment on the quality of these programs. Lynn, a tenured faculty member at IPU, discussed this feeling:

> *The mix of adjunct in the self-supporting PH is more tilted towards adjunct, than in our traditional program. But we as a school have some long-term adjuncts, who are teaching core courses for the SSDP. So that is not different, but I really don't know how this is going to look in terms*

of the academic centered faculty, participating it's too new. We are only now in our fifth semester, but there is adjunct, we don't have so many clinical faculty in our school, we do have some, but there are probably a higher percent of self-supporting program courses being designed and led by the adjuncts.

Jack, a tenured faculty member at GPU, added:

I think very unlikely that any self-supporting program could completely fill its needs with just the extra weekend or summer or consulting time of a fulltime faculty. They're very likely to use adjunct and or clinical faculty, very important teaching role.

Given that the nature of SSDPs is fundamentally different from traditional programs, some participants believed that one challenge was that the faculty and shared governance process are not supportive of SSDPs. Jack believed:

Public universities generally don't have a culture that's supportive of self-supporting programs and many faculty members may actually be suspicious of them for reasons I don't think make a lot of sense but -- and I think reasons that I don't really understand but I think a lot of faculty tend to – especially tenure track faculty, can be not very supportive because you know tender track faculty think you know I have got this state supported gravy train that supports my salary and you know why would I want to make my life any more complicated by letting somebody put in a self-supporting program that might actually make me face market incentives.

Given that SSDPs have to contend with market demands, the program and coursework offered have to be agile and able to meet the needs of the community. This responsiveness does not fit into the traditional university model that often takes considerable time to make decisions and changes through the shared governance process. Mindy, a tenure-track faculty member at GPU, believed that SSDPs' strength is the ability to draw from leading experts in the field whether they are tenure-track faculty members or practitioners. She stated:

> *The value for a self-sustaining program again is to be able to bring to bear individuals from outside of the ivory tower, which I think is lacking in almost everything that we are doing here. So bringing an industry which are going to be the recipients and they are going to be the hiring individuals of the graduates need to be taken into account. In a self-sustaining program you can bring in those individuals easier than if you are just looking at your standard academic.*

A key example of the administrative versus academic disputes was seen in the push for distance education, which had the potential to exponentially expand the enrollment and revenue for the SSDPs at GPU. Based on interviews and document reviews, one key faculty concern was that if instructors were recorded on video and GPU used it in the future, then the recorded faculty should get royalties, which is an intellectual property dispute. However, GPU administrators were not inclined to pay additional royalty fees, unlike other public research university models, including IPU's.

As a result of all the various debates and back-and-forth memoranda, the most recent policy statement on SSDPs at GPU stated the following (GPU Documents-2011):

> *Currently, there are populations of working adults not served by the [GPU] state-supported programs who would be willing to enroll in self-supporting graduate degree programs…These programs will receive no state-support; however, they have the potential to generate resources that would enhance the quality, access, and affordability of course academic programs and departments. For example, they could provide additional support for graduate students and students in state-supported programs.*

It is clear that at GPU, SSDPs are now utilized to create revenue for the SSDP-PH parent organization.

Mission Drifts and Realignments

The document analyses revealed that the SSDP-PH at GPU was developed to address a shortage of professionals with health care-management competency in underserved communities. The SSDP-PH at GPU was merely supposed to break even and not serve as a profit center. Over time, GPU moved toward considering "if there is a market for it and if people are willing to pay the higher tuition," which focused less on the populations being served and more on the potential for revenue production.

Document reviews and analyses revealed that in the late 1970s and early 1980s, GPU focused on establishing degree programs that would support individuals who needed more flexibility in the course offerings. For example, there was a need to increase the options for professionals seeking graduate education part-time. Moreover, the documents analyzed described a strong need for master's programs and not enough publicly funded resources to afford training the population that needed it most. The solution was to identify those needs and then create programs without relying on public

funds to address the mission of the university. This prevailing notion of establishing SSDPs for specific community needs has been in alignment with the university's mission for quite some time. However, during the economic downturns of the mid-1990s, the operational role of SSDPs drifted from the stated mission towards aiming to utilize these programs to bring additional sources of revenue to support the university as the state reduced its support of public universities. During these period, key phrases such as "overhead," "indirect cost recovery," and "market pricing" entered the lexicon of SSDPs at GPU. In particular, market pricing was established based on competitors, which included nonprofit peer institutions and for-profits. Consequently, the mission was redefined to match the operational role, rather than the other way around.

As a result, official university policy statements and memoranda were redrafted with verbiage that included notions of overhead, indirect costs, and market pricing. In other words, the stated mission changed to realign with the practice of utilizing SSDPs as revenue-generating. Through the document review, I was also able to trace the various memoranda that were exchanged between the provost, academic senate chairs, deans, and other key stakeholders. The memoranda read similar to legal discoveries. There was considerable conflict between the administrative levels and academic levels. These issues converged through the process of shared governance with the gray areas of who was the prevailing power to make decisions. Key decisions were debated, which overlapped in areas of admissions, curriculum (i.e., reducing contact hours and faculty support time to reduce cost of delivery of education), academic standards (i.e., program quality), oversight, and autonomy.

SSDP-PH Outcomes for Students

Students and alumni described the many short-term and long-term benefits they received from the SSDP-PH, which included the ability to immediately apply the concepts they were learning in their professional roles. They also described how the program expanded their professional networks. A key example came from Tammy, an alumna of GPU and a research scientist for a federal governmental agency, who stated, "I ended up having two amazing mentors from the professors coming out of the program, and they ended up giving me my future job, and that, for me, was certainly the most valuable." Students like Tammy gained valuable mentors from faculty members in the program, which helped to expand those students' career opportunities.

Some of the short-term outcomes focus on the real-world application of students' ability to apply what they are learning in the classroom in their professional roles. Rebecca, a graduate student at IPU, captured the attitudes of other participants as she stated:

> *All my classes so far are helping me think about things in a way I've never thought about before, which is the point of a new degree, right. So I think that the degree program is doing what it supposed to do and that is expanding my consideration of the world I live in.*

The SSDP-PH at IPU has expanded Rebecca's and other participants' conceptualization of the public health field and, as a result, students felt more competent and were more prepared to serve their communities. This level of engagement fostered a learning community in which students engaged the material with their professional

colleagues and shared best practices that challenge and support their professional development, thereby enabling them to become more effective practitioners.

While students described the expanded professional networks, mentoring, and professional development outcomes they received, students and alumni participants also described the return on their investment in their education with the expanded career opportunities they received as a result of completing a graduate degree in public health. Tammy, an alumna of GPU, described this outcome:

> *Not only was I able to advance in terms of where I was working in my new organization, but I had an increase in salary. The fact that I have my [graduate degree in Public Health] really gave me advantage at hiring and also, just being exposed again to all the people in the program. It went above and beyond to what my expectations were and how it would play out later in life. So every single year, now four years after graduation I still see benefits.*

The experiences of Tammy and others illustrate the many short-term and long-term benefits they received from the SSDP-PH. Participants found the ability to immediately apply the concepts they were learning in their professional roles, to expanded their professional networks, and to see the instant return on their investment with salary increases and career advancement.

Future of SSDPs

A senior administrator from the GPU state system provided a status update on the future role of SSPs and the push towards privatization. From his perspective, both the undergraduate and graduate programs at GPU are moving towards a private model. At the undergraduate level, out-of-state and international student enrollments will increase with regard to the proportion of students. In the future, enrollment at GPU may resemble the University of Michigan and the University of Virginia. At the graduate level, there will be a continued push towards programs becoming self-sustaining as a result of fewer and fewer state resources allocated to GPU.

Summary

In this chapter, I presented findings from two case studies conducted at Global Public University and International Public University, which are both PRUs in the United States. I introduced seven key themes emerging from the data, which included mission and market demand, admissions and branding, curriculum and technology adoption, mission drift and realignment, faculty and shared governance, student outcomes, and the future of SSDPs. These themes articulated the complex and nuanced points of view that converge in the decision to engage in a SSDP. The faculty, administrators, students, and alumni are all stakeholders with both contrasting and converging perspectives.

Chapter Seven- Conclusions and Implications

In this chapter, I will connect the study findings with previous literature and the theoretical framework guiding this study. In addition, I conclude this chapter with implications for policy, practice, and future research.

Research Questions Revisited

In this study, I investigated Self-Sustaining Degree Programs in Public Health at two PRUs. I interviewed a total of 41 faculty members, administrators, graduate students, and alumni to gain a better understanding of the multiple perspectives from key stakeholders. In addition, I interviewed 6 stakeholders at other institutions for a qualitative comparison of trends in the subject matter. The comparative case study allowed me to answer the following questions:

1. What were the stated reasons for the establishment of the SSDPs?
2. Has the stated mission changed over time?
3. Have the outcomes met the expectations of alumni, students, and faculty?

My findings suggest that SSDPs did, in fact, drift from their original mission to serve the underserved. However, in the course of time, especially during economic downturns, SSDPs behaved in ways that corroborate Resource Dependency Theory since SSDPs sought to increase its revenue generation capacity by aligning itself closer to the marketplace. SSDPs became more selective in their enrollments, increased tuition, and hired more selective faculty that had the capacity to generate increased levels of extramural funding. Moreover, by identifying new revenue streams, these SSDPs did, in fact, become increasingly more self-sufficient.

My findings also corroborate mimetic isomorphism, in that the SSDPs at the two universities exemplified programmatic characteristics that looked similar over time. This mimetic behavior was isomorphic in that the practices at one university served as "legitimate" best practices for the other university to adopt.

With respect to Academic Capitalism, my findings revealed some interesting results. Various faculty members raised the issue of intellectual property with respect to blended learning through the use of modules, videos, and the like. Faculty were hesitant in creating videos or pre-packaged modular content because they did not agree with how the course content they prepared could be used in future course offerings that did not include them. In other words, faculty raised concerns about who owned the intellectual property that resulted from videos, modules and other teaching materials. Universities argue that they own the intellectual property because the content was developed through student credit hours and pay. This was a healthy tension that emerged and challenges the notion of academic capitalism that the universities embrace. These findings do point out that universities could very well have faculty, the producers of knowledge, design the content, and the universities can then market the content via hybrid course offerings and generate revenue with content that was produced once. Perhaps even more important as a result of these findings is that faculty can further their position universities will need faculty as content experts to review, update, and re-design the material presented to students periodically. This is akin to banks making loans and maintaining the loans over a period of time. The banks marginal profit is not derived from an initial loan transaction but derived from the maintenance of said loan over a period of time, or interest dividends.

Implications for Policy

As state appropriations for public higher education continue to decline, PRUs will continue to explore SSDPs. One of the faculty members I interviewed summed up her view of today's academic industry this way: "The only constant in today's academic environment is change." Review of recent documents, internal memoranda, and discussion minutes at various levels of the GPU on proposed changes in policy and procedures for free-standing programs and SSDPs support the notion of constant change on this moving target. During the course of this study, several SSDPs went through the rigorous approval process of GPU's shared governance infrastructure. Some were approved, and others were rejected. The few that were approved and started proved not to be sustainable and are now slated to be phased out. In this study, I have attempted to present the policies and purposes of creating and operating SSDPs, from the perspectives of faculty, administrators, students, and alumni.

