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Higher Education Administration, and Leadership: Current Assumptions, Responsibilities, and Considerations

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Abstract	Article Info

This article profiles the evolving role of educational administrators and leaders in higher education. Four guiding assumptions for leaders are presented related to social impact, community engagement, labor market success, and institutional stability. Then, seven key administration and leadership responsibilities are described. They include planning, academic entrepreneurship, data-driven decision making, revenue generation, creating professional and academic pathways for learners, curriculum development, and business development and marketing. This is followed by a set of pragmatic considerations that higher education administrators and leaders may consider in their professional practices. The considerations provide a framework for interrogating leadership assumptions and responsibilities, a framework that can be applied to analyze additional responsibilities as they emerge in relation to the assumptions that accompany them. The considerations pose intended and unintended possibilities for leaders to use to inform decision making, maintain principled leadership practices, and to challenge unexamined beliefs and values.

Cite as:

Introduction

The educational administration and leadership literature is replete with descriptions of how leaders should develop their capacity to understand and manage change (Lieberman, 2005). A corresponding plethora of educational leadership theories has emerged in recent decades to inform leaders who are grappling with a multitude of change forces (Leithwood, 2007). Similarly, much-needed recommendations have been proposed for managing change from K-12 educational settings (Conway & Andrews, 2016) through higher education (Razik & Swanson, 2010). Indeed, educational leaders worldwide and at all levels are engaged in ongoing efforts to understand and address some of the major factors affecting their work, for example, reduced government funding, contested visions of the purpose of education, increasing accountability frameworks, and preparation for life in post-industrial economies (Scott & Dixon, 2008).

The purpose of this article is to profile the evolving role of educational administrators and leaders in higher education. First, a set of guiding assumptions for leadership practices will be posited. Then, seven key administration and leadership responsibilities will be described, followed by a series of considerations that relate directly to those assumptions and responsibilities.

Guiding Assumptions

This article on the roles and responsibilities of educational administrators in higher education is based on several assumptions. First, educational leaders in the tertiary sector should seek to establish "engaged campus[es]" (McRae, 2012, p. 2) that connect with individuals and organizations in the communities they serve. Engagement may be manifested, for example, in the form of networking, service learning, policy development, and responsive programming (McRae, 2012). Second, a reasonable and defensible goal of higher education is to meet the needs of learners to access

education and training in order to increase their success in the workplace (Adamuti-Trache & Schuetze, 2009). Third, educational administrators must understand that their capacity to support social and economic growth, scholarly inquiry, and enhanced capacity for learners to participate in a civil society is dependent upon their institutions' financial stability (Alstete, 2014). However, the creation of educational programs that facilitate individuals' social and career success is not mutually exclusive from programming that generates institutional revenue (Scott & Webber, 2013). Revenue generating programming that enhances social capital may include "noncredit courses and programs, degree completion and upgrades, branch campuses, distance education, off-campus activities, alliances and joint ventures, and study abroad" (Alstete, 2014, p. 6). Fourth, educational administrators should rally around planning and practices that "focus strategically on creating short-and long-term opportunities for learning that will make a significant difference for individuals and their societies" (Webber & Scott, 2008, para 16).
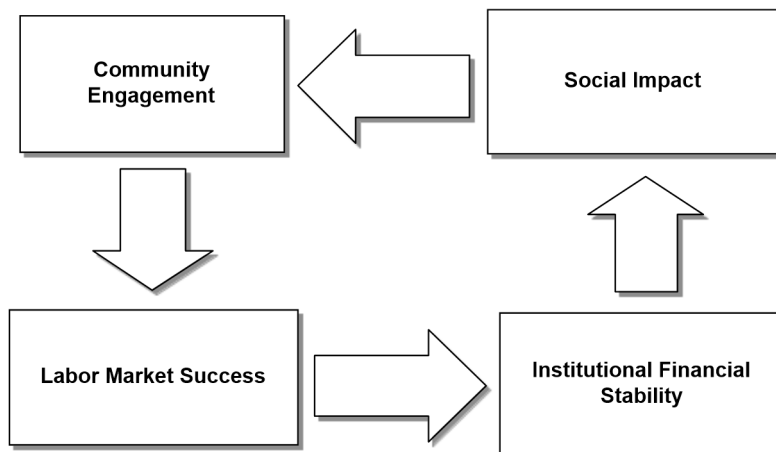

