

5-2021

Organizational Change In The Legal Education Environment: Institutional And Individual Responses To Times Of Crisis

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ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE IN THE LEGAL EDUCATION ENVIRONMENT:
INSTITUTIONAL AND INDIVIDUAL RESPONSES TO TIMES OF CRISIS

By

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Master of Science (Georgia State University) 2001

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Affiliated Faculty of

The College of Graduate and Professional Studies at the University of New England

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements

For the degree of Doctor of Education

Portland & Biddeford, Maine

May, 2021

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May 2021
Educational Leadership

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Abstract

The Great Recession of 2008 brought great upheaval to many aspects of the American economy. At first law schools saw an increase in applications and enrollment as individuals sought an education that would lead to employment. Within a few years, however, the job market for new lawyers deteriorated. By 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis. This researcher collected and reviewed publicly available data to examine the changes that occurred in law schools following the economic downturn. Interviews with faculty who had experienced the institutional changes portrayed the personal or internal changes that occurred as a result.

Findings suggest that higher-ranked (Tier 1 and Tier 2) schools generally had different outcomes than lower-ranked (Tier 3 and Tier 4) schools following the enrollment crisis. The first section addressed structural changes, the second section addressed programmatic changes, and the third section reported on faculty in the Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools expressed feelings of grief and loss regarding their experiences during this period of crisis.

The future loss of accreditation that may occur in some law schools will be a source of additional study of institutional and personal grief and loss issues that schools and faculty members experience as a result of that loss.

Keywords: *Legal Education, Organization Change, Grief, Loss.*

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Doctor of Education
Educational Leadership

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my dissertation committee, Dr. Michelle Collay, Dr. Brianna Parsons and Mr. William D. Matthews for their support during this process.

I am very thankful and grateful to Dr. Michelle Collay. Her assistance, guidance, direction and encouragement made it possible to develop and complete my dissertation process.

I am very thankful and appreciative for Dr. Brianna Parsons's vital support and her assistance and motivation to complete the deadlines.

I am very thankful and appreciative of Mr. William Matthews for his guidance, direction and encouragement for this dissertation.

I would like to thank everyone whose assistance helped me finish this dissertation.

Thank you to the participants who volunteered to participate in interviews!

I would also like to thank my family for their continued support for over the last several years of completing this doctorate.

Thank you,
Mary Wilson

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

When organizations experience change due to dramatic shifts occurring in their external environments, the reactions of the organizations and of the individuals working in those organizations are not always productive or helpful. For individuals, the psychological effects on persons within the organization may be similar to the effects experienced by persons going through grief and loss. The responses of institutions to such economic disruption may be slow or reactive and may not take into account other future changes. The 2008 recession had a great impact on the employment market for lawyers, and, as a result, there was a crisis in the legal education field when fewer and fewer qualified students determined that they should spend their education dollars trying to become lawyers or on pursuing the Juris Doctor (J.D.) degree (Hansen, 2015).

The 2020-2021 pandemic may have resulted in a similar crisis. The dramatic changes that occurred in the legal education field after the 2008 recession and during the COVID crisis resulted in the loss of faculty jobs in law schools, changes in focus regarding courses offered, changes in criteria for admissions, changes in program structure, and changes in response to requirements that law schools collaborate with law firms to graduate students who are ready to practice with minimal further training or mentoring. The legal education field, as it currently exists after the recession and now during and after the pandemic, is a field that is ripe for the study of how institutions react to crisis and how persons experience losses that occur within their organizations as result of outside forces.

The recession crisis in the employment market for lawyers resulted in a lowering of standards for acceptance of students into law schools, and this in turn resulted in a backlash from

the law school accreditation authority. The American Bar Association (ABA) requires law schools to obtain and maintain certain standards in order to be ABA-accredited. Under the Code of Federal Regulations (Title 34, Chapter VI, §602), the Council of the ABA Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar, along with the Accreditation Committee of the Section, are recognized by the United States Department of Education as the accrediting agency for programs that lead to the J.D. degree, which is required by all states before a graduate can take a bar examination as an additional requirement to become licensed to practice law (American Bar Association [ABA], 2021a). The Regulation provides: “The Secretary [of the Department of Education] lists an agency as a nationally recognized accrediting agency if the agency meets the criteria for recognition...”

The Council of the ABA’s Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar promulgates the Standards and Rules of Procedure for Approval of Law Schools (the “Standards”) with which law schools must comply in order to be accredited by the ABA. The Standards established by the Council are designed to provide a comprehensive and thorough evaluation of a law school and its compliance with the Standards (ABA, 2021a). The accreditation process includes site visits by trained evaluation teams and the collection of data in accordance with the Standards (ABA, 2021a).

A total of 199 institutions are accredited by the ABA. One hundred and ninety-eight institutions confer the J.D. degree (the first degree in law). The other accredited institution is the U.S. Army Judge Advocate General's School, which offers an officer's resident graduate course, a specialized program beyond the first degree in law. There is one provisionally approved law school: University of North Texas at Dallas College of Law (ABA, 2021b). Two law schools on the list of 199 schools are closing but were allowed to maintain continuing approval to operate

for the limited purpose of “teaching out” current students so that those students can graduate from accredited (but soon to be closed) law schools. Those two schools are: Thomas Jefferson School of Law and the University of La Verne Law School.

Dilemmas Faced by Law Schools

The case of Western State exemplifies the dilemmas that law schools face. Western State College of Law remains on the approved and accredited list, but it appeared that the school was going to close in 2019 when its owner – Argosy University – was placed in federal receivership, and Western State lost its eligibility for federal student loans. However, a federal judge overseeing the receivership approved a sale of Western State to Westcliff University for \$1.00. The ABA approved the transfer, and as of late 2020, the transfer was completed.

A law school typically first applies for provisional approval, which requires that it show that it is in substantial compliance with each of the Standards (ABA, 2021a). The ABA requires a law school that has obtained provisional approval to remain in provisional status for at least three years, during which time the law school must present a reliable plan for bringing the school into full compliance with the Standards. The ABA further mandates that, absent extraordinary circumstances justifying an extension, a law school may not remain in provisional status for more than five years (ABA, 2021a). The ABA Standards require that a provisionally approved law school be closely monitored, and a visit to the school by a full site evaluation team is conducted in years two and four after provisional approval. To be granted full accreditation, the law school must demonstrate to the ABA that it has progressed beyond substantial compliance and must show, with the burden on the law school, that it is in full compliance with each of the Standards. Once a law school is fully accredited, its compliance with the Standards is monitored through periodic site evaluations and an annual questionnaire that requires the law school to

submit information relevant to continued compliance with the accreditation, including data regarding curriculum, faculty (including student-to-faculty ratio), facilities, fiscal and administrative capacity, student retention or attrition, bar passage rates, and student placement or employment of graduates (ABA, 2021c). Since the reporting standard is numbered Standard 509, much of this information is reported annually by each law school on “Form 509” which is required by the ABA to be available to prospective students and to the public in general.

Most law schools that achieve ABA accreditation are also members of the Association of American Law Schools (AALS), which has its own membership review process that is generally conducted in parallel with the ABA review process (ABA, 2021a). If the ABA schedules a site visit to a school that is an AALS member school, then the AALS appoints one member of the ABA site visit team (ABA, 2021a).

The Enactment of ABA Standards

The ABA Standards cover the following areas: organization and administration, program of legal education, faculty, admissions and student services, library and information resources, and facilities equipment and technology (ABA, 2021c). Some ABA standards are generic, requiring things like "sufficient" space for staff, "suitable" classrooms, and "sound" admissions policies. The ABA Standards include interpretations that may add specific guidance to these generic standards (ABA, 2021c). Also, the Standards and their interpretations relate to many aspects of law school operations, including staff compensation, student-to-faculty ratios, faculty sabbaticals, faculty workloads, and physical facilities. A student-to-faculty ratio of 20:1 is required for a law school to be presumptively in compliance with the Standards, and a law school with a ratio of 30:1 or more is presumptively non-compliant. Furthermore, the Standards set the

maximum number of classroom hours that a law school can require its faculty to teach (ABA, 2021c). The Standards drive a great deal of law school decision-making.

The 2008 Recession initially prompted an increase in the number of applications to law schools and an increase in law school enrollment, but the inability of graduates to find employment ultimately resulted in a precipitous decline in the number of applicants and in enrollment. This decline began in about 2010 and became more pronounced in 2011 (Law School Admissions Council, 2017). Partially in response to the statistics on law school graduates being unable to find employment where their Juris Doctor degrees were needed, in late 2015, a Department of Education panel recommended that the ABA's accreditation power for new law schools be suspended for one year, on the basis that the ABA failed to implement its student achievement standards and probationary sanctions (Ward, 2016a). The author indicates that, as a result of the financial crisis of 2008 and the drop in the availability for employment of law school graduates, incoming law students were admitted to law schools with lower than earlier admission test scores and undergraduate GPAs, which contributed to a lower pass rate on the state bar exams required for admission to the practice of law (Ward, 2016a). This became somewhat of a vicious cycle, as graduates who do not pass a bar exam, by definition, cannot practice law and therefore cannot be hired as associates at a law firm.

Ward (2016a) reported that, in 2016, the Standards Review Committee (SRC) of the ABA's Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar addressed the Standards in response to the falling admissions standards and falling bar passage rates. Under the then current "bar passage" standard, a law school had to pass one of two tests: (a) within five years, 75% ultimate bar passage rate or having a 75% pass rate for at least three of those five years; or (b) first-time bar passage rate no more than 15% lower than pass rate of all ABA-approved

graduates in same jurisdiction for three or five years. The SRC submitted a new cumulative bar passage standard that would require that at least 75% of all graduates that take a bar exam must pass it within two years. The proposed standard shortened the time frame in which schools are held accountable for poor bar exam outcomes (which may make sense because, after three attempts, 99.3% of people who pass the bar exam have done so).

Later in 2016, the ABA committee members heard the public's concerns on whether the revised Standard would harm law schools that serve disadvantaged populations or are in states with low bar passage rates. A representative from the National Black Law Students Association spoke, stating that out of 64 law schools that recently were not in compliance with the proposed bar passage standard, more than 20 had student populations with more than 30% diversity (Ward 2016b). Denise Roy, co-president of the Society of American Law Teachers' board of governors and a professor at Mitchell Hamline School of Law in St. Paul, Minnesota stated:

We are concerned and disappointed that the committee's discussion did not reflect thoughtful consideration of the concerns expressed by constituents about the effect of the change on students and communities served by schools, such as law schools at historically black colleges and universities, that seek to provide access to the profession to those who are disadvantaged by reliance on timed, standardized tests as the means of gaining a license to practice law; of the significant variation among states on the difficulty of passing the bar, or of the fact that the bar exam is an inadequate assessment of skills required to provide effective legal representation. (Ward 2016b, p. 1).

In May of 2019, the Council of the ABA Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar approved the change to Standard No. 316 that requires 75 percent of a law school's

graduates who sit for the bar to pass it within two years. The change took effect immediately although schools falling short of the standard would be permitted to have at least two years to come into compliance (ABA, 2019).

ABA Standards also require law schools to fulfill reporting requirements that cost significant resources because the Standards require that data be reported exactly as the ABA demands, and many law schools now have a full-time data-reporting officer (Ward 2016b). Law schools rely upon tuition from students to be able to continue to operate; so the cost of fulfilling reporting requirements can have a significant impact on a law school's overall budget, especially for non-top-tier law schools that are seeking to attract, enroll, and educate more students who show aptitude indicating likely graduation and ultimate passage of a bar exam.

As mentioned, the University of La Verne Law School in Ontario, California, is in the process of closing and is in teach-out mode (which means that the ABA will continue accreditation until current students are allowed to graduate from what will temporarily remain an accredited law school) (Sloan, 2019). Five accredited law schools closed since 2017: Arizona Summit, Charlotte, Indiana Tech, Valparaiso, and Whittier. Sloan (2019) reported that one of the catalysts for the possible closure is the ABA's decision to strengthen its bar passage standard, giving law schools just two years to ensure that at least 75% of graduates pass the bar instead of the previously mandated five-year period. The University of La Verne School of Law had only gained full accreditation in 2016 (Sloan, 2019).

Statement of the Problem

After law firm employment saw declines and law school enrollment started dropping in 2010-2011, the law profession and legal education changed significantly (Hansen, 2015). Law school leaders felt the need to lower admission standards to maintain enrollment figures. The

lower admission standards may have resulted in lower bar exam passage rates, lower rates on retention/attrition standards, and lower rates of students who find meaningful employment after graduation. The recession-driven reduction in enrollment (and in tuition income) may have resulted in difficult decisions for law school leaders because some accreditation standards discourage responding to the changing legal environment by reducing costs or taking other measures that would normally be employed by a business experiencing a change in the demand for the services supplied by the business. For example, ABA standards may not permit an accredited law school to reduce costs by lowering faculty salary or by lowering the number of faculty as compared to the number of students. Both library standards and faculty-to-student ratio standards are included in the accreditation standards. However, in order to continue to be accredited, law schools may have been compelled to revise or change their offered or required courses or offer or require bar exam study courses not only as the bar exam date approaches but throughout the course of the three-year study, or ensure that example bar exam questions from past years are addressed in each and every course offered. Law schools, particularly lower-tiered law schools, faced difficulties due to financial realities and the need to admit and educate students based on lower admission criteria and, at the same time, to educate those students so that they can pass rigorous bar exams and, after passing the bar, become employed in the legal profession. As law schools were trying to cope with the crisis in legal education, in 2019, ABA law school accreditation changed to require that bar passage rates be increased.

This study addressed the responses of the institutions to the crisis resulting from the recession and from the pandemic on three levels: Institutional, programmatic, and individual. Specifically, the study focused on how both institutions and individuals within those institutions experience loss of purpose and identity. Also, the study focused on the changes brought about

by the post-recession enrollment crisis and by the fact that the accreditation authority for law schools has required schools to focus on increasing the pass rates for bar exams taken by graduates. The psychological aspects of individual faculty members who have experienced change in the legal education environment were addressed through interviews of law school public services librarians (who are, for the most part faculty) from various lower tier law schools in the United States.

Setting

This study addressed institutional change in law schools from all four “tiers” of the 199 law schools, and, with regard to individual psychological responses, the study focused on lower tier law schools. Some explanation regarding law school rankings is appropriate. First, it should be noted that the ABA does not participate in ranking law schools. The ABA states: “Neither the American Bar Association nor its Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar endorses, cooperates with, or provides data to any law school ranking system. No ranking or rating system of law schools is attempted or advocated by the ABA” (ABA, 2021d). The ABA only provides only statements regarding the accreditation status of each accredited law school.

The most cited and authoritative rankings are the rankings published annually by *U.S. News and World Report*, which have been published since 1990 and which have become a ubiquitous feature of American legal culture (Solimine, 2006). Rankings are based on criteria such as bar passage rate, student-to-faculty ratio, graduate employment numbers, placement success, salary level of employed graduates, overall career benefits, and other criteria. It is generally accepted that the law schools are grouped in four “tiers.” However, the general consensus is that the tiers do not have an equal number of schools. Instead, the top tier consists

of fourteen schools. The next tier (T2) consists of schools ranked 15-100. The third tier consists of schools ranked 101-146, and the fourth tier consists of schools ranked 147-199.

The challenge for lower-tier law schools, as well as for law schools in general, is how to maintain accreditation from the American Bar Association during a time of decreasing enrollment, lower standards of admission, and increased requirements from the ABA to improve the pass rate on the state bar exams that are required by each state for admission to the practice of law. This study presents an overview of changes in legal education more generally, then focused on Tier 3 and Tier 4 for the personnel changes because schools in those tiers would be expected to suffer more significant consequences. For example, the pool of applicants wanting to enroll in law schools was reduced as the upper-tier schools lowered their admission standards and accepted students that they may have rejected before the crisis. The recession-fueled crisis has changed the organizational environment in law schools, and institutions have attempted to adapt with various degrees of success, while faculty were required to respond to changed expectations.

With regard to individuals, research on organization change and heightened expectations suggest that grief reactions may be felt by the individuals experiencing those changes (Barnhizer, 2014b; Kearney & Hyle, 2003; Kearney, 2013; Kearney & Siegman, 2013; Marquitz, Badding, & Chermack, 2016). The changes in the organization environment for the law schools that were implemented due to the enrollment crisis are hypothesized to result in grief reactions in the individuals experiencing those changes.

With regard to institutional response, administrators were forced by circumstances to maintain enrollment, and this could only be accomplished by lowering the standards for

admission. However, lowering the standards resulted in a bar passage rate that was lower than what was achieved in earlier years.

Purpose of Study

This study seeks to:

- Identify changes that law schools sought to implement to respond to the enrollment crisis and to changing accreditation standards.
- Identify how ABA accreditation requirements influence faculty as they respond to changed expectations for student outcomes.
- Describe the emotional responses of individuals affected by the mandated change or changes occurring within the organizations.

Research Questions

The problem of practice indicates that the legal profession and the provision of legal education has changed since the 2008 economic downturn and has continued to change (Hansen, 2015). The research study sought to identify

1. What changes did law schools implement in response to the crisis in legal education following the Great Recession of 2008?
2. How do faculty members experience the impact of new ABA Standards on admissions, on teaching, on research, and or providing services to students?
3. How do law school faculty members experience the losses at the program level and at the personal level?

Conceptual Framework

With regard to institutions, they may have been compelled to implement changes in practices and procedures in reaction to the economic downturn, but they may have been

unwilling or unable to look ahead and see how the legal education field may have been permanently altered. Also, the ABA may not have sufficiently changed or revised the Standards so as to permit law schools to adapt to the permanently altered legal education environment.

Institutional Change

For a few years following the Great Recession that began in 2008, law schools saw an increase in applications and enrollment as individuals sought an education that would lead to employment. Within a few years, though, the job market for new lawyers deteriorated. As a result of the changes in the job prospects for lawyers, by 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis. This study collected and reviewed publicly available data to examine the changes that occurred in law schools following the economic downturn. Examples of programmatic change include calling upon faculty to teach more courses, to teach more students, and to include material or teach courses designed to assist students to pass a bar exam. Faculty were also required by administrators (or faculty took it upon themselves) to collaborate with law firm leaders to develop and implement new experiential and clinical courses. Thus, there was a change in the way the legal education was delivered to students, including a shift in emphasis to more experiential or clinical courses (designed and implemented in collaboration with practitioners) and more elective course choices after the first year of law school.

Individual Change

The changes in the organization environment for the law school that were implemented due to the enrollment crisis and to the changing accreditation standards may have resulted in grief reactions in the individuals experiencing those changes. Leaders that recognize that their

followers are likely to experience grief reactions may be better able to guide their followers through their reactions and lead their organizations to success in the legal education environment – an environment that may have been permanently altered after the 2008 recession and the changes in accreditation standards.

With regard to individuals, building on the concepts addressed in the study by Kearney and Hyle (2003), the current qualitative descriptive study used the grief construct of Kubler-Ross (1969) to assess the emotional responses of individuals affected by the mandated change or changes that occurred within their organizations and to analyzed those responses using the Kubler-Ross grief cycle stages. The analysis of individual change followed the qualitative study of Kearney and Hyle (2003) which examined the emotional reactions of persons undergoing changes within their organizations and the use of the Kubler-Ross (1969) grief construct as a theoretical framework or lens. Kearney and Hyle (2003) expected to find grief reactions in individuals in educational settings undergoing organizational change. Using the grief construct of Kubler-Ross (1969), Kearney and Hyle (2003) sought to describe the emotional responses of individuals affected by the mandated change or changes occurring within their organizations, to analyze those responses using the Kubler-Ross grief cycle stages, to report other findings evolving from the data collected, and to assess the usefulness of the Kubler-Ross grief cycle for understanding organizational change (Kearney & Hyle, 2003).

Kearney (2013) addressed the Kubler-Ross theoretical framework in response to a change of leadership when a new president was selected for a community college. In this case study, the author analyzed data focusing on the period between the announcement of the change in leadership and the announcement of the selection and arrival of the new college president. Kearney (2013) identified a “hot zone” period during which negative emotions appeared to

dominate, and the author discussed the fragmentation of organizational meaning during this period against the Kubler-Ross grief construct for understanding specific emotions reported by the respondents.

Hooyman & Kramer (2006) state:

Grieving in response to loss is universal among human cultures; it is described in works of literature from ancient times to the present day and throughout the contemporary world in scientific and nonscientific accounts (Archer 1999; Rosenblatt 2001). According to Parkes, “There is something that all who suffer a major loss have in common and the word ‘grief’ does have a universal meaning that transcends culture.” (2001:35) (p. 15).

Barnhizer (2014b) indicated that the Kubler-Ross hypothesis “seems to offer a useful heuristic for evaluating the conditions and fates of law schools experiencing plummeting demand for their services, challenges to their educational quality, a legal profession in the midst of a profound transformation, and the decay of the financial resource base due to declining tuition revenues” (p. 1). Marquitz, Badding, and Chermack (2016) examined organizational change and the relationship between scenario planning and the participants’ perceptions of grief. The authors’ literature review and theoretical framework focused on perceptions of change, resistance to change, grief and loss, and coping skills. Contrary to the researchers’ hypothesis, however, the results of the study indicated that scenario planning intervention actually did not decrease, but rather significantly increased, participant reports of grief in the process of organizational change.

The concept of thinking about grief responses to organizational change in universities is also anecdotally evidenced by how faculty members speak of or write about such changes. For

example, in a September 2019 essay in *The Chronicle Review* (published by *The Chronicle of Higher Education*), Sheila Liming, an Assistant Professor in the English Department at the University of North Dakota, addressed budget cuts and wrote that the legislators were taking stabs at “the dismembered body of higher education” and wrote that she “cannot help but grieve” for faculty at the University of Alaska facing similar budget cuts (Liming, 2019, p. 1). The editor or publisher of the essay (perhaps not using Professor Liming’s words) headlined the article as “My University is Dying.” Whether or not Professor Liming wrote the headline for her essay, Liming (2019) also wrote in terms of having “lost” programs, departments, and colleagues, wrote about those being left behind as “survivors,” and wrote about feelings of “gloom:”

Our campus has struggled to recover, first, because austerity isn’t over for us, even if the blitzkrieg of cuts has stalled for the time being. The second reason is because there are fewer people around now to help see each other through the grueling work of recovery. We lost our top-ranked women’s hockey team, which nurtured many an Olympian over the years; we lost whole programs and departments, or else saw them so hollowed from the inside as to effectively be lost. We survivors lost friends, colleagues, and neighbors. No one from my college, which is the largest at UND, a flagship state school, went up for tenure last year, because there was no one left who was eligible to apply.... I’m talking about the nonmaterial consequences of material resource depletion, which can last for generations and make earnest attempts at normalcy appear shot through with undercurrents of gloom. But the feeling isn’t unique to campuses like mine (p. 1).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Scope

Institutional Change

The purposeful sample of institutions may not be representative of law schools in general or of each tier of accredited law schools. Also, this researcher may have biases with regard to her own perceptions of the changes that have occurred in the legal education field and of the ABA's focus on bar exam pass rates. The fact that faculty responders may not be employed at a single location or law school may dilute the findings of the study, but the effort to focus on lower-tier law schools is an effort to seek homogeneity in the settings.

Individual Change

The Kubler-Ross (1969) model has not been widely used in examining organizational change. However, the Kubler-Ross (1969) model has been used in several peer-reviewed studies (Kearney & Hyle, 2003; Kearney, 2013; Kearney & Siegman, 2013; Marquitz, Badding, & Chermack, 2016). The model has been used by Kearney and Hyle (2003) and discussed by Kearney and Hyle (2015). Kearney and Hyle (2003) found support for the idea that emotional responses to organizational change could be categorized similarly to the categories proposed by Kubler-Ross (1969). The Kubler-Ross (1969) theoretical framework appeared appropriate for the current law school atmosphere because major changes are occurring that cause individuals to feel that they are losing long-standing relationships and attitudes in their lives (Hansen, 2015).

A small sample size, possibly due to the pandemic, is a limitation of this study. Also, this researcher must assume that the interviewees were truthful and open about their responses to the questions and that the participants understood the questions. However, the questions were rather short and clear. The interview protocol allowed this researcher to ask some follow-up questions

when needed and to try to make sure that the participants felt that they could speak freely regarding their feeling about what occurred in the legal education field during the financial crisis.

Significance of the Study

This study examined the responses of institutions dealing with the post-recession enrollment crisis and with the changes in the Standards for accreditation. Accreditation standards for law schools are designed to assist the public, potential students, and the legal profession. The ABA focus on issues such as student-to-faculty ratio, faculty salary requirements, and requirements relating to the number of volumes in a law library would seem to indicate that bar exam pass rates should not be the sole focus of accreditation. Rather, the focus of legal education should also include the issues of whether the student has acquired the necessary knowledge, research skills, and analytical skills to “think like a lawyer,” write legal documents, and make arguments before a court so as to be an appropriate candidate for the practice of law. After all, educating a student to pass a bar exam in any given state could likely be accomplished without three years of study. The Standards may not have been designed or revised to address the changes in the legal education and employment environment that law schools had to address by way of adaptation and cost-cutting.

The pressures on an accredited law school are numerous and challenging (Hansen, 2015), as are accreditation standards in other professional education fields, but the focus on the pass rates for a licensing exam (which varies from state-to-state) makes the challenge to keep a law school accredited even more difficult. In order to maintain accreditation, law school faculty cannot be significantly reduced, and law school faculty salary cannot be lowered. Likewise, expenditures on facilities cannot be lowered. Yet, to maintain enrollment levels to keep a law school financially afloat, admission standards must be lowered. This, in turn, may lower the bar

exam pass rates or the rates of graduates able to find meaningful legal employment after graduation.

Definition of Terms

Bar exam: The examination required in every state in order for applicants to be admitted to the practice of law in that state. By way of background, each state will, in general, have one examination day that is devoted to the law of the state in which the bar exam is being administered. This portion of the bar exams generally consists of essay questions that are unique to each state, that will change every year, and that may involve different subjects every year (such as contracts, criminal law, real property, trusts and estates, civil procedure, tax, and other subjects). The nationwide all-day portion of the bar exam (as prepared by the National Conference of Bar Examiners or NCBE) is the Multistate Bar Exam (MBE). The MBE consists of 200 multiple-choice questions and is timed such that the exam-takers have six hours to complete the test. (NCBE, 2001a). The MBE covers the area of Contracts, Constitutional Law, Real Property, Civil Procedure, Criminal Law and Procedure, Evidence, and Torts. (NCBE, 2001a). Most states in the United States administer the MBE as part of the state's bar examination (NCBE, 2021b).

ABA: The American Bar Association, and, when appropriate, the accreditation section, the ABA's Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar (including its Council and the Accreditation Committee of the Section).

LSAT: the Law School Admission Test, which is the entrance exam required by most law schools and which is developed each year by the Law School Admission Council (or LSAC).

Lower-tier law schools: accredited law schools ranked 147-199 of the list of ranked law schools published annually by *U.S. News and World Report*.

Conclusion

The law school accreditation process is controlled by a single entity, the ABA. As a large organization, the ABA has been slow to consider any changes to its accreditation process as the legal profession has changed and as the organization and structure of legal education has changed. The ABA has reacted to some concerns relating to the provision of legal education – e.g. the issue of ensuring that graduates can pass a state’s bar examination – without considering whether other aspects of accreditation for law schools also need to be changed or revised. This study addressed the concerns, via an analysis of available data, of whether the ABA Standards are outdated and may in fact impede innovation. The analysis of available data is an effort to describe the events that occurred in the legal education field after the Great Recession, and the way those events were experienced by individuals in the field. In other words, the phenomena under investigation is described by use of document review and a small sample of faculty interviews.

Chapter Two presents a review of relevant literature.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter explains the accreditation requirements mandated by the ABA and the recent changes to those requirements. Then, the researcher explores the influences on accreditation and assessments of law schools and leadership before the crisis in law school enrollment that began after the 2008 recession starting with AY 2010-2011. Next, the chapter addresses the accreditation changes that were mandated after the drop in enrollment, followed by a discussion of reforms and responses to the crisis in enrollment. Law school closures/mergers had or have a profound effect on individual students, faculty, and staff. Finally, this chapter will describe leadership in law schools and the conceptual framework of this study.

Accreditation

The American Bar Association (ABA) requires law schools to obtain and maintain certain standards to be ABA-accredited. Under the Code of Federal Regulations (Title 34, Chapter VI, §602), the Council of the ABA Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar, along with the Accreditation Committee of the Section, are recognized by the United States Department of Education as the accrediting agency for programs that lead to the J.D. degree. Program completion is required by all states before a graduate can take a bar examination as an additional requirement to become licensed to practice law (American Bar Association [ABA], 2021a). The Regulation provides: “The Secretary [of the Department of Education] lists an agency as a nationally recognized accrediting agency if the agency meets the criteria for recognition...”

The Council of the ABA’s Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar promulgates the Standards and Rules of Procedure for Approval of Law Schools (the

“Standards”) with which law schools must comply in order to be accredited by the ABA. The Standards established by the Council are designed to provide a comprehensive and thorough evaluation of a law school and its compliance with the Standards (ABA, 2021a). The accreditation process includes site visits by trained evaluation teams and the collection of data in accordance with the Standards (ABA, 2021a).

A total of 199 institutions are accredited by the ABA. One hundred and ninety-eight institutions confer the J.D. degree (the first degree in law). The other accredited institution is the U.S. Army Judge Advocate General's School, which offers an officer's resident graduate course, a specialized program beyond the first degree in law. There is one provisionally approved law school: University of North Texas at Dallas College of Law (ABA, 2021b). Two law schools on the list of 199 schools are closing but were allowed to maintain continuing approval to operate for the limited purpose of “teaching out” current students so that those students can graduate from accredited (but soon to be closed) law schools. Those two schools are: Thomas Jefferson School of Law and the University of La Verne Law School.

The case of Western State exemplifies the dilemmas that law schools faced. Western State College of Law remains on the approved and accredited list, but it appeared that the school was going to close in 2019 when its owner – Argosy University – was placed in federal receivership, and Western State lost its eligibility for federal student loans. However, a federal judge overseeing the receivership approved a sale of Western State to Westcliff University for \$1.00. The ABA approved the transfer, and as of late 2020, the transfer was completed.

A law school typically first applies for provisional approval, which requires that it show that it is in substantial compliance with each of the Standards (ABA, 2021a). The ABA requires a law school that has obtained provisional approval to remain in provisional status for at least

three years, during which time the law school must present a reliable plan for bringing the school into full compliance with the Standards. The ABA further mandates that, absent extraordinary circumstances justifying an extension, a law school may not remain in provisional status for more than five years (ABA, 2021a). The ABA Standards require that a provisionally approved law school be closely monitored, and a visit to the school by a full site evaluation team is conducted in years two and four after provisional approval. To be granted full accreditation, the law school must demonstrate to the ABA that it has progressed beyond substantial compliance and must show, with the burden on the law school, that it is in full compliance with each of the Standards. Once a law school is fully accredited, its compliance with the Standards is monitored through periodic site evaluations and an annual questionnaire that requires the law school to submit information relevant to continued compliance with the accreditation, including data regarding curriculum, faculty (including student-to-faculty ratio), facilities, fiscal and administrative capacity, student retention or attrition, bar passage rates, and student placement or employment of graduates (ABA, 2021c). Since the reporting standard is numbered Standard 509, much of this information is reported annually by each law school on “Form 509” which is required by the ABA to be available to prospective students and to the public in general.

Most law schools that achieve ABA accreditation are also members of the Association of American Law Schools (AALS), which has its own membership review process that is generally conducted in parallel with the ABA review process (ABA, 2021a). If the ABA schedules a site visit to a school that is an AALS member school, then the AALS appoints one member of the ABA site visit team (ABA, 2021a).

The ABA Standards cover the following areas: organization and administration, program of legal education, faculty, admissions and student services, library and information resources,

and facilities equipment and technology (ABA, 2021c). Some ABA standards are generic, requiring things like "sufficient" space for staff, "suitable" classrooms, and "sound" admissions policies. The ABA Standards include interpretations that may add specific guidance to these generic standards (ABA, 2021c). Also, the Standards and their interpretations relate to many aspects of law school operations, including staff compensation, student-to-faculty ratios, faculty sabbaticals, faculty workloads, and physical facilities. A student-to-faculty ratio of 20:1 is required for a law school to be presumptively in compliance with the Standards, and a law school with a ratio of 30:1 or more is presumptively non-compliant. Furthermore, the Standards set the maximum number of classroom hours that a law school can require its faculty to teach (ABA, 2021c). The Standards drive a great deal of law school decision-making.

ABA Standards also require law schools to fulfill reporting requirements that take significant resources because the Standards require that data be reported exactly as the ABA demands, and many law schools now have a full-time data-reporting officer (Ward 2016b). Law schools rely upon tuition from students to be able to continue to operate; the cost of fulfilling reporting requirements can have a significant impact on a law school's overall budget, especially for non-top-tier law schools that are seeking to attract, enroll, and educate more students who show aptitude indicating likely graduation and ultimate passage of a bar exam.

Assessments of Law Schools and Leadership Before the Enrollment Crisis

In 1992, Robert MacCrate published a report commissioned by the ABA to assess legal education and a perceived gap between law schools and the bar (ABA, 1992). The report concluded that there was no real gap: "There is only an arduous road of professional development along which all prospective lawyers should travel. It is the responsibility of law schools and the practicing bar to assist students and lawyers to develop the skills and values

required to complete the journey” (ABA, 1992, p. 8). This report provided a critical conversation about legal education. Law schools began to respond to mounting pressures to train law students how to practice, not merely to know the law and “think like lawyers” (ABA, 1992, p. 238). The MacCrate Report (ABA, 1992) compelled serious attention in legal education circles and by the legal profession (1) to expect a broader range of lawyering skills and values than those traditionally taught in law schools and (2) to challenge faculty to modernize the mainstream law school curriculum to educate law students to this fuller range of essential lawyering skills and values. The report demonstrated that law schools teach some of the fundamental skills that lawyers use on a daily basis in their work but that there are many other essential lawyering skills that are not taught to law students (ABA, 1992). The report recommended that law schools expand their curricula to educate their students in the full range of lawyering skills and values (ABA, 1992).

