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This thesis, “SERVICE-FOCUSED EDUCATION”: AN INVESTIGATION OF EDUCATION POLICIES AND PRACTICES, AND THEIR EFFECT ON PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE “QUALITY” OF THE UNITED STATES EDUCATION SYSTEM, by ROBERT J. LAHM, JR., was prepared under the direction of the candidate’s thesis committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

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“Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe.”

-- H. G. Wells

“SERVICE-FOCUSED EDUCATION”: AN INVESTIGATION OF EDUCATION POLICIES AND PRACTICES, AND THEIR EFFECT ON PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE “QUALITY” OF THE UNITED STATES EDUCATION SYSTEM

by

Robert J. Lahm, Jr.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The literature concerning customer service in education is limited. Yet education does provide a service to students, business and society. Education has an image as a system, as well as specific degree programs, institutions, and individual educators. At present, many of these images and public perceptions are negative and movements have stressed increasing “quality.” The purpose of this study was to examine the applicability of quality and customer service concepts to education, with the underlying objective of revealing policy implications.

METHODS

Data were captured from online and CD ROM databases and the Georgia State University Library, in addition to over 2500 trade magazines and journals from the researcher’s own collection. After a two-year search, a database consisting of 2333 references was created. Critical data were flagged for inclusion in the findings based on criteria such as recency, thematic recurrence, author expertise, and direct or inferential applicability to the issues under study.

RESULTS

Results of the study indicate that in the context of terms associated with "quality," such as "education reform," there are significant amounts of data due to decades of debates, movements, official acts, and grassroots efforts at changing the U.S. education system. Yet, the public views education as a failed system and formal corporate training investment, estimated at over $48 billion annually, may partially replace the education system's role in the United States. Without measures to better determine the desired outputs of the system, many educators may be tightening evaluation procedures for both students and teachers, while paying little attention to societal purpose and a desire for skills-based outcomes.

CONCLUSIONS

The study yields several conclusions and implications for educators. Efforts are needed to further understand the wants and desires of those who consume education, e.g., student populations, as well as those who consume the final outputs such as corporate hiring executives. Subsequent to these assessments, fundamental changes in theory for curricula, delivery methods, service offerings and other variables are likely to be identified as appropriate.

“SERVICE-FOCUSED EDUCATION”: AN INVESTIGATION OF EDUCATION POLICIES AND PRACTICES, AND THEIR EFFECT ON PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE “QUALITY” OF THE UNITED STATES EDUCATION SYSTEM

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ROBERT J. LAHM, JR.

A THESIS

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SECTION I

Introduction

This section is comprised of three chapters: chapter 1 will introduce the rationale for this research study. While the chapter will, of course, provide much greater detail, the overall reason for this undertaking involves the study and analysis of several critical issues facing educators. This is important inasmuch as all citizens are affected by the quality of the education system in America. Chapter 2 will provide a review of the literature and is intended to paint a background as to how issues surrounding the elements under observation have evolved. Finally, in chapter 3, the research methodology employed will be discussed. This chapter will outline procedures such that the scientific approach utilized is described for the benefit of both present and future researchers.

CHAPTER ONE

Rationale for the Study and Statement of the Problem

Part One: Rationale for the Study

Background and Significance

Murray (1991) discussed the case of DePauw College: Through a survey of high school counselors and student prospects, this small private institution determined that the respondents identified it as willing to help middle-income families, but preconceived cost concerns may have caused many students to write off the college without ever applying.

The situation illustrates the contrast between perceptions and reality a public may have about a particular institution and may be generalizable to other small private colleges in similar economies. In one sense, for the non-applying students, perceptions are the reality and the institution's identity in the community is that it wants to be helpful but costs too much to fit students' needs.

Many institutions as well as corporate marketers mistake identity for symbolism. For instance, some educational institutions go to great lengths to advance the proper application of their “seal,” their symbol, and have established graphic and usage style guides for this purpose.

However, as the case of DePauw demonstrates, the identity of an institution is comprised of perceptions about its characteristics and attributes that can have the effect of supplanting reality if they are believed with sufficient conviction. These same dynamics with regard to perceptions also affect choice decisions where quality issues are a concern.

The word “quality” itself is ambiguous and dependent on circumstantial conditions within the context of an operating environment. Quality is dynamic and must be examined for its actual meaning within context. The word tends to be accepted in institutional and corporate claims, everyday conversation, and in the literature as a positive attribute with little additional processing. Yet, the definition of quality is truly in the eyes-of-the-beholder, and requires considerable scrutiny to reconcile between two or more parties. Quality also consists of part perception and part reality.

As an example, restaurateurs place great emphasis on the presentation of meals. Publications of their trade regularly feature advice on how to add value and increase prices without adding food (or food cost), but rather with the addition of ambiance through decor, serving pieces, linens, garnishes and other attributes affecting the sensory perceptions of patrons. The identical food content served without such a presentation may be of equal quality nutritionally, but perceptions would cause the consumer to identify the dining experience as lesser in quality.

This simple analogy is useful in describing the researcher's hypothesis of quality problems in education and rationale for this present study: Quality or the lack of it in education consists of both perceptions and reality. The education system was presumably established to create societally determined and funded outcomes. How well those outcomes are achieved are similarly measured both by consumer perceptions and images as well as more substantive information.

PARADE, the widely distributed Sunday news magazine supplement, sponsored a study which was administered nationally about the adequacy of public schools. The published report written by Mark Clements of the independent research firm that conducted the study, What's Wrong With Our Schools? (1993), found that "63% of Americans rate the quality of education as fair or poor." Sixty-seven percent say "the federal government spends too little" and half say teachers' salaries are "too low." Of the other 50% who did not believe teachers' salaries are too low, 37% believed they are "just right" and 13% believed they are "too high" (pp. 6-7).

Presuming most Americans and those surveyed don't carry objective comparative data in their heads (e.g., relative salary scales) which they have thoroughly processed, these must be subjectively determined decisions. The responses would have been based on perceptions blended with observations of schools respondents may have had directly, through children, and the grapevine in their own community.

Improving the education system to increase quality has been a topic of debate and the impetus for numerous reform efforts for decades in the United States, as was discussed by Hudelson (1992). He recounted

> The American education system has been engulfed by successive waves of reform ever since the Russians put Sputnik into orbit in 1957. But recently there has been a remarkable qualitative change: The new wave of reform appears focused not on methods but on results....This recent reform wave began with the 1984 publication of A Nation at Risk [:The Imperative for Educational Reform], the report of a task force appointed by the U.S. Secretary of Education. The report warned that the American education system was threatened by a "rising tide of mediocrity" and called for unspecified reform. (p.28)

During the 1960s, in the Great Society era, calls for social justice caused another wave of reform efforts. More recently, President Clinton proposed the Goals 2000: Educate America Act which is similar in name to President Bush's reform legislation proposal, America 2000: Excellence in Education ("National Education Reform," 1994).

Ideas for reform however are not just decades old, they are centuries old as was observed by Nobel Prize Laureate Kenneth G. Wilson, Professor, Department of Physics and College of Education, Ohio State University (1994), who, writing on the subject of new paradigms for education related

> Several things became clear. The real shock–at least for me–was to learn that the problems of educational reform have no known solution, at any price, despite centuries of thought, since John Amos Comenious wrote about reform in 1632. Second, I realized that the U.S. Education system lacks positive feedback loops of sufficient magnitude to move us beyond the status quo. (pp. 26-27)

Public perceptions also weigh heavily on legislators at both the state and federal levels. The Congressional Digest summarized the Administration position which was reported to characterize American education as in a state of "crisis" not meeting student needs or economic demands for a skilled and adaptable workforce ("Administration Position," 1994, p. 7). At the state level there have been recent efforts to focus on what students can do and what learning they can demonstrate rather than the classes they attended and what subjects they were taught ("State Education Reform," 1994).

In his article Can National Standards Make a Difference?, O'Neil (1993) discussed that "some uses of the term 'standards'" call for a better definition of the word itself as it applies to educational practice (p. 4). He outlined recommendations to clarify the issue that were the result of a task force created by Congress, the National Council on Education Standards and Testing. These included "content standards," "student performance standards," "system performance standards" and "school delivery standards" (pp. 4-5).

The article also described these standards: Content standards are "what students should know and be able to do." Student performance standards refer to the "level(s) of student competence in the content." System performance standards are "to assess the success of schools, districts, states, and the nation as a whole in helping all students attain high performance standards." Finally, school delivery standards are "to judge whether schools are providing students with the opportunity to attain these high standards" (pp. 4-5).

While the emphasis on assessment and demonstrable learning achievements contributes to measuring outcomes and the described "content standards" may rectify the problem, this thesis seeks to probe further by focusing on the purpose, goals and objectives of the education. Achieving specified competencies is important. Yet first in the order of business to attend to, and fundamental to successful change, is answering the question of what competencies, why, and for whom? In tandem with these is the issue, to whose authority are the resources and responsibilities to be entrusted?

The need for feedback loops to which Wilson refers directly connects societal purpose for the education system with the outcomes in a systems model. Consensus of purpose must precede measurement of outcomes. The trend however has been to test more and more, but public dissatisfaction has prevailed even with quantum leaps in the number and complexity of evaluations that are administered. Are the right things being taught to satisfy societal purposes for a prepared citizenry?

Employers say they want skilled and workforce-ready graduates. Some institutions catering to large corporations make implicit as well as explicit claims about how thoroughly prepared graduates are to be effective managers in their new jobs (Buckley, Peach, & Weitzel, 1989). Smaller firms have their own ideas, and according to a recent study, look for skills and personal characteristics, placing more value on these attributes than on academic credentials (Pritchard & Fidler, 1993).

Students want to be employable and otherwise prepared to meet life's challenges. Although many recruiters believe that students' expectations are overly optimistic, more and more college graduates face tough times in making the transition from school to work (Gardner & Lambert, 1993). In another related article, on the very same topic except pertaining to high school students, Making Transitions from School to Work (Byrne & Others, 1992), authors similarly described the plight of non-college bound students:

> For most of our young people, the United States has a more or less do-it-yourself system for making the transition from school to work. Approximately 20 million 16- to 24-year-olds are unlikely to go directly on to college after high school. With our present "system," they often bounce between a series of jobs until, eventually, some employer decides they're "seasoned" enough to be treated seriously. As a result, young people frequently take a decade or more to bridge the school-to-work gulf, and many, especially children of the poor, never make it. The absence of an effective system to help non-college bound young people make a smooth transition from high school to the primary labor market costs us dearly, both socially and economically. For a majority of American students, what they learned in school is not adequately related to what they need to know to succeed after leaving school. (p. 23)

According to Training, in its 12th annual survey of formal workplace training activities ("Industry Report," 1993), since the preceding year's survey, the total dollars budgeted for formal training by U.S. organizations has reached $48 billion, a 7% increase over the previous year. Forty-seven-point-two million individuals received some type of formal training during 1.5 billion instructional delivery hours.

The survey did not document informal training investment which it defined as on-the-job. The formal training the survey measured was described as “Deliberately planned and structured in some way [and]: People are called away from their desks, their lathes, or their delivery routes to attend...” (pp. 29-30).

In contrast, the Chronicle of Higher Education’s Almanac Issue (“Revenues,” 1993) reported that private higher education institutions spent $53 billion, and public higher education institutions spent $95 billion, during 1990-91. In 1990 corporate investment in formal training was estimated at $45.5 billion (Filipczak, 1993). Calculating based on these data, formal corporate training investment equaled about 48% of the expenditures of public higher education institutions or about 86% of the expenditures of private higher education institutions.

Evaluating these figures indicates that quite possibly, educators may be loosing “market share,” via revenues to corporate trainers who have replaced their functionality. Some may argue that corporate training expenditures may occur anyway, even if schools were improved. However, it is also reasonable to suggest the alternative scenario. If schools met all, most or even more needs for training (from basic skills to executive-level management training), corporate training budgets would be directed elsewhere.

Given this possibility, and with the additional evidence that abounds in both the professional and popular literature regarding public and corporate dissatisfaction with the education system, the deductive conclusion is that education must consider ways to create linkages––working with industry ––rather than watching corporate training budgets continue to grow beyond current spending levels.

Other than mere fiscal incentives internally rendered within the education system, another postulate worthy of examination is the idea that to help the U.S. education system to re-assert itself, is to help the U.S. economy do likewise in the world economy. A number of references in the literature suggest the strong correlation between education and training with economic growth and well being.

The focal point of this present research is to investigate ideas about what students, businesses, parents, legislators, educators and society as a whole have identified or failed to identify as the purpose, goals and objectives for the education system. In connection with these, and whether stated in the data or implicit, the researcher seeks to examine beliefs and perceptions that exist about how effectively the desired outcomes have been met in terms of quality, satisfaction and service.

Part Two: Statement of the Problem

Guiding Questions and Objectives of the Study

A recent article in The Compass, an American Council on education publication distributed as a supplement bound inside Higher Education & National Affairs, headlined that "Accreditation and quality control" have become "hot topics worldwide" ("Accreditation," 1994, p. 2).

Although there are overwhelming data on quality, service and related issues in the current literature of business, despite the aforementioned article, references concerning service in education, particularly "customer service," are scant and reflect a lack of clarity about the understated as well as expressed societal desires for educational quality, accountability, reporting relationship and outcomes.

Even a cursory review yields that considerable ambiguity exists and mixed messages are often sent. There is a battle with respect to defining purpose between the "Three Rs" and workforce skills. Responsibility for fostering the former Three Rs is traditionally defined as the role of the education system, and yet most criticism appears to focus on a lack of the latter workforce skills being produced. These conditions create several causes for query:

1. What is society’s purpose for the education system: The “Three Rs,” skills-based training or both? Literacy and numeracy, or manufacturing plant and warehouse management, or both? American history, or home mortgage shopping and auto maintenance, or both?

2. If both education and training, where are the lines to be drawn between public and private roles and responsibilities?