Figure 1. *Guiding assumptions.*

The four assumptions contained in Figure 1 are offered with full recognition of the contested nature of education for employment, the purported dominance in higher education of neoliberal agendas, perceived dangers of globalization and capitalism, forecasts of reductions to faculty power and control, and the vulnerability of social justice initiatives (see, for example, Bottery, 2003; Eastman, 2006; Gunter & Forrester, 2009).

Nonetheless, this article utilizes a pragmatic approach (Malachowski, 2010) to understanding educational administration and leadership, and seeks to address the widespread need for higher education leaders to adapt responsibly, quickly, and successfully to the current state of flux in social and economic structures (Razik & Swanson, 2010). As Rothblatt (2012, p. 15) stated, "The future isn't waiting," and educational leaders have little choice but to engage in leading and managing change. It is important to note, however, that the challenges associated with change management can be daunting within a higher education context that "is an essentially conservative enterprise" (Kamenetz, 2010, p. xiii) and where the results of change initiatives are unpredictable.

Leadership Responsibilities

Leaders in higher education seek to fulfill a range of responsibilities that are relatively consistent across diverse forms of institutional structures—community colleges, polytechnics, universities, vocational and trade schools, academies, and continuing education organizations—although the particularities of the responsibilities will vary according to the organizational type and purpose. Further layers of complexity relate to organizational attributes such as for-profit mandates, geographic focus, e-learning, and internationalization. For the purposes of this article, what follows is restricted to a discussion of the leadership responsibilities of planning, academic entrepreneurship, data-driven decision making,

revenue generation, and creating professional and academic pathways for learners.

Planning

Given the continuously evolving sociopolitical context of higher education, it is possible for institutions to lose their focus in an attempt to be all things to all people. To avoid a vague focus, educational leaders need to engage the members of their communities in careful strategic and academic planning activities (see Hinton, 2012; Rowley & Sherman, 2004) that are sufficiently coherent to guide decision-making, yet flexible enough to permit institutional agility.

Essential elements in the establishment of organizational focus, whether at the unit or institutional level, include (1) a clear mission statement, (2) guiding principles and goals, and (3) high-level priorities, with accompanying objectives and strategies. The process of establishing the planning components is nonlinear and fraught with the possibility of losing the commitment of important stakeholders. Therefore, leaders should approach the planning task in stages that include establishment of a planning committee comprised of key members, a strategic planning needs assessment, a comprehensive environmental scan, iterative consultation procedures that invite contributions from important internal and external stakeholders, and repeated sharing of planning document drafts.

There is a need for a second level of planning that is based on unit-wide goals and principles and detailed enough to guide financial and human resource allocation, program development priorities, staffing plans, and the establishment of progress metrics. Whatever the descriptor—academic plan, action plan, or work plan-- important components of the finer-grained plan include alignment to the strategic goals and priorities, allocation of unit responsibility, identification of responsible personnel, actions needed, timelines, necessary resources, and success metrics. Ideally completed on an

annual basis, the detailed work plans are intended to keep day-to-day operations clear and focused.

A multitude of risks is associated with the planning process. They include the past experiences of organizational members, including personal and group successes and perceived slights, which affect individuals' capacity to contribute constructively to planning discussions. Changes in formal senior leadership levels at the institutional level can support or, alternatively, derail planning procedures. Failure to align unit and organizational planning procedures and materials can result in incoherent foci throughout the institution. Dramatic, unanticipated modifications to funding or revenue streams can reshape organizational goals. Similarly, unanticipated collective bargaining obstacles or emergent labor disputes may contribute to the success or failure of planning activities.