In order to foster a sustained effort in creating and maintaining SSDPs, universities should identify the gap in workforce needs locally, nationally, and globally. Universities should assess if there is a need for a non-traditional degree program, and if the need is already being addressed, and by whom. Additional considerations should include what the market can bear in terms of annual student enrollment.

A self-sustaining model is a business model and needs to be treated as such. Therefore, universities should treat the program as a business operation. A full financial model needs to be built to simulate pricing models, revenues, operating expenses, and the different faculty participation scenarios to predict overload expenses and encumbered adjunct salaries.

Additional financial considerations need to be considered, such as discerning the required capital for an initial investment and determining if resources that can be leveraged exist. Universities need to understand the short-term requirements for financial investments in building a new infrastructure or adding to the existing infrastructure. A special consideration for adding onto an existing infrastructure is identifying if the current stakeholders of the existing infrastructure are willing to participate. On the technology side, several factors need to be considered, such as the sharing of technology services. For example, in utilizing technology, there may be multiple silos for excess capacity, but stakeholders may be unwilling to share. In other words, a university may have an underutilized capacity with information technology such as online lecture recordings and live stream studios, but the proprietors of these facilities may not be willing to share these resources. Therefore, an SSDP may have to create additional technology facilities to supplement the already underutilized facilities across campus. SSDP administrators need to pay particular attention to the adoption of blended learning and if the best method is to purchase or lease a technological infrastructure. SSDP administrators should also consider partnering within or outside of the university to take care of technology needs.

Student enrollments are the driving forces of SSDPs. Admissions standards need to be adaptive for the professional experience of applicants. Applicants with previous doctoral degrees and other terminal degrees should not be judged by the same standards as someone with only a bachelor's degree and a limited professional experience. Admissions standards need to be more congruent with the group of incoming students. Some universities may have the ability to waive the GRE, but the admissions committee

within the SSDPs may be unaware of this. Those involved in the admissions process of SSDPs need to be aware of any flexibility within the admissions process. The various admissions criteria are used as measures of potential success. The standardized tests underestimate the success of professionals who have been away from their undergraduate education and it overestimates for students who recently complete their undergraduate degree. Consequently, the same standards of admissions cannot be used for a traditional program and a SSDP to determine if an individual will be able to succeed. The coursework is rarely exam based, so the things measured in standardized tests are not congruent with the skills needed to be successful in a SSDP. In SSDPs with a focus more on experiential learning and not on didactic and exam-based learning standardized test results should be interpreted cautiously.

In considering the curriculum of SSDP-PH, the curriculum design needs to be competency-based. SSDPs have shifted from the in-residence classroom-only model to the blended approach with a combination of different levels of in-residence and online. In the traditional in-residence model, the focus was placed on how many hours of reading and time spent in the classroom, but professional degree programs need to assess skills-based learning. When individuals graduate from a professional SSDP-PH their skill sets must be competency-based since alumni have to demonstrate the ability to be effective for career placement and professional advancement.

Shared governance plays a key role in SSPs. Who is really making the decisions? What are the safeguards that would prevent politics from overshadowing operations? Through shared governance, soft issues arise such leadership styles and personality conflict, which may detract from the nimbleness of the organization. Thus, the clearer the

policies, the easier it may be for those directing these programs to implement the appropriate strategies without having others involved in the process capriciously. Therefore, universities that encourage the development of SSDP should also create clear guidelines for decision making.

Implications for Practice

In order to ensure a viable SSDP, universities and SSDP administrators need to create a strategic plan for sustainability. This plan should lay out a recruitment strategy that taps into the diverse constituents of the community surrounding the university and into top candidates, both nationally and internationally. In addition to a plan for recruitment, there is a strong need for a retention plan that lays out the resources the students need to be successful in the SSDP. Likewise, SSDP administrators must consider how to engage their program alumni in a meaningful way after they complete their program of study. Active alumni are likely to share their professional networks, leading to employment and internship opportunities for enrolled students. Moreover, satisfied alumni are more likely to contribute financially to the program. Lastly, SSDPs must develop and maintain relationships with representatives from industry. A strong industry relationship will help ensure that hiring agents are aware of the quality of the SSDP, which will lead to employment opportunities. Industry representatives may also help assure that the SSDP remains current and meets the needs of the field.

While adapting to a dynamic environment is important, it is equally important to remain true to an institution's core mission and values. Universities have to be value-driven because they have to consider the enhancement that the program brings to students' careers. There is connectivity between active alumni, career development,

networking for career advancement, social change, community enhancement, and capacity building within the community. The program has to match institutional values, the community need, and the market need to remain sustainable. Otherwise, if the program does not coordinate the various constituents, then it will not have prospective students willing to enroll in a program that is unable to help them achieve their goals. Moreover, both adjunct and tenure-track faculty members will not want to be associated with a program that is not aligned with their own core values. If a university does not maintain alignment with core values, then the program will be negatively perceived as solely a revenue generator.

The most serious threat to the operation of SSDP is resistance from faculty members. SSDP administrators need to ensure that opinion leaders are bought into the programs and need to be involved in the conceptualization of potential SSDPs. Such engagement will minimize philosophical hurdles and create a smoother operation of SSDPs by reducing some of the challenges associated with shared governance.

Universities and SSDP administrators need to present a clearer understanding with the utilization of the word *quality* when describing programs, curriculum, faculty, and students. How is quality defined? What are the components of a quality program? Building consensus around the term *quality* may assist in reducing conflict during admissions, curriculum, and other governance committees. SSDP administrators need to continuously evaluate the program and look for continuous process improvement to ensure quality is being achieved in program delivery.

SSDPs must undergo a continued assessment of the changing environment like any other business in order to be nimble and ready to adapt to the environment. The

various strategic plans must remain salient to community needs, workforce needs, and the institutions core values.

Based on the interviews, it appears that most of the faculty members involved in the SSDP-PH program believe that taking advantage of nontraditional revenue-generating opportunities will provide access to more students in general, although at higher tuition fees. The higher tuition fees however, will further disenfranchise the under-represented from access to educational programs that should ultimately fill the increasing gap in the supply of professionals in greater demand by the under-served communities. This scenario validates Mr. Hughes' view that public universities, like GPU, are "becoming irrelevant" because they are mimicking private non-profits without the same level of resources.

Based on a review of literature, various education industry journals, and extended interviews with a few faculty members, it appears that the private, non-profit educational institutions have been more proactive in trying to address the demand for professional degrees in critical health care areas with a balanced approach to narrowing or containing the expanding access divide. The proactive approach by the private universities, and their apparent resulting success, further validates Dr. George's comment on the need for the public universities to consider students in the professional self-sustaining programs as future loyal resources for the institutions and their students. Although more faculty members believe in the need for public universities' move towards alternative revenues in the face of the ever-shrinking public funding, there are different views on the approaches and the uses of these revenues. The question is not whether we need to find new sources of revenues; the question is what we do with them.

To be competitive in attracting mid-career professionals to graduate from SSDPs, such as the SSDP-PH at the GPU, public universities have adopted strategies to move their programs' rankings to higher levels and elite status. The interviews with the faculty members revealed some of their sentiments that are contrary to this strategy. Dr. Campbell commented that GPU should not be pushing for the "highest quality" and ranking and that it should increase its capacity to bring in more students and give more access, "even if [the] ranking drops and even if the quality of education drops across the board." Some faculty members agreed with Dr. Campbell's view that the tuition fees should be driven down by any and every means possible and that public universities such as GPU should not focus on quality and prestige. This approach, seemingly, contradicts academic capitalism.

Implications for Future Research

This dissertation study integrated the multiple perspectives of key stakeholders such as tenure-track and adjunct faculty members, SSDP administrators, enrolled students, and alumni. However, a key stakeholder group that was missing from this dissertation study was industry representatives. Future research should investigate industry perspectives from individuals who not affiliated with the institution under study. Their inclusion may glean additional insight into the perception and assessment of SSDPs from a neutral point of view.

In addition, future research should look at effectiveness and efficiency from the internal and external perspective. SSDPs are resource-dependent, but the perception from industry is that universities waste money. There is an issue for interdependence. How are

universities utilizing revenue, and is this consistent with the community needs and values?

Additional research is needed to examine the impact of SSDPs in addressing the community needs of underserved populations through access for the underrepresented. While universities and SSDPs may have established various programs with the intention to engage underserved communities, there is no current benchmark to determine whether universities are obtaining the intended market penetration. Moreover, researchers should focus on the impact of technology on inclusion and access for the underrepresented. If you include the technology, then the program costs will be lower, which may result in lower tuition costs and making a graduate degree in public health more affordable. How do you prevent the programs that are there for a specific mission not to become a revenue leader and drift away from their original purpose?

Conclusion

Initially, PRUs established SSDPs to address a public need. However, as the SSDPs become more successful, the leadership at the programmatic level and at the institutional level played a considerable role in deciding whether the program can maintain its initial purpose of addressing a public need without placing any financial burdens on the program through extensive indirect cost recovery levies. PRUs and SSDPs must focus on the public need instead of transforming the program into a financial resource for other programs.

The SSDPs presented in this study have established clear positive value to the various stakeholders including faculty, students, administrators, and alumni. The decisions made by SSDP and university leadership may change the sustainability of the

program if the programs do not maintain its agility and nimbleness to respond to the market needs, which would include responding to the needs of full-time professionals. Students and alumni at Global Public University, which has a mostly in-residence program, and International Public University, which primarily offers an online program, have some consensus that a more blended and hybrid learning approach would be more ideal. Additionally, students and alumni value the cohort learning with the instructor serving as the facilitator. Classroom time should not be used solely for lectures, but the instructors should flip the classroom by reserving didactic learning through pre-recorded video lectures and utilize face-to-face class time for project-based learning and applying course concepts.

With regard to faculty perspectives, one of my hypotheses was that more of the tenured faculty would believe there was no value for SSDPs and that more of the adjunct faculty would be accepting of SSDPs. While adjunct faculty members were indeed very supportive of these programs, tenure-track faculty members also found value in these programs. Both adjunct and tenure-track faculty saw the value that the SSDPs provide to the university; they were a financial resource to support other academic programs and university initiatives. Interestingly, the tenure-track faculty also utilized the professional networks gained through students enrolled in the SSDP and sought extramural funding for their research activities and found additional, mutually beneficial consulting opportunities.

In closing, the SSDPs will grow at PRUs. These institutions need to maintain their role in this area by embracing the change in technology in curriculum delivery and design. They must also have flexibility to meet both market and community needs. This

is an area with a tremendous amount of need and opportunity for growth. The important thing is to not lose the role of serving the public need. Moreover, SSDPs can better position PRUs at serving the public need by expanding access to underrepresented and underserved communities, who are often communities of color. Similar to private research universities, SSDPs can utilize targeted recruiting strategies of underrepresented students, which help meet the needs of underserved communities and add considerably to the learning value within the classroom environment. Self-sustaining universities are not bound by legal mandates such anti-affirmative action legislation because SSDPs are not utilizing public funds. Most important, SSDPs can provide access to the public good in boundless ways.