Educators are affected by numerous constituencies, each with the power to imperil or advance their practice. It is essential that further research be conducted to facilitate the development of theoretical foundations to determine the desired service role of education in society, therefore:

3. How do perceptions, image, identity and reality affect views of education quality among various constituencies?

Another objective of this study is to create new knowledge of benefit to both the scholarly and lay communities by looking directly at, and also beyond, terminology such as: “Total Quality Management (TQM), customer, service, and quality,” as they have thus far been debated for applicability in education. In doing so, the researcher would hope to reveal root meanings and attendant policy implications as well as practical methods for increasing the real and perceived effectiveness of the education system in the United States.

It will report findings that focus on education in the United States, however data may be developed that are generalizable and of benefit to scholars in other nations and systems.

Additionally, the research is intended to provide findings that point to methodologies for reconciling differences between tangible outcomes and the less-often-measured subjective and perceptual outcomes through which constituencies also determine value received. Given that the extent of societal approval or disapproval with the education system depends on such judgments, the final objective is to facilitate a better understanding of these variables.

Assumptions of the Study

An editorial article in Training ("Outcome-based," 1991) asked, "What does a high school or college graduate *really* have to know...?" (p. 53) This thesis assumes that the over-enthusiastic application of testing in the absence of student, parental, business, faculty, and a general public consensus as to desired outcomes can only serve to measure, approve and deliver the undesirable results education is said to be currently offering.

Ramaswamy (1992) suggested educators should focus on two issues

> (a) whether there is a consensus in the perceptions of effectiveness provided by the three major constituencies of interest: the business community, faculty, and students, and (b) the identification of controllable factors (e.g., budget expenditures, research emphasis; and so forth) that are associated with the levels of satisfaction with each of the three groups. (p. 353)

Edwards and Brannen (1990) described outcomes assessment at the MBA level and detailed the numerous tests such as GMAT scores and similar traditional measures business schools employ at entrance, interim, and post-program intervals to evaluate their effectiveness. They added that student and alumni evaluations have proven to be useful and “How employers perceive an MBA program and its graduates should be extremely important to all concerned.” (p. 210).

According to Chamberlain and Seay (1990), outcomes assessment presents a new challenge to educators in their attempts to contend with numerous constituencies, ranging from government officials and trustees to accrediting agencies and the public, all of whom are demanding to know if college students are graduating with the skills and knowledge they will need to be productive in society. The authors emphasized that outcomes assessment is not “a new name for program evaluation” (p. 204):

> At first glance, business educators might dismiss outcomes assessment as merely a new name for program evaluation. This is not the case. Outcomes assessment goes much further than traditional approaches, which focus on inputs and outputs such as number and qualifications of faculty, instructional expenditures, and student credit hours generated. More substantive measures, such as student scores on license exams and results of employer satisfaction surveys, enable institutions to focus on the results of their efforts....Feedback from graduates, employers, and students via surveys, interviews, examinations, and other means can serve as the vital change agent for implementing program improvements. Stronger and more relevant curricula, improved teaching and staffing strategies, and more judicious application of scarce resources are but a few of the benefits to be obtained from the analysis of outcomes data. (pp. 202, 204)

With educational reform's new agenda for national standards there has come a propensity to measure, measure and measure––students, teachers and schools––respectively. This research assumes that measurement can only be effective in terms of achieving societal satisfaction if curricular and competency outcomes are clearly agreed upon. It further assumes that such a purpose must reflect the consensus expressed as most desirable by society.

As outlined, proponents of the theories held in connection with national standards or outcomes assessment deny advocating that an emphasis on testing is the larger part of the answer to education's ills. However, the actual practice has been to integrate abundant testing and employ nothing more than a token acknowledgment of society’s dissatisfaction; this has been going on for decades. Nor has the establishment of purpose, goals and objectives for the educational system occurred. Necessary feedback loops, according to Wilson’s observations (and others), don’t exist either.

Perhaps occurrences in practice have indeed been a misapplication of these theories, and such societal acknowledgment is forthcoming, but meanwhile, so long as Americans rate performance so poorly, for purposes of this research these theories are rejected in favor of starting at the beginning, by asking, what is society’s purpose for the U.S. education system?

Summary

The timing of this study is propitious due to increased fiscal pressures on the global economy, many of which are attributed to workforce readiness and education. Reform efforts aimed at increasing individual and societal satisfaction with the education system span a period of decades (excluding Comenious and previous centuries).

A review of the literature reveals that certain key words such as “customer” or “service” are abundant in a growing number of contexts and applications. Yet education, as a system and provider of essential services has an image for delivering an unsatisfactory performance. Although quality management has been increasingly discussed in the literature of education over the past few years, evidence of successful implementations in academic settings is limited.

Corporate investment in training, if redirected to the education system even in part would be of help in the face of shrinking budgets. Many in education are accused still of “ivory tower” arrogance and refusing to recognize the idea that restructuring––this time for real––must be devised and implemented. There is evidence that corporations have diminished the role and resources allocated by society to public education by taking their dollars and investing them in internal training and educational delivery systems.

A global tightening-of-the-belt has caused the complete restructuring of many corporations and the accompanying downsizings and rightsizings have forever changed both the career paths and the landscapes of organizations everywhere. On the bright side of the millions of American lives that have been uprooted in the process (for HRD specialists anyway), a substantial recognition of the need to re-train, re-educate and re-skill workers has arisen.

For the present, the breakup of the Soviet Union has left the United States free and clear of any identifiable gigantic enemy, and in its wake replaced a threat with millions of Russians thirsty to learn how to improve their lives. China is changing its interests toward developing its largely impoverished and undereducated country, and if it follows such a course approximately one billion people will need additional training and education.

The brightest star on the horizon however is the proposal that citizens of all nations should embrace lifelong learning as their guiding light. Educators clearly need to develop theories to facilitate knowing exactly how to throw the switch that illuminates the minds of such a global student body. This research is significant in its objective to provide possible underpinnings for future researchers and thus contribute to this necessary theory and knowledge.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature: The Issues of Reform and a Review of Quality Concepts

Part One: The Issues of Reform

Because the data are overwhelming in the context of the macro environment, with respect to the enormity of “education” or “quality” as topics, the following literature review is divided into several subtitles. These are intended to convey various aspects of the issues and responses to the previously outlined conditions in broad brush strokes.

This will be accomplished in two parts. Part one will review the long history of reform efforts, views from various vantage points and current proposals for continuing efforts. Part two will review basic quality concepts and applications in various contexts. The explanation of the research methodology in chapter 3 will outline the procedure for reducing available data and isolating the specific issues proposed for study.

Briefly, How Training, HRD and Education Emerged

Approximately 99% of human history, until about 9,000 to 10,000 years ago, has been spent in hunting and gathering subsistence. The latter one percent, the result of learning to raise crops and tame animals, freed many individuals to pursue specialized occupations (de Camp, 1974). Our knowledge of any organized training prior to the late 1700s and before the industrial revolution is limited. In the period before that time craftsmen and artisans contributed the benefit of their wisdom to helpers and apprentices who learned the skills needed for their occupations and trades through a process that we now call OJT--on the job training (Bard, Bell, Stephen, & Webster, 1987).

This is not to minimize the long history of training and education prior to the 1700s. Although Eastern civilizations have no less a demarcated past, as a prelude to research on American education this chapter concentrates on the Western world, where:

Markings left by Greek soldiers around 601-700 B.C. indicate they received an elementary education; Cairo University was founded in 972; in 1167 Ibn Ezra, a Jewish theologian and scholar founded Oxford University in England; in 1250 Paris University established four national colleges; numerous colleges and universities were established in the

1500s; Harvard University, then called Harvard College after John Harvard who endowed it was founded in 1636 (Grun, 1991).

None of the aforementioned are intended to overlook the rigorous training programs created for soldiers in countless empires; formalized religious orders with specific learning regimens for their followers; the engineers who designed and implemented the wonders of the world and appeased the egos of kings by enlisting and training both free and slave armies of builders to carry out their tasks; the elder scribes who taught others to write and pass along the knowledge bestowed to new generations in symbols and languages; or the billions of parents who weaned their children and, through informal instruction, prepared them for adulthood as best they could.

Indeed, training and education as practices of benefit to human kind have a very long history. Of greatest concern in the context of this research however are practices beginning with the industrial age and leading to the present information age in which we dwell.

Historical accounts of the rise of human resource development (HRD) as a discipline (See appendix A for a chronological review) define this preceding period before 1800 as the “skillfulness era.” This was followed by the eras of “efficiency” (1800-1920), “satisfaction” (1920-1945), and “enhancement” (1945 to present), respectively (Pace, Smith, & Mills, 1991, p. 25).

In the 1800s training institutes, factory schools, and government programs were established to give workers in the new industrial age skills to operate emerging complex machinery, often in factories. Increasing job productivity through the enhancement of workers’ capabilities was the terminal objective. The first plan for cooperative education, enabling students to attend school part-time and also work in a factory was introduced by the University of Cincinnati in 1906 (Bard, et al., 1987).

At the turning point of the efficiency era, also known as the utilitarian and social efficiency movement, ideas attributed to Franklin Bobbit, an advocate of schools’ providing experiences relevant to the needs of citizens, gained acceptance (Shrock, 1991). The 1930s Great Depression put the U.S. in peril and squeezed industry’s capacity to hire, train, or employ for that matter, and government, correspondence and management programs emerged as a partial answer to the country’s dilemma. The famous Hawthorne studies which indicated that increased worker satisfaction was causal to greater productivity influenced the shift in thinking from efficiency to satisfaction (Pace, et al., 1991).

World War II brought into existence what might be characterized as the biggest training program with the shortest deadline in the history of HRD. A massive military effort, in addition to training in the private sector (e.g., suppliers to the military), was undertaken by both allied and opposing forces. After the war the G.I. Bill provided for legions of former American soldiers to access a college education. Most economists view national investment in education as one of the larger contributing factors in financing the baby boom and creating a GNP that accounted for almost half the world’s productivity.

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) was formed in 1944 (originally called the American Society of Training Directors). The ASTD held its 50th annual national conference in Anaheim, California in May of 1994, and the organization now claims 50,000 members.

Finally, during the employee enhancement era, organizations began to recognize the value of permanent on-staff trainers, human resource development emerged as an academic discipline, and cooperative efforts for academic-practitioner interrelationships evolved (Pace, et al., 1991).

Today, we live in a global economy where the rise and fall of stocks and currencies reverberate among trading nations in a matter of hours. We have become interconnected by hundreds of satellites circling in orbit and the earth-bound telecommunications and computer technologies that receive, process and transmit voice, image and data signals.

Our close interconnection with each other and a frail environment has become overwhelmingly apparent. The introduction around the world, at least in terms of awareness if not in fact, to the comforts, utility and living conveniences of a modern age have created the demand for new and better products and services that beget improved living conditions.

It is generally recognized that information and practical know-how are the latchkeys to these improved conditions. Therefore, many debates about the role of training, education, and human resource development in relation to determining the best ways of meeting skills and learning needs are prevalent and intense. Academic and practitioner communities so charged with the responsibility for servicing demands to prepare workers and the larger citizenries affected for productive and meaningful lifetimes feel the challenge to perform.

School Change and the Lack Thereof

Miles (1993), in his article 40 Years of Change in Schools: Some Personal Reflections, related the following about school change efforts, after outlining 10 major school change strategies he has witnessed and participated in since the 1950s:

> This has been a long journey, I believe there's far more clarity in our knowledge of change in schools than we had 40 years ago. Yet, it could be said, if we're so smart, why ain't we rich? There are many unsolved questions both in the theory and practice of school change––how we understand it and how we do it. (p. 244)

On the elusive nature of excellence in education, Hass (1992) reflected

> "Eight years after the publication of A Nation at Risk, we still cannot point with pride to significant nationwide gains. Hardly a season passes without another reform report detailing some lack of student achievement. Proposed solutions abound, from experts and concerned laymen alike. From the practitioner's perspective, it's difficult to know what to do." (p. 81)

Levin (1993) asked, "How well have schools done in responding to changes around them?" and proceeded to cite several authors who in various ways consistently expressed that after a considerable number of efforts, things generally haven't changed at all:

> In an often-cited piece on this subject, Larry Cuban notes, 'so much school reform has taken place over the last century yet schooling appears to be pretty much the same as it has always been'.... Timar writes that while 'school reform has been a ubiquitous feature of schooling...little has changed. Since the advent of mass compulsory schooling neither the technology nor the core ideology of schooling has changed substantially.' Goodlad's massive study of American schools reinforced the view that school is uniform and

> unchanging. 'Schools differ, but schooling is everywhere the same' (p. 5).

Education reform and its many "waves".

National school reform efforts have been observed to occur in waves. The "first wave" for principals in relation to these reform efforts resulted in an emphasis on standards, curricular changes and prescriptions for improvement such as leadership training programs and a "retooling" of educators. The "second wave" for principals introduced school restructuring and teacher empowerment. The new attempt was to treat schools as communities with shared decision making (Kirby, Wimpelberg, & Keaster, 1992, pp. 89-90).

School restructuring refers to organizational changes such as assigning new roles and examining both rules for operating as well as relationships that influence work and people in the subject organization. Examples of changes in organizational structure would be to reassign guidance counseling to teachers or to establish a governance board which assumed the responsibilities previously addressed by a principal or administrator (Newmann, 1993).

The underlying assumption that individuals can and want to participate in school improvement, or they can learn how by acquiring the necessary expertise, is the basis upon which teacher empowerment advocates suggest the approach (Kirby, et al., 1992).

This literature review has also produced evidence that one wave of reform efforts often begets another. For example, when early reform efforts resulted in proposals for increased measurement, educators discovered not just how well they were doing, but also how poorly they were doing. The latter evidence on poor performance was then used by critics to pressure for additional reforms. Likewise, for decades now, the discoveries or consequences of one reform have routinely affected new reforms.

The U.S. Department of Education's ideas on reform.

U.S. Secretary of Education, Richard W. Riley (1993), wrote to address the beginning of the 1993-94 school year in Principal. In his article, he discussed the strategies he used while Governor of South Carolina. In support of the Clinton education reform agenda, Secretary Riley described world-class curriculum standards and asserted his belief that these should be tied to assessments (and our six National Education Goals).

