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MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA

THESIS

**WHAT CAN HISTORY TEACH US? A COMPARATIVE
HISTORICAL ANALYSIS ON THE RESERVE OFFICER
TRAINING CORPS AND THE DEPARTMENT OF
HOMELAND SECURITY**

by

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December 2015

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ANALYSIS ON THE RESERVE OFFICER TRAINING CORPS AND THE
DEPARTMENT OF HOMELAND SECURITY**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines an institution that has been educating, providing leadership training and commissioning the vast majority of U.S. military officers for nearly 100 years, the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC). This program was formed and shaped over nearly a century through conflict, military necessity, and political maneuvering. Through the incorporation of a historical comparative lens, this program's mechanistic and temporal conditions are captured to provide lessons learned for other entities searching for an educational identity. One such organization that is struggling to establish a preparatory program and identity is the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). When looking at the two case studies side by side, it is easy to see that they do indeed share commonalities in organizational structure, need, and mission. The findings from this thesis offer evidence that the DHS is growing in educational parallel to ROTC, while suffering from many of the same growing pains the Department of Defense did while trying to establish its educational roots. This thesis tracks conditions that shaped the ROTC we know today, while simultaneously highlighting the deficiencies the DHS is facing. It also lays the path for future work that could call for a similar analog as the ROTC for the DHS.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AAF	Army Air Forces
AFROTC	Air Force Reserve Officer Training Corps
CHDS	Center for Homeland Defense and Security
COL	colonel
DHS	Department of Homeland Security
DOD	Department of Defense
EO	executive order
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
GPA	grade point average
GSA	General Services Administration
GWOT	global war on terrorism
HD	homeland defense
HR	human resources
HSDECA	Defense Education Consortium Association
HS	homeland security
INS	Immigration and Naturalization Service
JROTC	Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps
LT COL	lieutenant colonel
MTCA	Military Training Camp Association
NPS	Naval Postgraduate School
OPM	Office of Personnel Management
ROTC	Reserve Officer Training Corps
TSA	Transportation Security Administration
UAPI	University and Agency Partnership Initiative
US	United States
USAF	United States Air Force
USCG	U.S. Coast Guard
USSS	U.S. Secret Service
YGL	Young Government Leaders

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Department of Homeland Security (DHS) is one of the largest governmental entities formed within the United States in nearly 100 years. This effort came on the heels of the September 11 attacks and ultimately brought 22 agencies under one, unified department. Like any new corporate or governmental formation, the DHS has found its path filled with trials and tribulations. Additionally, the DHS has been scrutinized by federal leadership, the media, and even its employees over the last 14 years for everything from fiscal planning deficiencies to mission creep/unpreparedness to even a lack of effective leadership across the organizational spectrum. More importantly to this paper's focus and according to federal human resource professionals, it is an organization that struggles with the newness of its massive personnel system and how those that are seeking to join the DHS are recruited, educated, and retained.

Despite all the negative focus and criticism the DHS has received on its personnel system and undergraduate education efforts, is it really that different than other governmental organizations from the United States' past and their respective growing pains? This paper argues that it is not and that there are indeed historical cases that can be leveraged to aid in the DHS in its educational and professional development aspirations.

An organization that realized a very similar narrative as the DHS is the Department of Defense (DOD), more specifically the United States Air Force (USAF) during its reorganizational efforts. Even closer in comparison, the DHS creation under the Homeland Security Act was the largest federal government reorganization since the USAF was created under the National Security Act in 1947.¹ Furthermore, the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC), which educates the majority of its leadership cadre for the DOD's officer ranks, is also heavily documented. Historically speaking and from a comparative analytical lens, the two share striking similarities. It is this documentation that serves as the basis to conduct a comparative historical analysis with the hopes of suggesting historical case relevance that the DHS could learn from.

¹ "Special Report: United We Stand," Pearson, accessed April 24, 2015, http://www.phschool.com/social_studies/special_report/homeland_security.html#historical.

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I. INTRODUCTION

It has been nearly 14 years now since the catastrophic events that took place on September 11, 2001. Since then, our nation is one that opted to take a course of organizational transformative actions to address the emerging threats our homeland now faces. The organization created was the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and its genesis is one that has faced numerous challenges. Those challenges have taken several forms but perhaps none is more noteworthy than that of its negative organizational image. It is DHS's negative organizational image issue that is significant enough to need a dedicated inspection of its processes by the Office of the Inspector General. Additionally, an ongoing debate has emerged about the boom currently taking place to address the educational void of this fledgling department. The two challenges, while seemingly disparate at first glimpse, do indeed share a bilateral relationship that is negatively affecting the DHS.

As a profession, homeland security is one that finds itself imbedded in several debates surrounding the development of formalized education/preparatory efforts for its core civilian work force. John Roth, Department of Homeland Security Inspector General, highlighted the immaturity issue before a House Committee on Homeland Security Oversight and Management Efficiency. Roth states that the DHS has struggled with unity of effort issues since its creation. The DHS has attempted to transform itself into a cohesive agency since its creation in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks. This creation brought together 22 disparate agencies to form the third largest cabinet level department, and it continues to have challenges.¹

As an association, the DHS is also one that finds itself grappling with mission creep on everything from Secret Service scandals to evolving terrorist threats, and it is now faced with several job dissatisfaction issues within the department that have been

¹*Statement of James L Taylor Deputy Inspector General, U. S. Department of Homeland Security before the Subcommittee on Management, Investigations and Oversight, Committee of Homeland Security, 108th Cong. (2008), accessed October 18, 2015, https://www.oig.dhs.gov/assets/TM/OIGtm_JLT_091708.pdf.*

identified from recent employee survey results.² While the survey highlights that the department is filled with hard working individuals devoted to the mission, it also points to negative aspects of employee treatment and recruitment failures.³ Several issues that point to the underlying cause of the current state of the DHS as an organization can be tied to poor leadership within, especially as it pertains to motivating and encouraging commitment from the workforce.⁴

Another U.S. governmental organization could perhaps be studied to answer the call of a more unified preparatory program for up-and-coming homeland security professionals while simultaneously addressing the personnel shortcomings. That entity is the Department of Defense, (DOD), more specifically the U.S. Air Force (USAF) and how its personnel system and leadership pipeline came to be can perhaps serve as an example for the DHS to follow. This thesis does not claim that what follows is the all-encompassing answer; however, the USAF personnel system is a benchmarked framework that experienced a very similar growth path to the DHS. Furthermore, the DOD preparatory officer pipeline, the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC), is one imbedded within the national university system and has produced the bulk of our nation's military officers for nearly 100 years. It is this model that was researched because of its longevity and noted success—as are highlighted within the thesis.

A. PROBLEM SPACE

Homeland security as a profession is still a relatively new discipline, and the newness of the profession has opened it up to several debates surrounding the development of formalized education efforts for its workforce. There is formalized preparatory training for several different kinds of homeland security disciplines. This training is provided through the National Training and Education Division of the DHS. Furthermore, certain career fields, such as criminal justice and the fire service, are ones

² U. S. Office of Personnel Management, *Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Results*, 2014, accessed October 18, 2015, http://www.fedview.opm.gov/2014files/2014_Governmentwide_Management_Report.PDF.

³ Ibid.

⁴ Ibid.

that enjoy defined tactical, educational, and leadership pathways in the homeland security domain. Conversely, the core set of civil professionals within the DHS do not originate from such a unified pipeline, and the associated recruiting strategies are being reflected negatively in survey results from employees.⁵

The management and leadership construct of homeland security in recent years has also changed. There is now a call for emerging homeland security professionals to be equipped with a unified core set of knowledge and capabilities. Manpower and human resource (HR) journal articles that focus on personnel factors for the federal government document agree with this. In addition, the federal government faces a looming retirement bubble that will leave large workforce gaps.⁶ With these vacancies, HR professionals are capitalizing on the opportunity and suggest that the void needs to be filled with better qualified federal workers. In an article in *Public Manager*, the authors explain:

Today, the training, development, and educational needs for the federal workforce are among the most demanding of any organization. Federal workers must come with higher levels of education to qualify for their professional jobs. Despite aspersions in the political arena, federal agencies are expected to be organizational role models, technological trendsetters, and articulators of best practices.⁷

Furthermore, the homeland security enterprise is reaping the negative reviews of a departmental organization that suffers from the amalgamation of 22 dissimilar agencies. The disciplines and experts that now make up the DHS find themselves in conflict with each other and are “not necessarily well suited to the domestic mission at hand.”⁸ This can be seen by examining a case, the 2001 anthrax attack, which demonstrates what the lack of core common educational competencies can do to a professional and joint workforce.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶Stephen Condrey, Rex Facer II, and Jared Llorens, “Revitalizing the Federal Government by Strengthening Four Critical Areas,” *The Public Manager*, December 2012, <https://www.td.org/Publications/Magazines/The-Public-Manager/Archives/2012/Winter/Revitalize-the-Federal-Government-by-Strengthening-Four-Critical-Areas>.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸Donald A. Donahue Jr., and Stephen O. Cunnion, *Meeting Educational Challenges in Homeland Security and Emergency Management*, Potomac Institute for Policy Studies, University of Pittsburg, www.cnp.pitt.edu/rcrc/Papers/Article-BerkeleyPress.docx.

The 2001 anthrax attack brought together such homeland security (HS) entities as the law enforcement and medical communities. This incident confirmed that while “both public health and law enforcement protect the public, the approach and nature of the work performed in the two disciplines is quite different.”⁹ Public health investigations in a case like this revolve around interviewing individuals, the collection of data, and laboratory/medical studies.¹⁰

A primary attribute of law enforcement investigations is that the construct is created around a deductive process.¹¹ Witnesses and suspects go through an interview process, and then law enforcement officials develop indicators, which are pursued. Finally, a grouping of evidence is gathered, categorized, and tracked.¹² Condrey, Facer, and Lorens note in their article written for *The Public Manager*, “not only are the approaches divergent, but conflicting procedural foci can be particularly obstructive for public health practice.”¹³ These points illustrate the diversity within an “overly broad definition of a profession and the spontaneous generation of that profession, from the ground up, by practitioners trained and experienced in narrow application of specific knowledge in dissimilar venues.”¹⁴ When considering an education model for future homeland security professionals, it is best to recognize “the diversity of the field, the commonalities, and the divergent realities that exist.”¹⁵ It would appear from this example that candidates simply having a bachelor’s degree and being drawn from some indiscriminate academic field is not meeting the needs of the homeland security enterprise.

This thesis does not claim that the following is a holistic answer; however, it proposes as model to follow. The Department of Defense has looked to a preparatory program to address several of the issues noted above for nearly a century. That program

⁹Condrey, Facer II, and Llorens. “Revitalizing the Federal Government.”

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Ibid., 3.

¹⁵ Ibid.

is the ROTC, which was chosen and researched for this thesis because of its 100-year existence as a large-scale leadership producer.

A literature review later in this thesis examines an article that suggests that there are three key educational tenets, currently not realized, which should be met in homeland security undergraduate education pursuits. Those three tenets are strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making.¹⁶ The literature review serves as an introduction for the thesis, and the majority of effort is spent exploring the conditions that created the need of an ROTC program and the similarities the DHS might be experiencing.

The ROTC was first established in 1916 through the signing of the National Defense Act by President Woodrow Wilson.¹⁷ Military training took place in civilian universities prior to this, dating back early as 1819.¹⁸ The National Defense Act achieved the merging of cadet training at the collegiate level under a single body under federal control: the Reserve Officer Training Corps.¹⁹ There are currently 273 Army ROTC programs and almost an equal amount of Air Force and Navy ROTC programs today in our nation's universities. This program accounts for the production of approximately 60 percent of all Department of Defense commissioned officers. U.S. Army Cadet Command notes:

of even greater importance is that ROTC trained and educated officers bring a hybrid vigor to our officer corps by drawing on the strength and variety of our social fabric. This reduces the natural tendency of armies to drift into inbred professional separatism.²⁰

As programs to produce leaders, the ROTC programs are based on three primary pillars. First is that a student in the university system declares a primary focus of study and augments that college education with an ROTC curriculum. Second, the ROTC

¹⁶William Pelfrey and William Kelley, "Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward," *Homeland Security Affairs* 9 (February 2013): article 3, <http://hdl.handle.net/10945/27490>.

¹⁷ "Making the Best Military Officers in the World; Motivating Young People to be Better Citizens," U. S. Army Cadet Command, accessed November 18, 2015, <http://www.cadetcommand.army.mil/history.aspx>.

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

curriculum focuses on subjects necessary for officers to take a leadership role within their respected service branches. This model also proves that the focus on an all-encompassing curriculum is unnecessary. The student declares a major and receives a minor in military studies. The third pillar is that upon successful completion of the ROTC program, usually in accordance with receiving some proportionate college scholarship, the cadet enters into a four-year agreement to serve in the military branch of her or his specification.²¹

There are several other issues in the undergraduate education debate that the ROTC program has been able to work with for several decades. For one, as the literature review shows, an HS curriculum consensus is very hard to come by and is framed around the need to have a degree awarded upon completion. On the other hand, ROTC programs exist and operate within established colleges/universities without being tied to a four-year curriculum.²² Additionally, some degrees (e.g., public administration) might offer beneficial but unnecessary peripheral courses. The ROTC programs are able to create an educational framework focusing on strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making while the students augment that training with an undergraduate education and degree concentration of their choosing.²³ Finally, the literature review suggests that HS and its associated consortium of differing disciplines cannot be addressed nor should be addressed within an undergraduate degree in four years. The ROTC does not try to train its cadets within the four-year timeframe to fulfill the tasks of a specific role (e.g., pilot, infantry officer, general manager). It does focus on equipping the students with the paramount tenets identified in this review to increase their chance to succeed in their respective roles.²⁴

The argument asking whether or not homeland security is a defined discipline/academic study would appear to be nearing the inconsequential. We are past that stage of

²¹ Ibid.

