Organizational Structures at AAU Institutions

August 2024

Phase 1 of the Academic Affairs Organizational Structure Project

THE UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

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Executive Summary

The University of Utah (the U) is engaged in a strategic planning process to align its mission and goals with state needs and create a new national model for societal impact. A central aspect of this plan is to provide high-quality education efficiently and effectively. This work is crucial as Utah experiences significant demographic and economic shifts, requiring higher education to adapt and prepare a skilled workforce for growing industries like technology, healthcare and finance. Addressing national public skepticism about higher education's value, exacerbated by rising tuition and student debt, is also a priority. By leading in these areas, the University of Utah can reshape the national narrative on higher education, demonstrating the benefits of strategic investments in education.

The Academic Excellence Taskforce at the university has launched the Organizational Structure Project to examine how the organizational structure of academic affairs units can be optimized to support student success. This multi-phase project includes a detailed analysis of organizational structures at 38 public institutions in the Association of American Universities (AAU) and semi-structured interviews with academic leaders. Findings indicate that centrally coordinated strategies and services are critical for improving student outcomes. The research suggests that the University of Utah would benefit from a unified approach to enhancing student success while engaging stakeholders through shared governance to balance strategic goals with community voice. Recommendations for future research phases include conducting a self-study to evaluate potential structural changes' impact on University of Utah students, faculty, staff and other stakeholders. This process should align with the university's strategic planning efforts; leverage data from the office of institutional research, University Analytics and Institutional Reporting, to identify areas that need improvement; and engage stakeholders in an advisory capacity. This approach aims to ultimately align the U's resources and organizational structure with its strategy. By more efficiently advancing student success and making tangible improvements in student success metrics, the U can restore public confidence in higher education in Utah and more broadly across the U.S.

Introduction & Overview

The University of Utah is engaged in a strategic planning process designed to align the institution's outputs with the needs of the state and create a new national model for delivering societal impact. A central tenet of the plan is a focus on providing a high-quality education more effectively and efficiently. The University of Utah Academic Excellence Taskforce plays a key role in this effort by providing recommendations and feedback on strategic initiatives. The taskforce is charged with examining the current organizational structure of academic affairs, focusing on central support units and services, academic units and related auxiliary units, with the aim of identifying an optimal organizational structure that will enable the university to accomplish its goals.

To achieve this, the Organizational Structure Project, a multi-phase project commissioned by the president and provost and executed by the Academic Excellence Taskforce, will explore ways to reimagine or redesign the organizational structure of academic affairs units to optimize the university's impact on students. This research will guide and inform decision-making regarding the future organizational structure of academic affairs at the University of Utah. Phase 1 of the project focuses on understanding the U's peer community, identifying how other institutions organize their academic affairs units and uncovering academic leaders' perceptions of their institutions' organizational structure. The context and impetus for the project, along with questions that define the first phase of data collection, are described below.

Utah is changing.

Utah's demographic and economic shifts indicate a growing and diversifying population with increasing educational and workforce demands. From 2010 to 2020, Utah was the fastest growing state in the United States and today ranks larger in population than 20 states and the District of Columbia (Gardner Institute, 2023). Home to over 3.4 million Utahns, Utah has recently become a mid-sized state for the first time in history (Gardner Institute, 2023). The majority of Utah's growth can be attributed to those relocating from other states, who are drawn to Utah's exceptional quality of life and robust economy, consistently ranked among the strongest in the nation (Gardner Institute, 2023).

As Utah's population evolves, the state's economy is diversifying significantly (Gardner Institute, 2023). Moving beyond traditional industries like mining, tourism and agriculture, Utah is experiencing robust growth in sectors such as technology, healthcare and finance, with projections indicating continued expansion

in these areas. These economic shifts create a heightened demand for a skilled workforce, compelling higher education institutions to align their programs with the needs of these growing industries. With an expanding economy and a diversifying job market, there is an increased need for graduates with relevant skills and qualifications.

A changing education marketplace.

While the need for a well-prepared workforce has grown, public confidence in higher education's ability to graduate career-ready students has waned. Numerous studies have shown that public trust in higher education has significantly declined, moving away from its once-assumed status as a universally valuable investment – opening doors to better employment prospects, higher earning potential, cultural and social capital and personal growth and development. In the early 2010s, public-opinion polls demonstrated that Americans across the political spectrum largely held higher education in high esteem – a (2012) Pew Research Center survey found that 60% of U.S. adults believed that colleges have a positive effect on the country, and a (2015) Gallup survey found that 57% had a great deal or quite a lot of confidence in higher education.

A decade later, Americans are increasingly skeptical about the value and cost of earning a degree, with 68% reporting that they feel the U.S. higher education system is headed in the "wrong direction" (Jones, 2024, para. 16). Today, only about a third of U.S. adults have a great deal or quite a lot of confidence in higher education. (Jones, 2024)

During roughly that same period, national enrollment in higher education has experienced a steep decline; between fall 2010 and fall 2021, total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions decreased by approximately 15%, from 18.1 million to 15.4 million students (National Center for Education Statistics, n.d.). Survey and focus group data has linked doubts about the value of higher education to these shifts in the education marketplace (Gates Foundation, 2024).

When the public assesses the value of earning a degree, they evaluate its ability to deliver on promises – particularly those related to economic advancement and student success. As tuition costs rise faster than students can afford, students also are questioning the value of a degree in terms of economic advancement. From 1993 to 2020, the average loan amount almost tripled, exceeding $30,000. (The College Investor, 2023) The average student loan debt per borrower rose from $18,230 ($26,720 adjusted for inflation) for the class of 2007 to about $37,650 for the class of 2023 (Hanson, 2023). At the same time, over half of recent college graduates are underemployed, working in jobs that typically do not require a college degree (Strada Institute for the Future of Work, 2024). Measures of the college wealth premium – the additional wealth that a family headed by a college graduate has over a family headed by someone without a college degree – indicate that a college degree is a failed investment for many recent graduates; their net gain from having earned a college degree nears zero (Emmons, Kent, & Ricketts, 2019). The increasing financial burden of pursuing a degree – weighed against uncertain career prospects – has diminished the perceived value of a college diploma.

In this turbulent environment, the U has an unparalleled opportunity to demonstrate national leadership and reshape the narrative about higher education's value. By improving student success and enhancing operational efficiencies to make degrees more accessible,

the U will not only bolster the state's economy but also enhance individual, family and social well-being across Utah. These outcomes are crucial, particularly as taxpayer and legislative skepticism mirrors national sentiments. Utah's success can exemplify how other states can adapt to demographic and economic changes through strategic educational investments.

Organizational structure and student success.

Advancing student success is essential to prepare a skilled workforce that can support Utah's economic growth and adaptability. Serving Utah necessitates progress on student outcomes – particularly:

- **Retention Rates** (the percentage of first-year students who continue their studies at an institution from one year to the next)
- **Six-Year Completion Rates** (the percentage of undergraduate students who complete their degree program within six years); and
- **Placement Rates** (the percentage of graduates who secure employment or enter a graduate program related to their field of study within six months after graduation).

Higher retention and graduation rates reduce the overall cost of education per student, making higher education more efficient and accessible. Successful placement of graduates into relevant jobs supports the local economy by providing businesses with the talent they need to grow and innovate.

Organizational structure impacts student success in multiple ways. First, this project will provide an examination of opportunities for units to share resources and address redundancies in services. By enhancing operational efficiencies, the institution can realize cost savings and redirect them towards evidence-based strategies that advance student outcomes, such as academic advising, student-facing communications, data infrastructure and first-year support (National Institute for Student Success, 2024).

In addition to achieving cost savings, the project will include an assessment of how the university's organizational structure can be optimized to better support institutional goals. This might involve simplifying the student journey and clarifying how students access university resources such as career counseling, academic advising, financial advising and more.

Organizations such as the National Institute for Student Success, the Strada Education Foundation and the Lumina Foundation, among others, describe how identifying and addressing these types of barriers to success can lead to higher retention rates and create a more efficient pathway from admission to graduation and a stable career.

Finally, there is evidence indicating that students are more successful when faculty feel greater job satisfaction. Organizational structure can play a key role in optimizing distribution of resources and ensuring that faculty have the support they need to thrive as scholars and educators. Research indicates that faculty wellness and job satisfaction directly impact their teaching effectiveness and relationships with students, which in turn influences student success. For example, one study found that faculty mental well-being positively affects their teaching effectiveness (Yu & Ying, 2024). Instructors who are well-supported and feel satisfaction with their work are more likely to invest in their professional development and build stronger, more supportive relationships with their students (Yu & Ying, 2024). This results in better student engagement and success (Yu & Ying, 2024). In tandem with its student success initiatives, the U is also focusing several new initiatives on faculty well-being and success.

Higher retention and graduation rates reduce the overall cost of education per student, making higher education more efficient and accessible. Successful placement of graduates into relevant jobs supports the local economy by providing businesses with the talent they need to grow and innovate.

Phase 1 of the Organizational Structure Project examines how the U's peer institutions have approached the organizational structure of academic affairs. Benchmarking against peers allows university leaders to:

- **Identify best practices.** Leaders can learn from successful strategies and practices implemented by others – especially those institutions that have achieved greater success regarding student outcomes – allowing for the adaptation of these methods to the U's unique context and improving university operations.
- **Enhance student success performance.** By comparing performance metrics, leaders can identify areas where the institution lags and implement improvements, thereby enhancing student success and operational efficiency, among other outcomes.
- **Make data-informed decisions.** Benchmarking provides data-driven insights that support strategic planning and informed decision-making.