Another article, Reclaiming Education as the Touchstone of the American Dream (Riley, 1994b), outlined several issues confronting the Department of Education. As an explanatory response to the third major issue discussed, the student loan program and its long history of trouble (in particular, default rates), he mentioned that in the "brief 13-year history of the Department of Education, there have been 13 assistant secretaries for postsecondary education and 11 different people responsible for the critical job of deputy assistant secretary for student financial assistance” (p. 23).

The first two issues cited were a $2 billion Pell Grant program deficit and the proposed budget which had been sent to Congress. The budget called for increases for student aid, Work-Study programs and student loans. The fourth issue was defining the “rule-making process for the 1992 Higher Education Act,” about which Riley stated, after referring to an apparently vigorous discussion in January 1994 with a group of college presidents, “We welcome your ideas and comments...[but] keep in mind we must make a good faith effort to implement the law” (p. 23).

Riley further mentioned scholarships aimed at correcting past discriminatory practices. Just prior to closing the article he wrote

> America can only be the America we want if all of our young people get connected to the idea of excellence. That is why I want better schools and higher standards. The call for higher standards and real performance has engaged many of us who have worked for education reform these last ten years at the elementary and secondary levels. But now the spotlight of reform is swinging toward the absolute and vital link between reform at the elementary and secondary levels and the ongoing reform efforts in higher education. I urge you to

> continue this dialog on standards now that it has begun. (p. 26)

Finally, from a most-recent vantage point chronologically (published May 1994), in reflecting back on the 1993-94 year, Riley wrote in Teaching K-8 (1994a), about the April passage of the Clinton administration legislative proposal, Goals 2000: Educate America Act. He heralded the past year as the one when the "federal government finally got serious about education." Riley explained that for over a decade, the federal government has talked about reform, but has "done little to help" the nation's schools (p.12). He outlined the meaning of the Goals 2000 Act's passage

> When the Clinton Administration took office a little more than a year ago, we resolved to take this knowledge [What the federal government learned "about what it takes to really reform education" in the past ten years (p. 12).] and build upon what works for schools: higher academic standards, better training for teachers, using new technology to facilitate learning, improving school safety and making parents equal partners...Goals 2000 moves American education from the old assembly-line version of education toward a new high-tech, high-knowledge approach better suited to the society and economy of the 21st century. Goals 2000 helps to establish world-class academic and occupational skill standards. These voluntary national standards in the core academic subjects of English, civics, geography, history, math science, foreign languages and the arts will give parents, educators and businesses a clear indication of what constitutes world-class education. (p. 12)

Views on Effective Instruction

Increasing the achievement levels of students is the most important objective of school restructuring, but consensus on what this means is elusive. Newmann (1993) defined two types of achievement, conventional and authentic:

> Conventional achievement emphasizes the learning and reproduction of specific definitions, facts, and skills that have been prespecified by authorities. Authentic achievement emphasizes using the mind to produce discourse, material objects, and performances that have personal, aesthetic, and utilitarian value. To be sure, familiarity with a wide range of information is important for success in work, civic affairs, and personal life. The problem is that formal education has so long been dominated by conventional achievement that it stifles student engagement in learning, suppresses critical and creative thinking, and minimizes the application of school learning to life beyond school. (p. 7)

Doggett (1992) attributed the problems in instruction to “the people closest to the schoolhouse” and suggested that attitude, competence and talent on the part of both teachers and principals are the major determinants of instructional quality (p. 2), adding

> Teaching is an art and cannot be simplified to a recipe book of strategies and methods that cause students to learn....A highly competent teacher consistently asks high-level questions, probes persistently, sets high but attainable expectations, has superior knowledge of subject matter, praises students often, exudes enthusiasm, closely monitors students’ work, and closely

> communicates subject matter to students with great clarity. (p. 2)

Exemplary teachers create ‘warm and caring classrooms’ through the use of humor, anecdotes, fairness and listening. Students respond to the question of what a perfect teacher would be like with: “happy, fair, easy to talk to, likes kids, is kind but strict” (Cabello & Terrell, 1994, p. 22).

One current trend in principalship is evolving in connection with new ideas for practice which emphasize outcomes based education, a model that focuses on the mastery of subject matter prior to any progression to new material. Mastery learning involves a method where learner outcomes are “developed, taught to, and tested” (Olthoff, 1992, p.7).

<u>Changing The System – “Radical” Ideas</u>

Theodore A. Sizer, the recipient of a $50 million dollar grant from philanthropist Walter H. Annenberg, benefiting his new National Institute for School Reform, is said to be utilizing a radical approach to reform: <u>Business Week</u> reported Sizer’s belief that the trouble with education is that it is based on a factory-model (See appendix B for Sizer’s principles for redefining schools). He criticized schools for moving kids along what amounts to a production line, creating a “totally mindless system that results in intellectual chaos for the kids” (Maremont, 1994, p. 45).

SCANS report.

SCANS, an acronym for the U.S. Secretary of Labor's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills, is said to fill the crucial visionary gap between education and work. SCANS proposed that schools change from lecturing to having students work in groups and learn critical thinking skills through 'applied learning' experiences. These experiences are geared to allow students to try to solve everyday problems by working together on projects.

The SCANS report was issued by a commission headed by former Secretary of Labor William E. Brock and characterized in Business Week as the "most comprehensive––and radical––set of suggestions so far" (Bernstein, 1992, p. 42).

The article also quoted American Federation of Teachers President Albert Shanker's positive response about the importance of SCANS's impact, if it is implemented properly.

Brock himself wrote in Vocational Education Journal about the SCANS report (1992), outlining the decline of America since the period after World War II when the U.S. was responsible for 45% of world GNP. Despite a surge in average per-pupil spending after the Nation at Risk report, "no miracles have occurred" (p. 22). Brock defined the American public school system as one that "serves less than half our youth...obviously it was never intended to meet the needs of our front-line workers” (p. 22).

He further characterized the basic design of the school system as fitting the social and economic conditions in the early 1900s and described newly identified SCANS competencies that answer to current conditions (See appendix B for a listing of SCANS competencies). Brock explained that once students acquire these, they will be prepared to progress to the workforce or pursue higher education

> Students need to know how classroom learning is connected to the outside world. With this realization, students who might otherwise drop out of school stay in. Their enthusiasm, excitement and self-confidence rise, giving them reason to graduate with the solid foundation to obtain a decent job....As the best vocational educators learned long ago, the most effective way to educate youth is to teach them in the context of real-life learning situations and real problems. This type of learning situation is critical because students need high-performance classrooms to succeed in a high-performance workplace. Once we move toward high-performance schools, it will be crucial to make education, training and work experience more of a seamless process of lifetime learning. (p. 22)

In addition, Brock characterized the school-to-work transition in America as the worst among developed nations. He added that as a result of public schools’ failure, half the students who leave it are unprepared and called the situation “close to criminal negligence” (p. 22). Because no school district is world class, “much less the best in the world” he said, “radical reform––fundamental, systemic reform––is urgent” (p.68).

Business and Industry Perspectives

When employers were asked to identify the weaknesses of today’s college graduates, they responded “poor oral and written skills, a lack of career focus, and a lack of ‘real-world’ experience.” (Moskal, 1992, p. 62).

One CEO’s Involvement.

Jack MacAllister, the son of a school teacher and CEO of US West corporation, said ‘In education, as in business, trying to fix things is a lot more expensive than getting them right in the first place’ (Mullins, 1990, p. 25). Through his company (US West is a Baby Bell), he provided a 10 million dollar grant to operate a program aimed at early childhood education. This is in addition to a 20 million dollar grant to help schools in the states where the company provides phone service.

About another MacAllister effort, the story is told how he established a center for the homeless which provided job training and other services. The center was housed in a former company building. The previously homeless individuals who ran the center also contracted to make telephone products and paid workers wages and benefits for their services. The overall costs to the phone company were considered to be less than the company would have to pay for parts produced in-house.

Apprenticeships.

Peter J. Neff (1992), President and CEO of Rhone-Poulenc, discussed the history of German chemical companies as dominant players in that industry for almost a century, despite two losing two world wars. He attributed this achievement to several factors involving other aspects of the German government and business environment, but said the German education system is the most distinguishing feature contributing to their success.

Both the university and secondary education system are geared to take into account the needs of the industry. Through a “remarkable apprenticeship program” for non-college bound students, time is divided equally between school and the work site. Neff (1992), added that the German education system produces a “continuous flow of highly qualified technical specialists” at every level from the factory floor to laboratories and boardrooms (p. 21).

Industry Week’s Joseph McKenna, in the article Apprenticeships: Something Old, Something New, Something Needed (1992), reported

> Last year, Prof., Stephen F. Hamilton of Cornell University declared that work-bound American youths were products of the worst school-to-work system in

> the Western world. While other nations can boast of youth apprenticeship as a key economic investment, the U.S. can report that fewer than 2% of its high school graduates enter apprenticeships. (Today, U.S. apprenticeships remain largely a narrow, adults-only passage to certain skilled jobs.) The consequences of shunning apprenticeship programs have been severe for America. Every region reports “severe shortages of skilled craft workers,” according to a new survey issued by the National Assn. of Manufacturers and the management consulting firm of Towers Perrin. (p. 15)

<u>The case of a fall from grace</u>.

The University of Texas business school at Austin, in fear of loosing its <u>Business Week Top 20</u> ranking (of B-schools), received the pro bono consulting services of McKinsey & Company. The prestigious management consulting firm delivered a sobering report to the school’s dean (Byrne, 1992). Among the criticisms and recommendations

> Updating the school’s alumni directory...attracting more experienced and diverse applicants...lack of intensity...few electives...[the lack of] “real-world focus”...“so focused on research and theory that they [faculty] are not paying attention to what companies want out there”...uneven quality of graduates...“significant deficiencies in quality of work experience, leadership, and student consistency throughout the class”...“Marketing efforts and service lack aggressiveness, creativity, consistency, and the personal touch to effectively satisfy customer and student needs”...[UT should] be far more aggressive in its aspirations...[the school] relies too much on test scores and undergraduate grades in admitting students. The school should interview more applicants, require at least four written essays–– as do other top schools...more staff [are urged] in admissions, placement and alumni offices...tepid, unaggressive posture of the school’s draft report

> for changing the program...[the] “proposed mission statement––to produce the most competent, creative, and competitive managers possible”––isn’t aiming high enough. “When you say you’re going to do something as well as possible, it’s sort of like admitting that you may not be able to do it...”. (pp. 92-95)

Byrne (1992) also reported that three weeks after McKinsey’s meeting with UT, because a “lackluster showing in the magazine’s survey of corporate recruiters” the school lost its place in the Top 20 rankings. The school paper’s headline when this occurred was ‘Goodbye Top 20’ and a student was quoted as saying ‘This is unbelievable...I should have gone to Michigan’ (p. 95).

The Influence of Perceptions

Schools, as organizations, arrange activities according to logical schemes, and this has the effect of sending signals that give the appearance that they know what they’re doing. Departments and grade levels, job descriptions and curriculum plans and various instructional delivery systems send the message that school administrators overseeing this “are in control” (Sergiovanni, 1994, p. 215).

Van Allen (1994) noted the role of public perceptions

> “The calls for and claims of academic excellence inundate the literature and airwaves. Unfortunately, the same mediums have exposed the decline in educational quality. The perceived quality, whether accurate or not, of an

> institution’s output is a critical variable in any organizational move to TQM” (pp. 152-153)

Galloway (1992), the chair of the Planning Accreditation Board, in an article published in the Journal of the American Planning Association, expressed concern over the future of university academic programs in planning (e.g., as in urban planning). In the course of outlining pressures affecting academic programs and how changes will affect planning practitioners and scholars, he identified three major trends in higher education: “Demographic and budgetary constraints, a growing crisis in public confidence, and internal power struggles related to gender and race” (p. 229).

In a subsequent discussion of these trends, and regarding the issue of erosion of public confidence in particular, he revealed

> These pressures have placed higher education prominently in the public eye and have forced the university to confront a whole set of new questions: What is its central mission? How can this mission be defined in terms of programmatic thrusts and within the bounds of its financial limitations? What is the role of liberal arts in American education? What place do local or contemporary issues have in colleges and universities? In response, many universities, including those that house our most prestigious planning programs, have launched restructuring efforts (or so have claimed) to become more salient to regional, national, and international competitive challenges. (p. 230)

The research reveals some evidence of a possible mutual miscommunication and lack of understanding between business and education in both directions. Businesses have an image of education, and education has an image of business. Neither may be accurate in terms of perceptions about the other. A passage by Bottoms (1993) in an Industry Week article entitled Status: Cleaning up the Mess illustrates

> Consider what a typical college kid visualizes when he or she hears the word 'industry.' Chances are it will not be the clean-swept floors of the printed-circuit-board factory, but rather a Dickensian image of child workers battling rats, filth and mechanical drudgery. Perhaps the most frightening aspect of this dark and wildly inaccurate image is that it correlates with the opinions held by many American teachers. (p. 16)

Part Two: A Review of Quality Concepts

Key Concepts in Total Quality Management

The volume of discussion and data about applications of TQM concepts in business are astounding. The following review, rather than recounting these, will focus on broad TQM concepts in order to provide a grounding for the research on quality issues in education which is at hand.

As convenient as it may be to suggest that TQM, a process originally conceived and applied to manufacturing, is a “formula” that can be universally used for every circumstance, the data in every context clearly show that no such panacea exists. While concepts such as striving for “continuous improvement” endure, each business, as well as, “all business,” or “all government,” or “education,” must translate these principles and adapt to the environments in which they operate.

Total Quality Management (TQM) is based primarily on the theories of W. Edwards Deming but the ideas of Philip Crosby and Joseph Juran are also often recognized in a review of the literature.

Tracy Benson, with Industry Week magazine (1991) reported

> It wasn’t so many years ago that the notion of quality in manufacturing lifted eyebrows. Why? Because producing quality products and services, it was believed, simply meant a more costly process. But years of grueling global competition and the ensuing exploration of the quality terrain have caused what was once a revelation to become common knowledge: The very pursuit of quality products, services, and processes results in lower cost, higher productivity, and greater market share. (p. 13)

TQM promotes a participative management style and is held to be useful for running entire organizations as well as for managing individual units and processes within them. TQM’s team approach is also said to be applicable to projects and the creation of products or desired outputs from any system.