²² Ibid.

²³ "Military Science Program of Study Goals and Objectives," Marywood University, accessed October 18, 2015, <http://www.marywood.edu/veterans/student-organizations/rotc/program-of-study.html>.

²⁴ Ibid.

the discourse and now need to produce better qualified human operational assets for the DHS.

B. RESEARCH QUESTION

1. Primary Question

What conditions and components of the Department of Defense's officer preparatory program, the Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC), have made it successful for nearly 100 years and would a comparative or similar system advance educational goals for the Department of Homeland Security?

2. Secondary Questions

1. What was the transformative process that took place during the reorganization of the U.S. Air Force during its inception phase, specifically the personnel system?
2. What conditions were in place that gave rise to the ROTC nearly 100 years ago as well as the Air Force ROTC model in 1920?
3. What characteristics, attributes, and conditions can we derive from the ROTC model that can be applied to the DHS and its current educational/preparatory debate?

C. DEFINING THE RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

The research and analytical framework applied to this thesis originates from the social sciences and is called comparative historical methods. Comparative historical methods are a research set that accomplishes both historical and causal analysis for a specific case observation (known as the ideographic within case) while comparing that data to a potentially similar and contemporary case.²⁵

The within case and contemporary case are viewed through primary and secondary methods. The within case subject for this thesis is the ROTC, and the contemporary case subject is the DHS. The primary method for this research is the historical method, otherwise known as historiography. This lens aims to create a historical narrative that explains the descriptive purposes of what happened and what the

²⁵ Matthew Lange, *Comparative-Historical Methods* (Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, 2012), Kindle locations 287–288.

characteristics of a phenomenon were but not to explain the causes of a phenomenon. The complementary secondary method used is known as causal narrative. Similar to its historical methodological partner, causal narrative is an analytic technique that explores the causes of a particular social phenomenon through a narrative analysis. More specifically, it is a narrative that explores what caused something. To use this technique, the researcher compiles evidence, assesses it, and presents a sequential causal account.²⁶

A noted strength of creating a causal narrative can be realized in the form of temporality. More specifically, the temporality of the within case is landscaped through an analysis, which analyzes how causal processes unfold over time. Several detail oriented temporal analysis tools are utilized to set up the contemporary analysis. Those are causal ordering, threshold effects (change that manifests suddenly when a critical limit is crossed), pathway dependencies (a process in which an initial decision or event locks the process into a particular pathway), and period effects (variation in the effect of one factor on another that is caused by the different periods in which the causal process occurred).²⁷

Finally, the within case and contemporary case is compared through a small N comparative framework focusing on a narrative comparison that incorporates process oriented, and mechanistic comparisons. The following is applied to the chapter outline to be used as a guide for applying this comparative historical methods analysis.

Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) case study (Through the incorporation of a comparative historical methods framework)

- a. Primary case method: Historical method to create a historical narrative for descriptive purposes only capturing the ROTC 100-year history (five distinct time periods in all).
- b. Secondary case method: Causal narrative/event structure analysis used as the framework to define and analyze the ROTC (and its five distinct time periods).

²⁶ Ibid.

²⁷ Ibid.

- Process tracing tool: Analyze data gathered in the historical narrative to discover: conditions, enablers, stakeholders, variable, causes, and outcomes.
 - Identify mechanisms or the transformative actions that tie together the causes and outcomes of each ROTC distinct timeframe.
- c. Temporal analysis: This tool is used to establish causal order and identify nonlinear processes. Additionally, the following temporal aspects of the ROTC life cycle is used.
- Path dependence: Analysis of cause and effects of the ROTC life cycle in which particular decisions made by stakeholders locked certain processes into a pathway. Two key components: a critical juncture is an unsettled/turbulent timeframe which leads to an event decision. Path stability examines the factors that lead to a particular path maintaining course because conditions are favorable.
 - Period effects: Examines how certain historical contexts/ timeframes could have impacted the ROTC 100-year narrative.²⁸

Comparative historical analysis

- a. Small-N comparison: Comparative tool used by historical comparative researches focusing on narratives to compare phenomena that cannot easily be captured quantitatively and operationalized. The following tools make up the ROTC versus contemporary DHS narrative comparison.
- Process-oriented comparison: The comparative tool that cross-compares processes, sequences and causes discovered between the ROTC narrative and the DHS narrative.
 - Mechanistic comparison: The comparative tool that ties together similar mechanisms found between the ROTC and the DHS narratives.²⁹

The thesis should show that the DHS has several challenges as well as opportunities in front of it as pertains to enhancing its recruiting and professional development model. The following chapters suggest historical case relevance for the DHS in a comparative manner. First, a literature review shows the current state of HS undergraduate literature. Such findings as the lack in consensus of what should be taught and accreditation effort issues are highlighted. Second, a process tracing analysis is used

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Ibid.

on the DOD ROTC leadership production model. It captures and highlights the several periods that brought change to the ROTC program over the last 100-year timeframe. Third, a historical comparative analysis is conducted drawing mechanistic comparison between the DOD and the ROTC's past as well as the current state recruiting/retentions issues that the DHS is facing. Finally, a conclusion suggests the relevance of this thesis and offers a potential way forward.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. THE HOMELAND SECURITY UNDERGRADUATE EDUCATION DEBATE INTRODUCTION (WHAT IS KNOWN)

Since the inception of the Department of Homeland Security, a debate surrounding homeland security undergraduate education has been prevalent. Academics, educators, and administrators argue over who the consumers of such education should be, what HS curricula should look like, and whether such education is even warranted at the undergraduate level. Even so, 12 years since the establishment of the DHS, the organization still finds itself without a uniform approach to educating emerging homeland security professionals. This literature review provides a backdrop for what is currently known about HS education efforts, what is unknown, and what should be known. A conclusion highlighting implications of the current state of homeland security education endeavors is given while offering an existing educational framework for research for potential cross-pollination opportunities.

1. Opposition to Moving Forward with Curriculum Consensus

William Pelfrey (of Pelfrey and Associates LLC) and William Kelley (senior advisor to the Center for Homeland Defense and Security) capture the essence of the HS education debate in an article titled “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward,” written for the Naval Postgraduate School. In the article they state, “There is significant evidence that education is a potent and durable contributor to changing and enhancing performance in a wide range of endeavors in which excellence is sought.”³⁰ However, Pelfrey and Kelley ultimately conclude that the time for such a focused academic science is not right. The article highlights the lack of consensus concerning homeland security education while specifically focusing in on curriculum issues. Furthermore, Pelfrey and Kelley focus on curriculum design framed around five key tenets (for the purpose of this literature review, only three of the five tenets are addressed as they directly impact education).

³⁰ Pelfrey and Kelley. “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward.”

2. Structuring Homeland Security Education

Pelfrey and Kelley's research points out, "from nineteen independent survey groups across all major professional disciplines in homeland security, the most important capabilities/core tenets for homeland security leaders are:"³¹ Strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making (these are referred to the three primary HS education tenets).³² They conclude that these three tenets could be imbedded in most courses and would ultimately improve practitioners' skill and knowledge set no matter from which professional discipline they hail.³³

3. Who Will Provide the Educational Competencies that HS Professionals Are Calling For?

Little agreement can be found as to what set of college courses would be ideal for the aspiring homeland security professional. Fundamental debates from several of the authors in this review are still taking place over trade journals and online web exchange. The debates encompass everything from vocational to civil and from undergraduate to graduate-level only education. Little resolution of the issues can be found, and "some are calling for accreditation standards to mitigate the uncertainties (although accreditation prior to resolving the issues seems to be anachronistic)."³⁴ Additionally, Pelfrey and Kelley suggest:

faculty in the emerging discipline of homeland security, seeking to craft (or cobble together) courses and coursework may, in their zeal to incorporate and homogenize the theories and research of others, drift away from their areas of expertise and do a less-than-creditable job instructing students when faculty more central to the disciplines being taught are available.³⁵

It is evident that critics of the homeland security education movement believe the rush to fill the educational void is not doing the DHS any favors.

³¹ Ibid.

³² Ibid.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ Ibid.

4. Are there Other Established Academic Fields of Study That might Meet the Needs of HS Practitioners?

While Pelfrey and Kelley “initially expected that existing programs such as public policy and public administration” could better address the three key HS educational tenets, an “examination of the core courses in those disciplines seems to suggest otherwise” (they examined Harvard University’s Master in Public Policy).³⁶ Pelfrey and Kelley suggest that the framework of the courses offered through the Harvard program would contribute to the “foundations in three methodological areas.”³⁷ Those areas are analysis, management, and leadership; however, Pelfrey and Kelley quickly dismiss this as a unsuitable model because it does not incorporate the concept of strategic collaboration and contains what they call “valuable but largely extraneous topics.”³⁸

Additional divergence from HS educational progress is noted from Christopher Bellavita of the Naval Postgraduate School. In an article written for *Homeland Security Watch* titled, “Fundamental Challenges of Homeland Security Education,” Bellavita states:

Curricula appear to be touted more than tested. However, rather than take a completely negative position, there is support for a synthesized ‘way forward’ toward an academic homeland security discipline. Abbott describes academic disciplines as social and cultural entities for which there are few rules but two main functions:

- *Reproduction (of employment for academics):* ‘being an academic means, willy-nilly, being a member of a discipline’ and
- *Preventing knowledge from becoming too abstract or overwhelming:* ‘Disciplines ... define what is permissible not to know and thereby limit the body of books one must have to read.’

One function is self-serving, the other is self-limiting. Neither function is especially appealing at this stage of development of homeland security

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ Ibid.

education but the need to assess the status of homeland security education has never been more important.³⁹

Former Dean of Harvard's Kennedy School of Government, Arnold Bogis, also in an article written for *Homeland Security Watch*, comments on the conversations that are currently taking place surrounding homeland security education and its future. He suggests that not a lot of conversation has taken place specifically answering why homeland security should even be instructed as its own field of study.⁴⁰ Bogis also asks to take into "consideration that the idea did not exist 15 years ago, the concept was considerably less ambitious pre-9/11, and today there is little agreement on the definition or even regarding details of the predominant (perhaps only) organizing theory of resilience."⁴¹ It is possible the fast track approach into curriculum development action could actually do more harm for the homeland security enterprise than good.⁴² He asks in a tongue and cheek manner, "How can homeland security education avoid bunking with Luca Brasi?"⁴³

5. Synthesis of Those against Curriculum Advancement

Several findings from Pelfrey and Kelley do indeed provide tremendous empirical evidence for the HS education debate. Pelfrey and Kelley identify three primary tenets most desired by all major HS disciplines (strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making). They ultimately suggest, however, that homeland security education "appears to be too immature and amorphous, with its educational goals in dispute, to merit proceeding vigorously in the development of new programs beyond those providing knowledge and capabilities needed by those leaders already in defined homeland security

³⁹Christopher Bellavita, "Fundamental Challenges of Homeland Security Education," August 13, 2011, *Homeland Security Watch*, accessed July 26, 2014, <http://www.hlswatch.com/2011/08/13/fundamental-challenges-of-homeland-security-education-preliminary-findings-2/>.

⁴⁰Arnold Bogis, "Should Homeland Security Education Sleep with the Fishes?" *Homeland Security Watch*, August 15, 2011, accessed August 10, 2014, <http://www.hlswatch.com/2011/08/15/should-homeland-security-education-sleep-with-the-fishes/>.

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³Bogis quoting from the movie *The Godfather*. "Luca Brasi sleeps with the fishes" implies that someone (or something) is dead.

roles.”⁴⁴ Additionally, reaching curriculum consensus and associated consistency can be tied to the newness of the field. Most occupational disciplines take well over 20 years of existence to become academic fields of study.⁴⁵

One question needs to be further qualified in several respects and that is when the authors ask “are there established, more mature fields/disciplines/programs that provide education to appropriate students on the appropriate capabilities for homemade security?”⁴⁶ The initial observation of Pelfrey and Kelley did not completely analyze the many opportunities available in collegiate cross-fertilization programs. While there are several purely academic frameworks, such as business management or public administration, there are other programs imbedded within colleges/universities that may address academic and leadership preparatory desires outlined in this literature review. One such framework is the ROTC, and it is examined in far greater detail throughout the thesis.

B. SUPPORT FOR MOVING AHEAD WITH HS EDUCATION EFFORTS

In contrast to Pelfrey, Kelley, and Bellavita, Eastern Kentucky University’s Michael Collier (an associate professor of homeland security) is a proponent for homeland security education accreditation. Collier sits on the Homeland Security and Defense Education Consortium Association (HSDECA), an organization committed to:

developing a transparent, accessible and outcome-based accreditation system which creates and preserves degree integrity in the emergent academic disciplines of homeland security (HS) and homeland defense (HD) while ensuring the highest standards for graduates from Associate, Undergraduate, and Graduate Degree programs in HS and HD.⁴⁷

⁴⁴ Pelfrey and Kelley. “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward.”

⁴⁵ Valerie Lucas-McEwen, “Emergency Management Degrees: Should You Get Your Education Online?,” Emergency Management, June 12, 2014, accessed July 26, 2014, <http://www.emergencymgmt.com/training/Emergency-Management-Degrees-Education-Online.html>.

⁴⁶ Pelfrey and Kelley. “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward.”

⁴⁷ “Accreditation,” Homeland Security and Defense Education Consortium Association,” accessed July 4, 2014, <http://hsdeca.org/accreditation>.