Towards this goal, in Phase 1, the following questions were explored:

- Which organizational structure(s) for academic affairs is/are the most common among peer institutions?
- What are the historical events that have led to various organizational structures for academic affairs at peer institutions?
- How might the organizational structure of academic affairs influence student success at peer institutions?
- What are the perceived benefits and drawbacks of sharing services and resources at peer institutions from the perspectives of institutional leaders?
- How might the organizational structure of academic affairs at peer institutions influence administrative efficiency and decision-making processes?
- How might the organizational structure of academic affairs at peer institutions impact faculty performance?
- How might academic unit size influence organizational structure and perceptions of academic unit efficiency and effectiveness at peer institutions?

Methods

Research methods included an analysis of organizational structures on university websites and semi-structured interviews to develop insights into how academic leaders make decisions about organizational structure. This analysis is focused on the 38 public institutions that are members of the AAU, which includes the U. Institutions in the AAU are selected by peers because they are "leading comprehensive research universities distinguished by the breadth and quality of their programs of (a) academic research and scholarship and (b) graduate education" ("AAU Membership Policy," n.d., para. 1). These 38 institutions include (in alphabetical order):

Arizona State University Campus Immersion

Georgia Institute of Technology - Main Campus

Indiana University-Bloomington

Michigan State University

Ohio State University - Main Campus

Pennsylvania State University - Main Campus

Purdue University - Main Campus

Rutgers University - New Brunswick

Stony Brook University

Texas A & M University - College Station

The University of Texas at Austin

University of Arizona

University at Buffalo

University of California- Berkeley

University of California - Davis

University of California - Irvine

University of California - Los Angeles

University of California - Riverside

University of California - San Diego

University of California - Santa Barbara

University of California - Santa Cruz

University of Colorado Boulder

University of Florida

University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign

University of Iowa

University of Kansas

University of Maryland-College Park

University of Michigan-Ann Arbor

University of Minnesota-Twin Cities

University of Missouri-Columbia

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

University of Oregon

University of Pittsburgh- Pittsburgh Campus

University of South Florida

University of Utah

University of Virginia-Main Campus

University of Washington - Seattle Campus

University of Wisconsin-Madison

Figure 1. AAU Institutions: Status - Land Grant, Med School and Hospital

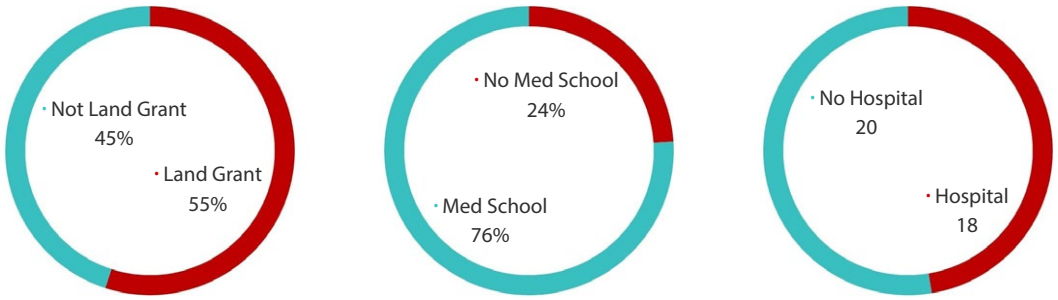


Figure 1 above shows the institutional status with respect to land grant designation and whether the institution has a medical school or a hospital.

See Appendix A: AAU Institutions for a series of tables and figures that also show student enrollment, tuition and fees, admission and graduation rates, certain revenue sources, endowment size and research expenditures at the institutional level across the 38 AAU public institutions.

Analysis of Organizational Structures

To identify the number and type of colleges and schools within each institution, institutional websites were visited, and the "academics" or "colleges and schools" homepage for each institution was searched.

Institutions often include academic support units such as "graduate" or "undergraduate" schools in their list of colleges. It appears that these units that are self-identified by the institution to be in their college list largely function as support units. Some may offer interdisciplinary degrees, but not all do. In addition, some institutions may have these functions as separate units but do not include them in the list of colleges on their website. Therefore, two counts were completed, identifying a "core colleges" count that excludes these support-type units, and a "total count" that includes all units identified on the institutions' websites. This analysis relies predominantly on the count of core colleges.

A high amount of variation across institutions was observed for naming and organizing liberal arts and science disciplines, necessitating a deeper examination of naming conventions and organization for those particular fields. For institutions with a College of Arts and Sciences (other alternative names include "Letters and Science" or "Letters, Arts and Sciences" to name two variations), that particular institution's arts and sciences homepage was visited to examine the disciplines offered within that college. Historical records were also reviewed to identify the evolution of the U's organizational structure for liberal arts and sciences disciplines, with a specific focus on University of Utah catalog archives.

Data was retrieved about each of the public AAU institutions from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) database. The IPEDS database provides the public with a comprehensive set of data maintained by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), a part of the U.S. Department of Education. NCES gathers information from every college, university and technical and vocational institution that participates in federal student financial aid programs under Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965. The IPEDS database includes acceptance rates, four- and six-year completion rates and total enrollment, among other data.

Semi-Structured Interviews

The interview data come from eight semi-structured interviews conducted with senior leaders at AAU institutions in July and August 2024. Participants included three provosts, three chiefs of staff to the provost, two vice provosts, and one special assistant to the provost. (One interview had two participants.) Interviews were necessary to explore the history of organizational structure and to gain a deeper understanding of the rationale behind structure, which is most often undocumented.

The procedure for selecting and recruiting participants for the semi-structured interviews began with a review of the 38 public AAU institutions. The 17 institutions that have a hospital were selected for inclusion to create a comparable group to the University of Utah. To recruit interview participants, the U's provost sent an email to provosts of the 17 institutions. Leaders from eight institutions agreed to participate.

One of the participating institutions had a greater number of core colleges than the U, while the remaining seven had fewer core colleges. Two of the institutions had fewer total students enrolled, while the remaining six had more total students enrolled. The median total enrollment among the eight institutions was 42,006. All institutions had lower acceptance rates and higher six-year graduation rates than the U (which has acceptance and six-year graduation rates of 87% and 64%, respectively). The median acceptance rate among the eight institutions was 47%, while the median six-year graduation rate was 86%. Finally, due to the variation in structures of arts and sciences disciplines (and because several participants referred to their arts and sciences academic units), it is worth noting that two institutions did not have a college that combined liberal arts and sciences, while six had combined many of these disciplines under one large college.

Each interview lasted between 45 and 60 minutes. The interview guide included open-ended questions designed to elicit detailed responses about participants' experiences with organizational structure changes and perceptions of their institution's organizational structure.

Sample questions included:

- Can you describe the current organizational structure of academic affairs at your university?
- What are the key principles or philosophies that guide decision-making regarding your organizational structure?
- Can you share an example of a major change in your organizational structure and its impact on operations, faculty performance and/or student outcomes?

(See Appendix B: Interview Guide for the full list of prepared questions.)

Participants were sent interview questions in advance to encourage thoughtful responses and to ensure the participant had the knowledge and experience to address questions. Interviews were conducted via video conference. Interviews were not recorded to enhance candor in responses and establish trust with participants. Maintaining confidentiality was especially important in the study, given the small population from which the sample was generated. Two project team members attended each interview and compared interview notes to ensure participant responses were captured accurately. One interviewer used shorthand to record notes while the other interviewer recorded key themes and captured direct quotes that were particularly insightful. Notes of the two interviewers were compared to enhance accuracy and consistency of the data.

All institutions included in the analysis had lower acceptance rates and higher six-year graduation rates than University of Utah (which has acceptance and six-year graduation rates of 87% and 64%, respectively).

The interview notes were analyzed using inductive thematic analysis that began with familiarization with the data, coding statements and phrases related to the research questions, identifying patterns among the codes and developing and naming themes.

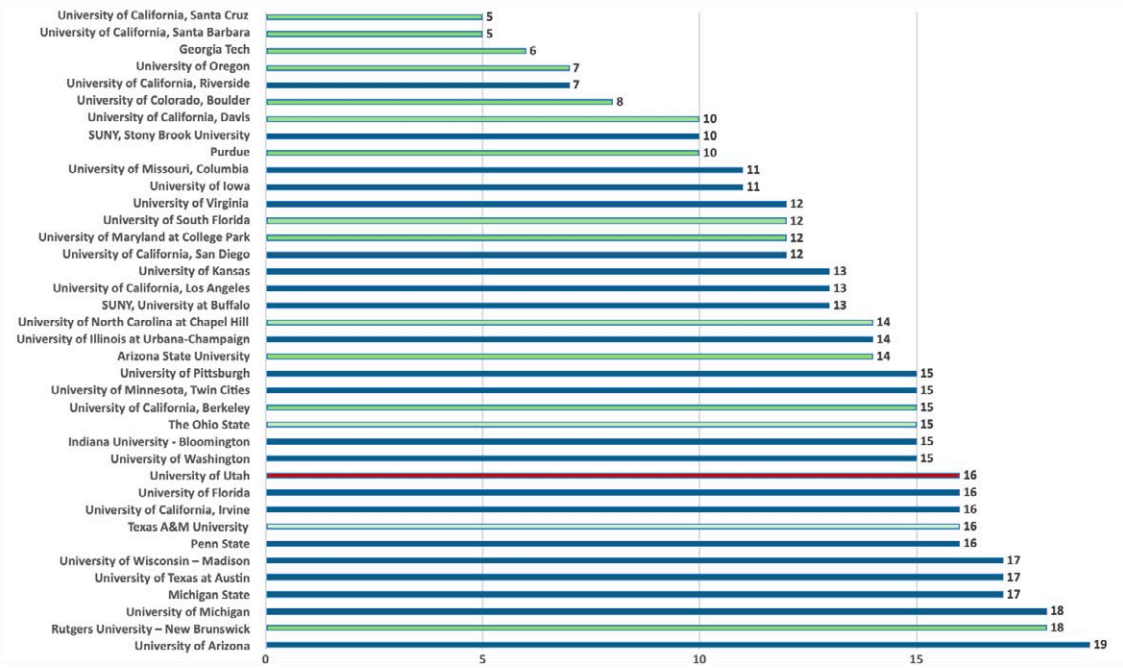
Open coding to identify initial themes in the data resulted in over 50 codes. Open coding was followed by axial coding to develop categories and identify patterns among the data. Selective coding was used to refine and organize categories into coherent themes to address the research questions.