Stuckey and Ogilvy (2007) sought to identify specific steps and ideas to complete legal education across four stages of curriculum development: identifying objectives, selecting useful learning experiences for those objectives, organizing those experiences in an effective sequence, and designing methods of evaluating the effectiveness of the experiences. The authors noted that “any description of ‘best practices’ will soon be eclipsed as we refine our understanding of the desirable goals of legal education and how to achieve them” (Stuckey & Ogilvy, 2007, p. 5). The authors’ report was near the height of the economic bubble, before the start of the Great Recession and the beginning of an ongoing crisis in law school enrollment (Stuckey & Ogilvy, 2007). Furthermore, they attempted to articulate a set of “best practices” for educating law students for their later social, professional, and economic engagement in the practice of law. This report encourages law schools and others to rethink the process of legal education and

encourage, among other things, the development of ways of educating students for a clearer, more pertinent professional identity, one that balances responsibilities to clients, community, and the profession (Stuckey & Ogilvy, 2007).

The “Carnegie Report” (Sullivan, 2007) described three “apprenticeships” essential to an effective professional education: (1) the cognitive apprenticeship that teaches knowledge and ways of thinking; (2) the practice and skills apprenticeship that teaches forms of expert practice; and (3) the professional identity and purpose apprenticeship that imparts ethical standards and a deeper sense of lawyers’ roles and responsibilities in society. Sullivan (2007) stressed the importance of skills building and education in law schools. The authors recommend that law schools offer an integrated curriculum that includes: (1) the teaching of legal doctrine and analysis, which provides the basis for professional growth; (2) the introduction to many facets of practice included under the concept of lawyering, leading to acting with responsibility for their clients' welfare; and (3) an exploration and assumption of the identity, values, and dispositions consistent with the fundamental purposes of the legal profession. Education for leadership roles is a critical aspect of such an integrated curriculum. Therefore, law schools should seek to develop opportunities to inculcate in their students a desire to become better leaders in much the same way that they encourage students to be more effective negotiators, mediators, or litigators and to be ethical, dispassionate advocates for their clients.

Joy and Keuhn (2008) provided a pre-crisis look at the idea of clinical education – or preparing students to become lawyers. The authors discuss how some schools were adopting clinical or practice-oriented classes so that law school graduates would be better prepared to do the jobs that are expected of them after they graduate.

Crisis in Law School Enrollment and Accreditation Changes

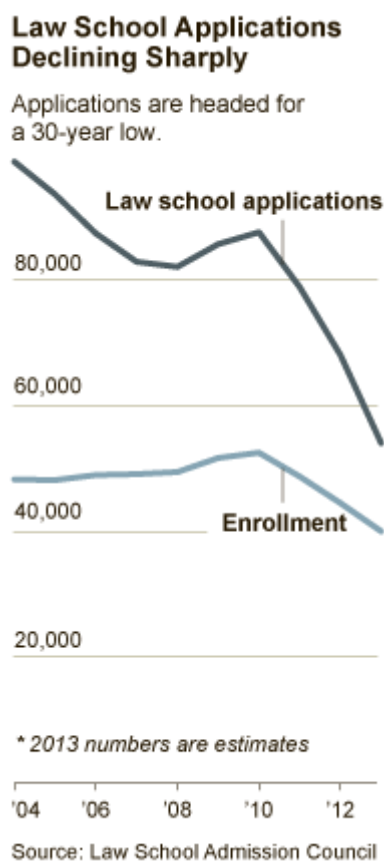
Hansen (2015) reported on the declining enrollment crisis in law schools. Hansen (2015) provided a useful history of how the legal environment changed and how legal educators were and are faced with a dilemma of having to lower admission standards in order to remain afloat financially while, at the same time, facing a regulatory or accreditation process that demands that law school graduates (including those who would not have been accepted to enroll had the admissions standards not changed) be able to pass a bar exam and find post-graduate employment in the legal field. The Law School Admissions Council (2017) provides statistical information on law school admissions and number of applicants. This information shows that the crisis in legal education started a few years after the economic downturn, and the crisis continues to this day (Law School Admissions Council, 2017).

Areen (n.d.) stated that the field of legal education experienced a time of transition and noted the applicant pool in the fall of 2013 had dropped nearly thirty percent since 2010, and that a large majority of American law schools enrolled fewer first year students in 2013 than in 2012. Since tuition is the main source of revenue for most law schools, the enrollment crisis caused many schools to operate in the red, which was a new experience in the modern world of legal education. Prior to the crisis, a majority of law schools were net contributors to the revenues of their universities rather than the law schools having to seek funding assistance from the university coffers. In Fall of 2014, overall first year enrollment dropped another four percent from 2013 to 37,924, which was the smallest first year enrollment since 1973 – a time when there were 25 fewer ABA-accredited law schools than there were in 2014.

It should be noted that the drop in enrollment did not immediately follow the 2008 Recession. In fact, enrollment increased for the first few years after 2008. When the 2008 Great

Recession began, there was an expectation that law schools would benefit, and this expectation became reality, as shown by the fact that the October 2009 sitting of the LSAT (Law School Admission Test) was the largest on record (Barton, 2020). The Law School Admissions Council (2017) provided the following graph, which indicates that the number of applicants and enrollees increased for a few years after 2008 and then sharply dropped.

Figure 1: Law School Applications Declining Sharply



Bronner (2013) reported in the *New York Times* that law school applications were, at that time, headed for a 30-year low, with 30,000 applicants to law schools for the fall, a 20 percent decrease from the same time the previous year and a 38 percent decline from 2010. Bronner (2013) also reported that, out of about 200 law schools nationwide, only 4 saw increases in

applications in 2013. The drop appeared to be a likely 54,000 applicants in 2013, as compared to 100,000 applicants in 2004.

The 2008 Recession initially prompted an increase in the number of applications to attend law school and an increase in law school enrollment, but the inability of graduates to find employment ultimately resulted in a precipitous decline in the number of applicants and in enrollment. This decline began in about 2010 and became more pronounced in 2011 (Law School Admissions Council, 2017). Partially in response to the statistics on law school graduates being unable to find employment where their Juris Doctor degrees were needed, in late 2015, a Department of Education panel recommended that the ABA's accreditation power for new law schools be suspended for one year, on the basis that the ABA failed to implement its student achievement standards and probationary sanctions (Ward, 2016a). The author indicates that, as a result of the financial crisis of 2008 and the drop in the availability for employment of law school graduates, incoming law students were admitted to law schools with lower than earlier admission test scores and undergraduate GPAs, and this has contributed to a lower pass rate on the state bar exams required for admission to the practice of law (Ward, 2016a). This pattern became somewhat of a vicious cycle, as graduates who do not pass a bar exam, by definition, cannot practice law and therefore cannot be hired as associates at a law firm.

Ward (2016a) reported that, in 2016, the Standards Review Committee (SRC) of the ABA's Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar addressed the Standards in response to the falling admissions standards and falling bar passage rates. Under the then current "bar passage" standard, a law school had to pass one of two tests: (a) within five years, 75% ultimate bar passage rate or having a 75% pass rate for at least three of those five years; or (b) first-time bar passage rate no more than 15% lower than pass rate of all ABA-approved

graduates in same jurisdiction for three or five years. The SRC submitted a new cumulative bar passage standard that would require that at least 75% of all graduates that take a bar exam must pass it within two years. The proposed standard shortened the time frame in which schools are held accountable for poor bar exam outcomes (which may make sense because, after three attempts, 99.3% of people who pass the bar exam have done so).

In May of 2019, the Council of the ABA Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar approved the change to Standard No. 316 that requires 75 percent of a law school's graduates who sit for the bar to pass it within two years. The change took effect immediately although schools falling short of the standard would be permitted to have at least two years to come into compliance (ABA, 2019).

Barnhizer (2014a) discussed survival strategies for “ordinary” law schools facing shrinkage in faculty and in the student body and recommended that law schools try to differentiate between the large-scale macro considerations, such as ABA accreditation and bar examination requirements, and focus instead micro-factors that each law school has an ability to control. Barnhizer (2016) examined data trends for Great Lakes and Midwest area law schools and found that law schools in the region are in a “survival of the fittest” mode in part due to the reduced quality of applicants as measured by performance on the LSAT entrance exam required by most law schools. The author indicates that it could have been anticipated that most of the regional law schools would reduce and restructure their faculties to try to adapt to the new conditions, including changing the ratio of tenure-track faculty as compared to non-traditional teaching positions or adjunct or contract faculty. Barnhizer (2016) noted that the parent universities of these law schools may be called upon to adapt more rapidly and flexibly to the

changing conditions in the legal education area than is possible in institutions that are heavily tenured. The author predicts that several law schools in the area are likely to “wither away.”

Reforms and Responses to the Crisis in Enrollment

The California state bar began experimenting with more dramatic requirements for admission to the bar, from mandatory pro bono to much heavier requirements for practical, applied experiences or courses (Baker, 2016). These requirements were intended to focus bar admissions on the ability to show that the applicant for admission has been trained clinically to do the job of a lawyer (Baker, 2016).

Barnhizer (2010) discussed the need for re-assessment of law school practices due to declining enrollment and new accreditation standards that focus on bar exam pass rates and on post-graduation employment statistics. This study provided recommendations for leaders in legal education dealing with the new environment for law schools regarding preparing graduates for practice and providing some assurance that the graduates are ready for employment.

Barnhizer (2011) sought to examine the theoretical orientation and technical, professional and philosophical dimensions of legal education. The author critiqued possible fundamental flaws and assumptions he believed to have been embedded in the development of legal education in the United States and what the goals of the curriculum and the primary methods of teaching should be.

Garon (2007) addressed new approaches to assessing the performance of law schools that do not include the approach of tiered rankings and discusses the concept of an association of regional law schools seeking to reshape legal education. Hamilton (2014) addressed how law schools should alter their curricula to prepare graduates to be competent professionals after they pass the bar exam, since law firms and other employers and clients of law firms want law schools

to prepare graduates who are ready and competent to practice law. Duncan (2010) discussed new accreditation standards for legal research and writing instructors at American law schools and addressed how the ABA will assess whether a law school should continue to be accredited. Thies (2010) discussed how leaders in legal education can address the competing demands caused by the need to lower admission standards in order to accept more students and by the need to ensure that a high percentage of those students can graduate with the knowledge and skills needed to pass a bar exam and to gain employment.

Maranville, Bliss, Kass, and López (2015) called for transformation in a changing environment for the legal profession and for legal education. The researchers sought to examine “the best of current and emerging practices in legal education that will guide individual teachers and law school administrators in designing a program of legal education that meets the needs of the lawyers of tomorrow” (p. xxxvii). These editors addressed the complete scope of legal education in three parts: (a) “Building an Effective Law School: Mission and Accountability;” (b) “Building a Program of Instruction that Meets the Mission;” and (c) “Building and Maintaining an Effective Institution” (Maranville, Bliss, Kass, & López, 2015).

Polden (2008) indicated that his school, Santa Clara University School of Law, initiated efforts to educate its law students for leadership roles and responsibilities in the legal profession and in their communities. The programmatic efforts included a "first of its kind" course in leadership skills for lawyers, the development of some scholarship about the concept of leadership by lawyers, several discussions of the importance of educating law students for leadership roles, and leadership skills training for student leaders at the law school. Moreover, leadership course components were being constructed and used in a law school course with the hope that other components in other courses would be developed in the future.

Leadership

Kouzes and Posner (2003) suggested a model of leadership for school administrators and indicated that leaders who want to keep their bearings and guide others toward extraordinary achievement should: (a) model the way; (b) inspire a shared vision; (c) challenge the process; (d) enable others to act; and (e) encourage the heart. Brauch (2017) described three of the role models he most admires and what they taught him about leadership. Brauch (2017) indicated that the leadership traits that a law school dean needs are: vision, endurance and a heart to serve.

Wu (2015) stated his belief that the legal educational program leadership is fundamentally flawed and in need of reform even if the legal marketplace temporarily improves. The author indicated that the recent economic crisis exposed pre-existing problems, and he believed that the crisis presents a great opportunity for a law school dean because the crisis created an unprecedented opportunity to lead, when judges, existing lawyers, and the general public were all demanding reform in legal education. The author noted that some external observers attempted to implement their changes without understanding what changes were needed or helpful. However, a law school dean in the post-recession crisis had a unique opportunity because rarely is there so much support for an educational institution to be re-invented, and Wu (2015) stated that a leader who presented potentially worthwhile alternatives or reforms would find constituents who were willing to consider his or her suggested approaches. The author also stated that a candidate considering a deanship should not be daunted by the downsizing of legal education because similar tremendous stresses also exist during periods of growth. Finally, the author also noted that a dean who would be a good fit for one school will not necessarily be good for another because schools face different problems, such as faculty

divisiveness, the central administration, lack of identity, a structural deficit, or law school rankings.

Similarly, Alexander (2015) indicated that a dean or one seeking to become a dean should view the current law school admissions climate as an opportunity to reexamine how law schools operate. Alexander noted that, in this rapidly changing legal education environment, deans need to lead differently and to view their role and functions in a new way. The researcher argued that law school deans must be equally comfortable in a business environment as in an academic environment and that the deans must be attuned to changing market forces and to the need to embrace the new realities of legal education. Alexander (2015) stated that deans should “operate on the basis of principles” (p. 259) and make choices and decisions in a way that “maximizes good.” Law school deans need to be prepared to make changes in curricula in order for students to become more “practice ready” or “client ready” (Alexander, 2015). However, offering students more clinics and externships is not enough, and curricula need to include integrated skills training, lawyering skills exercises, and ethics training attached to almost every course taught in the law school so that there will be an across-the-board infusion of skills training. Alexander (2015) also noted that the modern law school and its leaders need to confront or address the criticisms that law schools cost too much, do not result in sufficient job opportunities, and have abandoned vocational instruction purporting to train students for the legal profession in favor of “theory” instruction because of ivory-tower ignorance about what lawyers actually do (Alexander, 2015). However, curricula changes are only part of the need for a dean to work to transform an entire law school community (Alexander, 2015). Alexander (2015) noted that deans need to be ready and willing to steer their law schools in a new direction while recognizing that it is almost impossible for the average dean to lead the institution, to serve

as the “face” of the law school to external constituencies, to be attentive to opportunities, to satisfy a demanding administration, and to pay attention to the business aspects of a law school.

Likewise, Carasik (2010) indicated that a law school dean now has an unprecedented opportunity “to undertake a comprehensive and unflinching valuation of the deeply entrenched and inflexible system of legal education, a system that has utterly failed to adapt its pedagogy, culture, and economics to the current and devastating reality facing law students” (p. 736). The researcher stated that leaders need to allow flexibility for schools to reevaluate their institutional missions, increase diversity of faculty and students, encourage student self-reflection, rethink mandatory grading curves, provide mentoring opportunities, encourage innovations in curricular teachings, provide clinics or externships or other experiential classes, focus on professionalism and ethics, and revise the evaluation of scholarly publication and the related reward system for professors.

Wegner (2009) offered insights as to why legal education reform is so difficult and draws upon the theory of “wicked problems” which is increasingly used in fields such as public policy and engineering. Wegner (2009) suggested strategies for “renegotiating” existing assumptions and practices to improve the law school curriculum, including large-scale purposeful redesign, rethinking content, rethinking pedagogy, and rebalancing teaching and learning responsibilities.

Transforming a law school community may require changes to how faculty teach their classes and interact with law students. Sturm and Guinier (2007) stated that tenure-track faculty members are discouraged by the standard law school’s reward structure from taking the time to provide students with ongoing, qualitative, timely, and individualized feedback. The faculty reward structure in law schools provides limited rewards for excellent teaching or for working with students outside of class. Sturm and Guinier (2007) also noted that, even with regard to

students' exams, faculty do not want to spend any more time than necessary evaluating and providing comments, because faculty find the exam review task tedious and do not view grading as an integral part of teaching due, in part, to the fact that most grading takes place after the class is over. Also, a law school professor's worth is measured in his or her publications, and this incentive structure places serious constraints on any innovation that will require faculty to elevate teaching over publication or scholarship. The professors devote their time to authoring publications directed to an academic audience of specialists, rather than mentoring to a broad constituency of students (Sturm & Guinier, 2007).

Gardner (2017) stated that individuals in organizations need to work together to integrate their separate skill sets and knowledge bases to forge unified, coherent solutions. The author opined that collaboration across functional boundaries in efficient and effective ways will lead to better results in solving problems that only teams of multidisciplinary experts can handle. Sturm (2013) noted that the law school environment does not encourage students to learn how to collaborate with others – even though collaboration and working with others is required of a person in law practice, and he argued that legal educators should focus on how lawyers participate in and exercise leadership in a wide variety of settings and do so in ways that are collaborative with other professions. Sturm (2013) argued that learning should be structured to encourage and build capacity for collaboration. First, he advocated the redesigning of law schools to create multigenerational cohorts (including faculty and cross-field professionals) who will provide opportunities to learn and work together. Second, legal education should address significant and complex problems – resulting in a kind of learning that will break down the dichotomy between theory and practice, teaching and research, and clinical and academic teaching (Sturm, 2013). Law schools adopting this approach will enable students to engage in

regular collaboration with experienced practitioners and faculty and to integrate knowledge with practice (Sturm, 2013). Third, Sturm (2013) encouraged law schools to integrate multidisciplinary and multidimensional knowledge and practice and build this into the curriculum and value system. Finally, law schools should build systematic reflection into their culture and practice so that students can step back from mastery of skills and inquire collaboratively about the goals, strategies, barriers, and impact associated with work of lawyers.

Meyerson (2015) indicated there is “a distinct and remarkably consistent culture in most American law schools” that is “constructed by the shared norms and the implicit rules of the game, the habits of thinking, and the mental models that frame how people interpret their experience” (p. 522). Meyerson (2015) noted that one significant feature of the law school culture is a focus on viewing legal work products as the result of primarily individual effort and hence a source of solely personal achievement. As Marlow (2011) stated: “The values we attend to in the classroom are apt to be individualism and autonomy” (p. 247). Meyerson (2015) noted that law school culture fails to educate law students in the ways of working on a team and law school graduates lack the emotional intelligence skills needed to work well with others. Meyerson (2015) linked some of this problem to the fact that law faculty also fail to collaborate as evidenced by the fact that most law review articles are not co-authored, because the reward system for publication punishes those professors who collaborate with or co-author with other professors.

Conceptual Framework

Organizational Change and the Effect on Employees

Numerous studies have examined how organizational change can impact employees. Flovik, Knardahl, and Christensen (2019) conducted a study to examine the relationship between

organizational change and subsequent mental distress experienced by employees two years after change had taken place. Cullen-Lester, Webster, Edwards and Braddy (2018) examined the effects of multiple negative, neutral, and positive organizational changes.

Institutional Changes.

The Great Recession of 2008 brought great upheaval to many aspects of the American economy. At first, however, law schools saw an increase in applications and enrollment as individuals sought an education that would lead to employment. Within a few years, though, the job market for new lawyers deteriorated. By 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis. This study collected and reviewed publicly available data to examine the changes that occurred in law schools following the economic downturn.

Individual Changes

Organizational change is often an uncomfortable experience, with the associated emotions being likened to the stages of grief model (Bennett, Perry, & Lapworth, 2010). A transformational approach could assist leaders to be both visionary and effective in bringing about change (Bennett, Perry, & Lapworth, 2010). Leaders may experience grief reactions that they should recognize are also being experienced by their followers. Latham (2013) conducted in-depth interviews with fourteen chief executive officers who were successful in leading organization transformations that resulted in being recognized as recipients of the “Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award.” Latham (2013) found that numerous internal and external drivers for change operated in combination to create tension in the organizations to overcome the inertia of status quo, and that the reactions to the drivers for tension or change were often

defensive and followed the sequence of stages or emotions described by Kubler-Ross (1969). Latham (2013) reported that several CEOs described this emotional cycle when they received their feedback reports, and it was only after learning took place and progress when CEOs arrived at the stage of acceptance.

The Kubler-Ross (1969) model identified individual responses to approaching death as denial and isolation, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance (Kearney & Hyle, 2015). Kubler-Ross (1969) viewed the grief process as stages that could repeat, replace each other, or exist at the same time, and she found that hope was an underlying emotion or feeling that was threaded throughout the process of dying (Kearney and Hyle, 2015). The Kubler-Ross (1969) model has been used in several peer-reviewed studies (Kearney & Hyle, 2003; Kearney, 2013; Kearney & Siegman, 2013; Marquitz, Badding, & Chermack, 2016).

Kearney (2013) collected data regarding emotions and sense-making at an urban community college that was undergoing the process the replacement of a college president with a new president. Kearney (2013) focused on the “hot zone” period between the time of the announcement of a change and the announcement of the arrival of the new president. The “hot zone” was the period during which negative emotions were dominant and organizational meaning was fragmented (Kearney, 2013). Employing the Kubler-Ross grief construct, Kearney (2013) described how leaders could plan for the time of the hot zone could be reduced, how leaders could reaffirm that negative emotion can accompany positive change, and how incoming presidents can take consider the grief reactions in taking initial actions.

Summary

Accreditation changes and reduced enrollment have brought about significant changes in the legal education environment. Faculty members have lost their jobs, courses have been

discontinued due to the need to focus on the need to graduate students who can pass the bar exam, entire curricula have been changed, some law schools have shuttered their doors, and the sense of change and accompanying fear has become paramount amongst faculty, staff, and even students. This dramatic change from the way the legal education profession very recently operated leads to an opportunity to address how such change has caused grief and loss reactions. Both institutions and individuals experience grief and loss when responding to external pressures.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The methodology for this study draws from two frameworks: one examines the institutional changes that occurred in response to the downturn or recession. External societal changes led to institutional change. The second framework examined the personal or internal changes that occur as a result of those external pressures within the persons who experienced the institutional change.

The phenomenon investigated by the study is the crisis in legal education brought about by the Great Recession of 2008. The researcher examined the phenomenon by (a) collecting, reviewing, and conducting a content analysis of publicly available data regarding the changes occurring in the field of legal education following the economic downturn; and (b) interviewing persons (law school faculty members) who had experienced the crisis and then coding and analyzing the responses to interview questions. This study used a qualitative descriptive approach, which is appropriate where information is required directly from those who experienced the phenomena under investigation (Neergaard, Oleson, Anderson, & Sondergaard, 2009). Data collection methods in qualitative description designs can include an examination of publicly available program materials as well as interviews and document review (Colorafi & Evans, 2016). The descriptive design assisted in providing answers to questions regarding what happened during the crisis in legal education, when did the crisis begin, who was involved and how law school leaders characterized their responses to the external pressures.

There were also data collected to show how individuals reacted or responded, and how they felt about the changes they had experienced.

Selection Criteria for Institutions

With regard to institutions' reactions or responses to changing accreditation standards and crises in the legal education field, this study collected data through publicly available information. A total of 199 institutions are accredited by the ABA. One hundred and ninety-eight institutions confer the J.D. degree (the first degree in law). The other accredited institution is the U.S. Army Judge Advocate General's School, which offers an officer's resident graduate course, a specialized program beyond the first degree in law. There is one provisionally approved law school: University of North Texas at Dallas College of Law (ABA, 2021b). Two law schools on the list of 199 schools are closing but were allowed to maintain continuing approval to operate for the limited purpose of "teaching out" current students so that those students can graduate from accredited (but soon to be closed) law schools. Those two schools are: Thomas Jefferson School of Law and the University of La Verne Law School. It should be noted that the state of California has a very large number of law schools, because California allows graduates from schools that are not accredited by the ABA to sit for the California bar exam if such schools are only accredited by the State Bar of California (Sloan, 2019).

This study involved a purposive sample that included three schools from each of the four "tiers" of law school rankings, for a total of twelve law schools. The ABA provides only statements regarding the accreditation status of each accredited law school. The most cited and authoritative rankings are the rankings published annually by *U.S. News and World Report*, which bases its rankings on criteria such as bar passage rate, student-to-faculty ratio, graduate employment numbers, placement success, salary level of employed graduates, overall career benefits, and other criteria. These 12 schools are a "purposeful sample" that are representative of each of the four tiers.

It is generally accepted that the law schools are grouped in four “tiers.” However, the general consensus is that the tiers do not have an equal number of schools. Instead, the top tier consists of fourteen schools. The next tier (T2) consists of schools ranked 15-100. The third tier consists of schools ranked 101-146, and the fourth tier consists of schools ranked 147-199. The U.S. News and World report does not technically even “rank” the fourth tier; rather a school is reported as being on the list of schools ranked 147-199 (without specifically reporting on whether a particular school is 147 or 199 on the list of rankings). The list of law schools ranked by *U.S. News and World Report* for 2021 is shown on Appendix A.

Institutional Settings

This researcher selected the schools ranked first, second, and third within each of the first three tiers and randomly selected three schools from the list of schools shown as being ranked 147-199 on the list of rankings (i.e. the fourth tier). The sample, therefore, represents a purposeful (or purposive) sample consisting of the top 3 schools in each of the 4 tiers. Specifically, this researcher examined publicly available data regarding the following law schools: (a) Tier 1 –Yale University, Stanford University, and Harvard University; (b) Tier 2 – Georgetown University, University of Texas, and Vanderbilt University; (c) Tier 3 – University of Mississippi, CUNY, and Drake University; (d) Tier 4 – Barry University, Nova Southeastern University, and Western Michigan University.

The purpose of the study was to document the responses of the legal education community to the changing economics during the Great Recession, so the range of law schools is represented by this sample. Schools in tiers 3 and 4 experienced a much greater loss of faculty and resources, so the individuals that were interviewed were drawn from those tiers.

Selection Criteria for Individuals

With regard to individuals' responses to the changing landscape of legal education, this qualitative descriptive approach collected data through the use of interviews of law school public services librarians (who are, for the most part faculty) from various lower tier law schools in the United States. Participants were sought via a listserv that connects librarians with other librarians, and permission to post an invitation to participate in an interview was sought and granted prior to posting from the listserv administrator. The wording of the invitation was approved in advance of use by the Institutional Review Board of the University of New England. Initially, the researcher sought between 8 and 12 individuals who were willing to be interviewed. However, because of COVID 19 and other extenuating factors, this researcher was unable to garner that number. The three participants who did agree to interviews contributed to the findings by providing information regarding their personal experiences of the phenomenon of the crisis in legal education, but the majority of the data is descriptive of the institutional changes that took place over the last decade.

Lower-tier law schools are those ranked 147-199 published annually by *U.S. News and World Report*. The reason for the selection of lower-tier law schools is that, while the legal education crisis affected all law schools, the lower-tier law schools are believed to be the ones that were impacted the most due to closures or layoffs. All law schools had to lower their admission standards during the crisis in order to maintain adequate enrollment levels to continue to operate. Lower-tier law schools were thus left with an ever-decreasing pool of highly qualified applicants for admission – i.e. applicants for admission whose entrance exam scores and undergraduate grades would indicate a likelihood of being able to complete the law school program and then being able to pass a bar exam.

The participants sought for interviews were public services librarians (who were also faculty) who had been in the legal education for more than ten years and who were willing to participate in interviews regarding the changes that have occurred in the legal education field over the past ten years or more. Participants were recruited by sending an invitation to participate to various public services law librarians (who are generally also members of faculty). Those librarians willing to participate were interviewed via the “gotomeeting” software so that interviews could be more easily transcribed by this researcher. Due to the low number of participants who agreed to be interviewed (during this difficult pandemic period), the actual law schools where the participants are employed will not be identified, so that the participants’ privacy and identity can be protected. All participants had been in the legal education field for more than 15 years and they were all employed during the financial crisis of 2008 – therefore they lived through the crisis that followed the 2008 Great Recession, and they were willing to describe their personal experiences of the changes that occurred in the field of legal education following the Recession.

Data transcription was completed by hand, by the researcher. Further, all transcripts were emailed to the participants within two days of their interviews, so that a transcript review could take place. No participant had any edits or changes to make to his or her interview transcript.

Participant Rights

Approval was obtained by this researcher from the University of New England’s Institutional Review Board, and permission to contact interviewees was obtained from the law schools where the participants were employed. Further, the researcher informed the interviewees that the study and the interviews were voluntary and that they had no obligation to participate and that they could leave at any time. The participants were told that their participation and

answers to questions would be kept confidential and that their positions as faculty members would not be affected. This researcher hoped to locate eight to twelve volunteer participants from lower-tier law schools, but, possibly due to the Covid pandemic, only three volunteers completed the interviews.

Participants were referred to by pseudonyms in the study, and they signed informed consent forms to agree to the interviews. The interviewees were advised regarding the purpose of the study, and they were advised that the interviews would address their emotional responses to their experience of the changes that occurred in the legal education field after the 2008 Recession, including issues of grief and loss. Participants were notified of their rights to end participation at any time, and regarding the fact that they would receive a copy of the findings. Participants were permitted to ask questions at any time during the process, including at the conclusion of their interviews.

Participants were informed of the general background of the questions. Participants were told that the questions were for the purpose of a dissertation on organization change and leadership and that the questions would address their emotional responses to the changes in the legal education field since the time of the Great Recession. Participants were informed that expressing their emotions could make them uncomfortable and that they could withdraw from the interview process before the interview started or at any time during the process. Participants were informed that they could review the research study after it was completed. The identity of the participants was kept confidential, and there were protections in place to avoid deductive disclosure. The actual employment location of each individual responder was not disclosed. Any information that could identify the responder is excluded from this study.

Data

Institutional Data

With regard to institutional changes after 2011, data were collected via publicly available information. The twelve schools included in the sample are required by the ABA to report (annually) various statistical information on bar pass rates, graduate employment information, faculty size, number of students, and related information. Much of this data is available for current years and for each calendar year in the past since at least 2011. Also, data are available to provide a “snapshot” of the state of law schools, in general, over the years, including the years following the Great Recession of 2008. It should be noted that, although the economic crisis started in 2008, the initial years following 2008 saw an increase in law school enrollment and in the number of applicants. The crisis for law school admissions and number of applicants started in 2010. This researcher conducted a content analysis of publicly available data and compared data points in 2011 to similar data points in 2018.

Individual Data

Data consisted of transcripts of interviews conducted with public services librarians who agreed to be interviewed. Questions were open-ended and the participants were asked about the changes that have occurred in the legal education field and the changes that have occurred in their work environments. Interviews were semi-structured, but the interview questions followed as-is the interview guide used by Kearney (2003). Further, Dr. Kearney authorized the use of the interview guide with this researcher. This researcher agreed that any modifications to the interview guide made by this researcher would be sent to Dr. Kearney for approval prior to use. However, no modifications were found to be needed. Appendix B lists the questions provided by personal communication from Kearney (2019).

Participants were selected by sending an invitation to participate to various public services law librarians (who are generally also members of faculty). Those librarians willing to participate were interviewed via the “gotomeeting” software so that interviews could be more easily transcribed. This researcher transcribed the interviews. The researcher initially sought no fewer than eight participants, but the COVID pandemic may have limited the willingness of faculty to participate in the interview process. Three participants were willing to be interviewed.

Analysis

Analysis of Data for Institutions

The publicly available data for the twelve schools in the sample were analyzed via content analysis to determine how the law schools responded to the crisis in the legal education and how the law schools responded to changes in accreditation standards. The available information provided data points for 2011, shortly after the drop in enrollment and number of applicants started, and the ability to compare the same subject matter for a recent (post-Recession) year of 2018. The data included information regarding how changes in bar passage rate standards drove changes to curricula, staffing, funding and other issues. These data will be shown in charts in the Results Chapter.

Analysis of Data for Individuals

Interview data were analyzed and the responses to questions were coded to determine when the responder includes language that focuses on Kubler-Ross grief issues such as loss, anger, acceptance, etc. Coding began with a priori codes since this research design used the frame of the Kubler-Ross theory or model (Elliott, 2018). The a priori (or pre-set) codes are based on the Kubler-Ross framework such that the interview responses are coded based upon the stages identified by Kubler-Ross (1969): denial and isolation, anger, bargaining, depression, and

acceptance. Then, coding was opened up to additional codes that emerge during the first analysis (Elliott, 2018), and axial coding was used to examine the relationships between categories and concepts developed in the earlier coding process (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

The interviews were recorded by way of the gotomeeting online site and transcribed by this researcher. This researcher searched the transcriptions for any differences or commonalities regarding the feelings experienced by the interviewees and whether the feelings they expressed had any relationship to the stages of grief and loss proposed by Kubler-Ross (1969). The use of the qualitative descriptive approach permitted this researcher to perceive that grief and loss issues arise during organizational change and crisis.

Limitations of the Study

The purposeful sample of institutions may not be representative of law schools in general or of each tier of accredited law schools. Also, this researcher may have biases with regard to her own perceptions of the changes that have occurred in the legal education field and of the ABA's focus on bar exam pass rates. The fact that faculty respondents may not be employed at a single location or law school may dilute the findings of the study, but the effort to focus on lower-tier law schools is an effort to seek homogeneity in the settings.

The small sample size, possibly due to the pandemic, is a limitation of this study. Also, this researcher must assume that the interviewees were truthful and open about their responses to the questions and that the participants understood the questions. However, the questions were rather short and clear. The interview protocol allowed this researcher to ask some follow-up questions when needed and to try to make sure that the participants felt that they could speak freely regarding their feeling about what occurred in the legal education field during the financial crisis.

Potential bias is also a possible limitation of this study because this researcher works as a public services librarian at a law school.

Conclusion

The Great Recession of 2008 led to significant changes in the field of legal education. This study examined the crisis by reviewing documents that provided data points in 2011 and in 2018 (for twelve selected law schools) regarding: enrollment, number of applicants, number of admission offers made to the pool of applicants, average GPA of the applicants, average LSAT scores of the applicants, number of full-time faculty, number of part-time faculty, number of librarians, and classes offered. This document review provided a description of the crisis in the field of legal education, and the interviews provided qualitative information from persons who had first-hand experience of the crisis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The study was guided by the research questions referenced earlier:

1. What changes did law schools implement in response to the crisis in legal education following the Great Recession of 2008?
2. How do faculty members experience the impact of new ABA Standards on admissions, on teaching, on research, and or providing services to students?
3. How do law school faculty members experience the losses at the program level and at the personal level?