Academic Entrepreneurship

Academic entrepreneurship normally is associated with the commercialization of university teaching and research to generate revenue streams for postsecondary institutions (Siegel & Wright, 2015). However, it has evolved to include "academic publishing, grant seeking and contract research, which are far more acceptable for the academic culture" (Cantaragu, 2012, p. 686). A broader and inclusive definition of academic entrepreneurship was offered by Cantaragu, 2012, p. 687):

> Academic entrepreneurship is a practice performed with the intention to transfer knowledge between the university and the external environment in order to produce economic and social value both for external actors and for members of the academia, and in which at least a member of academia maintains a primary role.

The topic of academic entrepreneurship continues to generate tensions between some stakeholders who believe that postsecondary institutions should focus exclusively on learning for its own sake and

others who understand revenue generation as something that benefits the entire institution (Alstete, 2014; Eastman, 2006).

Nonetheless, there is ongoing recognition that academic entrepreneurship is a viable element in the context of higher education leadership. For example, Scott and Webber (2013) proposed six components of academic entrepreneurship. The first component was innovative behavior which is characterized by the generation of knowledge and skills, high levels of social and political acumen, and well-developed change-management technical skills. A second component was strong networking skills resulting in successful adaptation to change and successful acquisition of decision-making information. The third element of leaders' academic entrepreneurship capacity was a clear framework for time-space communication that allowed both synchronous and asynchronous communication, plus local and distributed communication, and learning across space and through time. The fourth element was a local-global leadership perspective characterized by cultural literacy, plus principled and socially responsive decision-making. The fifth element was an understanding of educational organizations as knowledge centers where learners, educators, and support staff are engaged in productive community outreach. The final element of academic entrepreneurship was an integrated face-to-face and internet-based learning framework that facilitated successful participation in strategic alliances in competitive local, national, and international settings. Scott and Webber (2013) cautioned that academic entrepreneurship is a "fragile construct in its conceptualization, manifestation, and sustainability…[It should equip educational leaders to] demonstrate entrepreneurship and to avoid the temptation to be satisfied with the status quo when the status quo no longer serves the best interest of learners and their societies" (p. 132).

Data-Driven Decision Making

There are several areas responsibility for educational administrators and leaders in higher education in terms of basing their decision making on data. First, a high level focus should be on ongoing environmental scans and market analyses that allow leaders to identify social trends and behavior patterns within the local service area and in national and international contexts. Information such as this can be derived, for example, from digital media monitoring, professional networking, examination of competitors' programming, forecasting by financial institutions and business organizations, projected government policy formulation, and court decisions that affect education and training. Data from all of the sources may indicate the decline of some educational markets and the emergence of new ones.

A second level of online data gathering is possible. Shaping and monitoring the digital and media presence of people and programming related to leaders' institutional units provide timely evidence of the perceptions that members of the local and larger communities have of educational services. Further, digital tracking of learner and organizational access to the educational unit's websites can provide valuable information about online marketing success, learner demographics, and registration trends.

Fine-grained data can be garnered through a multitude of sources, including student evaluations of instructors, learner profiles, enrolment preferences, graduate surveys, fee payment patterns, learner referrals, learner satisfaction surveys, employer satisfaction surveys, public and private sector affiliations of students, and detailed tracking of revenues-expenses-net returns. Additional data can be derived from careful risk-management analyses, documentation of strategic alliances, longitudinal productivity of partnerships with professional and corporate organizations, utility of legal templates for employee contracts and institutional partnerships, and response patterns to requests for proposals.

In addition, a marker of the success of leadership in higher education organizations is provided by the levels and types of feedback from affiliated internal and external individuals and units. Eubanks, et al. (2010) advised assessing the nature of criticism in terms of its levels of logic and emotion. They also suggested that valuable information can result from analyzing the responses of others to leaders' behaviors in terms of increased or decreased commitment. That is, response strategies of collaboration and persuasion, Eubanks, et al. (2010) noted, were positively related to overall commitment but, interestingly, so too was confrontation as a response strategy if it removed obstacles and allowed the change agenda to proceed successfully. Monitoring reactions to organizational change also facilitate decision making regarding, for example, individuals' change readiness, tolerance for ambiguity, and openness to change (Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011). It is important to note that some level of criticism is inevitable for higher education leaders, for example, during times of significant change, when well established groups within an institution encounter a leader from outside, or after the appointment of a leader from an underrepresented group (see, for example, Gunsalus, 2006; Hannum, Muhly, Shockley-Zalabak, & White, 2015; Twale & De Luca, 2008)

An important aspect of data-based decision-making is ease of analysis. Data-gathering plans should be developed carefully so that evidence can be analyzed quickly, comprehensively, and accurately. Data that cannot be analyzed and utilized in a timely manner are wasted and the resources expended to gather it could have been applied better elsewhere within the organization.