Appendix A – Pilot Study

Pilot Study at the GPU

The foundation of my dissertation topic was a pilot study, titled "Public University: Trends toward Self Sufficiency." The exploratory pilot study was initiated to secure preliminary information in order to fine-tune an effective and efficient dissertation research stud.

Public Research Universities' (PRUs) response to the continued cuts in state funding has ranged from increasing tuition to engaging alumni for advocacy and identifying alternative sources of revenues. Additional and a narrower focus of my exploratory study was on a flagship PRU and its strategic move toward self-sufficiency through various Self-Sustained Programs (SSPs). The period of the pilot study was from September 2010 through February 2012, during which I reviewed several PRUs' self-sufficiency strategies.

In my initial document analyses and key informant interviews three types of SSPs (also referred to as stand-alone programs) emerged. These programs were created to address PRUs' budgetary concerns resulting from reductions in states' financial support. In order to continue delivering on their core mission of research, teaching, and service, while preserving the institutional identity, PRUs have to identify and secure alternative sources of funding and revenue streams. Increases in tuition, securing philanthropic contributions, and expanding various self-sustaining program in teaching, research, and services have been the focus of PRUs' strategic response to reduction in funding from the states' governments. Although the stated mission (purpose) of each SSP is different, the over-arching reason for creating SSPs at PRUs is been to gain a certain degree of

financial independence from public funding through new revenue streams. The SSPs have also been created as an instrument to address community needs at no cost to the general public – the taxpayers at large. I further narrowed my study focus on the teaching mission of PRUs to funding cuts that impacted their teaching mission in professional degrees. For reasons stated earlier in chapter two regarding the important role of health professionals in every community, I further focused my research on operation of a Self-Sustaining Degree Program (SSDP) in Public Health (PH).

In my exploratory study, I argued that "it is essential to investigate the policies and practices of an existing program, which once expanded through future studies, may assist in sustainable design and development of such programs in the future." The University, which I chose as the subject of my pilot study was the "Global Public University" (pseudonym applied), hereafter referred to as GPU. In review and analysis of their documents, GPU's stated purpose of designing their SSDP in PH was to address an unmet need in the community of working health professionals by increasing educational degree offerings.

SSDP-PH in GPU

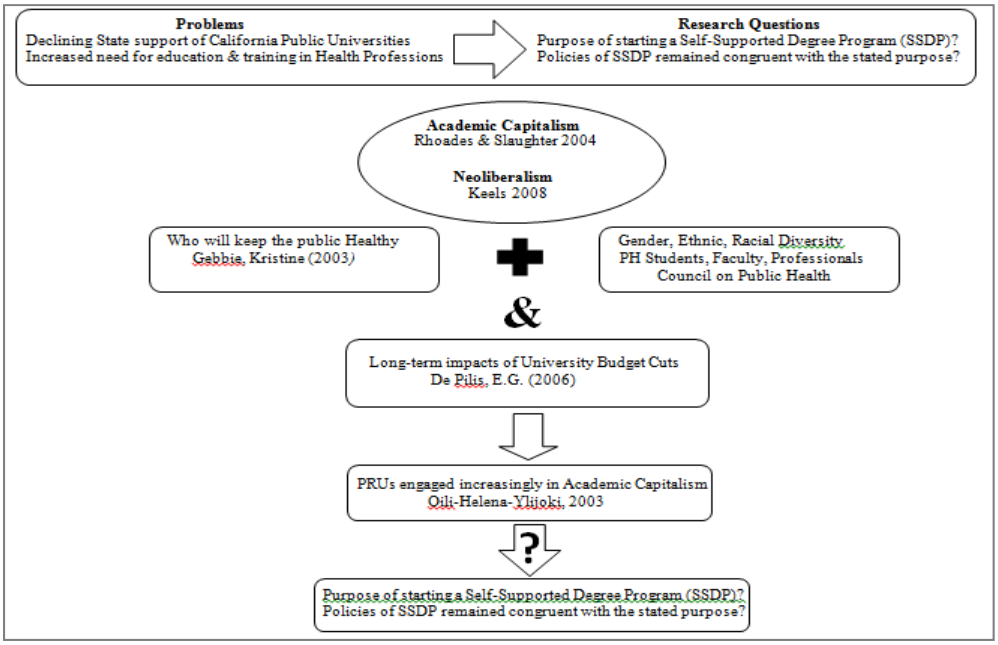
The GPU's SSDP-PH has a fully self-sustaining course of instruction is designed to meet the need for continuing education among fully-employed professionals. While relying on market mechanisms to attract a non-state-supported student body, the program was also meant to fit within the overall aims for increasing the health care workforce. My research questions that guided the pilot study were as follows:

1. What were the stated reasons for the establishment of the SSDP-PH?
2. Did policies and practices remained congruent with the stated purpose?

Review and analysis of GPU documents provided information on GPU's policies for SSDPs, making reference to distinct considerations in establishing SSDPs as to whether the need for a professional degree program existed, and what the market could bear with respect to setting appropriate fees.

While these two considerations are not necessarily in contradiction with each other, a broader interpretation of "need for a professional degree program" in the context of the stated teaching mission of GPU posed questions in juxtaposition with the determination of market-driven fee schedules to meet such needs. In the process of reviewing the stated mission at GPU and the practices of SSDP, the pilot study provided relevant information regarding community need for a SSDP-PH (why?), educational and training content and format (what?), the demographics of professionals in the programs (who?), and the source(s) of funding to operate the SSPs (how?). Figure 1 below provides the conceptual framework based on which my pilot study was designed.

Figure Appendix A.1- Pilot Study Conceptual Framework



Pilot Study Theoretical Framework

In my pilot study, I applied theoretical perspectives from neoliberalism and academic capitalism as a lens to interpret the environment leading to the need for expansion of self-sustaining programs. My view of neoliberalism was a political and economic theory, which suggests reliance on *laissez-faire* economics to ensure efficiencies in the market, and control of the economy remaining with the wealthy (Giroux, 2002). Slaughter and Rhoades (2004a) defined academic capitalism as "the pursuit of market and market-like activities to generate external revenues" (p.11).

I used components of these two theories to help me evaluate the decision-making processes involved in creating an SSDP. The theoretical perspectives of neoliberalism and academic capitalism provided an appropriate framework to critique the SSDP practices of GPU to bridge budget deficits. The examination of an existing SSDP in the context of two distinctly different theoretical approaches, academic capitalism and neoliberalism, provided an opportunity to critically examine the stated mission and operating procedures, which led to a better understanding of the formation process of self-sustaining programs and the implementation of policies and procedures.

Neoliberalism

Giroux (2002) presented that the ascendency of neoliberalism is disruptive to the political and economic arenas and pose a threat to higher education and society. According to Giroux, the cultural and philosophical shift towards a more individualistic and materialistic society indicates the end of a vibrant and vital public sphere, where discourse and ideas and the notions of public good and civil society reign. Giroux's view is that focus will be disrupted with the move by universities towards a market-driven

approach in their educational delivery. Therefore, Giroux would suggest that a push toward SSPs will shift the public universities from a public-good-focused educational mission towards a career-focused and means-focused educational delivery.

Academic Capitalism

Slaughter and Rhoades (2004a) examined the "profit-oriented activities as a point of reorganization by higher education institutions to develop their own capacity . . . to market products created by faculty" (p. 11) in the new knowledge economy. In other words, they examined the networks or linkages developed in higher education institutions that enhance the institution's ability to generate and market products that are created under the auspices of the institution. Using the theory of academic capitalism as a lens, they also examined the process, mechanisms, and behaviors through which an academic capitalist knowledge/learning regime is integrated and functions.

Pilot Study Methodological Approach

In the pilot study I utilized a case study approach, which Yin (2013) suggested the case study approach as the best fit for review of complex issues surrounding an organization, a policy, or a process. The case study method is an empirical examination of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, where multiple sources of evidence are used (Yin, 2013). It provides the researcher with an opportunity to analyze events and the conditions that led to these events. Using the case study method also provides researchers with a window through which relational factors between people, organizations, and situations can be explored and examined. The pilot study was based on documents analysis and one-on-one, face-to-face interviews with faculty members.

Document Analysis

The documents analysis included official minutes of meetings, memoranda, mission statements, internal studies by several task forces on the topic, external accreditation reports, official policies and procedures manuals, and programmatic reviews. To make sense of the hundreds of pages of documents that I reviewed, I utilized a document summary form (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Each document was also summarized to include notes on the document name, purpose, significance, and key issues relating to the rationale used to create this self-sustaining program and decision-making processes in terms of creating policies and procedures.

Key Informant Interviews

I purposefully selected and interviewed a representative sample of faculty members in each of the series who taught in the MPH program. In my purposeful sampling procedure, I sought study participants from the various specialization areas of the MPH program. The sampling process provided me with the opportunity to interview a representative sample of faculty, who are uniquely informative and provide confidence in the results (Maxwell, 2012). I conducted individual face-to-face interviews in a semi-structured format. In this format, the foundational questions were designed in advance, but during the interview, I allowed the relational responses such as value and effectiveness to become the basis for more specific questions (Northcutt & McCoy, 2004).

The grouping of interview questions for the interview afforded a systematic and efficient collection of data within the interview time boundary of 30 to 45 minutes. The semi-structured technique increased the internal validity and contextual understanding of the processes and the outcomes (Maxwell, 2012). All interviews were professionally

transcribed verbatim and checked for accuracy. All participants either selected their own pseudonym or were assigned a pseudonym retrospectively.

In the SSDP under study, there are 35 faculty members of which 20 are in the part-time clinical and adjunct series, and 15 in the tenured ladder faculty series. Similar to other higher educational institutions, GPU recruits professionals with "appropriate distinction" in these part-time series to "facilitate integration of the academic and professional components of the instructional program." The adjunct faculty members in the MPH program represent various sectors of the industry with in-depth experience and breadth of interest.

First, I reviewed all the document summary forms and made notes on key themes relating to the first research question. These themes were used to analyze the faculty interviews. I read the transcribed interviews and took notes on my thoughts and assumptions relating to the themes revealed in the document analysis.

Next, I created a codebook with clear descriptions of each code defining the parameters of usage. The codes included various categories, with codes related to thoughts and feelings regarding admissions, curriculum, operational policies and outcomes.

Then, I coded each transcript utilizing HyperResearch, a Qualitative Data Analysis program. Finally, I ran reports for each code within the HyperResearch Program to produce systematically derived themes from the faculty interviews.

Limitations

The pilot study had one key limitation, which was that I only interviewed faculty members as one of three main stakeholders. The faculty may provide key insights from

their perspective, but they may only be able to speculate on other stakeholders' facts and perceptions.