One of its fundamental strategies is to utilize a philosophy of striving for continuous improvement. The specific direction for accomplishing this is derived from embracing a customer focus and a commitment to ensuring quality as the pinnacle of the organization’s mission. A systematic approach to operations ensures that results are tracked, quantified and analyzed. Because of the idea of continuous improvement however, the work of the TQM implementor is “never done.” Utilizing the TQM method is not something that is applied and then finished.

TQM’s viability as an approach to improvement.

One aspect of implementing the TQM process is that it need not be deployed system-wide in order to be applied to a particular purpose. As a comprehensive approach for creating participation, improvements in planning and critical processes become continuous.

As mentioned, TQM embraces a mission which focuses on the customer and a commitment to ensuring quality. Also, long-term thinking about the ultimate outcome of decisions and actions is emphasized by the TQM model. Finally, the development of human resources for the purpose of meeting customer needs is considered an essential tenet.

One of TQM's assumptions is that the majority of problems are the result of flaws in the subject organization's procedures for managing its activities, and not due to the performance shortcomings of employees.

Numerous corporations across America have embraced TQM, although Deming's ideas were first applied to increase manufacturing effectiveness in Japanese organizations after World War II.

Deming died on December 20, 1993, at the age of 93 (at the time, this researcher was personally working on a brochure representing a Deming seminar to be held later in Atlanta). Business Week magazine's writer John A. Byrne (1994) reminisced about Deming, "the Godfather of quality":

> By then, Deming was concerned that he had run out of time. Despite success stories at Xerox Corp., Motorola, Inc., and many other companies that embraced his teachings, Deming felt he was a prophet without honor in his own country. In truth, he had become the father to a sweeping movement in U.S. industry––but he remained unsatisfied that management's interest in quality was deep enough to ensure lasting improvement. Deming achieved credibility in the U.S. only late in his long career––despite his status as Japan's great American sensei....In his own way, Deming had fun and taught American managers something that few who heard him will not forget: Quality matters, and it starts not on the factory floor but at the very top. (p. 44)

Because of his lifetime achievements in Japan, as Byrne related, Deming was revered there while his theories were widely ignored in the U.S. That is, until the Japanese economy grew so powerful that American management was threatened.

Establishing the source of the problem.

According to Philip Crosby, one of the three most commonly cited as quality gurus, quality has “to do with ethics and integrity” (Cook, 1991, p. 68):

> ‘Most of today’s business problems are caused by managerial arrogance, which separates workers and executives. Once they understand the leader’s job is to make employees and suppliers successful, everything will fall into place because customers will also become successful.’ (p. 68)

Deming found fault with processes and the system itself rather than employees and those who operate the control mechanisms of that system. Thus, according to Deming, in order to achieve more positive outcomes, it was the system not the inherent nature of people that would have to change.

Quality Efforts in Government

Discussions in the literature about the usefulness of TQM in government run the gamut from “it doesn’t apply to us” to “shape up because the taxpaying public has had enough.” The following provides an overview of the data, which is at least peripherally applicable, since public education is the product of government systems, processes, vision and funding.

Kline (1993) described an increasing number of TQM adoptions in local government settings and explained the value and application of specific tools “to assist teams and management in identifying ways to improve systems and processes, reduce costs, and identify and meet the needs of customers and stakeholders” (p. 19).

Swiss (1992) submitted that because of TQM’s original purpose, “very much a product of statistical quality control and industrial engineering,” the use of the method in the public sector requires adaptation (p. 356). Referring to the business oriented version of TQM as the “orthodox” approach, he outlined an adapted version of TQM for the public sector, and called this a “limited ‘reform TQM’ approach” (p. 356).

Swiss (1992) further observed that after competitive pressures in the U.S. automobile and electronics industries became critical, many organizations turned to TQM but were unsuccessful because they only used parts of the process. In particular, some tried to adopt quality circles and “make them the primary and free-standing technique for achieving quality” (p. 356). Regarding the difficulty of defining the government customer he wrote

> TQM’s most important principle is to delight the customer. Accordingly, the single most important question is: Who is the customer? Most discussions of TQM in government pay little attention to that question. In business, the company can usually choose its own market niche and thus define its

> target customers: luxury car buyers, for example, or price-conscious food purchasers. For many public agencies, on the other hand, defining the customer is a difficult and politically controversial issue....Moreover, government organizations have obligations to more than their immediate clients. Sometimes the agency's most important customers––the general public––are not only absent but totally inattentive, and yet the agency must risk offending its immediate customers in order to serve the general public....This conflict between a program's direct customers (clients) and its ultimate customers (the general public, most of whom are taxpayers) is often very acute for programs that are not universally distributed....Because government agencies must serve a wide variety of customers who have widely divergent and even contradictory demands and because the general public remains a "hidden customer" with yet additional, often incompatible demands, government agencies often have to deliver a service or product that reflects an uneasy compromise. (pp. 358-359)

Stupak (1993) suggested that for several reasons, up until now, improving quality in government has been of little interest in public sector management. However, current forces for change are driven by public demands for productivity due to fiscal pressures and the increasing deficit, citizens groups' desire for increased customer input, and public servants' desire for empowerment. Also, demands for performance measurement and better long-term planning are causing some government managers to adopt TQM strategies.

In a <u>Counterpoint</u> article, <u>Barriers in Implementing Quality Management</u>, Hyde (1993) outlined some areas of disagreement with Stupak’s analysis of driving forces creating interest in TQM in the public sector. He concluded with his agreement that nevertheless, “Stupak’s [final] conclusions are on target” (p. 37). Government organizations are engaged in a “widespread effort to implement TQM” and have reported increased performance levels in a recent survey administered by the General Accounting Office (p. 37).

Mayes (1994) discussed efforts to implement TQM concepts in South Carolina. A survey administered by the University of South Carolina Institute of Public Affairs to determine the nature of the public’s dissatisfaction with government revealed that many citizens were ignorant about the services provided by the government in South Carolina and had difficulty making distinctions between various levels of government. Mayes indicated TQM implications in response to these data:

> [To carry out meaningful change] in the context of quality management strategies, would seem to say that the customer’s needs should drive the service mechanism. It is my belief that citizens are the customers. the owners of government. If the customers, the owners, are confused by the array of governments serving them, then it would seem logical that all governments themselves would make as a high priority the reduction of walls and barriers separating them and their operations from citizens. (p. 18)

Industry Week's Joseph McKenna in an article, TQ Government (1991), reported that numerous government programs are starting to adopt TQM practices. These include a variety of federal, state and local initiatives such as the award-winning 1926th Communications Computer Systems Group at Robbins Air Force Base in Georgia; the state government of Wisconsin which in 1989 formalized its commitment through the governor's office and appointed a quality coordinator; and the city governments of Phoenix, Arizona; Ft. Collins, Colorado; Madison, Wisconsin; Rocky Mountain, North Carolina and Volusia, Florida.

The article also said that according to the (federal) Office of Management and Budget, 265 government programs are involved in quality and productivity initiatives:

> Good enough for government work. So goes the apologia. America is not merely the land of the free. It's also the home of lousy city service, the cumbersome state bureaucracy, and the perk-loving, free-lunching, check-kiting Congress from Hell....And the way it could be is efficient, cost-effective, and customer-driven. In other words, Total Quality Government. As it turns out, the proposition of government of, by, and for the customer isn't all that farfetched. Public service visionaries have successfully introduced Total Quality Management (TQM) ideas into a variety of governmental programs. (p. 13)

This brief overview of Total Quality applications in government indicates it is becoming a more popular topic in the public administration literature. However, the same considerable debate and lack of clarity that can be found in the literature of academe prevails. Common themes communicate an uncertainty as to who the customers for government services are, and whether the situation is critical such that public managers must respond.

Applications for Quality Management in Education

Having now arrived at a review of Total Quality Management in education, it may be appropriate as a reminder to mention that the central focus of this research is the issue of quality management and service, not necessarily Total Quality Management or its abbreviated form TQM.

Because of the frequency of the use of these terms in the literature, “TQM” has virtually become a “brand name” for a management practice. The subject under study however remains educational management policies and practices affecting quality and perceptions about the U.S. education system. The issue is not the use of “brand name” versus “off-brand” descriptors for virtually the same quality concepts.

The preceding reminder becomes more significant in that the literature review reveals the application of Total Quality Management principles to educational practice can occur in some cases, without the full-integration of TQM terminology into the changes. When these occasions are cited, it is often the underlying motives and the discussion in the text that reveals that concern for quality improvement drives changes, yet schools' responses differ in their descriptions of the very same motives and actions embraced in the language of TQM. Some schools even develop catchy "program names" that they can "roll-out" for staff and public approval.

Of course, any school at any level can use TQM terminology and many have. Both the terms and processes of traditional total quality management have been employed at every grade level. Also notable, the disposition of individuals and organizations who get involved from the outside, often becoming catalysts for improvement, can influence this phenomenon in the particular school setting involved. For instance, large corporations in some locales have pressured business schools to internalize, embrace and teach TQM in order to prepare MBAs ("...or else. We won't hire them!"). Other corporations, utilizing a more positive tack, have tried to provide incentives to institutions and otherwise fostering cooperative arrangements.

The employment of TQM concepts based on service motives ––without particular reverence to terminology––appears to be most often observed in the literature about K-12 environments. Discussions involving higher education institutions seem to specifically use TQM terminology more often, whether they revolve around how the concepts have been adapted and implemented, or in the other case, have conveyed that “words like ‘customer’ don’t belong here in education.”

To illustrate, Winter (1991) discussed barriers for implementing TQM in higher education and strategies to overcome them, and noted that many school districts are considering TQM policies. He discussed that although the names for these particular types of school reforms often differ from TQM, ideas for satisfying needs and meeting competitive challenges through employee participation underlie their efforts.

Winter (1991) identified some of these as “‘restructuring,’ ‘school-based management,’ ‘teacher empowerment,’ and shared decision making’” (p. 53). He also stated that in contrast to the aforementioned, “Colleges and universities remain largely unaware and perhaps even resistant to these concepts” (p. 53). Several conflicts and challenges in higher education were outlined:

> It is ironic that colleges and universities, whose primary function is human resource development, generally place minimal emphasis on staff development for their own employees. This undermines the expertise and effectiveness of employees, but still more important, it impacts their attitudes. This lack of attention becomes another indicator of a lack of institutional commitment to its employees. Finally, colleges and universities have no clear understanding of who the

> customers, either internal or external, are. Administrators are mired in external bureaucracies that impose rule and form. These conditions limit the flexibility and creativity of the institution as a whole. Maximizing resources acquisition, improving institutional image, and minimizing criticism such as the findings in audit reports become priority concerns, rather than serving the internal and external customers of the institution. (p. 59-60)

Schargel (1991) wrote: “Today’s public education is considered second rate....Schools must establish the same quality standards and techniques used by some enlightened American businesses to achieve what is called total quality management” (p. 34).

Citing the case of Westinghouse High, a school that adopted TQM practices and its traditional terminology, Schargel explained the pre- and post-TQM environment and results achieved from employing quality principles. Westinghouse High is also the largest vocational-technical schools in New York City. Among the problems were poor basic skills, motivational challenges, students’ low self esteem and a disadvantaged inner-city student population. After the principal and a group of teachers attended a seminar on quality put on by a corporate sponsor, a banking concern, a school quality team was formed and it developed plans for improvements.

Among the numerous changes for the better outlined after three years were: Greater student involvement; a decline in the dropout rate; an over twenty-times increase in the membership of the Parent-Teachers Association; the creation of faculty brainstorming and interdepartmental meetings to address cross-curricular issues; a freshmen-senior mentoring program doubling grade performance; an increase in admissions requests (ten applications for every available opening); a half-million dollars in new funding support; several scholarships, equipment and supplies donations from businesses; and, several other program benefits.

Quality Progress (Rubach & Stratton, 1994) reported two recently held conferences that emphasized greater cooperation between the business and education communities to improve quality. The first was the Total Quality Forum V and the second, in which government participation was mentioned, the (2nd) National Quality & Education Conference, both held in late 1993.

Editors who also were attendees reported that a number of major corporations were sponsors and participants. Many of these corporations encouraged universities to adopt quality initiatives. The chairman and CEO of Xerox, Paul A. Allaire, was quoted as saying: ‘Those universities that ignore the quality movement are failing their customers....Their students are going to come into a business world that is very strange to them' (p. 65).

In his article Total Quality Education?, Bonser (1992) presented his thesis that colleges and universities experienced a significant cultural change in the late 1960s and they are now engaged in another dramatic shift due to the external environment. Bonser submitted that due to reductions in state and federal funding support and demographic shifts, "Public institutions will find it ever more difficult to compete with other public priorities. Many of our private universities will find their very survival threatened by soaring costs and falling enrollments" (p. 506).

Common views about the "customer" at most universities are described:

> The primacy of the customer is not a philosophy that is common in most universities. They are, of course, aware of their constituencies, but thinking of students, legislators, alumni, taxpayers, or research contractors as customers is a foreign (and sometimes offensive) concept to most faculty and staff. Thinking of themselves as both customers and suppliers is even more foreign. (p. 508)

Froiland (1993) discussed that TQM in business schools was resulting in both change and resistance. Regarding the latter he observed

> In fact, some of the basic tenets of quality-improvement efforts generate considerable controversy among faculty members. Take a relatively straightforward exercise: defining your customer. 'Traditionally in academia we didn't even define the customer...Is it the student, the parent, the community, the future employer? I recall one faculty meeting in which we used the word customer instead of student. Some people became unglued. We were not selling a product. We said we were selling a product. They said we are not selling a product; we are educating.' (p. 56)

As has been mentioned earlier in this literature review, quality principles need not be applied to an entire school system, district or institution. Dougherty (1992) related that TQM principles may be helpful in an academic library setting, especially because of the "current financial straits" many libraries are in (p. 3).

