A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF FEES AT FOUR-YEAR PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES: DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN TUITION AND FEES

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The undersigned, appointed by the dean of the Graduate School, have examined the or dissertation entitled

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Abstract

Despite the overabundance of data collected and analyzed about tuition as a primary cost of public higher education, little to no attention has been paid to fees as a portion of that cost. Most of the existing research, including reports from the National Center for Education Statistics, combines tuition and required fees into one entity, rarely separating fees from tuition, and disregarding non-required fees altogether. Framed by the theories of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004), this descriptive analysis examines the use of required and non-required fees as part of the overall price of public higher education institutions, differentiating at both the in-state and out-of-state, and the undergraduate and graduate levels. Further, internal and external institutional factors are compared with the use of fees as a revenue generating strategy to see if differences exist among certain public institutions. Findings suggest that there are differences among fee structures as institutions that are more research intensive tend to charge higher fees than non-research intensive, indicating that research institutions may be using fees as a way to increase revenue, enhance perceived quality, and remain competitive in the marketplace. Results also indicate that the external variables of region, state, governance structure, political culture, and regulation contribute to variations in fee structures exhibiting that fees are not as simple in their creation as one might think. By investigating the differences in fee structures, the results could prove valuable in the arenas of finance and policy creation for public higher education institutions by allowing policy to be created that will change the current fee environment from a hidden procedure to a more evident process.

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities: Differentiating Between Tuition and Fees

Chapter 1

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities

By no means is any public American college or university unaffected by the current economic downturn. A key change, related to the recent economic downturn, has been the financial instability in national and state higher education financing patterns; resulting in a decline in the primary public institutional revenue source (Bloom, Hartley, & Rosovsky, 2006; Jones & Wellman, 2010). In response to the ongoing financial shortfalls, the American public higher education system is experiencing meaningful economic changes to the way they function, shifting from a "public good" to a private enterprise (Harvey, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Public universities are accelerating this shift through an increased reliance on alternative revenue streams to fund core programs and services that allow them to be competitive in the marketplace, gaining access to external resources (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Weisbrod, Ballou, & Asch, 2008). This consumerist turn in public higher education institutions can be interpreted as emphasizing the commodification of knowledge to enhance national competitiveness as a lucrative service that can be sold in the global marketplace (Naidoo, 2003; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Until recently, public institutions relied on state appropriations as their primary consistent revenue stream. However, as states struggle financially, they provide decreasing or inconsistent funding to public higher education (Callan, 2006). The potential loss of consistent revenue streams has caused many administrators to pursue other funding options they can more directly control (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). In some cases, public higher education institutions are relying more heavily on revenue generating activities including private giving, corporate partnerships, and research grants

to remain solvent (Cheslock & Gianneschi, 2008). However, higher education administrators may only be able to influence, not control, how much a donor will give or the likelihood that their institution will be awarded a grant, creating further revenue inconsistency. Consequently, public four-year institutions are increasingly reliant on tuition, a more consistent source of revenue, to recapture that lost from the state (Breneman, 1993; Hearn, 2003).

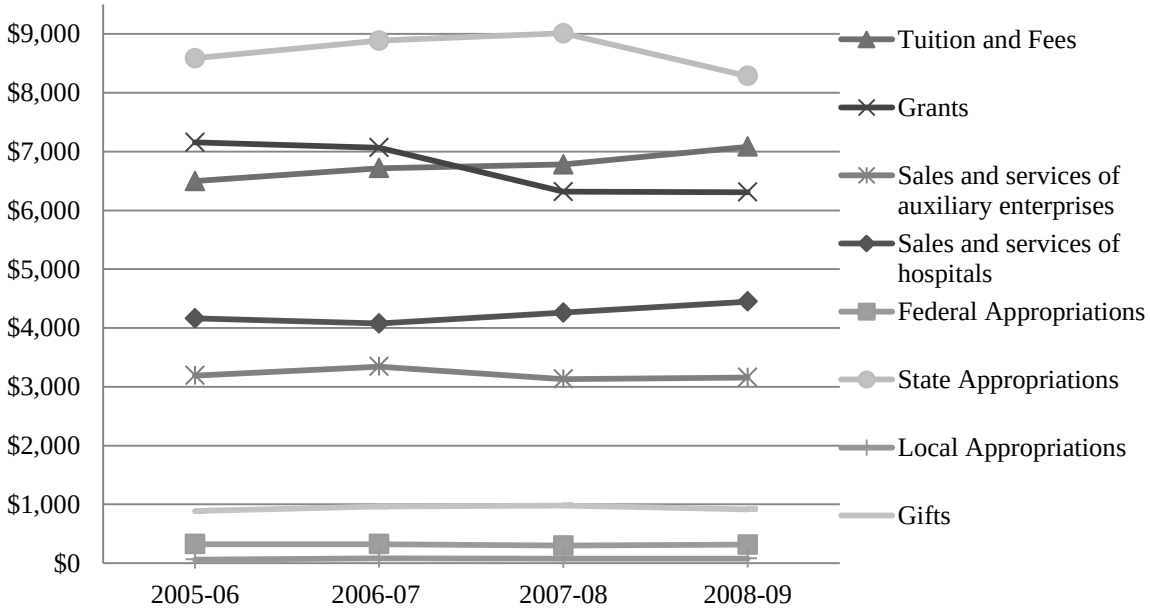
This growing reliance on tuition as a revenue source, as opposed to state appropriations, creates an environment where certain students can no longer afford the cost of public higher education. This trend concerns American families who believe higher education is a public good (The National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2002) and charging progressively higher tuition to students fundamentally changes the core mission of public institutions (Heller, 2001). Therefore, public higher education institutions have turned to non-tuition student charges, known as fees, to generate revenue without increasing the perceived cost. Fees are used to charge students for various items such as technology, student activities, transportation, and athletics and now account for an increasingly larger percentage of total institutional revenues (Weisbrod et al., 2008). The intent of this study is to investigate and descriptively identify the multiplicity of fees, in addition to tuition, that universities have imposed as a means of generating revenue, through the lens of academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Problem Statement

In most public institutions, the main sources of general revenues are direct appropriations, tuition, and fees, constituting close to 70% of total institutional revenue

(Digest of Education Statistic, 2010; Wellman, Desrochers, & Lenihan, 2009). Since the mid 1960's, state appropriations have decreased at public research universities, with particularly sharp declines starting in 2005 and little to no recovery as of 2009, creating a significant reduction in their main revenue source (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011). The most recent economic downturn has caused many state governments to further decrease the level of appropriations public institutions are receiving, reducing 2011 funding back to 2005 levels (Wellman, 2011). As a result, public higher education institutions are increasingly reliant on tuition and fees as a primary source of revenue (Figure 1). For this study, tuition is defined as the "amount of money charged to students for instructional services" (IPEDS, 2011).

Figure 1. Revenues of Public Degree-Granting Institutions, by Source of Revenue and Type of Institution: 2005-06 through 2008-09*



*U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2005-06 through 2008-09 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, Spring 2006 through Spring 2010. (This table was prepared October 2010.)

Concurrent to shifting revenue streams, tuition at higher education institutions has risen at considerable rates, increasing as much as 440% between 1980 and 2007 (National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2009). This drastic increase equates to four times the rate of inflation and twice the increase of healthcare costs over the same time period (Cronin & Horton, 2009). Furthermore, student enrollment response to these climbing tuition prices has increasingly become a concern as "students today are more sensitive to tuition increases or aid cuts than the students who attended college 15 to 25 years ago" (Heller, 2007, p.651). Students want to see a return on their investment before making such a large financial commitment to ensure their own long-term economic stability (Cronin & Horton, 2009). This leaves institutions wondering how to provide high quality education, with drastically decreased state appropriations, without increasing tuition (Ehrenberg, 2008).

Despite the stringent rules and regulations that surround increases in tuition, most states do not have oversight or control of the additional fees students pay to attend (Mortenson, 2004; Thompson & Zumeta, 2001; Weisbrod et al., 2008). Certain fees that institutions charge have a mandatory element to them, and are therefore systematically included in the total cost, while other fees are not reported in the tuition or fee amount as the current policy environment does not mandate non-required fees to be stated in the tuition price (Bell, Carnahan, & L'Orange, 2011). The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) defines fees as a "fixed sum charged to students for items not covered by tuition and required of such a large proportion of all students that the student who does not pay the charge is an exception." For the purposes of the analysis, "fees" will encompass those that are required of over 51% of the student

population, and those that are considered non-required, such as departmental and miscellaneous fees. Fees can be used to charge students for various items that are non-instructional in nature, such as technology, student activities, and transportation; however, they can also include educational elements as well. Public higher education institutions are using fees to capture greater increases in tuition from students in an effort to increase financial support (Weisbrod et al., 2008), contributing to new dynamics for setting tuition rates (Douglass & Keeling, 2008).

Regardless of the overabundance of data collected and analyzed on tuition in the literature, little consideration has been paid to the fee portion. Current quantitative data collected by the Washington Coordinating Board, Delta Cost Project, and the College Board indicates a potentially robust financial information gap exists. Currently these datasets lump tuition and fees into one larger category, making it extremely difficult to differentiate between the two costs. The figures collected by these national data systems also do not mandate that institutions itemize required fees or report non-required fees at all. For example, these national datasets do not have a non-required fee construct, which means data on items such as lab or course fees are not available to show students what they must pay upon entering a certain major. Even though the IPEDS database does delineate between tuition and required fees, there is no consistency in the current fee reporting process. Therefore, the reporting of fees from these national datasets is an inaccurate representation of the total educational expense. Certain fees are being reported inconsistently, and others are omitted based on the number of students being charged making it problematic in determining the end cost.

Many states and institutions have policies that control tuition rates but most fail to track fees, creating a differential pricing model among the various student populations. Tuition policy is generally controlled by either the statewide coordinating/governing agency or the coordinating/governing board(s) for individual systems with some level of involvement from the state legislature (Bell, Carnahan, & L'Orange, 2011). Although required fees generally have comparable policy oversight as tuition, non-required fees are, for the most part, controlled by individual institutions and not restricted by state politics (Bell et al., 2011). The inherent policy gap surrounding fees creates an atmosphere that allows universities to increase the cost of attendance without directly increasing basic tuition prices.

Rapid tuition and fee increases have made public universities much less affordable than they once were (Baird, 2006). This is particularly true if the initial costs are difficult to determine due to various fees, which can lead to problems for certain student populations. Gaps in college participation are attributable to financial barriers and may continue to grow as ambiguity about prices can lead to higher dropout rates and decreased accessibility, particularly for low income students (Heller, 2002). Ultimately, universities have turned to fees to fill the gap between decreasing resources and increasingly expensive commitments. A necessity exists to descriptively study fees, so that both institutions and students understand what fees are being charged and where the resources are being used.

Purpose

For the reasons elaborated upon above, it has become crucial to examine fees in public higher education institutions. By studying fees, we can begin to understand what

types of fees colleges are using and determine if there are any differences among them. Due to the economic decline and the fact that the current datasets on the cost of colleges do not differentiate the number of fees an institution charges, the primary purpose of this study is to collect information to provide an accurate picture of what types of fees public institutions are charging. This research investigates differences between tuition and fees by separating out the actual tuition that a student pays versus the fee portion.

Exploring fees from a purely descriptive approach allows for a more in-depth analysis of the current state of fees at public institutions in the United States. Descriptive analysis also provides the opportunity to delve more deeply into the actual breakdown of each institutions fee structure, examining where fees are allocated to and by how much. In turn, the descriptive data can then be used to explore the research questions, beginning to fill the research and policy gaps revolving around higher education institutional fees.

Furthermore, the research looks to examine how variations in the institutional and external variables, unique to the institution and state, relate to differences in the types of fee setting behaviors. Examining the additional variables could potentially show variances between funding sources and the use of fees as a revenue generating activity. By examining both in-state and out-of-state undergraduate and graduate students, we may begin to see what student populations are experiencing greater differences in fees being charged to them.

As a result of the lack of basic data surrounding fees at public four-year institutions, the research questions are descriptive in nature. These questions will be answered through data collection and analysis aimed at gaining a better understanding of the preponderance of the types of fees public universities use. Specifically, the research

questions are: 1) What are the typical fee structures across public institutions in the United States? 2) Do fee structures differ across institutional type? 3) Do fee structures differ across external and/or state characteristics?

As the funding crisis continues to occur at a majority of public four-year higher education institutions (Jones & Wellman, 2010) an increased reliance on tuition and fees is the prevailing revenue pattern as state funding per student declines (IPEDS, 2010). However, students may not be aware just how this increased reliance may affect them. Answering the research questions may allow public institutions to fill the policy and information gap that seems to exist between the institution and its students' knowledge of fees. By descriptively examining fees, this study begins to provide an accurate representation of the true price to attend a public four-year institution, which in turn may improve the decision making process for students.

In chapter one, an exploration of the current problem surrounding the creation and use of fees is conducted as well as a discussion as to why studying fees are a necessary step in beginning to understand the changing revenue structures at public four-year institutions. Chapter two examines the current literature on fees highlighting the information and potential policy gap that exists among public universities. Additionally, the theoretical frameworks of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism are explored with emphasis on how these theories relate to this particular study. Chapter three describes the methodology that informed the design of the study and explains why a descriptive analysis is the essential first step in beginning an exploration of fees. In chapter four the data collected on fees are analyzed and the results presented. Finally, in chapter five the significant findings are discussed as well as implications on

policy and future research. Although this study only begins to scratch the surface, this initial examination of fees creates an opportunity to explore the types of fees being charged to students and their families, allowing them to see exactly where their money is being allocated.

Chapter one continues with a personal narrative of the experiences I have had with fees, both as a graduate student and a higher education professional. Beginning chapter one with a personal narrative, paints the picture of why I decided to conduct my doctoral research on fees. Next, I briefly discuss the overarching theoretical framework of academic capitalism and why this theory in particular is relevant for studying fees. Then, the research design, significance, and summary of the research are discussed showing that a descriptive analysis of fees is indeed beneficial to the higher education community. Structuring chapter one in this manner illustrates that the fees many institutions are charging may be a result of market driven behaviors, and not just a consequence of decreased state appropriations.

Personal Narrative

In order to frame the study of fees at public higher education institutions, I will draw upon my own personal and professional fees experiences. My experiences have shaped the way in which I view fees and have helped guide my analysis of the fee data. Incorporating my personal and professional experiences provides a frame of how I approached the analysis and data collected for this study.

As a graduate student at the University of Missouri (MU), I have experienced a number of instances where fees were either increased or implemented in various academic departments. In 2008-09, during my Masters of Business Administration

(MBA) program, the College of Business was looking to departmental, or supplemental, fees as a possible way to increase revenue. The MU administration explored fees as a viable alternative revenue stream due to an agreement between the Missouri governor and University of Missouri system President not to raise in-state undergraduate tuition if the state kept appropriations constant (Bergen, 2010). The MBA program proposed an increase in fees of 117% over the current year, taking fees from $34.60 to $75.00 per credit hour in a one semester time frame (MU Registrar, 2010). As one can imagine, the proposed increase in cost was staggering for a student. The effects of this for full time MBA students meant an additional cost per year of over $1,000, and, since fees are not covered under most graduate assistantships students were forced to cover the new fees. In a meeting between business student leaders and administrators, the administrators in the College justified the fee increase as a necessity to stay competitive in an extremely demanding degree program.

However, as the student body President for the graduate and professional students (GPC), I was able to question the use of the fees and learn the intricacies of how new fees are put in place at MU, resulting in a significant impact on my understanding of fee structures. During this process I was able to learn that the proposal of a fee is actually a very simple process. The department requesting the fees is only required to fill out a two page document, which is then submitted to the Provost office. The document must then be approved at the campus level before going to the Board of Curators. Due to my persistence at the campus level, regarding the fee approval process, the proposed fee was not approved due the extreme financial burden that it would have put on students. Additionally a committee was supposed to be established that reviewed proposed fee

increases before going to the Board of Curators. After my graduation from the MBA program, I learned that they did increase the fees to $75 per credit hour without much resistance and, in the ensuing years, the fee has now reached $79.90 per credit hour. This experience allowed me to see that current policies surrounding fees were extremely vague and that the entire fee procedure appeared to be more of a hidden process, despite, sometimes, very large cost increases for certain students.

Ironically, during my MU doctoral program in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis (ELPA), the creation and implementation of another new fee surfaced that had even more interesting nuances, further developing my knowledge of fees. In this situation I was able to examine fees from a strictly departmental level, as I was the President for the graduate students in my department, and worked with the Deans in the College of Education. The administration again attempted to implement a college fee with little student participation, creating a situation where students became very upset with the administration. ELPA students were told that the fee was going to be used to provide students with: 1) student aid, 2) increased educational assistance by providing students international opportunities, clinical practice and fieldwork, through a "cultural experience" and 3) a portfolio tech system. Despite the explanation of how the fee was going to be used, many students were not going to directly benefit from the increased investment in their education as implementation of the aforementioned expenditures would not take place until after they had graduated.

Much like that of the MBA department, the College of Education only had to fill out a two page document to gain approval for the fee. Furthermore, I learned that since the college already had a fee established for the undergraduate students, they need only

check a box that indicated they wanted to increase the population to now include graduate students. The "new" fee was now increasing costs for graduate students from zero to $35 per credit hour, or over $600.00 a year, for full-time students. ELPA students were extremely concerned about having to find the additional resources to cover the increased expense, without seeing a direct benefit for their new investment.

After several meetings with College of Education administration, a final meeting was called that included the three Deans of the College of Education and the Dean of the Graduate School. During this meeting information regarding the use of these funds began to be unveiled. For example, one question asked was how was the faculty going to manage the additional responsibilities of planning and evaluating a "cultural experience" without increased funds or staff? The Dean was unclear on how the departments were going manage such changes but said he was going to form a committee that examined how the new experience would work. The Dean also gave no timeline or goals for actual implementation of the cultural experience and how much of the fee was going towards that initiative. Additionally, the administration admitted that most of the current students in the graduate programs would never directly benefit from the proposed initiatives, creating questions of why these students should have to pay the fee in the first place. As a compromise, the Dean agreed to give 30% of the revenues from this fee, instead of 20%, back to the departments for the coming year so that students paying it could see more of a direct benefit and departments could better equip themselves for the new tasks that were being asked of them.

Being able to explore fees at this level and work with the administration on this issue afforded me the opportunity to discover information about fees that I would not

have had otherwise. I was able to see how much control the department actually has over the fees they charge students as well as realize that many students may not be receiving additional benefits from their increased costs. In the end, the experience allowed me the chance to again question the policies surrounding the implementation and use of fees.

Both fee experiences within the MBA and ELPA programs have shaped the way I look at fees in public four-year universities. Each situation provided another bit of information surrounding how public higher education institutions may be utilizing fees within various departments as well as university wide. It appears as though many institutions are creating fees without seeking the input of students, and if students do challenge the fee increase, they are faced with insurmountable odds as they search for answers. Combining my experience, with the theories of academic capitalism, neoliberalism, and resource dependency, affords the opportunity to examine fees in a way that might not be possible if either were to be excluded from this study.

Another student's fee experience.

As public universities are becoming increasingly engaged with the market, defined as products (or services) whose prices are tied to each other by either supply-side or demand-side arbitrage and whose prices are not directly affected by the prices of goods (or services) outside this collection of similar items (Becker & Round, 2008), the student sector is being largely effected as institutions are continually looking for ways to charge more. One example of this occurred in 2010, as the University of Kansas's College of Business was looking to charge their graduate student body a new $80 per credit hour fee. Just as in the case at MU, the administration claimed that the fee was being used to remain competitively priced with their peer institutions. The administration believed it

needed the fee to generate enough money to continue improving the quality of their department, attracting even more students to their institution and thus disseminating the academic capitalist mindset. However, the unanticipated increase resulted in the graduate student body filing a Kansas Open Records Request to examine the current financial operations at the university. Ultimately, they found the College of Business was misusing funds, not tracking funds, and going against agreements, which lead to restructuring the entire program (LJ World, 2010). Furthermore, current policy did not require the administration to report how they were utilizing the existing fees or how they plan to use the newly acquired funds once in place (Bradley, Cantrell, Carlson, & Metz, 2010).

The fee increases I, and others, have experienced seem to cause turmoil as the students, parents, and faculty question how the fees are actually benefiting them. Students currently attending the university, and more specifically the colleges concurrent with fee increases, experience dramatic rises in the cost to attend without necessarily seeing a significant return on this new investment. Moreover, as fee requests are continually being approved it creates an increase not in the sticker price of enrollment as tuition costs remain controlled, but in the actual price to attend.

From the aforementioned student fee experiences, and as a former student leader, it became evident that not all of the processes surrounding the creation and use of fees were in the best interest of the students and their families. Fees, in many institutions, are quickly growing in many capacities, from student services to departmental, international, graduate and campus fees to name a few. Due to the rising cost of fees, and my individual experiences, I decided to center my research on the types of fees that are

actually being charged to both undergraduate and graduates students at public four-year higher education institutions.

The next section briefly identifies the central theoretical framework and research design. Next, the significance of the study will show that fees need to be examined, particularly due to the lack of oversight with regards to fees. To conclude, the summary of the overall study will illustrate that fees are an extremely under researched area within the education realm and that students are indeed paying a multitude of fees at both the department and university levels.

Academic Capitalism

The overarching conceptual framework used in this study is academic capitalism. Academic capitalism refers to the increasing efforts of universities to act like market driven organizations, "selling" the knowledge they can give to students (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The movement to align with academic capitalism also has public institutions continually looking for ways to remain competitively priced among peer institutions. In turn, the theory of academic capitalism examines how universities are now acquiring supplementary revenue from sources other than those upon which they relied in the past: tuition, state appropriations, and donations/endowments (Hearn, 2003).

As discussed previously, public higher education institutions are increasingly turning to fees as a supplementary revenue source. Universities are using fees in all areas of education (e.g. capital improvement fees and deferred maintenance fees). Examining fees thru this lens highlights the niche marketing concept public institutions are using to capitalize on the price that students are willing to spend, consequently creating numerous accessibility barriers for certain subpopulations of students (Slaughter

& Rhoades, 2004). The goal is to examine the actual fees behind the overall fee structures at four-year public institutions and attempt to understand whether the types of fees being implemented are out of necessity or more about following market trends that increase revenue streams.

Research Design

The research design was exclusively descriptive and centered on data collected at the primary and secondary (IPEDS) levels for a representative sample of public four-year higher education universities. The representative sample contained both public institutions that were more market focused and those that were not, to gain an understanding of the differences among and between them. Within the two datasets, the key variables collected were tuition, required fees, and non-required fees. The data were compiled for in-state and out-of-state undergraduates and graduates at public four-year higher education institutions. The student data were based on a student being enrolled full-time (FTE) within the specific institution.

The initial gathering of data focused on the required fees by itemizing the allocation of fees at each public institution. During the next phase, information was collected on non-required fees, such as lab and orientation fees, to depict a more accurate representation of the cost of public higher education. Additionally, data were collected on the differential pricing models through a gathering of departmental and student level based fees. For the final stage, information was gathered for institutional and external variables to demonstrate the similarities and differences that occur among fee setting behaviors. All variables were connected across institutions to the tuition and required fees and non-required fee structures to determine if variations occur.

Including both the institutional and external variables allowed for a more in-depth analysis to be completed at the descriptive level. The overall design effectively aligns with the conceptual framework of academic capitalism by beginning to explore differences in fees, showing that fees could be more market driven.

Significance

Drastic tuition increases over the last few decades have made public higher education institutions much less affordable than they once were and now with the addition of fees, this situation will only escalate further. If institutions are only focusing on the monetary portions of education, the public good element fades into the background, making colleges even more unattainable financially. Institutions need to realize that the true price to attendance must be accurately displayed so that students have all the necessary information to make an educated decision.

Addressing the first research question, what types of fees are public four-year institutions collecting, will allow for a number of potentially significant findings. The findings include such items as the number of fees, types of fees, and overall differences among fees that are both required and non-required in nature. The fee information shows that certain student subpopulations are experiencing a large amount of fees relative to tuition. Descriptively examining fees is the necessary first step in understanding what types of fees are being charged to students.

Examining how fees fluctuate across types of public institutions produces the prospect of identifying differences in fees across public four-year universities. Looking at those differences shows the universities that are using differential fee structures for programs within an institution which could contribute to understanding the new dynamics

for setting tuition and fee rates. Investigating fee differences across external and state characteristics offers the opportunity to examine if these variables are related to fees. By analyzing fee data, this study highlights differences that are occurring at public four-year institutions with regards to market influences and whether universities are participating in academic capitalism.

The study produced numerous descriptive findings, that could be used for future correlation and qualitative research studies, which lead to critical questions that need to be explored to further understand fee structures at any given public institution. For instance, when students enroll in an institution or department, are students told about these fees upfront or are institutions giving them the "sticker" price? If they are told about the fees, what kind of information are they given, if any, about how those fees are being used to further their educational development? By exploring these types of questions the results could lead to information about new/alternative revenue generating activities and provide feedback on what students feel is a good investment of their money, further expanding the literature on fees at public four-year institutions.

In the end, much of the existing research has paid apposite attention to the tuition and required fees portion of the financing of higher education, but the research has been limited, to non-existent, when it comes to evaluating the use of fees separate from tuition. Public colleges and universities faced with major losses in state support are seeking to generate alternative revenue sources based upon their core educational, research, and service functions (Lowry, 2001). Consequently, some public universities are looking to fees as a potential new revenue source. This research study will differentiate tuition and fees through the lens of academic capitalism, filling the research gap that exists between

tuition and fees. The study will further allow a better understanding of the actual versus perceived costs that students are required to pay to attend; illustrating that fees are not necessarily a matter of inevitability but a way for universities to follow market trends using fees as a tactical approach to remain competitive in our global economy.

Summary

The problems related to locating, and then acquiring, sufficient funding sources for public institutions has become more important in recent years. As key stakeholders are looking to control tuition increases, the next step for institutions to investigate are the fees on their campus, helping to fill in the ever decreasing state appropriation gap. However, a review of research on tuition and fees yields a lack of information in regards to the fee portion of the tuition bill students are receiving. Answering the research questions begins to fill the policy and information gap that exists between the institution and its student's knowledge of their institutional fees.

As colleges continue to embark in market behaviors they invest more and more in for-profit type activities, in turn implementing new fees. By conducting this research study, fees are explored as both mandatory and optional components, allowing students to make informed decision about what colleges to attend and what major to select. More importantly, through this research, I hope to enlighten policy makers about the status of fees in public universities and provide the opportunity for policy to be created that will change the current fee environment from a hidden procedure to a more evident process.

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities: Differentiating Between Tuition and Fees

Chapter 2

Literature Review

As economic aspects of American society have shifted towards a free market philosophy, educational institutions have followed this trend by stepping away from their public financial role to one that is focused on higher education as a private entity (Gumport, 2000). Such behavior serves as a strategic measure for public universities to combat decreasing state funding and remain worthy investments the taxpayers will continue to support. Additional scrutiny comes from those same citizens' expectations that public institutions will continue to improve access, enhance quality, and cut costs (Giroux, 2002; Gumport, 2000). Due to the public pressure and expectation, many institutions are now investing in new information and communications technologies, despite decreased state support (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Gumport, 2000). Institutions are financing these ventures through the implementation of fee-based revenue streams, as opposed to tuition increases, as policies guiding the use of fees are much more flexible than those controlling tuition (Weisbrod et al., 2008). Thus, to fill the gap between revenue and increasingly costly commitments, without going against state policies that limit tuition increases, public higher education institutions are becoming increasingly reliant on fees (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011).

The first section in this chapter discusses the revenue trends at public four-year institutions and explores how they have changed over time. Next, state appropriations as a revenue source are discussed showing that declines have been occurring nationally. The literature surrounding tuition and fees is explored, specifically how universities are more reliant on these revenue sources currently than in the past. Next, institutional expenditures are examined with relation to the change in revenue streams. The final

segment of the literature review discusses the potential consequences of using tuition and fees to increase revenue and its effect on students.

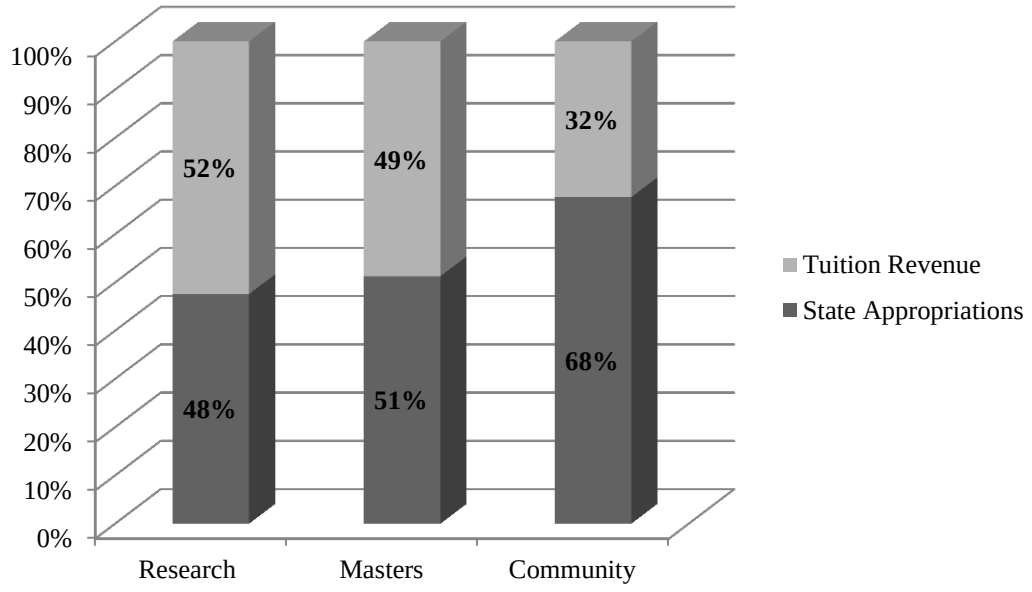
The next section of the chapter describes the conceptual frameworks of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism. These three frameworks are used to structure the research study as they interrelate within the realm of higher education and help to explain the revenue shift that is occurring at public four-year institutions. Academic capitalism will be explored by focusing on four tenets of the theory including: (a) new economy, (b) knowledge learning regimes, (c) market behaviors, and (d) neoliberal state. Resource dependency theory will be discussed in regards to its current impact on public higher education and its effect on the implementation of fees. Finally, neoliberalism will be examined to illustrate the tremendous influence it has had on all realms of public society, including higher education. The theories are then discussed with regards to fees at public universities, helping to explain the changes that are occurring within public higher education. To conclude, the student experience surrounding fees will be highlighted to show the connection between fees and the conceptual frameworks.

Revenue Trends at Public Four-Year Higher Education Institutions

In most public higher education institutions, the main sources of general revenues are state and local appropriations, tuition, and fees (Wellman, 2009). These three revenue sources represent close to 65-70% of total revenue, in 2008-09, at four-year public institutions (Digest of Education Statistics Annual Report, 2010). In 2009, tuition revenues at public four-year colleges almost equaled state and local appropriations; with 27% collected from state appropriations and 23% collected from tuition (Desrochers &

Wellman, 2011). As a result, tuition revenues are now paying for a larger share of "educational" revenues at public research institutions, surpassing state appropriations, while masters and community institutions are still allocating more from government subsidies to pay for educational costs (Figure 2). Furthermore, most public institutions are now relying more heavily on alternative revenue sources to combat extreme economic changes in the public sector.

Figure 2. Percent Allocation of Tuition and State Revenue to Educational Costs at Public Higher Education Institutions (2008-09)*

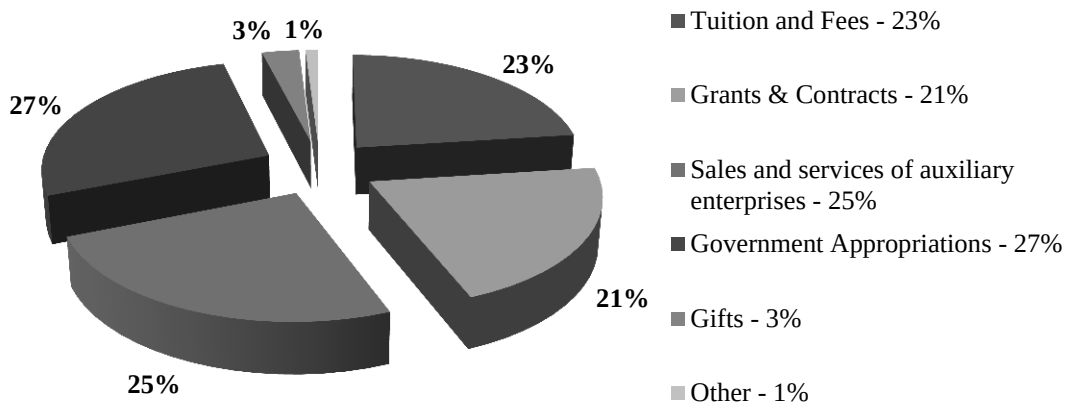


*Delta Cost Project, 2008-09 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System. (This figure was prepared February 2012.)

Although a majority of the revenue comes from state appropriations, tuition, and fees, there are a number of supplementary funding sources institutions are reliant upon. Other contributing revenue streams are federal, state, and local contracts and grants, sales and services of auxiliaries, sales and services of hospitals, gifts, and investment incomes (IPEDS, 2011). In 2009, as compared to total revenue, public four-year universities were

accruing approximately 21% in grants and contracts, 23% in the auxiliary enterprises, and 3% in gifts (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Percent Distribution of Revenue at Public Four-Year Institutions (2008-09)*



*U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2008-09 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System. (This figure was prepared February 2012.)

The 2011 Delta Cost Project found that public research institutions received the largest revenue from auxiliary enterprises (e.g., hospitals, dining services, capital projects) apart from appropriations, tuition, and fees. Public masters and bachelors institutions are the most reliant on state appropriations, where it remains the largest contributor to their revenue stream. Additionally, while other public universities decreased in overall revenue, in 2009, public research institutions actually increased by one percent. These trends in institutional finance are changing quickly, contributing to a shift in the public institution paradigm (Douglass & Keeling, 2008).

Changes in revenues over time.

The realm of higher education revenue generation is continually fluctuating to accommodate the varied economic shifts that have transpired (Douglass & Keeling, 2008; Lowry, 2001). Between fiscal year (FY) 1980 and FY 2010, tuition and fees levels at public four-year institutions grew approximately 325% in inflation-adjusted dollars (Public Higher Education Forum, 2010). There were some minor recoveries in state appropriations, yet the declines over this same time period were far more significant (Cheslock & Gianneshci, 2008). In 1980, state appropriations made up 44% of total revenue, whereas in 2009 state support was only 23% of total revenue (NCES, 2010). During 1999-2009, across the public four-year institutions, revenues were negatively impacted by recession-related state budget cuts. Declines in 2009 state revenues were ubiquitous, with average state and local funding per student close to ten-year lows, concurrently the average net tuition revenue increased four to five percent (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011).

Other revenue sources have also changed over time, as governments can no longer afford to appropriate funding at historic levels, compelling universities to find market-related solutions (Douglass & Keeling, 2008). National data suggests that an increasingly larger percent of institutional revenues are being provided by sources other than government and tuition (Knapp et al., 2002). For example, over the past ten years, public higher education research institutions have seen steady growth revenues from auxiliary services. Research related dollars have also increased in the form of grants, contracts, and collaboration with private industry, as well as from patents and licensing (Hearn, 2003). Both the auxiliaries and research funds have increased from 14% to as

much as 25% of total revenue at public institutions in the past 20 years (Table 4). These trends indicate that funding patterns over the past few decades have changed substantially concurrent to state funding declines (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011).

Table 4. Changes in Percent Distribution of Revenue at Public Four-Year Institutions (2005-09)*

	Tuition & Fees	*Grants & Contracts*	*Sales & services of auxiliary*	*Government Appropriations*	*Gifts*
1980-81	13%	12%	17%	50%	2%
1990-91	16%	11%	20%	43%	2%
1995-96	19%	13%	19%	38%	3%
2000-01	18%	14%	19%	36%	3%
2005-06	21%	23%	23%	28%	2%
2006-07	21%	22%	24%	28%	2%
2007-08	22%	20%	24%	29%	3%
2008-09	23%	21%	25%	27%	3%

*U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1980-81 through 2008-09 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System. (This table was prepared February 2012.)

State appropriations.

The average contribution of state general funding for public higher education institutions has decreased by 40% (adjusted to account for inflation) over the past thirty years (Mortenson, 2004; Rizzo, 2003). There are many factors that seek to explain the dramatic declines in state support for public higher education institutions. Recent studies have discovered a number of variables that effect state appropriations. The research shows that demographic factors, governance structures, regulation, politics, and institutional characteristics are all determinants in state appropriations (Hovey, 1999; Lowry, 2001; Rizzo, 2006; Toutkoushian & Hollis, 1998; Weerts & Ronca, 2006). For example, demographically, a number of conditions can affect the level of higher education funding, such as variations in the total population of the state or the percentage

of the population that is between the ages 18 to 24 (Layzell & Lyddon, 1990). Lowry (2001) found that public universities in states that have very few governing boards are allocating more state funding than those in states that have numerous governing boards. And politically, states that are more progressive are more likely to financially support higher education (Weerts & Ronca, 2006).