Findings

Analysis of Organizational Structures

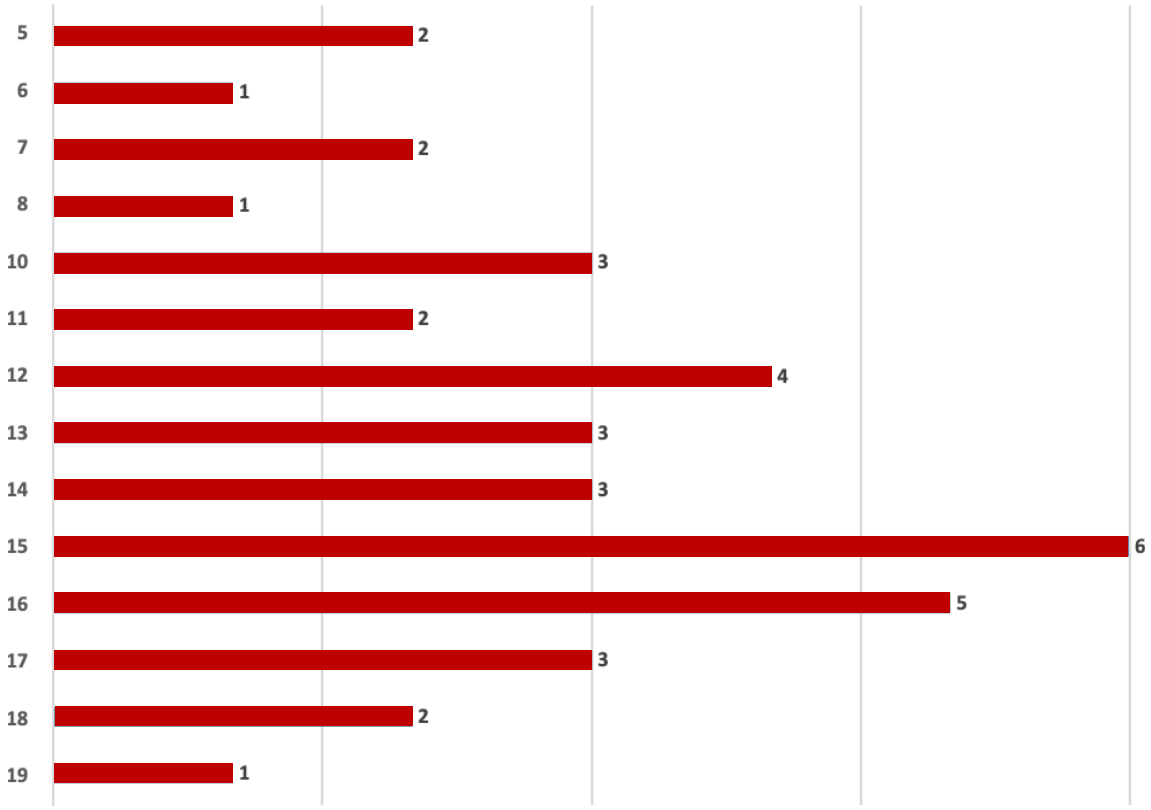
Among the 38 AAU public institutions, the number of colleges at an institution ranges from five to 19 (see Figure 2), with over half (53%) of institutions having 13 to 17 colleges (see Figure 3).

Figure 2. Number of Core Colleges at AAU Public Institutions



Institutions highlighted in green do not have a medical school. The University of Utah is highlighted in red for internal illustration purposes; it has a medical school.

Figure 3. Frequency of the Number of Core Colleges at AAU Public Institutions



Universities with large student enrollments tended to have more core colleges, with some exceptions. (See Table 1: AAU Public Institutions, Enrollment, and Core Colleges.) The two institutions with enrollment most similar to the University of Utah (University of California-Irvine with an enrollment of 36,582 and University of Pittsburgh-Pittsburgh Campus with an enrollment of 34,525) have a similar number of colleges (16 and 15, respectively). However, among all AAU public institutions, the University of Utah has a relatively low number of students per college. This number does not represent the average college size or the enrollment of any individual college. It is a simple illustrative calculation to show the relationship between enrollment and number of core colleges.

Universities with large student enrollments tended to have more core colleges, with some exceptions. (See Table 1: AAU Public Institutions, Enrollment, and Core Colleges.)

Table 1: AAU Public Institutions, Enrollment and Core Colleges

Institution	Enrollment	Core Colleges	Enrollment per Number of Core Colleges
University of Virginia - Main Campus	25,924	12	2,160
University of Kansas	28,406	13	2,185
University of Utah	35,260	16	2,204
University of California - Irvine	36,582	16	2,286
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	32,234	14	2,302
University of Pittsburgh - Pittsburgh Campus	34,525	15	2,302
University at Buffalo	31,889	13	2,453
Stony Brook University	25,865	10	2,587
University of Iowa	30,042	11	2,731
University of Arizona	53,001	19	2,790
Rutgers University-New Brunswick	50,617	18	2,812
University of Missouri - Columbia	31,013	11	2,819
University of Michigan - Ann Arbor	52,065	18	2,893
University of Wisconsin - Madison	49,605	17	2,918
Michigan State University	51,316	17	3,019
University of California - Berkeley	45,699	15	3,047
University of Texas at Austin	53,082	17	3,122
Pennsylvania State University - Main Campus	50,399	16	3,150
Indiana University-Bloomington	47,527	15	3,168
University of Oregon	23,786	7	3,398
University of Maryland-College Park	40,813	12	3,401

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University of Florida	54,814	16	3,246
University of California - San Diego	42,376	12	3,531
University of California - Los Angeles	46,678	13	3,591
University of Minnesota - Twin Cities	54,890	15	3,659
University of Washington - Seattle Campus	55,620	15	3,708
University of California - Riverside	26,426	7	3,775
University of California - Santa Cruz	19,764	5	3,953
University of California - Davis	39,707	10	3,971
Ohio State University - Main Campus	60,046	15	4,003
University of Illinois Urbana - Champaign	56,563	14	4,040
University of South Florida	48,572	12	4,048
Texas A & M University - College Station	76,633	16	4,790
University of Colorado Boulder	41,432	8	5,179
University of California-Santa Barbara	26,068	5	5,214
Purdue University - Main Campus	52,905	10	5,291
Arizona State University Campus Immersion	79,593	14	5,685
Georgia Institute of Technology - Main Campus	47,946	6	7,991

Most of the AAU public institutions have a school of medicine (29, or 76%). For institutions with a school of medicine, it is common for the institution to also have colleges in allied heath fields (nursing, health, pharmacy, dentistry, optometry or veterinary). AAU institutions with more colleges typically have medicine and allied health colleges. For instance, all institutions with 15 or more colleges have a medical school, other than UC Berkely. There are just three institutions with 11 or more colleges and no medical school:

- **University of Maryland at College Park** 12 colleges
- **Arizona State University** 14 colleges
- **University of California Berkely** 15 colleges

There are only nine AAU public institutions that have 10 or fewer colleges, and, of those, three have a medical school:

- **University of California Riverside** (seven colleges) has a medical school but no other allied health colleges
- **SUNY – Stony Brook** (10 colleges) has four health colleges: medicine, nursing, dentistry and health professions
- **University of California Davis** (10 colleges) has three health colleges: medicine, nursing and veterinary medicine; of the remaining seven colleges, three have a science focus: the College of Letters and Science, the College of Agricultural and Environmental Science and the College of Biological Sciences

Among AAU Institutions with health-related colleges, most (67%) have three to five health-related colleges. An additional 18% have six or seven health-related colleges. Institutions that have only one or two health-related colleges include:

- **University of California Riverside** (seven colleges) has a medical school and no other allied health colleges
- **University of Maryland** (12 colleges) has a public health college and no other health-related colleges
- **University of Virginia** (12 colleges) has a medical school and nursing college
- **Arizona State University** (14 colleges) has a health solutions college and nursing college
- **University of California Berkeley** (15 colleges) has a public health college and an optometry college

While there is great variance in organizational structures among the 38 institutions, there are also areas of similarity. For example, the vast majority of institutions have colleges of engineering, education and business. (See Table 2: Most Commonly-Occurring Colleges at AAU Public Institutions.)