The University of Tennessee at Knoxville implemented TQM principles in its Career Services Department (Mahoney, Boyd, Greenberg, Misch, & Sylvester, 1993). Prior to a campus recruiting event, a team was created to develop ways to maximize the interviewing opportunities for students. In the course of meetings established to manage the effort, with regard to its particular career services effort, the customer was identified by the team:

> We began with the obvious categories of "students" and "employers" but were soon working with many smaller units. Students broke down into current users (alumni, intern candidates, non-registrants); employers into main contact, recruiter, and line

> manager. We added academic departments, spouses of candidates, parents of candidates, and even roommates or housemates. Obviously some of these populations are more closely tied to the interview sign-up process than others, but the initial step was to define all customers. (p. 40)

Donna E. Shalala, the Secretary of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, described TQM efforts at the University of Wisconsin where she was also a former professor of Political Science and Chancellor. In an article TQM Applications in Education, Shalala (1993) wrote that after applying TQM principles at Wisconsin, K-12 and secondary schools were defined as suppliers:

> We're keeping a close eye on the use of TQM principles in K-12 settings too. For example, in one K-12 district, third graders now spend a month refining, correcting, and analyzing a single essay until it is letter-perfect, instead of producing a dozen sloppy, inadequate efforts. They are directing their own learning, not just shoving papers marked with teachers' criticisms into their desks. They are learning to think. Each one is expected to excel, even the slowest learners. We fail our least advantaged students most by not expecting them to soar. We funnel them off into dead-end classes and save our dreams for others. What better way can we reach these students than with systems that tell them, "You can do this. And I won't stop until I find a way to help you?" (p. 7)

Sherr and Lozier (1991) submitted that the TQM approach is consistent with higher education and suggested that there are many commonalties between business and education practices:

> Adopting management concepts and practices developed in the business world is not new to higher education. Examples include the establishment of multiple levels of management (supervision) and a formal chain of command; the generation of many forms, reports, and data, many of which go unused; the implementation of multiple checks an approvals (inspections); the use of elaborate formal evaluations that frequently have no constructive basis; the encouragement of competitive bidding that often results in inexpensive (not to say cheap) materials but frequently increases total costs; and the institution of elaborate planning systems that often do not work well in setting direction, allocating resources, or both. These practices have been largely unsuccessful in achieving their designed objectives in the corporate world and are some of the reasons why many U.S. businesses are not competing adequately in today's global economy. An alternative to many of these management practices is Total Quality Management (TQM). (p. 3)

This overview of Total Quality Management applications in education has revealed that although utilizing TQM in educational environments has become more prevalent in the literature and more popular in practice, resistance is formidable, and debate is evidenced in almost every instance. Most faculties, with the possible exception of those in schools with close contacts, sponsorship or other relations with the business community vigorously object even to using the word "customer" as a replacement for "students" or "constituents."

Prevalent themes make clear an uncertainty as to who the customer for education is, and whether the employment of total quality principles really applies. Nevertheless, data are increasing. Several successful implementations suggest that either resistance and failure or success and improvements can occur. It appears that much depends on the “quality” of the particular quality program’s implementation, and the willingness of participants to wholeheartedly utilize TQM practices.

Summary of The Review of the Literature

The preceding review of the literature explained how education, training and human resource development emerged and what current driving forces are affecting academic and practitioner issues in these areas. For thousands of years, human kind passed knowledge from parent to child, skilled craftsperson to apprentice and by other means characterized today as on-the-job training.

As the world developed technologies, industrialized nations emerged and created needs for millions of skilled engineers, mechanics, production personnel, operators and laborers. While the reality of many jobs reflected an atmosphere of drudgery, each individual among legions of workers had to acquire skills to meet the demands of a new production oriented era. The “mind was a muscle” that needed exercise, it was thought, and so these skills were imparted in a fashion much like the work itself––with many repetitions.

As the experience curve with production strategies grew, thinking changed to emphasize management efficiency. After the Hawthorne study demonstrated a correlation between worker satisfaction and productivity, satisfaction became a driving force in efforts to improve outputs. Finally, the field of human resource development as a larger more encompassing discipline came into being.

Today, both theory and practical experience in human resource development continue to grow. This is contributing to a better understanding about how humans, as resources, can best be assessed, nurtured, trained and otherwise employed in the most effective ways possible for the enhancement of organizational performance. While the aforementioned may sound as though only organizations are considered, this is not the case. Contemporary human resource development practices acknowledge, and in fact actively encourage, individuals to grow as “whole persons,” to develop their own careers in a systematic and personally fulfilling way. Among such ideas are those that suggest that the developing individual strives to achieve greater competencies and toward this end pursues lifelong learning strategies.

This review of the literature also discussed that even at the highest levels in the U.S. Departments of Education and Labor, and in the current President’s Administration, federal executives acknowledge a legacy of ineffectual reform efforts. A “crisis” in education that threatens our economy, and thus our national security and future prospects for survival looms, and new goals have been set.

An emphasis on establishing national standards dominates the agenda, yet some have asked “standards for what curricular outcomes?” The question still remains in the literature whether traditional core subjects such as English, math and science need to be taught and tested or whether more is needed to impart practical living and workforce skills.

Effective instruction requires teacher competence and enthusiasm, and a nurturing learning environment. Students express that they want challenge and discipline toward goals as well as fairness in the application of behavioral rules.

So-called “radical” reform proposals such as those from Sizer and Brock share a common emphasis in a desire for real-world applicability. In their view, group learning experiences focusing on practical outcomes in classrooms should be advocated. Simultaneously, there is an expectation that test scores using traditional evaluative measures will also result from students’ more thorough understanding of the applicability of subject matter.

Business executives often criticize B-schools for their disconnectedness from “what’s really going on out there,” yet many individuals seem willing to involve themselves in educational reform personally and through their organizations. Some schools fail to market themselves and rely on bland mission statements. Students and recruiters complain and these institutions tend to fail to examine core organizational value systems, long-standing traditions, or concepts such as the real-world utilitarian or intrinsic value of “services rendered.”

Quality reforms have swept across the U.S. business and industry landscape, with numerous false starts, partial adoptions and implementation failures. Nevertheless, most organizations in the private sector have come to realize that both in the short- and long-term, quality is the essential competitive advantage that differentiates one product or service from another.

The theories of W. Edwards Deming, the “godfather of quality,” are primarily responsible for defining the quality movement in the in the U.S. The impetus for pursuing such principles however was competition from abroad, especially that from Japan where the widespread application of Deming quality principles established him as a revered visionary, and the nation as an economic success after a comeback from the ravages of World War II.

Total Quality Management, or TQM as these Deming theories are commonly called, emphasize a focus on satisfying the customer; continuous improvement; the evaluation, measurement and tracking of processes and outcomes; employee participation and human resource development; and other tenets held to increase organizational performance. Deming blamed management and the way in which systems were organized, rather than attributing failures to people or any inherent negative tendencies they may have.

The application of TQM concepts in government contexts is being pursued more vigorously according to federal government reports. Contemporary debate in the literature as to how to do this in terms of adapting principles to a public sector environment is regular, and barriers are often cited. Among them, and also on the very top of the list of TQM principles, a “focus on the customer,” has caused many public managers to argue that “the public at large” is too slippery a definition of “customer.”

Meanwhile, some public managers advocate that surely there are useful components and ideas expressed in the TQM philosophy, conveying the notion, “continuous improvement––there can’t be anything wrong with that.” Despite debate centering on best-methods for adapting and adopting principles, public managers fear growing demands from the taxpaying public, pressure from business, and the deficit as well as other fiscal conditions will necessitate changes to their approach to managing government entities.

Educators are discussing quality principles in the literature frequently, however, many of the same barriers cited in government adoptions also surface on a routine and consistent basis. Even arguments that are pro-TQM are similar with respect to citing problem aspects of the issue such as the confusion that prevails as to “who is our customer.” (Editorially, this author concludes that it behooves educators to find out.). Many in academic environments question the need for TQM or its applicability to a service environment, much less, to a broad public service such as education.

Several successful implementations have generated reports of significant improvements. Yet other efforts have not worked as well (with the usual complaints that have occurred in virtually every environment, such as top management wasn’t truly committed, principles were “cherry-picked,” etc.).

Administrators often fear the loss of authority, and some faculty resent the very terminology employed. In addition, the literature review shows that some educators are concerned that “students should be telling them how to run their classrooms.” Many of these people regard TQM as a practice that may lead to loss of intellectual freedom, substituted for servitude. Nevertheless, those who push for reform advocate that decades of ineffectiveness and current trends in funding for education mean, that changes leading toward increased quality and accountability must occur.

McKinsey & Company's client, the University of Texas, perfectly exemplifies the necessity for adjusting to address criticisms. The school lost an important selling advantage when it fell from its Top-20 ranking. The UT example as well as many others in the literature show that while there may be disparity in agreement as to "how," there rarely is disagreement as to "if" change must occur––most educators now clearly see the handwriting on the blackboard.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Rationale for Selection of a Qualitative Research Design

Although it is recognized that there are competing or perhaps complementary research methods available to scientific investigators, it is still true that quantitative methods are most in vogue. This is partly because quantitative methods have traditionally been employed in the natural sciences, resulting in numerical findings through the use of measurements and comparisons. The results are viewed as “hard” evidence. Qualitative research is more likely to be found in social science investigation. One way it differs from quantitative study is that words are used to describe a research subject and to render the findings (Ary, Cheser Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990).

Many researchers in education advocate quantitative studies, basing their arguments on the premise that this approach produces the most objective scientific evidence. This evidence is applicable to the development of theory and thus the advancement of the knowledge in the field.

A primary feature of scientific experimentation is that studies are repeatable, and thus allow for the reliability of results to be cross-checked. Scientific studies are also judged by another key feature which is validity; that is, results may consistently repeat themselves in additional experiments (reliability), but the other question is whether they apply to the situation under observation (validity).

While reducing research variables to numerical equivalents for analysis is appealing for the aforementioned reasons, other researchers in the social sciences and in education assert that the scientific study of human interaction and systems is not necessarily best served by quantitative research.

For example, data collection through the use of a survey instrument can require great skill and sophistication on the part of the researcher (Vander Zaden, 1979). Bias can be introduced simply by the wording of the questions. Even though data would be collected and results would be analyzed quantitatively, the wording of survey questions requires that the researcher make a series of judgments that cannot be totally “objective.”

An extension of the above situation would be to suppose an instance where a valid (bias-free) survey instrument was developed, yet the administration of the instrument introduced bias. This can occur for many reasons, such as when a telephone surveyor catches the respondent at an inconvenient time, when the respondent really doesn't have an opinion but answers anyway, or when the surveyor creates variations in meaning due to voice inflections.

Finally, when using mathematical notation in a quantitative study, phenomenon under observation are normally first expressed in words, then identified numerically to conduct the study, and ultimately, <u>implications</u> are to varying degrees translated back into words for presentation to the scholarly and lay communities.

Qualitative study may therefore be viewed as advantageous for social science investigations because of its direct approach to study and the subsequent reporting of implications, with both operations being conducted in the "native" language of affected audiences.

<u>Assumptions of the methodology</u>.

Nachmias & Nachmias (1981) outline several fundamental assumptions of science that are "unproved and unprovable" (p. 6). One assumption of science in particular, on the acquisition of knowledge, is important in reference to this research

> Knowledge is derived from the acquisition of experience. If science is to tell us anything, it must be <u>empirical</u>; that is, it must rely on perceptions, experience and observations. Perception is a fundamental tenet of the scientific

> approach, and it is achieved through our senses: "Science assumes that a communication tie between man and the external universe is maintained through his own sense impressions. Knowledge is held to be the product of one's own experiences, as facets of the physical, biological, and social world play upon the senses." (pp. 8-9)

Quantitative researchers may minimize the above assumption. For this current study, the researcher suggests that whether an observation is recorded in words or numbers, it is no less an observation, and is valid as such under the tenets of the scientific approach. Ironically, the present research is also about <u>public perceptions</u> regarding education quality, and under the assumption outlined, it appears acceptable to have perceptions about the perceptions under study.

The misinterpretation of numerical findings is just as easy as the misinterpretation of words. Therefore, this research also assumes that a theory is simply an idea about how something works, and that either verbal or numerical expression, or both, might be appropriately applied to express that theory. Regardless of the form of expression, the value of theory is in its effort to objectively, and without misinterpretation, render the truth for others to observe.

There are other possible pitfalls in designing and implementing quantitative research studies. However, in connection with this study, the most compelling reason for using a qualitative methodology is that subjective data such as quality perceptions are the variable(s) of interest. While it is certainly possible to quantify opinions, as any political pollster would quickly point out, at some juncture a research analyst has to suggest what the findings mean and reach conclusions about what the implications may be. Interestingly, the political candidates' appropriate response is to attempt to influence opinion such that a greater number of supporters is acquired.

This research calls for a similar analysis in that it seeks to interpret value judgments regarding quality in education. Secondly, these value judgments pertain to macro issues that have been espoused over a long period of time, often by debating factions saying the same things but using different terminology.

The data presented here are as dynamic as a swirling school of fishes. It is therefore proposed that there be an equally dynamic attempt to "catch some" and derive meaning from the contents in the net. The research methodology thus assumes the appropriateness of an interactive approach to a large amount of existing data which itself is in a state of flux.

As a specific example, the literature review shows that rather than having a solid theoretical base that defines "the customer," there is argument as to whether customers even exist in the context of an academic environment. If education has a customer, then there is equal confusion as to who that customer may be. Without a theoretical base, this research assumes that a "dip-in-the-data" is as good a place to start as any, and that an attempt to describe and analyze observations in words first has the potential to be a helpful prelude for any future researcher employing either quantitative or qualitative approaches.

Relationship Between Statement of the Problem and Data Collected

This study design makes use of abundant existing data and proposes to synthesize new knowledge from these inputs. Although the design is qualitative, the researcher's interest is to study commentary from and about relevant populations, such as students, educators, business executives and so forth, and to obtain a greater understanding of prevalent views.

Inferential analysis.