Pilot Study Findings

The document analysis provided a solid baseline for mapping the trajectory of Global Public University's Self-Sustaining Program in Public Health. Through analyzing the documents, I was able to track how the purpose and mission of the SSDPs went through a series of "Drifts and Realignments," I also traced statements and actions of key stakeholders, and the analyses captured discussions around the value and purpose of SSPs.

Faculty Interviews

Four key themes emerged from the faculty interviews:

1. Programmatic needs for the community
2. Issues of access
3. Building a constituency
4. Curriculum concern

In the first theme, faculty members described the demand for the SSDP from a human-resource supply standpoint. In essence, there is a shortage of well-trained individuals in public health, which has increased the demand for the SSDP-PH. Concerning the mission of the SSDP-PH at GPU, the interviews quickly turned towards the second theme, issues of access. The access issues included the time of the educational offerings (i.e., in the evenings), admissions requirements, and the cost of tuition. In the third theme, faculty members described the ways in which the SSDP-PH program at GPU built its constituency. Lastly, the fourth theme focused on the curriculum concerns and the quality of the SSDP-PH at GPU.

A senior administrator from the GPU state system provided a status update on the future role of SSDPs and the push towards privatization. From his perspective, both the undergraduate and graduate programs at GPU are moving towards a private model. At the undergraduate level, out-of-state and international student enrollments will increase with regard to the proportion of students. In the future, enrollment at GPU may resemble the University of Michigan and the University of Virginia. At the graduate level, there will be a continued push towards programs becoming self-sustaining as a result of fewer and fewer state resources being allocated to GPU.

While the pilot study focused on the faculty perspective only, I realized that a future study should include perspectives of the multiple stakeholders involved in GPU and the MPH program. For example, alumni, current students, administration at operational and policy levels, and community members (i.e., prospective students) should also be interviewed to gain insights of the multiple constituents and the impact that policy decisions have on the program and community. Additionally, I felt my research would benefit from a comparative case study with another PRU. In the next section, I will describe the methodology of this dissertation, which was informed by the pilot study.

Appendix B – Faculty Interview Protocol

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me for my research interview. Before I begin, I want to introduce myself and tell you about this study. **Present Business Card**. My name is Fred Hagigi, and I am a Ph.D. Candidate in UCLA's Graduate School of Education focusing on Higher Education and Organizational Change.

(**University name**) has been selected for this research because of its unique position and characteristics being innovative in creating and operating a Self-Supported MPH degree program.

In my study, I am assigning **pseudonym names** to participating institutions and to participants, preserving the anonymity of the organization site and individual.

The purpose of my study is to better understand the challenges and opportunities of Self-Supported and Free-Standing MPH degree programs in Public Research Universities. I will use my analyses of the interviews, documents, and other research work in deriving overall recommendations for policy development and operating procedures.

In my interviews with faculty, management, alumni and students in this and another public research university I have collected qualitative data on their participation, expectations, perceptions and outcomes.

I have several questions about challenges and outcomes in your position as you try to assist applicants, students, faculty, and alumni in meeting their objectives. You can share whatever you wish and you are free to choose not to participate in all or any part of our study. If you would rather not respond to a particular question, simply say, "I would like to pass." At any time you can terminate this interview for any reason.

I have given you a consent form that asks for your permission to participate in this study. I will give you a few minutes to review the information on the form and confirm that you still are interested in participating.

I also ask for your permission to audio record the interview and to take notes during our dialogue. Recording is for the sole purpose of my being able to clearly capture information which you feel are important for me to draw accurate conclusions. Again, in order to protect your real names and identification, I will assign a pseudonym name for you and the institution.

Do you have any questions before I begin?

1. Briefly describe your role as it relates to this academic institution.

2. As less state resources are being allocated to public universities, what are your thoughts on how universities should address this issue?

3. Do you see any benefit of SSPs to the university?

4. Since its inception, how have you been involved with this SSP program?
   Are you currently involved?

5. What is your perception of the SSP's contributions to the division / department, the school, and the university?

6. Direct/indirect financial contribution; Direct/indirect non-financial contribution.

7. What are your thoughts on the impact the SSP has on the school and university?

8. What do you believe to be the role of SSPs in the department, school and institution?

9. What do you think are some of the limiting factors experienced by the SSP?

10. Can SSP address the shortage in healthcare professional issues? Positive or negative?

11. How would you characterize the sustainability of self-supported programs?

12. Are there strategies that can be implemented to improve the sustainability of SSPs?

13. What do you feel about Adjunct and Clinical Faculty teaching in the SSPs?

14. To your knowledge, what are some of the key strengths of the SSP?

15. To your knowledge, what are some of the key weaknesses of the SSP?

16. How would you characterize the impact of the SSP to the department?

17. Based on your experience, do you see a change in the quality of self-supported programs over time? How would you describe this change?

18. What kind of improvements would you make to this SSP?

19. How should the quality of a public university be defined?

20. How significant is the role of ranking in the quality perception of SSP?

21. How significant is the accreditation status of SSP?

22. Based on your experience, what are the key drivers for students coming here?

23. Should universities differentiate between daytime vs. self-supported evening program applicants? If so, how should these applicants be differentiated?

24. How significant is the use of standardized tests for admission into SSPs?

25. Have you taught courses in which the online or blended learning model was used?

26. What are your thoughts on online or blended learning models?

27. How responsive is the institution in providing resources to support these programs?

Faculty Background Questions:

1. How many years of academic teaching experience do you have?

2. And how many of those years have you taught at this institution?

3. What is your current affiliation and academic ranking with the university?

4. How have you been involved with the SSP?

5. Have you taught other graduate students outside of the SSP?

6. How would you describe your experience in the healthcare industry?

7. Typically, what type of teaching methods do you use in your courses?

8. Do you think any of those could be modified to include more technology?

9. How would you describe your level of use of web-based tools for your courses?

10. What types of materials do you post online for your courses?

11. How willing are you to adopt more technology tools in your curriculum?

12. What are your thoughts on holding virtual office hours (online)?

13. What can help you take full advantage of the potential of web-based teaching?

Appendix C – Administrator Interview Protocol

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me for my research interview. Before I begin, I want to introduce myself and tell you about this study. **Present Business Card**. My name is Fred Hagigi, and I am a Ph.D. Candidate in UCLA's Graduate School of Education focusing on Higher Education and Organizational Change.

(**University name**) has been selected for this research because of its unique position and characteristics being innovative in creating and operating a Self-Supported MPH degree program.

In my study, I am assigning **pseudonyms** to participating institutions and to participants, preserving the anonymity of the organization site and individual.

The purpose of my study is to better understand the challenges and opportunities of Self-Supported and Free-Standing MPH degree programs in Public Research Universities. I will use my analyses of the interviews, documents, and other research work in deriving overall recommendations for policy development and operating procedures.

In my interviews with faculty, alumni and students in this and another public research university I have collected qualitative data on their participation, expectations, perceptions and outcomes.

I have several questions about challenges and outcomes in your position as you try to assist applicants, students, faculty, and alumni in meeting their objectives. You can share whatever you wish and you are free to choose not to participate in all or any part of our study. If you would rather not respond to a particular question, simply say, "I would like to pass." At any time you can terminate this interview for any reason.

I have given you a **consent form** that asks for your permission to participate in this study. I will give you a few minutes to review the information on the form and confirm that you still are interested in participating.

I also ask for your **permission to audio record the interview** and to take notes during our dialogue. Recording is for the sole purpose of my being able to clearly capture information which you feel are important for me to draw accurate conclusions. Again, in order to protect your real names and identification, I will assign a pseudonym name for you and the institution.

Do you have any questions before I begin?

1. What is your current title?

2. What is your involvement with the self-supported program?

3. Briefly describe your current role(s) and responsibilities.

    a. Description of authority and responsibility
    b. Shared authority/shared governance

4. What do you think are the challenges associated with sustaining a SSP?
    a. Operational – all aspects

5. What do you think are the SSP's biggest challenges in trying to recruit applicants and retain students?

6. How has the University/School tried to address these challenges?
    a. Examples: marketing, branding, program quality, full disclosure of program expectations, etc.

7. In overall management of the program, do you feel there has there been enough financial and procedural support for the administrative staff to address various issues of the program?
    a. If YES, what kind of support was offered? (Prompt question)
    b. If NO, what kind of improvements could have been made? (Communication, having someone there to respond to questions)

8. Do you feel that the staff has the resources and the competencies to provide the best customer service to your primary stakeholders?
    a. Students
    b. Applicants
    c. Faculty
    d. Alumni

9. What **resource**s were available to the administrative staff to allow them to provide the best customer service to students?
    a. HR – people in numbers and in FTE (hiring process)
    b. Specific Resource needs - weekends, tech, IT to assist (classes/faculty, trainings, recording)
    c. Advertising, marketing, recruitments, etc.
    d. FAQ and requests by students for resources
    e. Resources Asked - Provided or could not be provided (reasons: Policy /Legal vs. $$$)

10. What types of resources are available to SSP students?
    a. Access to university resources, (e.g., counseling, healthcare, facilities)
    b. How do their access to resources compare to that of the regular students?

11. If equal access to university resources is **not** provided, what is your **disclosure policy?** A full vs. partial; FAQ; Don't Ask Don't Tell policy

12. What type of resources is available to SSP students for career development?

13. What were some concerns raised by the students in the program?

14. What are some of the feedback received from the alumni on their perceptions?
    a. What did they find valuable?
    b. What did they feel was lacking from their program?
    c. How do you think these challenges/short-comings should be addressed?

15. Were you able to offer events that you felt would enhance students' learning or career advancement?

16. What type of career advancement events were you able to offer to the students?

17. What type of services were you able to offer that would benefit the alumni or alumni-student networking? If NONE
    a. What were the limiting factors?
    b. What could have helped to improve delivery of these services?

18. Would you like to share other information, thoughts, or recommendations regarding your program?

19. Are there other questions I should have asked?

20. Are there people whom you think would be important for me to contact?
    a. If YES, name and contact information.
    b. Would you like me to use your name as the referring individual?

Once again, thank you for taking time in your busy schedule to meet with me. You have my contact information should you need to reach me.

Appendix D – Student Interview Protocol

Email

Dear,

I received your contact information from Professor [redacted] (copied) as a potential interviewee for my research "Hybridization of Public Research University." Attached is some background information, including a sample of my interview questions.

Thank you in advance for considering to participate in this project. Your program was selected because of its unique position and innovative characteristics in creating and operating a Self-Supported MPH degree program. I am assigning pseudonym to institutions and to participants, preserving the anonymity of the organizations and individuals.

The purpose of my study is to better understand the challenges and opportunities of Self-Supported MPH degree programs in public research universities. I have collected qualitative data on expectations, perceptions and outcomes of the interview participants. I will use my analyses of interviews and other data in deriving recommendations for policy development and operating procedures.