Table 2. Most Commonly-Occurring Colleges at AAU Public Institutions

College	Count	Percent
Engineering	36	95%
Education	34	89%
Business or Management	30	79%
Medicine	29	76%
Law	28	74%
Nursing	27	71%
Public Health & Health Alternatives	27	71%
Arts & Sciences (Combined)	26	68%
Pharmacy	20	53%
Government/Public Affairs	19	50%

Many institutions clearly delineate between their colleges and professional schools. For example, University of California-Riverside describes its structure as three colleges (natural and agricultural sciences, engineering, and humanities, arts and social sciences) and four professional schools (business, education, public policy, and medicine). University of California-Davis similarly describes its structure as four undergraduate colleges (agricultural and environmental sciences, biological sciences, engineering, and letters and science) and six professional graduate schools (nursing, management, education, law, medicine, veterinary medicine). University of California-Los Angeles describes its structure as "The College and 12 highly ranked professional schools." The College is home to more than 85% of undergraduates and four academic divisions: humanities, social sciences, physical sciences and life sciences. The professional schools include arts and architecture; dentistry; education and information studies; engineering; law; management; medicine; music; nursing; public affairs; public health; and theater, film and television.

Other institutions lean heavily into a residential college system in addition to having academic colleges or schools. University of California-San Diego, for instance, has eight residential colleges, each with its own interdisciplinary focus and general education curriculum. Revelle College, for example, is described as a place "where the sciences, arts, and humanities join to educate and inspire multidisciplinary scholars," while Seventh College focuses on "a broad range of pressing global issues including the climate crisis, mass migration and rapid cultural and technological change." University of California San Diego academic schools include arts and

humanities; biological sciences; global policy and strategy; engineering; physical sciences; management; social sciences; and data science. Michigan State University also has a residential college system, with three residential colleges, each with an interdisciplinary focus and also a community or civic engagement component. James Madison College focuses on public affairs; Lyman Briggs College focuses on science and the humanities; and Residential College in the Arts and Humanities focuses on the global connections between literature, history, language, the arts and civic engagement. Michigan State University's academic colleges include agriculture and natural science; arts and letters; business; communication arts and sciences; education; engineering; human medicine; law; music; natural science; nursing; and osteopathic medicine.

Some colleges are consistently named across most institutions. Colleges of law, medicine, nursing and pharmacy are commonly named as exactly that. Others have some variation. Descriptors of fields such as "human development," "human ecology" and "human sciences" are sometimes added to a "College of Education" in its name, for example. Some institutions have a college or school of management, while others have a college or school of business, but typically they do not have both entities. Arizona State University and Rutgers University – New Brunswick are two exceptions. Arizona State University has both "Business" and "Global Management," while Rutgers University – New Brunswick has both "Business" and "Management and Labor Relations."

Other disciplines have greater variation in naming convention, as well as in the disciplines organized beneath them. While colleges of engineering are largely organized as a single engineering college, some exceptions include engineering and applied sciences (at four institutions), science and engineering (at one institution), and informatics, computing and engineering (at one institution). Additionally, several AAU public institutions have colleges or schools for data science and/or computing that are separate from engineering.

In a discipline such as agriculture, there is even less uniformity. Some examples include natural and agricultural sciences, agriculture and environmental sciences, agriculture and natural resources, and agricultural and life sciences.

Some of the greatest variation across AAU public institutions' structure is in how they organize and name colleges that represent disciplines of fine and performing arts, humanities, social sciences and liberal arts. Twenty-six of the 38 AAU public institutions have a combined arts and sciences college. These colleges may be referred to as "Arts and Sciences," "Liberal Arts and Sciences" or "Letters and Science," among other naming conventions. There also appears to be less consistency in the college name reflecting the disciplines within. A college titled "Arts and Sciences" may include liberal arts and/or fine arts, while another college titled "Liberal Arts and Sciences" may include fine and performing arts. For example, Purdue's College of Liberal Arts includes its creative and performing arts programs (such as art and design, film and video, music, and theatre and dance), which are housed in the School of Design, Art, and Performance within the college. Interestingly, at University of Wisconsin-Madison, creative and performing arts programs (such as art, theatre and dance) are housed in the College of Education, while its music degrees are housed in its College of Letters and Science. Rutgers' School of Arts and Science includes liberal arts and humanities disciplines, while its fine and performing arts are housed in a separate college, the School of the Arts.

If an AAU public institution has a "College of Arts and Sciences," they do not have a separate college for liberal arts, humanities or social sciences; however, there are several examples

of AAU public institutions with a college of arts and sciences and additional, separate colleges for science, design and/or creative and performing arts. Four institutions with colleges of liberal arts and sciences also have both a separate arts-related college and a science-related college, and some institutions have multiple colleges for art and/or science outside of the larger arts and science college. (See Table 3: AAU Institutions with a Combined Arts and Sciences College.)

For institutions without a combined arts and sciences college, it is common to have a college of liberal arts, humanities or social sciences, or a combination of these. Some institutions have multiple liberal arts, humanities and social sciences colleges, while others combine these disciplines into a single college. (See Table 4: AAU Institutions without a Combined Arts and Sciences College.)

Table 3. AAU Institutions with a Combined Arts and Sciences College

AAU Institution + Provost Office Org Chart (if available)	Name of Arts and Sciences College(s) + Leadership or Org Chart (if available)	Name of Additional Science College(s)	Name of Additional Arts College(s)
Arizona State University	Integrative Science and Arts Interdisciplinary Arts and Sciences Liberal Arts and Sciences	Global Futures	Design and the Arts
Indiana University	Arts and Sciences		
Rutgers University*	Arts and Sciences	Environmental and Biological Sciences	School of the Arts
Stony Brook University*	Arts and Sciences	Marine and Atmospheric Science	
Texas A&M	Arts and Sciences		
The Ohio State University*	Arts and Sciences		
University at Buffalo*	Arts and Sciences		
University of California, Davis*	Letters and Science	Biological Sciences Agriculture and Environmental Science	
University of California, Los Angeles*	Letters and Science		
University of California, Riverside*	Humanities, Arts, and Social Sciences	Natural and Agricultural Science	
University of California, Berkeley	Letters and Science	Chemistry	

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University of California, Santa Barbara	Letters and Science	Environmental Science and Management	Creative Studies
University of Colorado, Boulder	Arts and Sciences		
University of Florida	Liberal Arts and Sciences		
University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign	Liberal Arts and Sciences		
University of Iowa*	Liberal Arts and Sciences		
University of Kansas	Liberal Arts and Sciences		
University of Michigan*	Literature, Science, and the Arts	Environment and Sustainability	Arts and Design Music Theater and Dance
University of Missouri, Columbia*	Arts and Science		
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	Arts and Sciences		
University of Oregon	Arts and Sciences		Design
University of Pittsburgh	Arts and Sciences		
University of South Florida	Arts and Sciences	Marine Sciences	Arts
University of Virginia*	Arts and Sciences		
University of Washington*	Arts and Sciences	Environment	
University of Wisconsin*	Letters and Science	Environmental Studies	

**has a hospital*

Some of the greatest variation across AAU public institutions' structure is in how they organize and name colleges that represent disciplines of fine and performing arts, humanities, social sciences and liberal arts.

Table 4. AAU Institutions without a Combined Arts and Sciences College

AAU Institution + Provost Office Org Chart (if available)	Humanities/ Liberal Arts Colleges	Social Sciences Colleges	Arts Colleges	Science Colleges
Georgia Institute of Technology, Main Campus	Liberal Arts		Design	Sciences
Michigan State University	Arts and Letters	Social Sciences	Residential College of Arts & Humanities Music	Natural Sciences Residential College of Science
Pennsylvania State University, Main Campus*	Liberal Arts		Arts and Architecture	Science Agricultural Sciences
Purdue University, Main Campus	Liberal Arts			Science
University of Arizona	Humanities	Social and Behavioral Sciences	Fine Arts	Science Applied Science and Technology Agriculture, Life & Environmental Sciences
University of California, Irvine*	Humanities	Social Sciences	Arts	Biological Sciences Physical Sciences
University of California, San Diego*	Arts and Humanities	Social Sciences		Biological Sciences Physical Sciences
University of California, Santa Cruz	Humanities	Social Sciences	Arts	Sciences
University of Maryland, College Park	Arts and Humanities	Behavioral and Social Sciences		Computer, Mathematical and Natural Sciences
University of Minnesota, Twin Cities	Liberal Arts		Design	Biological Sciences Food, Agricultural and Natural Resource Sciences
University of Texas, Austin*	Liberal Arts		Fine Arts	Natural Sciences Geosciences
University of Utah*	Humanities Cultural and Social Transformation	Social and Behavioral Science	Fine Arts	Science (merging with Mines and Earth Sciences)

**has a hospital*

The U is the only public AAU institution with more than two colleges for its humanities, liberal arts, and social sciences disciplines. Given this unique structure, historical records were examined to identify how the structure for the university's humanities, liberal arts and social and behavioral disciplines has changed over time.

In catalog year 1970-71, the University of Utah had 13 colleges or schools: Business; Engineering; Fine Arts; Health, Physical Education and Recreation; Law; Letters and Science; Medicine; Mines and Mineral Industries; Nursing; Pharmacy; Graduate School; Graduate School of Education; and the Graduate School of Social Work.

The College of Letters and Science, offering both a Bachelor of Science degree and a Bachelor of Arts degree, included the following departments:

- Aerospace Studies
- Anthropology
- Biology
- Chemistry
- Economics
- English
- Geography
- History
- Journalism
- Languages
- Mathematics
- Military Science
- Naval Science
- Philosophy
- Physics
- Political Science
- Psychology
- Sociology
- Speech

By fall semester of 1971, the College of Letters and Science had split into three distinct colleges: College of Humanities, College of Science and College of Social and Behavioral Science. Departments within the College of Humanities included English, History, Journalism, Languages, Philosophy and Speech. Departments within the College of Science included Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics and Physics. Departments within the College of Social and Behavioral Science included Aerospace Studies, Anthropology, Economics, Geography, Military Science, Naval Science, Political Science, Psychology and Sociology.