Setting

For institutions, this study examined publicly available data regarding the following law schools: (a) Tier 1 –Yale University, Stanford University, and Harvard University; (b) Tier 2 – Georgetown University, University of Texas, and Vanderbilt University; (c) Tier 3 – University of Mississippi, City University of New York (CUNY), and Drake University; (d) Tier 4 – Barry University, Nova Southeastern University, and Western Michigan University (Cooley).

For individuals, the study was conducted via online sessions with librarians (who were also faculty members) at lower-tiered law schools in the United States. Since few participants agreed to be interviewed, the universities where the three participants are employed will not be identified so that the participants' privacy and confidentiality can be protected. All volunteers had worked as law librarians and faculty members since before 2008. One item of interest with regard to the low number of participants is that this researcher was unable to locate many potential candidates who had been employed in the legal education field in 2008 who were still employed at the time an invitation to be interviewed was sent.

Results for Institutions

This section contains a review of law school institutional data that portray the changes in programming and student quality. Programming changes included calling upon faculty to teach more courses, to teach more students, and to include material or teach courses designed to assist students to pass a bar exam. Faculty were also required by administrators (or faculty took it upon themselves) to collaborate with law firm leaders to develop and implement new experiential and clinical courses. Thus, there was a change in the way the legal education was delivered to students, including a shift in emphasis to more experiential or clinical courses (designed and implemented in collaboration with practitioners) and more elective course choices after the first year of law school.

Changes involving student quality included the number of applications for admission received by law schools, the number of offers of admissions made to those who applied, the number of enrollees, the new enrollees' scores on the LSAT, and bar passage rate data.

Bar Passage Rates

The National Conference of Bar Examiners (NCBE) provides some statistics on the scores nationwide for the portion of state bar exams that is administered in all of the states. The information is provided with regard to the portion of the bar exam that is authored by the NCBE.

By way of background, each state will, in general, have one examination day that is devoted to the law of the state in which the bar exam is being administered. This portion of the bar exams generally consists of essay questions that are unique to each state, that will change every year, and that may involve different subjects every year (such as contracts, criminal law, real property, trusts and estates, civil procedure, tax, and other subjects). The nationwide all-day portion of the bar exam (as prepared by the NCBE) is the Multistate Bar Exam (MBE). The

MBE consists of 200 multiple-choice questions and is timed such that the exam-takers have six hours to complete the test. (NCBE, 2001a). The MBE covers the area of Contracts, Constitutional Law, Real Property, Civil Procedure, Criminal Law and Procedure, Evidence, and Torts. (NCBE, 2001a). Most states in the United States administer the MBE as part of the state’s bar examination. (NCBE, 2021b). In 2019, the only jurisdictions not using the MBE were Louisiana and Puerto Rico, mainly because these jurisdictions are unique due to the fact that they employ civil law systems rather than common law systems employed by all other states and jurisdictions (NCBE, 2021c). Note that 2020 was unique and unusual, as several states waived the MBE requirement due to the pandemic, and some states even allowed a “diploma privilege” to authorize a provisional bar license (sometimes under apprenticeship) to practice law. (NCBE, 2021d). The NCBE (2021e) provided a summary of the history of bar pass rates nationwide which is included in Appendix C.

Student to Faculty Ratio

The following is a snapshot of Student-to-Faculty Ratio by Years (broken into categories depending on number of enrolled students):

Table 4.1 Student-to-Faculty Ratio by Years for All Law Schools

	FTE	FTE	FTE	FTE	FTE
Academic	Enrollment	Enrollment	Enrollment	Enrollment	Enrollment
Year	1 - 299	300 - 499	500 - 699	700 - 1,099	Above 1,099
2013 - 2014	13.2	13	13.5	14	14.2
2012 - 2013	13.4	13.7	14.6	14.3	14.8
2011 - 2012	15.7	14.2	14.0	14.9	15.4
2010 - 2011	12.9	14.2	14.5	14.5	15.0
2009 - 2010	13.9	14.5	14.4	15.4	15.3
2008 - 2009	13.0	14.4	14.1	15.9	15.0
2007 - 2008	12.5	14.6	14.5	15.4	15.9
2006 - 2007	14.1	14.8	15.1	15.9	16.6

https://www.americanbar.org/groups/legal_education/resources/statistics/statistics-archives/

The pattern in the chart above indicates that the student-to-faculty ratio declined (fewer students per faculty member) for all categories of law schools when the 2006-2007 year is compared to the 2007-2008 year. There was also a decline in the student-to-faculty ration when the 2009-2010 year is compared to the 2010-2011 year in all categories – except for those law schools with enrollment of 500-699 students, which experienced a minor increase from 14.4 to only 14.5. By the 2011-2012 year, two categories of law schools (those with enrollment of 1-299 and those with enrollment above 1,099 saw a sharp increase in student-to-faculty ratios as compared to the pre-crisis year of 2008-2009. As indicated below, enrollment across schools decreased such that some schools would have moved from one category down to a different category of enrollment as the years progressed after the crisis in enrollment.

Information Regarding Students for the Twelve Law Schools in the Sample

Based on data compiled from ABA required disclosures (which are listed on Standard Form 509 Information Reports which, for each of the 12 schools for each year from 2011 to 2020, are attached as Appendix D), below is a summary of data relating to law school students for 2011 and 2018.

Table 4.2 Law School Admissions Changes between 2011 and 2018

	Number of Applicants 2011	Number of Applicants 2018	Number of Offers 2011	Number of Offers 2018	Students 2011 Total 1st Year	Students 2018 Total 1st Year	LSAT 2011 25%	LSAT 2018 25%	GPA 2011	GPA 2018
Yale University	3173	3473	252	238	638 205	621 164	170	170	3.96	3.98
Stanford University	3783	4360	372	380	571 180	565 165	167	169	3.93	3.99
Harvard University	6335	7551	842	971	1679 559	1737 484	171	170	3.97	3.97
Georgetown University	9413	10093	2681	2143	1932 579	2013 559	167	163	3.8	3.9
University of Texas/ Austin	4759	5580	1303	1169	1136 370	1005 372	165	160	3.8	3.88
Vanderbilt University	3987	5143	1054	1217	586 193	577 177	165	161	3.84	3.87
University of Mississippi	1656	1053	534	453	531 180	364 145	151	150	3.69	3.65
City University of New York	1883	1606	563	612	480 171	578 205	153	150	3.54	3.58
Drake University	996	525	557	311	447 142	313 104	153	151	3.64	3.75
Barry University	2324	1444	1347	830	708 267	654 254	147	146	3.26	3.38
Nova Southeastern University	1930	1311	828	599	1050 354	636 197	148	148	3.43	3.34
Western Michigan University	3433	1456	2795	1254	3628 1161	1269 540	143	139	3.35	3.33

Number of Applicants, Number of Admissions Offers, and Enrollment Data

This chart shows that, when comparing the 2011 number of applicants to the 2018 number of applicants, the number increased for the top six schools on the list (Tiers 1 and 2), but the applicant pool shrank for the last six schools on the list (generally Tiers 3 and 4). With a few exceptions, the number of offers of admissions to the pool of applicants to each school was also reduced over that period – the exceptions being Stanford (Tier 1), Harvard (Tier 1), Vanderbilt (Tier 2), and CUNY (Tier 3). In other words, only one school in the Tier 3/Tier 4 group saw an increase in the number of offers of admission.

Another column lists the number of students, with the total number of students for each year (2011 and 2018) being the top number and the total number of first-year students for each year (2011 and 2018) being the lower number. The first-year class was reduced when 2018 is compared to 2011 in all schools, except that University of Texas Austin increased by two students and CUNY increased from 171 to 205. The total class size was reduced in all schools except for Harvard University, Georgetown University, and CUNY. The most significant reductions were experienced (on a percentage basis) in the Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools (except for CUNY).

In summary, while the number of applicants for admission increased for the top six schools on the list and shrunk for the last six schools on the list, the number of enrollees (applicants who were admitted and enrolled) was reduced for all schools except for two.

New Enrollees' Scores on Law School Admission Test (LSAT)

With regard to LSAT (Law School Admission Test), it is important to note that, while the ABA once required that law schools report annual median scores on the LSAT in addition to reporting data regarding LSAT percentiles, but the requirement to report median scores was dropped. More recently, the ABA only requires that law schools report the 75th percentile, the 50th percentile, and the 25th percentile. To examine any change in admissions criteria, the key data point to consider is the 25th percentile information because that is where law schools can be expected to lower admissions criteria (so as to keep enrollment and tuition income up) when the number of applicants is reduced or when the overall LSAT scores of applicants are lower as compared to scores of applicants in earlier years. The logic behind this was described by Kitroeff (2015) in a report on concerns with LSAT scores in *Business Week (Bloomberg Business)*:

Low scores on the Law School Admission Test have dipped at most schools in recent years, a new report shows. A paper released last month by the National Conference of Bar Examiners, the nonprofit that creates part of the bar exam, shows that since 2010, 95 percent of the 196 U.S. law schools at least partially accredited by the American Bar Association for which the NCBE had data lowered their standards for students near the bottom of the pack. The NCBE compiled data from the American Bar Association and the Law School Admission Council, the group that administers the LSAT, to illustrate the decline in LSAT scores for students at the 25th percentile—meaning, the students who were at the very top of the bottom quartile of students.

To summarize, the author reported that admission criteria were changed prior to 2015 and that the key area of decline in LSAT scores could be observed by considering the bottom quartile of students admitted to any particular law school and determining the highest LSAT score in that lowest of quartiles. By examining this score data year after year of admissions, one can determine that the students admitted at the bottom quartile of students in years following the enrollment crisis were less likely to graduate (as measured and statistically predicted by LSAT scores) as compared to the bottom quartile of students admitted in earlier years prior to the enrollment crisis. The report continued with the following insight:

Standards aren't just falling at lower-tier schools—Emory University, ranked among the top 20 U.S. law schools by U.S. News and World Report, had the single largest drop in LSAT scores for this group, enrolling bottom-tier students who'd scored nine points worse than three years earlier (on a test where 120 is the lowest score and 180 is the highest score.) In fact, 20 of the 22 U.S. News top-20

schools—there was a three-way tie for 20th place—were enrolling students with lower test scores. Across all schools, LSAT scores for the 25th percentile dropped an average of three points.

As demonstrated by this report, the LSAT scores for the bottom quartile of students admitted to any particular law school were, in general, declining across all tiers of law schools. It should be noted, however, that, as set forth in Table 4.2 earlier, the law schools in Tier 1 and Tier 2 experienced the decline in ways that were different than the law schools in Tier 3 and Tier 4 due to the fact that those lower-tier schools admitted students (at the bottom quartile of students admitted) with significantly lower LSAT scores than the LSAT scores for the same quartiles in the higher-tier schools. For example, for Harvard and Yale in 2018, the LSAT score at the 25th percentile was 170, while at Barry University, the LSAT score at the 25th percentile was 146.

The report continued by explaining the reasons for examining scores on the Law School Admission Test in general and by discussing the connection between LSAT scores and bar passage rates:

LSAT scores matter because they tend to correlate closely with scores on one section of the bar exam, so when schools admit lower-scoring students on the former test, they risk producing more graduates who have a hard time passing the bar. The median LSAT score across all schools has also declined, by 1.7 points from 2010-13, according to the LSAC. Academically weaker students aren't the only thing threatening U.S. law schools—first-year enrollment is down 28 percent across ABA-accredited schools since 2010. Emory's enrollment declined 21 percent from 2010 to 2013.

In a report published in *The Bar Examiner* by the President of the National Association of Bar Examiners, Moeser (2014) summarized her findings regarding the decline in LSAT scores at that time:

I understand that the number of law schools reporting a median LSAT score below 150 for their entering classes has escalated over the past few years. To the extent that LSAT scores correlate with MBE [Multistate Bar Exam] scores, this cannot bode well for law schools with a median LSAT score below the 150 threshold. Specifically, I looked at what happened to the overall mean LSAT score as reported by the Law School Admission Council for the first-year matriculants between 2010 (the class of 2013) and 2011 (the class of 2014). The reported mean dropped a modest amount for those completing the first year (from 157.7 to 157.4). What is unknown is the extent to which the effect of a change to reporting LSAT scores (from the average of all scores to the highest score earned) has offset what would otherwise have been a greater drop.

LSAC Research Reports indicate that roughly 30% of LSAT takers are repeaters and that this number has increased in recent years. The report states that:

Beyond the national means lie the data that are specific to individual law schools, many of which have been struggling for several years with declining applications and shrinking enrollment figures. In some instances, law schools have been able to maintain their level of admission predictors—the undergraduate grade point average (UGPA) and the LSAT score. Some have reduced class sizes in order to accomplish this. To make judgments about changes in the cohort attending law school, it is useful to drill down to the 25th percentile of UGPA and LSAT scores

for the years in question. There we see evidence of slippage at some schools, in some cases notwithstanding reductions in class size. And for matriculants below the 25th percentile, we know nothing; the tail of the curve leaves a lot of mystery, as the credentials of candidates so situated (presumably those last admitted) and the degree of change are unknown.

When comparing LSAT in 2011 and 2018, as shown by the chart above, scores for the 25th percentile were stable or even improved for the Tier 1 schools. All other schools indicated at least some significant reduction in the scores (from 1 point to 5 points), except for Nova Southeastern University, which was unchanged in this category. Barton (2020), in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, noted that most schools were trying to maintain LSAT scores overall. Since the number of applications was reduced and the number of qualified applicants shrunk, law schools accomplished this by reducing the number of students in the 75th percentile – i.e. those with high scores and increasing the number of students in the 25th percentile). Barton (2020) also notes that, to attract applicants with higher LSAT scores, tuition discounts had to be offered, costs had to be reduced, and the first-year class size was reduced.

Overview of Enrollment Data and LSAT Score Data

The following data are culled from a chart published by Moeser (2014) for all schools. The chart below shows the data as of 2014 for the twelve schools in the sample:

Table 4.3: Changes in First-Year Enrollment and Changes to the LSAT Score at the 25th Percentile from 2010 to 2013

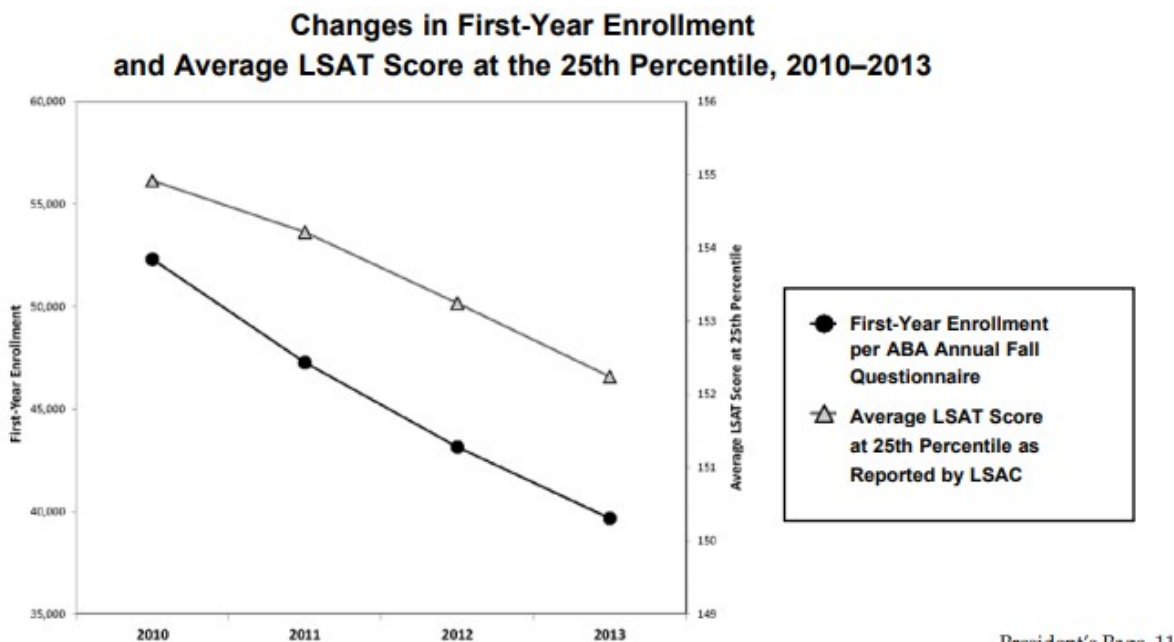
School	Total First-Year Enrollment				% Change, 2010 to 2013	25% LSAT Score			
	2010	2011	2012	2013		2010	2011	2012	2013
BARRY	254	267	293	283	+11%	149	147	145	145
CUNY	163	171	120	104	-36%	152	153	154	153
DRAKE	155	142	128	115	-26%	153	153	152	149
GEORGETOWN	591	579	575	544	-8%	168	167	165	163
HARVARD	561	559	555	568	+1%	171	171	170	170
U. MISSISSIPPI	199	180	157	117	-41%	151	151	151	152
NOVA SOUTHEASTERN	386	354	369	305	-21%	148	148	147	146
STANFORD	180	180	180	179	-1%	167	167	168	169
U. TEXAS	389	370	308	319	-18%	164	165	163	163
W. MICH	1583	1161	897	582	-63%	144	143	142	141
VANDERBILT	193	193	173	174	-10%	165	165	163	163
YALE	205	205	203	199	-3%	171	170	170	170

These figures suggest that enrollment dropped in all schools from 2010 to 2013, except for Harvard University (with an increase of 1%) and Barry University (with an increase from 254 to 283 or 11%). Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools (with the exception of Barry) experienced the sharpest declines in enrollment numbers, with Western Michigan at minus 63%, Drake at minus 26%, Nova Southeastern at minus 21%, University of Mississippi at minus 41%, and CUNY at minus 36%. Except for University of Texas (minus 18%) and Vanderbilt (minus 10%), all Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools which lost enrollment experienced only a single-digit percentage point drop in enrollment from 2010 to 2013. When looking at the change in the LSAT scores at the 25th percentile from 2010 to 2013, the only schools that experienced an increase were Stanford

University, Harvard University, and CUNY. Tier 4 schools saw losses of four points (Barry), three points (Western Michigan), and two points (Nova Southeastern).

This graphic from Moeser (2014) shows the similar drop in LSAT scores and enrollment from 2010 to 2013

Figure 2: Changes in First Year Enrollment



Data indicated that enrollment overall was dropping and admissions criteria (at the lower level of qualified applicants) was being reduced from 2010 to 2013.

GPA Data

With regard to GPA, the information from the data is difficult to examine because a high GPA at an undergraduate college such as Harvard University will have a greater influence on an admission decision-maker than a high GPA at a school that is ranked much lower than Harvard on the *U.S. News* ranking of undergraduate programs. No conclusions can be made regarding the GPA data shown in the chart.

Bar Passage Rate Data

With regard to bar passage rates for the 12 schools in the sample, the following chart lists the available data:

Table 4.4 Bar Pass Rate Changes between 2011 and 2018

	Bar Pass Rates 2011	Bar Pass Rates 2018
Yale University	97.62	98.97
Stanford University	98.66	98.91
Harvard University	95.34	98.43
Georgetown University	89.39	93.75
University of Texas/ Austin	92.97	85.5
Vanderbilt University	93.23	96.63
University of Mississippi	86.51	88.89
City University of New York	72.48	87.96
Drake University	91.17	82.05
Barry University	73.58	73.5
Nova Southeastern University	83.33	84.64
Western Michigan University	74.35	69.75

This data varies – with some of the 12 schools showing improvement in bar passage rates and other schools showing a decline. Neither the declining schools nor the schools that saw increases are situated in any particular tier. Five out of the six Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools had higher pass rates and all five of these schools had pass rates above 90% in 2011 and in 2018. The Tier 2 exception was the University of Texas which had a 92.97% pass rate in 2011 and only an 85.5% pass rate in 2018. Two of the three Tier 4 schools had lower pass rates (with Nova Southeastern showing only a minor increase from 83.33% to 84.64%). The other Tier 4 schools experienced a drop in pass rates, and those schools had lower than 75% pass rates for both years. In Tier 3 Drake showed a significant drop in pass rates, CUNY showed a significant increase, and University of Mississippi showed an increase of less than 2.4 percentage points. Again, Barton (2020) notes that one reason schools sought to maintain bar pass rates is the importance of that number in the rankings. However, the other issue is that the ABA was insisting that bar

pass rates be improved. What is striking about the results is the drop-off in bar passage rates, in general, when comparing Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools against Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools.

In a report published by Moeser (2014) in *The Bar Examiner*, the President of the National Association of Bar Examiners indicated that, for the MBE section of the bar exam, “the decline for first-time takers was without precedent during the previous 10 years.” Moeser (2014) summarized her findings following an examination of the results of the July 2014 bar exam, and, in particular, the Multistate Bar Exam (MBE):

Among the things I learned was that whereas the scores of those we know to be retaking the MBE dropped by 1.7 points, the score drop for those we believe to be firsttime takers dropped by 2.7 points (19% of July 2014 test takers were repeaters, and 65% were believed to be first-time takers. The remaining 16% could not be tracked because they tested in jurisdictions that collect inadequate data on the MBE answer sheets.). The decline for retakers was not atypical; however, the decline for first-time takers was without precedent during the previous 10 years. Also telling is the fact that performance by all July 2014 takers on the equating items drawn from previous July test administrations was 1.63 percentage points lower than performance associated with the previous use of those items, as against a 0.57 percentage point increase in July 2013.

Information Regarding Faculty for the Twelve Law Schools in the Sample

Based on the same data compiled from ABA required disclosures (which are listed on Standard Form 509 Information Reports which, for each of the 12 schools for each year from 2011 to 2020, are attached as Appendix D), below is a summary of data relating to law school faculty for 2011 and 2018.

Table 4.5 Law School Faculty Changes between 2011 and 2018

	Faculty Full time 2011	Faculty Full time 2018	Librarians 2011	Librarians 2018	Course Titles after 1st year 2011	Course Titles after 1st year 2018	Faculty Part time 2011	Faculty Part time 2018
Yale University	125	93	16	21	178	287	124	164
Stanford University	121	104	16	14	223	245	94	106
Harvard University	234	173	8	1	320	541	81	167
Georgetown University	254	192	22	27	461	535	267	623
University of Texas/ Austin	174	99	4	17	184	268	136	182
Vanderbilt University	73	47	11	7	133	151	87	83
University of Mississippi	38	42	10	6	83	125	42	28
City University of New York	68	51	14	8	52	67	25	28
Drake University	52	30	9	4	102	128	44	40
Barry University	66	37	5	8	94	124	66	46
Nova Southeastern University	102	46	9	8	93	119	94	49
Western Michigan University	202	54	25	12	268	210	371	178

Data Regarding Full-Time Faculty, Part-Time Faculty, Librarians

The chart shows a clear difference between full-time faculty and part-time faculty. All twelve schools, except for University of Mississippi, reduced their full-time faculty size from 2011 to 2018. The most drastic reductions in full-time faculty occurred at Western Michigan, Nova Southeastern, and Texas-Austin. The top five schools on the list increased their part-time faculty. After the top five, only CUNY displayed any increase (from 25 to 28) in part-time faculty. The other six schools on the list decreased their part-time faculty numbers.

Many of the schools also reduced the number of librarians. All Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools, except for Barry University, reduced the number of librarians. Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools did not show a pattern. Only Yale increased the number of librarians amongst the Tier 1 schools, and only Vanderbilt University decreased the number of librarians amongst the Tier 2 schools.

Barton (2020) indicated that, except for the top 15 or so law schools, every American law school has cut costs since 2011. Some cut costs without layoffs by waiting for faculty retirements, hiring freezes, or buyouts. The author also reported: “From 2010 to 2016, ABA-accredited law schools lost 1,460 full-time positions, a 16.1-percent decline. Over the same period the number of part-time law professors has remained steady....” Barton (2020) stated that the reaction to the legal education crisis is often similar:

It begins with radical moves to maintain “quality” despite a collapse in applications: Cut the size of the incoming classes and offer more and larger scholarships to try to maintain rankings and class quality. Lose money. Hope that the university will carry you for a while (or permanently; one never knows). When the university grows weary, cut costs where you can. When the bill comes due, shrink the faculty through attrition, raise teaching loads, cut costs in the library and elsewhere, and hope to balance the books without destroying the law school’s reputation.

Thies (2010) indicated that the ABA Standards include provisions that limit a school’s use of adjunct faculty – such as Standard 402 which provides that adjuncts count as only one-fifth of a full time faculty member and Standard 403 which requires that “[t]he full-time faculty...teach the major portion of the law school’s curriculum, including substantially all of the

first one-third of each student's course work." Thies (2010) indicated that the Standards restricted any innovation that sought to increase the use of adjuncts.

The Yale Law School Career Development Office (2018) provides the following information to Yale Law School students who are considering seeking employment as law professors:

Recent years have seen a marked downturn in the number of people taking the LSAT, the number of people applying for admission to law school, and, most importantly, the number of people entering law school. At the moment, the extent to which this contraction is a cyclical shock, rather than a structural and permanent one, remains unclear.... Nevertheless, in response to declining applicant numbers, some law schools have downsized their enrollment and their faculty hiring. What is clear is that law schools have made substantially fewer tenure-track hires over the past three years. While many Yale graduates continue to secure very attractive academic jobs, some require more than one year on the market to do so, while others have been unable to secure a position. There continues to be uncertainty about the amount of market-wide hiring that will take place in the coming years, as well as the focus of that hiring. The continuing instability in the market also suggests that candidates would be well-advised to undertake considerable due diligence before accepting offers from schools that may be in precarious financial conditions.

Student to Faculty Ratios

As law schools are no longer required to report student-to-faculty ratios, this researcher examined the number the number of first-year students at each of the twelve schools in the

sample in 2011 (the incoming first-year class) and divided by the number of full time-faculty at each of the twelve sample schools in the sample. Then, the same calculation was performed for 2018. This calculation would be appropriate since Standard 403 requires that “[t]he full-time faculty...teach the major portion of the law school’s curriculum, including substantially all of the first one-third of each student’s course work.”

Similar calculations to divide the total number of students by the total number of full-time faculty for 2011 and for 2018 were also performed. The results of the calculations are shown in the following chart:

Table 4.6 Changes in Student to Faculty Ratio between 2011 and 2018

	Student (first year)-to-faculty (full-time) ratio 2011	Student (first year)-to-faculty (full-time) ratio 2018	Student (total)-to-faculty (full-time) ratio 2011	Student (total)-to-faculty (full-time) ratio 2018
Yale University	1.64:1	1.76:1	5.1:1	6.68:1
Stanford University	1.49:1	1.59:1	4.72:1	5.43:1
Harvard University	2.39:1	2.8:1	7.18:1	10.04:1
Georgetown University	2.28:1	2.91:1	7.61:1	10.48:1
University of Texas/ Austin	2.13:1	3.76:1	6.53:1	10.15:1
Vanderbilt University	2.64:1	3.77:1	8.03:1	12.28:1
University of Mississippi	4.74:1	3.45:1	13.97:1	8.67:1
City University of New York	2.51:1	4.02:1	7.06:1	11.33:1
Drake University	2.73:1	3.47:1	8.6:1	10.43:1
Barry University	4.05:1	6.86:1	10.73:1	17.68:1
Nova Southeastern University	3.47:1	4.28:1	10.29:1	13.83:1
Western Michigan University	5.75:1	10:1	17.96:1	23.5:1

Student-to-faculty ratio increased for all twelve schools except for the University of Mississippi. The ratios for University of Mississippi are likely skewed as a result of the fairly drastic drop in enrollment at that school – first year students from 180 down to 145; and overall enrollment from 531 down to 364. Also, the number of full-time faculty actually increased at that school – from 38 in 2011 to 42 in 2018.

Summary of Data Regarding Student Changes and Faculty Changes

To summarize, the data demonstrated that the number of applicants increased for the top-six schools in the sample of twelve and shrunk for the last six schools on the list. The number of enrollees was reduced for all schools except for two. When comparing LSAT in 2011 and 2018, scores for the 25th percentile were stable or even improved for the Tier 1 schools. All other schools indicated at least some significant reduction in the scores (from 1 point to 5 points), except for Nova Southeastern University, which was unchanged in this category. Data indicated that enrollment overall was dropping and admissions criteria (at the lower level of qualified applicants) was being reduced from 2010 to 2013.

Five out of the six Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools had higher bar passage pass rates in 2018 as compared to 2011, and all five of these schools had pass rates above 90% in 2011 and in 2018. Two of the three Tier 4 schools had lower pass rates (with Nova Southeastern showing only a minor increase from 83.33% to 84.64%). The other Tier 4 schools experienced a drop in pass rates, and those schools had lower than 75% pass rates for both years.

All twelve schools, except for University of Mississippi, reduced their full-time faculty size from 2011 to 2018. The most drastic reductions in full-time faculty occurred at Western Michigan, Nova Southeastern, and Texas-Austin. The top five schools on the list increased their part-time faculty. After the top five, only CUNY displayed any increase (from 25 to 28) in part-time faculty. The other six schools on the list decreased their part-time faculty numbers. Student-to-faculty ratio increased for all twelve schools in the sample from 2011 to 2018 except for the University of Mississippi. Many of the schools also reduced the number of librarians. All Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools, except for Barry University, reduced the number of librarians. Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools did not show a pattern.

Curriculum Changes

The ABA Task Force on the Future of Legal Education released a White Paper on August 1, 2013, which acknowledged the effects of the recession, and which indicated that for the prior five years (since 2008), those in the field of legal education has sought to respond to the structural and environmental stresses and challenges that had occurred – responses that included new degree programs, changes in curriculum, reduction in expenses, and other experimentation. The Task Force acknowledged that American law schools had a somewhat “cookie cutter” approach, all relying on similar teaching methods, similar assessment measures, and almost identical first-year programs. Also, almost all law schools are a part of a larger university and offer only the J.D. degree. The Task Force recommended more heterogeneity in law schools and urged that a then-developing trend toward experimentation and differentiation should be encouraged and fostered (ABA Task Force on the Future of Legal Education, 2013).

In response to the White Paper and the increased demand for clinical and experiential courses to provide practical experience for students prior to graduation, the ABA revised Standard 303 regarding required curricula. The ABA (2021e) describes the new standard and the process for adopting the new standard as follows:

In September 2013, the Council circulated for Notice and Comment revised Standard 303(a)(3), which included a new requirement of six credits of instruction in an experiential course or courses. To qualify, the experiential course or courses must be a simulation, law clinic, or field placement, all as defined in subsequent Standards. Four requirements for a qualifying experiential course are set out.

In December 2013, the Council circulated an alternative proposal for Standard 303(a)(3), which increases the new requirement from six to 15 credits of instruction in an experiential course or courses.

At its meeting on March 14 – 15, 2014, the Council approved the first alternative, requiring six credits of instruction in an experiential course or courses.

Revised Standard 303(b) is a revision of current Standard 302(b), which requires law schools to provide “substantial opportunities” for live-client or other real-life practice experiences; student participation in pro bono activities; and small group work. The proposal changes “live-client or other real-life practice experiences” to “law clinics or field placements” and eliminates “small group work” from the Standard. It also changes “pro bono activities” to “pro bono legal services, including law-related public service activities.” Current Interpretation 302-10 has been replaced by revised Interpretations 303-2 and 303-3, which reference pro bono activities as defined in the ABA Model Rules of Professional Conduct and provide a description of law-related public service activities. The Council also added language to Interpretation 303-2 encouraging law schools to promote opportunities for law students to provide at least 50 hours of pro bono service during law school. Revised Standard 304.

Simulation Courses and Law Clinics

This is a new Standard that defines and sets out the requirements for two of the three experiential courses that qualify for the new experiential course requirement in revised Standard 303(a).

Harvard Law School's Center on the Legal Profession (2020) describes the clinical education Standards as follows:

The latest 2019–2020 version of the Standards contains explicit guidance relating to clinics. Specifically, law schools are to require students to complete at least six credit hours in at least one law clinic, simulation course, and/or field placement.

While each of these three options are to provide “substantial lawyering experience,” *law clinics* involve advising or representing real clients or serving as a third-party neutral; *simulations* do not involve real clients but offer a “reasonably similar experience” of lawyerly advising or representing; and *field placements* are “reasonably similar experiences” that take place outside of law clinics, are supervised by lawyers or others “qualified to supervise,” and are carefully structured to “assure the quality of the student educational experience.”

These are the only three options that the Standards offer for filling its six-credit-hour experiential requirement, and each one must integrate theory and practice, develop professional skills, and give students the chance to put those skills and knowledge to use such that their performance can be supervised and critiqued. In addition, the Standards emphasize that law schools shall have “substantial opportunities” for their students to participate in law clinics or field placements as

well as in pro bono or other public-service-oriented legal work or law-adjacent activities.

Data from the Center for the Study of Applied Legal Education (CSALE, 2020) 2019-20 Survey of Applied Legal Education indicated that two-thirds of the schools in the survey reported making some changes in their curriculum in response to the change in the Standard, and almost half reported the addition of a new simulation course, law clinic or field placement. One-quarter of the schools reported increased slots available in existing experiential courses.

Thies (2010) stated that, prior to the recession, employers (law firms) did not expect that newly graduated and hired associates would start their jobs knowing how to perform complex tasks and that the firms would have to provide training. Thies (2010) believed that the academic crisis provided an impetus to emphasize practical training in law schools.

Hayes (2010) reported that the Dean of Southwestern Law School in Los Angeles, Bryant Garth, stated at a conference that the recession fueled calls for reform and that there were curriculum changes then under consideration, such as collaborative teaching and learning methods, interdisciplinary studies, partnerships between practitioners and law schools, and revised assessment strategies so that students are less subject to exams and lectures.

Reporting on the same conference, Hayes (2010) indicated that Thomas Guernsey, Dean of Albany Law School, stated that issues such as “job market/economy,” “employer expectations,” and “debt load” will lead to significant changes in legal education and that law schools are under pressure to change. Hayes (2010) noted that change continued to occur due to the recession, which led to forced layoffs, hiring freezes and salary cuts throughout the legal industry and not just in the field of legal education. One reason is that clients of law firms do not want to pay their firms for work done by an inexperienced associate lawyer. As law schools

continued to graduate students who still need mentoring and experience, law firms became less willing to pay those graduates the high starting salaries that were common in the past.