Useful data can inform long-term planning, target emergent educational needs and markets, increase institutional competitiveness, maximize benefits for learners, and maintain the sustainability of educational organizations. Importantly, accurate and timely data can be applied quickly to the development of a micro-business plan for each and every initiative that an educational unit

undertakes, something that is essential for educational administrators and leaders in the 21ˢᵗ century.

Revenue Generation

Although revenue generation is a subset of academic entrepreneurship, it is sufficiently under-described in the educational leadership literature so as to merit attention on its own. Revenue generation in postsecondary institutions is a controversial topic and debates continue about the capacity of higher education, especially continuing education units, to fulfill their mandates to generate revenue while concurrently offering socially responsive programming (McRae, 2012). It is unlikely that there will be a quick resolution to the tensions between proponents of revenue generation and defenders of higher education as primarily or even exclusively government funded organizations. Indeed, the most likely outcome for the foreseeable future may be ongoing dependence of tertiary education on government funding but with increasing capacity to expand revenue generation activities in order to fund teaching and research priorities.

In the meantime, it may be useful for higher education leaders to interrogate the range of beliefs about revenue generation that exists within the academy. There is a dominant belief, perhaps stronger in universities and community colleges than other postsecondary institutions, that higher education should be dedicated primarily to the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake and that allocation of time and energy to revenue generation is a diversion from the primary purpose of postsecondary institutions. There is a corresponding belief that educational leaders will encounter, or even hold themselves, that higher education is a public good and, therefore, should be funded publicly. From that perspective, frequently tied to political beliefs about the role of government, revenue generation or commercialization within a public institution, such as a university or college, is perceived to be counter to the basic function of the

institution. It is germane to note also that most instructors and even higher education leaders have had limited opportunities to develop business acumen relating to, for example, market analyses, budget development, marketing planning, or revenue-expense-net return calculations. Rather, their experience and skill set both are primarily consistent with their roles as educational service providers.

Educational administrators and leaders will encounter the argument that that higher education currently provides opportunities for social mobility for individuals from lower socioeconomic strata (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2007). However, examination of the current postsecondary system suggests that universities may in fact "have a role in the reproduction of inequality in society" (McLean, 2007, p. 79). In other words, parental education and income levels are strong indicators of whether learners will attend higher educational institutions and then graduate. Therefore, as counterintuitive as it may seem, revenue-generating educational programming and pathways to professional and academic credentials, particularly those offered in alternative formats and times to nontraditional students, actually may increase access to higher education and facilitate social mobility.

It should be noted that one area of broader acceptance among higher education personnel is fund development. Most postsecondary institutions have fund development offices whose staff members cultivate and steward donors, typically in pursuit of funding for instructional and research centers, and for major capital projects.

Pathways to Professional and Academic Growth

The route through higher education traditionally has been perceived by many to be graduation from high school followed by progression through a 2-to-4 year certificate, diploma, or degree program. Continuation to a second academic credential, such as a professional or graduate degree, is expected to follow for smaller

numbers of learners. However, there is increasing recognition of "the needs of learners to customize their educational pathways to accommodate careers and family life" (Adamuti-Tache & Schuetze, 2009). As a result, higher education leaders are expected to lead the development of pathways to learning for individuals with diverse needs.