Studies have also linked federal and state policies to state support for public colleges and universities (Alexander, 2001; Baldwin, 2006). This is a result of powerful key players that hold the influence in determining higher education's funding outcomes based on their own self-interest (Hovey, 1999). Additionally, both the federal and state allocations are largely affected by the previous legislative sessions in determining current fiscal decisions regarding higher education (Layzell & Lyddon, 1990). Collectively, each of these factors play a role in determining how educational fiscal policies develop and what the level of financial support will be (Weerts & Ronca, 2006).

Many attribute the primary determinant in state support to economic factors (Doyle, 2007; Jenny & Arbak, 2004; Layzell & Lyddon, 1990; Schuh, 1993) such as the recessions in the early 1980s and 1990s, and again in 2001 (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011; Weerts & Ronca, 2006). This is due to the fact that during hard financial times, a greater proportion of state revenues shift to non-discretional spending such as Medicaid, corrections, and federal health care (Hovey, 1999; National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2002; Schuh, 1993). For example, following the most recent recession in 2001, state appropriations decreased approximately 4% to 6% per year between 2002 and 2005 at public higher education universities (Digest of Education Statistics, 2009). Some individual state economic recoveries did occur between 2005 and 2008, however in

2009 state and local appropriations per FTE student declined by approximately 7% to 8%, taking state funding back to the 2005 levels (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011). Due to these financial changes, institutions are attempting to find other more flexible revenue sources. For public institutions, tuition and fees "are growing as an important source of income for most universities, with potentially significant influence on the market for students and the behavior of institutions" (Douglass & Keeling, 2008, pg.1).

Tuition and fees.

There are many elements that influence tuition levels, such as state fund general appropriations, prior year's tuition, institutional mission, tuition charged by peer institutions, and the availability of appropriations for financial aid (SHEEO, 2011). Another influential factor is the regional location of the institution, as each state within a region has been shown to set tuition levels and policy in comparable ways (Hearn et al., 1996). In addition, the existence of a centralized decision maker or a high number of externally selected trustees is associated with lower levels of tuition (Lowry, 2001). Alternatively, Doyle (2007) found that as a state government becomes more politically liberal it is more likely that tuition will rise as liberals are more likely to support policies based on their individual political agenda. Ultimately, just as state appropriations have numerous determinants, tuition and fee prices are also influenced by the same economic, political, and cultural factors (Lowry, 2001).

Moreover, there is an inverse relationship between state appropriations and tuition and fees (Koshal & Koshal, 2000; Strathman, 2004). One might reasonably assume that this would be a one-way street, with state appropriations only affecting tuition levels and not vice versa (Paulsen, 1991; Rush & Leslie, 1978); however, this is not the case. A

study done by Koshal and Koshal (2000) found that if state appropriations increase by $100 per FTE student, then tuition is lower by $40, and if tuition is higher by $10 per FTE student then state appropriations are lower by $1.80. Strathman (2004) found that a $1 increase in tuition per student contributes to a $0.93 decrease in state appropriations, while $1 reduction in state funding leads to a $0.83 tuition increase. The inverse relationship between state appropriations and tuition could potentially lead to an increased focus on the user-fee approach to supplement a more constrained tuition price (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011); creating questions about what role fees play in this correlation, separate from tuition.

As state appropriations decrease, tuition and fees are among the main sources of revenue that institutions believe they will need to remain viable (Ehrenberg, 2008). Due to revenue shifts, fees will need to be an increasingly large component of the funding stream to replace declining taxpayer subsidization (Douglass & Keeling, 2008). Most of the existing research examines tuition and required fees as one entity, not necessarily looking at tuition and fees separately or investigating non-required fees (College Board, 2009; Delta Cost Project, 2011; NCES, 2010). Although, these datasets have helped organize the overwhelming amount of information about the costs of college, they do not provide an accurate picture of the true cost of attending, as the sticker price no longer reflects average prices being charged per student (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011; Weisbrod et al., 2008).

Between 2002 and 2005, the greatest increases in net tuition and fees occurred in the public research sector, with an increase of approximately 8.5%. The smallest of those were among public community colleges, with an increase of approximately 5.5% (Digest

of Education Statistics, 2009). Additionally, at public institutions between 2002 and 2006, the net price of tuition increased from $4,486 to $5,825, whereas the gross tuition revenue increased from $5,825 to $8,199 (Wellman, 2009). Currently, public institutions are continuing this pattern, where published sticker prices increase much more slowly than gross tuition revenue (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011).

The sticker price differs from gross tuition as public institutions implement differential pricing models (Weisbrod et al., 2008). Public institutions are using these pricing models to apply different rates to certain subpopulations of students, increasing financial support for their institution and capturing greater boosts in tuition revenue without affecting the sticker price of the institution as a whole (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011; Weisbrod et al., 2008). For example, higher tuition revenues can come from out-of-state students, professional degree students, and international students, where full-cost pricing is progressively more common (Delta Cost Project, 2010). Hearn (2003) illustrates this point by acknowledging that differential tuition is increasingly common and pointed towards a multitude of subpopulations, such as more market driven majors (e.g., business), the timing of course offerings (e.g., weekend or evening), the course level (e.g., freshman versus senior level), or even the location of the course (e.g., online versus classroom).

Public higher education universities "are beginning to experiment with finer distinctions in the pricing of their educational services," in an effort to generate more revenue without additional oversight (Hearn, 2003, p.12). For quite some time, tuition has been segregated by a number of different variables, such as state residency and enrollment, as well as in the fields of medicine and law, in order to increase revenue

(Hearn, 2003; Weisbrod et al., 2008). More recently, public institutions are using fees, separate from tuition, to generate revenue. For example, technology fees are used by institutions to create new or improved services for their student population, but for which students must pay a fee (Wellman & Phillips, 2001). Utilizing the user-fee approach, colleges and universities are able to increase revenues while limiting highly visible increases in their stated tuitions. However, research has not been conducted to determine if these fees will actually raise total or net revenues for an individual institution (Clark, 1998; Hearn, 2003).

With the increased reliance on fees, it seems that universities are using various types of fees to combat the restrictions and stigma surrounding increased tuition prices. More institutions are using a differentiated pricing model across departments to fund many functions (e.g., departmental, technology fees), becoming a significant source of revenue (Hearn, 2003). At public universities, total fees have been rising faster than tuition in percentage terms, and now are equal to as much as 40% of tuition at some institutions (e.g. University of Oregon and State University of New York at Binghamton) (Weisbrod et al., 2008). Yet public institutions only need to report to the public an average tuition price, not an actual price to attend (IPEDS, 2010). Extensive research has been done by IPEDS, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and the Delta Cost Project on increases in tuition, however, no research has been done on the differentiation between tuition and fees (Hearn, 2003). As a result, if the students are only shown the sticker price of attending, it understates the actual price to enroll (Wellman, 2010). The following section examines the current fee policy environment illustrating that fee policy is much less controlled than tuition.

Current policy environment on fees.

In a recent survey conducted by the State Higher Education Executive Officers (SHEEO, 2011), which examined public higher education institutions in all 50 states, they discovered that in terms of fee policies, individual institutions can have the power to set fees and governing boards can have the authority to approve fees, or a combination of the two. When setting required fees, there were different viewpoints that guided the decision making process. Several states believed that the amount of required fees charged to students should be minimized, while others determined their fee levels based on institutional budgetary needs or as a result of decreased state support. Twelve states reported that student fee policies are defined in legislative statute while about half of the states reported that the fees were defined by board rule or policy and eleven states reported that they had no formal policy on student fees be it required or non-required. During my study, I found several examples of a general lack of formal state or board policy for fees where institutions only needed to fill out a simple two-page document to request a new fee or increase in a current fee.

Furthermore, only a handful of states reported that their fee policies have changed in the last three years. Examples include, the Florida Board of Governors, who can now approve new required fees up to 10% of tuition, or in North Carolina, where fees at the four-year institutions have been capped at 6.5% of tuition. Yet despite these new policy changes, both Florida and North Carolina still have two of the highest percent fees as compared to tuition at 69% and 58%, respectively. This is a result of policy changes taking affect after fee levels have already reached such high percentages showing that new policies may not be enough to combat past precedent. In Oregon, the department-

based fees have been bundled with tuition for the university system, which is consistent with my findings as fees actually decreased from 2010-11 to 2011-12. Georgia's policies have changed so that student participation on fee committees has been expanded to ensure that fees are used for the purposes for which they were collected. Additionally, in the past three fiscal years, thirteen states have considered or placed limits on required fee increases or charges.

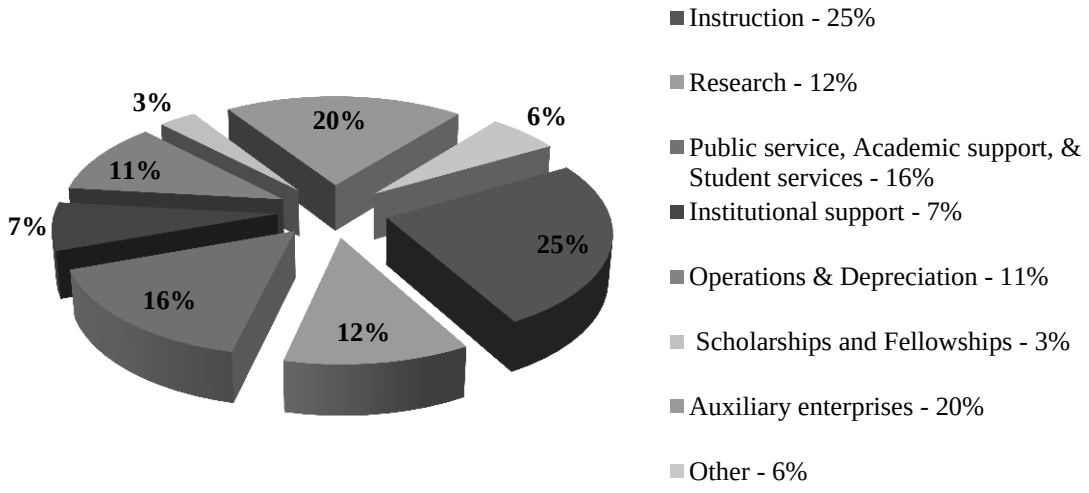
Authority to set student fees tends to be the privilege of institutions and system governing boards. In 15 states, the state coordinating or governing board has the authority to set required fees, however the majority of non-required fee setting power still resides with the individual institution. Seven states maintain control of required fees at the legislature, where only one state sets non-required fees at the state legislature level. Ultimately, the power for both required and non-required fees rests with the individual system or institutions, creating the opportunity to have autonomy over the policy procedures of fees at their universities without oversight. The subsequent section surveys the changes in expenditures showing that modifications are occurring for both how revenue is collected as well as how it is spent.

Changes in Expenditures

The main sources of expenditures at public higher education institutions include instruction, student support, and research (Figure 5). Currently, public universities and institutions are spending approximately 25% on instruction, which includes salaries and wages, and 12% on research. They are also allocating approximately 7% to academic support and 4% student services. Interestingly, institutions are also increasingly spending

higher amounts on auxiliary enterprises at 20%. However, just as revenues have changed over time so too has the way the public higher education is spending the funds.

Figure 5. Percent Distribution of Expenditures at Public Four-Year Institutions (2008-09)*



*U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2008-09 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System. (This figure was prepared February, 2012)

Shifts in revenue sources are significant to spending patterns, because the source often dictates how the funds can be allocated. During 2002-2006, public research universities increased tuition by 30%, yet education and general spending only rose 2.5% (Wellman, 2009). The Delta Cost Project (2011) discovered that the real spending per student for instruction only rose by 10% from 1999 to 2009 where all other spending on students, such as student services, increased by 19%, and operations and maintenance rose by 20%. In 2009, total spending among public institutions saw increases among research (in research institutions), auxiliaries, and other enterprises. Furthermore, spending on research and its related administrative costs continued to steadily increase at public masters and bachelors institutions. Additionally, for research institutions, spending on auxiliaries, hospitals, and other independent operations grew faster than any

other spending area. This data suggests that universities are disbursing more of their monies on entities that could potentially increase their revenue streams.

Research further indicates the importance of increasing tuition and fees in order to maintain quality (Bryan & Whipple, 1995; Vedder, 2004). Ehrenberg (2008) states that "in the higher education market, posted price, tuition and fees, is taken by many to be an indicator of quality; if an institution lets its tuition fall relative to its competitors, it runs the risk of being perceived as an inferior institution" (p.10). Additionally, higher education institutions generally stress the need for further monetary resources in order to provide and maintain quality and, most notably, instruction (Vedder, 2004). However, the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) discovered the real spending per student for instruction only rose by 21% from 1976-1977 to 1999-2000, where all other spending on students increased by 51%. The use of increased revenues on non-instructional expenditures by universities calls into question the actual quality of education received relative to the price charged. With over half of Americans believing that colleges could make cuts, raising tuition based on the argument of maintaining educational quality becomes increasingly difficult (Immerwahr, Johnson, Ott, & Rochkind, 2010). As a result, institutions have begun exploring and using fees to generate revenue (Desrochers & Wellman, 2011).

The next section examines the literature surrounding the potential consequences of increasing tuition and fees. Demonstrating that by overlooking the impact of fees at public institutions, students may be priced out of higher education, creating an environment that further abandons the idea of accessible education for all.

Potential Consequences of Increasing Tuition and Fees

Although more students are attending college than ever before, there is strong evidence that the increasingly higher tuition and fees are restricting the enrollment options of lower-income and minority students (Hearn, Griswold, & Marine, 1996; Kane, 1995; McPherson & Schapiro, 1997). Enrollment rates have increased more gradually for families from the bottom quartile of income distribution than for families from the top three quartiles (Kane, 1995); as tuition and fees at public universities are now equaled to at least 25% of their income (The National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2002). Additionally, enrollment rates have grown more slowly for Blacks and Hispanics, who tend to be more vulnerable to rising net costs, than Whites (McPherson & Schapiro, 1997). These same students are further discouraged from enrolling as grant aid to students has not kept pace with increases in tuition and fees (The National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 2002). In the end, each study found an inverse relationship between tuition and fees and the probability of enrollment in higher education.

Ultimately, tuition and fee prices at state institutions are a function of a few key variables, including the student's ability to pay based on family income, the percentage of out of state students, and the location of the institution (Hearn et al., 1996; Heller, 1996; Kane, 1995; Koshal & Koshal, 2000). When examining the cost of attendance, a family's ability to pay for their student's education becomes an important piece, as enrollment rates are directly affected by the cost of tuition and fees (Callan, 2006). If rising fees are added to the student's bill, public institutions may be creating accessibility barriers for certain student populations.

Tuition and fees over the last 25 years have increased rapidly, exceeding the growth in median income and stratifying higher education by race and earnings (College Board, 2009). Moreover, the face of our nation is changing and becoming more diverse, as such, there will be increasing pressure on financial aid resources as it is expected that more and more students will be in need of monetary support (College Board, 2009). Yet, institutional and state financial aid programs are increasingly favoring middle and upper-class students, which is working against the interests of underprivileged students, creating financial barriers to college participation (Bryan & Whipple, 1995; Harvey, 2001; Heller, 1996, 2002). As a result, institutions are now facing tough decisions on how to overcome these substantial barriers. By increasing tuition and fees, financially disadvantaged students are being left behind, as they cannot keep up with the ever growing costs of attending an institution of higher education (Baird, 2006; Heller, 2002). Universities need to examine the impact of implementing increases in student fees at both the required and non-required levels.

As discussed above, some institutions have begun utilizing differential pricing models between institutions within the same university system and between departments within those institutions. Administrators cite that they are creating pricing differentials to improve productivity and construct an educational environment, which will function easily, generating additional revenue and improving overall operations (Stone, 2002); however, the consequences may outweigh the benefits. For example, students that are enrolled in the University of Arizona business school for 2010-11 will pay $600 more per semester than non-business students, as there is a fee associated with that specific course work (University of Arizona, Bursar's Office, 2011). Where it has not been shown that

charging more for certain majors affects currently enrolled student's choices; low-income students could be adversely affected by targeted tuition and fee increases (Shin & Milton, 2008). It is also known that enrollments among lower-income students are more sensitive to fluctuations in college costs than are higher income students (Heller, 1997; Kane, 1994; McPherson & Schapiro, 1991). Although research looks at the affects that the overall tuition increases have on student enrollment decisions (Baird, 2006), it does not examine the effects of these individual fees for students.

Increasingly, institutions have become the access point for individuals to gain higher income and greater productivity, making it crucial to analyze the variables that contribute to college enrollment, in turn addressing the inequities in attendance rates (Baird, 2006). As departments implement departmental fees, it could create inequities among the student population where only certain students would be able to afford certain majors. Equity, through college enrollment, is a goal that many higher education administrators use to achieve their institutional objectives (Hossler, Hoezze, & Rogalski, 2007), yet it has the potential to cause extensive damage if not properly evaluated (Stone, 2002). For instance, public institutions could potentially use equity as a way to charge more for certain majors, based on the anticipated return on investment for a student within that major. As a result, institutions are then generating a financially competitive environment that alienates particular students. If low-income students are not able to choose their desired major due to cost, institutions are creating even more barriers for these students to overcome. Nevertheless, as outlined above, little research has been conducted on fees and, more specifically, how fees are affecting students.

In the end, rapid tuition increases over the last few decades have made public institutions much less affordable than they once were (Baird, 2006), and now, with the addition of fees, it has the potential to intensify further. Gaps in college participation are attributable to financial barriers and will continue to grow as tuition prices have been increasing and are likely to grow faster than the ability of students to pay (Berkner, He, & Cataldi, 2002; Heller, 2002; Johnstone, 2005). This study fills a much needed gap in the literature, shedding light on the market behaviors of higher education institutions in regard to the types of fees being charged and the accessibility barriers institutions that may be created through the use of fees. The intent of this study is for higher education administrators to better understand how they can cooperate and create integrated transparency, while at the same time maintaining the highest quality institution possible and remain competitive in the ever changing market. By identifying the types of fees that are being utilized, the end result will hopefully generate an environment where students can make informed decisions about what institutions they can truly afford.

Theoretical Framework

To explore fees at public higher education institutions, I draw upon a combination of three theoretical lenses, academic capitalism, resource dependency theory, and neoliberalism. The frameworks interrelate within the realm of higher education as they each have aided in the redefinition of the traditional missions of public universities toward a greater market focus (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Collectively, these three frameworks will guide my analysis of fees and help to explain the shift that has, and is, occurring at public four-year institutions, revealing that fees are more market driven than simply a result of declining state appropriations.

Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) define academic capitalism as "the involvement of colleges and faculty in market-like behaviors" (p. 11) and "the pursuit of market and market-like activities to generate external revenues" (p. 37). Market-like behaviors refers to the actual competition for monies, on the part of the institution and faculty, from any revenue generating activity, including tuition and fees (Slaughter & Leslie, 2001). Market behaviors refer to the institution partaking in "for-profit" activities such as patenting, institution-corporate partnerships and even spin-off companies (Slaughter & Leslie, 2001). Ultimately, academic capitalism is the growing trend whereby universities derive supplementary income from other sources, by charging a price for services that used to be free or increasing the price of items that used to be subsidized or provided at cost, which has quickly become a defining feature of higher education in the United States.

Resource dependency is a concept that was extremely influential in the original construction of academic capitalism (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). The theory holds that the organization (e.g., federal, state, or local government) providing the resource controls the majority of the decision making process, taking away the power of the organization, (e.g., public institutions) receiving the resource (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). For example, if the state cuts the funding to public higher education institutions, the state is the one prompting the increase in tuition and fee prices, not the college, as the college is left without any other alternatives. For the purposes of this analysis, I will begin to show that in certain instances, fees are a result of resource dependence as tuition is commonly mandated at the state level. Conversely, I will also illustrate that in some cases fees may

not be a result of resource dependence, but an opportunity for universities to follow a market based agenda.

Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) also identify neoliberalism as a key aspect of academic capitalism, calling attention to the ascendency of neoliberal ideology in the modern state. This is evidenced by the adoption of political and economic policies which privilege free market, free trade, and the provision of strong property rights for individual citizens. Academic capitalism and neoliberalism continue to influence higher education, taking on a much more market based approach, creating a financial gap between the institutions that have adapted to the economic shift, and those who have not. In this research study, I use these frameworks to examine institutional data on the nature and scope of student fees, calling attention to the positive and negative aspects of developing and implementing the academic capitalist mindset in public higher education.

In the next section, academic capitalism as a phenomenon and theory will be explored through the examination of its eleven constructs, focusing on four concepts of particular relevance to my research. The following section will briefly examine resource dependency theory and its relation to higher education and, more specifically, the implementation of fees. Lastly, the enactment of neoliberalism in our society will be explored as well as the types of influences neoliberalism has had on higher education. Ultimately, I use the theories to explore the types of fees at public universities and provide a frame through which to view them.

Academic Capitalism as a Phenomenon

Throughout the last century the world in which we live has seen major changes, especially when examining the vicissitudes that occurred after the industrial revolution.

During that time period there was an increase in wealth, which industrialized the higher education institutions we have come to know, creating a global side to universities that had not been seen before (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). The effects of globalization have taken over the ideals of the academic institution creating a "new truth" to society's definition of higher education (Foucault, 1980). The effects of this can be seen in the buzz words that now surround higher education institutions such as market, innovation, and entrepreneurial. The phenomenon of academic capitalism is a way to describe the changes that higher education has and continues to go through, which are further examined in this chapter.

Within the political economy "globalization is creating new structures, incentives, and rewards for some aspects of academic careers and is simultaneously instituting constraints and disincentives for other aspects of careers" (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997, p. 1). Universities are now using globalization to produce knowledge-intensive, new economy products that cater to the needs of the international market. For example, the technological market calls for greater productivity on the part of well educated, efficient workers who produce more for less, leading to enhanced profits for corporations, and, theoretically, lower costs for consumers (Bousquet, 2008). By attempting to structure higher education around this model, institutions continue to see vast changes to the overall organization of colleges and universities.

Another of these key changes is shifting revenue generating activities from a basic funding structure to a much more market focused itinerary. The revenue switch began when state appropriations started to dwindle, as early as the 1970's, creating a scenario where universities needed to locate additional funding to maintain their current financial

structure (Cheslock & Gianneshci, 2008). In order to accomplish these tasks, higher education administrators began forming new networks. This included partnering with businesses and private industries that hold the key to significant research dollars (Fairweather, 1988). Through the establishment of these partnerships with private industry, another shift came about as faculty research became much more market driven in order to ensure a strong and continued relationship with the private sector (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Ylijoki, 2003).

The transition in research focus on the faculty side led to major changes in labor force structure as well a heavy focus on research as opposed to teaching (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Faculty are now expected, especially at the senior level, to heavily engage in research activities through private industry relationships that warranted significant monetary returns to the institution (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). However, when academic intellectual property is commodified, it changes student and faculty life. For example, faculty, institutional, and student claims to intellectual property changed enormously as patents and copyrights became a much larger focus, creating a much more competitive environment for faculty-student relations, and faculty-administrative relations (Slaughter & Rhoades, 1993). The state-subsidization of academic entrepreneurs is also commonplace, creating contradictions in many colleges' mission statements (Ylijoki, 2003).

Another interesting dynamic of academic capitalism is that despite the decreases in state financial support, their control has increased at the state level as they have managed to hold on to the decision making power (Gumport & Pusser, 1995). State officials continue to shape and mold education into what they believe matches market

trends, such as standardizing curriculum and aligning faculty with the exact same syllabus. Unfortunately, as state appropriations continue to disappear, students are expected to take on the additional financial burden without the state releasing any of the control. This situation creates a relationship where the state dictates to the students how their money will be spent without seeking input from them.

All of the aforementioned topics have led to a "restructuring" of the higher education institutions that we have known for so long. With the main transformations being an organizational shift in the ways colleges' function, by cutting departments that are deemed a waste of revenue, expanding or creating new departments that match market demands, and even the creation of interdisciplinary units that focus on a specific industry (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). Additionally, the labor force of universities has been altered to align with the private sector; the new objective of administration seems to be streamlining processes in an effort to improve the "old way."

The world is changing and, in turn, altering the educational environment that keeps us connected. As the consumerist mentality has penetrated higher education and state support has declined dramatically, institutions are quick to adapt and align with market trends. To adapt, colleges are altering their revenue generating patterns by stepping away from public funding and looking to higher tuition rates, grants, contracts, private gifts, and other competitive sources of money (Cheslock & Gianneshci, 2008; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). In order to make this shift, universities have changed the way they operate away from traditional approaches, positioning themselves at the center of the market place. Faculty have had to focus on revenue generation, and therefore students are now viewed as customers that must be served and knowledge is something that can be

traded on the market floor. In the end, this transition is quickly becoming the new truth of universities (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

The Theory of Academic Capitalism

The academic capitalism phenomenon has developed and evolved into an actual theory of academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). National and local context have shaped the theory by concentrating on the ways in which the traditional missions of universities have shifted under market pressures, redefining their mission as service to economic development rather than broad service to a democratic citizenry (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The shift in mission can be seen in the financing of education, where prices continually increase, teaching is second to research, and finding new revenue sources is a daily concern.

The definition of this theory also comes with the understanding that there are now processes to how educational institutions are integrating into this "new economy" (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The theory of academic capitalism focuses on networks that link key players in higher education to the new economy through eleven constructs that shape and form the structure of the theory. Interestingly, academic capitalism involves the pursuit not of mass markets, but of various privileged niche student markets, or a focused subset of the larger market (Becker & Round, 2008), effectively changing one of the basic functions of most higher education public institutions (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

The eleven constructs of the theory are global scope, knowledge as raw material, non-Fordist manufacturing, educated workers and technology savvy consumers, the neoliberal state, circuits of knowledge, interstitial organizational emergence,

intermediating networks, extended managerial capacity, market behaviors, and professional strategies. However, in constructing a foundation for the implementation and use of fees at public higher education institutions, it became clear that four of the constructs lend themselves to understanding why colleges are using these fees to generate revenue. In the next section I discuss these four theoretical tenets at length. A detailed discussion of the remaining seven constructs can be found in Slaughter and Rhoades (2004).

New economy.

The first tenet is the idea of the new economy, which is a foundational element of the theory. It explains how institutions are integrating and adapting their practices to better align their missions with the information age (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The new economy is a term to describe the result of the transition from an industrial and manufacturing-based economy to the information technology age in which we now live. Companies in the new economy are heavily involved in the internet and biotech industries and the ripple effects of new technologies have spread out to all other industries as well, including higher education. However, the high growth, low inflation, and high employment of this period led to overly optimistic predictions and many flawed business plans.

Two key components that industry now uses to attract business and institutions to the new economy include: (a) the infrastructure of the institutions must now focus on information flow and (b) low priced labor is no longer enough, they must have well educated, highly skilled and efficient workers at a low cost to remain competitive (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Higher education institutions are supporting these two

principles through revenue generating activities on their campuses, more specifically through fees.

The new economy mindset could use fees as a financial method to align with the overarching ideologies. Within this tenet, institutions could be using fees to fund technological and infrastructure changes that enhance information flow, creating universities that are thriving members of the new economy. Additionally, the justification of hiring low cost, highly skilled personnel could be used to implement a fee that funds the hiring of these individuals as departments struggle to retain quality educators. The convergence of these two trends, the increasing importance of postsecondary education coupled with the shift in financing from the state to the individual, is arguably the greatest challenge (Fairweather, 2006).

Knowledge learning regimes.

The second construct requires an understanding and comprehension of knowledge learning regimes. The idea of the knowledge regimes stems from Foucault's (1980) "regimes of truth" and is fundamental to understanding the restructuring of higher education. Foucault's (1980) notion of regimes of truth can be defined as society's "general politics of truth: that is the types of discourse which it accepts and makes function as true" (Foucault, 1980, p.131). Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) argue that society's regime of truth has shifted its focus from a traditional to a capitalist mindset that puts the ideals of the market place above the well-being of the community.

With the postindustrial era, universities have become even more entrepreneurial, shifting from a public good, knowledge learning regime, to an academic capitalist, knowledge learning regime (Metcalfe & Slaughter, 2007). The public good knowledge

learning regime can be defined as the academic production process that is removed from the market, buffered from the state, and occurs in a space that is neither market nor government (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The academic capitalist knowledge learning regime favors students who are able to pay high tuition and departments that are close to high-end markets, as well as research that features partnerships with industry, start-up companies, and intellectual property licensing potential (Metcalfe & Slaughter, 2007; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The shift in knowledge regime took the public good mentality and turned it into a commodity that could be capitalized and sold in a for-profit manner. It is not to say that the academic capitalism regime is right or wrong, but a shift in how we as individuals now view the world in which we live. We take this regime to be the new truth of how society will successfully function.

In the academic capitalism knowledge learning regime, society has shifted its focus towards the success of the individual through entrepreneurialism, innovation, and the market (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). The question becomes, what has this done to the "truth" of public universities in the United States? Using Foucault's (1980) logic of regimes of truth, scholars of higher education have analyzed how universities developed a "new truth" that mimics the ideals set out by society, creating the phenomenon that has come to be called academic capitalism (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Academic capitalism states that there is an inherent shift in institutional priorities as higher education professionals look to build institutions that not only draw students in, but also generate revenue in order to improve their overall operations (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

With regards to the cost to attend, it has become commonplace to accept an increase in tuition every year as a student. Students tend to see these consistent increases as the new truth; however a more recent development is the addition of fees to each semester term. The new truth that now surrounds higher education creates an environment where students do not tend to question increases in their bill as many believe that the institution must need the money (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). For those who do question the amount being charged they receive an answer based on the expectation that state funding has decreased. In the end, the creation of this new knowledge learning regime has severely changed the overall perception that individuals have of universities, creating a new truth that society must now follow.

The neoliberal state.

The construct of the neoliberal state centers on the individual as an economic actor pulling attention away from the community based approach (Harvey, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). A neoliberal state, by nature, strongly encourages the use of privatization, deregulation, and commercialization where communities that align with these ideals will see a direct benefit, including universities (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The neoliberal state was developed, and is relatively simple to define in theory, as promoting individual choice through the guarantees of property rights, free trade, free markets, and rule of law (Harvey, 2005). Neoliberal states "typically favor the integrity of the financial system and the solvency of financial institutions over the well-being of the population or environmental quality" (Harvey, 2005, p. 71).

The neoliberal state stems from neoliberalism, which is a construct of the primary theoretical lens of academic capitalism and is, in itself, the first time that a political

economic theory proposed that human beings are best served by liberating the individual (Harvey, 2005). In order to accomplish this type of liberation, it meant that the state needed to provide the individual citizen with strong private property rights along with free market and free trade. At first glance, one may think that this type of liberation created a society that could prove very powerful; however, by shifting from the collective judgment to an individual's freedom to choose meant that the public goods, such as education, would drastically change.

The neoliberal state has influenced higher education to take on a much more market based approach by having universities focus on individual institutional success rather than higher education achievement as a whole. This creates a gap between the surviving institutions that have adapted to the economic shift and those institutions that did not. Furthermore, by operating as a neoliberal state, higher education institutions continue to view students as consumers and have created an environment where more and more of the cost is placed upon the student (Biesta, 2004; Penn & Franks, 1982). Much of the mindset can be translated to the departmental level as the departments that have embraced the neoliberal mindset, by implementing such things as fees, have flourished, while those that did not are more often cut (Powell & Owen-Smith, 2002). Using this construct in the research, the data collected looks to connect the recent economic shift to the increase in fees on campuses.

Market behaviors.

The construct of market behaviors is explored to show how it is used by public higher education institutions. The use of the word market is a key component to the theory of academic capitalism and provides a foundation for the theory to be built upon.

In the market, one must convince the group of consumers (e.g., students) that they are interested in the product (e.g., idea), and they must have the resources to purchase the product (e.g., college education) to invest in it (Becker & Round, 2008). Due to the pressure to continue to sell their product, institutions are participating in market and market-like behaviors. The focus on market and market-like behaviors has, and continues to cause major re-structuring for higher education.

Academic capitalism, more specifically market behaviors, changes the way departments function and the goals of university administrators. Department heads must develop strategies that enable their units to meet increasing market demands and administrators must advance agendas that will result in institutional success in national and international rating schemes (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Departments that focus on market behaviors to generate revenues are the ones that are flourishing, while the others are left to merge with other departments on campus or even closedown.

Higher education is able to do this by promoting specific attributes in such a way that causes the student to apply and then enroll at that institution and thus purchase their education (Becker & Round, 2008; Levin, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). For example, at Michigan State University an engineering major pays more than $1,000 extra in fees per year than an education major (Michigan State University Controllers Office, 2011). The department is able to accomplish this by marketing to the engineering students a promise of a higher return on their investment through vastly larger salaries or better job offers (Hearn, 2003). In the end, institutions are using revenue generating activities like departmental fees to remain competitive, creating a product the students want to purchase (Becker & Round, 2008; Levin, 2005). As one begins to explore the

reasons for these tuition and fee increases and differential pricing models, they may realize they are not actually experiencing positive changes to their educational experience as a result of them.

It appears as though the financial and economic interests of institutions are being prioritized over students, consequently creating numerous accessibility barriers for certain subpopulations of students (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). By focusing on alternative revenue sources, more explicitly fees, institutions are aligning with the theory of academic capitalism. They are utilizing the niche marketing concept to capitalize on the price that students are willing to spend. Institutions may then create enough revenue to continue improving the quality of their department, attracting even more students to their institution and further propagating the academic capitalist mindset.

Researchers, like Slaughter and Rhoades (2004), have investigated the rise of academic capitalism as a materialization of neoliberalism in higher education institutions. Academia has witnessed rising apprehensions about increased engagement of universities in academic capitalism as a response to decreased government funding, the commoditization of knowledge, and the increased interplay between universities and the private sector (Ylijoki, 2003). Some scholars maintain that increasing market-orientation gives rise to a new culture that displaces traditional academic values and norms. The next section will discuss the theory of resource dependency and how the theory of academic capitalism started and evolved within this framework.

Resource Dependency

The characterization of the theory of resource dependence stems from the need for resources (e.g., financial, physical, or informational) from an entity that commands the

power within the relationship (Pfeffer, 1981; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Resource dependency theory proposes that organizations deficient in critical resources will seek to establish relationships with others in order to obtain needed resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Within the realm of higher education, this type of power relationship is most prominent between the state and the institution. The state commands the power as it holds the necessary financial resources provided to public universities. Simultaneously, creating a dominant relationship where the state has a majority of the control. As the funds at the state level have decreased, institutions are further aligning with the theory of resource dependency by seeking alternative options. Slaughter and Leslie (1997) indicate, "Resource dependency theory suggests that as unrestricted monies for higher education constrict, institutions within a national system will change their resource-seeking patterns to compete for new, more competitively based funds" (p. 65).

Resource dependency in higher education.

Resource dependency theory advocates that in order to understand organizations like colleges and universities, one must pay attention to their connections to external agents. Policy makers and external funding constituencies exert considerable and sometimes competing pressures on institutions of higher education. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) assert that "the perspective denies the validity of the conceptualization of organizations as self-directed, autonomous actors pursuing their own ends and instead argues that organizations are other-directed, involved in constant struggle for autonomy and discretion, confronted with constraint and external control" (p. 257).

Resource dependency theory is a key component to the academic capitalist phenomenon. However, the evolution of academic capitalism from a phenomenon to a

theory proved resource dependency needed to be reevaluated within the theory. Resource dependency is based on pure organizational theory, which assumes that institutions have clear cut boundaries. Yet in the theory of academic capitalism, Slaughter and Rhoades (2004) blur the boundaries of the state, market, and higher education. By blurring the line, public institutions are redefining how they are generating revenue and thereby the role they play in the community. Therefore, administrators will have a more challenging role as they may no longer be able to blame their lack of resources on the state and federal government.

Public institutions may be using fees as a way to create a situation in which they get to decide how much revenue to bring in, regardless of state involvement, and therefore have less reliance on the state. Where this may be the case in some situations, the data in this analysis will also suggest that fees may not be a result of resource dependence but an opportunity for universities to mimic market behaviors and make self-directed choices. In the next section, the framework of neoliberalism will be investigated in an effort to show the connection to academic capitalism and the eventual affect on fees at public higher education institutions.

Neoliberalism

Neoliberalism, as a theory, emerged after nearly three decades on the ideological fringes as a solution to the crisis of embedded liberalism in the 1970s (Harvey, 2005). Embedded liberalism, usually called 'Keynesianism', was the result of a class compromise between a strong working class and the 'bourgeois' state (Harvey, 2005). Embedded liberalism was designed to stave off crises that plagued 1930s capitalism by attempting to create a more managed capitalism where the State would get involved

directly in the economy and aim to reduce the considerable social inequalities produced in the previous system. Further, it was created "to ensure domestic peace and tranquility as some sort of class compromise between capital and labor had to be constructed" (Harvey, 2005, p.10). Dahl and Lindblom (1953) both argued that capitalism and communism in their raw forms had failed and were thus dissolved. They believed the only way ahead was to construct the right blend of state, market, and democratic institutions, through a concept deemed, neoliberalism.