Collier notes that the three core tenets highlighted by Pelfrey and Kelley are areas covered in the HSDECA model undergraduate curriculum development efforts for undergraduate students.⁴⁸

In an article written for the *Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management*, Linda Kiltz, an assistant professor of public administration in the Master of Public Administration Program at Texas A & M Corpus Christi, states, “Our challenge as homeland security scholars is developing and implementing undergraduate and graduate curriculum that is grounded in a set of core competencies, and continually adapts to future threats, hazards, risks and vulnerabilities.”⁴⁹ Finally, Stanley Supinski of the Center for Homeland Defense and Security (CHDS) and co-administrator of the University and Agency Partnership Initiative (UAPI) highlights the need for specific educational parameters for the homeland security profession in the form of a commonly agreed upon core and member run accreditation system.⁵⁰

The core group of academics in favor of moving towards curriculum consensus still harbors doubts. Collier states that differing opinions about the appropriate focus of homeland security education have been problematic for establishing curriculum consensus. Some view terrorism as the primary issue, while others consider critical infrastructure to be more important. Finding those who agree on the focal point is rare.⁵¹ Dr. James Ramsey of the School of Security Studies and International Affairs at Embry Riddle University suggests that the concept of “synergy” has been removed from the core argument surrounding homeland security education.⁵² He posits:

⁴⁸Michael W. Collier, “Letter to the Editor: Homeland Security Education,” *Homeland Security Affairs* (June 213), accessed June 16, 2014, <https://www.hsaj.org/articles/363>.

⁴⁹Linda Kiltz, “The Challenges of Developing a Homeland Security Discipline to Meet Future Threats to the Homeland,” August 8, 2011, *Homeland Security Watch*, accessed June 24, 2015, <http://www.hls-watch.com/2011/08/08/the-challenges-of-developing-a-homeland-security-discipline-to-meet-future-threats-to-the-homeland/>.

⁵⁰Stanley Supinski, “Security Studies: The Homeland Adapts,” *Homeland Security Affairs* (September 2011), accessed June 16, 2014, <https://www.hsaj.org/articles/65>.

⁵¹Michael W. Collier, personal communication with author, June 25, 2014.

⁵²“Commentary from Homeland Security Educators’ about the Kiltz Homeland Security Education Article,” *Homeland Security Watch*, August 13, 2011, accessed August 10 2014, <http://www.hls-watch.com/2011/08/13/commentary-from-homeland-security-educators-about-the-kiltz-homeland-security-education-article/>.

Homeland Security, at the undergraduate level, leans on and utilizes science and practice from a variety of extant disciplines, with graduate degrees in a variety of areas (risk management, EM, intelligence studies, law and policy, strategic studies, security management, etc.), and thereby is an appropriate part of one's professional education.⁵³

Ramsey, too, faces his own doubts by noting that creating a new academic specialty to create a unique place for homeland security professionals ultimately does not help with the overall effectiveness of the discipline. Ramsey proposes that such issues with these pursuits could be seen in “solving their own problems, and could even undermine the efforts of other disciplines—like law—to secure appropriate remedies when failures in others—like engineering or medicine—produce spillover effects.”⁵⁴ At its core and from evaluating both bodies of works, the current state of the undergraduate education debate and its gratuitous ties to curriculum consensus appear to be heading down an imprudent path.

C. RESEARCH NEEDS

At this stage of the literature debate, it is unclear whether a more mature program might indeed be better equipped to provide those in undergraduate programs with the foundation needed to succeed in the HS environment. The unknowing originates from the fact that a cross-fertilization option has not been successfully tested at the university system. The thesis shows that there are several opportunities for college students to gain access to a federal job after graduation; however, these are limited to scholarships, internships, and a few management programs after students have graduated from their specific university. A dedicated and federally endorsed pipeline to produce leadership for the DHS has not been tested; however, this thesis suggests a specific cross-fertilization option (analyzed through comparative historical methods). The aim of this thesis is determine whether or not existent education models could dispute the claim of Pelfrey and Kelley while answering the call of the three primary tenets noted by the authors.

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

This literature review on the educational debate only serves as precursory note to set the stage for the greater preparatory conversation in this paper. The debate shows the divergence between those in favor, those against, and those still seeking a solution for what homeland security undergraduate education should be. While several key educational tenets, such as strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making, have been identified, the DHS still finds itself without an agreed upon curriculum to educate its future leaders.

As mentioned in the introduction, there are more significant narratives currently taking place within the DHS that must be addressed. Those accounts focus on the department's current issue with the recruiting, retention, and training of a young professional workforce charged with protecting the homeland. The DHS is in the process of addressing these issues, but perhaps it should look to benchmarked successes from the United States' past. The following historical account from the DOD sets the stage for a comparative analysis that the DHS could leverage to answer some of its most pressing personnel issues.

III. THE AIR FORCE PERSONNEL SYSTEM AND THE RESERVE OFFICER TRAINING CORPS

This chapter provides historic details of the inception of the DOD's public university based officer preparatory program, the ROTC. The subsections lay out the important chronological periods of change noted in this organization. Furthermore, each relevant period in the ROTC timeline highlights certain mechanism and conditions in place that have either resulted in change or stimulated change. All mechanistic and temporal items are gathered to leverage a comparative historical analysis between the DOD/ROTC and the current state of the DHS hiring, retention, and recruiting issues noted in Chapter IV.

A. THE HISTORY OF THE AIR FORCE PERSONNEL SYSTEM

The Air Force, in a very similar manner to the DHS, can trace its organizational roots through the creation of a new governmental entity. In 1943–1944, the Army Air Forces (AAF) began to plan for not only the end of World War II but the creation of an autonomous Air Force.⁵⁵ To the airmen of the AAF, it became apparent that the importance and uniqueness of their mission would require an independent service branch.⁵⁶ A key driving factor behind the need of a separate air force was spawn from a new age of warfare in which air doctrine and the advancement of new military aerial assets played a large role.⁵⁷ Air Force historian Vance Mitchell further notes associated personnel problems realized from the advancements in the profession:

Since modern aerial warfare had become complex, it demanded a correspondingly complex mix of skills beyond those necessary to fly an airplane. The skill spectrum of AAF officers spanned 275 specialties, 92 percent of all AAF personnel required some technical training, and a routine bombing mission required over 500 separate specialties ranging from pilots to clerk-typists to support it. Yet a survey of the Regular

⁵⁵ Vance Mitchell, *Air Force Officers Personnel Policy Development* (Washington, DC: Air Force History and Museums Program, 1996), 7.

⁵⁶ Herman Wolk, *Planning and Organizing the Postwar Air Force 1943–1947* (Washington, DC: Air Force History and Museums Program, 1984).

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

officers of the AAF, the only officers who had made a career commitment to military service, showed a near total lack of any expertise other than piloting. Moreover, there were no programs to attract and hold officers other than pilots once hostilities ceased.⁵⁸

It is also noted that the massiveness of the AAF organizational structure could not properly develop officer's skills in the several ancillary functions necessary to maintain a modern military establishment.⁵⁹ The inadequate distribution of officer skills became apparent in 1941 when the United States entered the World War II and the AAF faced the demands of modern warfare. The force was ill prepared for several of the new missions it faced. The AAF also realized personnel constraints when statutes were put into place early during the war requiring that 90 percent of the officers be pilots. In 1942, those statutes were suspended for the duration of hostilities and the AAF opened new commissioning programs and expanded existing ones to meet officer manpower needs.⁶⁰

As the war unfolded, it became clear to senior aviation component leaders that the organization needed a restructuring to meet the dynamic new mission and threat. Mitchell summarizes:

To the airmen, the seeming validity of the independent mission; and the shape of potential legislation to make the air arm independent. And a striking continuity is also apparent in the air leaders themselves. The men who led and organized the Army Air Forces in the drive for independence after World War II had fought the bureaucratic, political, organizational, and technological battles of the 1920s and 1930s.⁶¹

The new focus on aerial doctrine gained from one of our nation's most costly conflicts would result in key transformational personnel and preparatory efforts. The root of these efforts date back to the early 1800s, America's earliest documented attempt to train its service men. The causal narrative of this preparatory program is examined through not only its trials but also its successes to show why it has survived for nearly a century.

⁵⁸ Mitchell, *Air Force Officers Personnel Policy Development*, 8.

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Ibid.

B. NEED FOR THE ROTC PROGRAM

Before a formal ROTC organization was ever created, there was the concept of joint civilian and military studies in our nation's university system dating as far back as 1819. Norwich University is considered the senior system that began to implement a unified civil and military curriculum.⁶² Norwich was founded by Captain Alden Partridge in 1819 in Vermont and was deemed the American Literary, Scientific and Military Academy. Alden Partridge's original academic vision continues to be a benchmarked viewpoint for Norwich University, even during its 200th year of existence. It is suggested on the school's website that "Captain Alden Partridge (1785–1854) probably did more than any other individual to promote military education in civilian institutions in the United States prior to the Civil War."⁶³

Partridge is credited with creating the first system of education that combined civilian and military studies.⁶⁴ His aim was to produce intelligent and capable citizen-soldiers. Norwich University's historical website recognizes that

like John Milton, Alden Partridge saw the ideal education as a liberal one which prepares youth for the responsibilities of peace and war. The fundamental promise of Partridge's thinking was that education must prepare youth to discharge, in the best possible manner, the duties they owe to themselves, to their fellow-men, and to their country.⁶⁵

This was a very unique concept for its time and something that should and is leveraged against the comparative contemporary study latter in this work.

Partridge worked hard for more than 40 years to create and "promote what he called the American System of Education."⁶⁶ His initial thought was to suggest this concept to the United States Military Academy, but he faced several roadblocks. These roadblocks would ultimately lead to him establishing the program and academy at

⁶² "History of Norwich University," Norwich University, accessed July 23, 2015, <http://about.norwich.edu/legacy/history/>.

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ Ibid.

⁶⁵ Ibid.

⁶⁶ Ibid.

Norwich, Vermont, in 1819. The Vermont academic and military establishment would eventually become the “model for several private military academies and colleges founded by Partridge, at locations throughout the United States.”⁶⁷

Partridge’s primary goal was to strengthen the United States military and defense posture by creating better educated military men. The Norwich University website explains:

In organizing his plan of education, Partridge was guided in part by the U.S. Constitution. The defense of the nation is vested in the great mass of citizens who form an impregnable bunker around the Constitution and liberties of the country. The militia had to be trained in at least the elements of military science and tactics. Hence arises the necessity—of an extended system of military education and of a general diffusion of military knowledge. Partridge was emphatic in pointing out that he was not recommending a system of education for youth that was purely military. The military was to be only an appendage to civil education.⁶⁸

Partridge saw several issues with a purely traditional civilian style education. His primary issues with the construct were that it was too limiting and the curriculum was not geared towards preparing our nation with the basic competencies to be an American citizen and militiaman. The standing traditional structure of education was lacking in his eyes because it did not give focus to specifics of government or to the important sources and resources tied to “national wealth—agriculture, commerce, and manufacturers.”⁶⁹

Alden Partridge’s innovative new ideas on how military education should be conducted combined both the military sciences and training with a civil curriculum. At the time, it was the broadest and most innovative anyone had seen which won him national attention.⁷⁰ As described by the Norwich website:

It was a bold and radical response to the educational requirements of a democratic republic. Partridge sought to transform the traditional curriculum by making it more practical, scientific, and truly liberal. He expanded the classical curriculum to include modern languages and

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

history, as well as political economy and engineering. Indeed, Partridge's institution was the first in the United States to offer instruction in civil engineering. Partridge also played a pioneering role in physical education and was one of the first educators to offer instruction in agriculture.⁷¹

This proved to be an exciting time for not only those seeking a professional military career, but for our nation as well. This temporal period supported these progressive thoughts that would ultimately lead to the creation of a formal ROTC institution. It is important to note that period effects are important to the analysis of the two subjects in this paper. Certain period effects may have conditions in place that support the transformative efforts described above. Conversely, other periods of time, such as the one the DHS exists in, may not.

1. The Morrill Act of 1862

Justin Smith Morrill believed that an educated citizen who was prepared to defend the state and nation ultimately would best serve the interests of our democratic nation.⁷² Stancik describes Morrill:

His faith in public education and in other egalitarian notions was as unshakable as the granite of his native Vermont. The people of the region recognized and appreciated the man and his principles, electing and reelecting Morrill to public office between 1855 and 1898, first to the U.S. House of Representatives and then to the Senate. Indeed, Morrill had no sooner found his seat in the House in 1855 than he began to work vigorously for both vocational and military training in state-supported colleges.⁷³

Morrill introduced several bills to "provide education for the working classes."⁷⁴ None of them, however, ever gained traction or were passed into law. In 1857, he pushed for what was known as the land grant bill. This would ultimately be passed by the House of Representatives and the Senate and eventually vetoed by President Buchanan.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² William C. Stancik, "Air Force ROTC, Its Origins and Early Years," *Air University Review* (July–August 1984), accessed July 22, 2015, <http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/airchronicles/aureview/1984/jul-aug/stancik.html>.

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Ibid.