The interview will take 45-60 minutes and can be done in–person or on the phone. Should you agree to participate, I am asking for your permission to audio record our interview. The recording is for the sole purpose of my being able to clearly capture information for aggregate analysis. During our interview, if you would rather not respond to a particular question, simply say, "I would like to pass." Again, to maintain confidentiality, I will assign a pseudonym for you and the institution.

Attached is the conceptual framework of the research and a sample of questions I will be asking you during our interview. Please email (Hagigi@ucla.edu) or call me at 310.654.0321 should you have additional questions or wish to set up a time for us to talk on the phone or meet in-person for the phone call.

Warm regards,

Fred Hagigi

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me for my research interview. Before I begin, I want to introduce myself and tell you about this study. **Present Business Card**. My name is Fred Hagigi, and I am a Ph.D. Candidate in UCLA's Graduate School of Education focusing on Higher Education and Organizational Change.

(**University name**) has been selected for this research because of its unique position and characteristics being innovative in creating and operating a Self-Supported MPH degree program.

In my study, I am assigning **pseudonym names** to participating institutions and to participants, preserving the anonymity of the organization site and individual.

The purpose of my study is to better understand the challenges and opportunities of Self-Supported and Free-Standing MPH degree programs in Public Research Universities. I will use my analyses of the interviews, documents, and other research work in deriving overall recommendations for policy development and operating procedures.

In my interviews with staff, faculty, alumni and students in this and another public research university I have collected qualitative data on their participation, expectations, perceptions and outcomes.

I have several questions about challenges and outcomes in your position as you try to assist applicants, students, faculty, and alumni in meeting their objectives. You can share whatever you wish and you are free to choose not to participate in all or any part of our study. If you would rather not respond to a particular question, simply say, "I would like to pass." At any time you can terminate this interview for any reason.

I have given you a **consent form** that asks for your permission to participate in this study. I will give you a few minutes to review the information on the form and confirm that you still are interested in participating.

I also ask for your **permission to audio record the interview** and to take notes during our dialogue. Recording is for the sole purpose of my being able to clearly capture information which you feel are important for me to draw accurate conclusions. Again, in order to protect your real names and identification, I will assign a pseudonym name for you and the institution.

Do you have any questions before I begin?

1. Years and type of experience have you had in the health-related field?

2. What is your current profession?

3. What led you to pursue a MPH degree?

4. How did you hear about this program?

5. What factors did you take into consideration when applying for this program?
    a. Traditional vs. online?
    b. Other online programs considered?

6. What is your opinion on the requirements for admission?
    a. What are your thoughts on the use of standardized test? (GRE, GMAT)
    b. Did the admissions requirements impact your decision?

7. What are your perceptions on the quality of the students admitted to the program?

8. What are your thoughts on being an online student vs. a campus student?

9. What year are you in your degree program?

10. What is your opinion of the hybrid education format?

11. What are your thoughts on having recorded sessions?

12. What are your thoughts on virtual office hours?

13. What do you think are some of the **strengths** of the program?

14. What do you think are some of the **weaknesses** of the program?

15. Performance Measurement - Testing vs. Project and other ways.

16. How would you describe your experience with the program administrative staff?

17. Primers? Clear road map? Objectives? The Rigor of each course?

18. What is your opinion of administrative support staff in order to address issues?
    a. What kind of support was offered?
    b. What kind of improvements could have been made?

19. What aspects/features of the program did you find most valuable and why?

20. How did your program prepare you to work in a culturally diverse environment?

21. Is there flexibility to take courses in the Regular (fulltime-day) program?

22. What is your opinion of resources available to students for career development?

23. What types of opportunities are available to students to engage with alumni?

24. In your program, are there continuing education opportunities for alumni to keep skills current (workshops, seminars, fundraising…)?

25. What are your expectations on how your degree will impact your career goals?

26. What are some of the most useful skills you have gained from the program so far?

27. What type of improvements would you suggest for the program?

Appendix E – Alumni Interview Protocol

Thank you for agreeing to meet with me for my research interview. Before I begin, I want to introduce myself and tell you about this study. **Present Business Card**. My name is Fred Hagigi, and I am a Ph.D. Candidate in UCLA's Graduate School of Education focusing on Higher Education and Organizational Change.

(**University name**) has been selected for this research because of its unique position and characteristics being innovative in creating and operating a Self-Supported MPH degree program.

In my study, I am assigning **pseudonym names** to participating institutions and to participants, preserving the anonymity of the organization site and individual.

The purpose of my study is to better understand the challenges and opportunities of Self-Supported and Free-Standing MPH degree programs in Public Research Universities. I will use my analyses of the interviews, documents, and other research work in deriving overall recommendations for policy development and operating procedures.

In my interviews with staff, faculty, alumni and students in this and another public research university I have collected qualitative data on their participation, expectations, perceptions and outcomes.

I have several questions about challenges and outcomes in your position as you try to assist applicants, students, faculty, and alumni in meeting their objectives. You can share whatever you wish and you are free to choose not to participate in all or any part of our study. If you would rather not respond to a particular question, simply say, "I would like to pass." At any time you can terminate this interview for any reason.

I have given you a **consent form** that asks for your permission to participate in this study. I will give you a few minutes to review the information on the form and confirm that you still are interested in participating.

I also ask for your **permission to audio record the interview** and to take notes during our dialogue. Recording is for the sole purpose of my being able to clearly capture information which you feel are important for me to draw accurate conclusions. Again, in order to protect your real names and identification, I will assign a pseudonym name for you and the institution.

Do you have any questions before I begin?

1. How long has it been since you graduated? What year did you complete?

2. What is your current profession?

3. How did you hear about the degree program you completed?

4. What was your experience like in the self-supported program you completed?

5. Based on your experience, what do you think were some of the strengths of the program?

6. What do you think were some of the weaknesses of the program?

7. How would you describe your experience with the program administrative staff?
    a. Were they responsive and concerned about your learning experience?

8. Was there enough support for the administrative staff in order to address issues?
    If YES, what kind of support was offered?
    If NO, what kind of improvements could have been made?

9. What kind of improvements would you suggest for the self-supported program?

10. What aspects/features of the program did you find most valuable, and why?

11. What resources were available to students for career development?

12. How has your degree helped advance your career goals?

13. Upon entering the program, to what degree were your expectations met regarding the impact on your career, personal goals, and/or to your employer?

14. To what degree do you feel that your ability to be promoted has changed as a result of entering your program?

15. Have you received new responsibilities as a result of your new studies?

16. Did you enter this program expecting a promotion as a result of your new degree?

17. Did you enter this program expecting a job change as a result of your new degree?

18. Compared to any other alternatives, did the program provide good value overall? Please elaborate why.

19. How did your program prepare you to work in a culturally diverse environment?

20. What are some of the most valuable/useful skills you gained from the program?

21. Did your program allow you to take courses in the daytime program?

22. In your program, were there opportunities for alumni to take courses to keep your skills current, similar to Continuing Education credits?

23. Were workshops offered to update your skills?

24. Would you have been interested in participating in a distance learning program?
    a. Is there value in having such a program available?
    b. How would such an opportunity enhance your program experience?
    c. What are your thoughts on having recorded sessions?
    d. Or online office hours with your instructors?
    e. What are your thoughts regarding a distance learning program?

25. Would you have preferred to have online learning opportunities
    a. Classes, workshops or certificate programs

26. What are your perceptions on the quality of the students admitted to the program?

27. What thoughts on the requirements for admission?
    a. Is the standardized test for everyone? (GRE, GMAT)
    b. How did the admissions requirements impact your decision to apply?

28. Since your graduation, how involved have you been with the university?

29. What are your thoughts on how the school, department engages their alumni.
    a. What types of events are offered (mentoring, workshops, fundraising)?
    b. How many times in a year have you attended?
    c. If you **did not** attend, why do they prefer not to attend?

30. How likely are you to provide monetary contribution to the institution you received your degree from? Have you donated in the past?

Would you like to add any comments or cover questions I should have asked?

References

Alexander, F. K. (2006). The States' Failure to Support Higher Education. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* June 30, 2006. Retrieved September 1, 2013, from http://chronicle.com/article/The-States-Failure-to/9381

Allen, W. R., Teranishi, R., Dinwiddie, G., & González, G. (2002). Kocking at Freedom's Door: Race, Equity and Affirmative Action in US Higher Education. *Journal of Public Health Policy, 23*(4), 440-452.

Altbach, P. G., Reisberg, L., & Rumbley, L. E. (2009). *Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution*. Paper presented at the UNESCO 2009 World Conference on Higher Education, Paris, France. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001831/183168e.pdf

American Association of State Colleges and Universities State Relations, & Policy Analysis Research Team. (2009). Top 10 State Policy Issues for Higher Educations in 2009 *A Higher Education Policy Brief* (pp. 1-6). Washington, D.C.: American Association of State Colleges and Universities.

American Association of University Professors. (2011). It's Not Over Yet: The Annual Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, 2010-11. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Professors.

American Association of University Professors. (2013). Trends in Instructional Staff Employment Status, 1975 - 2011. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Professors.

Archibald, R. B., & Feldman, D. (2006). State higher education spending and the tax revolt. *The Journal of Higher Education, 77*(4), 618-644.

Arias, E. (2008). United States Life Tables, 2008 *National Vital Statistics Reports* (Vol. 61). Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services: Division of Vital Statistics

Arizona Board of Regents. (2011). ASU Challenges. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from www.asuchallenges.com/home

Ashoka. (2012). About Us. Retrieved May 28, 2012, 2012, from https://www.ashoka.org/about

Association of Schools and Programs of Public Health. (2006). MPH Core Compentency Model. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.asph.org/document.cfm?page=851

Association of Schools and Programs of Public Health (Cartographer). (2012). Map of ASPPH Accredited and Associate Members. Retrieved from http://www.asph.org/userfiles/asph_map.pdf

Association of Schools of Public Health. (2008). ASPH Policy Brief: Confronting the Public Health Workforce Crisis (pp. 1-9). Washington, D.C.: Association of Schools of Public Health.

Association of University Technology Managers. (2013). Licensing Surveys-AUTM. Retrieved August 1, 2013, from http://www.autm.net/Licensing_Surveys_AUTM.htm

Aud, S., Hussar, W., Johnson, F., Kena, G., Roth, E., Manning, E., . . . Yohn, C. (2012). The Condition of Education 2012. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics.

Baez, B., & Olivas, M. (2011). The Legal Environment: The Implementation of Legal Change on Campus. In P. G. Altbach, P. J. Gumport & R. O. Berdahl (Eds.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges* (3 ed.). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Balderston, F. E. (1995). *Managing Today's University: Strategies for Viability, Change, and Excellence* (2 ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Baldridge, J. V. (1971). *Power and Conflict in the University: Research in the Sociology of Complex Organizations*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Baldwin, R. G., & Chronister, J. L. (2001). *Teaching without Tenure: Policies and Practices for a New Era*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Basken, P. (2012). Public no Longer? NSF Sounds Alarm Over Cuts at State Research Universities. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved August 21, 2013, from http://chronicle.com/article/NSF-Raises-Alarm-Over-Falling/134626/

Bess, J. L., & Dee, J. R. (2008). *Understanding College and University Organization: Dynamics of the System* (Vol. 2). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Birnbaum, R. (1989). The Latent Organizational Functions of the Academic Senate: Why Senates Do Not Work But Will Not Go Away. *The Journal of Higher Education, 60*(4), 423-443.