Perceptions about the quality of the education system are widely evidenced both directly and through the use of inferential strategies. For example, the review of the literature cited the case of McKinsey & Company's work with the University of Texas. The unhappy student quoted as saying ‘I should have gone to Michigan,’ didn’t have to say, “because UT’s value (quality) was lessened by its fall from Business Week’s Top 20 rankings.” The clear inference in this researcher’s view however is that UT was perceived, by the student and the corporate recruiters Business Week surveyed, as an institution offering lesser value among competing alternatives.

This value is different for the student than for the corporate recruiter, even though the final destination point may be the same. The student wants a quality education to obtain better prospects for employment and the highest quality job(s) in his or her career path; the recruiter wants a better field of candidates and to select the highest quality (most qualified) employee(s) for current and future openings.

This current study proposes to seek inferences from data about affected populations and their behavioral responses in order to produce findings that are relevant for explaining processes involved and to create greater understanding on the part of educators.

The acceptable trade-off of breadth for depth.

Some data sources represent views under study with a level of authenticity that may be considered equal to an in-person interview, such as text from speeches, published interviews and quotes from round-table discussions, editorial letters and commentaries, and published official position statements. This study views these data as most significant due to their primary nature. As a larger collection, these are also valuable for analysis to isolate thematic viewpoints.

Finally, although researcher data collection efforts from actual field interviews could probably yield deeper findings, in this current study there are advantages of breadth of data to offset this circumstance. The researcher simply cannot reasonably expect to interview the range of participants in-person that are accessible in the described data pool. Further, in-person interviews are likely to be exploited more fully in subsequent research by utilizing findings from this current study to identify variables deserving greater attention.

Qualitative Research Design Strengths Relative to the Subject Under Study

A qualitative research design offers several strengths in relation to the research under study. These include:

1. Given that the definition of terminology such as “quality” in the research proposal requires contextual-specificity, an ongoing selective interpretation of data inputs and findings is necessary.

2. As was revealed in the review of the literature, there are such large amounts of data in the macro environment that the sorting effort to isolate duplicate meanings may make a major contribution by reducing variables to relevant terms for subsequent research.

3. Reducing variables in the macro environment may also have the effect of producing a micro-model of relevant variables such that the larger system and its processes can be more easily understood.

4. Qualitative research methodologies are ideally suited in social science investigations where data and interactions are dynamic, as the researcher is able to adjust when necessary to changing conditions.

5. With many data available a systematic effort to render a textual analysis may yield new conclusive information as well as suspect-findings for future investigation.

Methodology for the Selection of Data Sources

Vast amounts of data were available for this research in the literature of education, the business media, through government documents and published journal articles as well as the popular press, but mainly if accessed through search terms such as reform, change or business-education partnerships, and so forth.

The availability of data were limited when terms such as "education-TQM," "education-customer," or "education-service" were accessed. The researcher created a "master database" of 2333 references utilizing End Note Plus computer software and its companion product End Link. These 2333 records, entered into the researcher's own database, were determined to be the most relevant, by association, among approximately 5000 collected reference citations in the initial search. Data were captured from online data bases, CD ROM databases, the Georgia State University Library "Olli" card catalog system via modem and in-person visits, and through a physical search of periodicals stacks and other reference sources.

Over 2500 individual magazines, and professional journals from the researcher's own collection were also reviewed for key words in articles and titles over a period of months. In addition, data in news publications such as the local daily newspaper, business newspapers such as the Wall Street Journal, and newsletters were collected.

Finally, other sources such as brochures from training companies and associations, human resources-, training- and educator-oriented conference papers, proceedings and announcements; and brochures, solicitations and other materials from educational institutions were collected.

Altogether, data were collected over a period of two years, consisting of over 700 research data collection hours.

Processing of data into the researcher's database required approximately four months and occurred immediately prior to writing this thesis.

Methodology for Data Management

The use of computer database management strategies allows the researcher to interface with large amounts of data at any given point, as well as continual accessibility. Special electronic search strategies allow the data to be manipulated and sorted in ways that are far superior to a paper-bound manual system. Among other features, electronic data management allows the researcher to find a key word or phrase in any field throughout the data. For example, all journals referencing "teacher salaries" in the article title, keywords or abstract could be isolated; an entire database could be sorted by a series of preferred fields in order such as by date, volume, number, journal name, and article title.

Researchers currently using electronic data management methods already appreciate such control features. However, this researcher submits that having these in-house rather at the university library makes them so much more accessible that a new opportunity to "frolic whimsically in the data" is also created. This interactive data-researcher relationship has enhanced both this current study and the researcher's appreciation for the future potential of electronically aided investigation.

While no system is foolproof, these features have greatly facilitated this current study by allowing a single record to be quickly found among the 2333 records on the database. Thus, if data were collected pertaining to a particular piece of information, electronic indexing and accessing assures the likelihood that the full potential of the information will be utilized.

Methodology for Data Analysis

Quantitative studies are designed to identify independent and dependent variables and study interrelationships between these under strictly controlled conditions. Because findings are number-dependent and consist of measures and counts derived from the data, data collection necessarily precedes analysis. Qualitative studies allow analysis and the subsequent rendering of findings to occur both during and preceding data collection. Data are processed constantly as they are being gathered.

Qualitative researchers assert that there is no way to be totally objective and not influenced by values. No matter how intense the effort to be “scientifically objective,” the very choice of subject, methodology, and interpretations involved in any study demonstrate researchers’ judgments are inextricably tied to their own level of understanding and value systems. Therefore, when utilizing a qualitative methodology, certain procedures and conditions differing from a quantitative study are employed.

1. Rather than attempting to remove the context of situational human experiences (to isolate variables for quantitative analysis), context is considered inseparable from environmental influences such as social, cultural, economic and political conditions. As such, the qualitative study of the human experience considers circumstances as a whole and documents these in as thorough a manner as possible to create an audit trail for future researchers.

2. In order to establish that data are dependable (analogous to reliable in a quantitative study), triangulation is utilized whereby multiple sources, collection procedures and other methods provide cross-checks.

3. Analysis begins immediately and is a continual process that is refined and revised as new information and experiences become available.

4. Additional questions and hypotheses are created as new data are added to the study.

5. Breadth and depth of the study increase as data are collected and processed.

6. Trends emerge as data are gathered and processed resulting in the gradual identification and refinement of

categories, themes and other commonalties reported in the findings.

Technical description of methodology parameters.

The technical parameters of this current study can be summarized as follows: A social science investigation utilizing a qualitative methodology to conduct a complex electronically-aided inductive analysis of primary and secondary sources to result in the synthesis of new theory and knowledge.

Researcher Note: Educational Research or Market Research?

The literature review revealed that in one sense private sector investment in corporate education and training poses a competitive supplantation of the traditional role of educators. Dollars spent on internal training and educational delivery systems might otherwise have been spent on public education.

Widespread dissatisfaction among corporate managements with the education system’s performance is also evident. With these conditions as givens, the market researcher would conclude that even if no corporate messenger visited a school and said “we’re unhappy and we’re taking our business in-house,” the message has nevertheless been conveyed.

The market researcher also knows from experience that when the flow of money is directed elsewhere or otherwise stops, that action itself delivers implicit messages; such as, greater satisfaction is being sought and probably obtained elsewhere; the original need no longer exists; the cost for satisfying the need is perceived to be greater than the satisfaction (value) received; the need may decrease, increase or remain the same but the availability of consumers’ funds may be exhausted.

Beyond these there can be a plethora of reasons, in addition to the possibility that reasons may also overlap. Regardless, the market researcher’s ultimate conclusion is that the offering is in some way unsatisfactory as presented, relative to consumers’ needs.

Lest “needs” should seem an abrupt summary for all possible contingencies, in the conceptual framework of contemporary marketing theory, marketing is simply the process whereby needs are found and filled. As such, all consumer needs are satisfied through a combination of product, price, place and promotion. This matrix differs substantially from what most people understand, and is far more sophisticated than the widely held but erroneous definition of marketing as “selling” or “advertising.”

Product is synonymous with service and in every case refers to need-fulfilling utility.

Price means dollars and their availability, but also other trade-offs such as time and convenience.

Place means where products are acquired, but it also means the entire delivery mechanism (e.g., the literature of education refers to distance education as an alternative delivery system). In a related context, Bartz and Calabrese (1991) define a delivery system as a classroom instructional delivery method such as expository teaching vs. discussion groups.

Promotion means creating not just awareness of a solution to a consumer need, but also interest and finally the action necessary on the part of the consumer to satisfy that need.

These four variables are also known in abbreviated form as the "Four Ps" of marketing. In sum, this matrice of Ps can also be referred to as the market "offering." Offerings are subject to four broad external influences. These are the social, economic, legal, and competitive environments.

The research under study could certainly be called educational research. It is about education and it was conceived to provide underpinnings for the development of theory as well as to make a contribution of knowledge to the scholarly community. However, given the review of fundamental marketing concepts presented, this research could also be easily characterized as "marketing research about education."

The market researcher’s version of the same questions posed would not necessarily differ in meaning from the questions already presented and framed from the educational researcher’s vantage point: The question “What is society’s purpose for the education system, the ‘Three Rs,’ skills-based training, or both?” becomes, from the market researcher’s vantage point, “What is the societal (product/service) need that the education system should fulfill, the ‘Three Rs,’ skills-based training or both?”

Relative to the creation of additional theory and understanding this current study is designed to produce, the researcher suggests that the characterizations, “market research about education,” or “educational research about fulfilling societal needs,” are equally relevant and functional. In either context, the objective of rendering significant findings of benefit to educators remains the same.

SECTION II

SECTION II

Introduction

Section II, comprised of chapters 4 through 6, reviews the findings from this study. The guiding questions that were established earlier are repeated here for reader convenience. These research findings are organized utilizing a straightforward schemata relative to the objectives and guiding questions established in chapter 1. For purposes of organizational simplicity as well as reader convenience, findings are rendered in the order questions were originally posed. Meanwhile, those additional findings that have arisen due to the emergent nature of qualitative research are framed and reported in the context of the guiding questions which have served as anchors in this investigation.

Each of the following chapters will clearly indicate to which question the reported findings correspond:

1. What is society’s purpose for the education system: The “Three Rs,” skills-based training or both?

2. If both education and training, where are the lines to be drawn between public and private roles and responsibilities?

3. How do perceptions, image, identity and reality affect views of education quality among various constituencies?

CHAPTER FOUR

Defining the Purpose of Education

The guiding question posed: What is society's purpose for the education system: The "Three Rs," skills-based training or both?

Findings demonstrate: Societal demands for the educational system include both "The three Rs" and skills-based training. Depending on what constituency is representing views, the nature of demand varies. Both awareness and response on the part of educators varies as well.

Defining Purpose

Bloom and Pearl (1994) wrote: "Unquestionably, one of the most critical purposes of school, regardless of one's underlying philosophy, is to prepare students so that they may be productive members of society" (p. 10). Busse (1992) discussed what employers want from workers in a new global marketplace:

> It used to be that American companies were perfectly content with workers that showed up for work on time, knew their place and did what they were told. Now, as the United States finds itself losing its edge in the world marketplace, employers are rethinking the assembly line approach to management. In the ‘90s, employees still need the old “basic skills”––reading, writing and arithmetic––but those alone will not suffice anymore. Employers now say workers need self-confidence, fresh ideas and good manners plus technical knowledge. They also need to be team players, effective communicators, good listeners, quick thinkers and willing learners. Although they may be willing to provide on-the-job training, employers expect job candidates to possess at least some of these characteristics when they enter the workforce. Educators must do their part to teach these new employability skills to students. (p. 24)

Case-In-Point: Business Schools and Views from Industry

Data have been reviewed at every level of schooling and the researcher suggests that coverage may be best achieved by emphasizing one level of schooling in a more thorough case-in-point discussion of the issue of “education, skills, or both?” An entire and in-depth treatment of the issue addressing all levels of schooling and peripherally related topics such as school-to-work transitions, apprenticeships, voc-ed programs, transfer of training theories, and so forth, would necessarily require many volumes and extend beyond the scope of this present study.

The selection of business schools as the example for illustration purposes in this study seems to be an appropriate choice since they administer the “terminal” degree programs for many economically successful individuals. While high schools also issue the “terminal degree” for many individuals, stopping formal education upon completion of that credential is generally recognized as less desirable than continuing on to higher education. Future researchers might benefit however from selecting other levels of schooling and issues to address in the event they find themselves similarly overwhelmed by the volume of available data.

In an article in Training Gordon (1991) wrote

> With training, as opposed to education, you always ask: What, exactly, is it for? And when I ask that question about the business community’s agenda for improving the schools, here’s the answer I get: It’s not about reading newspapers or recognizing continents at all. It’s about getting the school system to behave as if the one thing that matters about children is their value to the companies they’re going to work for after we’ve finished schooling them....The business community openly regards the shortcomings of the schools as a glitch in one of the feeder systems that supplies it with raw materials. Over the last decade, we’ve become accustomed to hearing business leaders speak without embarrassment about the unacceptable “products” emerging from the educational pipeline and pouring into their hiring offices. Like a subcontractor who ships faulty car radios to an automobile assembly plant, the schools have a quality control problem. (p. 8)

A comparative study of gaps in expectations between industry respondents (Fortune 500 personnel managers) and business school deans and program managers suggests that students may be completing courses in relevant subjects but may not be developing practical skills (Lewis & Ducharme, 1990).

Another study conducted to measure student and managerial curriculum preferences found that “students and managers, capable of judging the degree of relevance, seemed to prefer directly relevant, applications-oriented courses over more esoteric, theoretical explorations” (Stevens & Kohl, 1990, p. 21).

Aiken, Martin, and Paolillo (1994) reported outcomes from two advisory boards about the perceptions of senior corporate executives regarding skills needed by business school graduates. Eighteen curriculum areas were measured and authors determined “The ability to communicate and get along with others is perhaps the most important skill for graduating business students” (p. 160). They also reported “Practical business knowledge is valued more than theoretical knowledge” (p. 161).

Another study of human resource managers by Ray, Stallard and Hunt (1994) also resulted in communication skills being ranked number one among a list of twenty-four hiring criteria. Authors discussed their review of literature showed this to be a common theme: “The most prevalent theme encompasses communication skills, evidenced by the applicant’s written credentials and by oral communication during employment interviews. Other themes include human relations skills, problem solving skills, and work experience" (p. 140).