However, a few years later, while the country was deeply embedded in the Civil War, he sought to push the measure again.⁷⁵ This movement would be signed into law by President Lincoln in July of 1862. It was only two pages, but the Morrill Act was very progressive and powerful for its time, leading distinguished educator Andrew D. White to exclaim, “In all the annals of republics, there is no more significant utterance of confidence in national destiny out from the midst of national calamity.”⁷⁶

The Morrill Act would later become known as the Land Grant College Act of 1862. This directive gave guidance stating that unrestricted land be divided in blocks of 30,000 acres to be given to state governments for each U.S. senator and representative. The states would then sell these lands and use them for the “endowment, support, and maintenance of at least one agricultural and mechanical college offering military studies.”⁷⁷

The Morrill act also held historical ties to the 1787 Congress of the Confederation, more specifically with the Northwest Ordinance. This ordinance allowed for a parcel of land in the state that would be intended for education purposes. This ultimately led to the land grant programs in the 1800s (and the laid the ground for the Morrill Act of 1862).⁷⁸

The Morrill Act successfully established the foundation for student “military training.” However, this act “contained no specific provisions for a military curriculum.”⁷⁹ Colonel (Col) William Stancik, who is associated with the Air Forces Air University, notes:

Each university developed its own course of study. Following the Civil War, veterans, retired Army officers, and academic members of the faculty served as military instructors. Among land-grant schools, the number of hours invested in military class or drill varied greatly. More often than not, however, funding was inadequate, college military training was of poor quality, and the Reserve graduates, although entered in the

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

Army Register, were not awarded commissions. Among college faculty across the land, the training of Reserve officers received scant support; among students, the Officer Reserve Corps evoked little interest.⁸⁰

While the Morrill Act did not actually create or establish a universal curriculum, it did pave the path for such actions. It is these historically benchmarked steps that need to be highlighted for the preparatory debate that surrounds this paper.

2. The Preparedness Campaign and the National Defense Acts of 1916 and 1920

The ROTC witnessed additional growth and support during the World War I. In what was supposed to be known as “The War to End All Wars,” President Wilson had committed the U. S. to joining the Allies, who aimed at defeating the Central Powers.⁸¹ However, leading up to the entry into World War I, a fierce debate was taking part within the United States over “universal” military training.⁸² During this era, it was well known that

the United States had a traditional aversion to maintaining a large peacetime army, with no tradition of peacetime conscription as was common in Germany and France. Hoping to reverse this trend, both civil and military advocates sought to sell American citizens on the idea of preparedness as essential to national security.⁸³

This movement would become important as it ultimately led to not only the establishment of a strong, ever-present U.S. military force, but it aided in the creation of clear educational pathways for those aspiring a profession in the military.

Several organizations such as the American Defense League, the Army League, and the National Security League joined together against President Wilson. This was because President Wilson at the time strongly insisted that the National Guard alone was

⁸⁰ Ibid.

⁸¹ Mitchell Yokelson, “They Answered the Call: Military Service in the United States Army during World War I, 1917–1919,” accessed July 30, 2015, <http://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/1998/fall/military-service-in-world-war-one.html>.

⁸² Mitchell Yokelson, “1914–1918 Pre-war Planning,” *International Encyclopedia of the First World War*, accessed July 30, 2015, http://encyclopedia.1914-1918-online.net/article/pre-war_military_planning_usa.

⁸³ Ibid.

an adequate reserve force.⁸⁴ Furthermore, the United States was not prepared to enter into a major conflict. As Yokelson describes:

The manpower and supplies needed to field an expeditionary force were at their lowest numbers since the Civil War. Fresh from chasing Pancho Villa during the Punitive Expedition in Mexico, the strength of the United States Army in April 1917 was about 200,000, 80,000 of whom served in National Guard units. Even though the National Defense Act of 1916 provided for the gradual expansion of the regular army and reserves, the United States was forced to build an army based on volunteer enlistments and the draft.⁸⁵

The call to answer this manpower shortage came several years before the Defense Acts of 1916 and 1920. One of the first formal attempts to prepare American men for wartime service came in 1913. Army General Leonard Wood formed two experimental military training camps/facilities for university students to attend during their summer vacations. One was in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, and the other in Monterey, California.⁸⁶

In 1915, the successful program expanded from two camps to four and gained even greater momentum when the Germans sank the *Lusitania* in the spring of 1915. It was becoming evident that

now more than ever Americans recognized the possibility that the United States might be drawn into the Great War. In New York, citizens sought and received government support to set up a military training camp that was modeled after the ones organized for college students.⁸⁷

In August of 1915, the first camp of this kind was created in Plattsburg, Missouri and 1,200 individuals enrolled.⁸⁸ It was known at that time as the Plattsburgh Idea, and it saw such success that over the next two years, civil-military camps were created throughout the country.⁸⁹ As Yokelson narrates, this new construct drew

⁸⁴ Ibid.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

hundreds of distinguished public and private leaders attended the camps, including the mayor of New York City, John Purroy Mitchel (1879–1918), as well as two of Theodore Roosevelt’s sons, Quentin Roosevelt (1897–1918) and Theodore Roosevelt Jr. (1887–1944). Julius Ochs Adler (1892–1955), general manager of the *New York Times* and nephew of Adolph Ochs (1858–1935), the newspaper’s publisher, also attended.⁹⁰

The Plattsburgh Idea continued to grow and even led to the creation of a new professional organization, the Military Training Camp Association (MTCA). The organization was led by New York attorney Grenville Clark and coordinated many of the camps’ administrative duties as well as lobbied Congress over military reform, especially since the concept of universal military training was new and needed great backing.⁹¹ In 1917, a war with Germany seemed imminent and the MTCA took on the charge of

supplying officers to train and command the volunteer forces that it expected to fight the war. The MTCA and the War Department carried on a nationwide recruiting campaign, and by late August 1917, 341 candidates had graduated from the first series of training camps.⁹²

3. The National Defense Act of 1916

The preparedness campaign resulted in the creation and signing of the National Defense Act of 1916. Not being sure if diplomatic channels would be able to halt Germans U-boat attacks against passenger/merchant ships, President Wilson approached the question of military preparedness cautiously. Yokelson explains:

The escalating diplomatic exchanges between Wilson and the German government influenced the preparedness debate by alerting Americans that war between the two countries was now a real possibility. Wilson’s Secretary of War, made preparedness a top priority. He had outlined his ideas in a report on readiness: *Statement of a Proper Military Policy for the United States* (1915).⁹³

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Ibid.

⁹² Ibid.

⁹³ Ibid.

The secretary suggested that he wanted to more than double the regular Army and increase federal support for the National Guard. Additionally, the secretary desired to create a new four million-man volunteer force to be called the Continental Army.⁹⁴

There was also a provision aimed to establish the Reserve Officer Training Corps. Interestingly enough, one of the primary advocates was from a delegation hailing from Ohio and included William Thompson, President of Ohio State University. In February of 1916, a graduate of Ohio State and engineer, Ralph D. Mershon, testified before a congressional committee. He was there to promote a Reserve Engineers Corps, and he argued the following to show support for the “Ohio Plan.” Mershon noted:⁹⁵

the transformation that will take place in one term of drill in a man just off the farm and very clumsy when he enters college, and who at the end of a term is “set up,” carries himself well, looks neat in his uniform, and has acquired a measure of self-respect, and the respect of his colleagues, to an extent he would not have had without the military training.⁹⁶

Congress agreed, and the ROTC provision, lobbied so fiercely by that delegation from Ohio, was included in the final version of the law. Hence, the ROTC was officially born, establishing a nearly 100-year DOD platform for the production of military officers.

4. Revitalization Act of 1964

The ROTC would not see its next surge of political involvement for several decades. It seems as though our nation being thrust into conflict was and is a necessary stimulator for a program such as the ROTC to be thrust to the forefront of political discourse. Thus, it was in the 1960s, when the United States was facing growing involvement in Vietnam, that the ROTC once again underwent transformation to better meet the nation’s wartime needs.

In this new conflict, the military needed a more effective and efficient solution to provide the professional officers that the ROTC was already known to provide. This so

⁹⁴ Ibid.

⁹⁵ *Wikipedia*, s.v., “National Defense Act of 1916,” accessed August 30, 2015, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NationalDefenseActof1916>.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

called revitalization act was purely designed not only to incentivize the already popular leadership program but also to enrich its development platform. Subsequently, it was in October of 1964 that President Johnson made official the ROTC Act, more commonly known as the “ROTC Revitalization Act.”⁹⁷

This act was designed to not only increase the opportunity of ROTC campus activities but also to offer opportunities for greater participation in the ROTC program to students with the hopes of seeing an increased recruitment rate. The act also created an advanced course (two years long) for junior college students transferring to a four-year school. Furthermore, those students that could not participate in the ROTC Basic Course would now have that opportunity under this new act. The two-year program began with a month and a half long basic training type camp to prepare participating students for follow on preparatory courses. The hope was to accomplish in two years what the four-year program did before. This proved to work very well and the ROTC did indeed see an increase in its recruitment with this new initiative.⁹⁸

The other provisions created from this act included several monetary incentives, such as increasing the amount of ROTC scholarships given by each military branch annually. Additionally, the monthly subsistence pay given to cadets would increase to be offered to advanced course cadets as along with the establishment of a stipend for clothing to newly commissioned second lieutenants when they became active duty. Finally, and also very noteworthy, are the aggressive recruitment efforts established under this provision that established the Junior ROTC program in secondary schools.⁹⁹

The Revitalization Act generated the creation of an additional recruitment and leadership tool known as Junior ROTC (JRTOC). This institution created an opportunity for primary school children to sample what a military life might be like and what it means to serve ones country. It would be supported by retired military service men and women

⁹⁷ “History of WKU ROTC,” Western Kentucky University, accessed August 28, 2015, <http://www.wku.edu/rotc/history.php>.

⁹⁸ Ibid.

⁹⁹ Ibid.

who were charged with instilling young students with the core values of citizenship, service to the U. S., a concept of personal responsibility, and sense of accomplishment.¹⁰⁰

Table 1. JROTC Objectives

Box 9.1 OBJECTIVES OF JROTC PROGRAMS
Awareness of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
Preparation to be good leaders; willingness to show initiative and take charge.
Ability to think logically and communicate effectively with others, orally and in writing.
Commitment to improving physical fitness. Commitment to living drug free.
Improved self-discipline and positive self-motivation
Awareness of the problem solving/decision making process for resolving issues.
Preparation for successful living upon graduation from high school.

Source: Greenberg, *American Volunteer Police*, 241.

There are now more than 2,400 JROTC programs available nationwide and the program continues to see several noted success such as the following objectives deliverables noted within the curriculum.

5. Modernization of ROTC

Today, the ROTC still finds itself on the forefront of military officer recruitment efforts and leadership training. Our nation has found itself imbedded in a completely new and unique conflict, the global war on terrorism (with the most recent campaigns of Operation Iraqi Freedom and Operation Enduring Freedom). The need for the ROTC has never been greater. This can simply be seen from the numbers' balance that each unique recruitment and training pipeline provides. For example, as Wiedemann describes:

¹⁰⁰Martin Greenberg, *American Volunteer Police: Mobilizing Security* (Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, 2015), 240.

The Army gets its Officer Corps from four different sources. The United States Military Academy at West Point produces between 900 and 1,000 new Lieutenants each year. Nearly 100% of these Lieutenants goes on active duty. ROTC accounts for 75% of all new commissions into the Army each year. The Army Reserve Officer Training Corps commissions approximately 3,900 new Lieutenants each year. Approximately 2,900 of these Lieutenants go on active duty and the remainder goes into the Army Reserve or Army National Guard.¹⁰¹

Furthermore, the DOD is corporately conscious enough to recognize that the GWOT is forcing its fighting men and women to transform at an extraordinary pace. This transformation stems from not only the new terrorist threat the military is facing but also from austere fiscal times. This new challenge set very well could create the most extraordinary doctrinal changes and organizational revisions the DOD has ever experienced and in a compressed amount of time.¹⁰² Lieutenant Colonel (Lt Col) Eric Wiedemann suggests, “The emerging junior leaders of the future force will require a different set of skills and attributes than their contemporaries from the Cold War period.”¹⁰³

DOD Modernization efforts are currently underway and include a complete revamping of how our nation’s officers are trained. Where versions of past ROTC training focused on numbers and a basic training of skills, the modern day ROTC now seeks a well-balanced and mentally-adept young leader. Take for example the Cold War in which the focus was on training and developing leaders to fight the Soviets in Europe in what could have been potentially an all-out nuclear exchange. The prominent focus for preparation of military leaders of the time was on planning for a potentially large-scale conflict against an adversary that was somewhat conventional.¹⁰⁴ Much time was spent on developing canned operations plans for our advisory’s strategies and preparing to counteract their doctrine. Looking back then:

¹⁰¹ Eric Wiedemann, *The United State Army Reserve Officer’s Training Corps: Providing the Right Leader for the Transforming Force* (Carlisle Barracks, PA: U. S. Army War College, 2005), accessed on August 28 2015, <http://www.hsdl.org/?view&did=459069>.

¹⁰² Ibid.

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid.

battle lines were more clearly defined and it was easy to identify the enemy. Our future leaders at all levels are going to need a very broad range of intellectual skills and abilities if they are going to function effectively in an increasingly volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous environment.¹⁰⁵

Furthermore, under this call for modernization there has been a newfound interest in how ROTC students prepare for their professional careers academically. Senior leaders are calling for the services to broaden officer education “starting with ROTC and service academies, although any radical reform is probably impractical at present. However, one modest proposal is worth considering.”¹⁰⁶ For breadth and depth enhancement purposes, military leaders now suggest in their junior year, cadets spend two semesters at a civilian university or other service academy. The only possible road block to a proposal like this may be the interference with something such as college athletics; however, this would be rather insignificant when considering giving individuals a chance to gain true joint experience among the sister services.¹⁰⁷ Such academic fields and capabilities as “foreign language proficiency, multicultural curricula, rigorous historical study, specialty training in understanding technological change, and increased emphasis on research and writing” would give officers the ability to learn and think critically, as well as meet several of the new proposed tenants listed above.¹⁰⁸

C. HISTORICAL CASE SUMMARY

The primary research question asks what conditions and components of the Department of Defense’s officer preparatory program (ROTC) have allowed it not only to exist and function for nearly 100 years but flourish. The research shows that the call for a program such as the ROTC came from public service minded U.S. civilians. It was those civilians who recognized the need to create better educated citizen soldiers for the conflicts the U.S. would face. Their efforts created the opportunity for the U.S. DOD to

¹⁰⁵ Ibid.