Hayes (2010) reported that Guernsey stated that questions arose such as: “Are law schools doing all they can to prepare students to fill the demands expected of them in the twenty-first century?” and “How can we best prepare our students to hit the ground running upon graduation?”

Indiana University was one of 10 law schools that participated in a working group called the Legal Education Analysis and Reform Network (LEARN), which developed curriculum changes in their own schools and which identified three areas for further examination: educating law teachers, maintaining momentum for curriculum reform, and reviewing assessment tools. (Hayes, 2010).

Hayes (2010) reported on the specific curriculum changes that had, by that time, occurred at several law schools:

At Harvard Law School, first-year students are required to take courses in legislation, international law, and problem solving in addition to more traditional classes. Second- and third-year students have the opportunity to increase their focus in a chosen concentration.

Stanford, on the other hand, has kept its first year “pretty much the same,” according to Dean Larry Kramer, and has concentrated its changes on the second- and third-year curriculums. Students are encouraged to take courses outside of law with a focus on experiential and clinical work and problem-solving skills.

Washington and Lee University School of Law in Lexington, Virginia, has gained a lot of attention since it began revamping its curriculum six years ago. “Several years ago, we were in the process of rewriting our mission statement, and we started looking at how to ensure a better transition into the work force, as well as what the progression from the first year on should be,” says Mary Natkin, assistant dean for clinical education and public service at Washington and Lee. In addition to capstone courses, clinics, and simulations, students receive continuous feedback, with the focus on understanding everything from billing pressures to how legal aid is structured. “We teach through experience rather than lectures and examinations,” Natkin notes. “We try to take the pain out of that first year of practice.”

The University of New Mexico School of Law in Albuquerque has worked intensively with both the local and the state governments to partner students with public defenders, judges, prosecutors, and employers....

Other schools focused on adding more value to their programs are the University of Dayton School of Law in Ohio and Northwestern University Law School in Chicago, which both offer two-year degrees. (Hayes, H., 2010).

More Emphasis on Experiential Coursework

There is disagreement regarding the renewed emphasis on experiential courses. Kahn (2017), in an ABA published magazine, stated:

The contention of this article is that the imposition of additional, required experiential courses will have a negative effect on the adequacy of a student's preparation to practice law because it contributes to a reduction in the student's exposure to a range of doctrinal courses (especially core courses) and to the skills that those courses develop. Indeed, I contend that the current proliferation of clinical and other experiential courses, together with the increase in the number of other course offerings, has resulted in a sizeable percentage of graduating students being ill-prepared to practice law as soon after graduation as law firms would like. In considering whether to adopt course requirements for admission to a state's bar, those consequences should be taken into account.

The specific doctrinal courses that an employer will want a new associate to have had will vary according to the area of law in which the firm is engaged. For example, a firm engaged in a real estate practice will want an associate to have had courses in real property, in trusts and estates, and possibly in future interests. In addition, the firm will want an associate to have some knowledge of federal taxation. The associate likely will need to work with issues concerning depreciation, like-kind exchanges of realty, capital gain and IRC § 1231 gain, at-risk rules, and passive activity loss limitations. The associate will need to understand some basic tax concepts such as basis. Perhaps more importantly, the associate often will have to deal with partnership tax issues and will need knowledge of that area. None of those courses is required at the University of Michigan, however, and enrollments in such courses are down. As noted below, only one-third of the students who recently graduated from the Michigan Law

School took at least one tax class, and less than 10% of them took either partnership or corporate taxation.

Collaboration with Law Firms

Part of the drive toward finally adopting some of the clinical and experiential coursework that was recommended by the MacCrate Report (ABA, 1992) and by the “Carnegie Report” (Sullivan, 2007) is the impetus to graduate students who do not have to be further substantially trained by the law schools that hire them. The large Chicago-based firm, Kirkland & Ellis, for example, has a program it calls “Kirkland University” to train new hires (Kirkland & Ellis, 2021). The firm states: “Kirkland is dedicated to providing our attorneys with an unparalleled legal education. Our innovative and comprehensive curriculum, Kirkland University (KU), provides extensive learning opportunities to equip attorneys with the skills they need to grow professionally as well as exceed client expectations.”

As part of implementing and designing clinical and experiential coursework, law school faculty are required to collaborate with law firm members to determine what law firms, as stakeholders, want to see in graduates. Magliozzi and Bendekovic (2017) described the collaborative process between law schools and law firms and stated that the steps in collaboration include:

- Identifying all stakeholders inside and outside of your institution and inviting them to the table
- Developing a process for discussion
- Fostering open and candid communication
- Building and supporting an environment of cooperation
- Creating actionable knowledge and shared goals

- Educating each other and developing a clear picture of what currently exists
- Identifying knowledge and skills gaps
- Identifying current and future trends
- Defining the scope of collaboration, available resources, and capacity
- Generating pilot program options and assessment and evaluation criteria
- Implementing and protecting new ideas
- Accessing pilot programs
- Accelerating successful ideas by implementing them more widely as innovative next practices

In February of 2018, the ABA Commission on the Future of Legal Education held its first open forum which was opened by American Bar President Hilarie Bass, who stated that the panel was formed to address ideas of “realigning” what law schools are teaching, what bar exams are testing and what law firms are looking for (ABA, 2018).

Examples of collaboration include an initiative described in this way by Krantz and Millemann (2015):

A collateral and important benefit of law school, law firm, and bar-affiliated programs, if replicated, is that they should stimulate greater collaboration between law schools and the profession in transitional-based education and practice not often existing today. Such collaborations, if they give priority to addressing the access-to-justice crisis, can be even more significant. A good example of such a collaboration was the announcement in April 2015 by Georgetown University Law Center and two major law firms, Arent Fox and DLA Piper, that they had jointly created an exclusively charitable and educational nonprofit, the DC

Affordable Law Firm, to provide affordable legal services to residents in the District who have unmet legal needs but do not qualify for free legal aid and are unable to pay prevailing legal rates and to small businesses and nonprofits serving the District's distressed communities.

Similarly, in 2021, New England Law/Boston (Portia Law School) established the Portia Pipeline Program to support students at each phase in their career development through programming, mentorship, and fellowships, and five Boston law firms partnered with New England Law to offer summer fellowship opportunities that will provide tangible hands-on experience (New England Law/Boston, 2021).

Courses Taught After First Year Courses

First-year courses are almost standard across the legal education field in the United States. After the first-year, the number of elective courses offered expands greatly. The data listed above show that all schools except Western Michigan University increased the number of courses offered after the first year. The change in the number of course titles offered (after the standard first-year offerings) indicates an increasing teaching load for the faculty members remaining after the reductions from 2011.

Difficulties with Innovative Approaches to Legal Education

Northwestern University experimented with an accelerated J.D. program beginning in 2009 but later canceled the program, and the Dean explained the cancellation decision in an email to faculty and students:

The small size of our program has presented myriad challenges, not only within the program itself but across our law school. In short, dealing with this smaller

program has impacted our ability to serve the objectives and needs of all our law students.

Further constraining our plans, recent changes in ABA regulations limited our ability to enroll a sizable cohort of students from the pool of GMAT test-takers. Some of you may recall that a core component of the AJD program's strategic implementation was to attract a substantial number of students who had taken the GMAT, including those who had already begun to develop many of the core competencies identified in Plan 2008. Due to a number of factors, many of which are beyond our control, the applicant pool has remained relatively constant. It is apparent that the substantial growth necessary to achieve our intended size, a size that justifies its resource requirements, is highly unlikely in the near term. Should circumstances change, we remain open to resuming this program at a future date.

I am certain that in another era, under differing economic circumstances, and under a more flexible regulatory climate, this program would have flourished. Indeed, at some point, it still may.

<https://www.law.northwestern.edu/about/news/newsdisplay.cfm?ID=761>

Mission Statements and Curriculum

Current Mission Statements and Curriculum information (an overall description of the J.D. program) regarding the twelve schools in the sample are provided in Appendix E. The researcher sought to determine if the Mission Statements and descriptions of curricula offered any insights into the current approach to legal education. An examination of the data led to the conclusion that all twelve schools have placed an emphasis or focus on experiential or clinical

education. Each of the twelve schools describe a particular experiential course or a program of clinical courses.

Stanford offers legal clinics to provide real-world experience for students:

Stanford Law's 11 clinics make you something unique in the world of law

Yale Law School has one of the most robust clinical programs in the country.

Unlike most other schools, students can begin taking clinics—and appearing in court—during the spring of their first year.

To bridge the gap between academic courses and the skills lawyers use in practice, all first-year students [at Harvard University] participate in the January Experiential Term.

Students who matriculated at the Law Center [at Georgetown University] in Fall 2016 or later must earn a minimum of 6 credits in experiential courses.

In the second and third years [at the University of Texas], you have the opportunity to design a course of study that fits your aspirations. In part this means choosing courses on the subjects, and studying with the professors, that interest you the most. But it also means choosing the approach to learning that suits you best. We provide endless opportunities to learn in the classroom, but also an immense range of clinics and internships that enable you to learn in hands-on fashion.

Upper-level offerings [at Vanderbilt University] are almost entirely elective, allowing students to choose from a broad curriculum, combining courses, clinics, externships, independent work, and courses outside the law school to accomplish career goals.... Vanderbilt's eight legal clinics allow students to learn both the theory and practice of law in context. Clinic students gain real-world legal experience by assuming the role of the lawyer under the expert guidance of members of the law faculty, allowing them to hone their legal skills and delve into particular areas of law. They work with actual clients and on real cases, gaining an understanding of the legal system and its participants and an appreciation of issues of professional responsibility

The University of Mississippi School of Law also offers 8 clinical programs, a Pro Bono Initiative and a Clinical Externship Program. Clinical students receive temporary admission to the bar and represent real clients. These programs provide students the opportunity to actually practice law with the close support and guidance of clinical professors and supervising attorneys.

Layered onto the traditional foundation of doctrinal education is our deep and broad clinical training program. First-year students at CUNY acquire clinical experience through simulation exercises conducted in a required year-long lawyering seminar; second-year students take an advanced one-semester lawyering seminar in a public interest law area of their choice; third-year students

earn 12-16 credits in either a field placement program or a live-client clinic onsite at the Law School.

Drake is the only American law school where all first-year classes shift to a campus courtroom for a week, enabling students to view an actual state or federal trial.... Drake Law School's top-ranked legal clinic and four centers prepare students for professional practice and career success.

Our Law School [at Barry University] is committed to providing legal services that are consistent with the University's mission of making a contribution to the society we are all part of. All of our Clinical Programs are taught by professors, private and public lawyers and trial judges who are focused on assisting our students in developing the skills necessary to succeed after law school. Consistent with this goal, our clinical and externships programs contain an important classroom component which allows students to get the most from their practical experiences.

And to fully immerse students in the realities of being a lawyer, we [at Western Michigan University] emphasize practical legal training where each student is required to participate in some form of experiential learning including: 1) Law School Clinics — An on-campus experience where students do pro bono work under an experienced faculty member's supervision (i.e., Sixty-Plus Elderlaw Clinic, WMU-Cooley Innocence Project, etc.); and 2) Law School Externship —

WMU-Cooley's externship program allows students to work with a practicing attorney or judge at any one of over 3,000 placement sites across the nation. Student externs have the exciting opportunity to work, network, and receive mentorship with professionals at real-life law firms, courtrooms, and legal businesses, and receive credit for your time.

Clinical education is an important part of the NSU Law experience. In fact, we [at Nova Southeastern University] think clinical education is so important that each and every student who meets the clinic criteria has the opportunity to participate in one of our clinics. The clinical semester brings the study of law to life. In seven clinical programs, students are introduced to a practice specialty under the guidance of a seasoned mentor. Each clinical semester begins with intensive classes that focus on advanced substantive law and lawyering skills in the clinic specialty plus interdisciplinary topics. For the rest of the term, faculty members supervise the students' representation of clients in Law Center clinics, government agencies, nonprofit organizations, and private law offices.

Schools did not have such a focus on clinical programs or courses at the time of the MacCrate Report (ABA, 1992) or of the "Carnegie Report" (Sullivan, 2007), since both of these reports recommended such experiential education as an innovation or change to what was occurring in the field of legal education at the time of each of the reports.

Another conclusion to be reached through an examination of the J.D. program descriptions is that lower-tier schools have emphasized programs and training that are designed to assist students to pass their bar exams.

Our comprehensive bar exam support [at CUNY] includes focused courses, one-on-one and in-class skills development, and study planning support as well as one-on-one mentorship between graduation and when students sit for the bar exam.... At CUNY Law, preparing for the bar exam and licensing begins the day you arrive on campus. At the core of our academic program is the commitment to training students to be effective and practice-ready lawyers upon graduation – which means every student meets all bar and licensing requirements through our curriculum.

The Barry University School of Law Department of Bar Preparation is responsible for overseeing and administering all bar application and bar preparation related activities at the Law School, including the Barry University School of Law Bar Preparation Program and the Multistate Professional Responsibility Exam Program. The Barry University School of Law Bar Preparation Program is a comprehensive program that commences with the beginning of law school and continues throughout a student's law school attendance.

The preparation for practice mission means that WMU-Cooley graduates must:

- 1) Master the fundamentals and basic skills required for the competent practice of

law and representation of clients; 2) Demonstrate the substantive knowledge and skills required for passage of a bar examination and admission to the bar; and 3) Understand and embrace the legal, moral, ethical, and professional responsibility of lawyers.

The mission statements and curricula evidence a change in focus in the delivery of legal education. There is an increased emphasis on clinical and experiential coursework and an increased emphasis on passing the bar exam.

Summary of Curriculum Changes

Over the period from 2011 to 2018, the law school curriculum and the way that legal education has been delivered has changed. The data showed that there was a greater emphasis on clinical and experiential courses and programs, and these programs and courses were designed and implemented by way of a process of collaboration with legal practitioners. The number of courses taught after the first-year standard courses increased. Also, there was an increased emphasis on teaching or preparing students to pass a bar exam. Several schools even indicated that preparation to pass a bar exam starts at the beginning of a law school program.

Results for Individuals (Interview Data)

Research on organization change and heightened expectations suggest that grief reactions may be felt by the individuals experiencing those changes (Barnhizer, 2014b, Marquitz, Badding, & Chermack, 2016; Kearney & Hyle, 2003; Kearney, 2013; Kearney & Siegman, 2013). The literature review that guided this study indicated that feelings of grief and loss, as addressed in the stages proposed by Kubler-Ross, may have been experienced by those in the legal education field during the economic recession beginning in 2008.

The third research question guiding this study led to a pilot exploration of the feelings of the faculty when significant organizational change occurred as a result of the recession and as a result of the ABA's accreditation decisions.

This researcher collected data by analysis of interviews with law school librarians who were also faculty members and who had been in their positions long enough to provide information regarding their feelings. This researcher conducted an analysis of transcriptions of the interviews conducted via online Go-To-Meeting sessions, coded the key words used by the interviewees, and sought out themes that emerged from the data. This researcher examined the interviews to explore the participants' feelings about their experiences during significant organizational change.

Brief Review of Methodology

The participants were three librarians who were also full time professors who had been employed at their law schools since before 2008. Two participants were female, and one was male. The interviews were conducted one-on-one on an online platform. The questions asked followed the interview guide attached as Appendix B. The interviews were recorded and transcribed by this researcher. This researcher sent the transcriptions via email to each participant to review and make any comments or edits. Each one of the participants agreed that the transcriptions were accurate and did not need revisions.

This researcher then analyzed interview responses for common words, phrases, or ideas expressed that fit within the stages of grief described by Kubler-Ross. Themes from an analysis of the interview responses emerged.

Feelings Regarding Depression

The interview questions sought to examine the interviewees' feelings regarding depression, which is one of the stages in Kubler-Ross's theory.

Participant 1 stated: "Well, uh, I lost a few friends during that time, and I miss them. They were either let go or maybe they moved on voluntarily because things had gotten so bad, and enrollment was down." Participant 2 focused on program changes: "I know several professors lost some classes that they had been teaching. The school just was no longer going to support those classes. They were considered not relevant to passing the bar [exam] and getting a job. I feel like the loss of those classes were disheartening." Participant 3 recalled: "Yeah, that was a tough period. Several colleagues left, and I hardly know where some of them are anymore."

Interviewees consistently expressed feelings of loss and sadness or depression about their experiences of loss. Participant 1, for example, mentioned being no longer able to drop by a colleague's office to ask a question, because that colleague was gone as a result of the organizational change.

Feelings Regarding Anger

Participant 1 stated: "When [X colleague] was told to leave, I was really mad. I just didn't think it was fair. I had known her for years and she was an excellent teacher and researcher." Participant 2 stated: "When they cancelled the Jurisprudence class, I told my wife about it and I got kind of upset. It just seemed wrong to me. I mean, students should learn about the philosophers who developed the whole concepts of the law, you know?" Participant 3 stated: "When students no longer seemed interested in law school, or at least any qualified students, and

the Association did not seem to care how hard it was, I got pretty mad for a while, but I realized that it was just part of how things were going in the country.”

Participants consistently expressed feelings of the anger stage of the Kubler-Ross grief theory.

Feelings Regarding Acceptance

Participant 1 stated: “I guess I understand why the school made its decisions on who should be let go. We just couldn’t get the best students to apply to be 1L’s [first year law students] during that period but the Association [the ABA] insisted that we try to get candidates that would be able to pass the bar and get employed, and I guess I understand the Association’s position. It was just a difficult time.” This participant provided a firsthand account of how accreditation changes directly affected the admission process.

Participant 2 stated: “It was all sad, but I guess there were no other choices. The school had to do what it had to do under the circumstances.” Participant 3 had a similar response about the administrative decisions to reduce the faculty: “Well, I think our board of trustees didn’t have any choice. Some things just had to be cut because we didn’t have enough qualified students and some faculty had to be cut. That’s just how it had to go I guess.”

Participants consistently expressed feeling of the acceptance stage of the Kubler-Ross grief theory. They came to accept that their losses were permanent and that their losses were not really the fault of anyone in their organization.

Feelings Regarding Denial

Participant 1 stated: “When it all started, I could not believe what was going on. I thought that this cannot last. Then I recognized that all aspects of the economy were affected.” Participant 2 stated: “I thought it was just some nightmare at first when things went downhill,

and that I would wake up at some point, and everything would be all right.” Participant 3 stated: “I just really didn’t think it would last. I thought we would all bounce back in a month or so and I wasn’t at first worried about enrollment issues.”

Participants consistently expressed feeling of the denial stage of the Kubler-Ross grief theory. While they spoke of denying that there was a real problem, they also in the same responses spoke of their later acceptance of the problem. This is consistent with the Kubler-Ross theory that the stages can re-occur. Kubler-Ross (1969) viewed the grief process as stages that could repeat, replace each other, or exist at the same time, and she found that hope was an underlying emotion or feeling that was threaded throughout the process.

Summary of the Findings Regarding Psychological Responses by Individuals

The third question examined faculty feelings regarding grief and loss issues after significant organizational change and crisis. The findings support the proposal that the Kubler-Ross stages are relevant to employees experiencing unusual or significant organizational change and that leaders should be aware that such feelings are happening in their organizations. Law school faculty have experienced the losses at many levels, both professionally and personally. Feelings of grief were generally related to lay-offs or reductions in full time faculty, increased teaching loads, loss of research time, pressures regarding accreditation, lack of job security, loss of autonomy as educators, and loss of colleagues.

Summary of the Chapter

The chapter presented three types of data. The first section addressed the structural factors that pressured law schools to make changes regarding admission criteria, faculty staffing, curricula, and collaboration with legal practitioners, and shift in emphasis toward clinical programs and bar exam preparation. Within a few years of the Great Recession of 2008, the job

market for new lawyers deteriorated. By 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis.

The second section described changes in programming to respond to changing external factors. Examples of programmatic change include calling upon faculty to teach more courses, to teach more students, and to include material or teach courses designed to assist students to pass a bar exam. Faculty were also required by administrators (or faculty took it upon themselves) to collaborate with law firm leaders to develop and implement new experiential and clinical courses. Thus, there was a change in the way the legal education was delivered to students, including a shift in emphasis to more experiential or clinical courses (designed and implemented in collaboration with practitioners) and more elective course choices after the first year of law school.

The third section provided narratives from representative law faculty as they grappled with loss. This study included an examination of the personal or internal changes that occurred as a result of the external pressures. The interviews conducted by this researcher demonstrated that faculty in the Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools expressed feelings of grief and loss regarding their experiences during this period of crisis.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

The findings summarized in Chapter Four showed that Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools generally had different outcomes than Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools with regard to several aspects of the changes that occurred in law schools following the enrollment crisis. The first section addressed structural changes, the second section addressed programmatic changes, and the third section demonstrated that faculty in the Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools expressed feelings of grief and loss regarding their experiences during this period of crisis.

This researcher selected the schools ranked first, second, and third within each of the first three tiers and randomly selected three schools from the list of schools shown as being ranked 147-199 on the list of rankings (i.e. the fourth tier). The sample, therefore, represents a purposeful (or purposive) sample consisting of the top 3 schools in each of the 4 tiers. This researcher located and examined publicly available information regarding the twelve schools in the purposeful sample. Forms required by the ABA were the main source of this data. The ABA requires accredited law schools to prepare and publish responses to annual questionnaires that provide information relevant to continued compliance with the accreditation, including data regarding curriculum, faculty (including student-to-faculty ratio), facilities, fiscal and administrative capacity, student retention or attrition, bar passage rates, and student placement or employment of graduates (ABA, 2021c). Since the reporting standard is numbered Standard 509, much of this information is reported annually by each law school on “Form 509” which is required by the ABA to be available to prospective students and to the public in general. Additional data was gathered from information from the National Board of Bar Examiners, the Law School Admission Council, and the websites for the law schools.

With regard to individuals' responses to the changing landscape of legal education, this qualitative descriptive study collected data through the use of interviews. The participants sought were public services librarians (who were also faculty) from various lower tier law schools in the United States who had been in the legal education for more than ten years and who were willing to participate in interviews regarding the changes that have occurred in the legal education field over the past ten years or more. Participants were recruited by sending an invitation to participate to various public services law librarians (who are generally also members of faculty). Those librarians willing to participate were interviewed via the "Go-To-Meeting" software so that interviews could be more easily transcribed by this researcher.

Findings Regarding Research Questions

RQ 1: What changes did law schools implement in response to the crisis in legal education following the Great Recession of 2008?

The findings in Chapter 4 indicated that Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools generally had different outcomes than Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools. The twelve schools reported in this study revealed a pattern where Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools differed in terms of number of applicants as compared to Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools. Specifically, when comparing the 2011 number of applicants to the 2018 number of applicants, the applicant pool shrunk for the last six schools on the list (Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools) but increased for the top six schools on the list (Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools).

After applications are submitted, offers of admission were made to selected applicants, and, with a few exceptions, the number of offers of admissions to the pool of applicants to each school was reduced over that period – the exceptions being Stanford and Harvard (Tier 1 schools), Vanderbilt (Tier 2), and CUNY (Tier 3). The findings thus indicated that the Tier 1

and Tier 2 schools were able to be more selective in applicants selected to receive offers of admission.

Once offers of admission were made, then ultimately students decided whether or not to accept an offer, and the first-year class at each school was formed. This study found that the first-year class was reduced when 2018 is compared to 2011 in all schools, except that University of Texas Austin increased by two students and CUNY increased from 171 to 205. The total class size was reduced in all schools except for Harvard University, Georgetown University, and CUNY. The most significant reductions were experienced (on a percentage basis) in the Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools (except for CUNY).

When comparing LSAT in 2011 and 2018, the findings in Chapter 4 showed that higher-tier schools again had different results than lower-tier schools. Scores for the 25th percentile on the LSAT were stable or even improved for the Tier 1 schools. All other schools indicated at least some significant reduction in the scores (from 1 point to 5 points), except for Nova Southeastern University, which was unchanged in this category. As to undergraduate GPA for students admitted to the twelve law schools, the findings in Chapter 4 were inconclusive. The findings showed that law schools lowered their admissions criteria (at least at the lower end of the LSAT scores) as enrollment was reduced.

With regard to bar passage rates, the findings showed that some of the 12 schools displayed improvement and other schools displayed a decline. However, neither the declining schools nor the schools that saw increases were situated in any particular tier. On the other hand, the findings demonstrated that the drop-off in bar passage rates was significant, in general, when comparing Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools against Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools.

In response to the crisis in enrollment and to the crisis in terms of the reduction in the number of well-qualified applicants, the findings showed that law schools reduced admissions criteria (at least at the lower-end of the applicant pool in terms of qualifications) and cut costs by reducing full-time faculty. The findings showed a clear difference between full-time faculty and part-time faculty – at least, again, when comparing Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools against Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools. All twelve schools, except for University of Mississippi, reduced their full-time faculty size from 2011 to 2018. The most drastic reductions in full-time faculty occurred at Western Michigan University, Nova Southeastern University, and University of Texas-Austin. The top five schools on the list increased their part-time faculty. After the top five, only CUNY displayed any increase (from 25 to 28) in part-time faculty. The other six schools on the list decreased their part-time faculty numbers. Many of the schools also reduced the number of librarians. All Tier 3 and Tier 4 schools, except for Barry University, reduced the number of librarians. Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools did not show a pattern. Only Yale increased the number of librarians amongst the Tier 1 schools, and only Vanderbilt University decreased the number of librarians amongst the Tier 2 schools.

The findings demonstrated that all schools except Western Michigan University increased the number of courses offered after the first year. The change in the number of course titles offered (after the standard first-year offerings) indicated an increasing teaching load for the faculty members remaining after the reductions from 2011. Also, the faculty were called upon to teach more students. When examining only the number of first-year students or the overall number of students as compared to the number of full-time faculty, the student-to-faculty ratio increased for all twelve schools except for the University of Mississippi. The ratios for University of Mississippi are likely skewed as a result of the fairly drastic drop in enrollment at

that school – first year students from 180 down to 145; and overall enrollment from 531 down to 364. Also, the number of full-time faculty actually increased at that school – from 38 in 2011 to 42 in 2018.

Law schools also changed their curriculum to provide more clinical and experiential courses in response to the ABA's change in a Standard and in response to the demands of employers (law firms) to graduate students who are more able to immediately practice law.

With regard to the demands of employers, law schools sought more collaboration with law firms to develop and implement practical courses (experiential and clinical), and faculty were called upon to participate in the collaborative efforts.

RQ 2: How do faculty members experience the impact of new ABA Standards on admissions, on teaching, on research, and or providing services to students?

The way that legal education is conducted changed following the crisis in enrollment. Faculty and the legal education community reacted to the change in Standards by modifying admissions, program structures, curriculum, and how they collaborated with law firms to create clinical and experiential classes that are designed to assist students to be able to be ready to handle the duties of a newly-hired associate at a law firm without additional training.

Faculty debated ways to modify legal education by way of conferences, white papers, and reports that recommended significant changes in how legal education is delivered. The ABA White Paper was the most significant source to inform this Research Question. The ABA Task Force on the Future of Legal Education released a white paper on August 1, 2013, which acknowledged the effects of the recession, and which indicated that for the prior five years (since 2008), those in the field of legal education had sought to respond to the structural and environmental stresses and challenges that had occurred – responses that included new degree

programs, changes in curriculum, reductions in expenses, and other experimentation. The Task Force acknowledged that American law schools had a somewhat “cookie cutter” approach, all relying on similar teaching methods, similar assessment measures, and almost identical first-year programs. Also, almost all law schools were a part of a larger university and offered only the J.D. degree. The Task Force recommended more heterogeneity in law schools and urged that a then-developing trend toward experimentation and differentiation should be encouraged and fostered (ABA Task Force on the Future of Legal Education, 2013).

The ABA recommended specifically that law schools no longer be so homogenous and that, instead, different law schools should offer different concentrations – similar to the way undergraduate schools have great diversity in choices for students. There has been an increased focus on clinical or experiential courses (in order to meet the demands of law firms who wanted to hire graduates who were more ready to get to work in the legal field). This increased focus is occurring long after such changes were recommended by the MacCrate report (ABA, 1992) and by the Carnegie Report (Sullivan, 2007). The findings reported in Chapter 4 align with the ABA white paper in terms of showing that law schools increased their focus on clinical or experiential courses and on collaborating with law firm leaders to develop and implement such courses. Data from the Center for the Study of Applied Legal Education (CSALE, 2020) 2019-20 Survey of Applied Legal Education indicated that two-thirds of the schools in the survey reported making some changes in their curriculum in response after the 2013 White Paper and after a change in a Standard regarding clinical education was proposed and circulated for comment in 2013, and almost half reported the addition of a new simulation course, law clinic or field placement.

Thies (2010) stated that, prior to the recession, employers (law firms) did not expect that newly graduated and hired associates would start their jobs knowing how to perform complex

tasks and that the firms would have to provide training. Thies (2010) believed that the academic crisis provided an impetus to emphasize practical training in law schools. Hayes (2010) reported that the Dean of Southwestern Law School in Los Angeles, Bryant Garth, stated at a conference that the recession fueled calls for reform and that there were curriculum changes then under consideration, such as collaborative teaching and learning methods, interdisciplinary studies, partnerships between practitioners and law schools, and revised assessment strategies so that students are less subject to exams and lectures. The findings reported in Chapter 4 align with the report by Hayes (2010) and the article by Thies (2010) in some regards. Law schools responded to the crisis by curriculum changes, more experiential classes, and partnerships or collaboration with legal practitioners. Also, lower tier schools have implemented courses designed to assist students to pass bar exams.

RQ 3 How do law school faculty members experience the losses at the program level and at the personal level?

Law school faculty have experienced the losses at many levels, both professionally and personally, and the expression of their feelings during interviews revealed that they had felt emotions of grief and loss. At the program level, faculty were called upon to teach more courses, to teach more students, and to include material or teach courses designed to assist students to pass a bar exam. Faculty were also required by administrators (or faculty took it upon themselves) to collaborate with law firm leaders to develop and implement experiential and clinical courses. The demands on faculty reduced their autonomy as educators and reduced the amount of time available for research or activities other than teaching a larger course load, handling experiential courses, and collaboration.

At the personal level, employees who experienced the crisis in legal education reported feelings of grief and loss consistent with the Kubler-Ross stages. Law school faculty expressed feelings of grief with regard to the program changes in how legal education is conducted (such as changes in curriculum, increased teaching load, and pressures regarding accreditation). Feelings of grief were also expressed with regard to the loss of colleagues due to lay-offs or retirement and hiring freezes, and the lack of job security.

The three individuals who agreed to be interviewed expressed feelings of grief and loss, consistent with the Kubler-Ross (1969) theory. Those working in lower-tier law schools also express feelings of helplessness in trying to cope with having to meet the new standards set forth by the ABA. One factor that may have led to the low number of participants is that this researcher was unable to locate very many candidates who had been employed in the legal education field in 2008 who were still employed at the time an invitation to be interviewed was sent. This effort indicated that many individuals who were employed as faculty in 2008 are no longer employed or cannot be easily located.

Limitations

The purposeful sample of institutions may not be representative of law schools in general or of each tier of accredited law schools. Also, this researcher may have biases with regard to her own perceptions of the changes that have occurred in the legal education field and of the ABA's focus on bar exam pass rates. The fact that faculty responders may not be employed at a single location or law school may dilute the findings of the study, but the effort to focus on lower-tier law schools is an effort to seek homogeneity in the settings.

The small sample size, possibly due to the pandemic, is a limitation of this study. Also, this researcher must assume that the interviewees were truthful and open about their responses to

the questions and that the participants understood the questions. However, the questions were rather short and clear. The interview protocol allowed this researcher to ask some follow-up questions when needed and to try to make sure that the participants felt that they could speak freely regarding their feeling about what occurred in the legal education field during the financial crisis. Potential bias is also a possible limitation of this study because this researcher works as a public services librarian at a law school.

Implications

This study indicates that institutions of higher education and agencies overseeing those institutions may be slow to react to drastic changes that could have been foreseen. In the legal education field, law schools first experienced an increase in enrollment and in tuition income after the 2008 Great Recession. This increased interest in law schools likely resulted from a perception by prospective students that the Recession would result in increased job opportunities for lawyers. The opposite – possibly predictably – occurred. Within a few years of the Great Recession of 2008, the job market for new lawyers deteriorated. By 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis.

Leaders in law schools and in higher education should consider whether current enrollment numbers are sustainable and, if not, what changes are needed to prepare for a drop in enrollment.

Also, individual employees at institutions may experience feelings of grief and loss in response to the external changes and the institutions' reactions to those external changes.

Leaders should anticipate how organizational change and changes in accreditation standards can affect their faculty on a personal level. Additional changes will almost definitely occur in the legal education field as the bar passage Standard take effect. The data regarding bar passage

rates indicates that Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools felt no impact from the change in the ABA's bar passage Standard. Those schools consistently had sufficiently high pass rates to meet the previous Standard and to meet the revised (2019) Standard. Schools in Tier 3 and Tier 4 felt the most impact from the change in the bar passage Standard, because the bar passage rates in those schools were consistently lower than the bar passage rate for Tier 1 and Tier 2 schools.

Recommendations for Action

Leadership needs to learn from the experience of change and look forward to what other changes are likely in the future. To do so, leadership of organizations and the agencies that oversee those organization should collaborate and seek input from all constituencies and stakeholders involved in the field – in this case the field of legal education.

Leaders in higher education institutions and in accreditation agencies need to consider whether the existing educational programs and methods of delivery are appropriate in terms of enabling graduates to find meaningful employment in their fields. Early recommendations for clinical and experiential course work and for collaborating with existing employers to develop and implement such programs were not followed in the field of legal education until a crisis forced the field to make changes. Other higher education fields should use the experience of the law schools as an example and should consider whether their programs need to be re-designed.

Recommendations for Further Study

Law schools were slow to respond to the changing economic times that occurred following the Recession that began in 2008. For a few years after 2008, law school leaders made decisions based upon the fact that enrollment had increased and the decisions made reflected a misconception that enrollment would continue to increase or at least remain steady at a high level. For the future, leaders in institutions of higher education should examine whether their

current levels of income and of enrollment are sustainable. Any downturn in the job market can affect prospective students' decisions regarding where to spend their education dollars so as to get a return on their investments in earning degrees. Accreditation agencies should also examine whether reform is needed in view of economic downturns which are inevitable since no economy sustains non-stop increases.