Neoliberalism refers to a varied collection of ideas, policies, practices, and discursive representations that can be united by three broad concepts which tie the varied collection of ideas together. These concepts are: (a) the benevolence of the free market and destruction of Keynesian economic policies and programs, (b) the redefinition of the individual from a citizen to an autonomous economic actor, and (c) the extension of free market logic to cultural, social, and political spheres (Cohen, 2007). In this analysis, the concept of neoliberalism will be examined through a synthesis of the core knowledge as well as an assessment of implications that this lens has on public higher education. This lens will be used to observe the revenue generation activities that are occurring on campuses around the country, examining the benefits and costs of operating in this manner.

Benevolence of the free market.

Former lenient policies that helped shape the U.S. economic system from the early nineteenth century to the 1920s had culminated in the Great Depression, and were replaced by a Keynesian system (Harvey, 2005; Palley, 2005). Keynesianism, habitually characterized by the New Deal, attempted to create a more controlled capitalism (Harvey,

2005; Turner, 2008). This meant that the State would intervene directly in the economy and aim to curtail the substantial social inequalities shaped by the previous administration (Harvey, 2005; Palley, 2005). In the 1970s, these types of policies resulted in economic stagflation. As a consequence, critics proclaimed the system a complete disaster and attacked the Keynesian system for its socialist goals and allegedly abnormal infringements into the "free market" (Turner, 2008). These critics further contended that the conduit to economic success required a return to individualism and the free market characteristics of classical liberalism, forming a "new liberalism" that adhered to new economic and social settings (Turner, 2008). However, they were ignoring the economic and social history of the U.S. and much of the industrialized world as the nation was built on the collective good, not individual triumph.

As the neoliberal solution began developing, it was destroying the Keynesian economic policies and programs; the extension of market logic to cultural, social, and political domains and the theoretical redefinition of the individual from a citizen to an independent economic actor (Baez, 2007; Lemke, 2001; Saad-Filho & Johnson, 2005; Turner, 2008). As the neoliberal backlash continued, the attack on Keynesianism was the most visible aspect which resulted in drastic cuts to state supported services as well as the commercialization and marketing of public programs and spaces (Harvey, 2005; McLaren, 2005). The changes to the public sector were facilitated by the extension of market logic into nearly all aspects of social life. Accordingly, the system of beliefs further veered from utilitarianism, which dominated social, cultural, and individual decisions (Bonal, 2003; Lemke, 2001; Robertson & Dale, 2002).

Extension of free market logic.

As market logic became the defining force in social affairs and individual decisions, the "collectivism" that underlined Keynesian social policies were replaced by individualist ideals that demanded limited State interference into the operation of the market and the lives of each citizen (Harvey, 2005). Concomitantly, the individual was redefined as a self-governing economic actor who would use, whether economic or not, a rational, financial cost-benefit analysis to make all of their decisions (Harvey, 2005; Munro, 2004).

History conveys the failures of classical liberalism, including unmatched economic inequality among citizens (Harvey, 2005). This happened through the lack of any real dollar increase in wages coupled with vast growth in personal debt as well as a massive amount of power shifting from the state to corporations and financial institutions (Bonal, 2003; Dumenil & Levy, 2005). Despite the failures with liberalism, neoliberalism remains the prevailing socioeconomic way of life in the United States. Neoliberalism has become a powerful force that continues to dominate the discourse and behaviors of many aspects of the United States; higher education is no exception as they too are embracing the ideological principles of the neoliberal society (Apple, 2000; Giroux, 2005).

Redefinition of the individual.

The idea of individual freedom, in its own right, is an extremely powerful concept and the basis for the theory of neoliberalism, however with this freedom has come consequences. To make the shift to an individualist society all other forms of social solidarity were dissolved so that each person could have their own ideological structures

(Harvey, 2005). This shift in our society allowed for corporations to directly influence the ideals of the individual, turning them against regulatory practices of the state by focusing on the liberty of consumer choice. Corporations saw the opportunity to heavily influence the market without state interference creating a situation where it is "every person for themselves."

With the consumer choice model has come the contradiction where an individual is supposed to have the freedom to choose, yet they cannot choose to build strong collective institutions. Inherently, in a neoliberalist society the individual will always choose to contribute to the market, not make the choice to eradicate it (Giroux, 2004; Harvey, 2005). Ironically, individualism has not created a free society, but a society that no longer values the collective good, only the market driven behaviors we have all become accustom too. In the next section, neoliberalism will be examined from the vantage point of higher education and how that manifested into the theory of academic capitalism. A closer examination will be paid to the affects that academic capitalism has had on undergraduate and graduate education, departments, and the policy climate.

Neoliberalism and higher education.

Over the past 40 years, scholars have acknowledged a number of meaningful changes to American public higher education. As mentioned previously, these changes to higher education have been defined by a large reduction in real dollar state support to public higher education (Bloom, Hartley, & Rosovsky, 2006). The 40 year period has seen the intensification of a seemingly diverse type of educational institution with equally different priorities, goals, and structures. Primarily, public institutions have put an enormous spotlight on revenue generation (Duderstadt, 2007) and have focused on

private sources of funding, which account for an increasingly larger percentage of total institutional revenues (Kezar, 2004; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Higher education has, and is experiencing, a number of changes with the implementation of neoliberalism within the larger economic framework. First and foremost, they are experiencing cuts to real dollar allocations (Levin, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Additionally, a focus on free market logic is helping to shape institutional decisions that are geared towards efficiency and competition and not necessarily the educational mission (Ayers, 2004; Gumport, 1993). Furthermore, public institutions are increasing the use of part-time and adjunct faculty, which can create challenges to the shared governance model that higher education thrives on (Giroux, 2005; Gumport, 2000; Rhoades, 2006). Finally, institutions are giving top priority to revenue generation activities, not the educational development of students, as colleges are continually endeavoring to remain competitive in the market sector (Alexander, 2001; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The neoliberal mindset has evolved even further within higher education, sparking conversations about the use of academic capitalism within these institutions.

Similar to the focus on revenue generation, there has also been an increased emphasis on economic efficiency, which provided the rationale to employ more part-time and adjunct faculty (Kirp, 2004). Additionally, the rationale for an adaptation of systems of governance from shared and collegial models to more hierarchical models was established (Kezar, Lester, & Anderson, 2006). Faculty priorities mirrored those of their institutions as they increasingly focused on applied and commercialized research in the name of revenue generation (Alexander, 2001; Clark, 1998; Geiger, 2004; Slaughter,

1998). A gradual redefinition of state and institutional financial aid structures were adopted, with a steady percentage increase of overall financial aid coming from merit aid (Heller, 2001).

On a communal level, a college education has gradually been conceptualized as a private good, purchased by a "customer" or student (Bloom, Hartley, & Rosovsky, 2006; Swagler, 1978). As students have begun to embrace the private focus of higher education, they have an increased focus on the extrinsic outcomes of higher education while their concern for the intrinsic rewards of the college experience has diminished (Astin & Oseguera, 2004). All of these changes merged to create institutions that are tellingly different from their counterparts of years past (Bloom et al., 2006; Pusser, 2006; Sacks, 2007).

Even though neoliberalism has altered much of the public sector in the United States, few higher education administrators attribute the pervasive changes in public higher education to the rise of neoliberalism, but rather universities adapting to necessary changes. For example, the ever increasing cuts in state support for higher education, which have been widely vetted in the higher education literature, are mostly understood to result from the larger neoliberal attack on the public sector (Aronowitz, 2000; Hill, 2003; Giroux & Giroux, 2004). However, only a few administrators mentioned the larger social changes or connected the attack on public education to the larger neoliberal attack on the public. Likewise, the focus on private sources of funding, revenue generating research, and the general transformation of education from a public good to a private good, are indicative of the general privatization and commercialization of public goods

dictated by neoliberalism (Kezar, 2004; Palley, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004; Wellen, 2005).

Often times, scholars suggest that these changes within our higher education institutions are innate transformations or are necessary reactions to economic crisis's (Astin, 1998; Duderstadt, 2007). Given that even in times of relative financial opulence the privatization and utilization of market logic has persisted (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004), such an explanation falls short. It is only when these changes are framed within the bigger picture of neoliberalism that we can understand how and why they have taken place. These changes exist to varying extents in different public institutions due to the uneven impact and development of neoliberalism in higher education (Naidoo & Jamieson, 2005). This is evidenced in the differential effects of neoliberalism by institutional type and academic area (Mignolo, 2000; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Using the Lenses to Examine Fees - *Student's Academic Capitalist Experience*

Neoliberalism focuses on the market driven society that rallied around economic and social policies which stress the efficiency of private enterprise, liberalized trade, and relatively open markets (Giroux, 2004). With the neoliberal commodification of education, the economic switch between student and institution created an environment where the student is now a customer whose needs should be met on a multitude of levels. The customer aspect of higher education was originally used in a positive way to legitimize students' roles and demand a voice in institutional decisions, not to redefine students as customers and demand customer satisfaction. The phenomenon of students as customers began to define college students, which was indicative of an expansive social change that challenged, in general, the authenticity of a higher education institution

(Astin, 1998; Eagle & Brennan, 2007; Penn & Franks, 1982). This social change is the shift of higher education to a neoliberal and, more specifically, an academic capitalist mindset.

Students are no longer solely defined by their role as learners; a "learner" is not a part of any economic exchange (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Students, like all others, are defined in market terms, they are customers. Once students are viewed as only customers who are purchasing an educational product, education shifts from being a creative process to being a simple exchange of money for services (Sharrock, 2000). Although students have always "purchased" their education, the economic aspect of their campus identity used to be secondary to their identity as a learner, an identity with far different implications than that of a customer (Winston, 1999).

As academic capitalism is manifesting itself in universities, the student sector is also being influenced as institutions are continually looking for ways to charge more by becoming increasingly engaged within the market. The movement to align with the academic capitalist knowledge regime has become increasingly evident as one begins to look at the creation and use of fees. These large and often unprecedented increases in fees cause turmoil as the students see a drastic boost in the cost to attend without necessarily seeing a significant return on this new investment (Blood, 2009). Moreover, the perception is that current policy does not require the administration to report how they are utilizing existing fees or how they are going to use the newly acquired increase. Creating an increase not in the sticker price of enrollment, since tuition costs remain static in comparison, but in the actual price to attend.

As fees become commonplace within public higher education institutions, so too does the understanding that fees are the norm within higher education institutions. Students are not a key component in the decision making process but a customer that generates revenue. The new truth that is now surrounding institutions needs to be examined so that the revenue generation of fees does not become about profit making. Fees in many institutions are quickly growing in many directions, from student services to departmental, international, graduate, and campus fees. By examining the types of fees thru the lenses of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism, the goal is to study the actual fees behind the overall fee structures at four-year public higher education institutions. Ultimately, the hope is to understand whether the types of fees being implemented are out of necessity or more about following market trends and increasing revenue streams.

In the next chapter the methodology is presented, illustrating that a descriptive analysis was necessary to understand the current state of fees around the country. In the end, I use the theories of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism to explore the creation, implementation, and use of fees at universities and provide a strong case for the research study.

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities: Differentiating Between Tuition and Fees

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

Despite the plethora of data collected and analyzed from the tuition piece of revenue generation puzzle in four-year public higher education institutions, little to no attention has been paid to the fee portion. The majority of the current data collected by the College Board, Delta Cost Project, and IPEDS gathers information on tuition and required fees. However, fees are not divided into individual expenditures. There is also little consistency with regards to the fee reporting process. For example, the California higher education system, until 2010, reported all collected student revenue to IPEDS as fees, making the current reporting process different from other similar institutions that separated tuition and required fees. The data collected are also largely based on what the average FTE student would pay, making it difficult for a potential student to determine the actual cost of attendance.

Furthermore, the fees within these datasets are not broken down to explain what types of fees are required and which are not. The fees that are reported in the IPEDS (2010) datasets are considered "required" if more than 51% of the student population must pay them. Any fee that is not required by over half of the student population is not required to be reported in national datasets (IPEDS, 2010). Where the datasets have helped organize the overwhelming amount of information that one can find about the costs of college, they do not provide an accurate picture of the true cost of attendance (Weisbrod et al., 2008).

Due to the fact that the current datasets on the cost of colleges do not differentiate between the multitudes of fees an institution charges, the primary purpose of this study is to collect information that would provide an accurate representation of what types of fees

four-year public high education institutions are charging. The research differentiates between tuition, required fees, and non-required fees by separating out these three categories in a detailed line by line format so that students and their families can begin to see what specific areas their payment is contributing to. To ensure that this goal is achieved, a number of complementary strategies are used, which are further explored throughout this chapter.

In this section the research design and sample size collected are discussed, showing that the choices made on the design closely align with conceptual frameworks of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism. Additionally the data collection stages are explained as well as the institutional and external variables that were used, showing how each connects back to the theoretical frameworks. To conclude the chapter, an examination of the limitations that occur throughout the entire process is discussed as well as how those limitations are addressed.

Research Design

The research methodology for analyzing fees is quantitative in nature and conducted in the format of a descriptive analysis, as that is the most beneficial way to create a richly explanatory report on the current state of fees in public four-year higher education institutions. As mentioned in chapter two, currently there is no research on the specific fees that institutions charge. Therefore, collecting data on the current state of fees at public four-year institutions in the United States allows for a better understanding of the national landscape of fees.

Descriptive statistics describe the main features of a collection of data quantitatively, aiming to summarize the collected data set, rather than use the data to

learn about the population that the data is thought to represent (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). This generally means that descriptive statistics, unlike inferential statistics, are not developed on the basis of probability theory. Descriptive statistics are used to present fees in a manageable form, helping to simplify and organize such a large amount of data in a sensible way.

The descriptive research design was chosen for a number of reasons. First, since the area of fees has not been explored to date, the collection and analysis of descriptive data is the initial step that needs to be taken before correlational research can be conducted. Second, the design and conceptual framework of academic capitalism effectively align by beginning to explore differences in fees, showing that fees could be more market driven and entrepreneurial than tuition. Finally, the research design also begins to connect various external influences such as governance structures and political culture to the types of fees being charged in universities, highlighting possible differences that are occurring. The design provides the opportunity to fill a much needed research gap in the literature and open up new areas to be explored.

Research questions.

As a result of the lack of basic data surrounding fees at public four-year institutions, the research questions are descriptive in nature. These questions are answered through data collection and analysis aimed at gaining a better understanding of the preponderance of the types of fees public universities use. Specifically, they are: 1. What are the typical fee structures across public institutions in the United States? The initial research question separates out each individual fee that a student pays. Within the main research question, data collection also examines the values (averages) across

student types and how required and non-required fees are allocated. The fees are looked at by individual names as well as by the types of categories created among similar fees; allowing for the chance to find differences among fee setting behaviors at public four-year institutions. Further exploration of the types of fees are collected for both undergraduate and graduate levels as well as for in and out-of-state students.

2. Do fee structures differ across institutional types? Once the data is collected on the types of fees, this research question is answered by comparing fees against various institutional types. The types of public institutions examined are very high/high research intensive versus non- research intensive and the Carnegie classifications of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors institutions. Further analysis looks at the categorical representation of fees in comparison to the institutional types to highlight any major differences that begin to stand out.

3. Do fee structures differ across external and/or state characteristics? The final research question looks at the data analysis from the two previous questions and combines that with the characteristics unique to each institution and state. The characteristics are collected from secondary data sources and the analyses examine if specific fee types are associated with certain traits. An examination of the variables of region, state, governance structure, political culture, and regulation is conducted. The intent is to investigate if there are particular types of institutions or states that use fees in comparable ways to find additional differences or similarities that may be linked to fee setting behaviors.

Exploring fees from a purely descriptive approach allows for a more in-depth analysis then is currently available in such datasets as IPEDS, College Board, and Delta

Cost Project. Examining fees from both the required and non-required aspects provides a truthful depiction of the current state of fees at four-year public higher education institutions in the United States. In turn, the descriptive data could then be used to explore research questions that are more correlational in nature by looking at such variables as the institutional and state characteristics associated with fees setting behaviors. Ultimately, the analysis begins to fill research and policy gaps that currently exist within public higher education institutional fees.

Sample.

One of the unique elements of public institutions is the power that the state has over the way the higher education system operates. As a result, states vary noticeably in the approaches they take to organizing their higher education systems (Bracco, Richardson, Callan, & Finney, 1999). One key differential is the policy environment, or the function taken on by the state with regard to higher education (McLendon, Heller, & Young, 2005). The allocation of power amid the state and higher education ultimately reflects the interests expressed by groups internally and externally involved in the state's higher education policy (Bracco et al., 1999). In other words, the higher education system in each state operates between the dynamic interests of academic professionals and market demands.

As the market has come to influence higher education, many areas of public institutions have begun to transform, focusing on increased revenue generation (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Therefore, the change in revenue focus could be a result of the market pressures that have penetrated the policy environment as each state is distinctive according to its own policies and priorities. Market pressures are now beginning to shape

state policy, as legislators want to see institutions that are contributing to economic recovery and survival through research initiatives, corporate partnerships, and alternative revenue options, much in line with academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Student fees are an area that provides an opportunity for universities to do just that. Not only can fees increase revenues, but they can also follow market trends based on the type of fees being charged to students.

The first sample examines public four-year higher education institutions that are deemed to be more market intensive. The study defines the more market focused institutions as highly research intensive institutions, as they are the ones most affected by both market trends and state decisions contributing more to the state's economy (Wellman, 2009). Since academic capitalism is deeply embedded within the market mentality, examining these institutions is essential to understating the differences between market focused and non-market focused institutions with regards to fees.

The first sample set includes the 72 public universities that are deemed highly research intensive by the Carnegie Classification for the 2010-2011 school year. Included in this initial sample are institutions that have awarded at least 20 research doctoral degrees during the current year. To determine if an institution warranted a classification of highly research intensive, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education examines each institutions level of research activity, as measured by research expenditures, number of research doctorates awarded, number of research-focused faculty, and other research staff (Carnegie Classification, 2010). The study uses the Carnegie Classifications as this allows for classification of the universities into roughly comparable institutions and established continuity throughout the selection process.

However, as not all states are represented in the initial sample, ten additional institutions are added from the states of Alaska, Idaho, Maine, Nevada, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming in order to have each state represented within this first sample group. To select the institutions that represent the remaining ten states the Carnegie Classification of high research activity are used to determine the appropriate sample selection as it adheres to the institutions that are more likely to follow market trends. In the end the total sample size for this portion is 82 institutions from across all 50 states.

The second sample looks at the remaining four-year public colleges by each state and selected a random, yet representative, sample from each so that a comparison sample is looked at from the institutional and state levels. The sample of the additional institutions allows for further analysis to be done on the accessibility barriers that may be occurring, in certain institutions or states, based on fluctuations in fees. Examining these institutions creates the opportunity to provide more generalizable results among public four-year institutions and begins to show the institutions and/or states that are more in line with the market based approached of academic capitalism versus resource dependency.

Probability sampling is utilized and defined as a sampling technique in which the samples are gathered in a process that gives all the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). This sampling technique is achieved through randomization of the four-year public institutions that are not a part of the highly intensive research sample. The advantage of using a random sample is the

absence of both systematic and sampling bias. If random selection was done properly, the sample should be representative of the entire population.

To do this, a random sample is taken from the remaining 597 four-year public institutions, including a probabilistic sample from each of 50 states. Each state is represented in both the highly intensive research and the random sampling portion of the data collection. To determine how many institutions to sample from each state, a categorical element is added based on the total number of public four-year institutions within the state, not counting the 82 institutions in the original sample.

The 597 institutions were categorized by state and counted, then subtracted by the already accounted for 82 institutions (See equation below). The final number is then multiplied by the projected sample size used, 100 institutions. The final calculated number is always rounded up to the next whole number so that each institution has at least one institution represented in the second sample set of data. Therefore, the total sample size for the second set of public institutions was 120 institutions. Constructing the second sample set in this manner provides the opportunity to look at institutional and state characteristics in conjunction with fees setting behaviors, unveiling similarities and differences in the ways universities are using fees. The sample as a whole, 202 four-year public higher education institutions, confidently provides a diverse data set allowing for a comparative analysis to be done across institutions.

*Number of Institutions randomly sampled from each State = (Number of Four-year Public Institutions within the State /Total Number of Four-year Public Institutions) * Projected sample size*

Based on the formula for determining a representative sample, put forth by the National Education Association (NEA) Research Bulletin (1960), the sample size should

be approximately 200 public four-year institutions across the United States to gain an accurate representation of the total population. Other research indicated that for the population being surveyed the appropriate sample size would be approximately 176 with a *p* value of .05 (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). Yet another study illustrated that the sample size could be anywhere from 83-222 depending on the percent of the sample you would like to include (Taylor-Powell, 1998). The selected sample size, for this study, is consistent with NEA as it provided a robust sample size from which to analyze and an efficient method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population. Therefore, the calculated sample size for this study aligned well with accepted standards and was ample enough to representatively describe the current state of fees at public four-year institutions. In the next section the measures on which the study was based are defined.

Measures.

The measures for this study separated out the tuition and fees by examining each variable as displayed by institutional websites and the data collected by IPEDS in an effort to show the differences that exist. Additionally, the institutional and external variables are measured, providing another level at which the data can be viewed. By measuring fees in this capacity, analysis of the data is easily discerned from primary and secondary sources.

Tuition.

The measures used in the study are taken from both institutional websites (primary) as well as the IPEDS dataset (secondary). The data collected, from all subpopulations (e.g., in-state undergraduates, out-of-state undergraduates, in-state

graduates, and out-of-state graduates), is from 2010-11 for the IPEDS data and 2011-2012 for the primary data. The undergraduate data is based on a student being enrolled FTE or 15 credits each semester for a total of 30 credits per academic year. The graduate data is based on a student being enrolled FTE or nine credits each semester for a total of 18 credits per academic year.

IPEDS defines tuition as an "amount of money charged to students for instructional services. Tuition may be charged per term, per course, or per credit" (2011, para.7). From the institutional websites, the measures used are the total listed tuition for in-state and out-of-state students as well as FTE undergraduate and FTE graduate students. Additionally, tuition is measured with fees subtracted out for both undergraduate and graduate students and those enrolling both in-, and out-of-, state.

For the secondary tuition measures, the Institutional Characteristics (IC) file is used from the IPEDS dataset. This included in-state average tuition for full-time undergraduates (TUITION2), out-of-state average tuition for full-time undergraduates (TUITION3), in-state average tuition for full-time graduates (TUITION6), and out-of-state average tuition for full-time graduates (TUITION7). The IPEDS tuition measures are then compared against the primary tuition measurement. Both datasets measure tuition based on a FTE student at the undergraduate or graduate level, therefore a consistent comparison could be accomplished among the two datasets.

Fees.

The required fees measured are taken from both institutional websites as well as the IPEDS dataset. The data collected, from all subpopulations (e.g., in-state undergraduates, out-of-state undergraduates, in-state graduates, and out-of-state

graduates) is from 2010-11 for the IPEDS data and 2011-2012 for the primary data. The non-required fees measured are taken from institutional websites and only at the primary level. The data collected is from 2011-2012 and included in-state undergraduates and in-state graduates. For all fees measured, the undergraduate data was based on a student being enrolled FTE or 15 credits each semester for a total of 30 credits. The graduate data is based on a student being enrolled FTE or nine credits each semester for a total of 18 credits.

Fees are defined as the "fixed sum charged to students for items not covered by tuition and required of such a large proportion of all students that the student who does not pay the charge is an exception" (IPEDS, 2011, para. 22). For the purposes of this analysis, fees encompass those that are required and those that are considered non-required, such as departmental fees, and generally do not appear in the listed tuition. As with the tuition, fees are measured in a similar way, using both primary and secondary sources. The primary measures are collected from institutional websites and looked at fees in an itemized fashion. To produce consistency, the fees are all collected and analyzed on a semester basis despite the fact that certain fees are charged per credit, per semester, or annually.

The first measure examined what each institution deems as required fees that all students must pay in addition to the tuition price, where not paying the fee is the exception. Fees that fall into this category are for the most part reported to the IPEDS dataset but are not broken down into an itemized fashion. Therefore, required fees are looked at individually and not as a lump sum, which generally included such things as recreation center fees, student activities fees, and health fees. Required fees also

incorporated charges that are debt based, technology driven, and energy focused. All measures are taken to delineate the lump sum of fees into categorized entities; however, some fees were labeled in a general manner even within the line-by-line format.

The next fee set measured is non-required fees, which included items such as orientation or registration fees that students incur as they embark upon their higher education journey. An additional fee includes such things as transcript fees, graduation fees, advance enrollment deposits, and international student fees. Non-required fees are measured based on how much each student is charged and at what level, be it as a freshman, senior, or international student.

The next measure includes supplemental and departmental fees paid by both undergraduate and graduate students. Supplemental fees comprised such things as lab and equipment fees that are charged per course and generally very difficult to determine unless you actually sign up for the course. Departmental fees are measured on a department-by-department basis examining which institutions charged fees and how much. The departments chosen are based on a few criteria including departments that are most likely to be at the majority of institutions as well as majors that are considered high return versus low return degrees.

A survey conducted by the National Association of Colleges and Employers (2008) found that business, engineering, and science majors are more likely to be hired, and paid more, immediately after graduation than other majors. Examining high and low return degrees created the opportunity to investigate whether or not institutions are attempting to capitalize on the perceived quality of a given major. For undergraduate students, the departments that are surveyed included business, engineering, english,

physical sciences (i.e., biology or chemistry), and education. The business, engineering, art, and education departments are measured for the graduate students. Each departmental fee is recorded for FTE; in-state students per semester by whether a lump sum or per credit hour basis.

The final measure is the differential pricing models that charge students based on the number of credit hours one has earned in their educational career. For example, a junior may pay more per credit hour than a freshman attending the same college. Each of the measures provide a breakdown of the fees occurring at public four-year institutions and are a necessary first step in understanding what types of fees are being charged for certain services.

For the secondary fee measures, Institutional Characteristics (IC) are used from the IPEDS dataset. This included in-state required fees for full-time undergraduates (FEE2), out-of-state required fees for full-time undergraduates (FEE3), in-state required fees full-time graduates (FEE6), and out-of-state required fees full-time graduates (FEE7). The IPEDS fee measures are then compared against the primary measures listed above. Both datasets measure required fees based on a FTE student at the undergraduate or graduate level; therefore a consistent comparison is accomplished among the two datasets.

Examining fees separate from tuition provides the opportunity to examine what types of fees institutions are using. Exploring fees in this manner ties closely with the theory of academic capitalism as institutions may not be using fees as purely resource dependence, but as a way to engage in market-like behaviors and remain a competitive entity in the marketplace. In order to understand the use of fees more holistically, the

next section looks at the institutional and external variables that may have an influence on fee setting behaviors at four-year public colleges.

Institutional and external variables.

In addition to the measures on tuition and fees, data is collected on institutional and external variables associated with each institution. Institutional variables are measured as those variables specific to each institution and are collected from both the Carnegie Classifications and the IPEDS dataset. The institutional variables includes the Carnegie Classifications of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors and whether the institution is a very high/high research intensive or non-research intensive institution. Examining institutional variables allows for comparisons to be done across the various types of institutions, highlighting differences among them.

The external variables looks at the characteristics outside of the institution that may still have an effect on the way the institution operates. The first external variables examine each institution's state and geographic region. Each state and region is unique, encompassing its own policies and priorities, based on the policy environment. Examining each state and region creates the opportunity to explore how states and regions are using required and non-required fees in comparable or dissimilar methods.

The second measure collected for external variables includes the political culture for each state as defined by Elazar (1972). Political culture refers to what people believe and feel about government, and how they think people should act towards it. Each state is broken down into one of three types of political culture: (a) moral, (b) individual, or (c) traditional (Elazar, 1972). For states that are defined as having a moral political culture, they tend to see government as a positive force and view serving the community as the

core of the political relationship. For states that are defined as having an individual political culture, they tend to believe that government should be largely restricted to those areas which encourage private initiative. The final classification of traditional political culture tends to view government as an actor with a positive role in the community, but the role is largely limited to securing the maintenance of the existing social order. The variable of political culture is examined as neoliberalism is deeply embedded in the politics of our country (Harvey, 2005). Certain cultures lend themselves more easily to the ideologies of the theory and could therefore illustrate differences among the states based on political beliefs. By examining the cultural, state, and regional variables differences begin to emerge in regard to how public four-year universities set and use fees.

For the third variable, governance structures, three types of systems are commonly used to classify: (a) consolidated, (b) coordinated, and (c) planning (Waller, Coble, Scharer, & Giamportone, 2000). A consolidated system is the most centralized with one statewide "super" board given budgetary, regulatory, managerial, administrative, and planning responsibility for all higher education institutions in the state. For the coordinated system, a statewide board is responsible for planning and regulation. Additionally, an institutional, or sub-system, board manages all day-to-day activities of the institutions happenings and budgetary responsibility and can be either at the state or institutional level. The final structure, planning system, leaves all administrative, regulatory, and budgeting authority to the institution while the statewide board develops a statewide education agenda. Investigating governance structures in relation to fees allows for a better understanding of who may be controlling the use of fees on public

higher education campuses. Furthermore, the differences between the need and want for resources as a result of a more controlled structure can be explored, highlighting the institutions that may be more reliant on the principles of resource dependency theory versus academic capitalism.

The final variable defines what parts of the higher educational system are regulated by a statewide board. The state regulation is categorized as all, all plus, degree, separate, or segmented. "All" is defined as all post-secondary institutions. "All+" is defined as all post-secondary plus elementary and secondary institutions. "Degree" is defined as post-secondary institutions except for technical colleges. "Separate" is defined as separate boards for two-year and four-year institutions. "Segmented" is defined as more than one board, but institutions separated by means other than level of degrees offered (Education Commission of the States, 2009). Through investigating the different types of regulation the state board utilizes, differences may emerge on which types of board entities have more control over the implementation of fees, potentially identifying those public institutions that are aligning with the tenets of academic capitalism versus the constructs of resource dependency theory.

The variables are compared across institutions to the tuition and required fees and non-required fee structures to determine if differences exist. Incorporating the institutional and external variables allows for a more in-depth analysis to be done at the descriptive level. Additionally, the objective in examining these variables through the lens of academic capitalism, neoliberalism, and resource dependency is to understand whether the types of fees being implemented are out of necessity or more about following market trends that increase revenue streams. In the next section the steps of data

collection will be discussed to provide a consistent method of gathering the variables highlighted above.

Data collection.

As mentioned in the previous section, all of the data collected are descriptive in nature. The collection of the data in a descriptive format lent itself to further investigation on these types of fees. The data collected on tuition and fees is twofold with the first step in the collection process coming from the IPEDS dataset to provide a comparative element to the descriptive analysis. The second phase of the data collection process includes gathering information from each institution through their websites, financial offices, or course catalogues.

Data are collected on the actual dollar amount of tuition and each individual fee, outlined previously in the measures section. The institutional websites are used to collect data on tuition and fees, total tuition, required fees, total tuition without fees, and total fees. Data are collected at the in-state and out-of-state levels as well as the graduate and undergraduate levels. I also follow up with institutional representatives to gather information that is collected on their website alone. As the information is collected, it is organized within a dataset that presents both required and non-required fees. The steps below outline the method of data collection for both processes.

Data collection from IPEDS.

The IPEDS data collected are from 2010-11 for the random sample of the 202 institutions. To begin, the sample institutions are added to the data set. Following that, the information on tuition and fees and the institutional variables are downloaded from the IPEDS database to an excel spreadsheet pertaining to those institutions. The

institutional characteristics that are collected on both the institution and the student population allows for a level of comparison to be done within all institutions selected. The variables are stored and used when the primary data collection is complete, to provide an in-depth analysis on the state of fees.

Data collection from the institution.

The primary data collected are from 2011-12 for the random sample of the 202 institutions. Upon entering all institutions selected from the random sample, the next step is to locate the area on the institutions website where the tuition and fees are reported. To do this, the areas on the website such as the registrar's office, cashier's office, financial services, office of the bursar, and student business services are explored. If the information is located on a particular site, the hyperlink is attached to the excel worksheet in addition to a digital copy that is stored in its own file and attached to the database.

After searching through the various institutional financial websites, if no information is found, the next step is to determine which governing board controlled the amount and approving rights of tuition charged to students. For example, the University of Wisconsin did not have all of the specific fees for each institution listed on the institution specific website. However, once the governing board website for the entire system is explored the tuition and fees are found listed there in an itemized fashion. For many of the 202 institutions, this occurrence is repeated and proved to be the norm especially while investigating smaller institutions.

The final step of the data collection process takes place when there is no information available to be collected by the methods described above. In this situation, the last step is to contact the registrar's or cashier's office to inquire what types of fees

the institution is using and attempt to corroborate the source of their information in an electronic format. If an electronic document is not found, the course catalog is also obtained in an effort to have written documentation for the fees discussed with the university representative. All steps taken are carefully documented throughout the data collection process.

Limitations

When collecting a unique set of data for the first time, many nuances may be missed as some fees were easier to identify than others. Therefore, collecting the data may pose inconsistencies among similar institutions as fees are very different from institution to institution. Additionally, the data has to be quantified in discrete measures, which may cause an oversimplification of the data. Due to the simplification the results could equate to missing information that may not show the whole picture of the state of fees at public four-year universities.

Furthermore, the extreme diversity of fees within, and across, universities cause aggregation problems once the data is collected and analyzed. Since the end goal is to gather and express the state of fees in a summary form, for purposes of statistical analysis, it creates a challenge with the multitude of variations that existed. Certain fees are extremely vague in their designation, and since each fee is dispersed into a category, it may end up skewing the data in one direction or another. However, by taking a large sample of four-year public institutions the ambiguity surrounding particular fees within the study are few and far between.

The final limitation that needs to be discussed is the personal experiences that I have had surrounding fees. Due to my exposure with the creation, implementation, and

use of fees at the University of Missouri, as both a graduate student and student affairs professional, I might be apt to draw false conclusions or perhaps not be able to see the whole picture, as I have not had the opportunity to see the entire process from start to finish from multiple viewpoints. With that said, I feel that by conducting a descriptive analysis I am able to remove most, if not all, of the biases with the data collection process. Furthermore, framing the study within the theories of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism allows for a theoretical lens to filter my personal experiences and truly examine what is happening with fees at public higher education institutions.

Undoubtedly, much of the current peer reviewed research has paid appropriate attention to the tuition and required fees portion of the financing of higher education, yet the research has been limited, or non-existent, when it comes to evaluating the types of fees at public four-year institutions (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). This study differentiates between tuition and fees through the lens of academic capitalism, beginning to fill the research gap that exists between tuition and fees. This study allows a better understanding of the actual versus perceived costs that students across the nation are required to pay to attend; illustrating that all the fundamental information may not be presented in national or institutional datasets.

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities: Differentiating Between Tuition and Fees

Chapter 4

Analysis

The research questions were addressed by conducting a descriptive analysis of fees at public four-year higher education institutions. The data illustrate the differences between fee structures across universities. Additionally, the descriptive data reveal the characteristics of these fees and how they fluctuate from state to state, showing the similarities and differences among the universities. The analysis below examines each of the three main research questions and shows how the data collected successfully answers each question. The first research question involves the required and non-required fees within each student population of in-state undergraduates, out-of-state undergraduates, in-state graduates, and out-of-state graduates. For research question number two, I use institutional specific variables to compare the groups against one another. The final question is answered through the inclusion of external variables to determine whether there are any significant differences between states, regions, governance structures, political cultures, and regulations. Ultimately, the research questions are analyzed and answered with the caveat that more information can, and should, be collected on fees at public universities.

Research Question 1: What are the Typical Fee Structures across Four-year Public Institutions in the United States?

To answer the initial research question, I collected data on individual fees to identify variations in fee structures that a student pays at public four-year universities. For comparison, data were also collected on types of fees charged to both undergraduate and graduate levels as well as in and out-of-state students. Additionally, summary statistics from both the IPEDS and primary datasets are displayed to show differences among the datasets for each subpopulation of the student groups (e.g. in-state

undergraduates, out-of-state undergraduates, in-state graduates, and out-of-state graduates). The next step looks at the categorical representation of required and non-required fees to show what the typical fee structures are at public institutions in the United States for each subpopulation. The research highlights that examining fees, through a descriptive study, provides the opportunity to see whether institutions are using fees based on market influences or as a matter of resource dependence.

What are the values (averages) across student types?

After the data were collected, summary statistics displayed the status of fees at the sampled four-year public institutions across the United States. To answer the first research question I looked at average tuition and fees within each subgroup of students. Additionally, I also examined the non-required, summary statistics for in-state undergraduates and graduates. Finally, paired-sample *t*-tests were conducted to show any significant differences between the IPEDS and primary data. Analyzing each of the summary statistics answers the first research question by differentiating the types of fees at public four-year institutions.

In-state undergraduates.

The in-state undergraduates were the first subpopulation analyzed (Table 6). As the fees began to be separated out, I identified more than 492 unique mandatory fees that institutions required in-state undergraduate students to pay within 202 public higher education universities. In the IPEDS data, the average yearly cost for required fees was $1,524 and 26% (on average) fees as compared to tuition. For the primary data set the average yearly required fee cost was $1,610 with 25% (on average) fees as compared to tuition.

To compare the two datasets a paired-samples t-test was conducted among the variables. There was a significant difference between the IPEDS data and primary data for tuition and fees ($t(200) = -10.12$, $p = .000$), tuition ($t(200) = -7.81$, $p < .001$), and percent of fees ($t(194) = -2.05$, $p = .042$). However there was no significant difference for the variable of required fees; conditions ($t(201) = -1.32$, $p = .189$).