¹⁰⁶ Richard H. Kohn, *An Officer Corps for the Next Century* (ADA408689) (Washington, DC: National Defense University, 1998), accessed August 28 2015, <http://oai.dtic.mil/oai/oai?verb=getRecord&metadataPrefix=html&identifier=ADA408689>.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

establish a consistent and funded education-leadership pipeline that now supplies the DOD with nearly 60 percent of its officer ranks.

The secondary questions ask, what was the transformative process that took place during the reorganization of the U.S. Air Force during its inception phase, specifically with the personnel system? When the USAF became its own entity in the mid-1940s, it experienced several organizational growing pains. None of these issues were more substantial perhaps than the realization from senior USAF leaders that they lacked a training structure that would not only better train their new collection of personnel/job specialties but also that they were failing to recruit and retain those new non-pilot positions. The answer came in the form of the Air Force ROTC (AFROTC), which ultimately allowed for the tailoring of undergraduate leadership activities to shape the kind of officer that administrators of the department had in mind. Furthermore, it also allowed the AF and DOD to increase their post-WWII recruiting and retention posture.

Third, what conditions were in place that gave rise to the ROTC nearly 100 years ago as well as its distinct transformational periods? Each temporal period was driven by some sort of conflict or looming conflict. There was a need for manpower and the post-conflict analysis led the leadership to realize it needed a better trained, better educated citizen soldiers. This need and analysis cycle continued all the way through the modernization period. It was because of this that the ROTC was able to bolster its efforts and adjust focus to meet its modern day needs.

Finally, what characteristics, attributes, and conditions can we derive from the ROTC model that can be applied to the DHS and its current educational/preparatory debate? The previous historical case study and summary is the outline for a process mapping comparison against the DHS in the following chapter. It focuses on the conditions in place highlighted for the DOD-Air Force case study above and attempt to draw an association between the two case studies at hand.

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IV. COMPARATIVE HISTORICAL ANALYSIS

A comparative historical analysis is an attempt to look at two dissimilar studies happening in separate times through the lens of social science based framework. This framework breaks down the two studies independently, focusing on and highlighting the mechanisms pertinent to each individual event. The two studies in this case are first, the creation of the DOD ROTC program plus the inception of the USAF, and second, the creation of the DHS plus its current state recruiting and retention issues. Once specific temporal, political, environmental, et cetera mechanisms for both have been outlined, the goal is to analyze the two against each other. Ultimately, discovering similarities between the two could perhaps result in the call for a similar analog/solution as the time-tested case (the DOD/ROTC), or it could result in findings that yield no substantial parallel between the two studies. The first step in executing this analysis comes from examining the historical path the DOD ROTC program traveled coupled with the departmental reorganization the USAF faced under the National Security Act. The second step examines the creation of the DHS coupled with some of the current issues the department is facing. The third and final step is to cross examine the DOD and DHS narratives with the hope of tying parallel mechanistic relationships between the two.

A. THE DHS FORMATION AND PERSONNEL SYSTEM NEED

The Department of Homeland Security was conceived and created from the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001. These attacks highlighted America's vulnerability not only to terrorism but also to other potential large-scale/high-impact events. Bringing together several offices and agencies, the DHS was initiated by President George W. Bush and became its own entity in 2003. Many of those agencies were earlier parts of other organizations while some were completely new formations for this venture.

Those agencies include the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), U.S. Secret Service (USSS), U.S. Coast Guard (USCG), Immigration and Naturalization

Service (INS), as well as the newest entity, the Transportation Security Administration (TSA).¹⁰⁹ So it would be as Knight notes:

these and many other bureaus would be placed under, or work in tandem with, one of the five DHS directorates—Border and Transportation Security, Emergency Preparedness and Response, Science and Technology, Information Analysis and Infrastructure Protection, and Management—to fulfill the greater DHS mission of preventing, mitigating, and protecting against terrorism on U.S. soil.¹¹⁰

B. CIVIL DEFENSE AND HOMELAND SECURITY

Prior to September 11, 2001, the U.S. participated in a mission we now refer to as homeland security. That mission consists of a geographically broader perspective and focuses on a very different adversary. At the time, the predecessor to homeland security was known as civil defense.¹¹¹ Knight extrapolates on the civil defense concept:

The civil defense concept had its origins in World War II, when Americans organized local groups to prepare for and protect against the threat of Axis attack on American shores. This concept carried over into the Cold War, with a few changes; the enemy was now the Soviet Union, and the threat had the dimensions of nuclear annihilation.¹¹²

This aspect of the DHS historical transformation shows a very similar temporal path that the U.S. Air Force faced during its organizational conversion. This sets up the mechanistic and temporal similarities that will be important if a plausible comparison between the two is to be fashioned at the end of this thesis.

Our American leadership of the 1960s realized a different threat and therefore planned defense support in a completely different manner. Cold War civil defense efforts included American families building bomb shelters and grade school children practicing to duck and cover under the so called safety of their school desks, supposedly to protect them in the event of a nuclear attack. The threat only persisted and led to further Cold

¹⁰⁹ Judson Knight, "United States Homeland Security Department, *Encyclopedia*, 2004, accessed August 31, 2015, http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/United_States_Department_of_Homeland_Security.aspx.

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² Ibid.

War hardening with the Cuban Missile Crisis that brought in a completely new era of U.S. versus Soviet confrontation issues, and hence our homeland defense posture was upheld in a completely different manner.¹¹³

As the Cold War drew to an end, the U.S. did not get the opportunity to usher in an era of peace; instead, it only faced new and emerging threats. Americans realized:

the enemy was no longer the Soviet Union, a superpower with fairly predictable aims not entirely different from those of the United States. Instead, America faced terrorists whose motives were based upon political and religious zealotry with little regard for international laws, and were therefore more difficult to predict.¹¹⁴

These threats have manifested as the terrorist conflict-driven reality we now understand today and have perhaps culminated with the twenty-first century security environment we now face because of the acts witnessed on September 11, 2001.¹¹⁵

On October 8, 2001, just a few weeks after the attacks, “President Bush issued Executive Order (E. O). 13228 creating the Office of Homeland Security, along with the Homeland Security Council (whose members included the president, vice president, and several cabinet-level officials) as an advisory board.”¹¹⁶ The order also created a new administrative title and that leader would be called the assistant to the president for homeland security. This title aligned with the importance of the official title of the national security advisor. This in due course truly highlighted the importance of the homeland security chief.¹¹⁷

President Bush’s initial proposal for the creation of the DHS spoke to the fact that there were nearly 100 government agencies involved in emergency response at the time. The DHS would be forced to try somehow to trim as well as streamline those activities.

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

Before that could be done though, leaders realized that some significant restructuring of the organizational structure would have to occur.¹¹⁸

The president initially requested nearly \$40 billion from Congress, and many experts suggested that to pull off the feat of its establishment and mission, the new department would need all of the capital suggested. The formation of the DHS was one of the most landmark changes in the government since the execution of the National Security Act of 1947, which created the USAF.¹¹⁹ Again, the mechanistic similarities noted between the two primary subjects of this study are important for drawing a comparative need for a parallel educational framework.

The DHS aimed to incorporate 22 agencies from nine different departments (Departments of Commerce, Agriculture, Defense, Health and Human Services, Energy, Justice, State, Transportation, and Treasury) and two additional offices (FEMA and the General Services Administration).¹²⁰ With this proposed transformation, the new conglomerate was scheduled to increase to 170,000 government employees, “ranging from the men and women of the Coast Guard and Secret Service, to plant and animal health inspectors and computer security specialists.”¹²¹

C. DHS FRAMEWORK

The DHS mission was also formed out of this process and is equally important to note for the theme of staffing and training for this work. Those mission sets are comprised of preventing terrorist attacks within the United States, improving America’s defensive posture against terrorism and to reduce threat potentials from offensive attacks and natural disasters.¹²²

The DHS works through its five directorates in order to accomplish these missions. Several new offices were established to aid the DHS with its goals; however,

¹¹⁸ Ibid.

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Ibid.

several of the supporting establishments derived from existing agencies and are listed in the Table 2.¹²³

Table 2. Supporting Establishments

Agriculture: Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service; Plum Island Animal Disease Center.
Commerce: Computer Security Division of the National Institute of Standards and Technology; Critical Infrastructure Assurance Office; National Hazard Information Strategy of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration.
Defense: National Bio-Weapons Defense Center; National Communications System.
Energy: Environmental Measurements Laboratory; Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory; National Infrastructure Simulation and Analysis Center; National Nuclear Security Administration; Nuclear Incident Response; Oak Ridge National Laboratory; Office of Biological and Environmental Research; Office of Energy Assurance; Office of Security.
Health and Human Services: National Pharmaceutical Stockpile Program; National Disaster Medical System/Office of Emergency Preparedness;
Justice: Domestic Emergency Support Team; Executive Office for Immigration Review; INS; National Infrastructure Protection Center (except for the Computer Investigations and Operations Section, which would remain with the Federal Bureau of Investigation); National Domestic Preparedness Office; and Office of Domestic Preparedness.
Transportation: USCG; TSA.
Treasury: Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC); USSS; Customs.

Additionally, DHS incorporated FEMA in its ranks, along with two General Services Administration (GSA) offices, the Computer Incident Response Center, and the Office of Federal Protective Service.¹²⁴

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

D. THE OFFICE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

The DHS, like most other federal entities, sees most of its hiring come from the Office of Personnel Management (OPM). This agency's mission is "recruiting, retaining and honoring a world-class force to serve the American people."¹²⁵ The OPM main webpage lays out its fundamental tasks as it pertains to not only working in coordination with the DHS, but all other federal agencies as well. It states:

Through our initiatives, programs, and materials, we seek to recruit and hire the best talent; to train and motivate employees to achieve their greatest potential; and to constantly promote an inclusive work force defined by diverse perspectives. OPM provides human resources, leadership, and support to Federal agencies and helps the Federal workforce achieve their aspirations as they serve the American people. We're responsible for keeping the government running smoothly—a responsibility that has daily consequences for every citizen.

We have set our sights on making the U.S. Federal Service America's model employer for the 21st century, with the following clear and measurable objectives:

- Make searching and applying for Federal jobs easier and faster;
- Provide Federal employees benefits that are relevant, flexible, fair, and rewarding;
- Make Federal employment accessible—and possible—for every American who seeks it; and
- Retain a Federal workforce as diverse and versatile as the work it does and the people it serves.¹²⁶

E. DHS RECRUITING, RETENTION, AND TRAINING ISSUES

Several significant conversations are currently underway regarding the DHS, its recruiting and retention stance and connected training concerns. The department as a whole is suffering from not only the inability to attract emerging talent, but also it is

¹²⁵ "Post-reform Gains, Losses, and Constant Change, 1979–Present," Office of Personnel Management, accessed September 1, 2015, <http://archive.opm.gov/BiographyofAnIdeal/SubMain1979-present.asp>.

¹²⁶ "Our Mission, Role and History: What We Do, Office of Personnel Management, accessed September 1, 2015, <https://www.opm.gov/about-us/our-mission-role-history/what-we-do/>.

weighed down by a cumbersome process that is barely allowing the DHS to fill its most mission critical billets.

One of those mission critical billets is the cyber security professional. It is a mission the DHS sees important because cyberspace and the infrastructure that supports it is vulnerable to a several different types of risks. High-level cyber actors and nation-states attempt daily to uncover our vulnerabilities steal intelligence and money, and they are coming up with new schemes to “disrupt, destroy, or threaten the delivery of essential services.”¹²⁷

The DHS is now seeing several traditional crimes being committed through the Internet. This includes everything from the production and distribution of child pornography, to banking fraud, intellectual property exploitations, and other crimes. All of these could have dramatic human, national security, and economic consequences.¹²⁸

The DHS primary website suggests that this mission and those that operate in this mission space are so important because:

Cyberspace is particularly difficult to secure due to a number of factors: the ability of malicious actors to operate from anywhere in the world, the linkages between cyberspace and physical systems, and the difficulty of reducing vulnerabilities and consequences in complex cyber networks. Of growing concern is the cyber threat to critical infrastructure, which is increasingly subject to sophisticated cyber intrusions that pose new risks. As information technology becomes increasingly integrated with physical infrastructure operations, there is increased risk for wide scale or high-consequence events that could cause harm or disrupt services upon which our economy and the daily lives of millions of Americans depend.¹²⁹

Outlined above is just one aspect of this critical mission set. The following expands on other troublesome issues the DHS is facing specifically the hiring aspect of the department. One business and financing news source states:

¹²⁷ “Cyber Security Overview,” Department of Homeland Security, accessed September 3, 2015, <http://www.dhs.gov/cybersecurity-overview>.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

¹²⁹ Ibid.