In the legal education field, as the implications of the change in the Standard for bar passage rates continue to play out, it appears likely that some lower-tier schools will not be able to meet the Standard. The pandemic – which caused extreme disruptions in the normal process of providing and taking bar exams – may delay the enforcement of the Standard, but the Standard will ultimately take full effect, and some law schools will lose their accreditation and their ability to offer federal financial aid to students.

The future loss of accreditation will be a source of additional study of the grief and loss issues that faculty members experience as a result of the organizational changes. As happened after the 2008 Recession, the inability of some law schools to meet the revised bar passage standard will put pressure on schools to merge and to cut costs. Those schools that cannot successfully merge or cut costs at a sufficient level to survive economically will have no choice but to close. Law school closures and mergers had a profound effect on individual students, faculty, and staff after the 2008 Recession and the enrollment crisis, and this effect will be repeated as a result of future organizational change brought about by the change in accreditation standards. These personal changes should be the subject of a future study.

Conclusion

The Great Recession of 2008 brought great upheaval to many aspects of the American economy. At first, however, law schools saw an increase in applications and enrollment as

individuals sought an education that would lead to employment. Within a few years, though, the job market for new lawyers deteriorated. By 2010-2011, the number of applications to law schools plummeted, as did the enrollment numbers. Since tuition is the life blood of law schools, the field of legal education was faced with an unprecedented crisis. This study collected and reviewed publicly available data to examine the changes that occurred in law schools following the economic downturn. Also, by way of interviews with faculty who had experienced the institutional changes, this study examined the personal or internal changes that occurred as a result of the external pressures.

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Appendix A

List of schools ranked on the *U.S. News* list of 2021 best law schools:

Yale University, New Haven, CT

Stanford University, Stanford, CA

Harvard University, Cambridge, MA

Columbia University, New York, NY

University of Chicago, Chicago, IL

New York University, New York, NY

University of Pennsylvania (Carey), Philadelphia, PA

University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA

University of California—Berkeley, Berkeley, CA

Duke University, Durham, NC

University of Michigan--Ann Arbor, Ann Arbor, MI

Northwestern University (Pritzker), Chicago, IL

Cornell University, Ithaca, NY

University of California--Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA

Georgetown University, Washington, DC

University of Texas—Austin, Austin, TX

Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN

Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO

University of Southern California (Gould), Los Angeles, CA

Boston University, Boston, MA

University of Florida (Levin), Gainesville, FL

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN

University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, IN

University of North Carolina--Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC

Arizona State University (O'Connor), Phoenix, AZ

University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL

George Washington University, Washington, DC

University of Georgia, Athens, GA

Boston College, Newton, MA

Brigham Young University (Clark), Provo, UT

Emory University, Atlanta, GA

University of Illinois--Urbana-Champaign, Champaign, IL

University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA

University of Wisconsin—Madison, Madison, WI

Fordham University, New York, NY

University of California—Davis, Davis, CA

University of California—Irvine, Irvine, CA

Washington and Lee University, Lexington, VA

William & Mary Law School, Williamsburg, VA

Ohio State University (Moritz), Columbus, OH

George Mason University, Arlington, VA

Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC

Indiana University--Bloomington (Maurer), Bloomington, IN

University of Utah (Quinney), Salt Lake City, UT

University of Washington, Seattle, WA

Pepperdine University Caruso, Malibu, CA

University of Arizona (Rogers), Tucson, AZ

Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL

University of Colorado—Boulder, Boulder, CO

University of California (Hastings), San Francisco, CA

University of Maryland (Carey), Baltimore, MD

Southern Methodist University (Dedman), Dallas, TX

Temple University (Beasley), Philadelphia, PA

Texas A&M University, Fort Worth, TX

University of Richmond, Richmond, VA

Villanova University, Villanova, PA

Yeshiva University (Cardozo), New York, NY

Baylor University, Waco, TX

University of Connecticut, Hartford, CT

Pennsylvania State University Dickinson Law, Carlisle, PA

Pennsylvania State University--University Park, University Park, PA

Tulane University, New Orleans, LA

University of Houston, Houston, TX

University of Missouri, Columbia, MO

University of Nevada--Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV

University of Tennessee—Knoxville, Knoxville, TN

Northeastern University, Boston, MA

University of Oklahoma, Norman, OK
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA
Seton Hall University, Newark, NJ
University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS
Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH
Loyola Marymount University, Los Angeles, CA
St. John's University, Jamaica, NY
University of Miami, Coral Gables, FL
University of Oregon, Eugene, OR
Wayne State University, Detroit, MI
Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA
Loyola University Chicago, Chicago, IL
University of Denver (Sturm), Denver, CO
American University (Washington), Washington, DC
Brooklyn Law School, Brooklyn, NY
Drexel University (Kline), Philadelphia, PA
University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH
University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY
University of San Diego, San Diego, CA
University of Nebraska—Lincoln, Lincoln, NE
Florida International University, Miami, FL
Lewis & Clark College (Northwestern), Portland, OR
University of New Hampshire, Concord, NH

Howard University, Washington, DC

Illinois Institute of Technology (Chicago-Kent), Chicago, IL

Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI

Rutgers University, Newark and Camden, NJ

Saint Louis University, St. Louis, MO

University of Arkansas—Fayetteville, Fayetteville, AR

University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC

University at Buffalo—SUNY, Buffalo, NY

University of Hawaii--Manoa (Richardson), Honolulu, HI

University of Louisville (Brandeis), Louisville, KY

University of Mississippi, University, MS

CUNY, Long Island City, NY

Drake University, Des Moines, IA

Marquette University, Milwaukee, WI

Syracuse University, Syracuse, NY

Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX

The Catholic University of America, Washington, DC

University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM

Louisiana State University--Baton Rouge (Hebert), Baton Rouge, LA

Washburn University, Topeka, KS

DePaul University, Chicago, IL

Indiana University--Indianapolis (McKinney), Indianapolis, IN

Stetson University, Gulfport, FL

University of Missouri--Kansas City, Kansas City, MO

University of Tulsa, Tulsa, OK

Albany Law School, Albany, NY

Cleveland State University (Cleveland-Marshall), Cleveland, OH

West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV

Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, PA

Hofstra University (Deane), Hempstead, NY

New York Law School, New York, NY

University of Dayton, Dayton, OH

University of Wyoming, Laramie, WY

Mercer University (George), Macon, GA

University of Maine, Portland, ME

Santa Clara University, Santa Clara, CA

Seattle University, Seattle, WA

University of St. Thomas, Minneapolis, MN

Gonzaga University, Spokane, WA

Quinnipiac University, Hamden, CT

Suffolk University, Boston, MA

University of Baltimore, Baltimore, MD

University of Toledo, Toledo, OH

Belmont University, Nashville, TN

Chapman University (Fowler), Orange, CA

University of Akron, Akron, OH

University of Montana, Missoula, MT

University of South Dakota, Vermillion, SD

Pace University (Haub), White Plains, NY

University of Idaho, Moscow, ID

Creighton University, Omaha, NE

University of Arkansas--Little Rock (Bowen), Little Rock, AR

University of the Pacific McGeorge, Sacramento, CA

Loyola University New Orleans, New Orleans, LA

Samford University (Cumberland), Birmingham, AL

University of Memphis (Humphreys), Memphis, TN

[BELOW LIST IS ALPHABETICAL, AS U.S. NEWS ONLY RANKS AS #147-199]

Appalachian School of Law, Grundy, VA

Atlanta's John Marshall Law School, Atlanta, GA

Ave Maria School of Law, Naples, FL

Barry University, Orlando, FL

California Western School of Law, San Diego, CA

Campbell University, Raleigh, NC

Capital University, Columbus, OH

Charleston School of Law, Charleston, SC

Elon University, Greensboro, NC

Faulkner University (Jones), Montgomery, AL

Florida A&M University, Orlando, FL

Florida Coastal School of Law, Jacksonville, FL

Golden Gate University, San Francisco, CA

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

Lincoln Memorial University, Knoxville, TN

Mississippi College, Jackson, MS

Mitchell Hamline School of Law, St. Paul, MN

New England Law Boston, Boston, MA

North Carolina Central University, Durham, NC

Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL

Northern Kentucky University (Chase), Highland Heights, KY

Nova Southeastern University (Broad), Fort Lauderdale, FL

Ohio Northern University (Pettit), Ada, OH

Oklahoma City University, Oklahoma City, OK

Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA

Roger Williams University, Bristol, RI

Southern Illinois University—Carbondale, Carbondale, IL

Southern University Law Center, Baton Rouge, LA

South Texas College of Law Houston, Houston, TX

Southwestern Law School, Los Angeles, CA

St. Mary's University, San Antonio, TX

St. Thomas University, Miami Gardens, FL

Texas Southern University (Marshall), Houston, TX

Touro College (Fuchsberg), Central Islip, NY

University of Detroit Mercy, Detroit, MI

University of Illinois--Chicago (John Marshall), Chicago, IL

University of Massachusetts—Dartmouth, North Dartmouth, MA

University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND

University of San Francisco, San Francisco, CA

University of the District of Columbia (Clarke), Washington, DC

Vermont Law School, South Royalton, VT

Western Michigan University Thomas M. Cooley Law School, Lansing, MI

Western New England University, Springfield, MA

Western State College of Law at Westcliff University, Irvine, CA

Widener University—Delaware, Wilmington, DE

Widener University--Pennsylvania (Commonwealth), Harrisburg, PA

Willamette University College of Law, Salem, OR

Inter-American University, San Juan, PR

Pontifical Catholic University of Puerto Rico, Ponce, PR

University of North Texas—Dallas, Dallas, TX

University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, PR

Appendix B

Kearney, K. S., & Hyle, A. E. (2003). The grief cycle and educational change: The Kubler-Ross contribution. *Planning and Changing*, 34(1&2), 32-57.

Interview Guide

Tell me about your role in this organization.

In professional tasks and duties?

In social?

Tell me about the reorganization . . . what preceded it and what it was about.

What did you think about the reorganization?

How did you feel about the reorganization?

How has the reorganization affected your daily life?

Responsibilities?

Relationships?

Location?

Motivation/commitment?

Additional Questions for Use as Needed:

Take me back to the time of the initial announcement . . . how did you find out about the change?

What were your initial thoughts and feelings?

When did you know what its impact on you would be?

What actions did you take to decrease its effect on you?

How were your actions successful or unsuccessful?

How was the announcement of the reorganization handled in a way that made it easier or harder for the people affected?

What was its effect on you?

Describe your feelings when you woke in the mornings and realized it was a work day.

Complete this sentence: "When I realized how I would be affected, I felt . . ."

How did you feel toward those making the change decisions?

What did the school lose in the change—either temporarily or permanently?

What did you lose in the change—either temporarily or permanently?

Identity?

Coworkers?

Sense of comfort?

Security?

How do you feel about these losses?

What has it been like for others making this change? . . . In what ways do these emotions apply to you?

How has your organizational or team identity been affected?

Your position?

Your sense of value?

Your sense of stability?

A clear knowledge of what you are to accomplish?

How do you feel about the change in your daily co-workers or daily tasks?

How has this changed or evolved over the weeks following the announcement?

In what ways has emotion played a different role in your worklife during this change?

If you could say anything you wanted to those who made the decision about its impact on you . . . and were assured of no repercussions, what would you tell about how this has affected you?

You've mentioned experiencing feelings of _____, _____, and _____.
What role has anger, rage, or resentment played?

Did you initially experience any inability to grasp the situation's effect on you, have trouble comprehending it?

Did you feel isolated?

Did you experience a sense of loss or sadness that drained your energy and motivation?

In what ways did you withdraw?

In what ways does hope have a role in your feelings or reactions?

When did hope become a key emotion?

Do you feel that the change is completed now or is there still more to do or work through?

Some people believe that in successfully making school change, we should concentrate on the process and implementation facts . . . the people should be professional enough to take care of their own feelings. What would you say to them?

APPENDIX C

Snapshot of Law Schools in General

The NCBE (2021e) provides the following summary of the history of bar pass rates nationwide:

Ten-Year Summary of Bar Passage Rates, 2006–2015

Jurisdiction		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Alabama	Overall	65%	64%	67%	65%	67%	65%	64%	64%	62%	54%
	First-Time	80%	78%	79%	77%	78%	77%	76%	78%	79%	71%
Alaska	Overall	62%	60%	70%	58%	71%	59%	67%	66%	66%	62%
	First-Time	75%	82%	80%	72%	81%	71%	78%	80%	78%	76%
Arizona	Overall	68%	70%	76%	73%	73%	70%	75%	73%	67%	57%
	First-Time	75%	78%	84%	80%	81%	76%	80%	78%	73%	66%
Arkansas	Overall	69%	70%	72%	67%	65%	71%	68%	65%	63%	65%
	First-Time	80%	80%	83%	74%	72%	84%	76%	76%	76%	77%
California	Overall	47%	49%	54%	49%	49%	51%	51%	51%	47%	44%
	First-Time	65%	66%	71%	66%	65%	67%	65%	65%	60%	57%
Colorado	Overall	68%	69%	73%	74%	74%	79%	77%	76%	74%	69%
	First-Time	76%	78%	83%	85%	83%	86%	84%	82%	78%	76%
Connecticut	Overall	75%	77%	78%	75%	71%	71%	73%	73%	75%	72%
	First-Time	83%	86%	87%	83%	81%	82%	82%	81%	86%	82%
Delaware	Overall	59%	62%	73%	63%	66%	67%	63%	72%	63%	66%
	First-Time	67%	71%	80%	71%	72%	73%	69%	78%	69%	73%
District of Columbia	Overall	51%	54%	56%	49%	41%	48%	51%	47%	40%	42%
	First-Time	72%	76%	70%	65%	60%	69%	68%	61%	57%	55%
Florida	Overall	64%	66%	71%	68%	69%	72%	71%	70%	65%	59%
	First-Time	75%	78%	81%	78%	78%	80%	79%	78%	72%	68%
Georgia	Overall	76%	75%	79%	76%	75%	76%	75%	76%	71%	62% 64%
	First-Time	86%	85%	89%	86%	84%	85%	84%	85%	80%	73% 76%
Hawaii	Overall	71%	70%	76%	76%	68%	75%	68%	73%	67%	66%
	First-Time	77%	82%	88%	86%	77%	83%	75%	81%	74%	76%
Idaho	Overall	79%	76%	72%	81%	78%	79%	80%	79%	68%	69%
	First-Time	85%	81%	80%	86%	83%	85%	86%	83%	73%	72%
Illinois	Overall	79%	82%	85%	84%	84%	83%	81%	82%	79%	74%
	First-Time	87%	89%	91%	91%	89%	89%	87%	88%	85%	80%
Indiana	Overall	76%	76%	78%	75%	75%	74%	72%	74%	69%	71%
	First-Time	84%	84%	84%	83%	81%	83%	79%	83%	79%	79%

Ten-Year Summary of Bar Passage Rates, 2006–2015 (continued)

Jurisdiction		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Iowa	Overall	81%	83%	85%	88%	87%	84%	88%	88%	83%	82%
	First-Time	88%	89%	90%	93%	91%	90%	92%	93%	84%	89%
Kansas	Overall	82%	87%	86%	82%	84%	86%	84%	85%	82%	78%
	First-Time	90%	91%	89%	86%	90%	89%	89%	89%	86%	82%
Kentucky	Overall	73%	77%	77%	77%	77%	80%	76%	75%	76%	71%
	First-Time	82%	87%	83%	86%	82%	86%	82%	81%	81%	76%
Louisiana	Overall	70%	61%	62%	69%	61%	66%	59%	50%	62%	63%
	First-Time	76%	63%	66%	72%	65%	70%	63%	58%	69%	68%
Maine	Overall	73%	80%	86%	77%	88%	68%	68%	76%	71%	61%
	First-Time	81%	84%	91%	82%	89%	73%	73%	81%	76%	69%
Maryland	Overall	66%	67%	75%	69%	71%	74%	71%	73%	69%	58%
	First-Time	78%	76%	85%	78%	80%	81%	78%	80%	76%	65%
Massachusetts	Overall	77%	77%	80%	79%	81%	80%	77%	78%	73%	68%
	First-Time	87%	86%	89%	87%	88%	87%	83%	85%	81%	77%
Michigan	Overall	78%	76%	72%	81%	80%	76%	58%	62%	64%	61%
	First-Time	87%	86%	82%	89%	85%	82%	64%	69%	72%	72%
Minnesota	Overall	86%	88%	87%	85%	86%	88%	85%	85%	79%	73%
	First-Time	91%	93%	91%	90%	92%	93%	91%	90%	84%	81%
Mississippi	Overall	80%	81%	82%	78%	76%	73%	73%	77%	79%	75%
	First-Time	86%	88%	88%	85%	80%	81%	81%	85%	87%	84%
Missouri	Overall	82%	84%	87%	87%	86%	89%	89%	87%	84%	83%
	First-Time	88%	90%	91%	91%	90%	93%	92%	90%	87%	87%
Montana	Overall	91%	89%	91%	87%	89%	90%	91%	85%	65%	66%
	First-Time	92%	88%	92%	89%	93%	91%	93%	89%	70%	70%
Nebraska	Overall	80%	83%	84%	78%	81%	78%	73%	74%	70%	76%
	First-Time	83%	89%	89%	88%	90%	83%	83%	77%	77%	82%
Nevada	Overall	61%	60%	64%	60%	59%	65%	64%	61%	57%	60%
	First-Time	72%	74%	77%	73%	73%	76%	73%	73%	68%	71%
New Hampshire	Overall	77%	77%	88%	84%	80%	78%	82%	71%	81%	67%
	First-Time	82%	84%	88%	85%	82%	81%	84%	75%	86%	70%

Ten-Year Summary of Bar Passage Rates, 2006–2015 (continued)

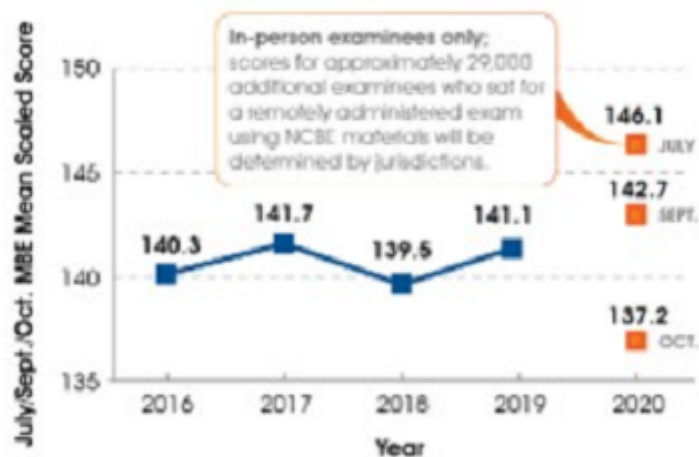
Jurisdiction		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
New Jersey	Overall	73%	73%	77%	77%	76%	77%	71%	75%	71%	65%
	First-Time	81%	82%	85%	84%	82%	84%	78%	79%	76%	71%
New Mexico	Overall	86%	78%	85%	84%	81%	82%	84%	83%	83%	75%
	First-Time	91%	83%	92%	91%	88%	88%	89%	91%	88%	82%
New York	Overall	63%	64%	69%	65%	65%	64%	61%	64%	60%	56%
	First-Time	77%	77%	81%	77%	76%	76%	74%	76%	73%	68%
North Carolina	Overall	64%	65%	71%	67%	68%	70%	65%	59%	60%	53%
	First-Time	75%	76%	83%	77%	78%	80%	79% 75%	69%	69%	65%
North Dakota	Overall	72%	69%	77%	80%	78%	83%	78%	72%	63%	64%
	First-Time	83%	79%	85%	87%	84%	85%	81%	80%	65%	80%
Ohio	Overall	74%	76%	79%	76%	78%	79%	76%	79%	73%	71%
	First-Time	83%	86%	88%	86%	86%	86%	84%	86%	81%	78%
Oklahoma	Overall	83%	85%	89%	80%	82%	83%	80%	81%	76%	68%
	First-Time	91%	91%	93%	87%	89%	88%	84%	86%	84%	75%
Oregon	Overall	72%	74%	71%	69%	68%	68%	72%	73%	65%	61%
	First-Time	80%	81%	78%	77%	75%	78%	81%	80%	73%	68%
Pennsylvania	Overall	71%	72%	77%	76%	74%	77%	73%	73%	71%	66%
	First-Time	83%	83%	87%	86%	83%	85%	82%	81%	81%	77%
Rhode Island	Overall	71%	75%	75%	74%	74%	69%	78%	71%	73%	63%
	First-Time	77%	79%	79%	78%	79%	74%	83%	76%	77%	69%
South Carolina	Overall	77%	79%	75%	72%	73%	73%	67%	75%	68%	69%
	First-Time	78%	82%	82%	78%	80%	77%	73%	79%	73%	73%
South Dakota	Overall	77%	85%	88%	83%	94%	94%	83%	87%	72%	56%
	First-Time	85%	89%	95%	90%	99%	94%	86%	91%	75%	70%
Tennessee	Overall	75%	71%	76%	68%	70%	69%	68%	73%	66%	61%
	First-Time	79%	80%	83%	77%	79%	77%	73%	82%	72%	72%
Texas	Overall	74%	76%	78%	78%	76%	80%	75%	80%	70%	65%
	First-Time	82%	84%	84%	85%	83%	86%	82%	85%	77%	71%
Utah	Overall	83%	81%	83%	83%	82%	84%	77%	82%	80%	76%
	First-Time	89%	85%	87%	89%	89%	88%	82%	87%	87%	79%

Ten-Year Summary of Bar Passage Rates, 2006–2015 *(continued)*

Jurisdiction		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Vermont	Overall	68%	66%	65%	61%	76%	68%	65%	76%	67%	50%
	First-Time	78%	70%	79%	68%	87%	71%	69%	83%	75%	57%
Virginia	Overall	68%	67%	73%	69%	70%	72%	69%	71%	66%	68%
	First-Time	74%	76%	82%	76%	77%	79%	77%	77%	72%	74%
Washington	Overall	78%	77%	73%	67%	71%	66%	64%	76%	76%	73%
	First-Time	80%	78%	74%	69%	70%	67%	66%	82%	80%	79%
West Virginia	Overall	60%	63%	67%	73%	65%	74%	72%	68%	73%	68%
	First-Time	64%	74%	79%	81%	75%	83%	82%	76%	82%	78%
Wisconsin	Overall	78%	89%	89%	89%	90%	84%	83%	83%	74%	68%
	First-Time	82%	92%	92%	93%	92%	88%	86%	88%	81%	77%
Wyoming	Overall	72%	62%	64%	75%	71%	62%	53%	81%	72%	74%
	First-Time	74%	70%	67%	79%	75%	62%	60%	84%	78%	77%
Guam	Overall	75%	76%	75%	52%	80%	67%	57%	63%	68%	50%
	First-Time	70%	79%	73%	60%	90%	81%	60%	64%	77%	56%
N. Mariana Islands	Overall	88%	88%	83%	100%	63%	83%	100%	92%	88%	100%
	First-Time	88%	86%	83%	100%	57%	100%	100%	92%	88%	100%
Palau	Overall	27%	—	67%	17%	57%	25%	30%	63%	18%	8%
	First-Time	27%	—	50%	17%	67%	0%	38%	67%	15%	20%
Puerto Rico	Overall	46%	42%	44%	41%	42%	44%	36%	40%	39%	34%
	First-Time	57%	52%	52%	48%	50%	50%	45%	45%	45%	38%
Virgin Islands	Overall	73%	56%	76%	65%	71%	49%	64%	61%	73%	74%
	First-Time	70%	65%	84%	70%	77%	52%	70%	70%	77%	76%
AVERAGES	Overall	67%	67%	71%	68%	68%	69%	67%	68%	64%	59%
	First-Time	78%	79%	82%	79%	79%	79%	77%	78%	74%	70%

The NCBE (2021a) provides the following charts regarding MBE scores historically:

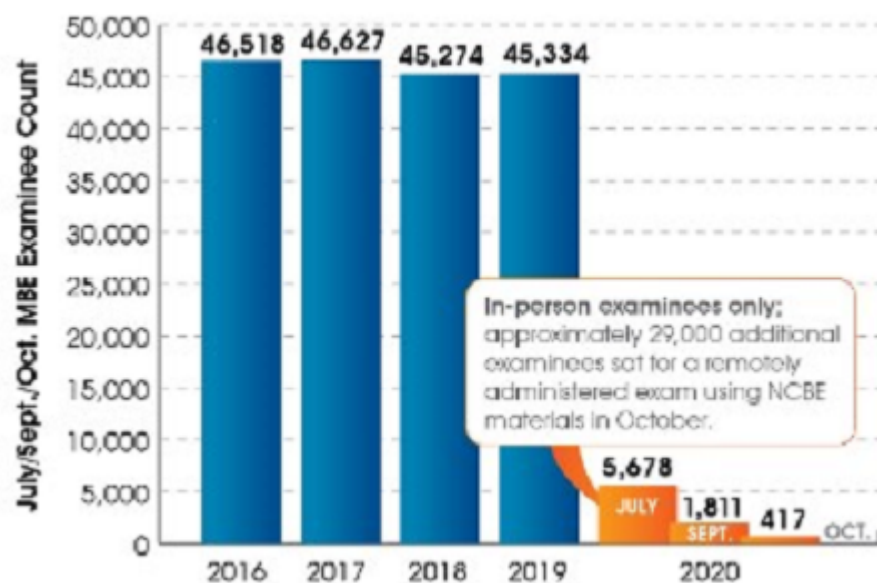
July/Sept./Oct. MBE National Mean Scaled Scores, 2016–2020



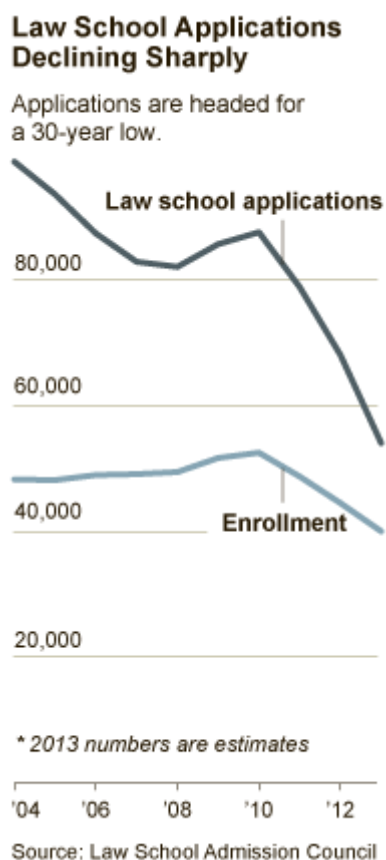
*Comparability to prior results may be limited due to lower examinee counts in 2020.

The NCBE (2021a) provides the following charts regarding MBE number of test-takers:

July/Sept./Oct. MBE National Examinee Counts, 2016–2020



The Law School Admissions Council provided the following graph, which indicates that the number of applicants and enrollees increased for a few years after 2008 and then sharply dropped:



APPENDIX D

Information Regarding Twelve Law Schools in the Sample (including ABA Form 509 information for each school)

Bar Pass Rates for 12 Law Schools in the Sample

Snapshots of Sample Law Schools

The ABA provides the following summaries for bar passage rates for the sample law schools:

For 2011

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total Time Takers	First-Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNIV	2011	2010	Florida	209	193	142	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%	92.34%	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%
BARRY UNIV	2010	2009	Florida	164	132	93	70.45%	77.81%	-7.36%	80.49%	70.45%	77.81%	-7.36%
BARRY UNIV	2009	2008	Florida	166	153	117	76.47%	80.76%	-4.29%	92.17%	76.47%	80.76%	-4.29%
CITY UNIVER	2011	2010	New York	126	109	79	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%	86.51%	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%
CITY UNIVER	2010	2009	New York	118	102	82	80.39%	86.51%	-6.12%	86.44%	80.39%	86.51%	-6.12%
CITY UNIVER	2009	2008	New York	129	107	90	84.11%	88.98%	-4.87%	82.95%	84.11%	88.98%	-4.87%
DRAKE UNIV	2011	2010	Iowa	137	97	88	90.72%	91.09%	-0.37%	74.45%	91.17%	90.18%	0.99%
DRAKE UNIV	2011	2010	Nevada	137	5	5	100.00%	72.72%	27.28%				
DRAKE UNIV	2010	2009	Iowa	121	83	80	96.39%	93.17%	3.22%	76.86%	95.71%	92.92%	2.79%
DRAKE UNIV	2010	2009	Illinois	121	10	9	90.00%	90.89%	-0.89%				
DRAKE UNIV	2009	2008	Iowa	139	81	73	90.12%	90.11%	0.01%	74.10%	90.29%	90.37%	-0.08%
DRAKE UNIV	2009	2008	Illinois	139	11	9	81.82%	90.94%	-9.12%				
DRAKE UNIV	2009	2008	Wisconsin	139	11	11	100.00%	91.79%	8.21%				
GEORGETOV	2011	2010	New York	645	233	221	94.85%	84.92%	9.93%	78.91%	89.39%	80.45%	8.94%
GEORGETOV	2011	2010	Maryland	645	107	98	91.59%	79.96%	11.63%				
GEORGETOV	2011	2010	California	645	87	65	74.71%	71.24%	3.47%				
GEORGETOV	2011	2010	Virginia	645	82	71	86.59%	78.15%	8.44%				
GEORGETOV	2010	2009	New York	674	261	244	93.49%	86.51%	6.98%	77.15%	90.96%	81.41%	9.55%
GEORGETOV	2010	2009	Maryland	674	107	102	95.33%	78.20%	17.13%				
GEORGETOV	2010	2009	California	674	84	69	82.14%	73.19%	8.95%				
GEORGETOV	2010	2009	Virginia	674	68	58	85.29%	77.06%	8.23%				
GEORGETOV	2009	2008	New York	637	249	241	96.79%	88.98%	7.81%	74.88%	93.72%	85.85%	7.87%
GEORGETOV	2009	2008	Maryland	637	97	88	90.72%	85.51%	5.21%				
GEORGETOV	2009	2008	California	637	73	65	89.04%	78.07%	10.97%				
GEORGETOV	2009	2008	Virginia	637	58	53	91.38%	82.70%	8.68%				
HARVARD U	2011	2010	New York	558	315	298	94.60%	84.92%	9.68%	96.06%	95.34%	83.94%	11.40%
HARVARD U	2011	2010	Massachusetts	558	98	96	97.96%	89.67%	8.29%				
HARVARD U	2011	2010	California	558	85	80	94.12%	71.24%	22.88%				
HARVARD U	2011	2010	Illinois	558	38	37	97.37%	89.38%	7.99%				
HARVARD U	2010	2009	New York	541	271	267	98.52%	86.51%	12.01%	91.50%	98.19%	85.37%	12.82%
HARVARD U	2010	2009	Massachusetts	541	99	97	97.98%	89.77%	8.21%				
HARVARD U	2010	2009	California	541	81	79	97.53%	73.19%	24.34%				
HARVARD U	2010	2009	Illinois	541	44	43	97.73%	90.89%	6.84%				
HARVARD U	2009	2008	New York	588	284	274	96.48%	88.98%	7.50%	62.41%	97.28%	89.74%	7.54%

HARVARD U	2009	2008	Massachusetts	588	83	83	100.00%	92.33%	7.67%				
MISSISSIPPI,	2011	2010	Mississippi	170	118	101	85.59%	80.28%	5.31%	74.12%	86.51%	80.53%	5.98%
MISSISSIPPI,	2011	2010	Tennessee	170	8	8	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
MISSISSIPPI,	2010	2009	Mississippi	160	106	96	90.57%	85.21%	5.36%	84.38%	91.11%	84.93%	6.18%
MISSISSIPPI,	2010	2009	Tennessee	160	18	18	100.00%	82.44%	17.56%				
MISSISSIPPI,	2010	2009	Georgia	160	11	9	81.82%	86.28%	-4.46%				
MISSISSIPPI,	2009	2008	Mississippi	135	120	108	90.00%	88.14%	1.86%	88.89%	90.00%	88.14%	1.86%
NOVA SOUT	2011	2010	Florida	255	246	205	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%	96.47%	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%
NOVA SOUT	2010	2009	Florida	258	248	208	83.87%	77.81%	6.06%	96.12%	83.87%	77.81%	6.06%
NOVA SOUT	2009	2008	Florida	245	227	191	84.14%	80.76%	3.38%	92.65%	84.14%	80.76%	3.38%
STANFORD U	2011	2010	California	152	96	94	97.92%	71.24%	26.68%	97.37%	98.66%	76.05%	22.61%
STANFORD U	2011	2010	New York	152	52	52	100.00%	84.92%	15.08%				
STANFORD U	2010	2009	California	180	104	97	93.27%	73.19%	20.08%	77.22%	94.24%	76.54%	17.70%
STANFORD U	2010	2009	New York	180	35	34	97.14%	86.51%	10.63%				
STANFORD U	2009	2008	California	160	105	101	96.19%	78.07%	18.12%	95.00%	97.37%	81.44%	15.93%
STANFORD U	2009	2008	New York	160	47	47	100.00%	88.98%	11.02%				
TEXAS AT AL	2011	2010	Texas	360	281	260	92.53%	82.68%	9.85%	86.94%	92.97%	82.91%	10.06%
TEXAS AT AL	2011	2010	New York	360	32	31	96.88%	84.92%	11.96%				
TEXAS AT AL	2010	2009	Texas	374	279	260	93.19%	85.48%	7.71%	91.44%	92.98%	84.42%	8.56%
TEXAS AT AL	2010	2009	California	374	32	29	90.63%	73.19%	17.43%				
TEXAS AT AL	2010	2009	New York	374	31	29	93.55%	86.51%	7.04%				
TEXAS AT AL	2009	2008	Texas	416	316	281	88.92%	84.54%	4.38%	75.96%	88.92%	84.54%	4.38%
VANDERBILT	2011	2010	New York	190	43	39	90.70%	84.92%	5.78%	70.00%	93.23%	82.37%	10.86%
VANDERBILT	2011	2010	Tennessee	190	33	33	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
VANDERBILT	2011	2010	California	190	18	14	77.78%	71.24%	6.54%				
VANDERBILT	2011	2010	Florida	190	16	16	100.00%	77.63%	22.37%				
VANDERBILT	2011	2010	Illinois	190	13	12	92.31%	89.38%	2.93%				
VANDERBILT	2010	2009	New York	179	37	36	97.30%	86.51%	10.79%	71.51%	96.89%	85.25%	11.64%
VANDERBILT	2010	2009	Tennessee	179	34	32	94.12%	82.44%	11.68%				
VANDERBILT	2010	2009	Illinois	179	16	16	100.00%	90.89%	9.11%				
VANDERBILT	2010	2009	Georgia	179	14	14	100.00%	86.28%	13.72%				
VANDERBILT	2010	2009	Texas	179	12	12	100.00%	85.48%	14.52%				
VANDERBILT	2009	2008	Tennessee	213	46	44	95.65%	88.10%	7.55%	70.89%	96.69%	86.83%	9.86%
VANDERBILT	2009	2008	New York	213	33	31	93.94%	88.98%	4.96%				
VANDERBILT	2009	2008	Georgia	213	21	21	100.00%	89.27%	10.73%				
VANDERBILT	2009	2008	Texas	213	16	16	100.00%	84.54%	15.46%				
VANDERBILT	2009	2008	California	213	16	15	93.75%	78.07%	15.68%				
WESTERN M	2011	2010	Michigan	851	336	284	84.52%	84.83%	-0.31%	71.92%	74.35%	84.53%	-10.18%