The results suggest that the IPEDS reporting of the three significant variables differs from the primary dataset, indicating that the collecting and reporting process from IPEDS may be inconsistent. The differences, in the IPEDS data versus the primary data collection, could also be a result of the one year adjustment as tuition and fees increased from 2010-11 to 2011-12.

Table 6. Summary Statistics on In-state Undergraduate Tuition and Required Fees

	Mean	***Standard Deviation***	***Minimum***	***Maximum***
IPEDS – 2010-2011:				
Tuition and Fees	$7,348	$2,814	$2,076	$16,395
Tuition	$5,824	$2,798	$-	$14,412
Fees	$1,524	$1,538	$-	$10,018
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**26%**			
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,026	$2,998	$2,160	$16,132
Tuition	$6,490	$2,791	$970	$15,272
Fees	$1,610	$1,568	$-	$10,898
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**25%**			

Out-of- state undergraduates.

The second subpopulation analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates (Table 7). In the IPEDS data the average yearly cost for required fees was $1,709 and 10% (on average) fees as compared to tuition. For the primary data set the average yearly required fees cost was $2,500 with 15% (on average) fees as compared to tuition. I identified

more than 504 unique mandatory fees that institutions are requiring out-of-state undergraduate students to pay within 202 public higher education universities.

After conducting a paired-samples *t*-test, between the IPEDS data and primary data, the results indicate that there was a significant difference for tuition and fees ($t(200)= -7.12$, $p = .000$), fees ($t(201)= -3.37$, $p = .001$), and percent of fees ($t(200)= -2.54$, $p = .012$). These results suggest that the IPEDS reporting of these three variables significantly differs from the primary dataset. However, there was no significant differences for tuition; conditions ($t(200)= -1.53$, $p = .128$).

The differences in the IPEDS data versus the primary data collection are a result of the way fees are reported for out-of-state students. In the primary data collection, many of the out-of-state students had items marked as fees, such as "Out-of-State Student Fees", that could be reported as tuition or fees depending on the way a particular institution wants the numbers to appear in IPEDS. Therefore, the way an institution chooses to report on fees created differences between the IPEDS dataset and the primary dataset.

Table 7. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Undergraduate Tuition and Required Fees

	Mean	***Standard Deviation***	***Minimum***	***Maximum***
IPEDS – 2010-2011:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,236	$6,961	$3,720	$36,001
Tuition	$16,526	$6,935	$3,420	$35,812
Fees	$1,709	$2,073	$-	$14,378
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**			
Primary Data 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$19,335	$718	$3,600	$38,001
Tuition	$16,963	$7,428	$2,930	$37,588
Fees	$2,500	$3,889	$-	$24,834
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**15%**			

In-state graduates.

The in-state graduates are the third subpopulation analyzed (Table 8). I identified more than 471 unique mandatory fees that institutions are requiring students to pay within 180 public higher education universities. In the IPEDS data the average yearly cost for required fees was $1,477 and 20% (on average) fees as compared to tuition. For the primary data set the average yearly required fees cost was $1,444 with 20% (on average) fees as compared to tuition.

After conducting a paired-samples t-test, between the IPEDS data and primary data, the results indicate that there were no significant differences for tuition and fees ($t(178)= 1.21$, $p = .230$), tuition ($t(178)= .615$, $p = .540$), fees ($t(179)= .363$, $p = .717$) and percent of fees ($t(172)= -1.06$, $p = .290$). The results suggest that the IPEDS reporting of the four variables does not significantly differ from the primary dataset.

The results suggest that the IPEDS reporting of the three significant variables differs from the primary dataset, indicating that the collecting and reporting process from IPEDS may be inconsistent. In the IPEDS data each institution decides the number of credits to be a FTE graduate; where the primary dataset consistently used nine credit hours.

Table 8. Summary Statistics on In-State Graduate Tuition and Required Fees

	Mean	***Standard Deviation***	***Minimum***	***Maximum***
IPEDS – 2010-2011:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,809	$3,567	$3,231	$24,958
Tuition	$7,332	$3,692	$-	$24,240
Fees	$1,477	$1,687	$-	$12,674
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**20%**			
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,594	$3,525	$3,400	$26,672

Tuition	$7,241	$3,421	$1,553	$25,940
Fees	$1,444	$1,455	$-	$9,597
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**20%**			

Out-of-state graduates.

The out-of- state graduates were analyzed as the final subpopulation (Table 9). In the IPEDS data the average yearly cost for required fees was $1,639 and 10% (on average) fees as compared to tuition. For the primary data, set the average yearly required fee cost was $2,122 with 14 % (on average) fees as compared to tuition. I identified more than 481 unique mandatory fees that institutions are requiring students to pay within 180 public higher education universities.

After conducting a paired-samples *t*-test, between the IPEDS data and primary data, the results indicate that there was a significant difference for tuition and fees ($t(179)= 3.12$, $p = .002$), tuition ($t(179)= 33.86$, $p = .000$), fees ($t(179)= -2.43$, $p = .016$) and percent of fees ($t(172)= 2.90$, $p = .004$). These results suggest that the IPEDS reporting of the four variables significantly differs from the primary dataset highlighting inconsistencies in the reporting process for the IPEDS data.

The differences could be occurring because even though 9 credits are considered FTE for graduates, some institutions consider 12 credits FTE, creating inconsistencies within the IPEDS and primary datasets as IPEDS only requires an institution to report 'at least nine credits.' Additionally, many of the out-of-state students had items marked as fees, such as 'Out-of-State Student Fees', that could be reported as tuition or fees depending on the way a particular institution wants the numbers to appear in IPEDS. Just as in the case of the undergraduates, the way an institution chooses to report on fees created differences between the IPEDS dataset and the primary dataset.

Table 9. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Graduate Tuition and Required Fees

	Mean	***Standard Deviation***	***Minimum***	***Maximum***
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,217	$6,095	$4,280	$36,133
Tuition	$16,578	$6,259	$2,700	$35,944
Fees	$1,639	$2,073	$-	$12,674
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**			
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$17,432	$6,367	$4,761	$37,920
Tuition	$15,310	$6,469	$-	$37,726
Fees	$2,122	$3,118	$-	$18,979
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**14%**			

Non-required fees.

The final data were collected at the primary level, as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. The primary data collected indicated that the average cost per semester for in-state undergraduates cost was $537.02, in addition to tuition and required fees (Table 10). I identified more than 29 unique non-mandatory fees that institutions are requiring students to pay within 202 public universities. The fees included such items as document fees, ID service and access fees, and new student fees. Additionally, within the 29 fees, there were 12 departmental fees that looked at five specific majors for both freshman and juniors.

For in-state graduates the average cost per semester totaled $762.52, in addition to tuition and required fees. As the fees were separated out, I identified more than 25 unique non-mandatory fees that institutions required students to pay within 180 public universities. Additionally, within the 29 fees, there were five departmental fees that looked at four specific degree programs.

After examination of non-required fees it appears institutions are indeed charging students additional costs outside of tuition and required fees. Graduate students seem to see greater increases in departmental fees where undergraduates appear to have larger miscellaneous fees charged to them. However, the miscellaneous fees are not necessarily required every semester, as some fees are collected simply upon entering or exiting the institution. Once calculated over four years of undergraduate studies, the average additional cost, excluding tuition and required fees, equals $4,300 for a four-year program at a public four-year institution. For in-state graduates, that average a three year program, the additional cost would be $4,600. This indicates that students, dependent on program choice, paid an extra $4,400 (on average) in fees during their higher education experience.

Table 10. Summary Statistics for Non-required Fees per semester– In-State Undergraduates and Graduates (Fall 2011)

	Mean	***Standard Deviation***	***Minimum***	***Maximum***
Undergraduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$434.61	$536.67	$-	$5,159.00
Department Fees	$102.41	$183.79	$-	$1,447.20
Total Non-Required Fees	$537.02	$566.15	$-	$5,159.00
Graduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$293.95	$258.77	$-	$1,438.00
Department Fees	$468.57	$932.90	$-	$6,341.20
Total Non-Required Fees	$762.52	$1,021.98	$-	$7,376.20

Summary of descriptive data.

Fees ranged widely in type, from Women's Transit fees, to Seismic fees, to Spirit fees. A number of institutions charged "general," "institution," and "university" fees but did not provide more detail as to what these funds would be used for. After the data collection was complete, I discovered that each institution had anywhere from three to

twenty-two various mandatory fees. As the fees were separated out, I identified more than 530 unique mandatory fees that institutions are requiring students to pay within 202 public four-year universities.

The datasets, IPEDS and primary, were collected and analyzed side by side, showing that there are indeed differences among the variables. The data collected showed similar numbers with increases over a one-year time span. The major difference occurred for the out-of-state students when examining the percent, on average, of fees as compared to tuition. The percent was higher in the primary data than the IPEDS data because of different reporting methods. Fees in the primary data were marked as fees if it was in the title of the cost, however some of the fees could have been deemed tuition for out-of-state students if the institution chose to report it as such. This potential inconsistency created a gap in the reported fees and thus a difference in the data. The in-state students saw the highest percent, on average, of fees as compared to tuition at 26% and 20%. The out-of-state students did see a lower percent of fees, however in most cases these student groups do pay more in tuition. In order to further examine the differences in the fee structures at four-year public institutions, the next section looks at the ways the required and non-required fees are distributed.

How are fees categorized?

Specific fee information can generally be found on a particular institution's website and include items such as fees for student centers/unions, health care, athletics, student government/organizations, advising/career services, transportation/transit, debt/capital projects, sustainability, childcare, and scholarships/financial aid, to name a few. To categorize both required and non-required fees I used detailed description,

categorical aggregation, interpretation, generalization, and representation/visualization (Creswell, 1998). Required fees were broken down into the categories including student services, academic services, building/maintenance (including sustainability), technology, and other. The categories chosen for the study were representative of overall trends that become prevalent as the data was collected (a full list of the required fees can be found in Appendix A). The first research question is further answered as the categories show what types of fees public four-year institutions are using while also highlighting the differences among them.

The category titled student services included fees related to such items as student activities, clubs, student organizations, student government, transportation, health services, and career services. Fees categorized as academic services were related to educational elements such as advising, academic enhancement, and scholarship funds. Building/maintenance fees included those labeled as building fees, maintenance, repair and renovation (R&R), auxiliary services, operations, and capital projects. The technology fee related to any fee marked as technology, networking, computers, energy, or sustainability. The final category of other included any fee related to administrative services, debt, and generic fees. The five categories look to explain what types of fees universities are requiring students to pay in addition to tuition.

The required fees were examined by individual names and categorized accordingly. This allowed for the chance to find similarities and differences among fee setting behaviors at public four-year institutions. Table 11 illustrates the itemization of what the average student would pay per semester, based on the five categories, in required fees. By examining the categorization below the data shows that out-of-state

students are, on average, paying more in required fees across all five categories. Additionally, the data indicated that undergraduates are paying more than graduate students and out-of-state undergraduates are required to pay the highest amount in fees.

Table 11. Categorical Representation of Students Cost of Required Fees for 2011-12

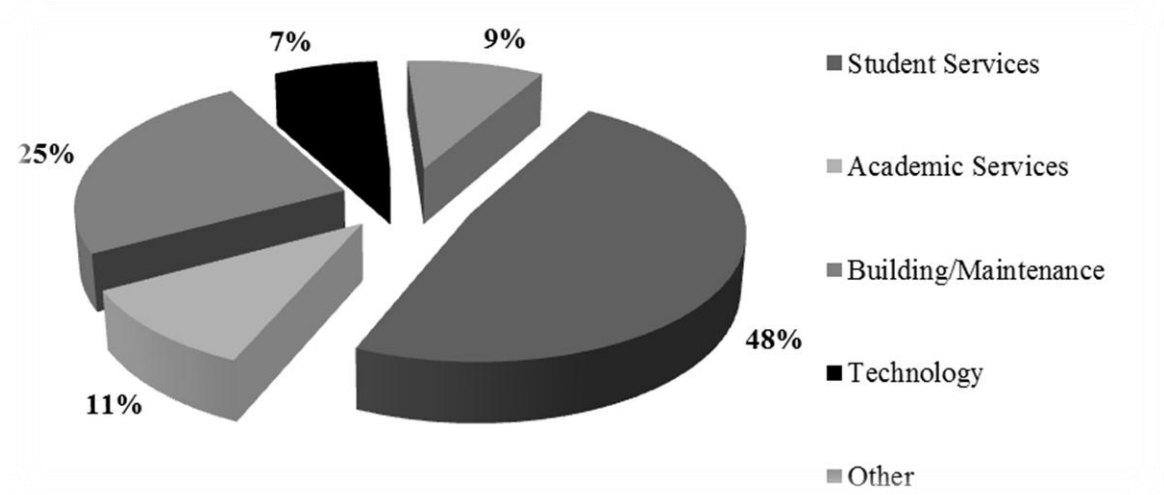
	Student Services	***Academic Services***	***Building/ Maintenance***	***Technology***	***Other***
In-State Undergraduate	$772.66	$177.07	$402.43	$112.68	$177.07
Out-of-State Undergraduate	$1,150.00	$275.00	$650.00	$175.00	$250.00
In-State Undergraduate	$707.53	$144.39	$360.98	$86.64	$144.39
Out-of-State Undergraduate	$1,039.77	$233.42	$509.27	$127.32	$212.20

In-state undergraduates.

In-state undergraduates have the largest amount of required fees allocated to student services (Figure 12). Throughout their four-year experience these students will pay, on average, $3,091 in student service fees. Additionally, a significant portion of the required fees are also going to building/maintenance with students paying approximately $1,610 during their four-year higher education experience.

Observing the categorical breakdown of fees for in-state undergraduates indicates that, while most of the fees are going into student services, a large percent of the fees are allocated to capital projects, auxiliaries, and renovations. Signifying that institutions may be allocating funds more heavily in areas that have the opportunity to generate additional revenue and thereby engage in academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Overall, public four-year institutions are generating meaningful revenue from each categorical group.

Figure 12. Categorical Representation of In-State Undergraduates Required Fees 2011-12

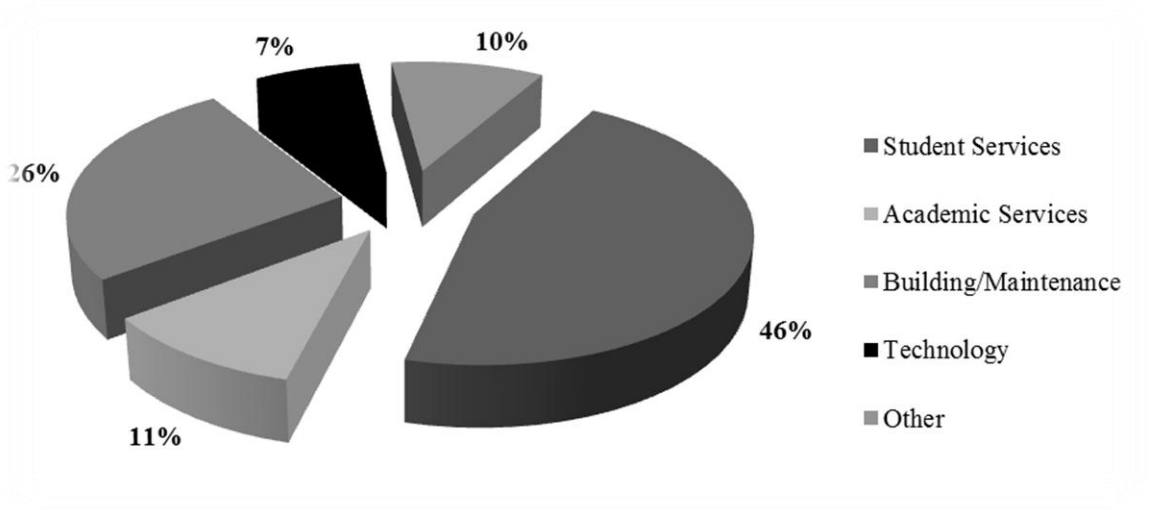


Out-of-state undergraduates.

Out-of-state undergraduates have the largest amount of required fees distributed to student services (Figure 13). On average, out-of-state undergraduates will pay $4,600 in student service fees over four years. A substantial percentage of the required fees are also going to building/maintenance with students paying approximately $2,600 during a four-year time frame.

Out-of-state undergraduates also saw an increase in academic services, building/maintenance, and other due to the specific fees that institutions are charging just to the out-of-state students. This group was charged the largest amount of individual fees totaling 504 fees as well as the highest total costs, whereas in-state students were charged 492 fees. The difference was a result of the non-resident fees charged to this subpopulation of students. Demonstrating that institutions are charging more to out-of state students as a possible way to increase revenue that is less controlled, capitalizing on the revenue they can gain from out-of-state students.

Figure 13. Categorical Representation of Out-of-State Undergraduates Required Fees 2011-12

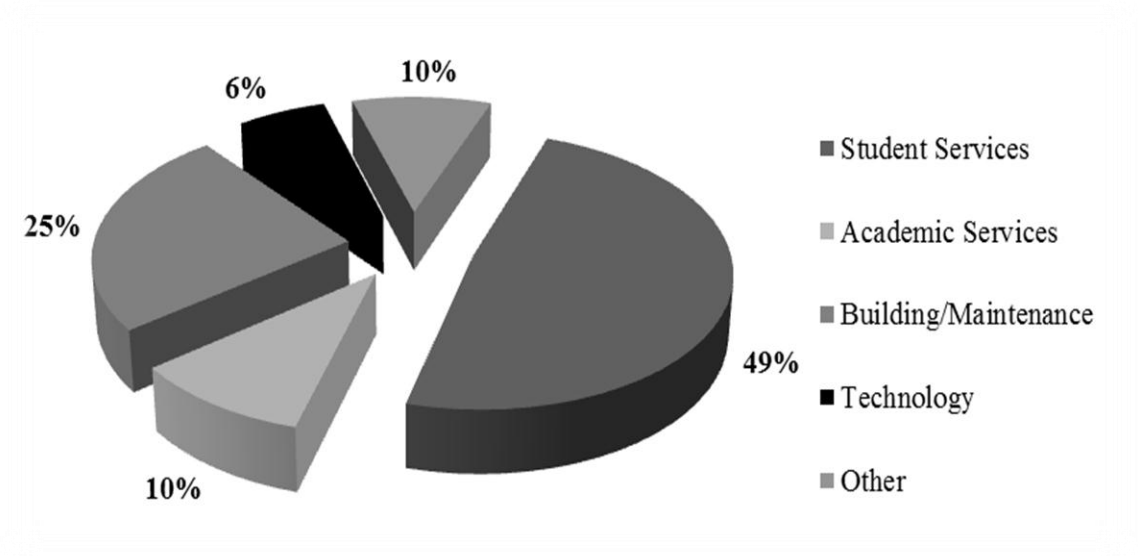


In-state graduates.

In-state graduates have the largest amount of required fees allocated to student services (Figure 14). In-state graduates will pay, on average, $2,123 in student service fees during a three year degree program. A considerable part of the required fees are also going to building/maintenance with students paying approximately $1,083.

The slight increase in the student services category was an outcome of the specific fees that institutions are charging just to the graduate students. The allocation shows that institutions may be using a niche marketing perspective to charge particular fees to specific subpopulations of students. However, this particular group was charged the least number of fees, totaling 471.

Figure 14. Categorical Representation of In-State Graduates Required Fees 2011-12

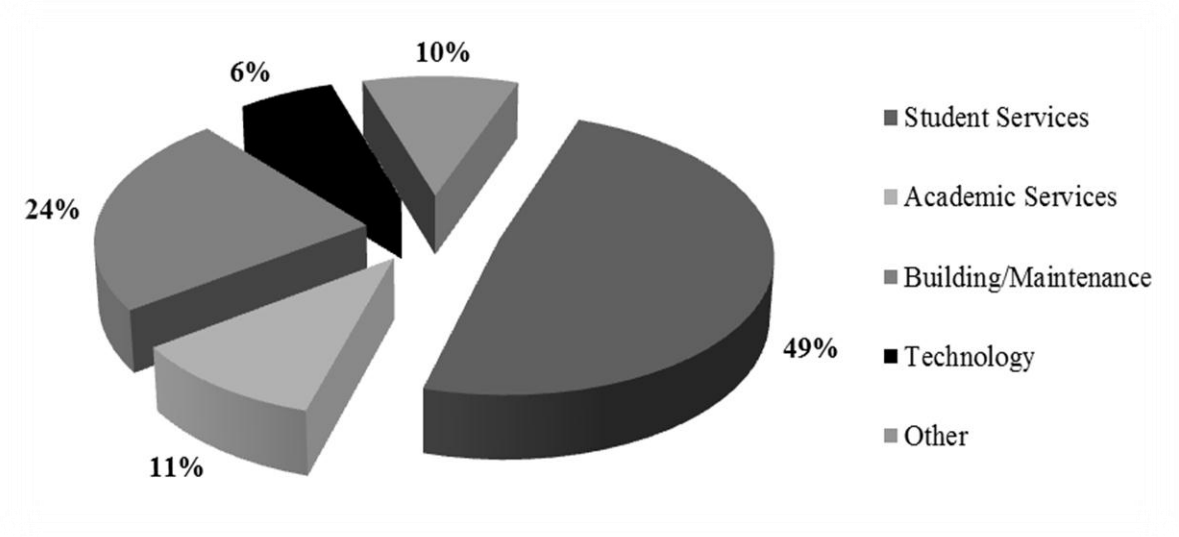


Out-of-state graduates.

Out-of-state graduates have the largest amount of required fees going to student services (Figure 15). During a three-year degree program, on average, out-of-state graduates will pay $3,120 in student service fees. A sizeable amount of the required fees are also going to building/maintenance, with students paying approximately $1,582. The out-of state graduates were also charged specific fees for being both a graduate student as well as a non-resident, explaining the $700 increase from the in-state graduate students.

Seeing the categorical breakdown of fees for out-of-state graduates indicates that, while most of the fees are going into student services, a large percent of the fees are allocated to capital projects, auxiliaries, and renovations. Suggesting that institutions may be allocating funds more heavily in areas that have the opportunity to generate additional revenue, thereby participating in academic capitalism.

Figure 15. Categorical Representation of Out-of-State Graduates Required Fees 2011-12



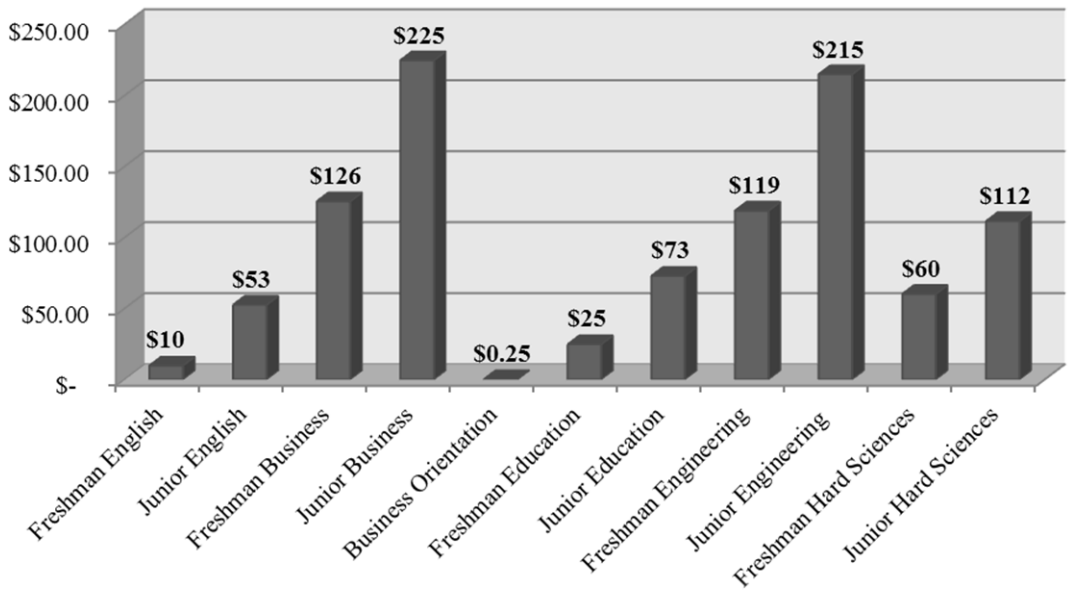
Non-required fees.

The gathering of the non-required fee data was two-fold in the collection process (a full list of the non-required fees can be found in Appendix B). One section looked at fees charged to students either as a one-time or continuous fee such as graduation fees, international student fees, and enrollment fees. Certain fees were charged only once to students and some were charged multiple times, if not every semester. Additionally, the data further delineate the differences in fees charged for various degrees, departmental classes, or activities on these campuses to examine if particular students were paying more for certain degrees. Data analysis indicates that numerous institutions may be using the niche marketing concept of variation in fees to capitalize on the price that students are willing to spend. Institutions may then be creating enough money to continue improving the quality of their department, attracting even more students to their institution and thus perpetuating the academic capitalist mindset.

The data collected to determine the variations in what a FTE freshman versus FTE junior pays at four-year public institutions were the per credit hour charge of any

departmental fees that a student may incur as a result of their chosen major. Data analysis revealed that there was a pricing differential across majors and number of credits earned (Figure 16). Looking at this information, business and engineering majors (on average) pay above the listed tuition and fees price by as much as $125 per semester. However, the english and education majors only paid slightly above the listed tuition and fee price (on average) and students that were undeclared were not paying any additional departmental fees. The data illustrated that there was a difference between the cost at the freshman and junior levels, at certain institutions, and once students were reaching the junior level they were charged an additional per credit hour fee. Institutions are imploring this tactic because price responsiveness for junior students is less sensitive then freshman students (St. John & Starkey, 1995).

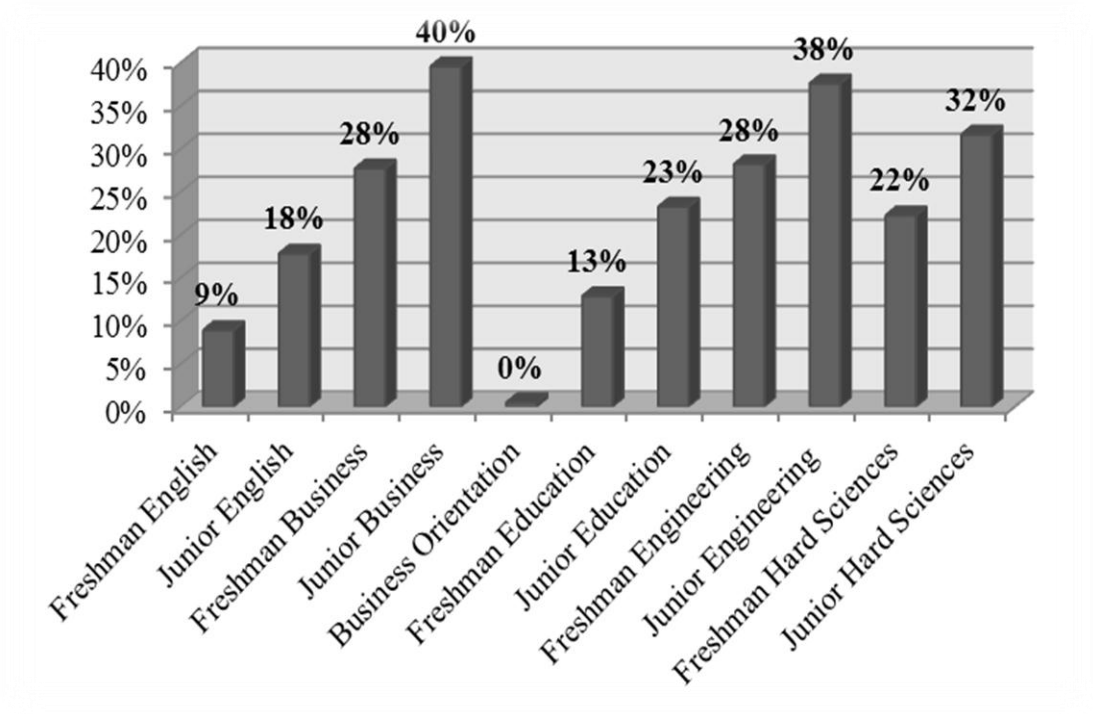
Figure 16. FTE In-State Undergraduate Fee Differential (on average) between Level in School and Major



Once the pricing differential was discovered, further analysis was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions were charging more for certain majors (Table 17). The largest percentage of universities charging additional fees was for

business majors at 28% for freshman and 40% for juniors. The major with the smallest percentage was English at 9% for freshman and 18% for juniors. Overall each major analyzed had a number of institutions charging additional departmental fees. Participating in a differential pricing model shows that institutions are using the niche marketing perspective to charge more to certain types of students to increase revenue streams (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

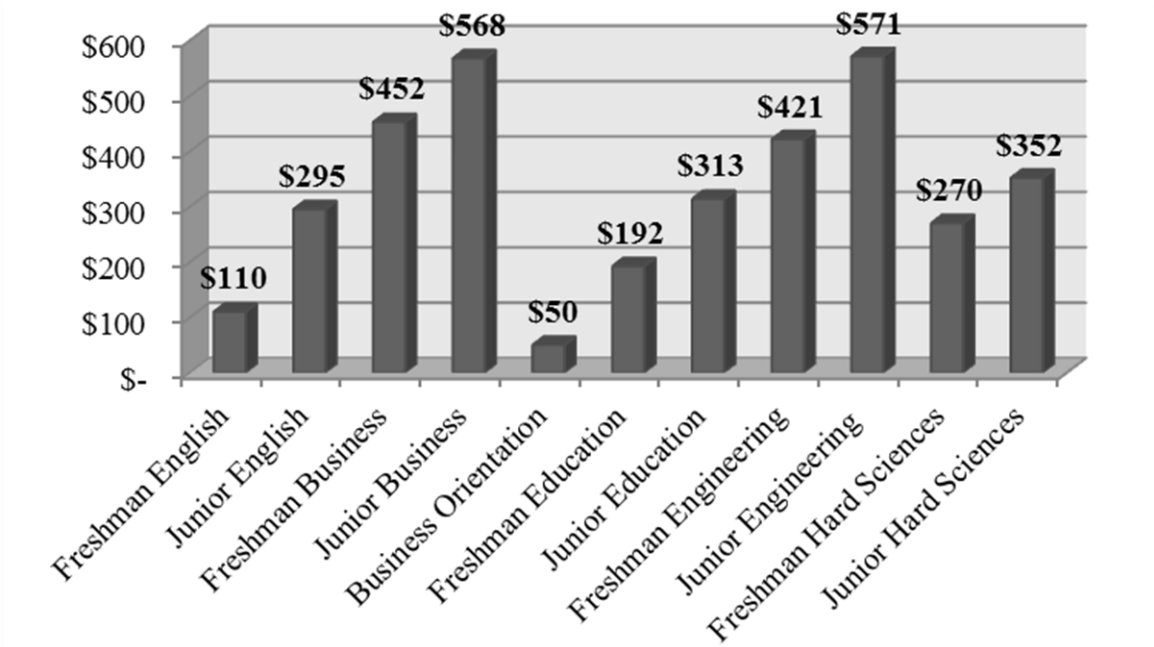
Figure 17. Percent of Four-year Public Institutions Charging Departmental Based Fees to In-State Undergraduates



Data were further evaluated to describe of the actual percent of institutions charging fees, what was the average cost to the student that attend those institutions (Figure 18). Freshman business and engineering students, on average, saw an increase of $300 per semester. Additionally, once they earned 60 credits the cost increased to $570 per semester. The freshman education, english, and science majors all saw an increase anywhere from $50 per semester to $270. Once students reached junior status

departmental fees, on average, ranged from $200-$350 per semester. Overall, students paid an additional $100-$600 per semester based on their chosen major.

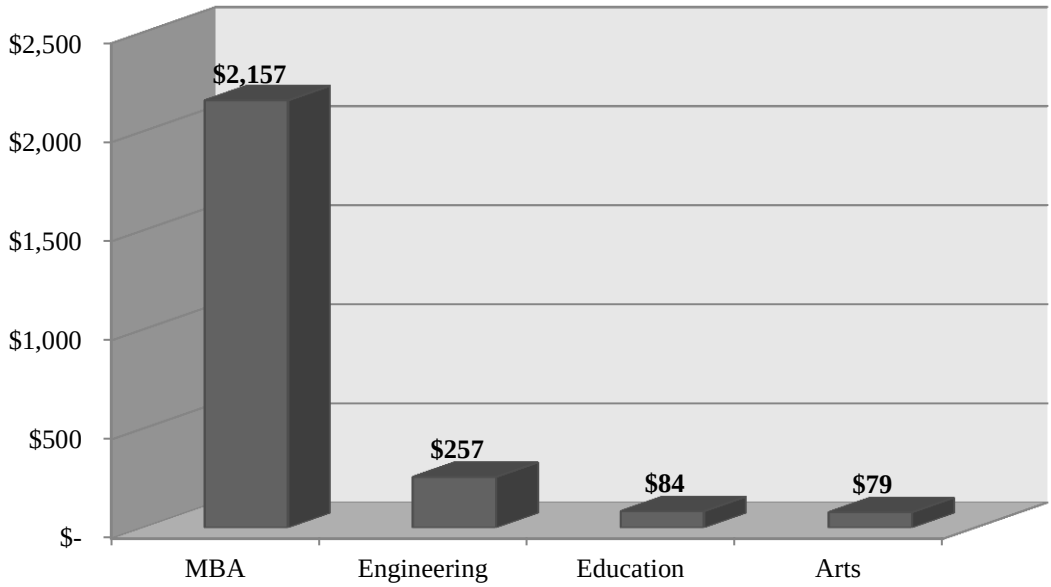
Figure 18: FTE In-State Undergraduate Fee Differential (on average of those institutions that charge departmental fees) between Level in School and Major



The data collected to determine the variations in what a FTE graduate student pays at four-year public institutions were the per credit hour charge of any departmental fees that a student may incur as a result of their chosen degree program. Once the data were analyzed, it revealed that there was a price differential between degree programs (Figure 19). Examining the data revealed that the MBA students pay the highest price differential of about $2,157 per semester in addition to tuition. Graduate engineering students, on average, pay above the listed tuition and fees price by as much as $257 per semester. However, on average, the arts and education degree only paid slightly above the listed tuition and fee price of about $80, which equates to an approximate additional investment of $640 for three years of school. Institutions are using this approach because

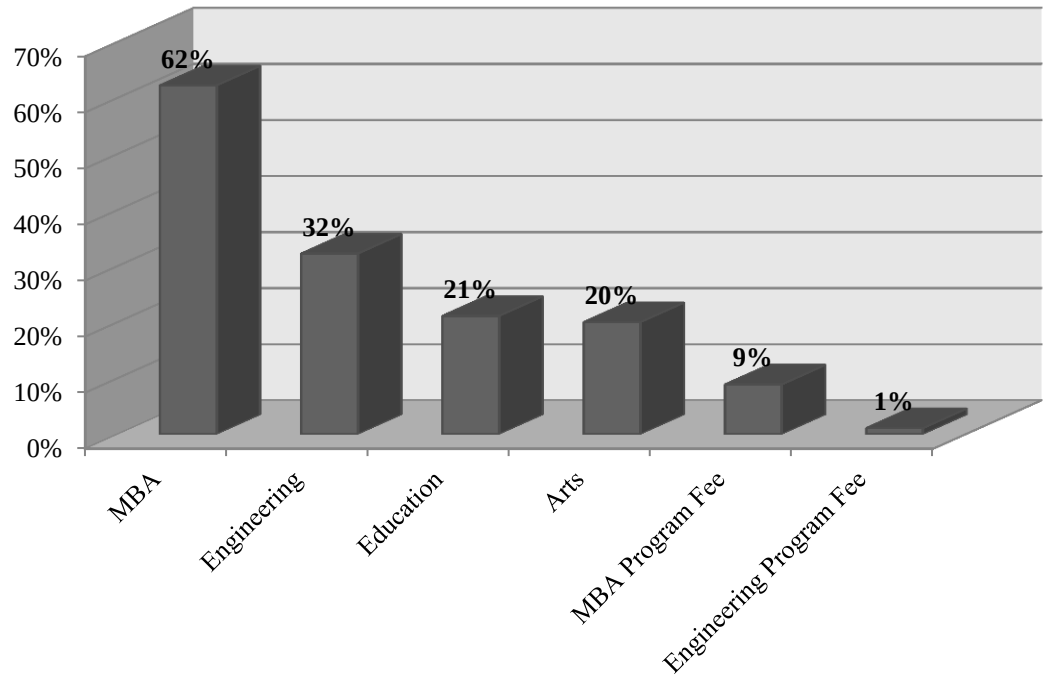
price responsiveness for graduate students is much less sensitive then undergraduate students (St. John & Starkey, 1995).