“Navigating the federal hiring system takes many months, which is too long in the fast-paced tech world. Even when somebody is patriotic and wants to do their duty for the nation, if they’re really good they’re not going to wait six months to get hired,” said Mark Weatherford, the former cyber chief at DHS.¹³⁰

Additionally, several national security leaks, coupled with cybercrime activities on the rise, the department is now looking to the private sector and other federal agencies for examples of how to better hire and retain talent. There is a new call and need to “secure federal networks and contain threats to American businesses and utilities.”¹³¹

Phyllis Schneck, who is the former chief technology officer at security software company McAfee Inc., recently asked a U.S. Senate committee for help, as noted in a Reuters’ article:

“The hiring process is very, very difficult,” she said. Cyber experts can command higher salaries—in some cases up to six figures more—at private companies, Schneck said, but national security offers a “higher calling” and valuable experience. “People say the good talent doesn’t come because we can’t pay them,” she said. “We could actually use our mission to outdo some of those salaries they’re offered. But we have to have the flexibility and some additional competitiveness to bring them inside.”¹³²

Furthermore, it seems the department has shown a lack of creativity when attempting to identify and recruit emerging talent in this unique and important field. This stems from the fact that the DHS, as most federal entities do, is held to strict hiring standards (both professional competencies and even appearance). It has been suggested that the DHS is playing catch-up with the DOD, which has a larger and more established cyber security operation.¹³³ Chiacu observes:

Not only does DHS lack the enhanced hiring powers of its military counterpart and the agility private company’s offer, but the rigid

¹³⁰ Doina Chiacu, “Homeland Security Struggles to Temp, Retain Cyber Talent,” Reuters, April 26, 2014, accessed September 3, 2015, <http://www.reuters.com/article/2014/04/26/us-usa-cybersecurity-dhs-idUSBREA3P05O20140426>.

¹³¹ Ibid.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Ibid.

bureaucracy of the 240,000-employee agency can foster an inside-the-box culture. There's a lot of really smart, scary cybersecurity professionals out there who also happen to have pink hair and tattoos.¹³⁴

So while this pool of "smart, scary cyber security" experts exists, they are not found at the DHS because not only is there a lack of hiring creativity formerly mentioned, but the department is also reluctant to hiring cyber experts without a college degree.¹³⁵ It is well known in this profession that "some of the smartest and most talented people I know in this business don't have a degree."¹³⁶ The DHS Secretary Jeh Johnson has vowed to make retention and recruiting a focus of his, specifically looking at "new hiring and pay flexibility to recruit cybersecurity talent" as a legislative goal.¹³⁷

Additional discord on the DHS recruiting, hiring, and retention front can also be witnessed from several adjacent talent recruiting companies that are attempting to fill hiring void. These companies are gaining a great following from individuals trying to gain access to a federal career. Many of these efforts are aimed primarily at young college students and recent graduates. While there is some opportunity for recent graduates, such as those from the Federal Career Intern Program and the Pathways program, there is still a large pool of untapped recent graduate talent. One of these talent agencies notes:

Borrowing from the political ads refrain, there's got to be another way. If the federal government could provide more challenging opportunities to recent graduates and other young professionals, they might not only tap into a valuable talent pool of 18 to 24 year olds, but they also might keep them for decades. Nearly one in five of these young people is currently and perhaps unnecessarily facing real unemployment¹³⁸

Furthermore, a survey conducted by the Young Government Leaders (YGL) among its nearly 2,000 members asked what effective recruiting programs should look

¹³⁴ Ibid.

¹³⁵ Ibid.

¹³⁶ Ibid.

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ Lynn Martin et al., "Charting Clearer Pathways into Public Service," September 15, 2011, Association for Talent Development, accessed September 3, 2015, <https://www.td.org/Publications/Magazines/The-Public-Manager/Archives/2011/Fall/Charting-Clearer-Pathways-Into-Public-Service>.

like. YGL surveyed 380 recent grads of the recruiting programs used by the federal government. The following characteristics of those grads were captured and listed in *The Public Manager*:

- average age is 30
- more than 80 percent had participated in a federal internship or fellowship program
- 70 percent believed their internship was effective or very effective
- 98 percent had at least a bachelor's degree
- 60 percent had a master's degree or higher
- 74 percent currently work at federal grades nine through 13.¹³⁹

These results suggest that to recruit the best talent, according to current young leaders in the federal government, that location and timing are important. An article on the Association for Talent Development website also points out, "hiring managers should be active on campus prior to graduation so that they can effectively reach graduates."¹⁴⁰ Additionally, the survey aimed to answer three particular questions focusing on three key competencies: recruitment, retention, and development:¹⁴¹

1. How do you recruit the best talent?
2. How do you retain them?
3. How do you develop them once they are hired?¹⁴²

The survey group also notes that a placement programs success lays heavily on the value of those taking part in it. A question YGL asked its associates was, "*Which of the following are the best modes for recruiting the best talent?*" The YGL report lists these responses as coming from the following sources:¹⁴³

- University job fairs, 83 percent
- University career counselors, 60 percent

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid.

¹⁴¹ Ibid.

¹⁴² Ibid.

¹⁴³ Ibid.

- Student ambassadors (through presentations and meetings), 57 percent.¹⁴⁴

These results suggest that concerning the need to recruit quality emerging talent, location, and timing are important. It further highlights the fact that hiring

managers should be active on campus prior to graduation so that they can effectively reach graduates. It is important that the Office of Personnel Management allows individual agencies and managers the latitude to recruit directly from these sources of qualified talent.¹⁴⁵

Finally, “knowing where and when to recruit is only part of the puzzle.”¹⁴⁶ As the Association for Talent Development website notes:

To create the best pipeline of talented employees to serve the United States, it is important to identify the best candidates to recruit. To that end, we asked our survey respondents, *What level of education should be included in the recent grads program?* The vast majority of respondents thought that bachelors (91 percent) and masters (84 percent) degree holders should be included.¹⁴⁷

Signs from the DHS administration, professional staffing agencies, and even professional student body survey groups point to the need to capitalize on collegiate-level talent. The DHS appears to be struggling to take advantage of this sharp, motivated work force and is also missing the retention aspect of hiring from this group. The following finally draws comparison between the two organizations (AFROTC and DHS). The aim is to show that not only does the DHS face similar needs as the Air Force did during its organizational formation but also to show that temporally, the two experienced similar trials and threats.

F. PROCESS TRACING AND THE MECHANISTIC COMPARISON OF THE TWO PRIMARY WITHIN-CASE CAUSAL NARRATIVES

The key element of the historical comparison lies within the art of process tracing between the two cases presented as well as identifying mechanistic comparisons. The end result either shows a correlation between the two—ultimately resulting in the call for a

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.

similar analog—or the lack of comparison that would leave the historical case to stand alone. The first item to examine is that of the temporal (or time and circumstantial) processes between the two cases. One common theme found in the ROTC and reorganizational efforts of the DOD was need and climate specific attributes forcing that need.

Dating as far back as the early 1800s, Captain Alden Partridge began the quest to create a formal military educational institution and pipeline for our nation’s armed forces. Partridge was credited with creating the first system of education that combined civilian and military studies. His aim was to produce intelligent and “useful citizen-soldiers.”¹⁴⁸ According to the Norwich University website:

John Milton, Alden Partridge saw the ideal education as a liberal one which prepares youth for the responsibilities of peace and war. The fundamental promise of Partridge’s thinking was that education must prepare youth to discharge, in the best possible manner, the duties they owe to themselves, to their fellow-men, and to their country.¹⁴⁹

Furthermore, his military academy at Norwich would ultimately become the prototypical example for other private military institutions and colleges through locations around the United States.¹⁵⁰

The need for a formalized preparatory program did not lose momentum and with a further push, the Morrill Act came to be. This ordinance involved the allocation of land to states for education purposes and would eventually lead to the land-grant programs of the nineteenth century (and the laid the path for the Morrill act of 1862).¹⁵¹ Most notably though is that the Morrill Act, later known as Land Grant College Act of 1862, successfully established the foundation for student “military training” from the proposed funding stream.¹⁵² This law decreed that public land be given in 30,000-acres blocks. The states used funds from the sale of these lands for the “endowment, support, and

¹⁴⁸ “History of Norwich University,” Norwich University.

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

¹⁵¹ Stancik, “Air Force ROTC, Its Origins and Early Years.”

¹⁵² Ibid.

maintenance of at least one agricultural and mechanical college offering military studies.”¹⁵³

The eve of World War II furthered the United States’ efforts in the form of the National Defense Act of 1916 and the movement known as the preparedness campaign. The U.S. knew it was not prepared to enter into a major conflict and acted accordingly. As Yokelson explains:

The manpower and supplies needed to field an expeditionary force were at their lowest numbers since the Civil War. Even though the National Defense Act of 1916 provided for the gradual expansion of the regular army and reserves, the United States was forced to build an army based on volunteer enlistments and the draft.¹⁵⁴

Finally, the 1960s brought in a new conflict, and the United States faced a growing involvement in Vietnam. The ROTC once again saw a transformation to better meet the nation’s arm of war needs. Under this new conflict, the military needed a more effective and efficient solution. This revitalization act was purely designed not only to incentivize this already popular leadership program but also to enrich its development platform. It was in October of 1964 that the president signed the ROTC Act of 1964 (more commonly known as the ROTC Revitalization Act).¹⁵⁵ This act created more ROTC opportunities on campus and a greater level of involvement for the ROTC students, specifically in the cadet program, which was all aimed to increase the recruitment rate.¹⁵⁶

The need for recruitment is still present and the DODs premier officer production pipeline continues to evolve out of need. After the Cold War, the ROTC has entered into a modernization era that now aims to better equip emerging officers for a world that is consumed with rapidly changing technology, globalization, and the fact that many of our nations fighting forces “confront tactical decisions that may have dramatic operational

¹⁵³ Ibid.

¹⁵⁴ Yokelson, “1914–1918 Pre-war Planning.”

¹⁵⁵ “History of WKU ROTC” Western Kentucky University.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

and strategic implications.”¹⁵⁷ The new focus of training is very similar to that of some of our nation’s premier business and leadership schools and parallels Blooms taxonomy of learning domains.

The DHS was born out of a similar construct, created after September 11, resulting in a wartime engagement. It has been widely documented that the department has suffered tremendously with unity of effort issues since its creation. The DHS has attempted to transform itself into a cohesive agency since its creation in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks.¹⁵⁸

Mechanistic comparisons must also be made, specifically focusing on recruiting, hiring, and retention issues of the DHS. As mentioned in the introduction, the DHS finds itself grappling with mission creep on everything from Secret Service scandals to evolving terrorist threats, and it is now faced with extensive job dissatisfaction within the department as per several employee survey results.¹⁵⁹

Additionally, the DHS and its human resource system is struggling to recruit hire and retain quality individuals that fill mission critical billets. According to Chiacu:

Navigating the federal hiring system takes many months, which is too long in the fast-paced tech world. Even when somebody is patriotic and wants to do their duty for the nation, if they’re really good they’re not going to wait six months to get hired.¹⁶⁰

Looking back at the survey results gathered from the YGL, it is important to highlight that if the need to recruit quality, emerging talent that location and timing are important:

managers should be active on campus prior to graduation so that they can effectively reach graduates. It is important that the Office of Personnel

¹⁵⁷ Wiedemann, *The United State Army Reserve Officer’s Training Corps*.

¹⁵⁸ “Watchdog Calls for Reform to Improve Homeland Security,” *Homeland Security Today*, March 2, 2015, accessed April 24, 2015, <http://www.hstoday.us/single-article/watchdog-calls-for-dhs-reform-to-improve-homeland-security/2a88f664ecb42b9e6175907ff8b595b5.html>.

¹⁵⁹ Jerry Markon, “DHS Morale Sinks Further Despite New Leadership at the Top, Survey Shows,” *The Washington Post*, October 10, 2014, <http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/federal-eye/wp/2014/10/10/dhs-morale-problems-grow-worse-during-secretary-johnsons-brief-tenure/>.

¹⁶⁰ Chiacu, “Homeland Security Struggles to Temp, Retain Cyber Talent.”

Management allows individual agencies and managers the latitude to recruit directly from these sources of qualified talent.¹⁶¹

This openly spells out the need for some sort of system to not only recruit emerging talent but also better define a unified training pipeline. The historical precedent set by the ROTC and its nearly 100-year run should be studied as it answers a great deal of the needs highlight within the DHS hiring issues. An additional study done by Purdue University should hopefully amplify the ROTC successes and further leverage the comparison that could be brought between the DHS and the AFROTC.

G. MODERN DAY ROTC AND SEVERAL NOTED SUCCESSES

There are several other advantages noted in programs such as ROTC that can only aid in the argument for a similar approach in homeland defense and security. ROTC is based on three primary pillars.¹⁶² First is that a student in the university system declares a primary focus of study and augments that college education with an ROTC curriculum. Second, the ROTC curriculum focuses on items necessary for officers to take a future leadership role within their respected service branch. They include leadership, conceptual operations and strategy, critical thinking, problem solving, missions, roles, and responsibilities. This second pillar is important because it addresses a common need that academics (including Pelfrey and Kelley) point out. This model also shows that the focus on an all-encompassing curriculum is unnecessary. The students declares a major, receives a minor in military studies, and it is that combination that creates the mentally equipped and capable future leaders for our nation's armed forces. The third pillar is that upon successful completion of the ROTC program, usually in accordance with receiving some proportionate college scholarship, the cadets enter into a four-year agreement to serve in the military branch of their specification.