Birnbaum, R., & Edelson, P. J. (1991). *How Colleges Work: The Cybernetics of Academic Organization and Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Bland, C. J. (2009). *Faculty success through mentoring : a guide for mentors, mentees, and leaders*. Lanham, Md.: Rowman & Littlefield Education.

Bliuc, A.-M., Goodyear, P., & Ellis, R. A. (2007). Research Focus and Methodological Choices in Studies into Students' Experiences of Blended Learning in Higher Education. *The internet and higher education, 10*(4), 231-244.

Booker, E. (2013, February 13, 2014). Education Tech Investments Surpassed $1 Billion In 2012. *InformationWeek.* from http://www.informationweek.com/software/education-tech-investments-surpassed-$1-billion-in-2012/d/d-id/1108366?

Bornstein, D. (2004). *How to Change the World : Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bowen, H. (1997a). Goals: The Intended Outcomes of Higher Education *Investment in Learning: The Individual and Social Value of American Higher Education* (2 ed., pp. 23-37). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Bowen, H. (1997b). *Investment in Learning: The Individual and Social Value of American Higher Education* (2 ed.). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Boyer, E. L. (1996). The Scholarship of Engagement. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 49*(7), 18-33.

Brazziel, W. F. (1992). Older Students and Doctoral Production. *Review of Higher Education, 15*, 449-449.

Breneman, D. W. (1997). The "Privatization" of Public Universities: Mistake or Model? *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved September 1, 2013, from http://chronicle.com/article/ThePrivatization-of-Public/76144/

Breneman, D. W., & Finney, J. E. (1997). The Changing Landscape: Higher Education Finance in the 1990s. In P. M. Callan & J. E. Finney (Eds.), *Public and Private Financing of Higher Education: Shaping Public Policy for the Future* (pp. 30-59). Phoenix, AZ: The American Council on Education and Oryx Press.

Brickman, W. W. (1972). American Higher Education in Historical Perspective. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 404*(1), 31-43.

Bridgeman, B., Burton, N., & Cline, F. (2008). Understanding What the Numbers Mean: A Straightforward Approach to GRE Predictive Validity. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Brookes, J. (2010). Big Ideas: J. Gregory Dees makes the case for social entreprenuership. Retrieved May 1, 2013, from http://dowser.org/big-ideas-j-gregory-dees-makes-the-case-for-social-entrepreneurship/

Calhoun, J. G., Ramiah, K., McGean Weist, E., & Shortell, S. M. (2008). Development of a Core Competency Model for the Master of Public Health Degree. *American Journal of Public Health, 98*(9), 1598-1607.

Campbell, C., & Van der Wende, M. (2000). International Initiatives and Trends in Quality Assurance for European Higher Education. Helsinki, Finland: European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education.

Campbell, J. (2011). *Today's University: Mimicry versus Creativity.* Paper presented at the Decolonising our Universities, Multiversity Conference, Penang, Malaysia.

Chang, M., Witt, D., Jones, J., & Hakuta, K. (2003). *Compelling Interest: Examining the Evidence on Racial Dynamics in Colleges and Universities* (1 ed.). Stanford, CA: Stanford Education.

Chapa, J., & De La Rosa, B. (2006). The Problematic Pipeline Demographic Trends and Latino Participation in Graduate Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics Programs. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 5*(3), 203-221.

Clark, B. R. (1998a). *Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation*. Bingley, United Kingdom: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Clark, B. R. (1998b). The Entrepreneurial University: Demand and Response *Tertiary Education & Management, 4*(1), 5-16.

Clark, B. R. (2003). Sustaining Change in Universities: Continuities in Case Studies and Concepts. *Tertiary Education and Management, 9*(2), 99-116.

Clark, M. J. (1984). Older and Younger Graduate Students: A Comparison of Goals, Grades, and GRE Scores. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Coalition on the Academic Workforce. (2012). A Portrait of Part-Time Faculty Members: A Summary of Findings on Part-Time Faculty Respondents to the Coalition on the Academic Workforce Survey of Contingent Faculty Members and Instructors: Coalition on the Academic Workforce

Cohen, A. M. (2009). *The Shaping of American Higher Education: Emergence and Growth of the Contemporary System* (2 ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cohen, M. D., & March, J. G. (1986). Leadership in an Organized Anarchy *Leadership and Ambiguity: The American College President* (2 ed.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.

CollegeBoard. (2007). A thirty-year look at college pricing reveals that rapidly rising prices are not a new development. *2007 Trends in Higher Education Series: Tuition and Fees over Time*.

CollegeBoard. (2011). Trends in College Pricing 2011 *Trends in Higher Education Series*: CollegeBoard Advocacy and Policy Center.

CollegeBoard. (2012). Trends in College Pricing 2012 *Trends in Higher Education Series*: CollegeBoard Advocacy and Policy Center.

CollegeBoard. (2013). Tuition and Fees at Flagship Universities Over Time in Current Dollars and in 2012 Dollars. *Trends in Higher Education.* Retrieved August 15, 2013, 2013, from http://trends.collegeboard.org/college-pricing/figures-tables/tuition-and-fees-flagship-universities-over-time

Collins, J. C. (2005). Good to Great and the Social Sectors: A Monograph to Accompany Good to Great [sound recording]. New York, NY: Harper Business.

Council for Higher Education Accreditation. (2006a). Accreditation and Accountability: A CHEA Special Report. Washington, D.C.: Council for Higher Education Accreditation,.

Council for Higher Education Accreditation. (2006b). Accreditation, Professional Interest and the Public Interest? Conflict or Convergence? Retrieved August 2, 2012, 2012, from http://www.chea.org/ia/IA_103006v2.htm

Council of Public Health Practice Coordinators. (1999). Demonstrating Excellence in Academic Public Health Practice. Washington, D.C.: Association of Schools of Public Health

Council on Education for Public Health. (2005). Accreditation Criteria: Schools of Public Health. Retrieved 2013, September 1, 2013, from http://www.ceph.org/assets/SPH-Criteria.pdf

Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*, 209-240.

Cross, J. G., & Goldenberg, E. N. (2009). *Off-Track Profs: Nontenured Teachers in Higher Education*. Cambridge Massachusettes: MIT Press.

Crow, M. (2010). Toward Institutional Innovation in America's Colleges and Universities. *Trusteeship, 18,* 2-5.

Crow, M. (Producer). (2011). The Challenges We Face. Retrieved from http://vimeo.com/19442680

Dees, J. G. (1998). The Meaning of Social Entrepreneurship (pp. 1-6). Kansas City, MO: Kauffman Center for Entrepreneurial Leadership.

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. (1983). The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organization Fields. *American sociological review, 48*(2), 147-160.

Dolowitz, D. P., & Marsh, D. (2000). Learning from Abroad: The Role of Policy Transfer in Contemporary Policy-Making. *Governance, 13*(1), 5-23.

Dowd, A. C. (2003). From Access to Outcome Equity: Revitalizing the Democratic Mission of the Community College. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 586*(1), 92-119. doi: 10.1177/0095399702250214

Duderstadt, J. J. (2000). *A University for the 21st Century* (1 ed.). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Duderstadt, J. J., & Womack, F. W. (2003). *The Future of the Public University in America: Beyond the Crossroads*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Eaton, J. S. (2012). An Overview of U.S. Accreditation. Washington, D.C.: Council for Higher Education Accreditation.

Educational Testing Service. (2008). Factors That Can Influence Performance on the GRE General Test 2006-2007. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Ehrenberg, R. G. (2006). The Perfect Storm and the Privatization of Public Higher Education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 38,* 46-53.

Ehrenberg, R. G., & Zhang, L. (2005). Do Tenured and Tenure-Track Faculty Matter? *Journal of Human Resources, 40*(3), 647-659.

Fairweather, J. S., & Beach, A. L. (2002). Variations in faculty work at research universities: Implications for state and institutional policy. *The Review of Higher Education, 26*(1), 97-115.

Fairweather, J. S., & Hodges, J. P. (2006). Higher Education and the New Economy. Lansing, MI: Education Policy Center at Michigan State University

Federal Reserve Bank of New York. (2013). Quarterly Report on Household Debt and Credit. New York, NY: Federal Reserve Bank of New York.

Feinstein, L., Sabates, R., Anderson, T. M., Sorhaindo, A., & Hammond, C. (2006). What are the effects of education on health? In R. Desjardins & T. Schuller (Eds.), *Measuring the Effects of Education on Health and Civic Engagement: Proceedings of the Copenhagen symposium*. Copenhagen, Denmark: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Findlay, C. C., & Tierney, W. G. (2010). *Globalisation and Tertiary Education in the Asia-Pacific: The Changing Nature of a Dynamic Market* (1 ed.). Hackensack, NJ: World Scientific Publishing.

Floden, R. E. (1983). Flexner, Accreditation, and Evaluation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 2*(2), 35-46.

Friedman, T. L. (2006). *The World Is Flat: A Brief History of the Twenty-first Century* (1 ed.). New York, NY: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.

Gan, L., & Gong, G. (2007). Estimating Interdependence Between Health and Education in a Dynamic Model. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Gappa, J. M., & Leslie, D. W. (1993). *The Invisible Faculty: Improving the Status of Part-Timers in Higher Education* (1 ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Geiger, R. L., & Heller, D. E. (2011). Financial Trends in Higher Education: The United States. University Park, PA: Center for the Study of Higher Education at Pennsylvania State University.

Ghani, A., & Lockhart, C. (2009). *Fixing Failed States: A Framework for Rebuilding a Fractured World* (1 ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Giroux, H. A. (2002). Neoliberalism, Corporate Culture, and the Promise of Higher Education: The University as a Democratic Public Sphere. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*(4), 425-464.

Gladieux, L. E., & King, J. E. (2011). The Federal Government and Higher Education. In P. G. Altbach, Berdahl, R.O., and Gumport, P.G. (Ed.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges* (3 ed., pp. 151-182). Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry* (1 ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Gumport, P. J. (2000). Academic Restructuring: Organizational Change and Institutional Imperatives. *Higher Education, 39*(1), 67-91.

Gumport, P. J. (2001a). Built to Serve: the Enduring Legacy of Public Higher education. In J. S. Johnston, P. G. Altbach & P. J. Gumport (Eds.), *In defense of American higher education* (pp. 85-109). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Gumport, P. J. (2001b). Restructuring: Imperatives and Opportunities for Academic Leaders. *Innovative Higher Education, 25*(4), 239-251.

Gutmann, A. (1999a). *Democratic Education* (Revised ed.). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Gutmann, A. (1999b). The Purposes of Higher Education *Democratic education* (pp. 172-193). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Hazelkorn, E. (2008). Learning to Live with League Tables and Ranking: The Experience of Institutional Leaders. *Higher Education Policy, 21*(2), 193-215.