Figure 19. FTE In-State Graduate Fee Differential for various Degree Programs



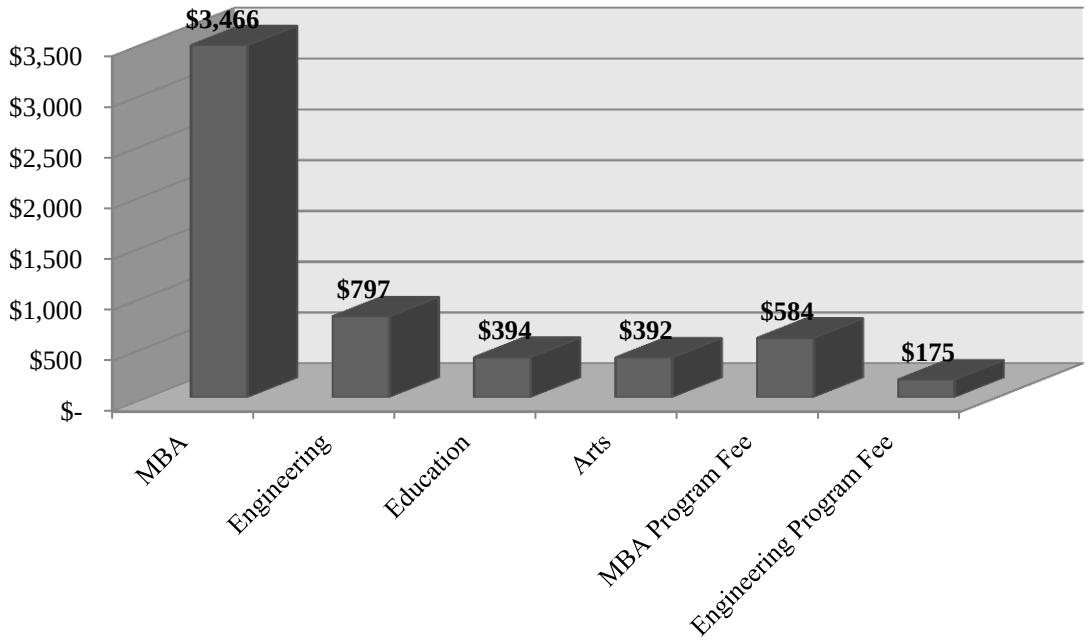
Once the pricing differential was discovered further examination was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions was charging more for certain degrees (Table 20). The largest percentage of universities charging additional fees to graduate students were those earning MBA degrees at 62%. The degree with the smallest percentage was art at 20%. Of the 180 institutions, 21% of them are charging education students departmental based fees and 32% of them are charging engineering students department based fees. Furthermore, the business and engineering departments are charging program entrance fees that students have to pay either upon starting the program or on an annual basis. Using non-required fees to generate additional revenue, public institutions are focusing on subsets of students that are able to pay the additional costs. Overall, each degree examined had a number of institutions charging supplementary department fees and participating in a differential pricing model.

Figure 20. Percent of Four-year Public Institutions Charging Departmental Based Fees to In-State Graduates



Data was further investigated to see, of the percent of institutions charging fees, what was the average cost to the student (Figure 21). MBA students, on average, saw an increase of $3,466 per semester in addition to a program fee that averaged $584. The graduate students in the arts and education, saw an increase of anywhere from $392-394 per semester. The engineering students, in addition to a $175 program fee, incurred additional costs averaging $797 per semester. Overall, graduate students paid an additional $394-$3,500 per semester based on the degree program they chose to enroll in.

Figure 21. FTE In-State Graduate Fee Differential (on average of those institutions that charge departmental fees) based on Degree



Summary of categorical data.

Overall the categorical breakdown of fees, between the four subpopulations, was fairly consistent. Slight variations occurred as a result of public four-year institutions charging certain subgroup fees based on location as well as the level of education they were receiving. A majority of the required fees collected were allocated to the area of student services, as 47% of the fees charged by public universities were within this category. Further examination shows that the next highest allocated category was building/maintenance, including sustainability, at 25%. The fees in this particular category had a majority of the funds going to capital projects, auxiliary services, and energy driven fees. The least amount of revenue was going towards technology at 6.5%.

Furthermore, institutions were also using differential pricing models to charge certain student subgroups more than others. Students enrolled in high return degree programs saw higher costs than those students in other programs. Institutions were also

more likely to charge those same students departmental based fees than other degrees. The data indicated that institutions were using the niche marketing concept of variation in fees to capitalize on the price that students are willing to spend. Institutions do this by focusing on the students that may be less responsive and will therefore continue to invest in their degree despite sometimes large increases in fees.

In turn, institutions may then be collecting enough money to continue improving the quality of their department, attracting even more students to their institution and thus propagating the academic capitalist mindset. The fees are more deeply connected to the conceptual framework of academic capitalism through answering the second and third research questions as the different types of institutional variables may allude to various markets based approaches that institutions are implementing within the various fee structures.

Research Question 2: Do Fee Structures Differ across Institutional Types?

After studying the basic summary statistics on fees, the next step was to compare that data against institutional variables in relation to the categories of fees. The second research question investigates if fee structures differ across institutional types. The types of institutions examined included very high/high research institutions or non-research intensive and the Carnegie classifications of Ph.D., Masters, or Bachelors type institutions.

To answer the second research question, the mean for each subpopulation of the student groups, e.g. in-state undergraduates, out-of-state undergraduates, in-state graduates, and out-of-state graduates, were presented in addition to a test of the difference in means using either a *t*-test or one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Both a *t*-test and a one-way ANOVA are used to compare the means for any given number of independent groups on a dependent variable. A one-way ANOVA is simply an extension of the independent group's t-test from a comparison of means for two groups, to a comparison of means for *n* groups. The intended goal of performing these two tests is to inspect the amount of variation in the samples and determine if it is significant or if it is a result of some other complicating factor.

The next portion looks at the categorical representation of required fees for each subpopulation and compares them to the institutional variables outlined above. Answering the second research questions highlights that fees, when compared to institutional types, are more a result of the competitive atmosphere of a market focused society, indicating that certain types of institutions are aligning with the structure of academic capitalism through the use of fees.

Research status: very high/high research versus non-research institutions.

Research status was the initial institutional type compared against fees in public four-year institutions. Each institution was either identified as very high/high research intensive or non-research intensive. For the undergraduates there were 120 institutions identified as non-research intensive and 82 institutions identified as very high/high research. There were 98 institutions recognized as non-research intensive and 82 very high/high research intensive for the graduates. The second research question was investigated by studying the variation in the cost of fees at public four-year institutions based on the type of institution.

In-state undergraduates.

The first subpopulation analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. For the in-state undergraduates, the means and the percent, on average, of fees as compared to tuition are reported in Table 22. According to the IPEDS data, undergraduates attending a very high/high research intensive institution have significantly higher mean tuition and fees than those attending a non-research intensive institution. The difference was significant for both variables, $p < .001$. Comparison of the required fees and the percent of fees as compared to tuition for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed no significant difference between the two institution types.

The primary dataset results showed that very high/high research intensive institution charged considerably higher tuition and fees and tuition than non-research intensive institutions. Just as in the IPEDS data, the difference was significant for both variables, $p < .001$. Required fees and the percent of fees as compared to tuition revealed no significant difference between the two institution types of very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions. An examination of the means and *p*-values, in both datasets show that very high/high research intensive institutions do charge more than non-research intensive institutions in terms of tuition and fees and tuition. Indicating that very high/high research institutions are concentrating on economic development through higher students costs to remain a competitive entity within the higher education marketplace. However, the *p*-values were not significant in the variable of required fees for either dataset, indicating that student required fees charged at either institution type are not substantially different.

Table 22. Summary Statistics on In-State Undergraduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Research Status

	Very High/ High Research Intensive	***Non-Research Intensive***	
	Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-2011:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 8,661	$ 6,451	*.000*
Tuition	$ 7,089	$ 4,959	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,572	$ 1,491	*.715*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**22%**	**30%**	*.386*
Primary Data – 2011-12:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 9,508	$ 7,025	*.000*
Tuition	$ 7,844	$ 5,577	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,847	$ 1,448	*.076*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**24%**	**26%**	*.523*

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The next group analyzed was out-of-state undergraduates. For this group of students, Table 23 displays the means and the percent on average of fees as compared to tuition. According to the IPEDS data, undergraduates attending a very high/high research intensive institution have significantly higher mean tuition and fees and tuition than those attending a non-research intensive institution. The difference was significant for both variables, p <.001. An evaluation of the required fees and the percent of fees as compared to tuition for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed no significant difference between the two institution types.

The primary dataset results showed that very high/high research intensive institution charged considerably higher tuition and fees and tuition than non-research intensive institutions. The difference was significant for both variables, p <.001. The required fees for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed a significant difference between the two institution types, p <.01. The means and p-

values, in both datasets, show that very high/high research intensive institution do charge more than non-research intensive institutions in terms of tuition and fees and tuition. However, the *p*-values were different for required fees between the two datasets. The IPEDS data were not significantly different between very high/high research intensive and non-research intensive institutions. The primary dataset was significantly different among institutional types (*p*=.008) showing that very high/high research intensive are indeed charging more in fees than non-research intensive institutions. Demonstrating that very high/high research institutions may be focusing on economic development through higher costs to remain a competitive entity among their higher education peers.

Table 23. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Undergraduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Research Status

	Very High/ High Research Intensive	***Non-Research Intensive***	
	Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-2011:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 22,986	$ 14,990	*.000*
Tuition	$ 21,160	$ 13,360	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,826	$ 1,623	*.515*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**8%**	**12%**	*.882*
Primary Data – 2011-12:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 24,418	$ 15,931	*.000*
Tuition	$ 21,350	$ 14,001	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 3,373	$ 1,903	*.008*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**16%**	**14%**	*.210*

In-state graduates.

The third subpopulation analyzed was the in-state graduates. An examination of the means (Table 24), in the IPEDS data, reveal that graduates attending a very high/high research intensive institution have significantly higher tuition and fees and tuition than

those attending a non-research intensive institution. The difference was significant for both variables, $p < .001$. An analysis of the required fees and the percent of fees as compared to tuition for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed no significant difference between the two institution types.

After reviewing the primary dataset the results showed that very high/high research intensive institutions charged higher tuition and fees and tuition than non-research intensive institutions, $p < .001$. The required fees for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed a significant difference between the two institution types as well, $p < .05$. By conducting an ANOVA, both datasets showed that very high/high research intensive institutions do charge more than non-research intensive institutions in terms of tuition and fees and tuition. Though the *p*-values were different for required fees; the primary dataset significantly shows very high/high research intensive institutions are charging more in fees than its non-research intensive counterparts. Illustrating that very high/high research institutions may be using student fees to remain economically viable among their higher education peers.

Table 24. Summary Statistics on In-State Graduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Research Status

	Very High/ High Research Intensive	***Non-Research Intensive***	
	Mean		***P-Value***
IPEDS – 2010-2011:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 9,999	$ 7,813	*.000*
Tuition	$ 8,619	$ 6,255	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,380	$ 1,558	*.481*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**16%**	**25%**	*.217*
Primary Data – 2011-12:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 10,174	$ 7,287	*.000*
Tuition	$ 8,696	$ 6,039	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,677	$1,249	*.050*

Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**21%**	*.584*

Out-of-state graduates.

The final group considered was the out-of-state graduates. The means for the information collected can be found in Table 25. The IPEDS data revealed that graduates attending a very high/high research intensive institution have significantly higher tuition and fees and tuition than those attending a non-research intensive institution, and that difference was significant for both variables, $p < .001$. For graduates attending very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions the data revealed no significant difference in required fees and the percent of fees as compared to tuition between the two institution types.

The primary dataset illustrated that very high/high research intensive institutions charged higher tuition and fees and tuition than non-research intensive institutions, $p < .001$. An examination of the required fees discovered that for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions there was a significant difference between the two institution types, $p < .001$. For out-of-state graduates the very high/high research intensive institutions do charge more than non-research intensive institutions in terms of tuition and fees and tuition. Despite the fact that the *p*-values were different for required fees, the primary dataset shows very high/high research intensive institutions are charging more in fees than non-research intensive institutions in an effort to keep up with market trends.

Table 25. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Graduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Research Status

	Very High/ High Research Intensive	***Non-Research Intensive***	
	Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-2011:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 21,768	$ 15,246	*.000*
Tuition	$ 20,133	$ 13,602	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 1,634	$ 1,644	*.976*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**8%**	**12%**	*.386*
Primary Data – 2011-12:			
Tuition and Required Fees	$ 21,512	$ 14,019	*.000*
Tuition	$18,578	$ 12,575	*.000*
Required Fees	$ 2,932	$ 1,444	*.001*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**16%**	**12%**	*.114*

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was only collected at the primary level, as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. Information was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental, and a total of non-required fees. The mean for both student populations can be found in table 26.

An examination of non-required fees showed that undergraduates attending a very high/high research institution have significantly higher departmental and overall non-required fees than those that attend a non-research intensive institution. Those differences are significant, $p<.002$. Comparison of the miscellaneous fees for very high/high research and non-research intensive institutions revealed no significant difference between the two institution types. For in-state graduates, the results illustrated that across all three categories of non-required fees, very high/high research intensive institutions have significantly higher required fees than the non-research intensive

institutions. All findings were significant with $p<.01$. This difference may show that the more market driven institutions, defined by a very high/high research status, are using non-required fees more freely than their non-research colleagues.

Table 26. Summary Statistics for Non-required Fees per semester– In-State Undergraduates and Graduates based on Research Status (Fall 2011)

	Very High/ High Research Intensive	***Non-Research Intensive***	
	Mean		*P-Value*
In-State Undergraduates:			
Miscellaneous Fees	$ 512.42	$ 433.43	*.089*
Department Fees	$ 173.99	$ 53.50	*.000*
Total Non-Required Fees	$ 686.41	$ 486.93	*.002*
In-State Graduates:			
Miscellaneous Fees	$ 369.24	$ 242.50	*.001*
Department Fees	$ 996.35	$ 107.92	*.000*
Total Non-Required Fees	$ 1,365.59	$ 350.42	*.000*

Summary of research status.

After comparing each of the various populations of students to the type of institution it can be concluded that the very high/high research institutions have significantly higher tuition and fees and tuition than non-research intensive. Where the findings surrounding required fees were not as consistent, in some cases very high/high research institutions are charging more than non-research intensive institutions. After analyzing the non-required fees it appears that for both sets of student's very-high/high research institutions have significantly different non-required fee structure than their non-research counterparts. The fact that both types of institutions are charging somewhat similar required fees, which are mandated at the state level, while non-required fees are substantially higher for very high/high research institutions could indicate that these types of institutions are using non-required fees as a market driven, revenue generating activity.

Highlighting that the very high/high research institutions are more likely than non-research institutions to engage in academic capitalism. They do this by increasing non-required fees to improve the perceived quality of their institution thereby attracting more students to their institutions (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Carnegie classifications: Ph.D., masters and bachelors.

The next institutional type to be compared against fees was the Carnegie classification of the public four-year higher education institutions. Each institution was either identified as a Ph.D., Masters, or Bachelors institution. For the undergraduates there were 100 institutions identified as Ph.D., 62 institutions classified as Masters, and 22 universities as Bachelors. For the graduates there were 100 institutions identified as Ph.D., 62 institutions classified as Masters, and 14 universities as Bachelors. By categorizing the data in this fashion, the second research question will further be answered as the Carnegie classifications show another level of comparable analysis on whether fee structures differ based on institutional types.

In-state undergraduates.

The first group analyzed was the in-state undergraduates (Table 27). The data collected, from all subpopulations was consistent among all institutional types. The means for the in-state undergraduates were presented in Table 23. An examination of the means, in the IPEDS data, show that where Ph.D. institutions have higher tuition and fees, Masters institutions have higher required fees. A one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors. The results were significant, $p<.001$. The primary dataset indicates that across all three variables (tuition and fees, tuition, and fees) Ph.D. institutions on average

have higher costs. By having higher costs Ph.D. institutions are engaging in academic capitalism by centering on fiscal development rather than educational achievement.

Where the tuition and fees and tuition illustrated significant differences, a one-way ANOVA of the variables required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the institution types in regards to the amount being charged to the student given the type of institution they attend, p=.326;.822.

Table 27. Summary Statistics on In-State Undergraduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Carnegie Classification

	Ph.D.	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,405	$6,425	$7,049	*.000*
Tuition	$6,746	$4,688	$6,220	*.000*
Fees	$1,659	$1,737	$829	*.037*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**20%**	**27%**	**13%**	*.571*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$9,191	$7,249	$7,463	*.000*
Tuition	$7,488	$5,604	$6,451	*.000*
Fees	$1,852	$1,647	$1,012	*.326*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**25%**	**29%**	**14%**	*.822*

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The data collected on out-of-state undergraduates is presented in Table 28. For both the IPEDS and primary datasets the means show that Ph.D. institutions were charging more than either Masters or Bachelors. After conducting an ANOVA, the data displayed significant differences between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors with regards to the variables of tuition and fees and tuition. The results were significant, p<.001. Again highlighting that Ph.D. institutions may be participating in

academic capitalism by concentrating on financial growth rather than educational success.

However, the variables required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the institution types in regards to the amount being charged to the student given the type of institution they attend.

Table 28. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Undergraduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Carnegie Classification

	Ph.D.	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$21,967	$14,995	$14,833	*.000*
Tuition	$20,041	$13,122	$13,955	*.000*
Fees	$1,926	$1,873	$877	*.236*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**14%**	**6%**	*.842*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$23,379	$16,135	$15,433	*.000*
Tuition	$20,469	$14,301	$13,192	*.000*
Fees	$3,163	$1,836	$2,241	*.535*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**15%**	**13%**	**17%**	*.903*

In-state graduates.

The third set of students analyzed was the in-state graduates (Table 29). Observing the means between the two datasets, the IPEDS information shows that even though Ph.D. institutions were charging more in tuition, Master's institutions were charging more in fees. However, in the primary data collection, Ph.D. institutions saw higher increases across all three variables. A one-way ANOVA, across both datasets, revealed significant differences between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors. The results were significant, $p<.05$, indicating that the fee structures between the three types of institutions were indeed different. The variable percent fees, as

compared to tuition, was significant within the IPEDS data, yet yielded no significant differences between the institution types in the primary dataset.

Table 29. Summary Statistics on In-State Graduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Carnegie Classification

	Ph.D.	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$9,612	$7,317	$8,644	*.000*
Tuition	$8,067	$5,756	$8,152	*.000*
Fees	$1,545	$1,561	$492	*.004*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**27%**	**6%**	*.003*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$9,686	$7,119	$7,584	*.000*
Tuition	$8,155	$5,904	$6,965	*.000*
Fees	$1,693	$1,217	$619	*.050*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**21%**	**21%**	**9%**	*.164*

Out-of-state graduates.

The final subpopulation analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates. The means are presented in Table 30. For both the IPEDS and primary datasets the means show that Ph.D. institutions were charging more than either Masters or Bachelors across all three variables. An ANOVA displayed significant differences between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors with regards to the variables of tuition and fees and tuition. The results were significant, $p<.001$. By having higher costs Ph.D. institutions are engaging in academic capitalism by focusing on economic development rather than educational accomplishment.

However, the variable required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the institution types in regards to the amount being charged to the student, given the type of institution they attended.

Table 30. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Graduates Tuition and Required Fees based on Carnegie Classification

	Ph.D.	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$20,965	$14,198	$15,488	*.000*
Tuition	$19,204	$12,513	$14,996	*.000*
Fees	$1,760	$1,684	$492	*.079*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**9%**	**13%**	**3%**	*.571*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$20,648	$13,390	$13,359	*.000*
Tuition	$17,876	$12,031	$12,359	*.000*
Fees	$2,771	$1,360	$1,000	*.063*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**16%**	**11%**	**8%**	*.664*

Non-required fees.

The final primary dataset examined non-required fees for in-state undergraduates and graduates. The mean for both student populations can be found in Table 31. An examination of non-required fees showed that both undergraduates and graduates attending a Ph.D. institution, on average, paid more than students attending a Masters or Bachelors type institution. For in-state undergraduates, the miscellaneous and total fees generated no significant differences between the institution types, however the departmental fees displayed significant differences among the types, p=.003. For in-state graduates, the results illustrated that across all three variables of non-required fees, significant differences were occurring between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors. All findings were significant with p<.01.

Table 31. Summary Statistics for Non-required Fees per semester– In-State Undergraduates and Graduates based on Carnegie Classification (Fall 2011)

	Ph.D.	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
In-State Undergraduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$ 481.03	$ 502.79	$ 211.50	*.358*
Department Fees	$ 154.75	$ 28.10	$ 74.10	*.003*
Total Non-Required Fees	$ 635.78	$ 530.89	$ 285.60	*.154*
In-State Graduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$ 364. 51	$ 308.58	$ 137.73	*.002*
Department Fees	$ 879.52	$ 93.26	$ 41.68	*.000*
Total Non-Required Fees	$ 1244.03	$ 401.84	$ 179.41	*.000*

Summary of Carnegie classifications.

After comparing each of the various populations of students to the types of institutions, it can be concluded that there were different fee structures occurring among them. In the primary dataset, on average, the Ph.D. institutions were charging more in tuition and fees. For the IPEDS dataset, the required fees were slightly higher at the Masters institutions than either Ph.D. or Bachelors for both undergraduate and graduate in-state students. Additionally, Ph.D. institutions were charging the most in non-required fees, with the departmental fees being the most highly significant finding for undergraduates and all three categories of non-required fees for graduates. In all cases, institutions that were classified as Bachelors saw the least amount of tuition, required, and non-required fees. Just as in the case of the very high/high research institutions, Ph.D. institutions had higher costs than their counterparts. Where not all findings were significant, the fact that the departmental fees were highly significant begins to show that institutions have differing fee structures amongst departments. This result could indicate that certain public institutions were using departmental fees to generate revenue in addition to tuition. Therefore, they are aligning with the principles of neoliberalism and

academic capitalism stepping away from the notion of fees as simply a necessary resource, to fees as a revenue generating endeavor.

Fee categorizations.

The final portion of the second research question is a closer examination of the categories of fees that were discussed in research question one. Required fees are reported to IPEDS; however they are not broken down into individual charges. Therefore, the data collected below were from the primary dataset. Once each individual fee was collected they were separated into the categories student services, academic services, building/maintenance (including sustainability), technology, and other. The categories chosen for the study were representative of overall trends that became central as the data was collected. To examine the categories further the fees were compared against the institutional types in an effort to see the differing structures of fees being implemented. The five categories help to explain the types of fees universities are requiring students to pay, in addition to tuition, highlighting the differences among them.

In-state undergraduates.

The first subpopulation analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. For the in-state undergraduates the means are reported in Table 32. According to the information, undergraduates attending a very high/high research intensive or non-research intensive institution saw no significant differences between the institution types in regards to fee allocation, however, on average, a majority of the fees were dispersed to student services. An examination of the means among the Carnegie classifications shows very little differences among the allocation of fees.

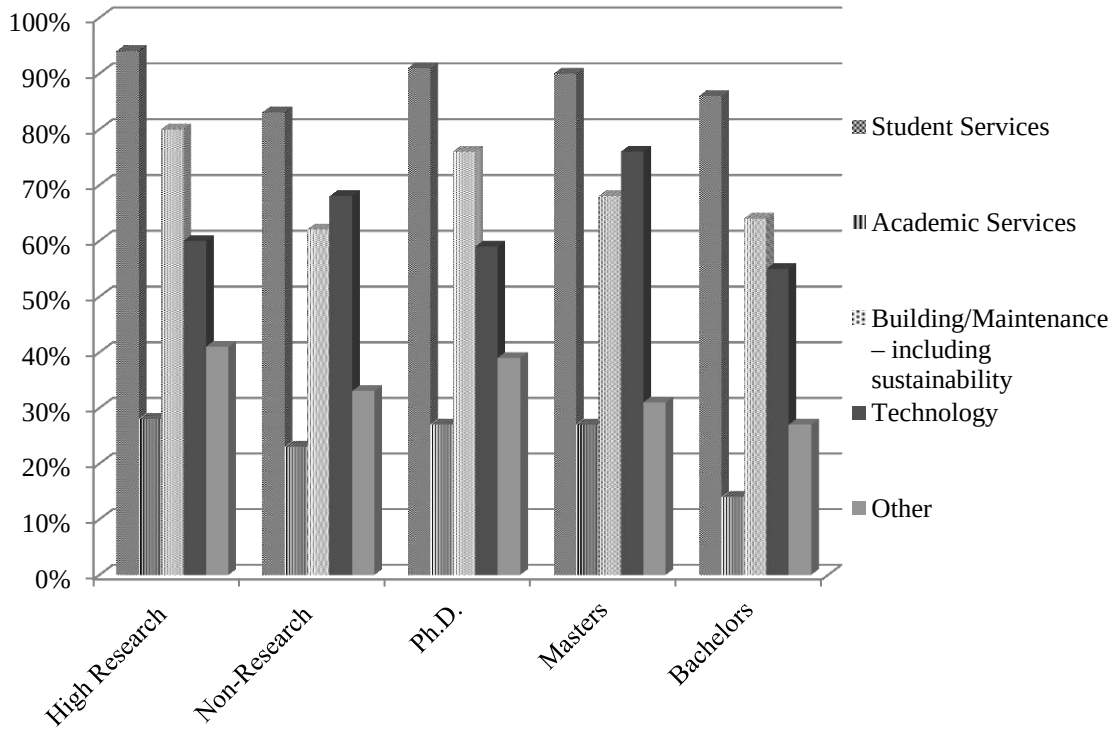
However, an ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters and Bachelors with regards to the category of building/maintenance. The results were significant, $p<.01$. The difference among the institutions could indicate that those assigning more funds towards these fee categories are, in turn, financing more entrepreneurial type activities, which generate more revenue for the university (Reynolds, 2006).

Table 32. Summary Statistics on In-State Undergraduates Required Fees based on Category and Institution Type

	High Research	***Non-Research***		***Ph.D.***	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
	Mean		*P-Value*		***Mean***		*P-Value*
Student Services	$ 466.76	$ 359.72	*.083*	$468.16	$353.38	$288.75	*.082*
Academic Services	$ 289.83	$ 281.01	*.972*	$249.86	$443.39	$54.07	*.988*
Building/Maintenance – including sustainability	$ 305.76	$ 302.07	*.965*	$364.67	$275.94	$169.89	*.008*
Technology	$ 123.76	$ 129.64	*.733*	$120.28	$117.66	$179.79	*.104*
Other	$ 222.14	$ 249.36	*.780*	$234.49	$323.78	$166.20	*.383*

After examining the cost breakdown by institutional type, further analysis was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions were charging fees in each of the five categories (Figure 33). The largest percentage of universities that were implementing fees was under the category of student services with very high/high research-intensive institutions at 94% and Ph.D. at 91%. Non-research intensive institutions and Masters were charging a larger percentage of student's technology fees than compared to the other institutional types. Very high/high research and Ph.D. institutions were charging the largest percentage of students building/maintenance fees. The smallest percentages across all categories were at the Bachelors institutions.

Figure 33: Percent of Schools charging fees to In-State Undergraduates based on category



Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second group analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates. Means for out-of state undergraduates are reported in Table 34 and illustrate that a majority of the fee allocation was going to the category, other. Further analysis shows that undergraduates attending a very high/high research intensive or non-research intensive institution yielded little significant differences between the institution types in regards to fee allocation. However, a one-way ANOVA indicated that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors with regard to the category of student services, p=.05. An investigation of the means among the Carnegie classifications generated very little differences among the allocation of fees.

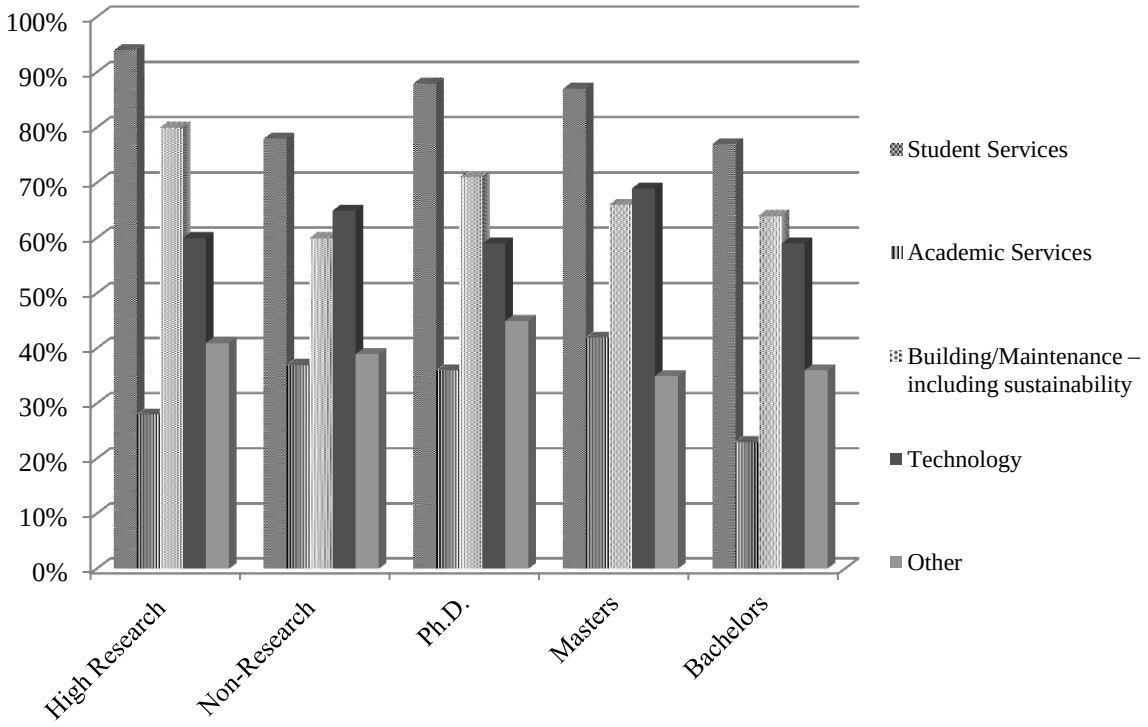
The one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors with regard to the category of building/maintenance. The results were significant, $p<.01$. Again illustrating the differences among the institutions efforts to invest in more entrepreneurial type activities, which in turn generate more revenue for the university.

Table 34. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Undergraduates Required Fees based on Category and Institution Type

	High Research	***Non-Research***		***Ph.D.***	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
	Mean		*P-Value*		***Mean***		*P-Value*
Student Services	$469.36	$360.41	*.050*	$484.75	$355.17	$235.80	*.038*
Academic Services	$465.26	$306.01	*.551*	$395.12	$422.93	$275.56	*.998*
Building/Maintenance – including sustainability	$323.52	$317.39	*.971*	$418.23	$235.87	$166.03	*.002*
Technology	$125.00	$136.03	*.490*	$119.59	$133.26	$167.65	*.182*
Other	$1,578.89	$696.50	*.065*	$1,335.92	$485.35	$1,851.81	*.593*

After investigating the cost breakdown by institutional type, further examination was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions were charging fees in each of the five categories (Figure 35). The largest percentage of universities using fees falls under the category of student services with very high/high research intensive institutions at 94% and Ph.D. at 88%. Non-research intensive and Masters institutions were charging a larger percentage of student's technology and academic services fees than compared to the other institutional types. Very high/high research and Ph.D. institutions were charging the largest percentage of students building/maintenance fees. The smallest percentages across all categories were at the Bachelors institutions, except for the other category, where Master's institutions had the lowest percent.

Figure 35. Percent of Schools charging fees to Out-of-State Undergraduates based on category



In-state graduates.

The third subpopulation analyzed was the in-state graduates. The means are reported in Table 36 and show that a majority of the fee allocation for in-state graduate student fees was going to student services. Despite the fact that much of the analysis yielded no significant differences, an analysis of variance displayed significant differences between both institution types with regards to the category of student services. The results were significant, $p<.05$.

An additional investigation revealed that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors with regards to the category of building/maintenance. The results were significant, $p=.005$. The difference among the institutions could indicate that those allocating more funds towards these fee

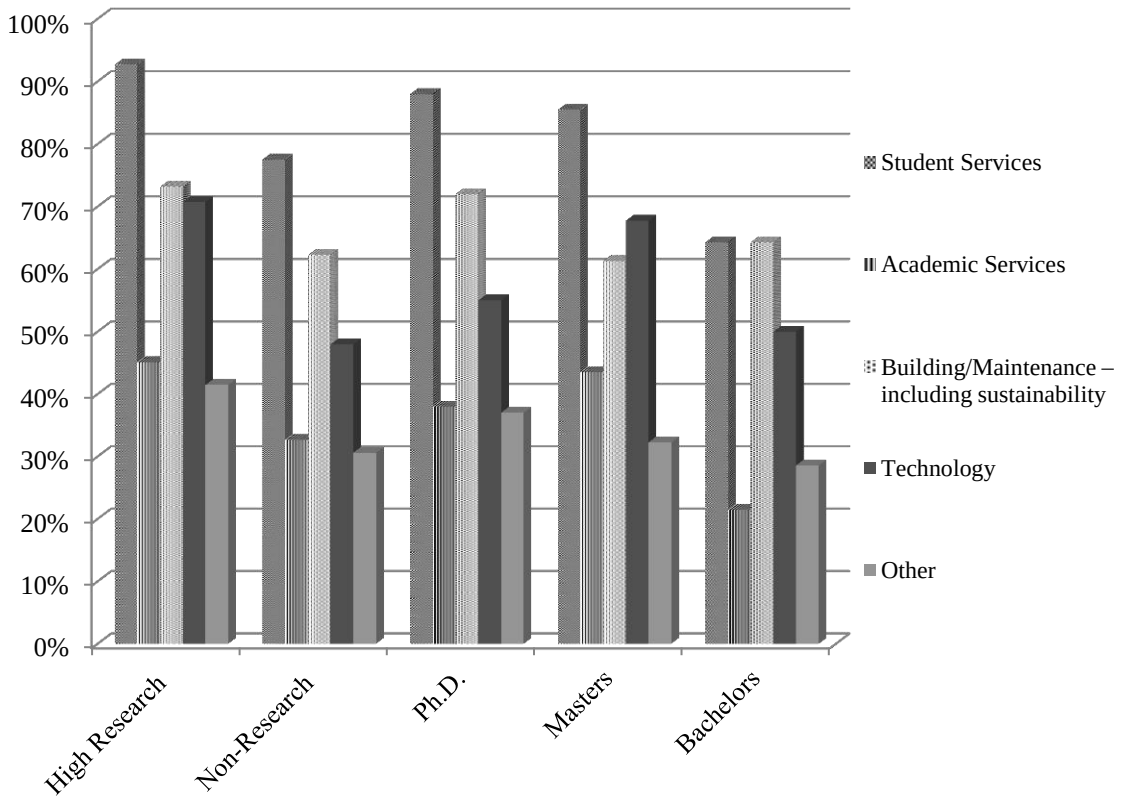
categories are, in turn, supporting more entrepreneurial type activities, which generate additional revenue for the university (Reynolds, 2006).

Table 36. Summary Statistics on In-State Graduates Required Fees based on Category and Institution Type

	High Research	***Non-Research***		***Ph.D.***	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
	Mean		*P-Value*		***Mean***		*P-Value*
Student Services	$431.87	$312.10	*.035*	$451.39	$266.37	$81.13	*.004*
Academic Services	$288.46	$194.73	*.602*	$249.48	$254.93	$12.47	*.978*
Building/Maintenance – including sustainability	$225.21	$246.35	*.825*	$282.68	$179.43	$132.67	*.005*
Technology	$104.12	$105.66	*.903*	$102.60	$104.84	$120.36	*.777*
Other	$305.15	$264.38	*.586*	$285.13	$254.48	$382.75	*.971*

After examining the cost breakdown by institutional type, further analysis was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions were charging fees in each of the five categories (Figure 37). The largest percentage of universities using fees falls under the category of student services with very high/high research-intensive institutions at 93% and Ph.D. at 88%. Additionally, very high/high research institutions were charging the largest percentage of student fees across all categories. Masters institutions were charging a larger percentage of student's technology and academic services fees than compared to the Ph.D. institutions. The smallest percentages across all categories were at Bachelors institutions, except for the building/maintenance category, where Master's institutions had the lowest percent.

Figure 37. Percent of Schools charging fees to In-State Graduates based on category



Out-of-state graduates.