WESTERN M	2011	2010	Illinois	851	86	61	70.93%	89.38%	-18.45%				
WESTERN M	2011	2010	New York	851	85	53	62.35%	84.92%	-22.57%				
WESTERN M	2011	2010	California	851	40	11	27.50%	71.24%	-43.74%				
WESTERN M	2011	2010	Texas	851	35	26	74.29%	82.68%	-8.39%				
WESTERN M	2010	2009	Michigan	887	291	257	88.32%	86.87%	1.45%	71.36%	77.41%	86.31%	-8.90%
WESTERN M	2010	2009	Illinois	887	96	77	80.21%	90.89%	-10.68%				
WESTERN M	2010	2009	New York	887	86	59	68.60%	86.51%	-17.91%				
WESTERN M	2010	2009	Pennsylvania	887	36	25	69.44%	85.69%	-16.25%				
WESTERN M	2010	2009	California	887	35	10	28.57%	73.19%	-44.62%				
WESTERN M	2009	2008	Michigan	718	278	224	80.58%	82.13%	-1.55%	72.42%	70.58%	84.47%	-13.89%
WESTERN M	2009	2008	New York	718	71	43	60.56%	88.98%	-28.42%				
WESTERN M	2009	2008	Illinois	718	66	48	72.73%	90.94%	-18.21%				
WESTERN M	2009	2008	California	718	29	10	34.48%	78.07%	-43.59%				
WESTERN M	2009	2008	Indiana	718	28	15	53.57%	84.39%	-30.82%				
YALE UNIVEI	2011	2010	New York	179	102	99	97.06%	84.92%	12.14%	70.39%	97.62%	82.31%	15.31%
YALE UNIVEI	2011	2010	California	179	24	24	100.00%	71.24%	28.76%				
YALE UNIVEI	2010	2009	New York	184	96	91	94.79%	86.51%	8.28%	75.00%	96.37%	82.46%	13.91%
YALE UNIVEI	2010	2009	California	184	42	42	100.00%	73.19%	26.81%				
YALE UNIVEI	2009	2008	New York	195	85	82	96.47%	88.98%	7.49%	71.79%	97.15%	85.12%	12.03%
YALE UNIVEI	2009	2008	California	195	42	41	97.62%	78.07%	19.55%				
YALE UNIVEI	2009	2008	Virginia	195	13	13	100.00%	82.70%	17.30%				

For 2012

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total First-Time Takers	Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNI	2012	2011	Florida	210	180	127	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%	85.71%	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%
BARRY UNI	2011	2010	Florida	209	193	142	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%	92.34%	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%
BARRY UNI	2010	2009	Florida	164	132	93	70.45%	77.81%	-7.36%	80.49%	70.45%	77.81%	-7.36%
CITY UNIVE	2012	2011	New York	114	105	73	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%	92.11%	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%
CITY UNIVE	2011	2010	New York	126	109	79	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%	86.51%	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%
CITY UNIVE	2010	2009	New York	118	102	82	80.39%	86.51%	-6.12%	86.44%	80.39%	86.51%	-6.12%
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Iowa	153	119	109	91.60%	89.53%	2.07%	86.93%	92.49%	89.49%	3.00%
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Illinois	153	6	6	100.00%	89.10%	10.90%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Minnesota	153	4	4	100.00%	92.94%	7.06%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	New York	153	4	4	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
DRAKE UNI	2011	2010	Iowa	137	97	88	90.72%	91.09%	-0.37%	74.45%	91.17%	90.18%	0.99%
DRAKE UNI	2011	2010	Nevada	137	5	5	100.00%	72.72%	27.28%				
DRAKE UNI	2010	2009	Iowa	121	83	80	96.39%	93.17%	3.22%	76.86%	95.71%	92.92%	2.79%
DRAKE UNI	2010	2009	Illinois	121	10	9	90.00%	90.89%	-0.89%				
GEORGETO	2012	2011	New York	656	244	226	92.62%	85.03%	7.59%	76.07%	90.38%	81.43%	8.95%
GEORGETO	2012	2011	Maryland	656	105	98	93.33%	80.81%	12.52%				
GEORGETO	2012	2011	Virginia	656	77	62	80.52%	79.65%	0.87%				
GEORGETO	2012	2011	California	656	73	65	89.04%	72.15%	16.89%				
GEORGETO	2011	2010	New York	645	233	221	94.85%	84.92%	9.93%	78.91%	89.39%	80.45%	8.94%
GEORGETO	2011	2010	Maryland	645	107	98	91.59%	79.96%	11.63%				
GEORGETO	2011	2010	California	645	87	65	74.71%	71.24%	3.47%				
GEORGETO	2011	2010	Virginia	645	82	71	86.59%	78.15%	8.44%				
GEORGETO	2010	2009	New York	674	261	244	93.49%	86.51%	6.98%	77.15%	90.96%	81.41%	9.55%
GEORGETO	2010	2009	Maryland	674	107	102	95.33%	78.20%	17.13%				
GEORGETO	2010	2009	California	674	84	69	82.14%	73.19%	8.95%				
GEORGETO	2010	2009	Virginia	674	68	58	85.29%	77.06%	8.23%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	New York	583	284	277	97.54%	85.03%	12.51%	82.85%	96.27%	82.63%	13.64%
HARVARD I	2012	2011	California	583	98	88	89.80%	72.15%	17.65%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	Massachusetts	583	74	74	100.00%	87.94%	12.06%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	Maryland	583	27	26	96.30%	80.81%	15.49%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	New York	558	315	298	94.60%	84.92%	9.68%	96.06%	95.34%	83.94%	11.40%
HARVARD I	2011	2010	Massachusetts	558	98	96	97.96%	89.67%	8.29%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	California	558	85	80	94.12%	71.24%	22.88%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	Illinois	558	38	37	97.37%	89.38%	7.99%				

HARVARD I	2010	2009	New York	541	271	267	98.52%	86.51%	12.01%	91.50%	98.19%	85.37%	12.82%
HARVARD I	2010	2009	Massachusetts	541	99	97	97.98%	89.77%	8.21%				
HARVARD I	2010	2009	California	541	81	79	97.53%	73.19%	24.34%				
HARVARD I	2010	2009	Illinois	541	44	43	97.73%	90.89%	6.84%				
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Mississippi	155	113	95	84.07%	81.11%	2.96%	79.35%	83.74%	81.11%	2.63%
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Tennessee	155	10	8	80.00%	81.11%	-1.11%				
MISSISSIPP	2011	2010	Mississippi	170	118	101	85.59%	80.28%	5.31%	74.12%	86.51%	80.53%	5.98%
MISSISSIPP	2011	2010	Tennessee	170	8	8	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
MISSISSIPP	2010	2009	Mississippi	160	106	96	90.57%	85.21%	5.36%	84.38%	91.11%	84.93%	6.18%
MISSISSIPP	2010	2009	Tennessee	160	18	18	100.00%	82.44%	17.56%				
MISSISSIPP	2010	2009	Georgia	160	11	9	81.82%	86.28%	-4.46%				
NOVA SOU'	2012	2011	Florida	288	261	226	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%	90.63%	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%
NOVA SOU'	2011	2010	Florida	255	246	205	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%	96.47%	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%
NOVA SOU'	2010	2009	Florida	258	248	208	83.87%	77.81%	6.06%	96.12%	83.87%	77.81%	6.06%
STANFORD	2012	2011	California	173	113	100	88.50%	72.15%	16.35%	91.91%	91.20%	75.88%	15.32%
STANFORD	2012	2011	New York	173	46	45	97.83%	85.03%	12.80%				
STANFORD	2011	2010	California	152	96	94	97.92%	71.24%	26.68%	97.37%	98.66%	76.05%	22.61%
STANFORD	2011	2010	New York	152	52	52	100.00%	84.92%	15.08%				
STANFORD	2010	2009	California	180	104	97	93.27%	73.19%	20.08%	77.22%	94.24%	76.54%	17.70%
STANFORD	2010	2009	New York	180	35	34	97.14%	86.51%	10.63%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	Texas	369	292	275	94.18%	86.24%	7.94%	91.33%	94.65%	85.28%	9.37%
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	New York	369	24	24	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	California	369	21	20	95.24%	72.15%	23.09%				
TEXAS AT A	2011	2010	Texas	360	281	260	92.53%	82.68%	9.85%	86.94%	92.97%	82.91%	10.06%
TEXAS AT A	2011	2010	New York	360	32	31	96.88%	84.92%	11.96%				
TEXAS AT A	2010	2009	Texas	374	279	260	93.19%	85.48%	7.71%	91.44%	92.98%	84.42%	8.56%
TEXAS AT A	2010	2009	California	374	32	29	90.63%	73.19%	17.43%				
TEXAS AT A	2010	2009	New York	374	31	29	93.55%	86.51%	7.04%				
VANDERBIL	2012	2011	Tennessee	190	49	47	95.92%	81.11%	14.81%	72.11%	92.71%	82.38%	10.33%
VANDERBIL	2012	2011	New York	190	27	26	96.30%	85.03%	11.27%				
VANDERBIL	2012	2011	Texas	190	16	16	100.00%	86.24%	13.76%				
VANDERBIL	2012	2011	California	190	10	8	80.00%	72.15%	7.85%				
VANDERBIL	2012	2011	Georgia	190	10	10	100.00%	84.77%	15.23%				
VANDERBIL	2011	2010	New York	190	43	39	90.70%	84.92%	5.78%	70.00%	93.23%	82.37%	10.86%
VANDERBIL	2011	2010	Tennessee	190	33	33	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
VANDERBIL	2011	2010	California	190	18	14	77.78%	71.24%	6.54%				
VANDERBIL	2011	2010	Florida	190	16	16	100.00%	77.63%	22.37%				
VANDERBIL	2011	2010	Illinois	190	13	12	92.31%	89.38%	2.93%				

VANDERBIL	2010	2009	New York	179	37	36	97.30%	86.51%	10.79%	71.51%	96.89%	85.25%	11.64%
VANDERBIL	2010	2009	Tennessee	179	34	32	94.12%	82.44%	11.68%				
VANDERBIL	2010	2009	Illinois	179	16	16	100.00%	90.89%	9.11%				
VANDERBIL	2010	2009	Georgia	179	14	14	100.00%	86.28%	13.72%				
VANDERBIL	2010	2009	Texas	179	12	12	100.00%	85.48%	14.52%				
WESTERN †	2012	2011	Michigan	909	358	301	84.08%	82.17%	1.91%	77.34%	72.14%	83.10%	-10.96%
WESTERN †	2012	2011	New York	909	70	43	61.43%	85.03%	-23.60%				
WESTERN †	2012	2011	Illinois	909	65	43	66.15%	89.10%	-22.95%				
WESTERN †	2012	2011	Indiana	909	37	19	51.35%	83.28%	-31.93%				
WESTERN †	2012	2011	Pennsylvania	909	35	25	71.43%	84.58%	-13.15%				
WESTERN †	2011	2010	Michigan	851	336	284	84.52%	84.83%	-0.31%	71.92%	74.35%	84.53%	-10.18%
WESTERN †	2011	2010	Illinois	851	86	61	70.93%	89.38%	-18.45%				
WESTERN †	2011	2010	New York	851	85	53	62.35%	84.92%	-22.57%				
WESTERN †	2011	2010	California	851	40	11	27.50%	71.24%	-43.74%				
WESTERN †	2011	2010	Texas	851	35	26	74.29%	82.68%	-8.39%				
WESTERN †	2010	2009	Michigan	887	291	257	88.32%	86.87%	1.45%	71.36%	77.41%	86.31%	-8.90%
WESTERN †	2010	2009	Illinois	887	96	77	80.21%	90.89%	-10.68%				
WESTERN †	2010	2009	New York	887	86	59	68.60%	86.51%	-17.91%				
WESTERN †	2010	2009	Pennsylvania	887	36	25	69.44%	85.69%	-16.25%				
WESTERN †	2010	2009	California	887	35	10	28.57%	73.19%	-44.62%				
YALE UNIV†	2012	2011	New York	197	109	105	96.33%	85.03%	11.30%	71.57%	93.62%	82.10%	11.52%
YALE UNIV†	2012	2011	California	197	32	27	84.38%	72.15%	12.23%				
YALE UNIV†	2011	2010	New York	179	102	99	97.06%	84.92%	12.14%	70.39%	97.62%	82.31%	15.31%
YALE UNIV†	2011	2010	California	179	24	24	100.00%	71.24%	28.76%				
YALE UNIV†	2010	2009	New York	184	96	91	94.79%	86.51%	8.28%	75.00%	96.37%	82.46%	13.91%
YALE UNIV†	2010	2009	California	184	42	42	100.00%	73.19%	26.81%				

For 2013:

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total First-Time Takers	Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNI	2013	2012	Florida	187	157	127	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%	83.96%	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%
BARRY UNI	2012	2011	Florida	210	180	127	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%	85.71%	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%
BARRY UNI	2011	2010	Florida	209	193	142	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%	92.34%	73.58%	77.63%	-4.05%
CITY UNIVE	2013	2012	New York	134	124	102	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%	92.54%	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%
CITY UNIVE	2012	2011	New York	114	105	73	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%	92.11%	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%
CITY UNIVE	2011	2010	New York	126	109	79	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%	86.51%	72.48%	84.92%	-12.44%
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Iowa	129	99	89	89.90%	92.46%	-2.56%	82.17%	90.56%	92.34%	-1.78%
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Minnesota	129	7	7	100.00%	90.66%	9.34%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Iowa	153	119	109	91.60%	89.53%	2.07%	86.93%	92.49%	89.49%	3.00%
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Illinois	153	6	6	100.00%	89.10%	10.90%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Minnesota	153	4	4	100.00%	92.94%	7.06%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	New York	153	4	4	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
DRAKE UNI	2011	2010	Iowa	137	97	88	90.72%	91.09%	-0.37%	74.45%	91.17%	90.18%	0.99%
DRAKE UNI	2011	2010	Nevada	137	5	5	100.00%	72.72%	27.28%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	New York	612	261	235	90.04%	81.55%	8.49%	81.54%	87.77%	78.88%	8.89%
GEORGETC	2013	2012	Maryland	612	94	87	92.55%	78.49%	14.06%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	California	612	77	61	79.22%	71.43%	7.79%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	Virginia	612	67	55	82.09%	77.57%	4.52%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	New York	656	244	226	92.62%	85.03%	7.59%	76.07%	90.38%	81.43%	8.95%
GEORGETC	2012	2011	Maryland	656	105	98	93.33%	80.81%	12.52%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	Virginia	656	77	62	80.52%	79.65%	0.87%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	California	656	73	65	89.04%	72.15%	16.89%				
GEORGETC	2011	2010	New York	645	233	221	94.85%	84.92%	9.93%	78.91%	89.39%	80.45%	8.94%
GEORGETC	2011	2010	Maryland	645	107	98	91.59%	79.96%	11.63%				
GEORGETC	2011	2010	California	645	87	65	74.71%	71.24%	3.47%				
GEORGETC	2011	2010	Virginia	645	82	71	86.59%	78.15%	8.44%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	New York	590	266	258	96.99%	81.55%	15.44%	79.49%	96.16%	80.10%	16.06%
HARVARD I	2013	2012	California	590	91	84	92.31%	71.43%	20.88%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Massachusetts	590	80	78	97.50%	85.20%	12.30%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Maryland	590	17	16	94.12%	78.49%	15.63%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	590	15	15	100.00%	81.67%	18.33%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	New York	583	284	277	97.54%	85.03%	12.51%	82.85%	96.27%	82.63%	13.64%
HARVARD I	2012	2011	California	583	98	88	89.80%	72.15%	17.65%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	Massachusetts	583	74	74	100.00%	87.94%	12.06%				

HARVARD I	2012	2011	Maryland	583	27	26	96.30%	80.81%	15.49%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	New York	558	315	298	94.60%	84.92%	9.68%	96.06%	95.34%	83.94%	11.40%
HARVARD I	2011	2010	Massachusetts	558	98	96	97.96%	89.67%	8.29%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	California	558	85	80	94.12%	71.24%	22.88%				
HARVARD I	2011	2010	Illinois	558	38	37	97.37%	89.38%	7.99%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Mississippi	178	161	116	72.05%	80.68%	-8.63%	104.49%	72.58%	80.18%	-7.60%
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Tennessee	178	20	15	75.00%	77.12%	-2.12%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Florida	178	4	3	75.00%	79.32%	-4.32%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Louisiana	178	1	1	100.00%	63.59%	36.41%				
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Mississippi	155	113	95	84.07%	81.11%	2.96%	79.35%	83.74%	81.11%	2.63%
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Tennessee	155	10	8	80.00%	81.11%	-1.11%				
MISSISSIPP	2011	2010	Mississippi	170	118	101	85.59%	80.28%	5.31%	74.12%	86.51%	80.53%	5.98%
MISSISSIPP	2011	2010	Tennessee	170	8	8	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
NOVA SOU	2013	2012	Florida	350	324	258	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%	92.57%	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%
NOVA SOU	2012	2011	Florida	288	261	226	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%	90.63%	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%
NOVA SOU	2011	2010	Florida	255	246	205	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%	96.47%	83.33%	77.63%	5.70%
STANFORD	2013	2012	California	150	110	103	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%	73.33%	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%
STANFORD	2012	2011	California	173	113	100	88.50%	72.15%	16.35%	91.91%	91.20%	75.88%	15.32%
STANFORD	2012	2011	New York	173	46	45	97.83%	85.03%	12.80%				
STANFORD	2011	2010	California	152	96	94	97.92%	71.24%	26.68%	97.37%	98.66%	76.05%	22.61%
STANFORD	2011	2010	New York	152	52	52	100.00%	84.92%	15.08%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	Texas	354	298	275	92.28%	82.06%	10.22%	95.48%	91.71%	81.58%	10.13%
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	New York	354	26	24	92.31%	81.55%	10.76%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	California	354	14	11	78.57%	71.43%	7.14%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	Texas	369	292	275	94.18%	86.24%	7.94%	91.33%	94.65%	85.28%	9.37%
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	New York	369	24	24	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	California	369	21	20	95.24%	72.15%	23.09%				
TEXAS AT A	2011	2010	Texas	360	281	260	92.53%	82.68%	9.85%	86.94%	92.97%	82.91%	10.06%
TEXAS AT A	2011	2010	New York	360	32	31	96.88%	84.92%	11.96%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Tennessee	196	47	45	95.74%	77.12%	18.62%	71.43%	91.43%	79.41%	12.02%
VANDERBII	2013	2012	New York	196	41	35	85.37%	81.55%	3.82%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Georgia	196	20	20	100.00%	83.98%	16.02%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Texas	196	12	11	91.67%	82.06%	9.61%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	California	196	12	10	83.33%	71.43%	11.90%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	Tennessee	190	49	47	95.92%	81.11%	14.81%	72.11%	92.71%	82.38%	10.33%
VANDERBII	2012	2011	New York	190	27	26	96.30%	85.03%	11.27%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	Texas	190	16	16	100.00%	86.24%	13.76%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	California	190	10	8	80.00%	72.15%	7.85%				

VANDERBII	2012	2011	Georgia	190	10	10	100.00%	84.77%	15.23%				
VANDERBII	2011	2010	New York	190	43	39	90.70%	84.92%	5.78%	70.00%	93.23%	82.37%	10.86%
VANDERBII	2011	2010	Tennessee	190	33	33	100.00%	84.24%	15.76%				
VANDERBII	2011	2010	California	190	18	14	77.78%	71.24%	6.54%				
VANDERBII	2011	2010	Florida	190	16	16	100.00%	77.63%	22.37%				
VANDERBII	2011	2010	Illinois	190	13	12	92.31%	89.38%	2.93%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Michigan	966	447	266	59.51%	64.32%	-4.81%	72.26%	55.30%	71.21%	-15.91%
WESTERN I	2013	2012	New York	966	86	34	39.53%	81.55%	-42.02%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Illinois	966	78	43	55.13%	87.34%	-32.21%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	966	45	22	48.89%	81.67%	-32.78%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Texas	966	42	21	50.00%	82.06%	-32.06%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Michigan	909	358	301	84.08%	82.17%	1.91%	77.34%	72.14%	83.10%	-10.96%
WESTERN I	2012	2011	New York	909	70	43	61.43%	85.03%	-23.60%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Illinois	909	65	43	66.15%	89.10%	-22.95%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Indiana	909	37	19	51.35%	83.28%	-31.93%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Pennsylvania	909	35	25	71.43%	84.58%	-13.15%				
WESTERN I	2011	2010	Michigan	851	336	284	84.52%	84.83%	-0.31%	71.92%	74.35%	84.53%	-10.18%
WESTERN I	2011	2010	Illinois	851	86	61	70.93%	89.38%	-18.45%				
WESTERN I	2011	2010	New York	851	85	53	62.35%	84.92%	-22.57%				
WESTERN I	2011	2010	California	851	40	11	27.50%	71.24%	-43.74%				
WESTERN I	2011	2010	Texas	851	35	26	74.29%	82.68%	-8.39%				
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	New York	203	125	118	94.40%	81.55%	12.85%	76.85%	93.59%	79.53%	14.06%
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	California	203	31	28	90.32%	71.43%	18.89%				
YALE UNIV I	2012	2011	New York	197	109	105	96.33%	85.03%	11.30%	71.57%	93.62%	82.10%	11.52%
YALE UNIV I	2012	2011	California	197	32	27	84.38%	72.15%	12.23%				
YALE UNIV I	2011	2010	New York	179	102	99	97.06%	84.92%	12.14%	70.39%	97.62%	82.31%	15.31%
YALE UNIV I	2011	2010	California	179	24	24	100.00%	71.24%	28.76%				

For 2014:

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total Time Takers	First-Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNI	2014	2013	Florida	192	164	130	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%	85.42%	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%
BARRY UNI	2013	2012	Florida	187	157	127	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%	83.96%	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%
BARRY UNI	2012	2011	Florida	210	180	127	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%	85.71%	70.56%	79.96%	-9.40%
CITY UNIVE	2014	2013	New York	136	125	99	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%	91.91%	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%
CITY UNIVE	2013	2012	New York	134	124	102	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%	92.54%	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%
CITY UNIVE	2012	2011	New York	114	105	73	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%	92.11%	69.52%	85.03%	-15.51%
DRAKE UNI	2014	2013	Iowa	140	110	104	94.55%	93.37%	1.18%	81.43%	94.74%	93.26%	1.48%
DRAKE UNI	2014	2013	Missouri	140	4	4	100.00%	90.44%	9.56%				
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Iowa	129	99	89	89.90%	92.46%	-2.56%	82.17%	90.56%	92.34%	-1.78%
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Minnesota	129	7	7	100.00%	90.66%	9.34%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Iowa	153	119	109	91.60%	89.53%	2.07%	86.93%	92.49%	89.49%	3.00%
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Illinois	153	6	6	100.00%	89.10%	10.90%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	Minnesota	153	4	4	100.00%	92.94%	7.06%				
DRAKE UNI	2012	2011	New York	153	4	4	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
GEORGETC	2014	2013	New York	647	272	251	92.28%	84.76%	7.52%	82.23%	89.85%	80.96%	8.89%
GEORGETC	2014	2013	Maryland	647	114	107	93.86%	80.60%	13.26%				
GEORGETC	2014	2013	California	647	75	60	80.00%	71.09%	8.91%				
GEORGETC	2014	2013	Virginia	647	71	60	84.51%	77.39%	7.12%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	New York	612	261	235	90.04%	81.55%	8.49%	81.54%	87.77%	78.88%	8.89%
GEORGETC	2013	2012	Maryland	612	94	87	92.55%	78.49%	14.06%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	California	612	77	61	79.22%	71.43%	7.79%				
GEORGETC	2013	2012	Virginia	612	67	55	82.09%	77.57%	4.52%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	New York	656	244	226	92.62%	85.03%	7.59%	76.07%	90.38%	81.43%	8.95%
GEORGETC	2012	2011	Maryland	656	105	98	93.33%	80.81%	12.52%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	Virginia	656	77	62	80.52%	79.65%	0.87%				
GEORGETC	2012	2011	California	656	73	65	89.04%	72.15%	16.89%				
HARVARD I	2014	2013	New York	598	303	292	96.37%	84.76%	11.61%	82.61%	96.36%	82.31%	14.05%
HARVARD I	2014	2013	California	598	106	102	96.23%	71.09%	25.14%				
HARVARD I	2014	2013	Massachusetts	598	85	82	96.47%	87.61%	8.86%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	New York	590	266	258	96.99%	81.55%	15.44%	79.49%	96.16%	80.10%	16.06%
HARVARD I	2013	2012	California	590	91	84	92.31%	71.43%	20.88%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Massachusetts	590	80	78	97.50%	85.20%	12.30%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Maryland	590	17	16	94.12%	78.49%	15.63%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	590	15	15	100.00%	81.67%	18.33%				

HARVARD I	2012	2011	New York	583	284	277	97.54%	85.03%	12.51%	82.85%	96.27%	82.63%	13.64%
HARVARD I	2012	2011	California	583	98	88	89.80%	72.15%	17.65%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	Massachusetts	583	74	74	100.00%	87.94%	12.06%				
HARVARD I	2012	2011	Maryland	583	27	26	96.30%	80.81%	15.49%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Mississippi	169	101	90	89.11%	84.67%	4.44%	77.51%	90.82%	84.04%	6.78%
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Georgia	169	13	12	92.31%	85.15%	7.16%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Texas	169	7	7	100.00%	85.08%	14.92%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	North Carolina	169	3	3	100.00%	69.22%	30.78%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Louisiana	169	2	2	100.00%	58.72%	41.28%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Mississippi	178	161	116	72.05%	80.68%	-8.63%	104.49%	72.58%	80.18%	-7.60%
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Tennessee	178	20	15	75.00%	77.12%	-2.12%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Florida	178	4	3	75.00%	79.32%	-4.32%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Louisiana	178	1	1	100.00%	63.59%	36.41%				
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Mississippi	155	113	95	84.07%	81.11%	2.96%	79.35%	83.74%	81.11%	2.63%
MISSISSIPP	2012	2011	Tennessee	155	10	8	80.00%	81.11%	-1.11%				
NOVA SOU	2014	2013	Florida	294	283	231	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%	96.26%	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%
NOVA SOU	2013	2012	Florida	350	324	258	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%	92.57%	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%
NOVA SOU	2012	2011	Florida	288	261	226	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%	90.63%	86.59%	79.96%	6.63%
STANFORD	2014	2013	California	173	124	112	90.32%	71.09%	19.23%	93.06%	91.92%	74.23%	17.69%
STANFORD	2014	2013	New York	173	37	36	97.30%	84.76%	12.54%				
STANFORD	2013	2012	California	150	110	103	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%	73.33%	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%
STANFORD	2012	2011	California	173	113	100	88.50%	72.15%	16.35%	91.91%	91.20%	75.88%	15.32%
STANFORD	2012	2011	New York	173	46	45	97.83%	85.03%	12.80%				
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	Texas	353	288	273	94.79%	85.08%	9.71%	93.20%	95.14%	84.30%	10.84%
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	New York	353	23	23	100.00%	84.76%	15.24%				
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	California	353	18	17	94.44%	71.09%	23.35%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	Texas	354	298	275	92.28%	82.06%	10.22%	95.48%	91.71%	81.58%	10.13%
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	New York	354	26	24	92.31%	81.55%	10.76%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	California	354	14	11	78.57%	71.43%	7.14%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	Texas	369	292	275	94.18%	86.24%	7.94%	91.33%	94.65%	85.28%	9.37%
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	New York	369	24	24	100.00%	85.03%	14.97%				
TEXAS AT A	2012	2011	California	369	21	20	95.24%	72.15%	23.09%				
VANDERBII	2014	2013	Tennessee	204	54	54	100.00%	85.49%	14.51%	77.94%	95.59%	83.63%	11.96%
VANDERBII	2014	2013	New York	204	44	43	97.73%	84.76%	12.97%				
VANDERBII	2014	2013	Illinois	204	15	15	100.00%	87.84%	12.16%				
VANDERBII	2014	2013	California	204	15	11	73.33%	71.09%	2.24%				
VANDERBII	2014	2013	Texas	204	12	11	91.67%	85.08%	6.59%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Tennessee	196	47	45	95.74%	77.12%	18.62%	71.43%	91.43%	79.41%	12.02%

VANDERBII	2013	2012	New York	196	41	35	85.37%	81.55%	3.82%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Georgia	196	20	20	100.00%	83.98%	16.02%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	Texas	196	12	11	91.67%	82.06%	9.61%				
VANDERBII	2013	2012	California	196	12	10	83.33%	71.43%	11.90%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	Tennessee	190	49	47	95.92%	81.11%	14.81%	72.11%	92.71%	82.38%	10.33%
VANDERBII	2012	2011	New York	190	27	26	96.30%	85.03%	11.27%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	Texas	190	16	16	100.00%	86.24%	13.76%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	California	190	10	8	80.00%	72.15%	7.85%				
VANDERBII	2012	2011	Georgia	190	10	10	100.00%	84.77%	15.23%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Michigan	1062	482	281	58.30%	69.16%	-10.86%	71.19%	51.45%	74.14%	-22.69%
WESTERN I	2014	2013	New York	1062	94	45	47.87%	84.76%	-36.89%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Illinois	1062	58	24	41.38%	87.84%	-46.46%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Pennsylvania	1062	42	21	50.00%	81.26%	-31.26%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Texas	1062	40	13	32.50%	85.08%	-52.58%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Michigan	966	447	266	59.51%	64.32%	-4.81%	72.26%	55.30%	71.21%	-15.91%
WESTERN I	2013	2012	New York	966	86	34	39.53%	81.55%	-42.02%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Illinois	966	78	43	55.13%	87.34%	-32.21%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	966	45	22	48.89%	81.67%	-32.78%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Texas	966	42	21	50.00%	82.06%	-32.06%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Michigan	909	358	301	84.08%	82.17%	1.91%	77.34%	72.14%	83.10%	-10.96%
WESTERN I	2012	2011	New York	909	70	43	61.43%	85.03%	-23.60%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Illinois	909	65	43	66.15%	89.10%	-22.95%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Indiana	909	37	19	51.35%	83.28%	-31.93%				
WESTERN I	2012	2011	Pennsylvania	909	35	25	71.43%	84.58%	-13.15%				
YALE UNIV I	2014	2013	New York	180	97	95	97.94%	84.76%	13.18%	72.22%	96.16%	81.29%	14.87%
YALE UNIV I	2014	2013	California	180	33	30	90.91%	71.09%	19.82%				
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	New York	203	125	118	94.40%	81.55%	12.85%	76.85%	93.59%	79.53%	14.06%
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	California	203	31	28	90.32%	71.43%	18.89%				
YALE UNIV I	2012	2011	New York	197	109	105	96.33%	85.03%	11.30%	71.57%	93.62%	82.10%	11.52%
YALE UNIV I	2012	2011	California	197	32	27	84.38%	72.15%	12.23%				

For 2015:

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total First-Time Takers	Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNI	2015	2014	Florida	195	180	112	62.22%	72.09%	-9.87%	92.31%	62.22%	72.09%	-9.87%
BARRY UNI	2014	2013	Florida	192	164	130	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%	85.42%	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%
BARRY UNI	2013	2012	Florida	187	157	127	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%	83.96%	80.89%	79.32%	1.57%
CITY UNIVE	2015	2014	New York	148	133	103	77.44%	78.60%	-1.16%	89.86%	77.44%	78.60%	-1.16%
CITY UNIVE	2014	2013	New York	136	125	99	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%	91.91%	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%
CITY UNIVE	2013	2012	New York	134	124	102	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%	92.54%	82.26%	81.55%	0.71%
DRAKE UNI	2015	2014	Iowa	129	100	84	84.00%	84.36%	-0.36%	77.52%	84.00%	84.36%	-0.36%
DRAKE UNI	2014	2013	Iowa	140	110	104	94.55%	93.37%	1.18%	81.43%	94.74%	93.26%	1.48%
DRAKE UNI	2014	2013	Missouri	140	4	4	100.00%	90.44%	9.56%				
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Iowa	129	99	89	89.90%	92.46%	-2.56%	82.17%	90.56%	92.34%	-1.78%
DRAKE UNI	2013	2012	Minnesota	129	7	7	100.00%	90.66%	9.34%				
GEORGETO	2015	2014	New York	626	262	237	90.46%	78.60%	11.86%	80.03%	87.83%	75.47%	12.36%
GEORGETO	2015	2014	Maryland	626	101	94	93.07%	76.47%	16.60%				
GEORGETO	2015	2014	California	626	79	59	74.68%	66.05%	8.63%				
GEORGETO	2015	2014	Virginia	626	59	50	84.75%	72.41%	12.34%				
GEORGETO	2014	2013	New York	647	272	251	92.28%	84.76%	7.52%	82.23%	89.85%	80.96%	8.89%
GEORGETO	2014	2013	Maryland	647	114	107	93.86%	80.60%	13.26%				
GEORGETO	2014	2013	California	647	75	60	80.00%	71.09%	8.91%				
GEORGETO	2014	2013	Virginia	647	71	60	84.51%	77.39%	7.12%				
GEORGETO	2013	2012	New York	612	261	235	90.04%	81.55%	8.49%	81.54%	87.77%	78.88%	8.89%
GEORGETO	2013	2012	Maryland	612	94	87	92.55%	78.49%	14.06%				
GEORGETO	2013	2012	California	612	77	61	79.22%	71.43%	7.79%				
GEORGETO	2013	2012	Virginia	612	67	55	82.09%	77.57%	4.52%				
HARVARD I	2015	2014	New York	596	296	288	97.30%	78.60%	18.70%	79.03%	95.33%	76.70%	18.63%
HARVARD I	2015	2014	California	596	99	87	87.88%	66.05%	21.83%				
HARVARD I	2015	2014	Massachusetts	596	76	74	97.37%	83.15%	14.22%				
HARVARD I	2014	2013	New York	598	303	292	96.37%	84.76%	11.61%	82.61%	96.36%	82.31%	14.05%
HARVARD I	2014	2013	California	598	106	102	96.23%	71.09%	25.14%				
HARVARD I	2014	2013	Massachusetts	598	85	82	96.47%	87.61%	8.86%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	New York	590	266	258	96.99%	81.55%	15.44%	79.49%	96.16%	80.10%	16.06%
HARVARD I	2013	2012	California	590	91	84	92.31%	71.43%	20.88%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Massachusetts	590	80	78	97.50%	85.20%	12.30%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Maryland	590	17	16	94.12%	78.49%	15.63%				
HARVARD I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	590	15	15	100.00%	81.67%	18.33%				

MISSISSIPP	2015	2014	Mississippi	167	117	98	83.76%	86.70%	-2.94%	89.22%	85.23%	86.23%	-1.00%
MISSISSIPP	2015	2014	Alabama	167	21	19	90.48%	88.45%	2.03%				
MISSISSIPP	2015	2014	Florida	167	7	6	85.71%	72.09%	13.62%				
MISSISSIPP	2015	2014	Illinois	167	4	4	100.00%	85.41%	14.59%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Mississippi	169	101	90	89.11%	84.67%	4.44%	77.51%	90.82%	84.04%	6.78%
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Georgia	169	13	12	92.31%	85.15%	7.16%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Texas	169	7	7	100.00%	85.08%	14.92%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	North Carolina	169	3	3	100.00%	69.22%	30.78%				
MISSISSIPP	2014	2013	Louisiana	169	2	2	100.00%	58.72%	41.28%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Mississippi	178	161	116	72.05%	80.68%	-8.63%	104.49%	72.58%	80.18%	-7.60%
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Tennessee	178	20	15	75.00%	77.12%	-2.12%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Florida	178	4	3	75.00%	79.32%	-4.32%				
MISSISSIPP	2013	2012	Louisiana	178	1	1	100.00%	63.59%	36.41%				
NOVA SOU	2015	2014	Florida	250	243	171	70.37%	72.09%	-1.72%	97.20%	70.37%	72.09%	-1.72%
NOVA SOU	2014	2013	Florida	294	283	231	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%	96.26%	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%
NOVA SOU	2013	2012	Florida	350	324	258	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%	92.57%	79.63%	79.32%	0.31%
STANFORD	2015	2014	California	175	114	99	86.84%	66.05%	20.79%	92.00%	90.06%	69.72%	20.34%
STANFORD	2015	2014	New York	175	47	46	97.87%	78.60%	19.27%				
STANFORD	2014	2013	California	173	124	112	90.32%	71.09%	19.23%	93.06%	91.92%	74.23%	17.69%
STANFORD	2014	2013	New York	173	37	36	97.30%	84.76%	12.54%				
STANFORD	2013	2012	California	150	110	103	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%	73.33%	93.64%	71.43%	22.21%
TEXAS AT A	2015	2014	Texas	342	259	228	88.03%	77.42%	10.61%	96.20%	88.45%	76.30%	12.15%
TEXAS AT A	2015	2014	California	342	36	30	83.33%	66.05%	17.28%				
TEXAS AT A	2015	2014	New York	342	34	33	97.06%	78.60%	18.46%				
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	Texas	353	288	273	94.79%	85.08%	9.71%	93.20%	95.14%	84.30%	10.84%
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	New York	353	23	23	100.00%	84.76%	15.24%				
TEXAS AT A	2014	2013	California	353	18	17	94.44%	71.09%	23.35%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	Texas	354	298	275	92.28%	82.06%	10.22%	95.48%	91.71%	81.58%	10.13%
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	New York	354	26	24	92.31%	81.55%	10.76%				
TEXAS AT A	2013	2012	California	354	14	11	78.57%	71.43%	7.14%				
VANDERBIL	2015	2014	Tennessee	186	44	41	93.18%	74.52%	18.66%	100.00%	92.50%	76.50%	16.00%
VANDERBIL	2015	2014	New York	186	25	24	96.00%	78.60%	17.40%				
VANDERBIL	2015	2014	Texas	186	17	14	82.35%	77.42%	4.93%				
VANDERBIL	2015	2014	Georgia	186	16	16	100.00%	80.23%	19.77%				
VANDERBIL	2015	2014	Florida	186	15	15	100.00%	72.09%	27.91%				
VANDERBIL	2014	2013	Tennessee	204	54	54	100.00%	85.49%	14.51%	77.94%	95.59%	83.63%	11.96%
VANDERBIL	2014	2013	New York	204	44	43	97.73%	84.76%	12.97%				
VANDERBIL	2014	2013	Illinois	204	15	15	100.00%	87.84%	12.16%				

VANDERBIL	2014	2013	California	204	15	11	73.33%	71.09%	2.24%				
VANDERBIL	2014	2013	Texas	204	12	11	91.67%	85.08%	6.59%				
VANDERBIL	2013	2012	Tennessee	196	47	45	95.74%	77.12%	18.62%	71.43%	91.43%	79.41%	12.02%
VANDERBIL	2013	2012	New York	196	41	35	85.37%	81.55%	3.82%				
VANDERBIL	2013	2012	Georgia	196	20	20	100.00%	83.98%	16.02%				
VANDERBIL	2013	2012	Texas	196	12	11	91.67%	82.06%	9.61%				
VANDERBIL	2013	2012	California	196	12	10	83.33%	71.43%	11.90%				
WESTERN I	2015	2014	Michigan	822	405	249	61.48%	68.81%	-7.33%	71.05%	52.73%	72.35%	-19.62%
WESTERN I	2015	2014	New York	822	62	20	32.26%	78.60%	-46.34%				
WESTERN I	2015	2014	Illinois	822	40	20	50.00%	85.41%	-35.41%				
WESTERN I	2015	2014	Pennsylvania	822	39	12	30.77%	80.85%	-50.08%				
WESTERN I	2015	2014	Texas	822	38	7	18.42%	77.42%	-59.00%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Michigan	1062	482	281	58.30%	69.16%	-10.86%	71.19%	51.45%	74.14%	-22.69%
WESTERN I	2014	2013	New York	1062	94	45	47.87%	84.76%	-36.89%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Illinois	1062	58	24	41.38%	87.84%	-46.46%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Pennsylvania	1062	42	21	50.00%	81.26%	-31.26%				
WESTERN I	2014	2013	Texas	1062	40	13	32.50%	85.08%	-52.58%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Michigan	966	447	266	59.51%	64.32%	-4.81%	72.26%	55.30%	71.21%	-15.91%
WESTERN I	2013	2012	New York	966	86	34	39.53%	81.55%	-42.02%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Illinois	966	78	43	55.13%	87.34%	-32.21%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Pennsylvania	966	45	22	48.89%	81.67%	-32.78%				
WESTERN I	2013	2012	Texas	966	42	21	50.00%	82.06%	-32.06%				
YALE UNIV I	2015	2014	New York	210	111	107	96.40%	78.60%	17.80%	70.48%	91.90%	75.46%	16.44%
YALE UNIV I	2015	2014	California	210	37	29	78.38%	66.05%	12.33%				
YALE UNIV I	2014	2013	New York	180	97	95	97.94%	84.76%	13.18%	72.22%	96.16%	81.29%	14.87%
YALE UNIV I	2014	2013	California	180	33	30	90.91%	71.09%	19.82%				
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	New York	203	125	118	94.40%	81.55%	12.85%	76.85%	93.59%	79.53%	14.06%
YALE UNIV I	2013	2012	California	203	31	28	90.32%	71.43%	18.89%				

For 2016

School Name	Reporting Year	Exam Year	Jurisdiction	Total First-Time Takers	Jurisdiction Takers	Jurisdiction Passers	Pass %	State %	Diff. %	Composite School Reporting %	Composite Avg. School Pass %	Composite Avg. State Pass %	Composite Avg. Pass Diff. %
BARRY UNIVER	2016	2015	Florida	222	197	99	50.25%	67.79%	-17.54%	88.74%	50.25%	67.79%	-17.54%
BARRY UNIVER	2015	2014	Florida	195	180	112	62.22%	72.09%	-9.87%	92.31%	62.22%	72.09%	-9.87%
BARRY UNIVER	2014	2013	Florida	192	164	130	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%	85.42%	79.27%	77.91%	1.36%
CITY UNIVERSIT	2015	2014	New York	148	133	103	77.44%	78.60%	-1.16%	89.86%	77.44%	78.60%	-1.16%
CITY UNIVERSIT	2014	2013	New York	136	125	99	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%	91.91%	79.20%	84.76%	-5.56%
DRAKE UNIVER	2016	2015	Iowa	112	92	79	85.87%	89.02%	-3.15%	82.14%	85.87%	89.02%	-3.15%
DRAKE UNIVER	2015	2014	Iowa	129	100	84	84.00%	84.36%	-0.36%	77.52%	84.00%	84.36%	-0.36%
DRAKE UNIVER	2014	2013	Iowa	140	110	104	94.55%	93.37%	1.18%	81.43%	94.74%	93.26%	1.48%
DRAKE UNIVER	2014	2013	Missouri	140	4	4	100.00%	90.44%	9.56%				
GEORGETOWN	2016	2015	New York	677	274	243	88.69%	78.12%	10.57%	80.35%	85.67%	73.53%	12.14%
GEORGETOWN	2016	2015	Maryland	677	117	107	91.45%	70.17%	21.28%				
GEORGETOWN	2016	2015	California	677	92	64	69.57%	63.70%	5.87%				
GEORGETOWN	2016	2015	Virginia	677	61	52	85.25%	74.16%	11.09%				
GEORGETOWN	2015	2014	New York	626	262	237	90.46%	78.60%	11.86%	80.03%	87.83%	75.47%	12.36%
GEORGETOWN	2015	2014	Maryland	626	101	94	93.07%	76.47%	16.60%				
GEORGETOWN	2015	2014	California	626	79	59	74.68%	66.05%	8.63%				
GEORGETOWN	2015	2014	Virginia	626	59	50	84.75%	72.41%	12.34%				
GEORGETOWN	2014	2013	New York	647	272	251	92.28%	84.76%	7.52%	82.23%	89.85%	80.96%	8.89%
GEORGETOWN	2014	2013	Maryland	647	114	107	93.86%	80.60%	13.26%				
GEORGETOWN	2014	2013	California	647	75	60	80.00%	71.09%	8.91%				
GEORGETOWN	2014	2013	Virginia	647	71	60	84.51%	77.39%	7.12%				
HARVARD UNIV	2016	2015	New York	626	284	276	97.18%	78.12%	19.06%	77.32%	95.03%	75.39%	19.64%
HARVARD UNIV	2016	2015	Massachusetts	626	102	100	98.04%	79.00%	19.04%				
HARVARD UNIV	2016	2015	California	626	98	84	85.71%	63.70%	22.01%				
HARVARD UNIV	2015	2014	New York	596	296	288	97.30%	78.60%	18.70%	79.03%	95.33%	76.70%	18.63%
HARVARD UNIV	2015	2014	California	596	99	87	87.88%	66.05%	21.83%				
HARVARD UNIV	2015	2014	Massachusetts	596	76	74	97.37%	83.15%	14.22%				
HARVARD UNIV	2014	2013	New York	598	303	292	96.37%	84.76%	11.61%	82.61%	96.36%	82.31%	14.05%
HARVARD UNIV	2014	2013	California	598	106	102	96.23%	71.09%	25.14%				
HARVARD UNIV	2014	2013	Massachusetts	598	85	82	96.47%	87.61%	8.86%				
MISSISSIPPI, U	2016	2015	Mississippi	128	81	67	82.72%	83.83%	-1.11%	89.06%	85.97%	82.17%	3.80%
MISSISSIPPI, U	2016	2015	Tennessee	128	13	12	92.31%	78.04%	14.27%				
MISSISSIPPI, U	2016	2015	Alabama	128	11	11	100.00%	82.19%	17.81%				
MISSISSIPPI, U	2016	2015	Texas	128	9	8	88.89%	73.21%	15.68%				
MISSISSIPPI, U	2015	2014	Mississippi	167	117	98	83.76%	86.70%	-2.94%	89.22%	85.23%	86.23%	-1.00%
MISSISSIPPI, U	2015	2014	Alabama	167	21	19	90.48%	88.45%	2.03%				
MISSISSIPPI, U	2015	2014	Florida	167	7	6	85.71%	72.09%	13.62%				

MISSISSIPPI, UP	2015	2014	Illinois	167	4	4	100.00%	85.41%	14.59%				
MISSISSIPPI, UP	2014	2013	Mississippi	169	101	90	89.11%	84.67%	4.44%	77.51%	90.82%	84.04%	6.78%
MISSISSIPPI, UP	2014	2013	Georgia	169	13	12	92.31%	85.15%	7.16%				
MISSISSIPPI, UP	2014	2013	Texas	169	7	7	100.00%	85.08%	14.92%				
MISSISSIPPI, UP	2014	2013	North Carolina	169	3	3	100.00%	69.22%	30.78%				
MISSISSIPPI, UP	2014	2013	Louisiana	169	2	2	100.00%	58.72%	41.28%				
NOVA SOUTHE.	2016	2015	Florida	271	269	175	65.06%	67.79%	-2.73%	99.26%	65.06%	67.79%	-2.73%
NOVA SOUTHE.	2015	2014	Florida	250	243	171	70.37%	72.09%	-1.72%	97.20%	70.37%	72.09%	-1.72%
NOVA SOUTHE.	2014	2013	Florida	294	283	231	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%	96.26%	81.63%	77.91%	3.72%
STANFORD UNI	2016	2015	California	189	112	98	87.50%	63.70%	23.80%	80.42%	90.13%	67.50%	22.63%
STANFORD UNI	2016	2015	New York	189	40	39	97.50%	78.12%	19.38%				
STANFORD UNI	2015	2014	California	175	114	99	86.84%	66.05%	20.79%	92.00%	90.06%	69.72%	20.34%
STANFORD UNI	2015	2014	New York	175	47	46	97.87%	78.60%	19.27%				
STANFORD UNI	2014	2013	California	173	124	112	90.32%	71.09%	19.23%	93.06%	91.92%	74.23%	17.69%
STANFORD UNI	2014	2013	New York	173	37	36	97.30%	84.76%	12.54%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2016	2015	Texas	361	303	264	87.13%	73.21%	13.92%	90.58%	87.77%	73.13%	14.64%
TEXAS AT AUST	2016	2015	New York	361	14	14	100.00%	78.12%	21.88%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2016	2015	California	361	10	9	90.00%	63.70%	26.30%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2015	2014	Texas	342	259	228	88.03%	77.42%	10.61%	96.20%	88.45%	76.30%	12.15%
TEXAS AT AUST	2015	2014	California	342	36	30	83.33%	66.05%	17.28%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2015	2014	New York	342	34	33	97.06%	78.60%	18.46%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2014	2013	Texas	353	288	273	94.79%	85.08%	9.71%	93.20%	95.14%	84.30%	10.84%
TEXAS AT AUST	2014	2013	New York	353	23	23	100.00%	84.76%	15.24%				
TEXAS AT AUST	2014	2013	California	353	18	17	94.44%	71.09%	23.35%				
WESTERN MICH	2016	2015	Michigan	652	318	190	59.75%	71.77%	-12.02%	70.40%	51.86%	71.58%	-19.72%
WESTERN MICH	2016	2015	Florida	652	95	37	38.95%	67.79%	-28.84%				
WESTERN MICH	2016	2015	New York	652	46	11	23.91%	78.12%	-54.21%				
WESTERN MICH	2015	2014	Michigan	822	405	249	61.48%	68.81%	-7.33%	71.05%	52.73%	72.35%	-19.62%
WESTERN MICH	2015	2014	New York	822	62	20	32.26%	78.60%	-46.34%				
WESTERN MICH	2015	2014	Illinois	822	40	20	50.00%	85.41%	-35.41%				
WESTERN MICH	2015	2014	Pennsylvania	822	39	12	30.77%	80.85%	-50.08%				
WESTERN MICH	2015	2014	Texas	822	38	7	18.42%	77.42%	-59.00%				
WESTERN MICH	2014	2013	Michigan	1062	482	281	58.30%	69.16%	-10.86%	71.19%	51.45%	74.14%	-22.69%
WESTERN MICH	2014	2013	New York	1062	94	45	47.87%	84.76%	-36.89%				
WESTERN MICH	2014	2013	Illinois	1062	58	24	41.38%	87.84%	-46.46%				
WESTERN MICH	2014	2013	Pennsylvania	1062	42	21	50.00%	81.26%	-31.26%				
WESTERN MICH	2014	2013	Texas	1062	40	13	32.50%	85.08%	-52.58%				
YALE UNIVERSI'	2016	2015	New York	189	105	102	97.14%	78.12%	19.02%	71.96%	96.32%	74.83%	21.49%
YALE UNIVERSI'	2016	2015	California	189	31	29	93.55%	63.70%	29.85%				
YALE UNIVERSI'	2015	2014	New York	210	111	107	96.40%	78.60%	17.80%	70.48%	91.90%	75.46%	16.44%
YALE UNIVERSI'	2015	2014	California	210	37	29	78.38%	66.05%	12.33%				

YALE UNIVERSITY	2014	2013	New York	180	97	95	97.94%	84.76%	13.18%	72.22%	96.16%	81.29%	14.87%
YALE UNIVERSITY	2014	2013	California	180	33	30	90.91%	71.09%	19.82%				

For 2017-2020: See individual school listings below because Bar Exam Pass Rates were reported differently for these years.

<http://www.abarequireddisclosures.org/Disclosure509.aspx>

APPENDIX E

Mission Statements and Curricula for the Twelve Schools in the Sample

Stanford University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Stanford (2021a) provides this statement in press releases:

About Stanford Law School

Stanford Law School is one of the nation's leading institutions for legal scholarship and education. Its alumni are among the most influential decision makers in law, politics, business, and high technology. Faculty members argue before the Supreme Court, testify before Congress, produce outstanding legal scholarship and empirical analysis, and contribute regularly to the nation's press as legal and policy experts. Stanford Law School has established a model for legal education that provides rigorous interdisciplinary training, hands-on experience, global perspective and focus on public service, spearheading a movement for change.

Stanford (2021b and 2021c) provides the following mission statement:

At Stanford Law School, excellence is a given. Our community — engaged faculty and students, influential alumni, dedicated staff — is united in its belief that a Stanford Law degree is a powerful tool for change. Our programs — intensive curriculum, hands-on legal clinics, high-profile academic centers — cultivate professional skills and values, inspire new ideas, and engage leaders in developing solutions. And our resources — from cutting-edge facilities to the diverse advantages of Stanford University — make the Stanford Law campus an ideal environment for exploring and mastering the law.

Excellence, innovation, and a commitment to the future — these are Stanford Law School’s legacy to each new generation of law students and lawyers. We invite prospective students, partners, and supporters to inspire, innovate, and lead with us.

The curriculum at Stanford Law School includes the opportunity for students to interact with other University departments.

Stanford Law has adopted a variety of innovative approaches to prepare students to think not just like lawyers but also like clients and scholars. To begin, we make it easy to experience the diverse learning opportunities that are possible only at a university like Stanford—with its breadth of highly ranked schools and departments, all located close together on a well connected physical campus. Stanford Law students have broad access to courses outside the law school that will fill out their legal education. In this way, students benefit from academic thought leaders across disciplines, not to mention the intellectual life of the campus found in the myriad of conferences and events held each year and in countless other multidisciplinary research programs.

JD Program

<https://law.stanford.edu/education/degrees/jd-program/>

Stanford offers legal clinics to provide real-world experience for students: Stanford Law’s 11 clinics make you something unique in the world of law: a student attorney, certified by the California State Bar to practice law under the

supervision of your clinic mentors. Clinics are full time, so academic commitments don't compete. Your instructors are exceptional lawyers who share what they've learned through experience. Your training — addressing real legal challenges for real clients — is substantive. Your ultimate reward? Excellence: The Mills Legal Clinic helps you become a better writer, a better problem-solver, a better leader, a better lawyer.

Courses <https://law.stanford.edu/education/courses/#slsnav-first-year-academics>

Stanford University (2021a). About Stanford Law School. <https://law.stanford.edu/press/acus-stanford-law-school-and-nyu-school-of-law-announce-report-on-artificial-intelligence-in-federal-agencies/>

Stanford University (2021b). Mission Statement. <https://law.stanford.edu/social-media/linkedin/>

Stanford University (2021c). Mission Statement.

<https://law.stanford.edu/education/international-and-global-opportunities/visiting-exchange-students-program-info/>

Yale University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Located in New Haven, Connecticut, Yale Law School is one of the world's premier law schools. It offers an unmatched environment of excellence and educational intimacy in the form of world renowned faculty, small classes, limitless opportunities for clinical training, and strong encouragement of public service. The Law School is small by design; its impact on the world is measured by its accomplished graduates and its ongoing scholarship and outreach through numerous centers and projects.

For students, the experience is unparalleled. The faculty-student ratio supports a vast array of courses and opportunities for independent research and student-organized seminars. Students get practical training by representing real clients in clinics starting in their first year.

Throughout, a spirit of collaboration reigns. All first-term courses are ungraded, and subsequent classes are graded honors/pass/low pass.

Yale Law School is unique among law schools in that it produces leaders in all walks of life: distinguished deans and faculty members at law schools across the country and the world; industry CEOs and corporate counsels; founders of nongovernmental organizations and other nonprofit entities; entrepreneurs; government servants in federal, state, and local offices and the judiciary — just a few areas in which our alumni's talent and passion and dedication have made a difference. Among the School's graduates are U.S. Presidents and Supreme Court Justices; and among its far-reaching projects, the Information Society Project and the Paul Tsai China Center.

About Yale Law School <https://law.yale.edu/about-yale-law-school>

A Robust and Unique Clinical Program

Yale Law School has one of the most robust clinical programs in the country. Unlike most other schools, students can begin taking clinics—and appearing in court—during the spring of their first year. Clinic students represent real clients

with real legal problems (not in simulations or role-playing exercises), and are supervised by senior faculty members, with whom they often develop close and lasting mentoring relationships.

About 90% of our students take advantage of this unique opportunity to combine theory with practice, and many students take more than one clinic. With nearly 30 clinics, there are almost always places available.

Opportunities abound in the Jerome N. Frank Legal Services Organization—a single law firm that currently houses nine clinics, including the Samuel Jacobs Criminal Justice Clinic and the Ludwig Center for Community and Economic Development. In addition to the complete list of clinics and projects here, a number of other centers and programs also offer experiential learning opportunities. Simulation courses are also offered in such areas as Appellate Advocacy, Corporate Crisis Management, and Negotiating and Drafting M&A Agreements.

Clinical and Experiential Programs

<https://law.yale.edu/studying-law-yale/clinical-and-experiential-learning>

Yale Law School is an extraordinary community in which to study law. Our world-renowned faculty teach a wide array of courses and there are countless opportunities for independent research, writing, and student-organized seminars.

Students are encouraged to learn deeply and investigate their own ideas about the law. Every student works closely with the faculty to complete two major research papers, and many students go on to publish their work.

Outside of the classroom, students have the opportunity to work with faculty members as research and teaching assistants. Yale Law School students leave law school with personal and professional connections that last throughout their careers.

In addition, Yale Law School fosters an environment of collaboration rather than competition. In the first term, all classes are ungraded. After that, classes are graded on an honors/pass/low pass basis with the option to take classes credit/fail. There is no curve and no class rank.

The Juris Doctor Program. <https://law.yale.edu/admissions/jd-admissions>

Harvard University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Our mission is “To educate leaders who contribute to the advancement of justice and the well-being of society,” and each staff member plays an integral role in making that happen. Whether by working directly with students or playing an important support role, each of us makes Harvard Law School tick with our unique skills and perspectives.

Careers at HLS. <https://hls.harvard.edu/dept/hr/jobs-at-hls/>

The First Year

Harvard Law School's first-year curriculum provides students with a solid intellectual foundation on which to build their legal education, covering core principles and concepts, theory, and skills of legal practice and providing a thorough grounding in fundamental legal reasoning and analysis. First-year students take courses in civil procedure, constitutional law, contracts, criminal law, legislation and regulation, property, and torts, which collectively provide a foundation for understanding the common law tradition and governing structures of the U.S. legal system and the role of statutes and regulations within that system.

To bridge the gap between academic courses and the skills lawyers use in practice, all first-year students participate in the January Experiential Term. During this term, students enroll in one of several skills-based courses that emphasize teamwork, practical training, and self-reflection. First-year students also participate in a legal research and writing course, which includes the First-Year Ames Moot Court Program and other opportunities to practice the various forms of writing used in legal practice. During the spring term of the first year, students choose an elective based on their individual interests from a wide array of upper-level courses.

The first-year class is divided into seven sections of eighty students each. Faculty section leaders, generally senior faculty members who teach one of the section's basic courses, provide guidance and support to the students in their sections and develop a program of extra-curricular activities related to the law.

In addition to section-based activities, during the fall term, students participate in first-year reading groups of 10-12 students. Led by faculty members, who also serve as advisors to the students in their groups, these ungraded groups allow students to explore an intellectual interest outside the scope of the foundational first-year curriculum. Topics are as diverse as legal responses to terrorism, regulation of climate change, Biblical law, detective fiction, conservative jurisprudence, artificial intelligence, and bioethics.

The Upper-Level Years

Seven optional Programs of Study – Law and Government; Law and Social Change; Law and Business; Law and History; Criminal Justice; International and Comparative Law; and Law, Science and Technology – developed by the Law School faculty provide pathways through the upper-level curriculum. The Programs of Study offer students guidance on structuring an academic program that will give them extensive exposure to the law, policy, theory, and practice in their chosen areas of focus.

The Law School encourages students to engage in their third year in a capstone learning experience: advanced seminars, clinical practice, and writing projects that call on students to use the full extent of their knowledge, skills, and methodological tools in a field to address the most interesting and complicated legal problems of today.

JD Program <https://hls.harvard.edu/dept/academics/degree-programs/j-d-program/>

Georgetown University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Central to Georgetown Law’s mission of educating exceptional lawyers is the philosophy of *cura personalis*, or care for the whole person. Our wealth of supportive services, extracurricular opportunities and exceptional academic offerings help students forge a path to leadership that balances personal success and career achievement.

As a student here, you’ll become part of a warm and welcoming community of scholars from diverse backgrounds and countries around the world. In your first year, our Academic Success Program, including its 1L 101 workshop series will help you navigate the rigors of law school, while an upperclass peer advisor will offer you individualized guidance. Our robust chaplaincy, career and academic services will help you reflect, network and navigate our unparalleled experiential learning opportunities.

While enjoying all the resources of one of the largest U.S. law schools, you’ll discover tight-knit communities that share your passions. Our nearly 130 student organizations include cultural, political and professional groups, student journals, and our award-winning Barristers’ Council. Unique wellness programs, such as Lawyers in Balance: Mindfulness for Law Students, promote mindfulness and introspection to help you be a better advocate and live a healthier life.

Your Life and Career <https://www.law.georgetown.edu/your-life-career/#:~:text=Central%20to%20Georgetown%20Law's%20mission,care%20for%20the%20whole%20person.&text=Unique%20wellness%20programs%2C%20such%20as,and%20live%20a%20healthier%20life>

Georgetown Law’s motto is “Law is but the means; justice is the end,” and [Dean] Treanor has focused on increasing opportunities for students to pursue careers in public interest law. The newly-established Blume Public Interest Leaders program provides full tuition scholarships, mentors, and specialized programs to a select group of students who wish to pursue careers in the public interest area. The Law Center has also initiated a program of post-graduate fellowships that have enabled more than 100 graduates to work in public interest jobs, and, in combination with the law firms Arent Fox and DLA Piper, it has launched the DC Affordable Law Firm, a “low bono” law firm where recent Georgetown Law graduates provide legal representation to people of limited means.

Dean William M. Treanor <https://www.law.georgetown.edu/faculty/william-m-treanor/>

Imagine earning your Juris Doctor (J.D.) a short walk from the U.S. Capitol, Supreme Court and the countless global firms, think tanks and NGOs that call Washington home. At Georgetown Law, your study of the law will include seeing it in action at the nation’s highest levels. Our J.D. students are prepared to excel in fields touching on all aspects of domestic and international law — opening a future of limitless opportunities in public service and private practice.

Pursue your interest in any career path you already envision, or let us help you discover your passion. After completing your first-year J.D. requirements, you can choose from some 500 courses each year. Your second and third years will also be distinguished by [experiential learning](#) — through our prolific clinics, unique externships, and cutting-edge practicum and simulation courses.

JD Program

<https://www.law.georgetown.edu/academics/jd-program/>

SECOND AND THIRD YEARS

Full-time students enroll in 10 to 16 credits each semester, working toward the 85 total credits needed to graduate. After you set aside credits for the required upperclass courses described below, you will have a large number of elective credits to build your portfolio. Georgetown Law's course offerings are both wide-ranging and deep. Useful aids in planning your upperclass curriculum will be our [Curriculum Guide](#), the Registrar's [Course Registration Information page](#), our [academic advisors](#), and our career counselors.

You must satisfy the following degree requirements along your journey.

Upperclass Legal Writing Requirement

The upperclass legal writing requirement is intended to provide students with the opportunity to refine the research and writing skills learned in the first year. It is also meant to develop the skills necessary to undertake writing projects on their own following graduation from law school. Students choose topics, submit outlines, prepare and submit a first draft, and complete a final paper of 6000 words or more (excluding footnotes) in consultation with faculty members in approved seminars (see the "WR" notation in the course schedule) or supervised research projects. See the Georgetown Law Student Handbook of Academic Policies for more information about this requirement.

Professional Responsibility Requirement

Each student must successfully complete an upperclass course meeting the Professional Responsibility requirement. To search for courses currently being offered that satisfy this requirement, see the courses listed at the bottom of the Legal Profession/Professional Responsibility cluster description. J.D. students may not satisfy their Professional Responsibility requirement by completing any Professional Responsibility courses offered in the Graduate Program.

Experiential Requirement

Students who matriculated at the Law Center in Fall 2016 or later must earn a minimum of 6 credits in [experiential courses](#).

Full-Time J.D. Program. <https://www.law.georgetown.edu/academics/jd-program/full-time-program/>

University of Texas's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Mission

The University of Texas School of Law is dedicated to the professional training of future lawyers, to the deeper understanding of law and legal institutions, and to the improved administration of justice. Texas Law seeks to advance these objectives through excellence in teaching, scholarship, and public service.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

Texas Law has established learning outcomes for students that include, at a minimum, competency in the following:

1. Knowledge and understanding of substantive and procedural law;

2. Legal analysis and reasoning, legal research, and problem-solving;
3. Written and oral communication in the legal context;
4. Exercise of proper professional and ethical responsibilities to clients and the legal system; and
5. Professional self-development.

Mission <https://law.utexas.edu/about/mission/>

At Texas Law, we prepare students for great careers at the highest levels of the legal profession and public affairs. We do it with the greatest classroom teachers in America, who train our students to think deeply about legal questions and solve sophisticated problems. And we do it with the finest and most extensive set of clinical programs anyplace, where our students help real clients with real problems under the supervision of world-class clinical instructors. All this learning takes place in a collegial culture, free from the cutthroat atmosphere sometimes associated with top-tier schools. All this is why the University of Texas is the best place in the country to be a law student.

About Texas Law <https://law.utexas.edu/about/>

Our academic program. The three-year academic program at Texas Law is intense and transformative. The first year is spent on the study of foundational topics in our legal system, such as constitutional law and civil procedure, that are essential for every lawyer to master. These classes are taught by world-class faculty members. In addition to the knowledge imparted in your first-year courses, you will begin the acquisition of something more important: high-

level analytical skills, or the ability to “think like a lawyer.” After your first year at Texas, you will never think about a legal problem the same way again.

In the second and third years, you have the opportunity to design a course of study that fits your aspirations. In part this means choosing courses on the subjects, and studying with the professors, that interest you the most. But it also means choosing the approach to learning that suits you best. We provide endless opportunities to learn in the classroom, but also an immense range of clinics and internships that enable you to learn in hands-on fashion.

You also can take courses elsewhere in the University, whether as part of a dual-degree program or “a la carte.” Our study-abroad programs offer many chances to study in other countries, too. Our faculty, staff, and alumni can help you think about any of these opportunities and whether they are right for you.

JD Program <https://law.utexas.edu/academics/the-juris-doctor-program/>

Vanderbilt University’s Mission Statement and Curriculum

Mission, Goals and Values

Vanderbilt University is a center for scholarly research, informed and creative teaching, and service to the community and society at large. Vanderbilt will uphold the highest standards and be a leader in the:

- quest for new knowledge through scholarship;
- dissemination of knowledge through teaching and outreach;
- creative experimentation of ideas and concepts.