The School for Cultural and Social Transformation was proposed in January 2016 and formally approved by the Board of Trustees in July before launching at the start of fall 2016 semester.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews included factors that impact leaders' decisions regarding organizational change, how leaders manage the dissonance between decisions and organizational culture or values, mergers and separations of academic units and centralized decision-making versus autonomy.

Factors that impact organizational change.

Leaders at AAU public institutions discussed a wide variety of factors that influence decisions on whether to make organizational changes. One key factor in deciding whether organizational change is necessary is **whether the current structure is aligned with the institution's strategic goals and mission.** One participant, for example, emphasized that organizational changes at her institution are aligned with the institution's strategic plan and community principles. Two participants from another institution known for its focus on innovation noted its decentralized nature and discussed

how its structure allows for innovation and gives deans autonomy to make decisions and adapt to the needs and opportunities they observe. Several participants discussed the need to centralize strategy on student success outcomes, and in some cases create new roles or structures to execute that strategy. One participant noted that the decentralized nature of decision-making at his institution impedes the execution of coherent campus-wide strategy to enhance student success outcomes.

Across all participants, decisions about organizational structure are impacted by **financial pressures,** which are often driven by external forces – lower student enrollments, the personalities and politics of university governing bodies, lower state appropriations, etc. Many participants noted duplication in their current organizational structure, which led them to more financially efficient models that often relied on shared services across colleges and/or merging colleges. Another participant noted that she would not be separating any colleges despite faculty wanting such changes because the decision would lead to costly duplications in administrators, support staff and other infrastructure, and funding separate physical spaces was infeasible. She emphasized this point when she described how her faculty refer to University of California Berkeley's stand-alone College of Chemistry as an exemplar of organizational structure; she noted that her response to those faculty is that her institution is very different financially from Berkeley. (University of California Berkeley's endowment assets were nearly $3 billion in 2023, according to IPEDS data.)

In addition to financial considerations, several participants detailed how organizational changes can lead to greater effectiveness – stronger support services in areas like IT and fewer errors in human resources, for instance. One participant noted that the creation of shared service centers improved service quality particularly as it relates to human resources; whereas before centralizing this function, faculty, staff and administrators might have received different answers to human resources questions depending on who they asked, after centralizing human resources, they were able to establish and enforce consistent policies across the institution. Another participant described how decisions on organizational structure are informed by assessing what will make the organization most successful, noting that financial efficiencies inherently impact organizational effectiveness; allocating resources in one area means fewer resources to allocate in another.

Three participants discussed the number of direct reports the provost supervises and the impact of this number on organizational effectiveness. One participant with fewer than 20 direct reports stated that she felt this number of direct reports was manageable but also shared that she knows of no way to reduce her number of direct reports, given she does not wish to alter her organizational structure at this time. Two participants, both with about 30 direct reports, noted that they have too many direct reports to effectively support each leader and have a strong grasp of the needs and operations for each area. One of these participants noted the few minutes (roughly 30) she is able to dedicate to one-on-one meetings with the majority of her direct reports each month. Both participants discussed the need to rethink their organizational structures to enhance their effectiveness.

Participants discussed examples of how shared governance structures inform strategy and help leaders identify solutions to operational challenges, which may or may not include changes to organizational structure. Engaging faculty and staff in the decision-making process builds buy-in and fosters success. The importance of listening to faculty and staff was highlighted across multiple interviews, where participants emphasized consultation with academic units and groups such as academic senate.

Across all participants, decisions about organizational structure are impacted by financial pressures, which are often driven by external forces – lower student enrollments, the personalities and politics of university governing bodies, lower state appropriations, etc.

Participants at two institutions described the creation of new, large shared governance structures to design and advance initiatives. At one institution, a call for nominations for faculty, staff and administrators to participate in an initiative resulted in over 500 responses that ultimately led to a steering committee and a series of sub-committees. At another institution, a small task force consisted of leaders who oversaw larger committees, each of which managed its own series of even larger working groups. This structure engaged a broad group of faculty and staff in the task force's work.

Shared governance structures provide critical insight that a leader may be unaware of, but at the same time, participants noted the limitations of these committees. One participant stated that faculty will rarely recommend actions that they believe will negatively impact themselves or their colleagues – even when those actions may be warranted or necessary. Another participant noted that faculty and staff often find it challenging to be open to changes they perceive as existential threats, suggesting that such committees' recommendations may have a limit to their value. Regardless, participants agreed that clear communication with shared governance structures is critical in determining whether and how to proceed with change, including what the impacts of change may be.

Several participants described the **history and culture** of their campuses and organizational structures as important context to consider in deciding whether to create change. From the perspectives of participants, these historical events limited leaders' willingness to make changes in the future. One participant described the closure of a department that was viewed as a mistake in retrospect, leading to future hesitancy to make such changes in spite of evidence to do so. Another participant spoke about a widely publicized incident at the institution, which resulted in future administration wanting stability and to keep a low public profile. Two participants described the previous appointment of specific people to roles that resulted in hesitancy to make changes to organizational structure. One noted that she couldn't make the changes she believed were right for the institution – merging two of its units – due to "personalities," and the other described "historical personalities" that necessitated waiting until an administrator left a role to proceed with changes. Similarly, one participant described continuing to host a longstanding monthly meeting for particular university personnel because she was told it would offend some people to discontinue the meeting, even though she felt the meeting's value was unclear.

Finally, several participants explained the role and importance of **self-study** to make decisions. Offices of institutional research provide critical data needed to understand trends that impact organizational structure. One participant, for instance, described how institutional data was used to identify lower completion rates among Pell-eligible students, first-generation students and students of color. Based on institutional data, some leaders significantly modified their organizational structures as a means to enhance accountability for student success. One participant credited her university's office of institutional research with the data needed to determine strategy on closing programs, retaining students and bringing back students who had withdrawn.

Managing dissonance.

At times, the decisions to create change at universities create dissonance, the tension that results from the presence of two or more opposing or incompatible beliefs, attitudes, values or behaviors. Some university decisions conflict with the established culture, mission or expectations of their stakeholders. For example, one participant described restructuring to

move some units to sharing services, such as human resources, to enhance efficiency and effectiveness; he noted that this change can make outreach to human resources – which is conducted through a form – feel impersonal, conflicting with the high-touch customer service his institution is known for. Another participant referred to the institution's community-focused values while simultaneously emphasizing that when encountering resistance, leaders sometimes simply have to make difficult and unpopular decisions and proceed with change that they know will position the institution for long-term succes. Finally, a third participant described the difficulty of making tough organizational structure decisions that, while conflicting with the institution's mission, were unavoidable due to harsh budget realities and low student enrollments.

As a means of managing dissonance, these leaders – and others – repeatedly described the need for strong shared governance processes to ensure their communities have voice and could act in an advisory capacity. They also discussed **the importance of sharing why change was necessary and being transparent with stakeholders regarding who will ultimately make decisions** – that committees may make recommendations, but the provost is the decision-maker as it relates to the organizational structure of academic affairs.

Academic colleges mergers and separations.

All leaders provided examples of academic affairs units that had been reorganized. The most commonly discussed merger among academic units was between liberal arts and sciences colleges. One participant noted that the merge between liberal arts and sciences took place before she assumed her role as provost and that she could not speak to the rationale behind it, but that she would not have merged them if she had had such a choice because the resulting college is unwieldy, an "elephant in the room" because of its massive size. (She noted that at this point, she has no desire to separate the college.) One participant described

the merge between liberal arts and sciences colleges as a positive change precisely because of the size of the resulting unit; he described this new college as powerful and commanding of university resources, as well as able to weather difficult or uncertain times in higher education because of its scale. Another participant also described the power of the combined liberal arts and sciences college at her institution – its size allowed it to block other colleges from making program changes that affected its revenue. A final participant alluded to the power of its liberal arts and sciences college, describing how its size resulted in its ability to capture a significant amount of revenue from teaching undergraduate coursework.

Participants described various separations. These were sometimes viewed as natural next steps for the maturity or growth of a department able to sustain itself. Other times, these separations were described as contentious events that were born out of conflict and a lack of collaboration among faculty on academic programs. Several participants commented on faculty's desire for their departments to have greater autonomy but noted the infeasibility of such goals, given limited financial resources. One participant described dissolving a college, where its many departments were separated and merged into other colleges and schools across the university. He reflected on how this decision led to positive outcomes for the faculty. For example, whereas previously they lacked access to strong pre- and post-award infrastructure and other resources, in their departments' new homes, the faculty had more robust support and greater collaboration with other faculty that ultimately amplified their research productivity. Participants' comments suggest that overall, **larger colleges have more power, greater financial resources, and provide better access to services among faculty and staff, but these benefits come at the cost of autonomy.**

Autonomy versus unified direction.

Participants from three of the institutions described relatively decentralized structures, allowing the academic units a great deal of autonomy. Participants from three other institutions discussed having relatively more centralized structures. Leaders from both types of institutions commented on the pros and cons of these two approaches to leadership.

On the one hand, **centralizing decision-making ensures that the entire institution moves towards a common strategic vision.** This alignment helps maintain a unified direction, which is crucial for achieving long-term goals and responding to external challenges, such as student protests or pressure from state legislatures. At one institution, the participant noted that centralizing the budget under the provost allows for strategic investments that align with the university's mission and priorities, marrying the institution's money with its mission.