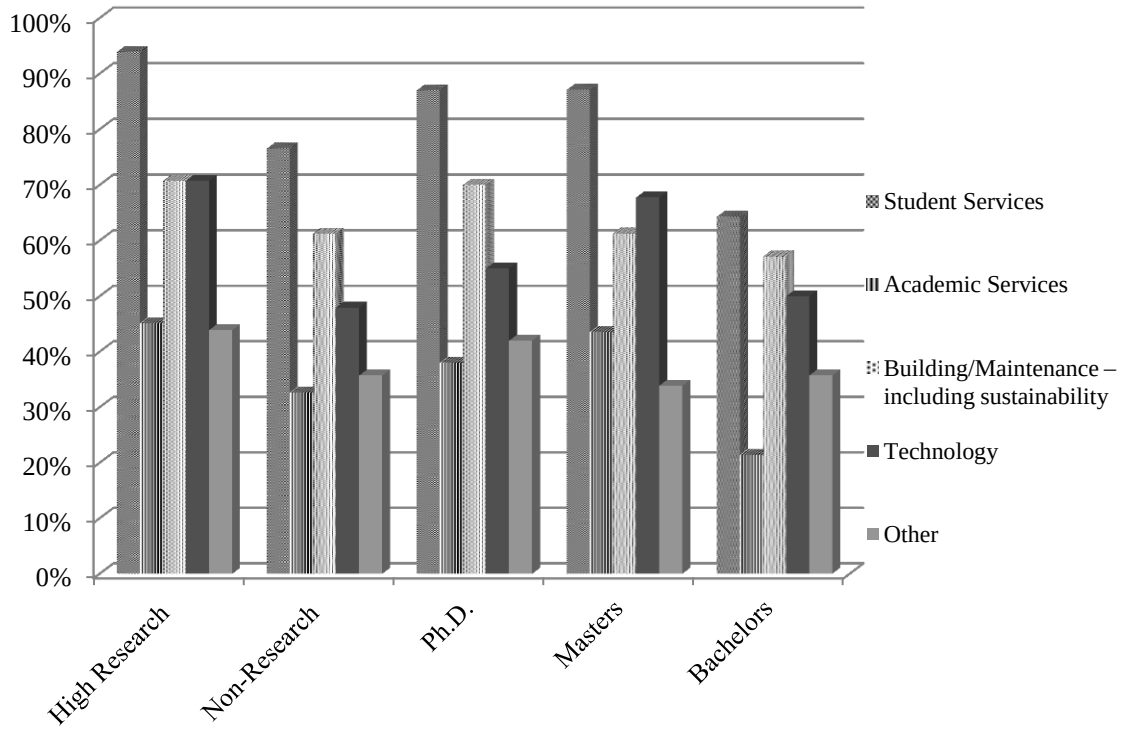
The final subpopulation that was examined was the out-of-state graduates. The means are reported in Table 38 and show that a majority of the fee allocation for in-state graduate student fees was going to the other category. Much of the analysis yielded no significant differences, however an ANOVA displayed significant differences between both institution types with regards to the category of student services. The results were significant, $p<.05$. An additional investigation revealed that the mean differences were significant between the institution types of very high/high research intensive and non-research intensive institutions with regards to the category of other. The results were significant, $p=.01$.

Table 38. Summary Statistics on Out-of-State Graduates Required Fees based on Category and Institution Type

	High Research	***Non-Research***		***Ph.D.***	***Masters***	***Bachelors***	
	Mean		*P-Value*		***Mean***		*P-Value*
Student Services	$445.57	$323.35	*.032*	$458.59	$291.05	$81.13	*.004*
Academic Services	$512.76	$262.87	*.354*	$452.31	$328.68	$12.46	*.949*
Building/Maintenance – including sustainability	$308.25	$293.56	*.933*	$391.61	$180.30	$138.00	*.080*
Technology	$106.50	$110.59	*.762*	$104.97	$111.20	$120.36	*.744*
Other	$1,285.85	$338.68	*.012*	$1,104.77	$263.78	$857.00	*.515*

After investigating the cost breakdown by institutional type, further analysis was necessary to see what percentage of four-year public institutions were charging fees in each of the five categories (Figure 39). The largest percentage of universities using fees falls under the category of student services, with very high/high research intensive institutions at 94% and Ph.D. at 87%. Additionally, very high/high research institutions were charging the largest percentage of student fees across all categories. However, Masters institutions were charging a larger percentage of student's technology and academic services fees than compared to the Ph.D. institutions. The smallest percentages across all categories were at Bachelors institutions, except for the other category where Master's institutions had the lowest percent.

Figure 39. Percent of Schools charging fees to Out-of-State Graduates based on category



Summary of fee categorizations.

An examination of the categories of fees compared to institutional types illustrated that where there may not be many significant differences among every institution type, there were a few that warrant further discussion. Very high/high research intensive and Ph.D. institutions were allocating the most funds, received from required fees to student services and building/maintenance. However, Bachelors institutions were charging the most in technology fees indicating they were more focused on building their technological infrastructure than Masters or Ph.D. institutions.

Furthermore, both very high/high research intensive and Ph.D. institutions were charging more in non-required fees than the other institution types. Indicating that the more market driven schools could be using non-required fees to capitalize on a certain niche of the student population that are able to pay a higher cost to attend. The third, and

final, research question will look to expand upon the analysis above by examining the external characteristics among the sample of public four-year universities highlighting differences among fee structures.

Research Question 3: Do fee structures differ across external and/or state characteristics?

To investigate the final research question, I looked at the data analysis from the two previous questions and combined that with the characteristics unique to each institution and state. The characteristics were collected from secondary data sources and to see if specific fee types were associated with certain external characteristics. To answer research question three, I examined particular external and state variables to see if fees were used in similar ways, uncovering differences that could be interrelated to fee setting behaviors.

External influences, just like institutions, are very diverse between state policies, political climate, and the type of governance structure. The approaches relating to their day-to-day activities-as well as long-term strategic goals-vary greatly. By exploring the external variables within institutions we can begin to see how fee structures vary by state, by types of institution, and by the many levels within each of those categories. The variables analyzed were regional location of the institution, state of the institution, governance structures within the state, political climate within the state and regulation surrounding the institutions that were randomly sampled.

Region.

The first external variable examined was based upon regions, within the United States, in an effort to see whether or not differences emerge between them. The geographic area was broken down into seven regions including Far West, Great Lakes,

Mid East, New England, Plains, Rocky Mountains, Southeast and Southwest. The Far West region included the states of Alaska, California, Hawaii, Nevada, Oregon and Washington; Great Lakes included Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio and Wisconsin; Mid East included Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, New York and Pennsylvania; New England included Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont; Plains included Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota and South Dakota; Rocky Mountains included Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Utah and Wyoming; Southeast included Alabama, Arkansas Florida Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia and West Virginia; and the Southwest region included Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Texas.

In-state undergraduates.

The first subpopulation analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. The data collected, from all subpopulations are consistent among all institutional and state characteristics. The means for the in-state undergraduates are presented in Table 40. By looking at the means, in both datasets, the institutions within the New England region were charging the most in both tuition and fees; however the data from the other seven regions vary between the two datasets. An ANOVA revealed that the mean differences are significant between the eight various regions for both datasets. The results were significant, $p<.001$ indicating that the fee structures between the eight regions differ.

Table 40. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates based on Region

	Far West	**Great Lakes**	**Mid East**	**New England**	
	Mean				*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$8,041	$8,418	$8,919	$9,830	*.000*
Tuition	$5,992	$7,441	$7,317	$6,695	*.000*

Fees	$2,048	$977	$1,602	$3,135	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**34%**	**13%**	**22%**	**47%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$9,142	$8,570	$9,290	$10,831	*.000*
Tuition	$7,527	$7,472	$7,646	$7,224	*.000*
Fees	$1,610	$1,100	$1,879	$3,607	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**21%**	**15%**	**25%**	**50%**	*.000*

	Plains	**Rocky Mountain**	**Southeast**	**Southwest**
	Mean			
IPEDS 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$6,739	$5,676	$5,990	$5,782
Tuition	$5,467	$4,121	$4,779	$4,629
Fees	$1,271	$1,555	$1,211	$1,153
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**23%**	**38%**	**25%**	**25%**
Primary Data 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$7,229	$6,882	$6,739	$6,514
Tuition	$5,906	$5,748	$5,425	$5,211
Fees	$1,323	$1,303	$1,418	$1,238
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**22%**	**23%**	**26%**	**24%**

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second group examined was the out-of-state undergraduates. The means for the out-of-state undergraduates are presented in Table 41. By observing the means, in both datasets, the institutions within the New England region were charging the most in both tuition and fees. However the data from the other seven regions vary between the two datasets. An ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the eight various regions for both datasets for five of the six variables. The results were

significant, $p<.001$. In the primary data, required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the regions.

Table 41. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of- State Undergraduates based on Region

	Far West	**Great Lakes**	**Mid East**	**New England**	
	Mean				*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$22,707	$20,168	$17,531	$22,775	*.000*
Tuition	$20,659	$19,191	$15,917	$18,866	*.000*
Fees	$2,048	$977	$1,614	$3,909	*.001*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**13%**	**10%**	**21%**	*.064*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$24,102	$20,115	$18,356	$23,942	*.000*
Tuition	$22,407	$17,255	$16,781	$19,459	*.000*
Fees	$1,696	$2,863	$1,913	$4,483	*.080*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**8%**	**17%**	**11%**	**23%**	*.138*
	Plains	**Rocky Mountain**	**Southeast**	**Southwest**	
	Mean				
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$13,878	$17,240	$16,963	$15,066	
Tuition	$12,602	$15,312	$15,359	$13,914	
Fees	$1,276	$1,928	$1,604	$1,153	
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**13%**	**10%**	**8%**	
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$15,079	$18,440	$18,330	$16,695	
Tuition	$13,112	$17,127	$15,212	$15,456	
Fees	$1,967	$1,313	$3,411	$1,238	
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**15%**	**8%**	**22%**	**8%**	

In-state graduates.

The third subpopulation analyzed was the in-state graduates and the means are presented in Table 42. By investigating the means, in both datasets, the institutions within the New England region were charging the most in both tuition and fees. However the data from the other seven regions vary between the two datasets. An ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the eight various regions for both datasets. The results were significant, $p<.001$ indicating that the fee structures between the eight regions were different.

Table 42. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Graduates based on Region

	Far West	**Great Lakes**	**Mid East**	**New England**	
	Mean				*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$10,043	$10,214	$11,643	$10,648	*.000*
Tuition	$7,761	$9,310	$10,372	$7,208	*.000*
Fees	$2,282	$904	$1,271	$3,440	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**29%**	**10%**	**12%**	**48%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$10,946	$9,038	$10,886	$10,292	*.000*
Tuition	$9,116	$7,974	$9,741	$7,077	*.000*
Fees	$1,830	$1,061	$1,423	$3,215	*.001*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**20%**	**13%**	**15%**	**45%**	*.000*
	Plains	**Rocky Mountain**	**Southeast**	**Southwest**	
	Mean				
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$7,012	$6,522	$7,381	$6,383	
Tuition	$5,910	$4,963	$6,195	$5,252	
Fees	$1,102	$1,559	$1,186	$1,131	
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**31%**	**19%**	**22%**	
Primary Data 2011-12:					

Tuition and Fees	$6,771	$6,616	$7,418	$6,094
Tuition	$5,685	$5,397	$6,212	$5,097
Fees	$1,086	$1,204	$1,344	$998
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**22%**	**22%**	**20%**

Out-of-state graduates.

The final group examined was the out-of-state graduates. The means for the out-of-state graduates are presented in Table 43. By examining the means, in both datasets, the institutions within the New England region were charging the most in both tuition and fees. However the data from the other seven regions vary between the two datasets. An ANOVA revealed that the mean differences are significant between the eight various regions for both datasets for five of the six variables. The results are significant, $p<.001$. The required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition in the primary data, yielded no significant differences between the regions.

Table 43. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State State Graduates based on Region

	Far West	**Great Lakes**	**Mid East**	**New England**	
	Mean				*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$21,409	$21,110	$17,553	$20,625	*.000*
Tuition	$19,127	$20,206	$16,268	$16,678	*.001*
Fees	$2,282	$904	$1,285	$3,947	*.001*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**12%**	**4%**	**8%**	**24%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$21,745	$18,784	$16,983	$19,388	*.000*
Tuition	$19,890	$16,414	$15,522	$15,188	*.001*
Fees	$1,856	$2,372	$1,465	$4,200	*.080*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**9%**	**14%**	**9%**	**28%**	*.037*
	Plains	**Rocky Mountain**	**Southeast**	**Southwest**	

	Mean			
IPEDS 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$13,986	$16,356	$17,896	$14,930
Tuition	$12,880	$14,353	$16,314	$13,799
Fees	$1,106	$2,004	$1,582	$1,131
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**9%**	**14%**	**10%**	**8%**
Primary Data 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$13,381	$16,641	$17,168	$13,655
Tuition	$11,775	$15,414	$14,351	$12,658
Fees	$1,606	$1,211	$2,817	$998
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**14%**	**8%**	**20%**	**8%**

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was only collected at the primary level, as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. Information was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental, and a total of non-required fees. The mean for both student populations can be found in table 44.

By examining the in-state undergraduates, an ANOVA revealed that the mean differences are significant between the eight various regions and miscellaneous, departmental and a total of non-required fees. The results are significant, $p<=.02$. A one-way ANOVA yielded no significant differences between the eight various regions and non-required fees. In the primary dataset, required fees yielded no significant differences between the regions.

Table 44. Summary Statistics for Non-Required Fees – In-State Undergraduate & Graduates based on Region

	Far West	**Great Lakes**	**Mid East**	**New England**	
	Mean				*P-Value*

Undergraduate:					
Miscellaneous Fees	$434.79	$316.87	$807.72	$592.81	*.004*
Total Department Fees	$27.83	$241.29	$77.84	$51.88	*.000*
Total Non-Required Fees	$462.61	$558.17	$885.57	$644.69	*.023*
Graduate:					
Miscellaneous Fees	$305.96	$240.37	$366.91	$412.94	*.271*
Total Department Fees	$780.08	$597.16	$221.38	$102.33	*.172*
Total Non-Required Fees	$1,086.04	$837.53	$588.29	$515.26	*.422*

	Plains	**Rocky Mountain**	**Southeast**	**Southwest**
	Mean			
Undergraduate:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$340.15	$298.45	$342.80	$327.85
Total Department Fees	$149.17	$152.15	$51.75	$159.93
Total Non-Required Fees	$489.32	$450.60	$394.55	$487.78
Graduate:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$231.25	$252.32	$282.69	$260.68
Total Department Fees	$248.62	$459.21	$595.28	$412.37
Total Non-Required Fees	$479.86	$711.53	$877.98	$673.05

Summary of region.

After examining the datasets for the four subpopulations, as well as non-required fees, it can be concluded that fee structures differ based on regions. For both in-state and out-of-state students, the total tuition and required fees differed among the eight regions. However, in-state students saw a difference in the required fees among the regions where the out-of-state graduates saw no difference. In terms of the non-required fees, undergraduate students saw differences in all three variables among the eight regions; however the in-state graduate students did not. Overall, the highest mean across all four subpopulations was the New England region as well as the highest percent (on average) fees as compared to tuition.

One justification for this is that the New England region is able to charge more as there is greater student mobility within that area than any other region (Douglas & Keeling, 2008). Therefore those particular students are not as price responsive as other regions, which allows the New England region to increases price more rapidly and at higher rates. In the next section state trends will be examined to further identity if there are differences in the fee structures.

State.

Examining fees separate from tuition provides the opportunity to investigate the types of fees institutions are using. To understand the variations in fee structures more holistically, this section looks at the differences that are occurring in each state at four-year public institutions. Investigating fee structures across each state aids in answering the third research question and highlighting differences that occur between the various states and the possible influences that each state has on fee setting behaviors at public institutions. The data displayed below was from the primary dataset and reflects each student as FTE.

In-state undergraduates.

The first subpopulation analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. The data collected from all subpopulations were consistent among all institutional and state characteristics. The means for the in-state undergraduates are presented in Table 45. Comparison of the percent fees to tuition revealed that Mississippi, Michigan and South Carolina had the lowest percent. While the states of Oklahoma, North Carolina, Florida, South Dakota and Massachusetts all had percentages above 50%. Thirteen states had percent of fees, as compared to tuition, below 15% and 18 states had percentages above

the average of 26%. Excluding Mississippi, all states were incorporating some sort of fee structure into the cost of tuition.

Table 45. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates based on State

	Tuition & Fees	***Tuition***	***Required Fees***	***% (on average) fees as compared to Tuition***
		Mean		
Mississippi	$5,642	$5,642	$-	**0%**
Michigan	$10,894	$10,498	$406	**4%**
South Carolina	$9,731	$9,201	$531	**6%**
Kentucky	$8,669	$8,132	$537	**7%**
Indiana	$7,830	$7,314	$516	**7%**
Alabama	$7,269	$6,785	$485	**7%**
Hawaii	$7,522	$7,020	$502	**7%**
West Virginia	$4,329	$4,013	$316	**8%**
Kansas	$6,662	$5,985	$537	**9%**
Arizona	$8,796	$8,040	$756	**9%**
New Mexico	$5,230	$4,774	$456	**10%**
Missouri	$6,889	$6,246	$643	**10%**
Washington	$8,191	$7,258	$933	**13%**
Connecticut	$9,476	$8,256	$1,220	**15%**
Nevada	$4,410	$3,833	$578	**15%**
Wisconsin	$8,140	$7,050	$1,089	**15%**
Delaware	$9,124	$7,898	$1,226	**16%**
Pennsylvania	$11,854	$10,648	$1,664	**16%**
New Hampshire	$13,945	$12,060	$1,885	**16%**
Ohio	$6,203	$5,333	$870	**16%**
Utah	$6,163	$5,294	$869	**16%**
Iowa	$7,534	$6,417	$1,116	**17%**
Alaska	$5,483	$4,666	$817	**17%**
Minnesota	$9,902	$8,374	$1,528	**18%**
Vermont	$14,011	$11,799	$2,212	**19%**
Tennessee	$7,314	$6,070	$1,244	**20%**
Arkansas	$6,140	$5,088	$1,053	**21%**
Colorado	$9,073	$7,863	$1,676	**21%**
Maine	$8,776	$7,160	$1,616	**23%**
Louisiana	$4,669	$3,798	$871	**23%**
North Dakota	$5,793	$4,681	$1,112	**24%**
Rhode Island	$9,963	$8,032	$1,931	**24%**
California	$11,317	$9,102	$2,214	**24%**
Nebraska	$6,440	$5,153	$1,287	**25%**
Texas	$6,594	$5,161	$1,302	**25%**

Montana	$5,949	$4,632	$1,317	**28%**
New York	$6,835	$5,242	$1,593	**30%**
Georgia	$7,251	$5,549	$1,702	**31%**
Oregon	$8,270	$6,272	$1,962	**31%**
Wyoming	$4,125	$3,120	$1,005	**32%**
Maryland	$7,447	$5,463	$1,984	**36%**
New Jersey	$12,229	$8,955	$3,299	**37%**
Illinois	$11,750	$8,584	$3,167	**37%**
Virginia	$10,720	$7,671	$3,049	**40%**
Idaho	$5,826	$4,027	$1,799	**45%**
Oklahoma	$5,568	$3,541	$2,027	**57%**
North Carolina	$6,002	$3,808	$2,195	**58%**
Florida	$4,734	$3,005	$2,062	**69%**
South Dakota	$7,040	$3,425	$3,615	**106%**
Massachusetts	$10,674	$1,389	$9,286	**669%**

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second group analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates. The means for the out-of-state undergraduates are presented in Table 46. Evaluation of the percent fees as compared to tuition revealed that Mississippi, Michigan and Hawaii had the lowest percent. While the states of Ohio, South Dakota, Louisiana, Florida and Massachusetts all had percentages above 50%. Fourteen states had percent of fees, as compared to tuition, at or fewer than 5% and nine states had percentages above the average of 15%. Excluding Mississippi, all states were incorporating some sort of fee structure into the cost of tuition.

Table 46. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Undergraduates based on State

	Tuition & Fees	***Tuition***	***Required Fees***	***Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition***
		Mean		
Mississippi	$12,114	$12,114	$-	**0%**
Michigan	$25,193	$24,798	$406	**2%**
Hawaii	$20,674	$20,172	$502	**2%**
South Carolina	$21,239	$20,708	$531	**3%**
West Virginia	$12,591	$12,275	$316	**3%**
New Mexico	$17,209	$16,753	$456	**3%**

Kentucky	$19,589	$19,052	$537	**3%**
Alabama	$15,295	$14,810	$485	**3%**
Arizona	$22,032	$21,276	$756	**4%**
Nevada	$14,455	$13,878	$578	**4%**
Kansas	$16,815	$16,138	$677	**4%**
Connecticut	$26,372	$25,152	$1,220	**5%**
Utah	$18,733	$17,864	$869	**5%**
Alaska	$17,240	$16,423	$817	**5%**
Iowa	$20,188	$19,071	$1,116	**6%**
Washington	$20,678	$19,508	$1,170	**6%**
Delaware	$21,257	$20,031	$1,226	**6%**
Wisconsin	$18,296	$17,206	$1,089	**6%**
Tennessee	$2,270	$21,226	$1,344	**6%**
New Hampshire	$27,265	$25,380	$1,885	**7%**
Nebraska	$16,816	$15,529	$1,287	**8%**
Colorado	$21,840	$20,164	$1,676	**8%**
California	$29,772	$27,465	$2,307	**8%**
Vermont	$28,532	$26,320	$2,212	**8%**
Wyoming	$1,255	$11,850	$1,005	**8%**
Maine	$20,416	$18,800	$1,616	**9%**
Texas	$16,360	$15,058	$1,302	**9%**
Arkansas	$13,173	$12,120	$1,053	**9%**
Montana	$17,557	$16,141	$1,416	**9%**
Georgia	$20,944	$19,241	$1,702	**9%**
North Dakota	$13,610	$12,498	$1,112	**9%**
Rhode Island	$23,150	$21,219	$1,931	**9%**
Pennsylvania	$18,849	$18,099	$1,774	**10%**
Indiana	$23,365	$21,070	$2,295	**11%**
Oregon	$1,993	$17,962	$1,962	**11%**
New York	$15,929	$14,336	$1,593	**11%**
Idaho	$17,704	$15,905	$1,799	**11%**
Maryland	$18,278	$16,294	$1,984	**12%**
North Carolina	$18,712	$16,517	$2,195	**13%**
Virginia	$28,111	$24,588	$3,523	**14%**
Minnesota	$11,569	$10,041	$1,528	**15%**
Illinois	$22,646	$19,479	$3,167	**16%**
New Jersey	$22,062	$18,788	$3,299	**18%**
Oklahoma	$13,142	$11,115	$2,027	**18%**
Missouri	$13,970	$10,129	$3,842	**38%**
Ohio	$14,555	$9,068	$5,487	**61%**
South Dakota	$8,752	$5,137	$3,615	**70%**
Louisiana	$11,591	$6,356	$5,235	**82%**
Florida	$18,188	$7,705	$11,339	**147%**
Massachusetts	$21,205	$8,413	$12,792	**152%**

In-state graduates.

The third population examined was the in-state graduates presented in Table 47. Evaluation of the percent fees, as compared to tuition, revealed that Mississippi, Michigan and Delaware had the lowest percent. While the states of Oklahoma, Idaho, South Dakota, New Hampshire and Massachusetts all had percentages above 50%. Ten states had percent of fees, as compared to tuition, below 10% and 16 states had percentages above the average of 20%. Excluding Mississippi, all states were incorporating some sort of fee structure into the cost of tuition.

Table 47. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Graduates based on State

	Tuition & Fees	***Tuition***	***Required Fees***	***Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition***
		Mean		
Mississippi	$5,644	$5,644	$-	**0%**
Michigan	$11,722	$11,349	$381	**3%**
Delaware	$17,127	$16,561	$566	**3%**
South Carolina	$9,723	$9,265	$458	**5%**
Hawaii	$9,140	$8,628	$512	**6%**
Kentucky	$9,225	$8,688	$537	**6%**
Alabama	$6,461	$6,066	$395	**7%**
West Virginia	$6,012	$5,588	$424	**8%**
Indiana	$6,178	$5,707	$471	**8%**
Arizona	$9,678	$8,935	$743	**8%**
Washington	$10,772	$9,777	$995	**10%**
Vermont	$9,764	$8,856	$908	**10%**
Missouri	$5,316	$4,802	$514	**11%**
Ohio	$7,982	$7,191	$772	**11%**
Alaska	$7,529	$6,778	$751	**11%**
New Mexico	$4,309	$3,842	$467	**12%**
Wisconsin	$9,811	$8,721	$1,089	**12%**
Pennsylvania	$12,805	$12,027	$1,525	**13%**
Kansas	$5,903	$5,226	$677	**13%**
Colorado	$8,374	$7,323	$1,006	**14%**
Iowa	$8,579	$7,522	$1,057	**14%**
Maine	$8,626	$7,524	$1,102	**15%**
Tennessee	$8,104	$7,001	$1,103	**16%**

North Dakota	$5,715	$4,935	$780	**16%**
New York	$8,174	$7,051	$1,123	**16%**
Arkansas	$4,956	$4,272	$684	**16%**
Minnesota	$10,025	$8,601	$1,425	**17%**
Utah	$5,162	$4,389	$773	**18%**
Louisiana	$5,245	$4,456	$789	**18%**
Rhode Island	$9,963	$8,438	$1,525	**18%**
Nevada	$5,365	$4,527	$838	**19%**
Connecticut	$12,130	$10,224	$1,906	**19%**
Oregon	$11,431	$9,574	$1,857	**19%**
Maryland	$9,187	$7,686	$1,501	**20%**
New Jersey	$12,686	$10,439	$2,272	**22%**
Texas	$5,971	$4,900	$1,072	**22%**
Nebraska	$5,061	$4,019	$1,043	**26%**
California	$12,083	$9,559	$2,524	**26%**
Wyoming	$4,641	$3,636	$1,005	**28%**
Montana	$5,383	$4,169	$1,214	**29%**
Virginia	$11,240	$8,684	$2,556	**29%**
Georgia	$7,328	$5,431	$1,897	**35%**
Illinois	$10,336	$7,210	$3,126	**43%**
Florida	$7,281	$5,831	$2,617	**45%**
North Carolina	$6,698	$4,539	$2,159	**48%**
Oklahoma	$4,624	$3,039	$1,586	**52%**
Idaho	$6,753	$4,027	$2,726	**68%**
South Dakota	$5,288	$3,119	$2,169	**70%**
New Hampshire	$13,483	$1,230	$1,123	**91%**
Massachusetts	$9,082	$1,968	$7,114	**362%**

Out-of-state graduates.

The final group that was studied was the out-of-state graduates. The means are presented in Table 48. Evaluation of the percent fees, as compared to tuition, revealed that Mississippi, Michigan, South Carolina and Hawaii had the lowest percent. While the states of Vermont, Louisiana, Florida and Massachusetts all had percentages above 50%. Ten states had percent of fees, as compared to tuition, below 5% and 13 states had percentages above the average of 15%. Excluding Mississippi, all states were incorporating some sort of fee structure into the cost of tuition.

Table 48. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of- State Graduates based on State

	Tuition & Fees	*Tuition*	*Required Fees*	*Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition*
		Mean		
Mississippi	$12,112	$12,112	$-	**0%**
Michigan	$22,930	$22,557	$381	**2%**
South Carolina	$20,001	$19,543	$458	**2%**
Hawaii	$21,104	$20,592	$512	**2%**
Delaware	$21,456	$20,890	$566	**3%**
Kentucky	$19,761	$19,225	$537	**3%**
Alabama	$13,695	$13,300	$395	**3%**
New Mexico	$13,281	$12,815	$467	**4%**
Arizona	$21,020	$20,277	$743	**4%**
Tennessee	$21,306	$30,103	$1,203	**4%**
Nevada	$18,960	$18,122	$838	**5%**
Utah	$16,207	$15,434	$773	**5%**
Maine	$22,738	$21,636	$1,102	**5%**
Kansas	$13,554	$12,877	$677	**5%**
Iowa	$20,581	$19,525	$1,057	**5%**
Wisconsin	$21,202	$20,112	$1,089	**5%**
Alaska	$14,583	$13,832	$751	**5%**
Washington	$23,732	$22,508	$1,225	**5%**
Colorado	$18,841	$17,791	$1,006	**6%**
New Hampshire	$20,761	$19,638	$1,123	**6%**
North Dakota	$13,957	$13,177	$780	**6%**
Arkansas	$10,270	$9,586	$684	**7%**
Connecticut	$28,438	$26,532	$1,906	**7%**
Rhode Island	$19,390	$17,865	$1,525	**9%**
New York	$13,993	$12,869	$1,123	**9%**
Pennsylvania	$20,053	$18,368	$1,685	**9%**
Texas	$12,168	$11,097	$1,072	**10%**
Wyoming	$11,373	$10,368	$1,005	**10%**
Montana	$14,089	$12,800	$1,288	**10%**
Maryland	$15,731	$14,243	$1,488	**10%**
Nebraska	$10,803	$9,761	$1,043	**11%**
Georgia	$19,200	$17,304	$1,897	**11%**
California	$24,220	$21,716	$2,504	**12%**
Minnesota	$1,250	$11,085	$1,421	**13%**
Oregon	$16,313	$14,456	$1,857	**13%**
North Carolina	$18,514	$16,355	$2,159	**13%**
New Jersey	$17,353	$15,106	$2,272	**15%**
Indiana	$16,591	$14,342	$2,250	**16%**
Virginia	$21,501	$18,471	$3,029	**16%**
Idaho	$18,631	$15,905	$2,726	**17%**

Oklahoma	$10,629	$9,043	$1,586	**18%**
Illinois	$1,935,372	$16,227	$3,126	**19%**
West Virginia	$15,766	$1,342	$424	**32%**
South Dakota	$8,781	$6,612	$2,169	**33%**
Ohio	$15,683	$11,500	$4,184	**36%**
Missouri	$10,559	$7,719	$2,839	**37%**
Vermont	$19,124	$1,216	$908	**75%**
Louisiana	$11,429	$6,502	$4,927	**76%**
Florida	$19,625	$7,598	$12,027	**158%**
Massachusetts	$15,733	$5,663	$10,070	**178%**

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental, and a total of non-required fees. The mean for both student populations can be found in table 49. By examining the in-state undergraduates, the states with the lowest mean miscellaneous fees were Georgia, West Virginia and New Mexico, with the largest being Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Delaware and New Jersey. For departmental fees, 8 states were not charging any departmental fees, however Illinois, Michigan, Colorado, and South Dakota had the highest. In terms of total overall non-required fees, New Mexico, Louisiana, Idaho, and North Dakota had the lowest and Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Kansas, New Jersey, and Colorado had the highest.

By analyzing the in-state graduates, the states with the lowest mean miscellaneous fees were Arkansas, Kansas, North Dakota, and Maine with the largest being Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Delaware, and New Jersey. For departmental fees, 5 states were not currently charging any departmental fees, however Kentucky, South Carolina, California, and Wyoming had the highest. In terms of total overall non-required fees West Virginia, Maine, Connecticut, and North Dakota had the lowest and Kentucky, South Carolina, California, and Michigan had the highest.

Table 49. Summary Statistics for Non-Required Fees based on State

	Miscellaneous Fees	*Department Fees*	*Total*	*Miscellaneous Fees*	*Department Fees*	*Total*
	In-State Undergraduates			***In-State Graduates***		
Alabama	$511.05	$86.33	$597.38	$456.06	$63.68	$519.73
Alaska	$205.00	$248.75	$453.75	$187.50	$0.00	$187.50
Arizona	$438.33	$185.00	$623.33	$351.67	$953.02	$1,304.69
Arkansas	$454.18	$106.71	$560.89	$42.10	$111.85	$538.95
California	$549.46	$2.48	$551.94	$364.80	$1,360.79	$1,725.63
Colorado	$394.75	$333.53	$728.28	$219.75	$638.48	$858.23
Connecticut	$538.33	$2.33	$540.67	$118.33	$56.40	$174.33
Delaware	$658.50	$0.00	$658.50	$562.50	$0.00	$562.50
Florida	$351.00	$20.58	$371.58	$244.67	$370.23	$614.90
Georgia	$22.14	$11.36	$253.50	$118.57	$393.17	$511.74
Hawaii	$347.50	$70.00	$417.50	$272.50	$300.00	$572.50
Idaho	$206.00	$0.00	$206.00	$234.75	$0.00	$234.75
Illinois	$356.00	$498.35	$854.35	$366.75	$818.19	$1,184.94
Indiana	$448.00	$155.68	$603.68	$364.10	$868.11	$1,232.21
Iowa	$520.00	$161.40	$681.40	$296.67	$579.40	$876.07
Kansas	$503.67	$218.70	$722.37	$50.33	$214.65	$764.98
Kentucky	$168.00	$108.23	$276.23	$311.33	$2,431.47	$2,742.80
Louisiana	$194.88	$8.95	$203.83	$160.63	$150.10	$310.73
Maine	$246.67	$3.00	$276.67	$93.33	$63.00	$156.33
Maryland	$338.75	$0.00	$338.75	$307.50	$647.25	$954.75
Massachusetts	$976.50	$91.75	$1,068.25	$732.50	$47.95	$780.45
Michigan	$296.94	$360.88	$657.82	$217.00	$1,154.06	$1,371.06
Minnesota	$260.00	$109.33	$369.33	$232.33	$75.85	$708.19
Mississippi	$509.67	$0.00	$509.67	$466.33	$38.40	$504.73
Missouri	$334.75	$136.23	$470.98	$135.00	$132.62	$267.62
Montana	$247.00	$9.85	$256.85	$208.50	$0.00	$208.50
Nebraska	$375.00	$126.00	$501.00	$225.00	$153.00	$378.00
Nevada	$217.50	$0.00	$217.50	$147.50	$115.00	$262.50
New Hampshire	$502.50	$132.95	$635.45	$592.50	$538.60	$1,131.10
New Jersey	$632.38	$86.95	$719.33	$604.25	$275.23	$879.48
New Mexico	$130.00	$8.73	$138.73	$126.17	$140.22	$266.39
New York	$611.35	$0.00	$611.35	$411.35	$70.20	$481.37
North Carolina	$543.70	$1.80	$545.50	$483.00	$564.54	$1,047.54
North Dakota	$131.67	$80.20	$211.87	$51.67	$80.20	$131.87
Ohio	$232.88	$168.19	$401.06	$161.25	$220.60	$381.85
Oklahoma	$332.50	$174.38	$506.88	$248.70	$127.99	$376.74
Oregon	$453.50	$27.38	$480.80	$459.75	$248.60	$708.35
Pennsylvania	$1,345.44	$212.19	$1,557.63	$195.00	$225.53	$420.53
Rhode Island	$617.50	$50.10	$667.60	$484.00	$5.00	$489.00
South Carolina	$465.00	$98.50	$563.50	$428.33	$2,113.73	$2,542.07
South Dakota	$152.98	$294.96	$447.94	$160.48	$96.77	$257.25
Tennessee	$183.33	$103.60	$286.93	$110.67	$449.67	$560.33
Texas	$352.20	$191.99	$544.19	$278.50	$445.58	$724.08
Utah	$207.50	$148.26	$355.76	$468.00	$660.02	$1,128.02
Vermont	$492.00	$0.00	$492.00	$444.50	$0.00	$444.50
Virginia	$359.40	$64.74	$424.14	$201.00	$1,125.66	$1,326.66
Washington	$335.40	$0.00	$335.40	$154.00	$465.52	$619.52
West Virginia	$124.00	$109.80	$233.80	$140.00	$7.00	$147.00

Wisconsin	$306.75	$87.99	$394.74	$146.75	$94.46	$241.21
Wyoming	$465.00	$43.00	$508.00	$125.00	$1,177.40	$1,302.40

Summary of state.

By looking at the means, in all the subpopulations, it appears there were three extreme cases of states either charging no fees or over 100% fees as compared to tuition. First, the state of Mississippi, which as of 2011-12 no longer separated tuition and required fees. According to the Institutions of Higher Learning (IHL) philosophy, Mississippi's public four-year institutions of higher learning do not have required fees charged in addition to general tuition. Second, South Dakota, Florida and Massachusetts, states which charge over 100%, required further examination as to why this was occurring. In South Dakota, fees were retained by the institutions and all fees had to be justified and approved by the board, but fees were not under the same restrictions as tuition, allowing for extreme increases. In Florida in 2010 the Legislature gave the Board of Governors the authority to approve new fees up to 10% of tuition. Finally, in Massachusetts, according to their Department of Higher Education (MDOHE), tuition rates for the public colleges and University of Massachusetts campuses are set by the Massachusetts Board of Higher Education and fees are set by each institution's own Board of Trustees and are retained by the institutions. Therefore, revenue from student fees are institutionally controlled and utilized for the operations of the colleges without oversight from the MDOHE.

Overall the results indicate substantial support for the idea that state fee structures, both at the required and non-required level, differ among tuition and fee variables. While some states charge large percentages of fees, as compared to tuition, some states do not, showing that fee structures are varying among the fifty states.

Additionally, every state did charge at least one non-required fee to certain student populations, indicating the differential pricing models are a nationwide trend. As in the cases discussed above, fee policies appear to be the main reason for the extreme differences between the states fee structures. For the next step in the analysis, the variable of governance structure was compared to fees at public higher education universities.

Governance structures.

Governance structures were classified into three types of systems, consolidated, coordinated, and planning (Waller, et al., 2000). A breakdown of the states within each structure can be found in Appendix C. As mentioned in Chapter 3, a consolidated system is the most centralized with one statewide "super" board given budgetary, regulatory, managerial, administrative, and planning responsibility for all higher education institutions in the state. For the coordinated system, a statewide board has responsibility with planning and regulating with an institutional or sub-system board managing all day-to-day activities, including the budget. The final structure, planning, leaves all administrative, regulatory, and budgeting authority to the institution while the statewide board develops a statewide education agenda. Investigating governance structures, compared to fees, allowed for a better understanding of who is controlling the use of fees on public higher education campuses.

In-state undergraduates.