Hazelkorn, E. (2012). Everyone Wants to be Like Harvard - Or Do They? Cherishing All Missions Equally. In A. Curaj, P. Scott & L. Wilson (Eds.), *European Higher Education at the Crossroads* (Vol. 2, pp. 837-862). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.

Heller, D. E. (2011). *The States and Public Higher Education Policy: Affordability, Access, and Accountability* (2 ed.). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Hossler, D. (2000). The Problem with College Rankings. *About Campus, 5*(1), 20-24.

Hossler, D., & Foley, E. M. (1995). Reducing the Noise in the College Choice Process: The Use of College Guidebooks and Ratings. *New directions for institutional research, 1995*(88), 21-30.

House, J. D. (1989). Age Bias in Prediction of Graduate Grade Point Average from Graduate Record Examination Scores. *Educational and psychological measurement, 49*(3), 663-666.

Hovey, H. (1999). State Spending for Higher Education in the Next Decade: State Policy Research, Inc. The National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education.

Humphreys, J. (2010). Educational Endowments and the Financial Crisis: Social Costs and the Systemic Risks in the Shadow of the Banking System. Boston, MA: Center for Social Philanthropy at Tellus Institute

Hurtado, S. (2003). Institutional Diversity in American Higher Education. In S. R. Komives & D. Woodward (Eds.), *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (4 ed., pp. 23-44). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hurtado, S., Eagan, M., Pryor, J., Whang, H., & Tran, S. (2012). Undergraduate Teaching Faculty: The 2010-2011 HERI Faculty Survey. Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute at University of California Los Angeles.

Illinois State University. (2013). Historical Data. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://grapevine.illinoisstate.edu/historical/

Jaschik, S. (2008a). Baylor Pays for SAT Gains. Retrieved June 23, 2013, from http://www.insidehighered.com/news/2008/10/15/baylor

Jaschik, S. (2008b). U.S. News Sees Drop in Participation. Retrieved February 9, 2013, from http://www.insidehighered.com/news/2008/08/22/usnews

Johnson, C., & Green, B. (2010). 100 years After the Flexner Report: Reflections on its Influence on Chiropractic Education. *The Journal of chiropractic education, 24*(2), 145.

Kane, T., & Orszag, P. (2003). Funding restrictions at public universities: Effects and policy implications. *Washington DC: Brookings Institution Working Paper, 102*.

Kane, T. J., Orszag, P., & Gunter, D. (2003). State Fiscal Constraints and Higher Education Spending: The Role of Medicaid and the Business Cycle. Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute.

Kane, T. J., & Orszag, P. R. (2004). Financing Public Higher Education: Short–term and Long–term Challenges (pp. 33-39): Ford Policy Forum.

Kelderman, E. (2009). Public colleges consider privatization as a cure for the common recession. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved September 2, 2012, 2012, from http://chronicle.com/article/Public-Colleges-Consider/44370

Kelderman, E. (2011). State Spending on Higher Education Edges Down, as Deficits Loom. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved September 3, 2012, 2012, from http://chronicle.com/article/State-Spending-on-Colleges/126020/

Kelderman, E. (2012). State Support for Colleges Falls 7.6% in 2012 Fiscal Year. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved January 23, 2013, 2013, from http://chronicle.com/article/State-Support-for-Higher/130414/

Kelderman, E. (2013). States Strike Budget Bargains with Higher Education. http://chronicle.com/article/States-Strike-Budget-Bargains/140313/

Kellogg, A. P., & Tomsho, R. (2009). Obama plans community-college initiative. *The Wall Street Journal*.

Kendzior, S. (2013). Academia's Indentured Servants. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/2013/04/20134119156459616.html

Kerr, C. (2001). *The Uses of the University* (5 ed.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kezar, A. J. (2004). Obtaining Integrity? Reviewing and Examining the Charter Between Higher Education and Society. *The Review of Higher Education, 27*(4), 429-459.

Kezar, A. J., Chambers, T. C., & Burkhardt, J. (2005). *Higher education for the public good: Emerging voices from a national movement*: Jossey-Bass San Francisco.

Kochanek, K., Arias, E., & Anderson, R. (2010). How Did Cause of Death Contribute to Racial Differences in Life Expectancy in the United States in 2010? Washington D.C.: National Center for Health Statistics.

Kreitzer, M., Kliewer, B., & Meeker, W. (2009). Health Professions Education and Integrative Health Care. *Journal of Science and Healing, 5*(4), 212-227.

Kristoffersen, D., Sursock, A., & Westerheijden, D. F. (1998). Manual of Quality Assurance: Procedures and Practice *Quality Assurance in Higher Education:* : European Training Foundation.

Kuncel, N. R., Hezlett, S. A., & Ones, D. S. (2001). A Comprehensive Meta-Analysis of the Predictive Calidity of the Graduate Record Examinations: Implications for Graduate Student Selection and Performance. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(1), 162-181.

Kuncel, N. R., Wee, S., Serafin, L., & Hezlett, S. A. (2010). The Validity of the Graduate Record Examination for Master's and Doctoral Programs: A Meta-Analytic Investigation. *Educational and psychological measurement, 70*(2), 340-352.

Levin, R. (2006, November 7, 2006). *Globalization and the University.* Paper presented at the Poder Conference, Washington, D.C.

Lewin, T. (2009, March 17, 2009). State Colleges Also Face Cuts in Ambitions, *The New York Times,* p. A1. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2009/03/17/us/17university.html?pagewanted=all

Lewin, T. (2013). Gap Widens for Faculty at Colleges, Report Finds. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.nytimes.com/2013/04/08/education/gap-in-university-faculty-pay-continues-to-grow-report-finds.html?_r=3&

Lightfoot, R. C., & Doerner, W. G. (2008). Student Success and Failure in a Graduate Criminology/Criminal Justice Program. *American Journal of Criminal Justice, 33*(1), 113-129.

Liu, X., & Zhang, L. (2007). *What Determines Employment of Part-Time Faculty in Higher Education Institutions?* School of Industrialand Labor Relations. Cornell University. Ithaca, NY.

Mangan, K. (2013). Inside the Filpped Classroom. *Chronicle of Higher Education.* September 30, 2013. Retrieved 5, 60, from http://chronicle.com/article/Inside-the-Flipped-Classroom/141891/

Mars, M. M., Slaughter, S., & Rhoades, G. (2008). The State-Sponsored Student Entrepreneur. *The Journal of Higher Education, 79*(6), 638-670.

Maxwell, J. A. (2012). *Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach* (3 ed. Vol. 41). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

McCormick, A. C. (2007). Hidden in Plain View. *Views.* Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.insidehighered.com/views/2007/05/10/mccormick

McCormick, A. C., & Zhao, C. M. (2005). Rethinking and Reframing the Carnegie Classification. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 37,* 51-57.

McDonough, P. M., Lising, A., Walpole, A. M., & Perez, L. X. (1998). College Rankings: Democratized College Knowledge for Whom? *Research in Higher Education, 39*(5), 513-537.

McGuinness Jr, A. C. (2011). The States and Higher Education. In P. G. Altbach, P. J. Gumport & R. O. Berdahl (Eds.), *American Higher Education in the Twenty-First Century: Social, Political, and Economic Challenges.* (3rd ed., pp. 151-182). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

McPherson, M., Gobstein, H., & Shulenburger, D. (2010a). Ensuring Public Research Universities Remain Vital. Washington, D.C.: Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities.

McPherson, M., Gobstein, H., & Shulenburger, D. (2010b). Funding and the Future of U.S. Public Research Universities. *Innovations: Technology, Governance, Globalization, 5*(2), 23-30.

Meredith, M. (2004). Why do Universities Compete in the Ratings Game? An Empirical Analysis of the Effects of the U.S. News and World Report College Rankings. *Research in Higher Education, 45*(5), 443-461.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education: Revised and Expanded from Case Study Research in Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Mintzberg, H. (2004). *Managers, not MBAs: A hard look at the soft practice of managing and management development*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Morphew, C., & Eckel, P. (2009). *Privatizing the Public University: Perspectives from Across the Academy.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Morphew, C. C., & Hartley, M. (2006). Mission Statements: A Thematic Analysis of Rhetoric Across Institutional Types. *The Journal of Higher Education, 77*(3), 456-471.

Morrison, T., & Morrison, M. (1995). A Meta-Analytic Assessment of the Predictive Validity of the Quantitative and Verbal Components of the Graduate Record Examination with Grade Point Averages Representing the Criterion of Graduate Success. *Educational and psychological measurement, 55*(2), 309-316.

Morse, R., & Flanigan, S. (2008). How We Calculate the Rankings. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.usnews.com/education/articles/2008/08/21/how-we-calculate-the-rankings

Morse, R., & Flanigan, S. (2013). How U.S. News Calculated the 2014 Best Graduate School Rankings. Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.usnews.com/education/best-graduate-schools/articles/2013/03/11/how-us-news-calculated-the-2014-best-graduate-schools-rankings

National Academy of Sciences, & National Academy of Engineering. (2007). What Might Life in the United States Be Like if It Is Not Competitive in Science and Technology? *Rising Above the Gathering Storm: Energizing and Employeeing*

America for a Brighter Economic Future (pp. 204-224). Washington, D.C.: The National Academies Press.

National Science Board. (2012). Diminishing Funding and Rising Expectations: Trends and Challenges for Public Research Universities *A Companion to Science and Engineering Indicators 2012*. Washington D.C.: National Science Foundation.

Nemec, M. R. (2006). *Ivory Towers And Nationalist Minds: Universities, Leadership, And the Development of the American State*: University of Michigan Press.

Nemec, M. R. (2006). *Ivory Towers and Nationalist Minds: Universities, Leadership, and the Development of the American State*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Newfield, C. (2008). *Unmaking the Public University: The Forty-Year Assault on the Middle Class*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Nishimura, G. (2009). A Failing Grade: "High-Tuition/High-Aid". Seattle, WA: Economic Opportunity Institute.

Northcutt, N., & McCoy, D. (2004). *Interactive Qualitative Analysis: A Systems Method for Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Obama, B. (Writer). (2009). Remarks of President Barack Obama – As Prepared for Delivery: Address to Joint Session of Congress. Washington, D.C.: The White House.

Oliff, P., Palacios, V., Johnson, I., & Leachman, M. (2013). Recent Deep State Higher Education Cuts May Harm Students and the Economy for Years to Come. Washington, D.C.: Center for Budget and Policy Priorities.

Oreopoulos, P., Von Wachter, T., & Heisz, A. (2006). The Short- and Long-Term Career Effects of Graduating in a Recession: Hysteresis and Heterogeneity in the Market for College Graduates. In N. W. P. Series (Ed.). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.

Oseguera, L., & Astin, A. W. (2004). The Declining "Equity" of American Higher Education. *The Review of Higher Education, 27*(3), 321-341.