In pursuit of these goals, Vanderbilt values most highly:

- intellectual freedom that supports open inquiry;
- equality, compassion, and excellence in all endeavors.

The mission of Vanderbilt University Law School is to educate leaders who contribute to the advancement of justice. To achieve this goal we provide students with a rigorous program of legal education, in an intellectually vibrant community of teaching and scholarly excellence that prepares them for admission to the bar and for effective, ethical, and responsible participation as members of the legal profession.

Learning Outcomes

In furtherance of our mission, Vanderbilt University Law School has established learning outcomes that shall, at a minimum, include competency in the following:

- Knowledge and understanding of substantive and procedural law;
- Legal analysis and reasoning, legal research, problem-solving, and written and oral communication in the legal context;
- Exercise of proper professional and ethical responsibilities to clients and the legal system; and
- Knowledge and understanding of the workings of the regulatory state.

Mission, Goals and Values. <http://law.vanderbilt.edu/about-the-school/VLSmission.php>

J.D. Curriculum

First-year requirements provide the intellectual foundation on which to build a legal education that is tailored to meet individual needs and interests in the second

and third years. Upper-level offerings are almost entirely elective, allowing students to choose from a broad curriculum, combining courses, clinics, externships, independent work, and courses outside the law school to accomplish career goals. Second- and third-year students also have the option of pursuing specific areas of interest through the law school's special academic programs.

Curriculum <https://law.vanderbilt.edu/academics/curriculum/index.php>

Vanderbilt's [eight legal clinics](#) allow students to learn both the theory and practice of law in context. Clinic students gain real-world legal experience by assuming the role of the lawyer under the expert guidance of members of the law faculty, allowing them to hone their legal skills and delve into particular areas of law. They work with actual clients and on real cases, gaining an understanding of the legal system and its participants and an appreciation of issues of professional responsibility.

Clinics are offered for academic credit on a pass/fail basis, and students may enroll for one or two semesters.

Clinics involve a significant time commitment. On average, clinic students are expected to devote approximately eight hours per week to casework, although workloads vary considerably from week to week.

Gain Substantive Legal Experience

Students in Vanderbilt's clinics have won cases in the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit, obtained post-conviction relief on behalf of clients convicted of murder and other federal crimes, prosecuted trademark applications before the

U.S. Patent & Trademark Office, and appeared in every level of state, federal and administrative tribunal in the state of Tennessee.

Clinical Legal Education <https://law.vanderbilt.edu/academics/clinical-legal-education/index.php>

University of Mississippi's Mission Statement and Curriculum

HISTORY/MISSION/PURPOSE

The primary function of the school is to provide professional education required to prepare students for careers in the legal field. The law school, established in 1854, is accredited by the American Bar Association and is a member of the Association of American Law Schools.

Mission <http://catalog.olemiss.edu/law>

The J.D. program at the University of Mississippi School of Law prepares you to actually practice law, not just to think like a lawyer. Because we believe that lawyers come in as many forms as there are law students, we provide you with a legal education to fit your future career and maximize your options.

We also integrate professional skills throughout our curriculum. Our J.D. Program begins with a strong foundation in heavily-tested bar exam subjects, such as Torts, Contracts, Property, Civil Procedure, Criminal Law and Constitutional Law.

Students benefit from a full year of legal research and writing, culminating with appellate brief writing and oral argument.

Our innovative Skill Session for first-year students devotes the two weeks prior to spring semester to an intensive skills course. Students enroll in Contract Negotiation and Drafting, with each student participating in simulations of

contract discussions and the work of converting those talks into robust documents. Our second-year and third-year students choose among 20 Skill Session courses ranging from Trial Practice and Small Business Drafting to Legal Spanish and Legal Entrepreneurship. The availability of a full spectrum of offerings allows our upper level students to focus on litigation, transactional work, public service lawyering, estate planning, real estate, sports law, entertainment law and intellectual property.

The University of Mississippi School of Law also offers 8 clinical programs, a Pro Bono Initiative and a Clinical Externship Program. Clinical students receive temporary admission to the bar and represent real clients. These programs provide students the opportunity to actually practice law with the close support and guidance of clinical professors and supervising attorneys.

JD Program <https://law.olemiss.edu/academics-programs/j-d-program/>

Learning Outcomes

On conferral of the Juris Doctor degree, students will be able to:

- Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of substantive and procedural law
- Effectively employ legal analysis and reasoning
- Engage in efficient and effective legal research
- Formulate solutions to legal problems
- Use written and oral communication in the legal context

- Exercise proper professional and ethical responsibilities to clients and the legal system
- Draft Legal Documents

Curriculum <https://law.olemiss.edu/academics-programs/j-d-program/curriculum/>

City University of New York's Mission Statement and Curriculum

As the number one public interest law school in the nation, our mission is two-fold: we learn, teach, and practice law in the service of human needs and we transform the law so that it includes those it would otherwise exclude, marginalize, and oppress.

Introduction <http://www.law.cuny.edu/index.html>

Academic Philosophy

CUNY School of Law brings together the very best in clinical training with traditional doctrinal legal education to create lawyers prepared to serve the public interest. As part of our mission, we prepare our students to practice, in the words of our motto, "Law in the Service of Human Needs." Our curriculum requires all third-year students to represent actual clients in such fields as immigration law, elder law, human rights law and more. CUNY is a national leader in progressive legal education. In the spring of 2007, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, in a national study of legal education, lauded CUNY

School of Law's innovative curriculum, which has become a model for law schools across the nation.

Traditional Doctrinal Study

The basic premise of the Law School's program is that theory cannot be separated from practice, abstract knowledge of doctrine from practical skill, and understanding the professional role from professional experience. Our curriculum integrates practical experience, professional responsibility, and lawyering skills with doctrinal study at every level. Forming the core of our lawyering curriculum are the skills recognized by the profession as essential to successful law practice: problem solving, legal analysis and reasoning, legal research, factual investigation, communication (legal writing, oral argument), counseling, negotiation, litigation and alternative dispute-resolution, organization and management of legal work, and recognizing and resolving ethical dilemmas.

The Role of Clinical Education

Layered onto the traditional foundation of doctrinal education is our deep and broad clinical training program. First-year students acquire clinical experience through simulation exercises conducted in a required year-long lawyering seminar; second-year students take an advanced one-semester lawyering seminar in a public interest law area of their choice; third-year students earn 12-16 credits in either a field placement program or a live-client clinic onsite at the Law School.

Our curriculum rejects the traditional separation of substantive law courses into narrowly defined subjects. Precisely because attorneys are seldom presented with

legal problems neatly compartmentalized into analytically distinct subject headings, our curriculum teaches students to think critically about subject matter, rule application and procedures and to synthesize these aspects critically. Thus, our graduates are able to address the many-sided problems that confront attorneys and their clients in real life.

Student-to-Student Collaboration

Because collaboration is both an important practical skill and a valuable learning mode, the Law School encourages students to work together and provides opportunities and frameworks for them to develop collaborative skills and practices. This approach alters the conventional hierarchical structure and atmosphere of most legal education. Students collaborate in virtually all of their work, so the cutthroat competition at most law schools is absent at CUNY Law. Our small size and 12 to 1 student-faculty ratio foster a supportive learning environment designed to maximize individual and professional development. Because examination should be the servant, not the master of learning, many courses rely upon writing exercises and simulation work to evaluate student performance and progress.

Philosophy and Mission <https://www.law.cuny.edu/about/philosophy/>

Our comprehensive bar exam support includes focused courses, one-on-one and in-class skills development, and study planning support as well as one-on-one mentorship between graduation and when students sit for the bar exam.

At CUNY Law, preparing for the bar exam and licensing begins the day you arrive on campus. At the core of our academic program is the commitment to training students to be effective and practice-ready lawyers upon graduation – which means every student meets all bar and licensing requirements through our curriculum.

For anyone intending to practice law in New York State, studying at CUNY Law provides a singular advantage: you'll meet the necessary 50 Pro Bono hours and New York Skills and Values requirements in the course of your academic study via experiential learning in our clinics and lawyering seminars taken by every student. All of our faculty and staff see bar and licensing requirements as essential elements of being practice-ready and are part of the process. From our Bar Study Mentoring program, Bar Study Grants, and unique core doctrine course during your final semester, you'll have a clear path and be surrounded by support throughout your time at the Law School. We'll also be there with support, resources, and more when it's time to study.

Bar Exam <https://www.law.cuny.edu/academics/bar-exam/>

The Law School curriculum combines traditional substantive law courses (like contracts, torts, civil procedure and criminal law) with lawyering skills throughout the three years of legal education. The full-time first year curriculum consists of seven required substantive courses, Legal Research, and a four-credit Lawyering Seminar in each semester where students work on legal writing and other lawyering skills through simulations and other role-playing devices.

There are three required substantive law courses in the second year; 2Ls are also required to take a Lawyering Seminar III in a subject area of their choice (Criminal Defense, Public Benefits, Not-for-Profits, International Human Rights, etc.) that builds on the skills taught in the first year through simulations, mock jury trials, mediations, arbitrations (and, in the case of the Economic Justice Project, live client representation in administrative fair hearings) and develops additional and more sophisticated skills relevant to the subject matter.

In subsequent years, students begin to select from electives that are tested on the bar exam as well as those which permit them to gain depth in a particular public interest field, like labor, criminal defense, domestic violence, children's rights, environment law, international human rights, etc. The capstone of the program is a required one or two semester clinic or concentration, for a total of 10-16 credits, with highly-supervised live client representation. Overall, the curriculum is both rigorous and engaging, well preparing graduates to be excellent public service and public interest lawyers.

Curriculum <https://www.law.cuny.edu/academics/courses/>

Drake University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

With an excellent foundation in legal theory, our students roll up their sleeves and put theory into action. Our state-of-the-art Legal Clinic includes opportunities in Wrongful Convictions, Immigration Law, Children's Rights, and more. The First-Year Trial Practicum is a unique opportunity for students to view an actual state or federal trial from start to finish. As the only law school in the capital city of

Des Moines, our students have unique opportunities to gain experience in government, business, state and federal courts, the legal sector, and more.

Future Students <https://www.drake.edu/law/future/>

Drake Law School prepares graduates to promote justice, serve their communities, and uphold the ideals of ethics and professionalism.

We cultivate critical thinking and professional skills, provide opportunities to acquire global perspectives, and engage in public service.

We foster an exceptional learning environment in a welcoming and inclusive community distinguished by accessible and accomplished faculty and staff and a collegial student body.

About <https://www.drake.edu/law/about/>

Drake is the only American law school where all first-year classes shift to a campus courtroom for a week, enabling students to view an actual state or federal trial.

The First-Year Trial Practicum, held in the Law School's Neal and Bea Smith Law Center courtroom, dissects every phase of a trial, from jury selection to jury verdict.

Students observe cases dealing with burglary, involuntary manslaughter, homicide by vehicle-OWI, and more. The event incorporates small group discussions, lectures, practice panels, and debriefings with attorneys, jurors, and the judge.

The trial practicum introduces the law to students in a way that no textbook can ever quite capture. Most importantly, the event models the values of civility, professionalism, and public service essential to the legal system.

Trial Practicum <https://www.drake.edu/law/future/academics/jd/trial-practicum/>

Drake Law School's top-ranked legal clinic and four centers prepare students for professional practice and career success.

Drake Legal Clinic

Through Drake's legal clinic, students build valuable professional experience and apply classroom knowledge to real-world situations.

Each student can participate in Drake Law School's clinical programs. Working with real clients with real legal problems, students analyze complex information, build communication skills, develop advocacy strategies, negotiate and mediate, and more.

Centers of Excellence

Drake Law School's four unique centers provide opportunities for students to pursue their professional interests while also serving the community.

From drafting legislation to improving the lives of children to studying agricultural law in Cuba, Drake's centers offer a wide range of opportunities for practical experience.

Learn more:

- Agricultural Law Center
- Constitutional Law Center
- Legislative Practice Center

- Middleton Center for Children's Rights

Institute for Justice Reform & Innovation

The Institute for Justice Reform & Innovation serves as a center for research and training on topics including implicit bias, sentencing reform, and improving trial procedures. The independent and nonpartisan institute is led by The Honorable Mark W. Bennett (Ret.).

Institute on Guardianship and Conservatorship

Drake established the Institute on Guardianship and Conservatorship in collaboration with the National Health Law and Policy Center at the University of Iowa College of Law. The Institute's mission is to promote an Iowa guardianship and conservatorship system that meets the needs of vulnerable Iowans through implementation of the recommendations of the Iowa Guardianship and Conservatorship Reform Task Force through:

- Education
- Research
- Demonstration and service projects
- Technical assistance and consultation
- Advocacy

Legal Clinic <https://www.drake.edu/law/clinics-centers/>

Barry University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

The Barry University Dwayne O. Andreas School of Law is committed to providing graduates with the skills and knowledge needed to aid society through the competent and ethical practice of law.

Students are exposed to the theories of law from a faculty of professors who are leaders in their fields and who embrace an open-door policy. Valuable clinical and externship opportunities provide dynamic practical experience, and our accomplished, championship-caliber trial and moot court teams showcase the real-world legal skills developed at Barry Law.

With the 2011 completion of a three-story Legal Advocacy Center, the law school's 20-acre campus in Orlando is transforming into a state-of-the-art complex that is the focal point for legal resources, services, and knowledge in Central Florida.

"Barry Law students learn in a challenging but caring environment", said Dean Leticia M. Diaz, PhD, JD. "What makes a Barry lawyer different from his or her peers is a lifetime commitment to practicing ethically and contributing to the community. That commitment is at the heart of our mission at Barry Law".

Welcome <https://www.barry.edu/law/>

Barry University Dwayne O. Andreas School of Law is the only Dominican Law School in the United States and the first American Law School to be part of a university founded by religious women. The School of Law endeavors to offer a quality legal education in a caring environment with a religious dimension so that

study and reflection lead to informed action and a commitment to social justice leads to collaborative service. The School of Law promotes the highest standards of ethics and competence in the practice of law and other pursuits. The School of Law seeks to challenge students to embrace intellectual, personal, ethical, spiritual, ecological, and social responsibilities in an atmosphere of academic freedom. The program strives to equip its graduates to apply the knowledge, values, and skills they acquire to enhance personal growth, the legal profession, the judicial system, society, and the Earth community. Within its Catholic Dominican tradition, the School of Law values matters of faith through religious freedom. The School of Law seeks to enhance diversity in our community and the profession and endorses recruitment and retention of members of underrepresented groups, particularly racial and ethnic minorities, in order to create a more diverse faculty, staff, and student body.

Adopted by the faculty of the School of Law on Aug. 16, 2013.

Mission <https://www.barry.edu/law/about-us/>

The School of Law offers the Juris Doctor (JD) degree. All students in the program must complete 90 semester-hours of study in areas that are essential to the understanding and practice of law.

Barry University combines traditional and innovative teaching methods to provide a dynamic, professional program. The JD curriculum is designed to develop students' analytical ability, communication skills, and understanding of the codes of professional responsibility and ethics that are central to the practice of law. The

faculty utilizes a variety of teaching methods, including simulations and role-playing. Courses designed to develop and refine writing abilities are required.

Seminars and advanced courses provide close interaction with faculty.

JD Program <https://www.barry.edu/law/future-students/academic-program/>

The majority of law students (approximately three quarters) at Barry Law attend the full-time program offered during the day. Students admitted to the full-time day division typically complete law school in three years, students in the extended division in four years.

Classes in the full-time day division meet Monday through Friday between the hours of 8 and 5 p.m. Full-time students may not work more than 20 hours per week per ABA Standards. Students are asked to sign a form indicating their commitment to this policy.

The School of Law combines traditional and innovative teaching methods to provide a dynamic, professional program. The J.D. curriculum is designed to develop students' analytical ability, communication skills, and understanding of the codes of professional responsibility and ethics that are central to the practice of law. The faculty utilizes a variety of teaching methods, including simulations and role-playing. Courses designed to develop and refine writing abilities are required. Seminars and advanced courses provide close interaction with faculty.

Full-Time Day Program <https://www.barry.edu/law/future-students/academic-program/full-time-day-program.html>

In-house clinics and externships:

Our Law School is committed to providing legal services that are consistent with the University's mission of making a contribution to the society we are all part of. All of our Clinical Programs are taught by professors, private and public lawyers and trial judges who are focused on assisting our students in developing the skills necessary to succeed after law school. Consistent with this goal, our clinical and externships programs contain an important classroom component which allows students to get the most from their practical experiences.

Students may apply for any of the programs mentioned above after they fulfill the prerequisite courses which are designed to provide the basic legal skills necessary to succeed in the world outside of the classroom. This means that for most students, their experiential learning experiences will not happen until the summer after their second year on third year.

Clinics <https://www.barry.edu/law/future-students/academic-program/clinical-program.html>

BAR PREPARATION

The Barry University School of Law Department of Bar Preparation is responsible for overseeing and administering all bar application and bar preparation related activities at the Law School, including the Barry University School of Law Bar Preparation Program and the Multistate Professional Responsibility Exam Program.

The Barry University School of Law Bar Preparation Program is a comprehensive program that commences with the beginning of law school and continues throughout a student's law school attendance. The Program concludes with intensive preparation after graduation until the administration of the bar

exam. The Program offers an array of bar-focused workshops, bar preparation classes and one-on-one counseling and tutoring regardless of the state in which a student or graduate plans to take the bar exam.

A detailed Bar Prep webpage provides bar admission and bar-related information at the students' fingertips. Bar Prep workshops and lectures are accessible via this internal webpage. First-year law students are provided with online black letter law learning tools and in-class workshops and lectures relating to the multistate subject areas and essay writing skills. Second-year law students have access to additional workshops and lectures to assist them in maintaining knowledge in the multistate subject areas and their essay-writing skills. To round out the Program, third-year students and other students in their final semester of law school are required to take two bar preparation courses taught by experienced bar preparation professors. One course covers all seven multistate subject areas; the second covers advanced bar essay writing. After graduation, the Program continues through the bar exam with a variety of lectures, workshops, tutoring, counseling, scheduling and simulated exams designed to meet the needs of Barry Law graduates and supplement their commercial bar review courses.

Bar Preparation <https://www.barry.edu/law/future-students/academic-program/bar-preparation.html>

Western Michigan University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Western Michigan University Thomas M. Cooley Law School is a private, independent, non-profit, 501(c)(3) tax-exempt law school dedicated to teaching students the knowledge, skills, and ethics needed to succeed in both the law and

its practice and to be valuable members of society. The Law School is affiliated with **Western Michigan University**, a major national research university enrolling more than 23,000 students from across the United States and 100 other countries. As an independent institution, the Law School is solely responsible for its academic program.

History and Background

Founded in 1972 by **Hon. Thomas E. Brennan**, and other Lansing-area lawyers and judges, the school was named for **Hon. Thomas McIntyre Cooley**, one of the greatest jurists of the 19th century. Since its founding, the Law School has grown from a local law school and later a regional law school into what is now the seventh largest law school in the nation, attracting students from around the world. The Law School was founded in 1972 by a group of lawyers and judges led by then-Chief Justice of the Michigan Supreme Court.

Boasting more than 20,000 graduates working in private law practice, corporations, legislatures and governmental agencies, prosecutor and defender offices, public interest groups, and academia, WMU-Cooley offers the nation's most comprehensive accredited, part-time legal education program. A fair and objective admission policy and tough, practical, professional legal education have created an important and distinguishing place for WMU-Cooley in American legal education.

WMU-Cooley's Approach to Legal Education

WMU-Cooley's legal education curriculum and program are designed to prepare its students for the practice of law through experienced-based teaching of the law and lawyering skills. Students learn to apply legal theory to situations they may encounter as practicing attorneys. As part of our **Ethics, Service, and Professionalism Programs**, students are also taught the professionalism principles adopted by the Law School community.

WMU-Cooley is committed to providing a legal education to people from all walks of life and is proud of its diverse national and international student body where students can feel empowered knowing they were accepted through fair and objective admission policies.

Message from the President

WMU-Cooley stands firm in its belief that the study of law should not be an esoteric pursuit and that the practice of law should not be an elitist profession. The School was founded on the premises that an individual's formal knowledge of the law is beneficial to society as a whole and that the strength of a democracy depends upon the ability of people to understand their laws. Toward that end, WMU-Cooley is proud of its ability to offer admission to a diverse group of applicants. The Law School enters new students three terms each year, in January, May, and September, and operates on a "rolling admissions" system, which means applications are processed at the time they are received. When all required materials are received by the Admissions Office, a decision is made and the applicant is informed of his or her admission status.

WMU-Cooley's Strategic Plan

The Law School's Strategic Plan 2020 guides us in our teaching, research, and service by setting forth our core mission, values, and vision.... Below are the core elements of our plan.

Our Mission

The mission of WMU-Cooley Law School is to prepare its graduates for entry into the legal profession through an integrated program with practical legal scholarship as its guiding principle and focus. This mission includes providing broad access to those who seek the opportunity to study law, while requiring that those to whom that opportunity is offered meet WMU-Cooley's rigorous academic standards. The preparation for practice mission means that WMU-Cooley graduates must:

1. Master the fundamentals and basic skills required for the competent practice of law and representation of clients.
2. Demonstrate the substantive knowledge and skills required for passage of a bar examination and admission to the bar.
3. Understand and embrace the legal, moral, ethical, and professional responsibility of lawyers.

Our Values

WMU-Cooley Law School is a collaborative community of students, staff, faculty, administration, and alumni who work together to create an educational experience that transforms students into respected members of the legal profession. Our WMU-Cooley Community reflects the diversity of the

communities in which we live, study, and work. As members of the WMU-Cooley Community:

1. We embrace and encourage opportunity, inclusivity, fairness, and equality.
2. We approach challenges with creativity and a commitment to innovation.
3. We foster respect, tolerance, collegiality, open communication, and collaboration.
4. We strengthen society through leadership, service, and dedication to the rule of law.
5. We operate as a unified law school with multiple campuses.

Our Vision

Holistic and Transformative Legal Education

WMU-Cooley challenges law students to go beyond classroom learning. To embrace the complex and vital role lawyers play in our diverse society, law students must examine their thinking, their work ethic, their beliefs, their lifestyle, and how their professional contributions and choices will impact not only their clients, but also our society.

To achieve this Vision, WMU-Cooley **CREATES** a supportive learning environment that cultivates student and graduate success, **INSPIRES** commitment to personal and professional growth and service to others, and **STRIVES** for continuous improvement.

Mission <https://www.cooley.edu/about/mission-history>

TRANSFORMATIVE EXPERIENCE

The decision to attend law school can be made at almost any time in life. Some choose to start right after college, others wait a year or two, and still others make the decision years later. But no matter when you make the decision, WMU-Cooley Law School has a program to fit your life. With a variety of schedule options, a well-rounded curriculum, specialty law school concentrations, and real-world, hands-on training, WMU-Cooley transforms law students into exceptional lawyers.

J.D. Concentrations

At WMU-Cooley, students can choose to concentrate in a particular field of practice:

- **Administrative Law** — Centers on administrative procedures and governmental law.
- **Business Transactions** — Instructs how to negotiate, structure, and implement transactions.
- **Canadian Law Practice** — Prepares students for practice and licensing in Canada.
- **Environmental Law** — Teaches environmental laws and policies.
- **General Practice, Solo and Small Firm** — Prepares students for opening their own firm or solo practice.
- **Intellectual Property** — Focuses on patent, trademark and other intellectual property.
- **International Law** — Covers public law (human rights, immigration, environmental) and international business transactions.

- **Litigation** — Teaches civil or criminal litigation, including negotiation and alternative dispute resolution skills.
- **Focused Studies** — Allows students to build their own focused area of study.

Hands-On Learning

WMU-Cooley was founded on the premise that students who have learned actual real-world lawyering skills will have untold advantages over law students who have only learned the theory of the law. Every student not only must have skills training before graduating, they also learn very early the practical lesson in the importance of clarity in legal writing. Every student must perfect his or her writing and research skills as core attributes of a well-trained attorney. And to fully immerse students in the realities of being a lawyer, we emphasize practical legal training where each student is required to participate in some form of experiential learning including:

1) Law School Clinics — An on-campus experience where students do pro bono work under an experienced faculty member's supervision (i.e., Sixty-Plus Elderlaw Clinic, WMU-Cooley Innocence Project, etc.).

2) Law School Externship — WMU-Cooley's externship program allows students to work with a practicing attorney or judge at any one of over 3,000 placement sites across the nation. Student externs have the exciting opportunity to work, network, and receive mentorship with professionals at real-life law firms, courtrooms, and legal businesses, and receive credit for your time.

Schedule Options

At WMU-Cooley, we offer a variety of law school schedule options designed to help make your dream of going to law school possible. You can choose from several more traditional law school options or jump into an accelerated two-year option if you are on the fast-track to start your legal career. Full-time, Part-time, Evenings and Weekends are some of the many options you can consider. Find out more about WMU-Cooley's different options.

Traditional

Three-year part time

Four-year part time

Five-year part time

Weekend/evening

Two-year accelerated

Students also have the option to enter law school three times a year, in January, May or September. We operate on a "rolling admissions" system, which means we process law school applications when they are received. Even if you have a full-time job, kids' soccer games to attend, or other responsibilities, WMU-Cooley may have a schedule option for you.

JD Program <https://www.cooley.edu/academics/juris-doctor>

Nova Southeastern University's Mission Statement and Curriculum

Mission

To ensure that students develop the knowledge, skills, and values that are at the heart of becoming trusted, highly adept, professional lawyers who are respected for serving clients, their communities, and justice.

Our Values**We believe and model:**

- respect for the law and the importance of lawyers in a free society
- equitable access to education
- diversity of background and viewpoint
- excellence in teaching that serves the students and their learning needs
- high standards of ethics and professionalism
- evolution of the competencies lawyers need in an ever-changing world
- support of successful entry and advancement in the bar and other professions
- assumption of leadership roles and service to the community

Mission <https://www.law.nova.edu/about/mission.html>

Curriculum and Special Academic/Professional Programs

The College of Law offers a rigorous traditional academic program in three-year day and four-year evening versions. NSU Law prides itself on preparing graduates to make a smooth transition from the classroom to the courtroom or boardroom.

Legal Research and Writing (LRW)-Every student completes a four-semester

LRW sequence that combines traditional legal reasoning, writing, and research

with an introduction to lawyer interviewing, counseling, negotiating, mediating, advocating, and other critical skills in a simulated law firm experience.

Clinical Opportunities-Clinical education is an important part of the NSU Law experience. In fact, we think clinical education is so important that each and every student who meets the clinic criteria has the opportunity to participate in one of our clinics. The clinical semester brings the study of law to life. In seven clinical programs, students are introduced to a practice specialty under the guidance of a seasoned mentor. Each clinical semester begins with intensive classes that focus on advanced substantive law and lawyering skills in the clinic specialty plus interdisciplinary topics. For the rest of the term, faculty members supervise the students' representation of clients in Law Center clinics, government agencies, nonprofit organizations, and private law offices.

Curriculum <https://www.law.nova.edu/about/overview.html#curriculum>

Program Of Study

NSU Law offers a rigorous academic program. We pride ourselves on preparing graduates to make a smooth transition from the classroom to the courtroom or boardroom. The curriculum combines traditional doctrinal courses with courses that focus on specialized areas within law. In addition, the NSU Law curriculum adds skills and simulations, support, and clinical and externship courses. Our academic options expand to include international study, international dual-degree programs, and joint degree options that combine law and other disciplines.

Our faculty has a long tradition of teaching excellence and a high-level of involvement in the life and activities of the NSU Law community. An open-door policy and wireless communication make teachers very accessible to students and limits on the size of first-year sections increase individualized feedback for our students. The faculty's expertise is reflected in rich classroom discussions and a wide range of scholarly publications and professional service. They are true mentors and role models that challenge and inspire our students.

Students in both the three-year full-time J.D. program and the four-year part-time J.D. program follow a combination of required and elective courses to craft an individual course of study, often concentrating a portion of electives in an area of study that aligns with their interests and career goals. Appreciating the diverse range of courses offered at NSU Law is easier when grouped by broad subject area.

Students completing the J.D. program are expected to:

1. Demonstrate knowledge of fundamental, substantive legal doctrine (e.g., case law, legal concepts, legal principles, regulations, and statutes).
2. Identify legal issues and apply legal reasoning and analysis to solve legal problems in a logical and structured manner.
3. Communicate orally or in writing, or both, the legal reasoning and analysis regarding legal issues.
4. Research legal issues thoroughly and efficiently.
5. Demonstrate proficiency in reading critically.

6. Understand the obligation to adhere to the values of the legal profession (e.g., (1) providing of competent representation, (2) striving to promote justice, fairness, and morality, (3) striving to improve the profession, and (4) engaging in professional self-development).
7. Demonstrate ethical and practical judgment and active listening skills in communications (e.g. with clients, attorneys, and related parties).
8. Use technology to meet ethical duties of the legal profession (e.g. to address duties of confidentiality for all communications, to fulfill filing and other judicial obligations, and to keep abreast of technologies that affect accuracy of information provided to clients).
9. Anticipate, recognize and resolve obligations ethically.
10. Demonstrate self-directed learning practices for life-long learning.

JD Program <https://www.law.nova.edu/jd-program/program-of-study.html>

NSU Helps Reshape the Future of Legal Education Through 7 Transformative Initiatives

Innovation is at the heart of the Modern NSU Shepard Broad College of Law. Every aspect of the law school program has been reassessed and updated to assure the best strategies are available to bring high-quality, high-value legal education to our student, and top quality legal services to the clients we serve. “We’re here for you” connotes far more than our commitment to classroom success; our commitment starts with innovative design and implementation.

A recent Association of American Law School program highlighted key areas of innovation :

- Experiential Education
- International Education
- Dual (Joint) Degree Programs
- Business and Technology Education
- Non-J.D. Education
- Incubator Programs and Post-J.D. Education
- Technology and Start-up Laboratory Programs

NSU Law has led the country in each of these key areas of innovation¹:

Experiential Education - Direct, hands-on experience is the cornerstone of the NSU Law education

- NSU Law guarantees every student a live-client experience through an in-house clinic or field placement
- NSU Law recently completed a multi-million-dollar, award winning renovation to its building and live client legal clinic, providing state-of-the-art facilities and technology mirroring the best practices in law firm management
- NSU Law has added the Sharon and Mitchell W. Berger Entrepreneur Law Clinic for direct representation of start-ups, entrepreneurs, research scientists, and student inventors
- NSU Law expanded its in-house clinic through a \$1 million gift from the Taft Foundation to create an Adults with Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities Legal Clinic

- NSU Law operates a global Field Placement program, offering live-client experiences in civil, criminal, bankruptcy, and judicial practices, which can place students across the U.S. and abroad
- NSU Law extensive workshop program offers nearly three dozen courses that meet the experiential learning requirement as simulation courses

International Education

- NSU Law offers an accelerated J.D. program for lawyers with a first law degree from another country and comprehensive support from the law school's International Students Office to support their transition to the U.S.
- NSU Law's International consortium includes over two dozen partner schools and an annual conference held at NSU focusing on legal education pedagogy and teacher training
- J.D. students may earn dual degrees with European University of Barcelona, Spain; Roma Tre University, Rome Italy; or Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic
- The programs in Spain and Italy are J.D. equivalent degrees while the program in the Czech Republic results in an LL.M. Students may also participate in semester exchange programs in Spain, Italy, and the Czech Republic
- Semester abroad programs include Israel and Great Britain

Dual (Joint) Degree Programs and Interdisciplinary Education

- J.D. students may earn dual degrees in such disciplines as Accounting, Business Administration, Computer and Information Science, Conflict Analysis and

Resolution, Osteopathic Medicine, Tax, Public Health, or through individualized plans.

- NSU Law has updated its academic regulations to simplify and accelerate dual degree opportunities with other NSU schools and colleges.
- NSU Law offers a 3+3 admissions program with the seven NSU undergraduate colleges.

Business and Technology Education

- NSU Law offers the NSU Law Leadership Academy, a specialized program focusing on the “business of lawyering,” with courses including Business Operations for Lawyers, Strategic Business Planning for Lawyers, and Law Practice Business and Technology Workshop, a curriculum designed to teach the complex and rapidly changing legal services industry.
- Select partnerships with the NSU Health Professions Division and other schools encourage law faculty to provide non-curriculum lectures and offerings.
- Additional opportunities exist to provide non-curriculum lectures and offerings from these and other schools to law students and law alumni.

Non-J.D. Education

- NSU Law has become one of the largest programs providing non-lawyer education with four online Master of Science degrees for non-lawyers: M.S. in Health Law, M.S. in Education Law, M.S. in Employment Law, and M.S. in Law and Policy
- M.S. programs include specialty concentrations such as Cybersecurity Law
- New M.S. topics include Pre-Collegiate, Collegiate, and Professional Sports

- The M.S. programs are heavily staffed by NSU Law full-time faculty, providing a robust legal and professional education to the working professionals seeking to expand their understanding of how law impacts their profession

Incubator Programs and Post-J.D. Education

- NSU Law operates Florida's only post-J.D. incubator for recent graduates. Integrated with the NSU Law Clinics, Incubator participants receive professional space support, ongoing training on the launch and development of private law practice, and provide supervised pro bono services to the Veterans or other client clinics.
- The Law Center Plus program provides monthly, no-cost CLE offerings for recent graduates.

Technology and Start-up Laboratory Programs

- NSU Law provides a number of courses addressing the intersection of law and technology
 - The NSU Center for Collaborative Research is a 215,000 square foot facility providing a home for translational research
 - NSU Law is a steering committee member for the Florida Patent Pro Bono Project
 - NSU Law uses online tools to supplement its courses, including a comprehensive web portal, new course recording tools, smart courtrooms, and many other technologies to assure students learn a modern, efficient model of practicing law
- NSU Law is not standing still. Today, NSU Law continues the innovative tradition as one of the first law schools to offer clinical education, the most-wired campus, and first non-J.D. program in Florida. The innovations at NSU Law are

designed to anticipate the shifts in the delivery of legal services by better preparing graduates to provide more efficient and cost effective delivery of legal services, thereby expanding access to these services in both the domestic and international market.

Innovation <https://www.law.nova.edu/about/innovation.html>