The availability of academic pathways is a major attractor for domestic and international learners (ICEF & Barton Carlyle, 2016; Walker & Dimmock, 2004). Global migration patterns have resulted in learners seeking access to higher education while bringing academic experiences that challenge admission policies and practices that were designed to meet the needs of domestic students. Nontraditional learners may need to participate in programming designed to prepare them for the obstacles associated with studying in a new culture. In addition, pathways through English language acquisition and academic upgrading courses may be needed to qualify for admission to higher education. Indeed, academic pathways are crucial elements in the success of learners who study on campus or who arrive after participating in transnational programs where they complete part of their programs in their home countries.

Other learners come to higher education with different expectations based on their learning needs as women or members of First Nations, for example. Leaders in postsecondary institutions seeking to fulfill their social impact mandate understand that such learners, plus others seeking career transitions or educational access from rural and remote communities, require access to program structures such as accelerated programming and recognition of prior learning (e.g., Conrad, 2008). Nontraditional learners also benefit from innovative scheduling and programming such as joint or combined programs, dual credit offerings, open admission, customized scheduling, and ease of credit transfer. Similarly, postsecondary leaders should support instructional design innovation—flipped classrooms, MOOC-like programming, blended

and online courses—that actively engage learners and assist them to establish lifelong learning networks.

In addition, nontraditional learners require supports that facilitate their efforts to succeed academically and professionally. For example, they benefit from academic advising that accommodates their experience as adult learners, plus access to campus and online writing centers and library support services.

Postsecondary leaders also need to act as change agents that challenge barriers to learning. For example, long-standing institutional residency requirements are obstacles to credit transfer and degree completion. Instructors may need professional development related to working with increasingly diverse student populations who may not share the cultural assumptions and beliefs that are dominant in Western educational cultures. Attending to creating a learning environment conducive to learner success has the potential to address all of the guiding assumptions highlighted earlier in this article, that is, to maximize social impact, increase community engagement, assist with labor market success, and achieve institutional financial stability.

Curriculum Development

Higher education curriculum development can take several forms. Programs may be undergraduate or graduate degrees in the arts and sciences where curricular authority resides in the first instance with faculty members, chairs and deans, subject to approval by a university-wide academic program committee and ratification by an institutional senate or general faculty council. Consultation is expected throughout the curriculum approval process with relevant institutional groups such as the budget committee, library, other teaching units offering feeder courses, and more. In most North American contexts, degrees must be considered by provincial or state authorities who review program proposals from institutions to ensure they satisfy quality expectations, can be resourced, and satisfy

educational market demands. In the case of professional degrees in areas such as nursing, education, social work, and engineering, for example, external accrediting associations also must approve program proposals. There are institutional variances in the approval process, depending upon the type of governance structure in place, bicameral or otherwise, but these are the types of procedures that higher education leaders must navigate for credit programs. The planning and approval process can last as long as one to four years before new or significantly redesigned programs can be delivered.

Once a degree program has been approved for delivery, the program components—face-to-face and online courses, practica, independent study, field schools, research theses—are designed and developed by individual faculty members prior to being approved by a department or faculty-wide curriculum committee, department heads, chairs, associate deans, or deans, depending upon how the development process has been established within a particular unit. Intellectual property ownership typically resides with the individual faculty members who develop course content but, in most academic units, faculty members share course materials according to their annual teaching assignments and, over time, course content becomes perceived by department members as communal property. It is possible for faculty members to refuse to share their course materials and, though this does happen, it is a rare occurrence. During the course development process, faculty members may be provided with assistance from instructional designers in a centralized unit but often individual faculty members are left to develop courses on their own, occasionally with teaching release time granted but more often not. Currently, most course developers utilize learning management software licensed by their institutions, whether courses are planned for online, blended, or face-to-face delivery.

Other curriculum development occurs for the purpose of community outreach, described most often as continuing education but also as professional development or continuing studies. Course and program development most often occurs much more rapidly

than in the context of degrees. Development may be the result of a request for services from an external professional association, a corporate client, or a community organization. It also may emerge from invitations by national and international organizations to submit a proposal for one time or ongoing instructional contracts. Curriculum development may result from market analyses conducted by internal institutional staff members.