Palmer, J. (2013). *State Fiscal Support for Higher Education, by State, Fiscal Years 2007-08, 2010-11, 2011-12, and 2012-13*.

Palmer, J. C. (2012). Grapevine Compilation of State Fiscal Support for Higher Education Fiscal Year 2011-2012. Normal, IL: Center for the Study of Education Policy at Illinois State University.

Parker, L. (2011). University Corporatisation: Driving Redefinition. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 22*(4), 434-450.

Perlino, C. M. (2006). The Public Health Workforce Shortage: Left Unchecked, Will We Be Protected? Washington, D.C.: American Public Health Association

Peterson, M. W., & Mets, L. A. (1987). *Key Resources on Higher Education Governance, Management, and Leadership: A Guide to the Literature* (1 ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (2003). *The External Control of Organisations: A Resource Dependence Perspective*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Priest, D. M., & St. John, E. P. (2006). *Privatization and Public Universities*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Reisig, M. D., & DeJong, C. (2005). Using GRE Scores and Prior GPA to Predict Academic Performance Among Criminal Justice Graduate Students. *Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 16*(1), 37-59.

Rhoades, G., & Slaughter, S. (2000). The Neo-Liberal University. *New Labor Forum*(6), 73-79. doi: 10.2307/40342886

Rhoades, G., & Slaughter, S. (2004a). *Academic Capitalism and the New Economy: Markets, State, and Higher Education*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Rhoades, G., & Slaughter, S. (2004b). Academic Capitalism in the New Economy: Challenges and Choices. *American Academic, 1*(1), 37-59.

Rhoades, G., & Slaughter, S. (2005). Markets in Higher Education: Students in the Seventies, Patents in the Eighties, Copyrights in the Nineties. In P. G. Altbach, R. O. Berdahl & P. G. Gumport (Eds.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges* (Vol. 2, pp. 486-516). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Rhoades, G., & Slaughter, S. (2010). *Academic Capitalism and the New Economy: Markets, State, and Higher Education*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Rhoads, R. A. (2011). The US Research University as a Global Model: Some Fundamental Problems to Consider. *InterActions: UCLA Journal of Education and Information Studies, 7*(2).

Rhoads, R. A., & Liu, A. (2009). Globalization, Social movements, and the American University: Implications for Research and Practice. *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research*, 273-315.

Rhoten, D. R., & Powell, W. W. (2011). Public Research Universities. In D. Rhoten & C. Calhoun (Eds.), *From Land Grant to Federal Grant to Patent Grant Institutions* (pp. 319-345). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.

Roherty, B. M. (1997). *The Price of Passive Resistance in Financing Higher Education*. Phoenix, AZ: American Council on Education

Roper, C. D., & Hirth, M. A. (2010). A history of change in the third mission of higher education: The evolution of one-way service to interactive engagement. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 10*(3), 3-21.

Rudolph, F., & Thelin, J. R. (1990). *The American College and University: A History*. Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press.

Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2003). Techniques to Identify Themes. *Field methods, 15*(1), 85-109.

Santos, B. S. (2006). The university in the 21st century: Toward a democratic and emancipatory university reform. *The university, state, and market: The political economy of globalization in the Americas*, 60–100.

Santos, J. L. (2006). Resource allocation within US public research universities: Income production function and socially constructed decision-making approaches (I. f. H. E. L. Governance, Trans.). Houston: Univeristy of Houstan Law center.

Santos, J. L. (2007). Resource allocation in public research universities. *The Review of Higher Education, 30*(2), 125-144.

Santos, J. L. (2014). *Winners and losers in the resource allocation function: Social construction of diversity, efficiency, productivity, and university, and the external world*.

Santos, J. L., Rhoades, G., & Lucas, S. R. (2014). *Mapping the discourse against the ledge: the balance among our enrollment, diversity, quulaity and revenuews*.

Schatz, A. (2013). States Raise College Budgets After Years of Deep Cuts. *The Wall Street Journal*. http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424127887324125504578508981551931820.html

Schensul, S. L., Schensul, J. J., & LeCompte, M. D. (1999). *Essential Ethnographic Methods: Observations, Interviews, and Questionnaires*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Schmidt, P. (2013). Campus Relations Aren't as Frayed as You Might Think. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 60*(6), A22-A25.

Schuster, J. H., & Finkelstein, M. J. (2006). *The American Faculty: The Restructuring of Academic Work and Careers*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Slaughter, S., & Leslie, L. L. (1997). *Academic Capitalism: Politics, Policies, and the Entrepreneurial University* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Smedley, B. D., Stith, A. Y., & Nelson, A. R. (2003). Committee on Understanding and Eliminating Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Health Care, Board on Health Sciences Policy, Institute of Medicine *Unequal treatment: confronting racial and ethnic disparities in health care* (pp. 160-179).

Smedley, B. D., Stith, A. Y., Nelson, A. R., & Institute of Medicine. (2009). *Unequal Treatment: Confronting Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Health Care* Washington, D.C.: National Academies Press.

State Higher Education Executive Officers. (2013a). Net Tuition as a Percent of Public Higher Education Total Educational Revenues, U.S., Fiscal 1987-2012. Boulder, CO: State Higher Education Executive Officers.

State Higher Education Executive Officers. (2013b). Public FTE Enrollment and Educational Appropriations per FTE, U.S., Fiscal 1987-2012. Boulder, CO: State Higher Education Executive Officers.

State Public Research University. (1979 - 2013). Data.

State Public Research University. (1979 - 2013). Documents.

Stevens, A. (2003). 20 Years of Academic Licensing-Royalty Incone and Ecnomic Impact. *Journal of the Licensing Executtives Society, 38*(3), 133-140.

Sullivan Commission. (2007). Missing Persons: Minorities in the Health Professions. Battle Creek, MI: W.K. Kellogg Foundation.

Supiano, B. (2013). Tuition Increases Slow Down, but There's More to College Affordability

The Chronicle of Higher Education. Ocotber 23, 2013. Retrieved December 2, 2013, 2013, from http://chronicle.com/article/Tuition-Increases-Slow-Down/142547/

Swinton, S. (1987). The Predictive Validity of the Restructured GRE with Particular Attention to Older Students. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Taylor, F. W. (1914). *The Principles of Scientific Management*. New York, NY: Harper

Teixeira, P. N. (2006). Markets in Higher Education: Can We Still Learn from Economics' Founding Fathers? Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley: Center for Studies in Higher Education.

Terkla, D. G. (2001). Competencies, Regional Accreditation, and Distance Education: An Evolving Role? *New directions for institutional research, 2001*(110), 65-81.

Thelin, J. R. (2011). *A History of American Higher Education* (2nd ed.). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Tierney, W. (2006). *Governance And the Public Good*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Umble, K. E., Shay, S., & Sollecito, W. (2003). An Interdisciplinary MPH via Distance Learning: Meeting the Educational Needs of Practitioners. *Journal of Public Health Management and Practice, 9*(2), 123-135.

United Nations General Assembly. (1948). Universal Declaration of Human rights. *Resolution adopted by the General Assembly.* Retrieved September 1, 2013, 2013, from http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/index.shtml

United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2013). Earnings and unemployment rates by educational attainment Retrieved August 13, 2013, from http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_chart_001.htm

United States Census Bureau. (2012). Table 229. Educational Attainment by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1970 to 2010.

University of California System. (2012). Mission Statement. Retrieved November 10, 2012, 2012, from http://www.universityofcalifornia.edu/aboutuc/missionstatement.html

University of Michigan. (2012a). 2012 Financial Report. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

University of Michigan. (2012b). Mission Statement. Retrieved October 27, 2012, 2012, from http://president.umich.edu/mission.php

University of Texas System. (2012). Mission Statement: The University of Texas System. Retrieved October 27, 2012, 2012, from http://www.utsystem.edu/osm/mission.htm

University of Virginia. (2012). Higher Education Restructuring, University of Virginia: History. Retrieved November 10, 2012, 2012, from http://www.virginia.edu/restructuring/background.html

University of Virginia. (2013a). Campaign Reaches $3 Billion Goal. Retrieved August 20, 2013, 2013, from http://www.virginia.edu/giving/campaign/the-campaign/

University of Virginia. (2013b). State Appropriation. *Financing the University 101*. Retrieved August 20, 2013, 2013, from http://www.virginia.edu/finance101/state.html

Weber, M. (1947). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Weick, K. E. (1976). Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 21*(1), 1-19.

Weiler, W. C. (1994). Expectations, Undergraduate Debt and the Decision to Attend Graduate School: A Simultaneous Model of Student Choice. *Economics of Education Review, 13*(1), 29-41.

Weinberg, C. (2013). Federal Student-Loan Debt Crosses $1-Trillion Threshold. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* July 17, 2013. from http://chronicle.com/article/Federal-Student-Loan-Debt/140427/

Weisbrod, B. A., Ballou, J. P., & Asch, E. D. (2008). *Mission and Money: Understanding the University*. Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Woodhouse, K. (2012). University of Michigan Gearing up to Launch Mutlibillion Fundraising Campaign Next Fall. Retrieved August 20, 2013, 2013, from http://www.annarbor.com/news/university-of-michigan-gearing-up-to-launch-multiyear-fundraising-campaign-next-fall/

World Health Organization. (1978). *Declaration of Alma-Ata*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Primary Health Care, Alma-Ata, USSR. http://www.who.int/publications/almaata_declaration_en.pdf

Yeaple, R. (2012). Is the MBA Obsolete? Retrieved August 2, 2013, 2013, from http://www.forbes.com/sites/ronaldyeaple/2012/05/30/is-the-mba-obsolete/

Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (5 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Zemsky, R., & Wegner, G. R. (1997). Shaping the Future. In P. M. Callan & J. E. Finney (Eds.), *Public and Private Financing of Higher Education: Shaping Public Policy for the Future* (pp. 60-73). Westport, CT: Oryx Press.

Zemsky, R., Wegner, G. R., & Massy, W. F. (2005). *Remaking the American University: Market-Smart and Mission-Centered*. New Brunswick, N.J: Rutgers University Press.

Zimmerman, J. (2001). Can American Business Schools Survive? *Simon School of Business Working Paper no. FR*: University of Rochester: William E. Simon Graduate School of Business Administration.

Zumeta, W. (2004). State Higher Education Financing: Demand Imperatives Meet Structual, Cyclical, and Political Constraints. In E. P. St. John & M. D. Parsons (Eds.), *Public funding of higher education: Changing contexts and new rationales* (pp. 79-107). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Zumeta, W. (2009). State Support of Higher Education: The Roller Coaster Plunges Downward Yet Again *NEA 2009 Almanac of Higher Education* (pp. 29-44). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

Zumeta, W. (2012). States and Higher Education: On Their Own in a Stagnant Economy *The NEA 2012 almanac of higher education* (pp. 27-37). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.

Zusman, A. (2005). Challenges Facing Higher Education in the Twenty-First Century. In P. G. Altbach, R. O. Berdahl & P. J. Gumport (Eds.), *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges* (2 ed., pp. 115-160). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.