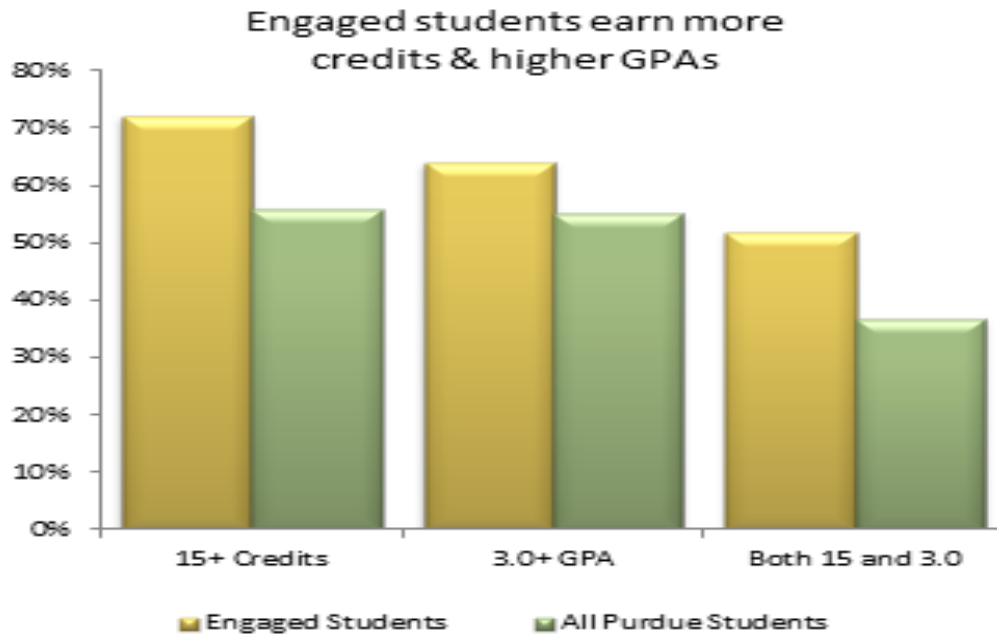
Additional key benchmarked successes for such a program are demonstrated through a study conducted by Purdue University. A review from the Office for Vice President of Student Affairs extrapolated and examined data (see Figure 1) from six

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

¹⁶² "Air Force ROTC Program Requirements Overview," accessed August 26, 2014, <https://www.afrotc.com/program-requirements>

academic semesters from fall 2008 to spring 2011. The intent was to determine which activities create the best framework for student retention and success.

Figure 1. Student GPAs



Source: Greg McClure, “Co-curricular Activities at Purdue Boost Student Retention, Success,” last modified December 6, 2011, Purdue University News Service, accessed on June 26, 2014, <http://www.purdue.edu/newsroom>.

Purdue summarized its study findings as follows:

- Engaged students earn higher GPAs and more credit hours than Purdue students overall.
 - 36.8 percent of all students earn both 15 or more credits *and* a 3.0 or higher semester GPA.
 - 51.8 percent of students in the five programs earn both 15 or more credits *and* a 3.0 or higher semester GPA.
- Engaged students perform better even when SAT scores, academic major and other factors are controlled.
- Engaged students’ average GPA exceeds the average GPA for all students at every SAT level.

- Engaged students' average GPA exceeds the average GPA for all students in every under-graduate grade classification and most colleges.¹⁶³

The report states the following and suggests that:

51.8 percent of “highly engaged” Purdue students earned 15 or more credits and a 3.0 or higher semester GPA. Among all students at Purdue, 36.8 percent earn 15 or more credits and a 3.0 or higher GPA. An additional 32.3 percent of the “engaged” students either earned 15 or more credits or achieved at least a 3.0 GPA, the report says. Only 16 percent fail to accomplish either. The “highly engaged” students are from five co-curricular programs at Purdue: aerospace studies / Air Force ROTC, military science / Army ROTC, bands and orchestras, naval science / Navy ROTC and Purdue Musical Organizations. These organizations, the report says, all require out-of-class time from students, sometimes taking up to 20 hours a week for part or all of an academic year.¹⁶⁴

This report aligns with Pelfrey and Kelly, who argue, “There is significant evidence that education is a potent and durable contributor to changing and enhancing performance in a wide range of endeavors in which excellence is sought.”¹⁶⁵ The Purdue report specifically notes that the highly engaged ROTC students excel over their peers.

H. CAUSAL NARRATIVE AND CAUSAL CHAIN ANALYSIS

The final and perhaps most important aspect of this work is to apply a comparative analysis framework to the two primary subjects. While at first glance it would seem there are indeed several parallels between the DOD, U.S. Air Force’s educational transformations and that of the DHS with its new found professional hardships, there must be a qualitative tool applied to strengthen the case for a similar analog as the ROTC for the DHS. That framework is borrowed from the social sciences and is known as causal narrative diagramming. Mathew Lange, a professor of sociology at McGill University, notes:

Indeed, narratives are able to describe complex causal chains and show how one factor leads to another while, at the same time, supporting the causal argument with evidence. Given the complexity of the narrative,

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.

¹⁶⁵ Pelfrey and Kelley, “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward.”

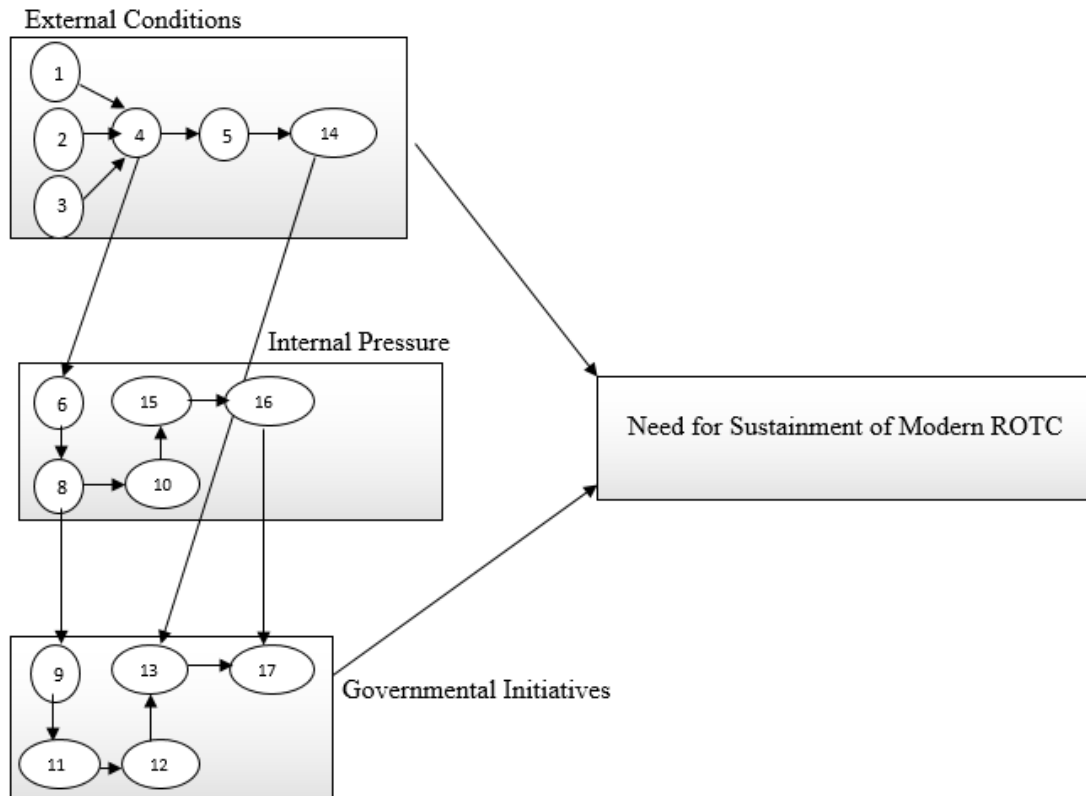
particular causal claims can be somewhat hidden or become lost in an extended narrative analysis. In such a situation, the evidence supporting the causal claims can also be difficult to identify. George and Bennett (2005) therefore recommend that researchers use diagrams to present clearly the argument of causal narratives, to make the causal claims more explicit and, thereby, allow the audience more easily to understand and assess the validity of the argument. As described previously, it also forces researchers to consider the relevance of each component of the causal narrative, thus helping to strengthen the analysis itself.¹⁶⁶

A perfect example of the application of this analytical framework can be found in one of sociologies most successful works titled *States and Social Revolutions* by Thea Skocpol. The diagramming method leveraged comes from several academics that took Skocpol's narrative and broke it down into a chain analysis which better shows mechanistic and temporal aspects of the subject studied.¹⁶⁷ That tool is utilized for this research set and is portrayed in Figure 2. The tool is a narrative/causal chain analysis showing the conditions in place that led to the creation of an independent U.S. Air Force and need for an ROTC (the arrows show causal linkages).

¹⁶⁶ Matthew Lange, *Comparative-Historical Methods*, Kindle locations 983–989.

¹⁶⁷ Thea Skocpol, *States and Social Revolutions* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1979).

Figure 2. Narrative/Causal Chain Analysis that Led to an Independent USAF and an ROTC



1. External/Internal Conditions of ROTC

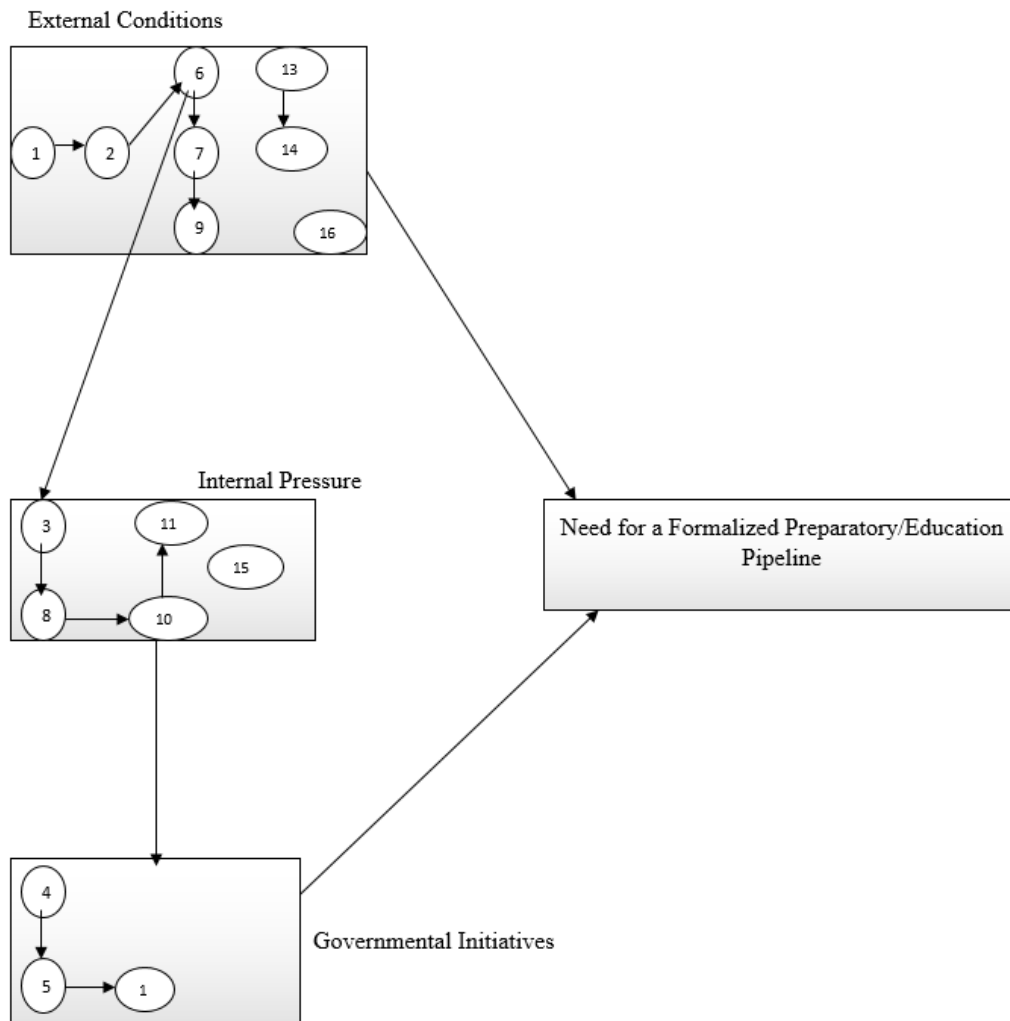
The ROTC mechanistic and temporal conditions relevant to this comparison are as follows:

1. Modernization of aerial warfare (new doctrinal formations).
2. Ancillary training needs of the new modern force not being met.
3. Inadequate distribution of officer skills.
4. Onslaught of World War I and the preparedness campaign highlighting the need for an established professional military.
5. Lack of large standing established military one the eve of World War II.
6. Delegation from Ohio pushes for increased military readiness and professional military training, opening the door for ROTC in the National Defense Act of 1916.
7. The National Defense Act of 1916 and 1920 establishing one of the first known attempts to prepare Americans for a professional military career.

8. Call for independent Air Force (away from the U.S. Army Air Corps).
9. Morrill Act/Land Grant Act establishing a funding mechanism for the university system which included the foundation for future ROTC curricula.
10. Need for larger standing military force (from the National Defense Acts of 1916 and 1920).
11. Plattsburg Idea creates first professional military camp of its kind for citizens organized specifically for college students.
12. Revitalization Act of 1964 providing further trust, resources and commitment to the ROTC program because of its noted successes.
13. Modernization of ROTC attempted to bring up to date educational opportunities and pathways for the nation's largest officer producing program.
14. Governmental/military leadership recognized need to modernize professional military officer training and education.
15. Onslaught of Vietnam conflict resulting in the need for additional officer forces (with a new focus on an educated officer ranks).
16. Recognized need for longer summer camp professional training.
17. Revitalization Act creates monetary incentives and increases scholarships available for aspiring military officers.
18. Push for new ROTC curriculum to further joint education opportunities and give a greater breadth and depth to emerging military officers.