Approval processes for continuing education or professional development initiatives usually are conducted far more quickly than is the case for undergraduate or graduate programs. The process most often includes a needs assessment or market analysis, development of a draft business plan to assess financial viability, approval by a curriculum committee within a continuing education or professional development unit, consideration by a department head or chair in a related academic department, and oversight from a central institutional administrator such as a provost or vice president. A decision to proceed can be made within two to four weeks which makes response times fast and external contractors can proceed with the learning opportunities that they or their members require. The development process within the continuing education or professional development unit most often is overseen by a project coordinator who contracts an external subject matter expert to provide the relevant content, with the support of an instructional design team. The development contract usually assigns copyright to the institution rather than to the subject matter expert who is paid to do the work.

Once courses are developed, part-time instructors are contracted and delivery can commence. Even when a full program, consisting of several courses, is requested by an external professional association, delivery can begin on the first parts of the program with remaining components continuing to be developed. This or a similar approval and development process is used by most continuing education and professional development units, whether delivery is intended to be on campus, off-site in local or international settings, or in a blended or fully online format.

Salient considerations that postsecondary leaders must address during the development of degree and continuing education programming include widely differing approval and development timelines, plus different intellectual property ownership arrangements. Financial viability and sustainability are important considerations in all cases but continuing education and professional development initiatives normally are expected to be fully self-supporting. In other words, most continuing education curriculum development is not subsidized while curriculum development for degree programs are supported in most institutions, although self-supporting degree programs are becoming more common in North America.

Business Development and Marketing

As the need for revenue generation has gained prominence within higher education and as institutional competitiveness has grown, members of business development and marketing teams have become essential to the success of educational units. Indeed, it is not uncommon to see business development and marketing staff embedded within postsecondary schools and faculties so that they can be intimately familiar with program design, understand target audiences, and promote the unique contributions of particular programs.

Higher education administrators and leaders understand that the digital presence of every instructional department within the institution now is a major determinant of its competitiveness and longitudinal success. How programs and the people delivering them are portrayed on institutional websites and in social media affects the choices that learners make in an era when they have worldwide choices. Moreover, the digital profiling of institutions is a far greater factor in students' decision to register than the factors affecting those decisions in the past, such as print calendars, magazine and newspaper advertising, recruitment fairs, and open houses.

Business development and marketing staff can contribute in a host of other ways to program success. For instance, they serve as liaisons to representatives of government international trade departments. They schedule video and audio conferences with personnel in the offices of international trade commissioners and consulates in order to assess international revenue generating instructional and training initiatives. They design the programming units' websites and use their communication knowledge to attract and direct potential learners to online registration sites. They design, gather, and analyze data, described earlier in this article, so others within their schools and faculties can make well-informed decisions. They also use those data to prepare colleagues for meetings within the institution and the external community, including national and international meetings.

In addition, business development and marketing team members monitor their units' digital presence in order to discern response patterns to their marketing and to that of competitors. They advise in cases of cyber bullying and ensure compliance of all digital and print communications with privacy legislation. In short, business development personnel have become as essential to the success of postsecondary institutions and their individual units as the faculty members, instructional designers, financial staff, librarians, and support services members.

Leadership Considerations

Table 1 below summarizes some of the pragmatic considerations that higher education administrators and leaders may consider in the context of their professional practices. The responsibilities listed are not all-encompassing and they will vary in their applicability to leaders' organizational milieus. Similarly, the four guiding assumptions are examples of the multiple assumptions that may apply to different higher education workplaces.