The first group analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. The data collected, from all subpopulations were consistent among all institutional types and characteristics. The means for the in-state undergraduates are presented in Table 50. Investigating the

means illustrated, on average, institutions that had a coordinated governance structure charge the largest amount of required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS and primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between governance structure, tuition and fees, and tuition. The results were significant, $p<=.05$. Further analysis showed that required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the governance structure and required fees.

Table 50. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates based on Governance Structure

	Consolidated	***Coordinated***	***Planning***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$6,447	$7,637	$10,136	*.000*
Tuition	$5,155	$5,928	$9,425	*.000*
Fees	$1,291	$1,709	$711	*.050*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**25%**	**29%**	**8%**	*.288*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$7,038.54	$8,337.21	$11,193	*.000*
Tuition	$5,643.65	$6,676.37	$10,210	*.000*
Fees	$1,475.77	$1,727.25	$989	*.273*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**26%**	**26%**	**10%**	*.399*

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second subpopulation examined was the out-of-state undergraduates with the means presented in Table 51. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS and primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the governance structure and tuition. The results are significant, $p<=.03$. In the IPEDS and primary dataset, tuition and fees and required fees, as well as the percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the governance structure and the three variables.

Table 51. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Undergraduates based on Governance Structure

	Consolidated	***Coordinated***	***Planning***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$17,124	$18,462	$23,490	*.030*
Tuition	$15,690	$16,531	$22,779	*.015*
Fees	$1,434	$1,931	$711	*.094*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**9%**	**12%**	**3%**	*.260*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,114	$19,589	$25,060	*.019*
Tuition	$15,638	$17,161	$24,077	*.005*
Fees	$2,705	$2,497	$989	*.464*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**17%**	**15%**	**4%**	*.236*

In-state graduates.

The third group studied was the in-state graduates. The means are presented in Table 52. For in-state graduates the means indicated that students attending an institution that had a coordinated governance structure, on average, paid more in required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS and Primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the governance structure and tuition and fees. The results were significant, p<=.002. In both the IPEDS and primary dataset, required fees and percent fees (as compare to tuition) yielded no significant differences between the governance structure and fees charged to in-state graduate students.

Table 52. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Graduates based on Governance Structure

	Consolidated	***Coordinated***	***Planning***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,146	$8,794	$13,184	*.000*
Tuition	$6,836	$7,163	$12,609	*.000*
Fees	$1,310	$1,631	$575	*.130*

Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**23%**	**5%**	*.416*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$7,981	$8,592	$12,488	*.002*
Tuition	$6,679	$7,146	$11,953	*.000*
Fees	$1,420	$1,527	$539	*.145*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**21%**	**21%**	**5%**	*.377*

Out-of-state graduates.

The final subpopulation considered was the out-of-state graduates. The means are presented in Table 53. For out-of-state graduates the means indicated that students attending an institution that had a coordinated or consolidated governance structure, on average, paid more in required fees than those that attended an institution with a planning structure. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS and primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the governance structure and tuition, p<=.018. For the IPEDS data, the data showed a significant difference in means for tuition and fees, p<=.02. In both the IPEDS and primary dataset, required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the governance structure and fees charged to out-of-state graduate students.

Table 53. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Graduates based on Governance Structure

	Consolidated	***Coordinated***	***Planning***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,501	$17,648	$23,624	*.016*
Tuition	$17,048	$15,832	$23,048	*.003*
Fees	$1,453	$1,816	$575	*.160*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**9%**	**11%**	**2%**	*.289*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$17,454	$17,080	$21,757	*.105*
Tuition	$15,207	$14,895	$21,222	*.018*

Fees	$2,247	$2,185	$539	*.294*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**15%**	**15%**	**3%**	*.476*

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was only collected at the primary level as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. Information was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental, and a total of non-required fees. The mean for both student populations can be found in table 54. By examining the in-state undergraduates, a one-way ANOVA yielded no other significant differences between the governance structures and non-required fees.

Table 54. Summary Statistics for Non-Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates and Graduates based on Governance Structure

	Consolidated	***Coordinated***	***Planning***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
Undergraduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$353.29	$479.85	$420.63	*.294*
Department Fees	$73.85	$110.89	$200.49	*.107*
Total Non-Required Fees	$427.14	$590.74	$621.12	*.143*
Graduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$286.26	$294.51	$344.33	*.819*
Department Fees	$325.01	$534.24	$641.14	*.283*
Total Non-Required Fees	$611.27	$828.75	$985.48	*.296*

Summary of governance structures.

After examining the outcomes of whether fee structures differ as a result of governance structures, it appears that, in some cases, they do. The findings within the governance structures are consistent between the in-state groups and out-of-state groups. For the in-state students, there were differences within the governance structures with regards to tuition and required fees. The results indicated that institutions with more control at the state level, and less control over tuition, are charging more in fees to their

students, showing that those institutions are increasingly dependent on resources from the state and are engaging in resource dependency theory. However the out-of-state groups saw little to no difference in the same variable. Within the non-required fees, in-state undergraduates and graduates saw no differences based on governance structure. In the next section political culture will be examined to see if differences in fee structures occur based on how the political dynamics are defined within the state the institution resides.

Political culture.

Culture, in the political realm, has three main aspects: what is politics for and what should government do, what kinds of people participate in politics and how "the art of government is practiced" (Elazar, 1971). People tend to see government as either a marketplace or a commonwealth. As mentioned in Chapter 3, to determine how a state fits into these ideals, Elazar (1971) defined three types: individualists, moralists, and traditionalists. Individualists use the government for utilitarian, individualist reasons and feel it should be run much like that of a business. Moralists want the government to help them find the "good life," with governmental work being looked at as a "public service." Traditionalists combine hierarchical views of society with ambivalence about the "government-as-marketplace." The next variable examined the influences political culture may have had over fee structures at public four-year institutions.

In-state undergraduates.

The first group analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. The data collected, from all subpopulations were consistent among all institutional types and characteristics. The means for the in-state undergraduates are presented in Table 55. Investigating the means in the IPEDS dataset illustrated that, on average, institutions classified as being in

a moralistic state had higher fees. However, the mean in the primary dataset indicated that the institutions within an individualistic state charged the largest number of required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both datasets, revealed that the mean differences are significant between the political culture, tuition and fees, and tuition. The results are significant, $p<.001$. Further analysis showed required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the political culture and required fees.

Table 55. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates based on Political Culture

	Individualistic	***Moralistic***	***Traditionalistic***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,110	$8,142	$5,945	*.000*
Tuition	$6,421	$6,406	$4,758	*.000*
Fees	$1,689	$1,736	$1,187	*.066*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**26%**	**27%**	**25%**	*.076*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$8,423	$9,179	$6,673	*.000*
Tuition	$6,612	$7,657	$5,370	*.000*
Fees	$1,923	$1,550	$1,360	*.097*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**29%**	**20%**	**25%**	*.045*

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second subpopulation analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates. The means for the out-of-state undergraduates are presented in Table 56. Examining the means, in the IPEDS dataset, showed that institutions classified as being in a moralistic state had higher fees than those classified as individualistic or traditionalistic. Yet the mean in the primary dataset indicated that the institutions within an individualistic state charged the largest number of required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS

and primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the political culture, tuition and fees, and tuition. The results were significant, p<=.01. Further analysis showed required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the political culture and required fees.

Table 56. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Undergraduates based on Political Culture

	Individualistic	***Moralistic***	***Traditionalistic***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,078	$20,453	$16,508	*.004*
Tuition	$16,203	$18,650	$15,037	*.010*
Fees	$1,875	$1,803	$1,471	*.470*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**12%**	**10%**	**10%**	*.898*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$18,740	$21,678	$17,912	*.007*
Tuition	$15,885	$20,087	$15,326	*.000*
Fees	$2,991	$1,591	$2,799	*.088*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**8%**	**18%**	*.067*

In-state graduates.

The third group analyzed was the in-state graduates. The means for the in-state graduates are presented in Table 57. Once the means in the IPEDS dataset had been examined it indicated, on average, institutions that were classified as being in a moralistic state had higher fees. Yet the mean in the primary dataset indicated that the institutions within an individualistic state charged the largest percent of required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the political culture, tuition and fees, and tuition. The results were significant, p<=.001. Further analysis showed required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the political culture and required fees.

Table 57. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Graduates based on Political Culture

	Individualistic	***Moralistic***	***Traditionalistic***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$9,930	$9,437	$7,120	*.000*
Tuition	$8,401	$7,672	$5,955	*.001*
Fees	$1,529	$1,766	$1,164	*.148*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**18%**	**23%**	**20%**	*.250*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$9,002	$9,839	$7,067	*.000*
Tuition	$7,528	$8,364	$5,920	*.000*
Fees	$1,620	$1,473	$1,242	*.349*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**22%**	**18%**	**21%**	*.143*

Out-of-state graduates.

The final group analyzed was the out-of-state graduates and the means are presented in Table 58. Once the means in the IPEDS dataset had been examined it indicated, on average, that institutions classified as being in a moralistic state had higher fees. Yet the mean in the primary dataset indicated that the institutions within an individualistic state charged the largest number of required fees. A one-way ANOVA, for both the IPEDS and primary datasets, revealed that the mean differences were significant between the political culture and tuition and fees. The results were significant, $p<=.05$. In the primary data set the ANOVA showed that the mean differences were significant between the political culture and tuition. Further analysis showed required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition, yielded no significant differences between the political culture and required fees.

Table 58. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Graduates based on Political Culture

	Individualistic	***Moralistic***	***Traditionalistic***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
IPEDS – 2010-11:				
Tuition and Fees	$17,852	$19,797	$17,155	*.052*
Tuition	$16,218	$17,944	$15,703	*.130*
Fees	$1,633	$1,853	$1,452	*.579*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**10%**	**9%**	*.076*
Primary Data – 2011-12:				
Tuition and Fees	$16,496	$19,756	$16,270	*.004*
Tuition	$13,990	$18,268	$13,958	*.000*
Fees	$2,507	$1,486	$2,311	*.174*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**18%**	**8%**	**17%**	*.070*

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was only collected at the primary level as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. Information was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental, and a total of non-required fees. The mean for both student populations can be found in Table 59. By examining the in-state undergraduates a one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the political culture, miscellaneous, and total non-required fees. The results were significant, p=.02. Further examination of the one-way ANOVA yielded no other significant differences between the political culture and non-required fees.

Table 59. Summary Statistics for Non-Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates and Graduates based on Political Culture

	Individualistic	***Moralistic***	***Traditionalistic***	
		Mean		*P-Value*
Undergraduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$581.06	$380.90	$339.76	*.018*

Department Fees	$120.96	$107.92	$79.97	*.402*
Total Non-Required Fees	$702.02	$488.82	$419.73	*.009*
Graduates:				
Miscellaneous Fees	$318.43	$288.89	$274.77	*.600*
Department Fees	$275.55	$599.09	$542.98	*.100*
Total Non-Required Fees	$593.98	$887.98	$817.75	*.223*

Summary of political culture.

The results for political culture show interesting findings in the reporting process. In each subpopulation examined, within the IPEDS dataset, the moralistic institutions reported the highest required fees; however the primary dataset revealed that for each subpopulation the individualistic institutions have the highest non-required fees. Each of the groups had differences among the total tuition and fees, but not in the required fees as a separate entity. Further analysis surrounding political culture and fees illustrated there are differences in the fee structures in the non-required fees for undergraduates but not for graduate students. These differences could demonstrate that fee structures across institutions are shifting towards the neoliberal mindset (e.g., individualistic) through a market-based approach in the financing of higher education. Overall, the fee structures when examined within the variable of political culture seem to highlight that differences do exist in how public four-year institutions are using fees. The next section will look at the regulation that universities have, in comparison to fee structures, further examining whether or not fee structures differ as a result of regulation.

Regulation.

The final variable to be compared to fees was regulation. Regulation defines what parts of the higher educational system are regulated by a statewide board. The state regulation can be defined as “all”, “all (except UM)”, “all+”, “degree”, “institutional”,

"separate", or "segmented". "All" is defined as all post-secondary institutions, "all (except UM)" situates the University of Massachusetts in a separate category as the percent of fees (as compared to tuition) is much higher than any other public institution, "all+" is defined as all post-secondary plus elementary and secondary institutions, "degree" is defined as post-secondary institutions except for technical colleges, "separate" is defined as separate boards for two-year and four-year institutions, and "segmented" is defined as more than one board, but institutions separated by means other than level of degrees offered (Education Commission of the States, 2009). Investigating the types of regulation each the state board utilizes, highlights were differences emerge on what types of board entities have more control over the implementation of fees.

In-state undergraduates.

The first subpopulation analyzed was the in-state undergraduates. The data collected from all subpopulations were consistent among all institutional and state characteristics. The means for the in-state undergraduates are presented in Table 60. Examining the means, excluding the University of Massachusetts, in both the IPEDS and primary datasets, it appears that the institutions within the all and all+ regulation system were charging the most in both tuition and fees. A further examination of the one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the seven regulatory systems for both datasets. The results were significant, $p<=.005$ indicating that the fee structures between the regulatory systems were statistically different.

Table 60. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Undergraduates based on Regulation

	All	**All (except UM)**	**All+**	**Degree**	
		Mean			*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					

Tuition and Fees	$6,973	$9,938	$5,409	$8,042	*.005*
Tuition	$5,302	$1,389	$1,900	$6,772	*.000*
Fees	$1,671	$8,549	$3,509	$1,270	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**32%**	**616%**	**185%**	**19%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$8,088	$10,674	$5,826	$8,458	*.003*
Tuition	$6,560	$1,389	$4,027	$7,166	*.000*
Fees	$1,536	$9,286	$1,799	$1,398	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**23%**	**669%**	**45%**	**20%**	*.000*

	Institutional	**Segment**	**Separate**
	Mean		
IPEDS 2010-11:			
Tuition and Fees	$11,581	$11,581	$6,697
Tuition	$10,206	$10,206	$5,425
Fees	$1,375	$1,375	$1,273
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**13%**	**13%**	**23%**
Primary Data 2011-12:			
Tuition and Fees	$14,011	$14,011	$7,095
Tuition	$11,799	$11,799	$5,705
Fees	$2,212	$2,212	$1,540
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**19%**	**19%**	**27%**

Out-of-state undergraduates.

The second group analyzed was the out-of-state undergraduates. The means for the out-of-state undergraduates are presented in Table 61. Examining the means in the IPEDS datasets, the institutions within the all and all+ regulation system were charging the most in both tuition and fees. In the primary dataset the highest means came from all and separate. An examination of the one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the seven regulatory systems for both datasets with regards to tuition and required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition. The results were significant, p<=.037 indicating that the fee structures between the regulatory

systems statistically differ. Further analysis showed tuition and fees yielded no significant differences.

Table 61. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Undergraduates based on Regulation

	All	**All (except UM)**	**All+**	**Degree**	
		Mean			*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$17,750	$20,057	$16,455	$19,185	*.168*
Tuition	$15,821	$8,413	$12,946	$17,875	*.019*
Fees	$1,930	$11,644	$3,509	$1,310	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**12%**	**138%**	**27%**	**7%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$19,318	$21,205	$17,704	$20,033	*.279*
Tuition	$17,268	$8,413	$15,905	$18,185	*.037*
Fees	$2,049	$12,792	$1,799	$1,962	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**12%**	**152%**	**11%**	**11%**	*.008*
	Institutional	**Segment**	**Separate**		
		Mean			
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$26,143	$15,055	$18,504		
Tuition	$24,768	$14,177	$17,081		
Fees	$1,375	$878	$1,423		
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**6%**	**6%**	**8%**		
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$28,532	$16,600	$18,967		
Tuition	$26,320	$15,031	$15,591		
Fees	$2,212	$1,568	$3,797		
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**8%**	**10%**	**24%**		

In-state graduates.

The third subpopulation analyzed was the in-state graduates. The means for the in-state graduates are presented in Table 62. Examining the means, in both the IPEDS and primary datasets, the institutions within the all and all+ regulation systems were charging the most in both tuition and fees. An examination of the one-way ANOVA

revealed that the mean differences were significant between the seven regulatory systems for both datasets with regards to tuition and required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition. The results were significant, p<=.001 indicating that the fee structures between the regulatory systems were statistically different. Further analysis showed tuition and fees, in the primary dataset, yielded no significant differences between the regulation and tuition and fees; however the difference was significant for the IPEDS variable of tuition and fees.

Table 62. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – In-State Graduates based on Regulation

	All	**All (except UM)**	**All+**	**Degree**	
		Mean			*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$7,594	$10,368	$6,248	$9,994	*.004*
Tuition	$5,932	$2,262	$1,900	$8,868	*.000*
Fees	$1,662	$8,106	$4,348	$1,126	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**28%**	**358%**	**229%**	**13%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$7,982	$9,082	$6,753	$9,453	*.282*
Tuition	$6,556	$1,968	$4,027	$8,369	*.001*
Fees	$1,423	$7,114	$2,726	$1,222	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**22%**	**362%**	**68%**	**15%**	*.000*
	Institutional	**Segment**	**Separate**		
		Mean			
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$12,410	$8,166	$8,913		
Tuition	$11,235	$7,429	$7,660		
Fees	$1,175	$737	$1,253		
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**10%**	**16%**		
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$9,764	$7,714	$8,606		
Tuition	$8,856	$6,788	$7,379		
Fees	$908	$926	$1,465		
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**10%**	**14%**	**20%**		

Out-of-state graduates.

The final group analyzed was the out-of-state graduates. The means for the in-state graduates are presented in Table 63. Examining the means, in the IPEDS datasets, the institutions within the all and all+ regulation systems were charging the most in both tuition and fees. In the primary dataset, the highest means came from all and separate. An examination of the one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean differences were significant between the seven regulatory systems for both datasets with regards to tuition and required fees and percent fees, as compared to tuition. The results were significant, p<=.020 indicating that the fee structures between the regulatory systems are statistically different. Further analysis showed tuition and fees, in the primary dataset yielded no significant differences.

Table 63. Summary Statistics for Required Fees – Out-of-State Graduates based on Regulation

	All	**All (except UM)**	**All+**	**Degree**	
		Mean			*P-Value*
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$16,699	$16,416	$17,294	$19,488	*.003*
Tuition	$14,753	$6,790	$12,946	$18,316	*.000*
Fees	$1,946	$9,626	$4,348	$1,172	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**13%**	**142%**	**34%**	**6%**	*.000*
Primary Data 2011-12:					
Tuition and Fees	$16,713	$15,733	$18,631	$18,405	*.279*
Tuition	$14,842	$5,663	$15,905	$16,740	*.020*
Fees	$1,868	$10,070	$2,726	$1,668	*.000*
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**13%**	**178%**	**17%**	**10%**	*.000*
	Institutional	**Segment**	**Separate**		
		Mean			
IPEDS 2010-11:					
Tuition and Fees	$28,292	$15,390	$19,989		
Tuition	$27,117	$14,652	$18,631		

Fees	$1,175	$737	$1,358
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**4%**	**5%**	**7%**
Primary Data 2011-12:			
Tuition and Fees	$19,124	$14,628	$18,630
Tuition	$18,216	$13,235	$15,647
Fees	$908	$1,393	$2,983
Percent (on average) fees as compared to Tuition	**5%**	**11%**	**19%**

Non-required fees.

The final dataset was only collected at the primary level as IPEDS does not currently report on non-required fees. Information was collected for in-state undergraduates and graduates on fees classified as miscellaneous, departmental and a total of non-required fees. The means for both student populations can be found in table 64. Examining the in-state undergraduates, the one-way ANOVA revealed that the mean yielded no significant differences between the regulation and non-required fees. Further, the one-way ANOVA of the graduates revealed that the mean differences were significant between the regulation and miscellaneous fees. The results were significant, p=.01. However, the one-way ANOVA yielded no other significant differences between the regulation and non-required fees for graduates.

Table 64. Summary Statistics for Non-Required Fees – In-State Undergraduate and Graduate based on Regulation

	All	**All (except UM)**	**All+**	**Degree**	
	Mean				*P-Value*
Undergraduate					
Miscellaneous Fees	$373.74	$976.50	$206.00	$465.71	*.476*
Total Department Fees	$132.09	$91.75	$-	$115.78	*.391*
Total Non-Required Fees	$505.83	$1,068.25	$206.00	$581.50	*.511*
Graduate					
Miscellaneous Fees	$289.61	$732.50	$234.75	$243.42	*.012*
Total Department Fees	$645.96	$47.95	$-	$443.69	*.546*
Total Non-Required Fees	$935.57	$780.45	$234.75	$687.12	*.776*

	Institutional	Segment	Separate
	Mean		
Undergraduate			
Miscellaneous Fees	$492.00	$452.64	$419.80
Total Department Fees	$-	$68.37	$56.59
Total Non-Required Fees	$492.00	$521.02	$476.38
Graduate			
Miscellaneous Fees	$444.50	$335.76	$323.70
Total Department Fees	$-	$309.01	$396.84
Total Non-Required Fees	$444.50	$644.78	$720.54

Summary of regulation.

The most significant differences in fee structures were within the variable regulation. The institutions that fell under the category of all and all+ had the highest percent fees, as compared to tuition, and had the most regulation as a statewide board oversees all actions at the postsecondary level. These institutions had lower tuition and higher fees, as tuition tends to be more closely monitored. All and degree regulated institutions charged the most to in-state undergraduates for departmental fees. Additionally, miscellaneous fees were higher at institutions with less oversight at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The results indicated that public higher education institutions, which are closely regulated, had a tendency to charge less in tuition but more in fees. These institutions may be increasing fees as tuition is more closely regulated by the state board. Therefore, universities are able to increase fees without the pushback they would receive from increasing tuition and are inherently participating in academic capitalism by charging fees to specific students as a way to generate revenue (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Conclusion

Many factors became apparent in the process of answering the first research question of what are the typical fee structures across public four-year higher education institutions. Typically, institutions were charging the in-state students, on average, 20-26% fees, as compared to tuition, and 15% to out-of-state students. Of the fees collected, a majority of the funds, 47%, are distributed to fees categorized as student services with building/maintenance type fees receiving the next highest allocation at approximately 25%. Graduates students normally paid more for departmental fees, where undergraduates were charged more for the miscellaneous type fees. Generally, each institution charged some sort of non-required fees, whether as a miscellaneous or departmental fee, showing that non-required fees are becoming a typical part of the fee structure.

My results for the second research question indicate that when compared to institutional types fee structures do differ at public four-year institutions. Very high/high research intensive institutions have a different fee structure than non-research intensive institutions, and charge significantly more to the students that attend those institutions. Where not all findings were significant among the Carnegie classifications overall, institutions classified as Ph.D. had the highest mean for required and non-required fees when compared to Masters or Bachelors. Upon examination of the categorical representation very high/high research intensive and Ph.D. type institutions charge the most in the areas of student services and building/maintenance. Generally, the results for fee structures across institutional types provide strong evidence that fee structures do

differ among these variables and indicate the prevalence of academic capitalism within the institutions.

The results from the third, and final, research question show that fee structures do differ on a number of external variables. Where not all the results were significant, the overarching analysis shows that these variables contribute to variations in fee structures at public higher education institutions. At the regional level, the fee structures differed between the eight regions with New England having the highest charges within both tuition and required fees. At the state level the fee structures varied significantly from Mississippi, not charging fees, to Massachusetts, where the fees were significantly higher than tuition. Political culture did not deliver significant findings, however the reporting methods varied between the two datasets. Upon examining governance structures there were significant differences between the fees charged at institutions governed as either coordinated or consolidated versus those governed as planning. The planning category had fewer required fees charged to students compared to those that where governed as coordinated or consolidated. Finally, the variable regulation revealed a number of significant differences as well. The institutions that fall under the category of all and all+ charge the most in tuition and required fees.

My results also go beyond previous studies by separating out tuition from required fees as well as collecting and analyzing data on non-required fees. In the final chapter, further discussion will show how the major findings within the data can be linked back to the theoretical frameworks of academic capitalism, neoliberalism and resource dependency. Additionally, implications for policy and future research will be

discussed in the hopes of disseminating the findings of this study to influence policy changes and inspire future researchers to study fees.

A Descriptive Analysis of Fees at Four-Year Public Universities: Differentiating Between Tuition and Fees

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

The financial facets of society have progressed towards ideologies based on the free market and individual success rather than community achievement. Higher education institutions have followed suit by moving away from their public role to one that is focused on education as a private good (Gumport, 2000). Academia continues to witness rising apprehensions about the increased engagement of universities in academic capitalism as a response to decreased government funding, the commodification of knowledge, and the increased interplay between universities and the private sector (Ylijoki, 2003). Scholars, such as Slaughter, Rhoades, Leslie (1997; 2004) and Ylijoki (2003), maintain that the increasing market-orientation of the higher education sector gives rise to a totally new culture, displacing traditional academic values and norms. As fees become commonplace within public higher education institutions, so too does the understanding that fees are the norm within higher education institutions.

Students are no longer the main factor in the decision-making process, but customers that generate revenue (Eagle & Brennan, 2007). The academic capitalist knowledge learning regime, that is now encapsulating public institutions, needs to be examined so that revenue generation through fees do not further perpetuate this consumerist mentality towards students. As fees are quickly expanding into new areas, including student services, departmental, international, graduate, and campus fees, institutions need to ensure that students are adequately involved. This study was an opportunity to see what was happening and to explore whether institutions are aligning with the theory of academic capitalism as a way to engage in market-like behaviors and remain a competitive entity in the marketplace.

The primary purpose of this study was to collect information that would provide a descriptive picture of what types of fees public institutions are charging. The research differentiated between tuition and fees by separating out the listed tuition that a student faces from the fee portion.

Overview of Problem

A funding crisis has been occurring as state appropriations have decreased at public four-year universities (Jones & Wellman, 2010). The recent economic downturn has caused many state governments to drastically decrease the amount of appropriations institutions are receiving, yet states still attempt to control the price these institutions can charge for tuition, which then causes universities to seek alternative methods of revenue (Mortenson, 2004; Thompson & Zumeta, 2001). Initially, the implementation of fees was seen as a necessary step to combat lost resources as states were continually cutting appropriations. More recently, it appears that universities may be using fees as a tool to remain viable in the marketplace, as higher education has begun to see the inherent benefit of implementing fees into the overall revenue and competitive structure.

Most of the prevailing research relates to tuition and required fees as one unit, rather than looking at them independently. Despite the fact that the majority of the national datasets have helped organize the overwhelming amount of information one can find about the costs of college; they do not provide an accurate representation of the true cost of attendance (Weisbrod, et al., 2008). This is due to the fact that the required fees that are reported to the datasets are only calculated into the final price if the fee is paid by at least 51% of the student body (IPEDS, 2010). Likewise, the current research surrounding tuition and fees looks to combine the two constructs and does not appear to

explore the variations between the two, making it unnecessarily complicated for a potential student to determine the actual cost of attendance. The research conducted in this analysis begins to fill a much needed information gap in the literature, as it is the first of its kind to compare the differences between tuition and fees.

By examining the types of fees being charged, through the lens of academic capitalism, resource dependency, and neoliberalism, the goal of this study was to describe the fee patterns in four-year public institutions in the United States. Illustrating that most fees are not out of necessity, but a way for institutions to follow market trends and increase revenue streams. This study differentiates between tuition and fees through the lens of academic capitalism, filling the research gap that exists regarding differences between these two funding mechanisms. The findings reported in chapter four suggest that the fees public institutions are charging may be a result of market driven behaviors, and not just a consequence of decreased government appropriations. This descriptive study was intended to bring to light a glaring knowledge deficiency regarding fees and through it, the hope is that next steps towards policy change and fee research will take place.

Major Findings

During data collection and analysis for this study, many intriguing findings became apparent. The results indicate substantial support for the idea that fee structures, both at the required and non-required level, differ among the institutional and external variables examined. Furthermore, connections can be made from the results to the three theoretical frameworks of neoliberalism, academic capitalism, and resource dependency.

The major findings for the three overarching research questions will be discussed below in conjunction with the theoretical frameworks.

What are the typical fee structures across four-year public institutions in the United States?

Many factors came to the forefront while discussing the major findings of the first research question, what are the typical fee structures across public four-year higher education institutions? Most public universities, up until approximately a decade ago, had similar and comparatively low tuition and fee pricing for all degree programs, whether the student was at the undergraduate or graduate level (Douglass & Keeling, 2008) as well as charged very similar tuition rates for out-of-state and international students (Weisbrod, et al., 2008). More recently, with neoliberal influences and an academic capitalism focus, institutions have changed how they operate in order to capitalize on each group of students. As discussed in chapter four, institutions are now charging their in-state students 20% to 26% fees, as compared to tuition (on average), and 10% to 15% to out-of-state students, as compared to tuition, showing the differences in the pricing and fee structures at public four-year institutions. The percent differences between in- and out-of-state students is primarily due to the higher tuition rates charged to out-of-state students innately creating a lower fee percentage for those students.

Of the required fees collected, a majority of the funds (47%) are distributed to fees categorized as student services with building/maintenance type fees receiving the next highest allocation (25%). Looking at the categorical breakdown of how fees are used indicates that, although most of the fees are going into services provided for students, a large percent of the fees are allocated to capital projects, auxiliaries, sustainability, and renovations. The finding that institutions are using a substantial

amount towards the building/maintenance category aligns with research conducted by Reynolds (2007) who found the "built environment" is positively related to students choosing to enroll. Demonstrating that institutions are aligning with the academic capitalist tenet of market behavior (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004) by using fees as a way to make their campuses more appealing to future students by building new state of the art facilities, offering new services and products, and keeping up with trends in the marketplace (Reynolds, 2007). Using required fees in this manner may demonstrate that public universities are engaging in academic capitalism to attract the next generation of students, focusing on remaining competitive in the marketplace as opposed to their educational mission.

With regards to non-required fees, in general, graduate students paid more in departmental fees; however they do have a tendency to cost more to educate than undergraduates (Nelson & Hevert, 1992). Of the four individual degree programs examined, the MBA programs charged significantly higher fees (5 to 6 times) than the programs of engineering, art, or education. This statistically significant difference could be a result of a state government's decision to give greater freedom to institutions regarding fees, particularly in programs and degrees where operating costs are relatively high and that produce, on average, high rates of individual return (Douglas & Keeling, 2008; Hearn, 2003). Focusing on the individual benefits, instead of the community, suggests that the neoliberal state is now encompassing public higher education, creating inequities among the students within any given public higher education institution (Yjoki, 2003). Yet seeing as graduate students typically cost more to educate the use of non-required fees may be used to supplement the increased costs incurred by the institutions

and department. Regardless of the actual motive behind the higher fees, it seems that institutions are recognizing graduate students are more willing to invest in their degree and thus are less price responsive than undergraduates (St. John & Starkey, 1995). Therefore institutions are indeed charging higher fees based on what the market will bear, again focusing on institutional gain above all else.

Undergraduate students were also experiencing higher departmental fees among programs that offer a higher rate of return. The business and engineering students paid significantly greater fees than students in the english or science programs. One explanation for this is that specific departments are participating in market behaviors within the academic capitalist mentality by charging more to the students that generally yield higher incomes. Additionally, there was a cost differential among the freshman and junior classes as students deemed junior status incurred higher costs upon reaching that milestone. This approach of increasing fees at the junior level is interesting; most students upon receiving 60 credits have a harder time transferring institutions as that is generally the maximum credits allowed to be transferred. Institutions may perhaps be using this strategy because price responsiveness for first time students is more price sensitive compared to students that have already enrolled (St. John & Starkey, 1995). Thus institutions may be capitalizing on the fact that students feel obligated to complete the rest of their degree at that institution or risk losing the credits earned. Charging more to this particular group of students highlights the niche marketing approach that public four-year institutions are using to increase revenues and participate in academic capitalism (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Initially, financial pressures led to public institutions charging greater fees for high-cost majors (Ehrenberg, 2008). However, it appears that institutions could be, at present, using non-required fees to be more marketable by reinvesting the fees collected back into more profitable departments. Thus drawing more students to the program and further engaging in the competitive higher education market. Based on the data collected in this study, almost every institution now charges some amount of non-required fees, whether as miscellaneous or departmental fees. Using non-required fees to generate additional revenue, public universities are focusing on subsets of students that are able to pay the additional costs, creating unexpected barriers to college participation among the financially disadvantaged. These factors suggest that as non-required fees become a typical part of the fee structure, institutions are changing from a public good to an academic capitalism knowledge learning regime.

Do fee structures differ across institutional types?

Upon investigating the second research question, the results suggest that fee structures do differ at universities across institutional types. For required fees, the difference in means for very high/high research intensive and non-research institutions were not significant; however the non-required fees indicated a significant difference. Very high/high research institutions are charging more in departmental and total non-required fees, and have differing fee structures than the non-research intensive institutions. The largest amount of non-required fees is being charged to the students at very high/high research institutions. This difference shows that the more market driven institutions, defined by a very high/high research status, are using non-required fees more readily than their non-research counterparts. Demonstrating that market based

institutions may be focusing on economic development rather than educational success, changing the way institutions function and the goals of university administrators (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). The reasoning for this shift in focus could be a result of the Ph.D. and very high/high research institutions need to align with the market trends and continue to maintain the perception of being the highest quality institutions in the country.

Ph.D. institutions had the highest mean for required and non-required fees when compared to Masters or Bachelors, revealing that this too could be a consequence of public higher education institutions use of academic capitalism. Both very high/high research and Ph.D. institutions are charging the largest dollar amount in required and non-required fees to their students. These institutions are inherently making it more challenging for students with lower incomes to choose to attend, as enrollment rates are directly affected by the cost of tuition and fees (Callan, 2006). As a result, public research institutions are creating a situation where the upper-class students' benefit, limiting accessibility to these types of institutions for students coming from lower income families (Heller, 2002).

Upon examination of the categorical breakdown, it seems that Ph.D. and very high/high research institutions are allocating the largest amount of fees to student services at their institutions. When compared to the four other institution types, Masters institutions allocated the most funding to the fee category of academic services and Bachelors allocated the most funds to technology. Masters and Bachelors institutions also had a larger percentage of revenue coming from the state than did Ph.D. institutions (Desrocher & Wellman, 2011). Therefore, decreases in-state appropriations may have

more of an impact and, as a result, Masters and Bachelors institutions may be more dependent on fees, as state support dwindles, to fill the educational expenses, possibly explaining the larger percentage of fees going to academic services and technology and the closer association with resource dependency theory. Interestingly, the findings also show that very high/high research, Ph.D., and Masters institutions have already shifted the focus of their institutions to the "new economy", as each type of institution did not allocate as much to technology and infrastructure based fees. Bachelors type institutions are further behind, allocating more fees to technology potentially with the hope of remaining competitive and adapting to the new economy.

Another significant finding regarding the mean differences between the institution types of Ph.D., Masters, and Bachelors was with the category of building/maintenance demonstrating that certain types of institutions are using this type of fee differently. The fee encompasses items classified as building fees, maintenance, repair and renovation (R&R), auxiliary, operations, capital projects as well as any type of energy driven fee. The difference among the institutions could indicate that those allocating more funds towards these fee categories are, in turn, investing in more entrepreneurial type activities, which generate more revenue for the institution (Reynolds, 2006). Institutions are then able to derive supplementary income from other sources, by charging a price for services that used to be free or increasing the price of items that used to be subsidized or provided at cost (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Therefore, they are then aligning with the ideals of neoliberalism and academic capitalism stepping away from the notion of fees as simply a necessary resource, to fees as a revenue generating endeavor.

Do fee structures differ across external and/or state characteristics?

After examining the external and state characteristics, fee structures do differ among the various higher education institutions. As stated in chapter four, regionally the structures varied significantly with New England charging the highest amount to its students across all variables. One explanation for this is that the New England region is able to charge more as there is greater student mobility within that area than any other region (Douglas & Keeling, 2008). Subsequently, public institutions actively compare the price charged at rival universities outside of their state to create justifications for their proposed price increases (Hearn, et al., 1996; Koshal & Koshal, 2000). Therefore, the higher price tag in the New England region continually drives the price of tuition and fees higher (Douglas & Keeling, 2008). And so, public institutions are not basing revenue needs off of sound financial analysis, but the need to be closer to the economic norm that is deemed a necessary increase to remain marketable among their peers.

Furthermore, at the state level, even though the fee structures varied significantly from state to state, all states (with the exception of Mississippi) did charge fees to every subpopulation of students. The findings suggest that political pressure has hastened the trend to use fees. It appears as though public four-year universities are using the lack of institutional control surrounding tuition to increase fee revenue and remain a viable entity in the higher education market among national competitors.

The variable of political culture did not deliver significant findings. However, the data collected varied between the IPEDS and primary datasets. In IPEDS, public institutions classified as Individualistic reported fees, as a percent of tuition, below that of the universities falling under the moralistic grouping. However, the primary data showed

the institutions that were classified as moralistic had lower fees, as a percent of tuition, than those categorized as individualistic. Further, analysis suggests that because public institutions report their own numbers in the IPEDS dataset, individualistic institutions may be reporting numbers that play to their political and financial objectives, as their primary goal is to have government run like a business (Miller, 1991; Sharkansky, 1969). If so, this would be much in line with the ideals of neoliberalism. Alternatively, moralistic institutions seem to be reporting a more accurate representation of the costs, as they view government as a public service and are not looking to directly benefit from business type activities (Elazar, 1972). Additionally, institutions classified as individualists had the highest non-required fees across all categories when compared to institutions that were moralistic or traditionalistic. Again, indicating that there are differences in fee structures across institutions, based in a shift towards the neoliberal mindset. Those differences can be linked to institutions that are participating in academic capitalism (e.g., individualistic) through a market-based approach in the financing of higher education.