The narrative/causal chain analysis shows the conditions in place that led to the creation of the DHS and need for a formalized preparatory pipeline (see Figure 3; arrows indicate causal linkages).

Figure 3. Conditions in Place that Led to the Creation of the DHS and Need for a Formalized Preparatory Pipeline



2. External/Internal Conditions of DHS

The DHS mechanistic and temporal conditions relevant to this comparison are as follows:

1. Civil defense mission prior to the September 11 attacks. The defense concept with its origins tying to World War II and Cold War era threats.
2. September 11 attacks launching new era of defensive posture concerns for not only terrorist threats but also natural/manmade disasters.
3. Governmental response warranted after the 9/11 attacks.
4. President Bush creates of the DHS through Executive Order 13228.

5. Request of approximately \$40 billion from Congress for organizational creation/reorganization.
6. New realized external threat influences DHS restructuring and departmental creations.
7. The new organization under the largest governmental formation since the National Defense Act of 1947 begins to realize recruiting and retention issues.
8. The DHS receives criticism that it is suffering from mission creep among its newly created organization.
9. Emerging human asset needs arise such as cyber focused professionals.
10. Internal pressure experienced for suffering from a lack of creativity based around not being able to recruit new professionals to meet the DHS future operations' needs.
11. The DHS secretary Jeh Johnson under fire for not being able to recruit qualified professionals.
12. Secretary Johnson vows to help with hiring and recruiting deficiencies by implementing new flexible hiring practices and offering an increase in pay flexibility.
13. Formal preparatory training pipelines exist for some (fire, law, etc.). but are not well defined for the true civilian populous seeking entry into the DHS.
14. Academics debate over the structure of undergraduate homeland security education programs (some, if they are even warranted/needed).
15. Multiagency responses (to such things as the anthrax attack in 2001) highlight organizations operating in a multilateral fashions inability to maxims on unity of effort.
16. External professional organizations begin to highlight the federal governments inefficiencies in placing recent college graduates in a public service position.

The comparison between the two organizations is grouped according to causal ordering while showing linkages. These linkages tie together events that led to an action step of some sort. Furthermore, pathway dependencies (a process in which an initial decisions or events locks the process into a particular pathway) are identified through this practice showing how one action can launch an organization down a certain path. Those parallel pathway dependencies are: both the USAF and DHS were born out of emerging and unique new mission sets requiring doctrinal changes. They were also forced into

existence due to conflict. The DOD realized a manpower shortage whereas the DHS is struggling to recruit and retain. Period effects (variation in the effect of one factor on another that is caused by the different periods in which the causal process occurred) are illustrated in this model showing the similarities shared regarding external factors and pressures. One key period effect to note is that during the DOD's wartime periods, it received governmental support to bolster the ROTC. Current state period effects for the DHS do not see such support. Finally, when confronted with the path dependent need and call to create better educated citizen soldiers for America, the DOD implemented and tried several variations of professional military education programs. These efforts ultimately resulted in the ROTC we now know today. The DHS, while attempting to implement several small-scale educational initiatives (e.g., internships, scholarships) has not attempted to address its issues with such a program.

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V. CONCLUSION

A. IMPLEMENTATION/LIMITATIONS

This body of work only begins to scratch the surface for further discussions and research that needs to take place regarding the DHS and its preparatory efforts and recruitment-retention model. The hope of this thesis is that others will carry on this work to not only identify what a potential alternate framework could look like but also seek avenues for acceptance through the appropriate stakeholders. Before seeking this path, this body of work would not do its successors justice without at least briefly examining what limitations and more importantly what a successful coalition might look like.

1. The Rules Governing How People Rule

A concept taken from a book called *The Dictator's Handbook: Why Bad Behavior is Almost Always Good Politics* refers to a concept known as the rules governing how people rule. The book lays out a comparative form that examines U.S. politicians and their priorities and positions. The book suggests, "The rules governing how people rule inevitably divorce what policies politicians really desire from what they say and do."¹⁶⁸ In this and from the problem space of the proposed thesis, it is clear that there could be parallel drawn between an ROTC type model and the current DHS hiring position. However, the difference here is that key stakeholders in the DHS are taking criticism for the lack of efficient and creative hiring practices.

It is known that the DHS is suffering from negative criticism surrounding its hiring practices, which could positively leverage key stakeholders to push for reform. Doing so in a comparative manner, especially by benchmarking from one of the nation's oldest and premier leadership institutions (the ROTC), should be at the forefront of consideration. The difference in this instance over the politician example is that the hiring issues noted facing the DHS are in the spotlight, so much, in fact, that the Secretary Jeh Johnson has vowed to take reform measure so ameliorate the grievances. This is why the

¹⁶⁸Bruce Bueno de Mesquita, and Alastair Smith, *The Dictator's Handbook: Why Bad Behavior is Almost Always Good Politics*(New York: Public Affairs: 2011), Kindle edition, 135.

rules governing how people rule should favor a proposal such as this. The “opportunistic expediency,”¹⁶⁹ the secretary must feel could further be leveraged in a bilateral fashion with this thesis to seek a change in DHS preparatory efforts.

2. The Interchangeable, Influential and Essential Players

Another concept derived from the *Dictators Handbook* looks at those players in a politically charged environment that are interchangeable, influential, and essential to conflicts behind the DHS hiring and education problem space.¹⁷⁰ This concept is presented using that of three different voting pools that ultimately lead to a politician’s success or demise. Interchangeables are also known as the “nominal selectorate” or the baseline voting members of a nation. Influentials, also referred to as the “real selectorate” can be thought of as the group that actually selects a leader. Finally, the essentials or as the book refers the “winning coalition” is the group that is key for a leader to survive in their position.¹⁷¹

The nominal group in this case, and as highlighted in the thesis as it pertains to low worker morale, would be the DHS employees themselves. As an association, DHS finds itself grappling with mission creep on everything from Secret Service scandals to evolving terrorist threats and according to worker survey results, an increasing level of job dissatisfaction.¹⁷² A glaring reason for this lack of unity can be realized from several reports that paint the DHS as the least favorable government entity to work in and one that suffers from the lowest morale and worker satisfaction levels of all other governmental departments.¹⁷³ The influentials identified hail from the 22 departments and are the ones truly calling for better prepared, better trained personnel. Homeland security educational researchers found in a survey, which included 19 survey groups

¹⁶⁹ Ibid.

¹⁷⁰ Ibid.

¹⁷¹ Ibid., 5.

¹⁷² Markon, “DHS Morale Sinks Further.”

¹⁷³ “Emergency Management/Disaster Preparedness DHS Continues to Study, Suffer from Morale Problems, February 23, 2015,” *Homeland Security Today*, accessed April 24, 2015, <http://www.hstoday.us/briefings/daily-news-analysis/single-article/dhs-continues-to-study-suffer-from-morale-problems/091a91916c1455b32944f33897d437ab.HTML>.

across all major professional disciplines in homeland security, reveals that the core tenets of strategic-collaboration, critical-thinking and decision-making capabilities are the most important for homeland security leaders.¹⁷⁴ Finally, the winning coalition must be comprised of the secretary and his/her staff if the root of an alternate ROTC type educational framework ever has a chance of succeeding. This winning coalition could also take direction from another academic work that looks at how to better examine leverage points. In the book *Thinking in Systems: A Primer*, the author notes, “that although people deeply involved in a system often know intuitively where to find leverage points, more often than not they push the change in the wrong direction.”¹⁷⁵ The author also notes that for leaders involved in a system that in complex situations “leverage points frequently are not intuitive. Or if they are, we too often use them backward, systematically worsening whatever problems we are trying to solve.”¹⁷⁶ This statement suggests that perhaps the secretary, while possessing an in-depth knowledge of leverage points in the DHS, should tread lightly and see if there are asymmetric solutions to the DHS hiring issue.

3. Policy Proposal that Offers a Basket of Goods

All too often it seems that leaders, such as the DHS secretary, are working in a reactive manner to troubling issues at hand. Perhaps the leadership should look to a model that has already been through a great deal of formation to face the needs of an ever-changing educational environment. This proposal clearly offers a suggested and comparatively tested way forward that should entice action from the winning coalition.

Furthermore, perhaps the secretary needs offer up a proposal that entices from an asymmetric perspective. That is, doing business the same old way only can bring stagnation and complacency. Several books from the entrepreneurial sector discuss this tendency and how to combat it. One such work is *The Lean Startup: How Today's*

¹⁷⁴ Pelfrey and Kelley, “Homeland Security Education: A Way Forward.”

¹⁷⁵ Donella Meadows, *Thinking in Systems: A Primer* (White River Junction, VT: Chelsea Green Publishing, 2008), Kindle edition, 2008.

¹⁷⁶ Ibid.

Entrepreneurs Use Continuous Innovation to Create Radically Successful Businesses. In it, author Eric Ries comments:

conventional wisdom holds that when companies become larger, they inevitably lose the capacity for innovation, creativity, and growth. I believe this is wrong. As startups grow, entrepreneurs can build organizations that learn how to balance the needs of existing customers with the challenges of finding new customers to serve, managing existing lines of business.¹⁷⁷

Additionally, Ries notes that executives should explore new business models and more importantly if they can to change their management philosophy. The author states, “even large, established companies can make this shift to what I call portfolio thinking.” Finally, successful improvement teams should be organized correctly in order to realize success and also to create positive disruptive forces of change.¹⁷⁸

B. FINDINGS

It seems inevitable that the argument to find a common educational identity in homeland security will be debated for some time. Flexibility and creativity will be important for moving towards that important goal. Additionally, while it would appear that the traditional education creation path found in seeking accreditation acceptance and curriculum consensus might seem the habitual route, there are indeed alternate frameworks in existence that could be study. The findings of this paper suggest that injecting the lessons learned from a historical and successful 100-year long, leadership model (the ROTC) could help provide benchmark lessons to aid the homeland security educational identity and recruiting-retention debate.

The historically analysis and benchmarked application of a proven Department of Defense collegiate leadership model could create a unified educational identity for the Department of Homeland Security. Such efforts could also address mutually identified educational competencies noted in this paper, such as crafting a model that focuses on strategic collaboration, critical thinking, and decision making. Most importantly, these

¹⁷⁷Eric Ries, *The Lean Startup: How Today's Entrepreneurs Use Continuous Innovation to Create Radically Successful Businesses*(New York: The Crown Publishing Group, 2011), Kindle edition, 253.

¹⁷⁸ Ibid.

options could bypass the overwhelming task of identifying a unified curriculum resulting in perhaps unnecessary accreditation discussions.

The forward thinking leaders of the USAF recognized the need for a preparatory pipeline to meet their unique and emerging mission. Without visionaries, such as Alan Partridge and Justin Morrill, there would never have been the push to create an education system for preparing our nations service men and women. They saw the need to capitalize on creating intelligent and capable citizen soldiers. In its own cross examining of its current personnel issues, learning from the United States' past should be at the forefront of the DHS efforts. This thesis intends to highlight and draw parallel between the two organizations. It does not suggest in any way that placing an ROTC like framework directly over the DHS is the proper way forward. However, seeing the temporal, mechanistic, and path dependent conditions that appear in both of their histories, the study should go on from here. The hope of this thesis is that an academic researching a similar concept, someone from the undergraduate education debate or even a high-level stakeholder, will carry this torch further. We, who live in this new and unique terrorist threat driven world, as well as the DHS employees, charged with the protection of our borders, deserve a proper and professional preparatory program. If the world's most dominant military was able to establish such a system out of similar conditions, then so should the DHS.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS

After a final analysis of the comparative historical analysis, this author suggests that some stakeholder fitting into the winning coalition bracket take up this initial look and carry it forward. The analysis points to historical pathways and narratives that are parallel to the DHS and its current recruiting, training, and retention need. The answer for the DOD has been captured in this thesis, and it explored and leveraged the ROTC historical case relevance. In addition, it showed how that framework has addressed the DOD and USAF's need for 100 years. A member from the winning coalition could potentially carry the concept of creating a unified preparatory pipeline forward via the following recommended actions.

First, additional research must be conducted to understand fully the actual make-up of the ROTC framework studied. That analysis could potentially consist of an in-depth analysis of the curriculum for ROTC units, how that curriculum is funded, how the program fits into the larger university system, requirements for completion of the program, placement processes for the cadets who graduate, and even success rates of those graduates from the ROTC in their regular profession. These are just a few research recommendations because it is important to truly understand the make-up of the preparatory program prior to applying its potential relevance to the DHS educational winning coalition.

The second recommendation is to conduct a survey across the major disciplinary groups, as noted by Pelfrey and Kelley, to see if such a construct as the ROTC model might meet the DHS leader's pathway needs. This survey should build upon the model of Pelfrey and Kelley to address key competencies desired from DHS leadership, suggested timeframes to achieve those competencies, the capturing of joint or common capabilities desired, and suggestions for potential venues to achieve such educational training. Additionally, a funding and probability analysis should be executed at the DHS headquarters level to see what potential monetary funding streams there may be for sustained educational opportunities of this kind.

Third, draft a model undergraduate/augmented training framework that leverages the historical case (the ROTC) and major disciplinary groups educational desires. This proposal could be called the Homeland Security Corps proposal and be a program that potentially meets the need of stakeholders and academics alike.

Finally, work with OPM to prepare an acceptance and job vacancy pathway for potential graduates of the proposed program. Once all these steps have been taken, it would then potentially be possible to unveil the findings to the winning coalition identified to ultimately gain support to go forward with the creation a new and dedicated education pipeline strictly for the DHS.

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