In an article citing the common features of business and university challenges, Christensen and Philbrick (1993) wrote

> Whereas business has been criticized [in reference to authors' opening remarks describing a decline during the 1970s and 1980s]for its purported deterioration, U.S. business schools have been criticized for failure to understand and aid in solving today's business problems. Recently, many schools have been heralded for their efforts to revise curriculums, teaching methods, and reward structures so as to better prepare students for the challenges of the changing business environment. If U.S. businesses and universities are to prosper, it is urgent that they respond to the changing environment. (p. 6)

Ireland, Ramsower and Carini (1994) suggested that business schools should provide skills (researcher note: providing skills <u>is training</u>): "The challenge to America's business schools is the same now as it always has been; namely, to offer students a rigorous and relevant (i.e., practical) education that will provide them with the skills required to work productively and achieve success" (p. 190).

Spinks (1989), in an article, <u>Internship: Real world 101</u> concluded

> Internships appear to be a practical remedy for academic isolation in the business arena. The interaction between employers and schools will

> inform university staff of the knowledge and skills students need to enter the business world successfully. Curricula can be fine tuned to match employers' needs and the result will be better qualified graduates for the business community to hire. (p. 17)

Aranoff (1989) outlined strategies for teaching business communication skills to community college students, citing the widespread awareness of their importance for effective management. Aranoff also referred to a need for communications training in community college business programs

> Books about successful contemporary business leaders like Lee Iaccoca, Donald Trump, H. Ross Perot, and Mary Kay are filled with stories about their talents for communicating and negotiating effectively and for motivating their personnel. These outstanding individuals may have a natural gift for communicating effectively, but effective communication can be taught. Community colleges must find a place for such training in their business programs. (p. 53)

Findings suggest that both business schools and industry clearly recognize the need for students' exposure to theoretical foundations but they also view real world applicability as a necessary thrust of the academy. The latter means training which emphasizes an end product (a skilled and workforce-ready student) whereas the former indicates education in its traditional role of contributing to knowledge as its terminal objective.

Many business schools compete with claims promoting that their programs are intensely practical and thus offer high value for both employers and students.

<u>Roles and reward systems</u>.

Many gaps exist between employer perceptions and those of the academy as to how to best accomplish this. Faculty are harshly criticized for an over emphasis on theory and an under emphasis on the practical, despite claims to the contrary their institutions may make.

However, faculty authors describing their position often refer to the need to change reward systems and to redirect institutionally established emphasis on research productivity. Also problematic is that some institutions create a “two-faced” system whereby officials glad-hand the business community and talk about service, cooperation and partnerships only to return to the school and deliver admonitory messages to faculty for lack of scholarly output. Implicit an any reward system is its inverse, a punishment, or the null-reward.

The traditional three-legged mission statement of universities is teaching, research and service. In the inverse view, the faculty member who <u>emphasizes</u> business community interaction, i.e., service, and teaching (the two other legs), over research and writing is often punished for these behaviors with consequences affecting tenure, job security, the social acceptance of colleagues and future potential for advancement in the ranks of academia.

The vita of a faculty candidate therefore must be filled with evidence of scholarly productivity which could tend to minimize teaching excellence and business experience. This means, in many instances, those who researched and wrote about business as scholarly observers, never having actually participated, are rewarded the job of teaching something they've "read all about" but not done themselves.

In order to effect the "de-installation" of present reward and punishment systems, alternative job evaluation criteria would need to be developed. Pathing to tenure would necessarily be reconfigured to allow for other emphases. To measure comparative productivity, a system of equivalents utilizing common denominators such as time, effort and results gained through the pursuit of other bona fide activities would be employed.

An example of one such configuration for business school faculty suggested by the data and proposed by this researcher follows:

1. <u>Teaching track</u>: Devotion of primary (perhaps exclusive) effort to creating effective student learning

experiences; coordinating the inputs and opportunities arising from research and service track colleagues.

2. Research track: The traditional track emphasizing research and scholarly publishing with a redirected interest such that a target amount of practical studies are coordinated with the business community.

3. Service track: Acknowledges an institutional interest in participating in the business community, such as by arranging internships, matchmaking of student and faculty sponsorships (e.g., mentors), rendering consulting services, professional association committee service, and fostering revenue or other support-producing linkages.

Fifteen prescriptive suggestions.

“Ideally, a delivery system is composed of multiple approaches such as case studies, role plays, simulations, small group discussions, management games, in-basket activities, and computer-assisted instruction” (Bartz & Calabrese, 1991, p. 147). Within the context of delivery systems or perhaps in addition to those Bartz and Calabrese suggest, other approaches may be effective. As a broad prescription, activities tied to hands-on interaction with the business community would aid transfer to the workplace.

Findings as well as the review of literature show that another area in need of attention is the reform of traditional evaluative strategies. Sormunen (1994) observed

> Despite the fact that American students are among the most tested in the world, educators are often charged with failure to develop productive assessment and accountability systems. Movement from a testing culture to an assessment culture is at the heart of the thrust for educational reform. Authentic assessment, assessing activities in a context similar to that encountered in real life, has resulted in an increased interest in nontraditional ways to assess student learning. In fact, movement away from one aggregate score to the measurement of many different kinds of ability is expected in some states, and mandated in others. Clearly, any action plan for business education into the year 2000 will, of necessity, include new forms of assessment. (p. 8)

Several prescriptive measures have become evidenced and/or implicit in the findings. Many of these are suggestive of changes to enhance the integration and evaluation of applied learning into curricular and institutional outcomes. A brief list might include:

1. Regular guest speaker engagements with individual experts but also with teams; possible configurations may be a corporate manager, a supplier to the corporation and a customer who are all willing to share insights about the dynamics of their relationship or; an internal quality team consisting of engineering, production, marketing and administrative representatives to explain their processes.

2. Roundtable discussions with panels comprised of industry experts and observers.

3. Faculty arranged mentoring programs facilitating the pairing of students with business managers.

4. Entrepreneurial assignments, wherein complete business plans are developed and a panel of venture capital and financial practitioners provide interim guidance and final evaluations.

5. Field visits to association meetings; trips to manufacturing, distribution, and administrative facilities. Arranged visits to CPA firms, ad agencies, law firms, and other professional offices.

6. Creation of “live” presentations about “real issues,” requiring proposal writing, preparation of graphic communication devices and delivery before business managers and decision makers normally involved in such processes.

7. Portfolio development as a compliment to or substitution for paper and pencil tests; terminal portfolio development programs including “portfolio” fairs involving the business community.

8. Professional-level writing assignments geared toward publishable topics rendered in acceptable editorial submission formats, not school style guides.

9. “Live” career development assignments including experiences in résumé writing, contact management,

interviewing, employment agreements, financial analysis of value received by both parties, negotiation of proposals and independent contractor agreements, and personal financial planning. These should be supervised by subject matter experts such as outplacement, HRM, legal and accounting practitioners.

10. Altering the mix of traditional internship programs to include several experiences rather than one culminating experience (usually positioned at the end of academic programs).

11. “Real” assignments specific to topics in program tracks: For example, writing and review of a personnel policy manual, developing a marketing campaign, drafting an annual report conducting a focus group, or administering a survey in a corporate sponsor/beneficiary relationship.

12. Utilization of contemporary technologies and instruments including far more software exposure than what is typically found in business schools, where usually, only accounting course materials are shipped in text and software bundles. A suggested well-rounded computer applications-oriented curricula might integrate statistical, word processing, spreadsheet, desktop publishing/presentation, database, accounting, and contact/time management software proficiencies into program outcomes.

13. The possible restructuring of entire programs by modeling cooperative education and apprenticeship methodologies and professional licensure programs such as residencies currently applied in health care settings.

14. The integration of business community executives into the faculty with instructor selection criteria emphasizing business accomplishment as an acceptable substitute for terminal and perhaps graduate or other academic credentials (assumes if an executive created a billion dollar organization––with or without advanced academic credentials––that executive acquired equivalent competencies are worthy of sharing with students).

15. Establishing other evaluative measures, including the examination of assumptions pertaining to standardized tests administered at admissions, interim and post program intervals. Reliance on GMAT scores, unless correlated to known and validated criterion for job success (rather than school success) cannot be used as conclusive, relative to the ultimate objective of job success. Competencies for specific occupations should be considered and industry validated selection criteria for such positions should be incorporated into the academic selection and evaluative processes.

As an example, to obtain greater “communication” skills as an academic outcome, a greater emphasis on the possession or ability to acquire such skills through the program treatments should be developed.

In using such a strategy, entrance, interim and terminal evaluative measures of competency for such communication skills would necessarily follow. Utilizing terminal industry competencies would also necessitate that traditional GMAT and grade criteria used as entrance requirements be adjusted to take advantage of a greater range of predictive strategies.

CHAPTER FIVE

Public Verses Private Roles and Responsibilities

The guiding question posed: If both education and training, where are the lines to be drawn between public and private roles and responsibilities?

Findings demonstrate: If a return on investment can be assured, public and private sector willingness to participate becomes correspondingly open-ended. From the vantage point that education is a government service, and educators are remunerated for their work on an individual basis, a transaction of legal tender leaves explicit and authentic evidence which indicates that a customer exists. Constituencies that are financially tied to supporting education are therefore, by definition, customers.

Value as a Self-Sustaining Justification

Private sector entities are more than willing to support both education and training. The essential determinant as to what extent such willingness applies is whether or not value is returned such that productivity gains can justify the costs.

The results of a poll on worker training conducted by Nation's Business indicated that 70% of respondents held that the federal government should offer tax breaks rather than mandating spending and installing its own proposed programs. Many responses to questions relating to specific measures that should be used by the government were close, such as "Should every American have the right to borrow federal funds for college?" However, the results seemed to indicate greater confidence in private sector capabilities to answer the need for creating a highly trained workforce (Szabo, 1993, p. 85).

The public contribution in a democracy is to assure that training and education are provided with efficiency, equality and fairness and to administer programs fostering access, diversity and other attributes affecting value for all citizens.

Inasmuch as both knowledge and skills must be made available for cultures and civilizations to progress, the obvious public sector role is to foster a broad intellectual agenda as well as fulfill societal skills- and productivity needs.

While many in the U.S. public are generally supportive of scholarly research and scientific missions, when linkages between the theoretical and practical are established investments are considered far more affordable.

Models to go by.

For educators, an examination of the practices of large private sector investors in R & D, such as AT&T Bell Laboratories, may provide helpful models. In these environments science is pursued for practical applications' sake, but with a realization that to get marketable products, work must also be conducted to create new knowledge. Costs for the new knowledge are "rolled-in" to overall costs for supporting the lab, all of which must be eventually paid for from the revenues generated by the more useful ideas that emerge.

To describe another model, it may also be helpful to identify that many universities already pursue research contracts from government entities such as the U.S. Department of Defense. Through these, the ultimate intent of practicality is evidenced by the research sponsor.

The process normally involves the sponsoring entity's circulation of an RFP (request for proposal) to which the research scholar(s) and institution(s) respond. The RFP specifies parameters and desired outcomes and seeks evidence that these can be achieved. Also, responses to RFPs are used to determine what the research will cost from various competing suppliers.

The findings from this study suggest that numerous private and public sector entities are swamped with problems such that they would be susceptible to an inverse process, whereby research scholars would identify a problem beforehand and seek research sponsors that would benefit from having the problem resolved. Many such problems in the business community, for example, are financially burdensome and worth not only sponsorship dollars but other support (e.g., data processing, administrative and staffing assistance) if they can be remedied.

The model requires a proactive rather than a reactive posture to the creation of research opportunities and a blending of scholarly and applications oriented philosophies. While the aforementioned “blending” may be objectionable to the traditionalist scholar, it is important to reiterate findings reviewed earlier which clearly indicate a societal desire for both outputs from the education community.

With respect to funding education specifically, the same parameters outlined for private sector willingness to support education and training apply to public sector willingness. That is, value must be returned and outcomes such as economic stability, employability, an increasing standard of living and the joys of learning can justify the taxation and other costs incurred.

Benefits versus features.

Findings show that educators need to offer answers to problems in order to garner support. For example, students attend college verbalizing attraction to a specific degree program, but a recent attitude survey in the Chronicle of Higher Education reporting reasons to go to college found that almost 80% of respondents said they make choices “to be able to get a better job.” This was concurrently the number one reason among those given for attending college (“Attitudes,” 1993, p. 15).

In the preceding situation, the educator who is recruiting students might wish to recognize the usefulness of emphasizing the implicit benefit of employability gained from a program in addition to the rewards of learning. Many catalogs however say little about the practical applicability of programs and simply list the “name and course numbers” (feature) accompanying the degree conferred. Based on the attitude survey’s data––from the prospective student’s vantage point––such an omission may not provide enough reasons to apply.

This researcher regularly sees television advertisements from one highly financially successful independent institution, DeVry, apparently using such appeals very effectively, judging from the duration and frequency of the campaign.

Advertisements aired in Atlanta also promote the benefit of the institution as one with a number of other locations throughout the United States (e.g., in the event a job transfer affected a student in the middle of a program they might continue from another location). DeVry’s ads feature a series of “slice of life” testimonial appeals in which graduates endorse to the effect, “I graduated and got this great job at NASA telling everyone how to launch computer controlled missiles and plan intergalactic space missions.”

To the extent that educators can demonstrate that an academic process is causal to obtaining valuable benefits for its constituencies, funding demands can likewise be justified. Value is manipulated by making adjustments in the Four Ps matrix to arrive at an offering that fills the need.

Given these pieces, findings show that educators must create value in order to enjoy support. Conversely, the widely recognized lack of support, criticisms and dissatisfaction voiced by the public suggest a clear lack of value received and/or perceived from the education system.

Quality concepts often provoke confusion as to the nature and meaning of “value.” Marketing theories suggest that the offering with the greatest value (the most desirable mix of the Four Ps relative to consumers' needs) correlates to greatest quality. The offering with the least value correlates to least quality.