Table 1. *Leadership Considerations*

Responsibilities	Social Impact	Community Engagement	Labor Market Success
1. Planning	What is our mission? What principles guide us? Who benefits? What are the risks? What aspects are contested?	Who should have a say? Who has been excluded? Who wants us to do this? Why?	What are labor market r Is professional accredita What is the future? Who else is doing this w
2. Academic Entrepreneurship	Which individuals benefit? Does the community benefit? Who does not want this? Why? What are unintended consequences?	Will this increase capacity? Will anyone be harmed? Is there readiness?	Is there a niche? Are skills and knowledg Is there economic value? Does this disrupt? What
3. Data-Driven Decision Making	Are passive data available? Will data-gathering threaten? Will data-gathering intrude?	Are there data-gathering partners? What are the effects? Who is upset? Why?	What are success indica What is the growth pote What are longitudinal p
4. Revenue Generation	How is this controversial? Is there strong opposition? From whom? How widespread is the need?	Are there potential collaborators? What opportunities are created? Whose values will be challenged? Why?	Who is the target marke What is the value for pa
5. Pathways to Professional and Academic Growth	Who will access pathways? Who cannot access pathways? Why not? Is that okay?	Will participants have greater capacity? How will others benefit? What barriers will be removed?	Is work available? What is the anticipated outcome?
6. Curriculum Development	What is the effect on the institution? What is the impact on other programs? Opportunities for learners?	Are colleagues supportive? How can other units contribute? Effects on other institutions? Subsidization requirements?	Is curriculum stable? What are imminent chan What is the developmen
7. Business Development and Marketing	Who needs to know? What information to share? When? Risks?	What information sharing tools areavailable? What legislation applies?	What is unique? Who locally and beyond What is the best way to

Nonetheless, the considerations in Table 1 provide a framework for interrogating leadership assumptions and responsibilities, a framework that can be applied to analyze additional responsibilities as they emerge in relation to the assumptions that accompany them. The considerations are not intended to obfuscate or to instill self-doubt. Rather, they pose intended and unintended possibilities for leaders to use on their own and with their colleagues to inform decision-making, maintain principled leadership practices, and to challenge that which appears to be obvious.

Conclusion

Several years ago, I suggested possible futures for postsecondary institutions in the West (Webber, 2008). I predicted that universities would gravitate primarily toward four dominant typologies. The first type was represented by long-standing niche universities that deliver well regarded small campus-based programs and enjoy strong support from members of their local and national communities. Such institutions risked declining influence in the face of globalized competition for students, faculty members, and financial resources. A second predicted category was comprised of new start-up universities offering regional programming to appreciative local communities by place-bound or early-career faculty members. Often with roots as a community college, start-up universities are vulnerable to recruitment of students and faculty members by competing institutions. The third proposed category was comprised of distance and international organizations that were founded on revenue-generating principles, open admission policies, and market-focused programming. I suggested that such distance and internationally-oriented universities constituted a growth domain but risked longer term academic credibility because teaching was less research-based and more market-driven. The fourth typology in my proposed future consisted of top-tier, sometimes centuries old, research intensive universities featured near the top of world university rankings.

I then drew upon both business (e.g., Lester & Parnell, 2006; Lin, Hoffman, & Thurston, 2004) and educational literature (e.g., Beaulieu, 2005; Dennison & Schuetze, 2004; Schuetze & Bruneau, 2004) to suggest that postsecondary institutions seeking longer term stability

ought to consider a balanced educational portfolio. Universities with a balanced portfolio would maintain a relative equilibrium between practice and research-oriented programming. To clarify, balanced educational portfolios concurrently focus on market relevance, quality scholarship, and professionally-oriented teaching. They also build on traditional revenue sources, such as government funding and donor resources, by offering revenue-generating programming designed to meet the needs of the educational marketplace.

Since 2008, when I offered my predictions for university typologies, the pace of change within tertiary education has accelerated. For example, recognition of the need to incorporate technology into teaching and learning has solidified (Black, 2010; Morris, 2016). Societies increasingly agree that educational access could be considered a basic human right (Dhillon, 2011). Leaders in both public and private sectors are expected to manifest greater and more sophisticated understandings of cultural differences (Hernandez & Kose, 2012). There is a widely shared hope that increasing access to formal educational credentials will address social, cultural, financial, and gender-related inequities manifested in the context of a postindustrial society (Buchmann & Malti, 2012).

In short, my suggestions in 2008 that a balanced educational portfolio should include concurrent foci on practice-based and scholarship-oriented programming, funded by both government and entrepreneurial revenue streams, may be even more relevant in 2016. There is perhaps a greater urgency for educational administrators in the postsecondary sector to focus on understanding the assumptions guiding their practice and on fulfilling their professional responsibilities, while carefully considering the intended and unintended outcomes of their work.

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