In a centralized structure, the Provost's Office can implement accountability measures across the institution, ensuring that all units adhere to the same standards and strategic goals. Data-driven reviews and regular assessments help track progress and make informed decisions. At one institution, biannual reviews of diversity metrics at the executive level and with the board hold academic units accountable for progress on measures of equity and inclusion.

Centralized decision-making allows for a coordinated response to crises or significant challenges, ensuring that all parts of the institution act in unison. This was particularly evident during the COVID-19 pandemic when unified policies were necessary; participants at institutions with centralized structures noted they were able to quickly make decisions and take action. Leaders at relatively decentralized institutions rely on strategies of collaboration

and relationship-building to promote alignment. They described a critical part of their role as convening leaders from various units across the institution. Change may be slower at these universities, but the **decentralized nature also results in deans being able to innovate** and grow their colleges as they see necessary in response to opportunities or challenges specific to their disciplines. One participant referred to herself as a "cheerleader" toward the success of the deans. Another participant reported that the autonomy given to the academic units allows for the recruitment and hiring of the most highly talented deans, especially during a time when recruiting leaders in higher education is fraught with difficulty.

Another commented that research and teaching – what a university is all about – happen within the colleges and not in some central administrative unit, so she felt it made the most sense to give deans the ability to grow as they see fit.

Leaders described several challenges of this decentralized structure. In the absence of centralized leadership, executing strategy – whether toward strategic goals or during a crisis – has greater potential to be messy. One participant noted that fortunately the two leaders of student success initiatives have a strong interpersonal relationship; she said this would otherwise be a "disastrous" situation because of how reliant the two functions are on one another, despite one reporting to the president and the other to the provost. Similarly, one participant emphasized his institution's relatively decentralized structure would create problems for a president who is attempting to drive a particular strategy, especially one that responds to external forces, such as pressures from the board of regents or skepticism from the general public about the value of higher education. He said a president's ambitions are often "lost to the sands of time" because of how difficult it can be to execute changes across a decentralized organization. Another participant highlighted the difficulty of achieving alignment among the various academic and auxiliary units at her institution. She outlined the provost's efforts to centralize leadership in these areas and establish an advisory structure as a means to streamline decision-making and improve strategic alignment. Finally, one participant described how the decentralized nature of units that affect student success "militarizes against" the institution's ability to meet student success goals; in this decentralized structure, accountability is a challenge, and leaders tend to attribute the lack of progress to one another.

Discussion

Overall, the findings of Phase 1 of the Organizational Structure Project suggest that the U would be most successful if leaders evaluate the current organizational structure in relation to the university's strategic goals and leverage data from the office of institutional research, University Analytics and Institutional Reporting, to identify areas that need improvement or realignment. Because the university has a clear vision to advance student success, tightly coordinated strategy and execution are likely to mobilize resources the quickest and result in the greatest impact. At the same time, taskforces with representatives from various departments and stakeholder groups should be heavily engaged in the effort to evaluate organizational structure and align it to institutional goals. Stakeholders should understand their role in the process to be advisory and that the ultimate decision-maker will be the president and senior vice presidents, in collaboration with the board of trustees. Forums such as town halls or listening sessions may be leveraged to communicate plans and gather feedback that can help inform decision-making. A measured and intentional process is likely to yield the best outcomes, as it will allow for adjustment and feedback at each phase. Interview participants emphasized that organizational change is nearly always challenging, and efforts to support faculty and staff throughout the process will likely help ensure the success of changes.

Limitations

A key limitation of this dataset for the analysis of organizational structures is the absence of a standardized naming convention or definition for what constitutes a "college" across different institutions. Organizational structures were analyzed based on how they were presented online in the institutions' list of colleges and schools; these lists may not accurately reflect an institution's organizational structure.

Additionally, the presence of support units complicates the analysis. As detailed in the Methods section, some universities list support units such as the Graduate College among their colleges, while others do not, posing challenges for achieving truly comparative analysis. Subjective decision-making in coding the data further complicates this process.

For example, a college for arts and architecture disciplines could be coded as either an arts college or an architecture college, depending on interpretation. These challenges in coding limit the certainty of inferences drawn from the data. Consequently, the variance in organizational structures makes it difficult to determine the relationship between structure and student outcomes (or other variables).

A limitation of the semi-structured interviews was the relatively small number of participants. Leaders from eight universities agreed to participate in the study. More interviews may impact the themes that are generated from the data and alter findings. Additionally, participants held various roles within the Office of the Provost – not all were provosts, themselves; some had roles more aligned with budget and finance, and this orientation may impact their responses to questions about efficiency and effectiveness. Additionally, some participants were new to their roles, limiting their ability to discuss historic decisions.

Conclusion

Phase 1 of the Organizational Structure Project highlighted several key factors that influence decisions regarding organizational changes at AAU public institutions. Semi-structured interviews revealed that alignment with strategic goals, financial pressures and the need for enhanced effectiveness are significant drivers of organizational change. Centralized structures were shown to facilitate strategic alignment and resource mobilization, particularly in addressing student success outcomes, while decentralized structures allowed for innovation and responsiveness to local needs.

Future steps should include developing research questions for self-study: which academic units at the U are already highly successful at advancing student retention, graduation and placement rates? What can the U learn from their success? How might the U apply that knowledge to pockets of the university that have the most room to improve? What might be the benefits and drawbacks for students, faculty, staff and other stakeholders of making changes to organizational structure? These questions, among others, may be explored in Phase 2.

Phase 2 would also optimally include developing and implementing plans for stakeholder engagement, especially among faculty, staff and students. Ideally, these feedback sessions would be designed in tandem with the university's strategic planning efforts to align the two processes as much as possible. By adopting these strategies, the U can enhance its organizational effectiveness and more efficiently achieve its mission of advancing student success.