Despite the insignificant findings surrounding the variable political culture, with regards to fees, this could indicate that perhaps fees are still outside of the realm of political influence at the state level and legislatures have little, if any, control over fees at public higher education institutions. This also suggests a shift in mindset of education as a public good, where information flows freely, to one that emphasizes individual institutional success with the focus on being a part of the neoliberal state.

Upon examining governance structures, there were significant differences between the fees charged at public institutions governed as either coordinated or

consolidated versus those governed as planning. Planning had fewer required fees charged to students where those that where governed as coordinated or consolidated had higher required fees. This is an intriguing finding, as institutions that have a governance structure of planning are not controlled directly by the state legislature and do not have the same tuition and fee restrictions as those institutions with a coordinated or consolidated governance structure. Recent research found that the more centralized a structure is, the more apt it is to respond to statewide political priorities, favoring lower tuition (Knott & Payne, 2003). Therefore institutions with more control at the state level, and less control over tuition, are charging more in fees to their students, indicating that those institutions are increasingly dependent on resources from the state. If cuts are made at the state level, these institutions are more likely to increase fees as a tactic to counteract receiving less state support (Knott & Payne, 2003) and thereby engage in resource dependency theory.

Alternatively, the institutions that had a planning structure saw much higher non-required fees than those institutions governed as coordinated or consolidated. Planning structures tend to push the behavior of public university senior administrators toward a private model that relies more on tuition and fee revenue rather than state appropriations (Knott & Payne, 2003). Charging more in non-required fees indicates that these institutions are indeed attempting to acquire additional revenue outside of tuition and in turn remain competitive among their peer institutions. Furthermore, in higher education, higher costs are generally an indicator of quality, and if planning institutions have the highest departmental costs than their departments may be perceived as higher quality (Ehrenberg, 2008). Therefore, these departments will charge higher rates bringing in

more revenue and thus attracting more students to their institution, disseminating the academic capitalistic temperament.

The most significant differences in fee structures were within the variable regulation. Regulation showed what parts of the higher education system were regulated by a statewide higher education board. Current research has revealed that resources are higher at universities with a decentralized board which has fewer regulatory powers (Knott & Payne, 2004). My findings support this research as the institutions that fall under the category of all and all plus had the highest percent fees as compared to tuition, and had the most regulation as a statewide board oversees all actions at the postsecondary level. These institutions also have lower tuition and higher fees, as tuition is more closely regulated by the state board. Therefore, universities are able to increase fees without the pushback they would receive from increasing tuition and are inherently participating in academic capitalism by charging fees to specific students as a way to generate revenue (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

All and degree regulated institutions charge the most to in-state undergraduates for departmental fees, and since they are tightly controlled, they are using departmental fees to bypass the tuition process and bring more money directly back to the institutions without oversight from the state boards. Additionally, miscellaneous fees were higher at institutions with lower levels of oversight at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The findings suggest that those public higher education institutions that are closely regulated have a tendency to charge less in tuition, but more in fees. By doing so, highly regulated public institutions are not only using fees as a way to derive supplementary income but pursue various privileged niche student markets that can afford the hidden

costs beyond tuition. Thus highly regulated public institutions are conforming to the academic capitalist knowledge learning regime (Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

Examining the variables above compared to fees, shows that all three of the theoretical frameworks of neoliberalism, academic capitalism, and resource dependency are influencing variations in the fee structures at public four-year institutions. Institutions that are more research intensive tend to charge higher fees than non-research intensive, indicating that research institutions may be using fees as a way to increase revenue, enhance perceived quality, and remain competitive in the marketplace. External variables also have an influence over the variation in fee structures exhibiting that fees are not as simple in their creation as one might think. Fees play a role in revenue generation on public four-year campuses, which is why the policies surrounding fees will be explored in an effort to show that changes are necessary before the use of fees spirals further out of control.

Implications for Policy

Upon determining the findings of this study, it became necessary to examine the policy surrounding student fees. As in the case of tuition policies, there are indeed a multitude of state and institutional policies regarding the creation, implementation, and use of both required and non-required student fees. The policy environment concerning fees is still in its infancy, and many, it would seem, may not want it to change anytime soon. The discussion below will explore future policy implications in an effort to improve the current policy environment.

Future policy implications.

Fee policies, currently in place, at public four-year institutions reflect the influence not only of what peer institutions are doing but also the need to maintain a sense of control. As state appropriations have declined, decisions on corresponding fee increases are sensitive to the overall percentage increase in fees and the overall decline in total resources generated on a per student basis. Currently, only a handful of states reported that changes in fee policies are being considered in the near future. For example, California, after changing its tuition and fee structure last year, reports that it is probable that fee policies will change (SHEEO, 2011). However there was no indication of what type of changes they are considering, in the interim creating an environment where fees are steadily increasing, and in some cases, faster than tuition (Weisbrod, et al., 2008).

A few states are reviewing current fee policies and will consider changes after the evaluation of the current policies are complete but the majority will not. As one further delves into the arena of public policy, one starts to see the multitude of issues of defining a problem in policy making, as it is not as clear cut as it appears. Investigating fees of any type, on the surface, seems like an objective task. However, due to the impact of our own individual experiences, each person comes to a different conclusion about what they believe to a reasonable fee.

With that said, it appears that fee policies are not likely to change anytime soon, unless policy makers begin to see the importance of creating consistent policies surrounding required and non-required fees. Policy makers need to confront a number of issues with respect to the use of fees at public higher education institutions. As tuition

prices are carefully monitored, the current policy environment allows at least half of all states to permit the individual institutions to set their own required fees and even more individual institutions have control over setting non-required fees. Both state and institutional policy makers need to ensure that financially disadvantaged students are not priced out as a result of a fee increase, and understand that nearly unaffordable pricing for middle-class students may increasingly lower access rates, and lead to a political backlash (Heller, 2002).

Furthermore, lack of differentiation between tuition and fees relates back to what types of fee policies, especially at the departmental and organizational levels, institutions have adopted in an effort to control revenue streams. As accountability continues to remain a hot button issue, this aspect of missing information about fees will surface as the key stakeholders want answers. If policies at the state and institutional levels require universities to provide this information upfront, they could potentially face less opposing behaviors than the institutions that have already implemented these fees with less transparency. Institutions need to create policy that is clear in the way the fees will be collected, used, and ultimately increased.

One of the first steps that policy makers need to do to is create clear policy that redefines what comprises a required fee, so that institutions are reporting the same information. As fee policies are rather vague at the institutional and state levels, it creates inconsistencies among the national datasets. Since datasets are used not only to research fees, but as a way for students and their families to do cost comparisons, it becomes extremely vital to establish reliable reporting. In my analysis I continually noted countless ways that institutions were reporting required fees. For example, public

institutions were sometimes reporting the additional charge for out-of-state students as tuition and some as fees making data collection for the primary dataset inconsistent with the national datasets. Creating consistent definitions that reflect how fees are being used at public four-year institutions allows the information collected to be a much more accurate representation of the true cost of attendance, rather than an approximation.

Additionally, the IPEDS dataset only reports information on required fees that the institutions claim to be required of more than 51% of the student populations. Currently, no public institutions are obligated to report their non-required fees to any secondary sources, painting an incomplete picture of the total cost to attend. The non-required fees are hidden and sometimes impossible to determine unless you are actually enrolled in the course or program. Throughout my data collection, I was continually surprised by the various types of non-required fees I would have never thought to look for, such as "new student fees" and an "ID service and access fee." These types of hidden fees made it extremely difficult to research the final total, and fundamentally more difficult for a potential student to determine the cost. Furthermore, the current environment focuses on the politics surrounding non-required fees, as most institutions allow the entity collecting that fee to keep all funds within their unit, where tuition is spilt among administration and departments. Policy makers need to understand that the lack of policy surrounding non-required fees creates a situation where certain departments thrive and others fail. Therefore, policy makers need to, first and foremost, require public institutions to report all fees regardless of how many students are paying them.

Policy makers also need to grasp the implications surrounding financial aid, even though aid can be used to pay for fees, the additional student costs need to be considered

when examining fee policy, as these costs significantly impact student access and achievement (Badolato, 2008). Such as in the case of Massachusetts, where I found that the fee portion of the bill is at least double that of tuition. If institutions are able to significantly increase the fee portion of the bill, students may be unprepared for the new costs surrounding their education. Through the alignment of polices from both financial aid and fees the affects surrounding change from either side will be more harmonious as opposed to conflicting changes that affect students and their families in potentially negative ways. It is essential for policy makers to realize that these two items are interwoven and that making strategic policy decisions can provide an accurate representation of the cost of attendance while still maintaining quality.

Finally, as tuition and state appropriations have been shown to be linked to one another (Koshal & Koshal, 2000; Strathman, 2004) the same may hold true for state appropriations and fees. Therefore, the policy environment between the two need to be examined to ensure that if state appropriations drastically decrease and tuition is controlled, students are not seeing a large increase in either required or non-required fees. Examining strategic and long term plans for state funding may help control the fee increases, however until policy is created that includes both required and non-required fees, students will continue to see increases in fees and in turn be priced out of higher education regardless of ability level.

Higher education policy, as with most policy areas, continues to be extremely dynamic, handling public problems through a value-laden process within a political system (Fowler, 2009). This environment makes shaping educational policy, now more than ever, an intricate and complicated process that involves the interplay of numerous

individuals. With the public crying out for more information, many legislators and university administrators have attempted to create policies that ensure tuition remains low. This has led to pressure, on the part of the institution, to come up with alternative ways of increasing revenue. Ultimately, universities have started to turn to fees to make up that difference. It is important for policy makers to realize that unless fees are examined, some institutions may take advantage of the fact that there is no limit to how much they can raise these fees.

Implications for Research: Lack of Fee Data

Upon completion of data collection, of both the primary and secondary datasets, it became apparent that despite the fact that both were gathering the same type of information, the outcome between the two had a number of discrepancies. The first difference is the variation in the reporting of in-state versus out-of-state students. In IPEDS, the institutions are able to choose how they would like to report the tuition and fees, creating inconsistencies as many of the fees that I discovered for out-of-state students were classified as tuition in the IPEDS data. Additionally, how graduate students costs are collected and reported creates discrepancies in the data, as this research defined a FTE student as nine credits whereas IPEDS allows the institutions to determine what full-time represented. Inherently, varying methods of reporting creates inconsistent data among similar research.

Additionally, as one attempts to determine the true cost of attendance, many of the fees are often difficult to define. National datasets have not yet required public four-year institutions to itemize the required fees they charge and explain whether they are charged per credit, per semester, or annually. In turn, making it problematic to delineate

correlation affects based on the types of fees institutions are charging. Non-required fee data has been nonexistent until this study and is challenging to collect as every individual institution has a unique method of how non-required fees are implemented, used, and distributed across the campus units.

Overall the current data encompassing fees makes researching them a cumbersome task for those willing to undertake it. If the data collected by national datasets were not only more consistent, but also included required and non-required fees, scholars would be able to examine this under researched area much more effectively. This could create a research environment that is less focused on the collection of accurate data and more focused on examining the issues in much more depth. Then, information of this magnitude would provide all interested parties the necessary data to make sound decisions and truly see what is affecting fee structures at public four-year institutions.

In order to improve upon the current data collection methods public four-year institutions need to report all fees, required or non-required, in a manner that is easily identifiable. Each fee needs to be reported and itemized, if necessary, right alongside the tuition costs on the institution websites and based on consistent measurement. For instance, if tuition is charged per credit hour, fees should be presented in the same manner, to alleviate any confusion for students and their families attempting to understand the variations. Furthermore, the national datasets must also require public institutions to report tuition, required fees, in an itemized fashion, and non-required fees regardless of how many students pay them. Finally, the definitions between the national datasets regarding student FTE status, tuition, and fees needs to be consistent among them, in an effort to present data that provides an accurate representation of the cost. In

the next section, possible research topics will be explored that will build on the data collected in this particular study.

Future research.

Upon completion of the data collection and analysis, many questions surfaced as the results were examined that warrant further research, in an effort to better understand the fee structures at public four-year institutions. The first area that deserves additional investigation is the affect that fee structures have on accessibility. Where this research begins to demonstrate the differential pricing models being used, it does not explain the possible effects that the model would have on a potential student. This leads to critical questions that need to be explored to understand fee structures at any given public institution. For instance, when students enroll in an institution and/or department are students told about these fees upfront, or are institutions giving them the "sticker" price? If they are told about the fees, what kind of information are they given, if any, about how those fees are being used to further their educational development? Are specific degrees/majors that are higher priced alienating lower income students? By exploring these types of questions, the results could lead to information about accessibility barriers that fees may be creating and provide feedback on how students choose a particular institution or program.

Although my analysis used cross-sectional data, the results have implications for the effects of economic shifts over time. As public higher education institutions have continually lost state appropriations over the last few decades, it becomes apparent that, at some point, public institutions would need to recover the lost revenue. Further work

using time series or panel data is warranted in order to study the effects of fees over time in relation to decreasing state funding.

Further research is also necessary on the specific policies used by institutions to regulate required and non-required fees, and their effects on rate setting behaviors. More specifically, questions that need to be examined are, what types of fee policies have institutions adapted and implemented in an effort to increase revenue streams? What portion of tuition is actually covering educational instruction and what part of tuition and/or fees are covering the other costs associated with a student's higher education experience? Researching current policies could provide the opportunity to see just how entrepreneurial institutions are being in the creation of fees on their campuses.

Granted, the research in this study did collect every name of both the required and non-required fees, the data was not used to study the actual language surrounding the individual fee titles. Since a main driver behind this study was the framework of academic capitalism, the ability to investigate the language used in the actual fee titles could be helpful in determining if market behaviors are indeed present, making for an interesting research approach. Therefore, a discourse analysis on fees is also another method to studying the creation of fees and the evolution that the language may have taken, in an effort to remain a competitive force in market trends occurring at public four-year institutions.

Along those same parameters, due to the large number of unique fees discovered, it seemed appropriate to postulate on how aware people are regarding the additional charges they see on their tuition bill. Therefore, further research may also be warranted from the qualitative standpoint to study how fees affect parents, students, siblings, etc.

Examining this segment leads to questions like, what do parents and students perceive are the pros and cons of institutions implementing fees? According to students, what types of fees (e.g., student activity, recreational, IT, departmental) are institutions using and why? What are the perceived differences between tuition and "fees"? Are students and parents told about these fees upfront? If so, does this affect where the student or their siblings choose to attend? Collecting data on the perception of fees could provide support in the policy arena, as the information would come directly from the individuals these legislators serve.

As this was primarily a descriptive study, the next logical step is to look closer at correlational affects with regards to fees. Through regression analysis, fees could be compared to a number a variables likely to have an effect on fee-setting behaviors both for required and non-required fees. Research would investigate the associations between any number of variables and fee structures at public universities. The following research questions could be examined, as four-year public institution revenue streams differ across institutions; do institutions' fee structures also differ? Does the relationship between institutional revenues and fee structures differ between required and non-required fees? Examining certain variables as well as looking at both required and non-required fees could potentially show relationships between changing funding sources and fee-setting behaviors at public four-year higher education institutions.

Described throughout this study, this has been an exploratory analysis that has used publicly available data to address the three main research questions regarding the differing fee structures at public four-year institutions. Each research question was able to be thoroughly vetted with the data collected and then tied to the three theoretical

frameworks that guided the entire process. However, more research is needed in an effort to expand our understanding of fee structures at public higher education institutions. Future researchers should not only question the current data being collected on fees, but find a method to create consistency among the national datasets.

Conclusion

There are seemingly countless, often conflicting, demands on today's American public higher education system from, differing missions, to rising costs as well as increased accountability and a diversifying student body. Through time, higher education continues to transform by intermingling with major forces such as global economics, neoliberal politics, and academic capitalism. Just as capitalist culture and economic systems influenced the private sector, public universities and colleges need to realize that this pressure has also predisposed higher education to market based changes. Therefore, the manifestations of academic capitalism are copious. Competition and market forces on public higher education campuses can been seen in recent increases in student consumerism, growth in part-time faculty, and the deepened reliance of internal financing, or more specifically fees.

Fees have, and continue to be, an area of public higher education that typically remains undisclosed with regards to perceived versus actual costs. Students and their families are faced with an ever increasing tuition bill, and once fees are added into the price, could potentially eliminate certain subpopulations of students from attending while others thrive. Since public institutions are not required to report all fees, required or non-required, students may experience instances of increased costs without even knowing they exist. A primary example being, while attempting to compile all the required

documents I needed to submit to the graduate school, in order to graduate, I discovered a processing fee required of all graduate students. The fee ranges from $65 to $215 and is "required" in order to graduate, however it is not an easy cost to discover as it was buried under numerous other requirements and also not listed on the Graduate schools website. The ironic thing is that even after all my research I am still finding hidden fees at my own institution, but more importantly throughout every aspect of the higher education experience as fees seem to have become a normative discourse of the academic capitalist knowledge learning regime. By hiding fees from students, institutions are creating situations where a student looking to graduate may not have the funds necessary to pay the processing fee, and, in turn, create even further financial barriers for students. If all fees, whether required, non-required, one-time, or annual, were told to students and families up front, they would be able to be prepared for the additional costs throughout their postsecondary education experience.

With that said, the educational leaders of today are continually faced with innumerable challenges that would have been unimaginable in a previous era. Today, these individuals are trying to deal with increasing competition precipitated by the rise of free market capitalism, shifting population demographics that have stemmed from enhanced mobility, and seemingly endless technological and cultural evolutions (Smith & Hughey, 2006). All of the changes that society continues to go through are having a deep impact on the primary nature of the academic world. Being a leader in an educational institution offers the opportunity to reshape society by educating our future leaders about the ever changing academic and political landscape. Educational leaders today need to

realize the significant role they play in how fees are implemented and used, creating policy that is transparent and equitable.

As much of the current policies specifically focus on only tuition, it becomes necessary for the current policy environment to examine what type of fee policies are being implemented, if at all. Educational leaders and policy makers need to create policy that enables any student who wants to further their educational development to be able to do so without the burden of decades of unexpected debt. Fundamentally, the policy process can be extremely effective, however if the policies that currently exist surrounding fees are not examined, the inherent value of having a policy in place will not benefit the public good and thus negates the purpose of public policy. More importantly, through this study and future research I hope to enlighten policy makers about the status of fees in public universities and allow policy to be created that will change the current fee environment from a hidden procedure to a more evident process.

Despite the amount of information collected on the revenue of public four-year institutions, this study has only scratched the surface of the fee structures they employ. In the academic capitalism knowledge learning regime, society has shifted its focus towards the success of the individual through entrepreneurialism, innovation, and the market (Slaughter & Leslie, 1997). Upon examination of the data, it appears that fees embody that mindset. Consistent with the theory of academic capitalism, institutions are focusing on market-like behaviors, through the way they are allocating fees within their institutions. Universities are requiring students to pay into capital projects, auxiliary services, and new initiatives which allow the institution to generate additional revenue following market trends, in turn using fees as a strategic approach to remain competitive

in our global economy. Further research needs to be conducted that continues to separate tuition from fees as they vary in the ways they are utilized on public higher education campuses. The primary goal should seek to ensure the institutions remain mission-centered and not market driven, creating policies in a manner that allows students to acquire all the necessary financial information to make a sound decision concerning what they can and cannot afford.

Appendix A – Required Fees 2011-12

Academic Advising Fee
Academic Building Fee
Academic Credentialing Fee
Academic Enhancement
Academic Excellence & Success Fee
Academic Excellence Fee
Academic Facilities Maintenance Fund Assessment
Academic Facilities Maintenance Fund Assessment (AFMFA)
Academic Facility & Life Safety Fee
Academic Records Fee
Academic Support
Accident/Sickness Insurance
Ackerman/Kerckhoff Seismic Fee
Activity & Service Fee
Activity Center Fee
Activity Fee
Activity, Service, Building & Rec Fee
Administrative Fee
Advising Services Fee
AFAT program fee (Scholarship)
Allocable Segregated Fee
Alumni Association
Ancillary
Application Fee
Arts
Arts & Cultural Enrichment Fee
Arts & Cultural Events Fee
Arts & Lecture Support Fee
Arts & Lectures
ASA
ASMSU Fee
ASMSU Tax
Assessment Fee
Associated Grad Student Accounting Fee
Associated Grad Student Fee
Associated Student Accounting Fee
Associated Student Fee
Associated Students Program Board (ASPB) fee
Association of Student Governments
ASUC Fee
ASUCD Fee
Athletic Events Fee
Athletic Fees

Athletic Field House
Athletics - Arena Fund
Athletics & Campus Recreation
Auxiliary Capital Fees
Auxiliary Construction
Auxiliary Enterprise Maintenance Fund
Auxiliary Facilities
Auxiliary Operating
Auxiliary Services Fees
Bad Debt Expense
Band
Banner Implementation Fee
Bicycle Path Maintenance Fee
Bike
Board of Publications
Bond Fee
Book Rental Fee
Bren Events Center Fee
Broadcast Communication Authority
Building Fee
Building Repair & Maintenance
Bursar Fee
Bus Pass
Campus Activity Fee
Campus Card
Campus Center Board
Campus Center Debt Service
Campus Center Fee
Campus Center Operations
Campus Center Operations & Recreation
Campus Development
Campus Dining Fee
Campus Environmental Improvement Fee
Campus Expansion Initiative
Campus Facilities Fee
Campus Fee
Campus Health Care Fee
Campus Learning Assistance Services (AS)
Campus Learning Assistance Services (Student Lock in)
Campus Life Fee
Campus Life Support
Campus Program Fee
Campus Recreation
Campus Recreation - SRC Operations / R & R
Campus Recreation Center Bond Fee
Campus Spirit Fee

Campus Sustainability Program Fee
Campus transportation systems and parking lots utilized by students
Campus wide Student Government Fee
Capital & Equipment Fee
Capital Construction
Capital Construction/New & Renovation
Capital Fee
Capital Improvement Trust Fund
Capital Outlay Fee
Capital Enhancement Fee
Capital Enrichment Fee
Capital Improvement Fee
Career Center Fee
Career Services Fee
Carmichael Complex - Indebtedness
Center for Academic Support
Center for Early Childhood Education
Center for Health and Well Being
Child Care Center Fee
Child Care Construction Fee
Child Care Tuition Assistance Program (CCTAP)
Childcare Services
Choir
Class Pass Fee (Transit)
Classroom Renewal Fee
Clean Energy Fund
Cleaner Energy Technologies Fee
C-net
Coastal Fund
COGS Tax
College Activities Building (CAB) Renovation
College Center
College Event Fee
College Fee
College Student Government Fee
Collegiate Readership Fee
Commons/Union Operations / R & R
Communication Fee
Community Affairs Board
Community and Resource Empowerment Fee
Complex Expansion Fee
Comprehensive Fee
Comprehensive Fee Auxiliary
Comprehensive Fee Education & General
Computer Access Fee
Computer Fee

Computer Lab Fees
Computer Lab Replacement Fee
Computing & Networking Services Fee
Computing and information technology: library automation, remote network access, public computing sites, student automation
COMS Tax
ConnectND Fee
Consolidated University service Fee
Contingency
Cooperative Wilderness Handicapped Outdoor Group (C.W. HOG)
COTA Fee (Transit)
Council of College Boards
Counseling & Psychological Services
Counseling Center Fees
Crisis Intervention
CSUN Fee
Cultural Arts and Diversity Fee
Cultural Programming Fee
Cultural/Rec Fee
Curriculum Support Fee
Data Center
Debate Team
Debt Service (auxiliary)
Debt Service (OOS)
Debt Service Fee
Deferred Maintenance Fee
Disabled Student Services
Distributed Learning Fee
Diversity Development
Division I Fee
E&G Capital Fees
E&G Facilities Construction and Renewal
Education Equipment Trust Fund (HEETF)
Education Network Connectivity Fee
Educational & Technology Fee
Educational Activities
Educational Opportunity Fund
Educational opportunity Services Fee
Educational Services Fee
Endowment Scholarship Fee
Energy Fee
Energy Surcharge Fee
Engaging Education Program Fee
Enrollment Services
Environmental Services Fee
Environmental Stewardship

Equipment Fee
Ethnic Studies Fee
Event Center Fee
Events Center
Extended Access & Support
Facilities and Campus Enhancements Fee
Facilities Maintenance Fee
Facilities Use Fee
Facility Fee
Family Development Center Fee Bond Fee
Family Development Center Fee Operating Fee
Financial Aid Trust
Fine Arts
Fitness Facilities Fee
FM Radio Tax
Free/Anonymous HIV Testing Fee
Furniture & Equipment
Gender Resource Center
General Activity Fee
General Auxiliary
General Fee
General Services Fee
General Student Services Fund (GSSF)
Golf
Grad Fee
Graduate Class Fee
Graduate Senate Tax
Graduate Site Fee
Graduate Student Association (GSAUCR) Conference Travel Grant
Graduate Student Association (GSAUCR) Fee Fellowship
Graduate Student Facilities Fee
Graduate Student Fee Allocation
Graduate Student Senate
Graduate Student Services
Graduate Sustaining Fee
Graduate Writing Center Fee
Graduate/Professional Fee
Graduation Fee
Green Campus Action Plan
Green Fee
Green Initiative Fund Fee
GSA Fee (Graduate Student Association)
Health & Wellness Fee
Health Center/Facility Fee
Health Fee
Health Network

Health Services and Counseling
Health/Rec Fee
ID Card Fee
Incidental
Increase Library Hours of Operation Fee
Infirmary Fee
Information Technology and Instructional Equipment fee
Infrastructure Maintenance Fee
In state Facilities Fee
Institution Fee
Institutional Evaluation
Instructional Equipment Fee
Instructional Fee
Instructional Support Fee
iNtegrate Fee
Intercollegiate athletic, recreation and intramural programs
Intercollegiate Athletics - Indebtedness
Intercollegiate Athletics Facility Fee
Intercollegiate Athletics Fee
Intercollegiate Athletics Fee - Operations
Intercollegiate Athletics Sports
International Education Fee
International Programs Fee
International Student Maintenance Fee
International Studies Fee
International Study Abroad
Intramural and Sports Club Team Activities Fee
Intramural Sports Facility Fee
Intramurals/Recreation
IRA Fee
IT Infrastructure Fee
ITL
Johnson Center
KAMP (Student Radio)
KJHK
Krannert Fee
Lab Fee
Late Night Shuttle Fee
Leadership & Counselor Training
Leadership Program Fee
Learning Support Services Fee
Learning Technology Fee
Legacy Scholarship Fee
Legal Clinic
Legal Services for Students Fee
Library and Information Technology Assessment

Library Automation and Materials Fee
Library Excellence Fee
Library Fee
Library Technology Fee
Library/Information Tech
Life Safety Fee
Locker Services
Lower Sproul Fee
Magazine
Mandatory Fees
Marching Band
Marine Discovery Center Fee
Matriculation
Matriculation (Graduate)
Measure S (Transportation)
Medical Service Fee
Memorial Gym Cage/Swim Center
Microsoft Licensing Fee
Miscellaneous Fees
Money Manage
Multi-Cultural Center
Multicultural Center Fee
Municipal Services
Museum & Planetarium Fee
Music & Theater
Music Ensemble
Network & Data Systems Fee
Network Access Fee
Newcomb Hall
Newspaper Initiative
Newspaper Readership Fee
Night & Weekend Parking Fee
Non Allocable Segregated Fee
Non-Resident Student Financial Aid
Non-Resident Building Fee
Non-Resident Fee
Non-Resident Surcharge
Office of Multicultural Affairs Fee
Office of Student Life
Omnibus Fee
Operating Fee
Operational Fee
Organization Fee
Organizational Relief Fund
Out-of-state Facilities Fee
Out-of-state Fees

Out-of-state Financial Aid Fee
Parking and pedestrian access fee
Parking Fee
Parking Safety and Transportation Fee
PC Maintenance
Performing Arts
Physical Education Program Fee
PIRG Fee
Pledge Fee (Practicing Leadership and Empowerment to Develop Growth through Education)
Popejoy
Processing Fee
Professional Enhancement Fee
Program Elimination Bridge Fee
Programs & Services Fee
Programs and facilities that promote the quality of campus life
Proration Fee
Public Council
Public Safety Fee
Quivera
Radio
Rebel Recycling Fee
Rec Activity Fee
Rec Bond
Rec Program
Rec Sports
Rec Sports Center Fee
Rec/Fac Fee
ReCen2 Expansion
Recreation and Wellness Center Fee
Recreation Center/Aquatics
Recreational Center - Indebtedness
Recreational Services/Physical Education Building
Recreational Sports Office Operations
Recruitment and Retention Centers fee
Registration Fee
Renewable Energy Fee
Repair & Rehabilitation Fee
Reserve - Student Affairs
Retirement of Debt
Return to Aid Assessment
Revenue Bond
Rodeo
Saferide Fee
Safety Fee
Sales Tax

Scholarship Funds
Scholarships
School & College Government
School Fee
Science Bldg. Facility Fee
Security Services Fee
Security, Safety, & Transportation Fee
Segregated Fees
Seismic Safety Fee
Senate Appropriations
Service & Activities Fee
Service Fee
SFEP Fee - Student Facilities Enhancement Project
Shoreline Initiative Fee
Shuttle Bus
SIFC Administration
Software Licensing Fee
Solar Energy Fee
Special Equity Fee
Special Event Fee
Special Fees
Special Fund Fee
Spirit Squad
Sports Clubs
Stadium Fee
Stadium System Debt Service Fee
State Building Fee
State News Tax
Strategic Initiative Fee
Student (Memorial) Union Fee
Student Activity Fee
Student Affairs
Student Alumni Fee
Student Alumni Partnership
Student Assembly
Student Association Fee
Student Attorney
Student Band/Choir
Student Body Fee
Student Bus & Bike Programs
Student Center - Expansion
Student Center Association for Student Activity Programming
Student Center Facilities Construction/Renovations
Student Center Facility Fee
Student Center Fee
Student Center Operations and Maintenance Fee

Student Center Operations Fee
Student Center Repairs and Renovations Fee
Student Communication Fee
Student Computing Fee
Student Counseling Fee
Student Event/Performance Fee
Student Facilities Fee
Student Facilities Improvements
Student Facilities Safety Fee
Student Faculty Fee
Student Fee
Student Financial Aid Fee
Student Fitness & Wellness Fee
Student Government Activity Fee
Student Government Association
Student Government Programming, Support, and Initiatives
Student Green Energy Fee
Student Health
Student Health Center Expansion Fee
Student Health Center Fee
Student Health Center Green Building Fee
Student Health Insurance
Student Health Medical Clearance Fee
Student Health Service - Expansion
Student Health Services
Student health, counseling and disability services
Student Information Fee (SIS)
Student Initiative fee
Student Involvement
Student Life
Student Life Facilities Fee
Student Life Program
Student Media Council Fee
Student Media Fee
Student Medical Emergency Relief Fund
Student Org Resource Fee
Student Organizations
Student Orgs / Involvement
Student Programming
Student Programs, Activities, and Resources Complex Fee
Student Publications Fee
Student Recreation Center Fee
Student Research Grants
Student Resources Building
Student Senate Activity Fee
Student Service Facility (Building) Fee

Student Services Fee
Student Services Maintenance Fee and Student Activities and Services Initiative Fee
Student Services Maintenance Fund
Student Services Renewal Energy Initiative
Student Support Fee
Student Sustainability Fee
Student Sustainability Initiative
Student Technology Course Materials Fee
Student to Student Fee
Student to Student Grant
Student Union Activities Fee
Student Union Activity Board Fee
Student Union Bond Fee
Student Union Building Fee
Student Union Improvement
Student Union Maintenance Fund
Student Union Operations & Amortization
Student Union Operations Fee
Student Union Refurbishing
Student Union Renovation Fee
Student Union Repair & Replacement
Student Voice and Empowerment Fee
Student Voice Initiative
Student Wellness Program
Students for Equal Access to Learning Fee
Study Abroad Scholarship Fee
Support GIIP Fee
Sustainability
Sustainability Center
Sustainability Office Fee
Sustainable Campus Environment Fee
Sustainable Food, Health, and Wellness Fee
Sustaining the Student Media Voice Fee
TARGUM Fee (Newspaper)
Technology Enhancement Fee
Technology Fee
Technology Innovation Fund
Technology Replacement Fee
Technology Upgrades
Telecom/Networking
Temporary Repair & Rehab
TGIF Fee (Green Initiative Fund)
Theater Arts Fee
Theatre Building - Indebtedness
Transcript Fee
Transportation Fee

Transportation/Facilities Fee
Tuition Differential
Tuition Technology Fee
TV (Student)
Ucen Center Fee
Unified Student Fee
United Council
Unitrans
University Center
University Center Bond Fee
University Center Fee
University Children's Center
University Commons Fee
University Division Services Fee
University Facility Fee
University Fee
University Program and Facilities Fee
University Service Fee
University Support Fee
Utilities
Visual Arts Board
Wellness Center Fee
William & Mary Hall
Wireless Implementation Fee
Women's & Non-revenue Intercollegiate Sports
Women's Center Fee
Women's Mass Transit
Wooden Center Fee
Writing Center Fee
WTJU
Yearbook

Appendix B – Non-Required Fees 2011-12

Advanced Enrollment Deposit
Application Fee
Arts
Business Orientation
Document Fee
Education
Engineering
Engineering Program Fee
Freshman Business
Freshman Counseling Fee
Freshman Education
Freshman Engineering
Freshman English
Freshman Hard Sciences
Freshman Orientation Fee
Graduation Fee
ID Service & Access Fee (Annual)
International Grad Orientation Fee
International Graduate Application
International Health Fee
International Student Application Fee
International Student Fee
International Student Orientation Fee
International Student Services Fee
Junior Business
Junior Education
Junior Engineering
Junior English
Junior Hard Sciences
MBA
MBA Application Fee
New Student Fee
One Time International Student Fee
One Time MBA Fee
One Time Registration Fee
Orientation Fee
Property Deposit
Senior Fee
Sustaining Fee
Thesis Fee
Transcript Fee

Appendix C – States

Political Culture –

	States
Individualistic *Undergraduates -69 institutions* *Graduates – 62 institutions*	AK, CT, DE, HI, IL, IN, MA, MD, MO, MT, NE, NJ, NV, NY, OH, PA, RI, WY
Moralistic *Undergraduates -61 institutions* *Graduates – 56 institutions*	CA, CO, IA, ID, KS, ME, MI, MN, MT, ND, NH, OR, SD, UT, VT, WA, WI
Traditionalistic *Undergraduates -72 institutions* *Graduates – 62 institutions*	AL, AR, AZ, FL, GA, KY, LA, MS, NC, NM, OK, SC, TN, TX, VA, WV

Governance Structures -

	States
Consolidated *Undergraduates -68 institutions* *Graduates – 57 institutions*	AK, AZ, FL, GA, HI, IA, ID, KS, ME, MN, MS, MT, NC, ND, NH, NV, OR, RI, SD, UT, WI, WY
Coordinates *Undergraduates -125 institutions* *Graduates – 114 institutions*	AL, AR, CA, CO, CT, IL, IN, KY, LA, MA, MD, MO, MT, NE, NJ, NM, NY, OH, OK, PA, SC, TN, TX, VA, WA, WV
Planning *Undergraduates -9 institutions* *Graduates – 9 institutions*	DE, MI, VT

Regulation -

	States
All *Undergraduates -64 institutions* *Graduates – 60 institutions*	AL, AR, CA, CO, IL, KY, LA, MO, MT, OK, SD, TX, UT, WA
All (except UM) *Undergraduates -4institutions* *Graduates – 4 institutions*	MA
All+ *Undergraduates -2 institutions* *Graduates – 2 institutions*	ID
Degree *Undergraduates -72 institutions* *Graduates – 62 institutions*	AK, CT, DE, GA, HI, KS, MD, MI, ND, NE, NJ, NM, NV, OH, PA, RI, SC, TN, VA
Institutional *Undergraduates -2 institutions* *Graduates – 2institutions*	VT
Segmented *Undergraduates -21institutions* *Graduates – 19 institutions*	IN, MN, NY, WV
Separate *Undergraduates -37 institutions* *Graduates – 31 institutions*	AZ, FL, IA, ME, MS, NC, NH, OR, WI, WY

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VITA

Alaine Kelly Arnott was born in Flint, Michigan. After completing her work at Central Michigan University with bachelor's degrees in art education and 2-D design she began teaching high school. In 2006, she decided to go back to graduate school to earn her master of business administration degree from the University of Missouri. During her master's program she focused on non-profit administration and served as the President of the Graduate & Professional Council (GPC). She spent two summers interning as an education administrator for the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City where was able to implement a number of new systems to improve the museums efficiency and effectiveness. In 2009, she started her journey as a doctoral student in the educational leadership and policy analysis program focusing on higher education. Throughout the doctoral program she worked with the Assistant Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs on new campus auxiliary projects and initiatives, reignited the Educational Leadership Graduate Student Association (ELGSA), and continued to push for policy changes surrounding the use of fees on public higher education campuses. She will be pursuing a career in the realm of administration and policy and looks forward to making a difference in the public sector.