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Appendix A

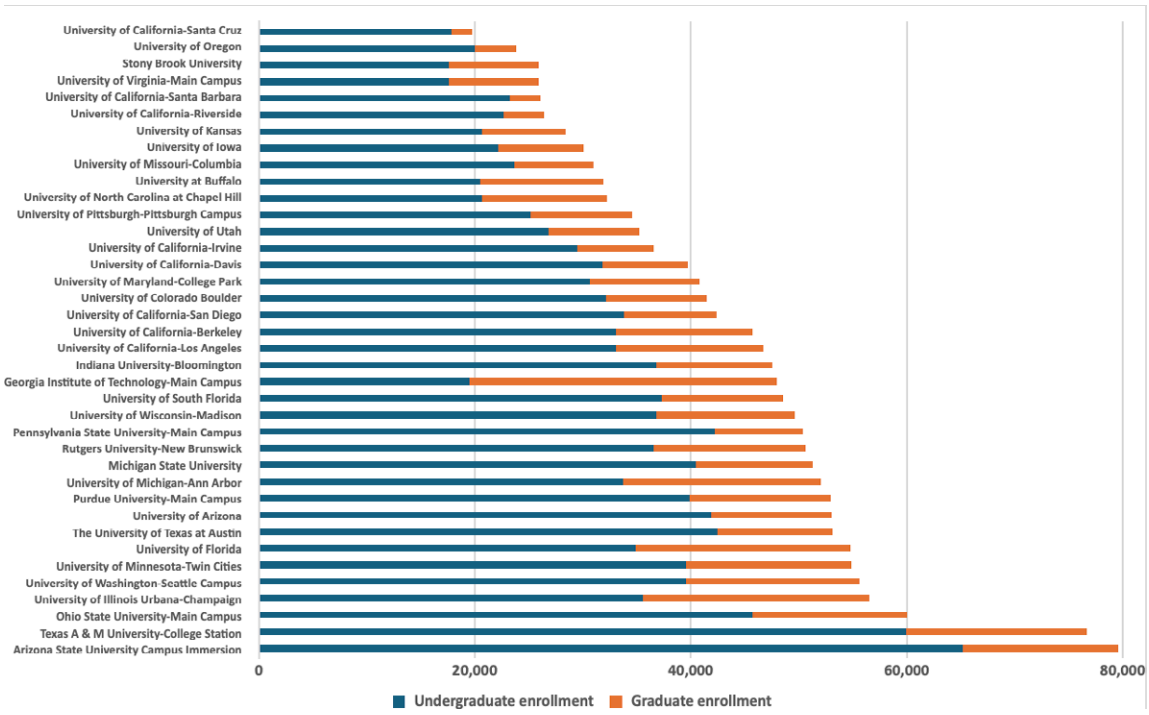

Figure 4. Student Enrollment at AAU Public Institutions, Fall 2023

Source: IPEDS; https://data.utah.edu/data-dashboard/peer-comparison-tool/

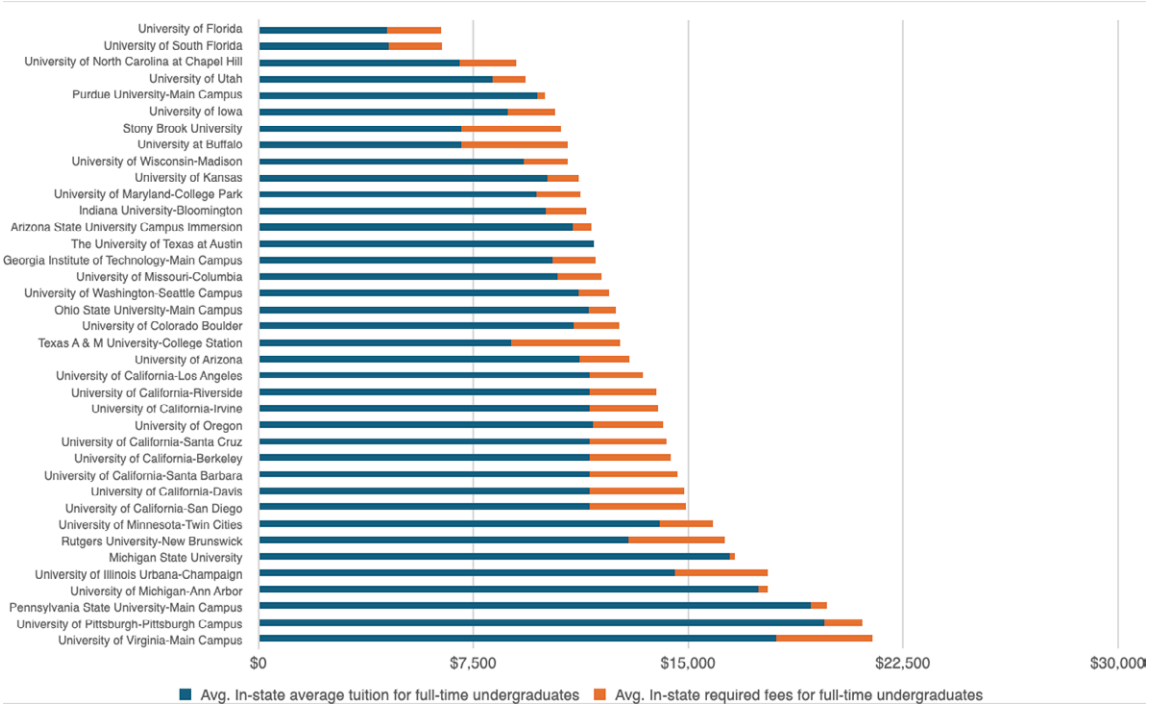

Figure 5. In-state Full-time Undergraduate Tuition and Fees, AAU Public Institutions (Fall 2023)

Source: IPEDS; https://data.utah.edu/data-dashboard/peer-comparison-tool/

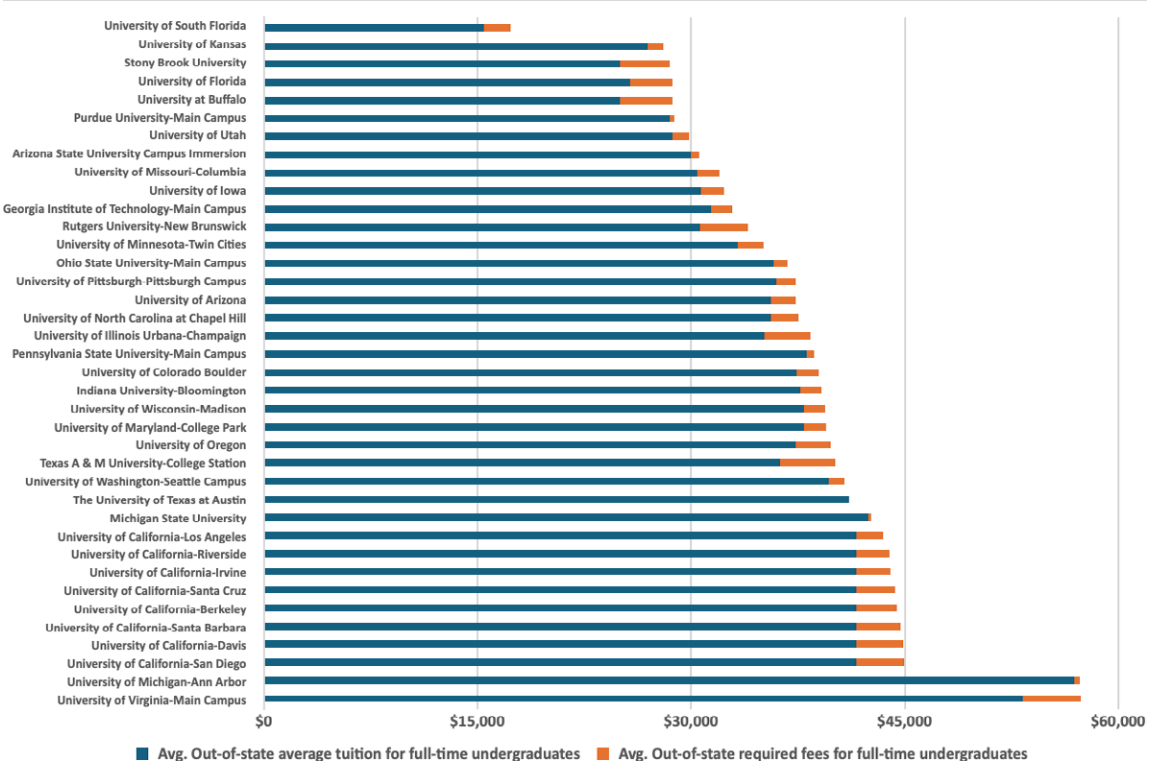

Figure 6. Out-of-state Full-time Undergraduate Tuition and Fees, AAU Public Institutions (Fall 2023)

Source: IPEDS; https://data.utah.edu/data-dashboard/peer-comparison-tool/

Table 5. Admission and Graduation Rates at AAU Public Institutions (2023)

		Institution Name	Admit Rate	Applicants	Admits	Graduation Rate (4 Year)	Graduation Rate (6 Year)
H	L	University of California-Los Angeles	9	45,903	12,736	86	93
	L	University of California-Berkeley	12	125,910	14,677	81	93
		Georgia Institute of Technology-Main Campus	16	52,377	8,622	57	92
H		University of Virginia-Main Campus	17	56,528	9,533	92	95
H		University of Michigan-Ann Arbor	18	87,632	15,722	82	93
		University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	19	57,902	10,850	86	92
	L	University of Florida	24	65,375	15,707	76	91
H	L	University of California-San Diego	25	130,771	32,062	75	88
H	L	University of California-Irvine	26	121,101	30,962	73	86
	L	University of California-Santa Barbara	28	110,871	30,804	73	85
H		The University of Texas at Austin	29	66,109	19,253	73	88
		University of South Florida	41	65,187	26,699	63	75
H	L	University of California-Davis	42	94,637	39,400	69	85
H		University of Washington-Seattle Campus	43	62,428	26,552	71	84
H	L	University of Wisconsin-Madison	43	63,505	27,529	73	89
	L	University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign	44	67,398	29,446	73	85
	L	University of Maryland-College Park	45	59,377	26,625	76	88
H		Stony Brook University	49	50,341	24,670	66	78
		University of Pittsburgh-Pittsburgh Campus	50	58,416	29,034	71	84
	L	Purdue University-Main Campus	50	73,083	36,763	64	83
H	L	Ohio State University-Main Campus	51	70,028	35,588	71	88

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H	L	Pennsylvania State University-Main Campus	54	85,956	46,605	70	86
	L	University of California-Santa Cruz	63	68,845	43,054	61	74
	L	Texas A & M University-College Station	63	50,832	32,149	61	84
	L	University of California-Riverside	63	62,807	39,758	65	77
H	L	Rutgers University-New Brunswick	65	43,347	28,326	71	85
H		University at Buffalo	69	38,210	26,481	59	73
H	L	University of Missouri-Columbia	77	21,669	16,690	56	76
	L	University of Minnesota-Twin Cities	77	39,863	30,705	74	85
		Indiana University-Bloomington	80	54,279	43,624	71	81
		University of Colorado Boulder	83	56,069	46,692	58	75
H	L	Michigan State University	84	58,879	49,414	65	83
H		University of Iowa	85	25,682	21,746	57	73
		University of Oregon	85	39,400	33,532	59	71
	L	University of Arizona	86	56,466	48,369	51	66
H		University of Utah	87	22,996	20,046	34	64
		University of Kansas	88	19,226	16,958	54	69
		Arizona State University Campus Immersion	90	68,840	62,084	55	68

Source: IPEDS, Winter 2022-23, Admissions component. Admit rate was calculated from Applicants and Admissions; Graduation Rate is Bachelor degree within 4 years or 6 years, IPEDS, Winter 2022-23, Graduation Rates component.
H= Hospital; L= Land Grant

Table 6. Net Tuition and Fees and State Appropriations for AAU Public Institutions (2023)

		Institution Name	Net Tuition and Fees	% of Total	State Appropriations	% of Total	Total
H	L	Pennsylvania State University - Main Campus	Not Reported		Not Reported		
		University of Pittsburgh - Pittsburgh Campus	Not Reported		Not Reported		
	L	University of California - Santa Cruz	$273,419,000	51%	$264,926,000	49%	$538,345,000
		University of Oregon	$445,728,887	79%	$115,472,173	21%	$561,201,060
H	L	University of Missouri - Columbia	$337,642,137	58%	$242,649,870	42%	$580,292,007
		University of Kansas	$320,300,681	52%	$301,270,848	48%	$621,571,529
H		University of Iowa	$459,785,000	66%	$231,745,000	34%	$691,530,000
	L	University of California - Riverside	$347,695,000	47%	$392,583,000	53%	$740,278,000
	L	University of California - Santa Barbara	$504,964,000	63%	$290,457,000	37%	$795,421,000
		University of South Florida	$277,527,659	34%	$527,577,615	66%	$805,105,274
		University of Colorado Boulder	$830,659,017	100%	Not Reported	0%	$830,659,017
H		Stony Brook University	$264,065,416	30%	$615,068,702	70%	$879,134,118
H		University at Buffalo	$315,339,047	36%	$572,390,347	64%	$887,729,394
H		University of Utah	$454,642,000	51%	$434,189,000	49%	$888,831,000
H		University of Virginia - Main Campus	$682,168,382	74%	$240,233,520	26%	$922,401,902
		Georgia Institute of Technology - Main Campus	$455,830,022	49%	$480,505,901	51%	$936,335,923
H	L	University of California - Irvine	$623,028,000	60%	$419,677,000	40%	$1,042,705,000
		University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	$479,785,894	44%	$622,039,924	56%	$1,101,825,818
	L	University of Arizona	$717,928,000	65%	$387,591,000	35%	$1,105,519,000
		Indiana University - Bloomington	$918,005,657	80%	$232,240,005	20%	$1,150,245,662
H	L	Michigan State University	$887,129,351	74%	$303,727,700	26%	$1,190,857,051
	L	University of Illinois Urbana - Champaign	$922,831,798	76%	$286,606,638	24%	$1,209,438,436

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	L	Purdue University - Main Campus	$922,753,834	75%	$312,497,645	25%	$1,235,251,479
	L	University of Minnesota - Twin Cities	$692,615,257	53%	$610,204,489	47%	$1,302,819,746
	L	University of Maryland - College Park	$556,698,231	42%	$759,629,441	58%	$1,316,327,672
H	L	University of California - San Diego	$833,522,000	63%	$496,852,000	37%	$1,330,374,000
H	L	University of California - Davis	$775,014,000	58%	$560,210,000	42%	$1,335,224,000
H	L	University of Wisconsin - Madison	$860,744,932	64%	$475,346,050	36%	$1,336,090,982
	L	University of Florida	$443,688,000	32%	$945,279,000	68%	$1,388,967,000
H		The University of Texas at Austin	$563,634,043	41%	$826,504,724	59%	$1,390,138,767
H	L	Ohio State University-Main Campus	$1,028,771,413	68%	$483,453,525	32%	$1,512,224,938
	L	University of California-Berkeley	$1,036,402,000	66%	$530,401,000	34%	$1,566,803,000
H	L	Rutgers University-New Brunswick	$748,380,000	47%	$844,173,000	53%	$1,592,553,000
H	L	University of California - Los Angeles	$982,680,000	59%	$673,521,000	41%	$1,656,201,000
H		University of Washington - Seattle Campus	$1,158,212,605	69%	$531,999,012	31%	$1,690,211,617
	L	Texas A & M University - College Station	$856,753,361	48%	$911,128,598	52%	$1,767,881,959
H		University of Michigan - Ann Arbor	$1,486,902,000	81%	$339,198,000	19%	$1,826,100,000
		Arizona State University Campus Immersion	$1,889,421,000	82%	$405,040,000	18%	$2,294,461,000

Source: IPEDS, Spring 2023, Finance component, Tuition and fees, after deducting discounts and allowances; State appropriations. H= Hospital; L= Land Grant

Table 7. Value of Endowment Assets at the End of the Fiscal Year, for AAU Public Institutions (2023)

		Institution Name	Value of Endowment Assets at the End of the Fiscal Year
H	L	Pennsylvania State University - Main Campus	Not Reported
		University of Colorado Boulder	Not Reported
		University of Pittsburgh - Pittsburgh Campus	Not Reported
	L	University of California - Santa Cruz	$151,245,000
	L	University of California - Riverside	$251,874,000
	L	University of California - Santa Barbara	$377,029,000
H		Stony Brook University	$392,138,786
		University of South Florida	$637,874,759
H	L	University of California - Davis	$681,104,000
H	L	University of California - Irvine	$795,885,000
H		University at Buffalo	$970,993,254
	L	University of Maryland - College Park	$1,025,687,276
	L	University of Arizona	$1,287,688,652
H	L	University of Missouri - Columbia	$1,358,166,509
H	L	University of California - San Diego	$1,358,323,000
		University of Oregon	$1,454,374,334
		Arizona State University Campus Immersion	$1,467,451,000
H	L	Rutgers University - New Brunswick	$1,559,147,000
H		University of Utah	$1,589,401,000
		Indiana University - Bloomington	$1,874,953,052
	L	University of Florida	$2,334,070,000

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		University of Kansas	$2,383,250,024
	L	University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign	$2,514,041,122
		Georgia Institute of Technology-Main Campus	$2,947,317,406
	L	University of California-Berkeley	$2,976,911,000
H	L	University of California-Los Angeles	$3,161,632,000
H		University of Iowa	$3,260,464,000
	L	Purdue University-Main Campus	$3,675,737,850
H	L	Michigan State University	$4,580,074,000
H		University of Washington-Seattle Campus	$4,918,572,705
	L	University of Minnesota-Twin Cities	$5,108,881,887
		University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	$5,200,811,833
H	L	University of Wisconsin-Madison	$5,530,156,867
H		The University of Texas at Austin	$5,741,226,537
H	L	Ohio State University-Main Campus	$7,356,089,276
H		University of Virginia-Main Campus	$9,644,274,803
H		University of Michigan-Ann Arbor	$17,626,819,000
	L	Texas A & M University-College Station	$18,128,516,595

Source: IPEDS, Spring 2023, Finance Component; H= Hospital; L= Land Grant

Table 8. Research - Current Year Total: AAU Public Institutions (2023)

		Institution Name	Research - Current Year Total
H	L	Pennsylvania State University-Main Campus	Not Reported
		University of Pittsburgh-Pittsburgh Campus	Not Reported
		University of Oregon	$119,436,971
		Indiana University-Bloomington	$146,075,791
H		Stony Brook University	$175,753,083
	L	University of California-Santa Cruz	$179,002,651
H		University at Buffalo	$192,972,258
	L	University of California-Riverside	$194,727,915
	L	University of California-Santa Barbara	$250,612,372
H	L	University of Missouri-Columbia	$327,310,586
	L	Purdue University-Main Campus	$413,935,825
		University of South Florida	$425,238,495
		University of Kansas	$439,507,620
H	L	University of California-Irvine	$454,012,512
H		University of Utah	$490,357,000
		Arizona State University Campus Immersion	$507,865,000
		University of Colorado Boulder	$529,885,784
H		University of Iowa	$540,332,000
H	L	Michigan State University	$542,769,001
H		University of Virginia-Main Campus	$568,000,928
	L	University of Maryland-College Park	$641,134,515
	L	University of Arizona	$662,366,000

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	L	University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign	$690,867,906
H	L	Ohio State University-Main Campus	$692,079,844
H	L	Rutgers University-New Brunswick	$725,003,000
H	L	University of California-Davis	$750,530,154
		University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	$808,629,226
	L	University of California-Berkeley	$821,052,759
		The University of Texas at Austin	$990,585,270
		University of Florida	$1,013,463,000
H		Texas A & M University-College Station	$1,045,813,252
H		University of Michigan-Ann Arbor	$1,097,336,000
	L	University of Minnesota-Twin Cities	$1,101,841,382
H		University of Washington-Seattle Campus	$1,142,113,898
H	L	University of California-Los Angeles	$1,167,370,398
H	L	University of California-San Diego	$1,208,823,211
H	L	University of Wisconsin-Madison	$1,358,286,957
		Georgia Institute of Technology-Main Campus	$1,363,408,834

Source: IPEDS, Spring 2023, Finance component

Research – total expenses in the sum of all operating expenses associated with activities specifically organized to produce research outcomes and commissioned by an agency either external to the institution or separately budgeted by an organizational unit within the institution. The category includes institutes and research centers and individual and project research. This function does not include nonresearch sponsored programs (e.g., training programs). H = Hospital; L = Land Grant

Appendix B

Interview Questions

General Organizational Structure:

1. Can you describe the current organizational structure of academic affairs at your university?
   [If the interviewee's bio indicates they held a similar role at a previous university]
   How does this structure differ from the structure you observed at your previous institution?
   Which structure do you think is better and why?
   [If the interviewee's bio indicates they have been at their university for several years]
   How has your organizational structure evolved over the past (X) years? How would you predict it to evolve over the next decade? Why?

2. What are the key principles or philosophies that guide decision-making regarding your organizational structure?

3. Can you share an example of a major change in your organizational structure and its impact on operations, faculty performance and/or student outcomes?

4. How do you use data to drive improvements in your organizational structure?

Interdisciplinary Collaboration:

1. How are interdisciplinary programs and centers integrated into your organizational structure?

2. Can you provide an example of an innovative initiative that has been successful and that you attribute – at least in part – to your organizational structure?

3. How has your organizational structure affected overall faculty collaboration on research and teaching?

Operations:

1. Can you provide examples of how your structure has facilitated or hindered operational efficiencies?
2. In what ways has your organizational structure influenced budget allocation and financial planning?

Faculty and Staff Outcomes:

1. What impact has your structure had on faculty research productivity and/or teaching?
2. How does your organizational structure support faculty recruitment and retention?
3. How does your organizational structure support staff development and performance?

Student Outcomes:

1. Do you believe your structure has an effect on student success and outcomes, such as retention rates, graduation rates, and/or placement rates? If so, how?
2. How are student support services (e.g., career services, mental health services) integrated within your structure? What are the drawbacks and benefits of this structure?

A Report Commissioned by the University of Utah President and Provost and Executed by the Academic Excellence Taskforce

The Academic Excellence Taskforce is composed of Deans and provides recommendations and feedback on strategic initiatives and change management aligned with the University of Utah strategic planning process, Impact 2030.