Education's "customer" and service.

Caple (1994) spoke of the dangers of adapting any "particular model" (in reference to TQM) too quickly: "But, what public does higher education and student affairs serve and, therefore, who really is our customer?"; "What makes the learning we help students achieve become a larger contribution to society? Is this a service?" (p. 3).

Others are more certain that education has customers. Ewell (1993) wrote about service, the word "customer," and the debate over terminology

> Serving customers. At few points in the Total Quality conversation does discussion become so heated as around the word "customer." Partly, of course, this is because the term itself vividly signals TQs commercial origins. More subtly, it is because knowledge "in service" to anyone––whatever their label––directly threatens the academy's core myth of independent inquiry, conducted on its own terms and for its own sake. Particularly when applied to instruction, the term also suggests a surrender of expertise and authority by those assumed to have both, to parties who by definition are unaware of what they do not know. As the latter point suggests, it is when the term "customer" gets applied to students that things get sticky. In some cases, certainly, the label applies perfectly. Students are the direct customers of such campus services as parking, food services, registration or the library. As consumers with particular wants and means, they (and their parents) also make the initial "purchase

> decision" about which college to attend or whether to attend at all, and they will continue to make such choices as long as they are enrolled. (p. 54)

Peter McE. Buchanon (1994), President of the Council for the Advancement and Support of Education, wrote: "As I see it, alumni will remain the crucial source of support for schools, colleges and universities" (p. 23).

Therefore, this researcher would add: The statement regarding Ewell's assessment, "and they will continue to make such choices so long as they are enrolled," although accurate, is incomplete.

Consumers will make choices as alumni and future holders of community leadership positions. Woe unto the development office that starts its relationship after graduation (the current practice). These present development efforts seem primitive and unsophisticated. Such development efforts might profitably be revised to recognize that the relationship starts even prior to admission, rather than after graduation. Only by ensuring and nurturing a positive relationship in all phases of the association between student and school, before, during, and after attendance can students be expected to feel and act truly philanthropic later on.

Findings indicate that writers in the literature who are affiliated with business schools seem to have least difficulty with accepting customer concepts, even if they lament they are less adept at applying these concepts than they should be.

"American businesses and business schools have been criticized for being unresponsive to foreign and domestic competition as well as the rapidly changing needs and expectations of their customers" (Christensen & Philbrick, 1993, p. 6). Ireland, et al, (1994) wrote

> Both business firms and business schools are challenged to provide valuable services to customers. For business schools, a key challenge is to equip students (one important customer) with the skills they need to be hired and valued by employing organizations (a second important customer). Thus business schools must provide students with educational experiences that will allow them to make contributions that are relevant to the environments in which firms are and will be competing. (p. 190)

According to Bonstingl (1992), educators can identify various levels and types of customers

> In one sense, the student is the teacher's customer, as the recipient of educational services provided for the students growth and improvement. Viewed in this way, the teacher and the school are suppliers of effective learning tools, environments, and systems to the student, who is the school's primary customer....The school's stakeholders and secondary customers––including parents and family, businesses, members of the community, and other taxpayers––have a legitimate right to expect progress in students' competencies, characters, and capabilities for compassionate and responsible citizenship––not for the direct and immediate gain of stakeholders, but rather, for the

> long-term benefit of the next generation and of generations to come. (p. 6)

In an impassioned article, entitled A teacher's open letter on our failing school system, Kusky (1990) acknowledged the taxpayer as a recipient of services provided by the public education system:

> Our nation's public educators have been accused of wasting millions of dollars due to an unneeded bureaucracy and poor management. Fellow citizens, it is far worse than that. We in public education are not merely wasting the tax payer's money. That, in itself, is criminal enough even though it be attributed to stupidity or ignorance. We in public education are guilty of far worse a deed. We are bilking the taxpayer. We are cheating the taxpayer by taking his money and not providing the services (education of America's young people) that were promised. We are not showing a profit. We are not graduating students with the skills required so that they may be contributing members of our society. (p. 182)

Even the courts seem to support the idea that in a legal context, claims made about educational services are subject to litigation (and therefore implicitly affirm consumers have rights which must be satisfied). The Chronicle of Higher Education reported the case of two students who were awarded not only a refund but also damages over a computer course they said was too hard in relation to the course description (Shea, 1994).

<u>The competitive environment--like it or not</u>.

Brown (1991) wrote to a business audience in <u>Industry Week</u> about a competitive edge and poses three questions that may be well suited for use in an educational context with a minor translation. The original quote follows

> • What does your company provide a customer that your competitors do not?
>
> • Where does your company excel in terms of product/service quality, performance or warranties?
>
> • Why should a customer do business with you––and not “the store down the street?” (p. 61)

Rephrased for applicability in an academic context, this researcher suggests that the educator might ask similar questions about their own competitive position (Table 1).

In one sense, based on observations about the “customer” of education both pro and against, it would seem that like it or not, educators are obviously subject to consumer and taxpayer choices. All the debate about the applicability of “service” and “customer” therefore would appear rather pointless if the individuals with the power to make such decisions see themselves as paying service recipients and therefore, customers.

Indeed, the ambiguity (and sometimes the rather disingenuous questions in the literature, from the researcher’s vantage point) about “Do we have a customer?”

Table 1

Competitive Questions for Educational Institutions

Brown's question	Researcher's translation
• What does your company provide a customer that your competitors do not?	• What does your institution provide a student that other institutions do not?
• Where does your company excel in terms of product/service quality, performance or warranties?	• Where does your institution excel in terms of program quality, teaching performance and graduate placements in productive and rewarding jobs?
• Why should a customer do business with you––and not "the store down the street?"	• Why should a student pay to attend with you––and not "the other institution offering better services and job prospects after graduation?"

and “Who is the customer?” vanishes the moment the educator is confronted with the fact that students and parents make purchase decisions.

Public schools therefore compete with private schools; public education competes with private sector training and education; development offices compete with myriad avenues for alumni to utilize discretionary dollars; business schools compete with each other and they compete with law schools and liberal arts programs; faculty in one department compete with faculty in another for salaries; districts compete with districts; others compete with others, et al, ad nauseam.

With such competition for dollars, the existence of a customer in terms of applicability to the terminology of education becomes undeniable. If the educator understands that any decision maker with control or influence over resources that can affect the education system or any part thereof is by definition a customer, the confusion is resolved.

One tremendous difficulty in education, however, is the prevalent attitude to which Ewell referred earlier, that a service philosophy “directly threatens the academy’s core myth of independent inquiry, conducted on its own terms and for its own sake.” That attitude of independence is vulnerable to the fact that when the “financial rug” is pulled out from under education by the taxpaying public, such freedom is left to rest on the “cold dirt floor” of accountability to the payer’s wishes. In that regard, there is no such thing as intellectual and scholarly independence.

Finally, a marketing view of the data might define a student as an education customer with a need to acquire competencies such that they can meet their own desired objectives (e.g., typically for “a better job”). This researcher submits, fulfilling that need is not too terribly different from what many in education are already attempting to accomplish.

To the extent that such an education customer as defined has the power of choice in selecting, attending, recommending and otherwise patronizing a particular institution or academic program, that institution or program must remain cognizant of a mission to satisfy the need. Again, such a thought does not differ from what many in education are already trying to accomplish.

It appears that, since susceptibility to customers choices exists, then the real challenge is to acknowledge that in a contemporary context, only responsible consumption assures a continuous and satisfactory supply. Thus, customer-supplier relationships are regarded as interdependent, and ideally, symbiotic.

Researcher experience would indicate that such a concept of interdependency is not universally understood, and the practices of many entities demonstrate a lack of ability to maximize the benefits of such a connection. This is even so in the business community, in which one would assume more individuals are accustomed to terminology such as "customer-supplier" relationships.

For example, some shortsighted purchasing authorities in corporate settings fail to adequately judge ultimate value (dependability, longevity, warrantee, integrity, delivery time, adequacy of protective packaging, etc.) and defer to price and "lowest bidder," in spite of their market knowledge. Even after repeated disappointments with inadequate products and services, from which they presumably would learn, these authorities fail to judge the parameters for evaluating the supplier's total offering.

Educators not routinely engaged in the study of such market dynamics (and probably those who vehemently oppose the word "customer") may be even less likely to realize the potential of symbiosis. Suppliers are nowadays often recognized, appreciated and respected, even <u>protected</u>, as "partners."

In promoting the value of an educational institution to a student-customer, analogous issues to those above become important in the interdependent (and negotiable) relationship:

Translated in an educational context, delivery time would mean how many years to complete a degree; what time of day classes are offered; how long a class is in session; and length of school terms such as quarters or semesters.

For instance, many institutions that are heading toward being more student-customer service oriented are already applying such strategies (of benefit to themselves through substantially higher tuition) in this interdependent context by changing their delivery times and offering “convenient” executive MBA programs that can be completed in “just two short years.”

Without such a realization about interdependency and mutual benefits in a symbiotic educator-supplier/student-customer relationship, educators would be remiss to sacrifice their traditions. The adamant arguments and tendency to cling to the “core myth” of intellectual freedom and authority would be the natural response to a perceived “demotion.”

Recognizing the educator who envisions a lesser role––in servitude to those who “know not what they do not know,” makes the lack of educational change and resistance referred to earlier in this study more understandable.

This researcher would suggest that the idea of symbiosis between educators and students (customers, constituencies, et al) might foster a palatable basis for dialog, perhaps resulting in new theories about increasing educational effectiveness. It is this researcher's own "theory" that ideally, the educator-supplier/student-customer, -constituency, -societal, relationship is symbiotic.

CHAPTER SIX

How Perceptions and Reality Affect Quality

The guiding question posed: How do perceptions, image, identity and reality affect views of education quality among various constituencies?

Findings demonstrate: Quality is dynamic and dependent on both perceptions and reality; perceptions supplant reality if they are held with sufficient conviction. Time after time, the truth about businesses, government agencies, education, schools, teachers, about anything that can be misunderstood often will be misunderstood. However, these do not negate the fact that many real structural problems beyond such insensitivities exist and form the basis for what might be termed an “identity crisis” in education. Increased communication and knowledge are the only known remedies for such naïveté.

The Issue of Education Quality

The entire quality movement in both academic and corporate contexts has historically been plagued with dangers, critics and very real difficulties. As was noted in the review of the literature, Deming's strategies were originally applied to manufacturing in Japan. In corporate contexts, many still argue whether such procedures may be successfully applied to service environments.

Some educators argue therefore on the basis of whether Deming's principles can be applied after undergoing what amounts to two transformations: from manufacturing to (corporate) service, and from corporate service to educational contexts. These findings suggest that the ensuing debates have ranged from impassioned arguments to denial that education is at all a service to society, and rather is a unique construct with no such obligations.

A number of historical reviews have presented notions that educators have long enjoyed free intellectual reign and have been accustomed to what in political terms would be called a dictatorial relationship with students. An "I lecture––you learn," relationship has characterized the educational landscape for most of American schooling's history.

Thus, as individuals with opinions such as parents and community leaders, business managers, politicians and others have involved themselves and suggested a "collaborative relationship" (consistent with quality principles), some educators have balked at the ideas and fired back with accusations that these other parties are interfering.

In addition, these educators who are so disposed often add that there is already enough interference from government mandates and regulations, administrators, currently established school boards (or trustees, regents, etc.), over-burdening school rules, and societal problems such as drugs, violence, dysfunctional families and so forth.

Findings have revealed that very often, parents (such as school volunteers) will in turn claim that educators often cry out for parental involvement, which they indeed want, but when the educator gets help, “they are ungrateful unless it’s their way.” With such bickering back and forth it’s not too difficult to see where installing collaborative initiatives such as Deming’s quality teams won’t work unless all parties are genuinely committed to working out their differences. Of course, collaborative teams are just one of several quality concepts under study.

The aforementioned scenario of “bickering back and forth” perfectly illustrates why a case could be made that Total Quality in education doesn’t always work. The counter argument the expert TQ advocate would present, however, is that what failed was the implementation, not the principles.

Rather than joining the fracas, this researcher would prefer (to the extent possible) to emphasize the underlying matter––what quality itself is in education, common barriers to quality, and how quality can be achieved.

The quality expert.

As was proposed by this researcher in reference to one of the core purposes of this study, the examination of Total Quality Management, TQM, Total Quality Leadership (TQL), and other related concepts like Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI), with regard to specific terminology, is not nearly as important as the conceptual framework at hand.

To further exemplify the reasoning, outlines of “how to install a quality culture” from TQ experts typically insist on an understanding of systems theory terminology, statistics and other disciplines, which may certainly be helpful. On the other hand, one might question whether or not the syndicated columnist, “Miss Manners” or Amy Vanderbilt, an authority on the same subject of etiquette (Vanderbilt, 1972), would not have the necessary acumen to preside over efforts that resulted in the same end result––satisfying customers.

There is also something to be said for the innate expertise of customers themselves. This researcher recalls a focus group assembled for conducting market research on a new food product to be distributed in grocery stores. A number of “experts” in packaging, food processing, distribution, grocery buying and related areas had been recruited to participate along with a few “everyday consumers.” As the discussion progressed the moderator allowed a vocal sub-group of participants to just about resolve every issue including a commitment for a very large first order from the enthusiastic grocery buyer.

Finally, a “non-expert” housewife spoke up and said, “but, it tastes terrible, and no one’s going to buy it.” The other “non-experts” then added their agreement. The excited mood in both the participant and client observation rooms instantly deflated like a pin-pricked balloon.

Therefore, this researcher tends to be skeptical of “experts.” While the following may seem self-evident, as a result of the preceding scenario and from this researcher’s marketing experience about how easily assumptions can affect managers, it is important to emphasize that unequivocally:

The best and most knowledgeable source of information about customer preferences is customers. Any expertise a quality consultant may have must then necessarily be based on second hand knowledge of such customer preferences and is therefore subject to inspection for transfer, processing or other errors.

<u>Barriers to quality––the need for systemic change</u>.

Many educators believe that reform efforts have focused on rearranging the elements of the system when it is the system itself in need of dramatic change. Isaacson and Bamburg (1992) wrote, “We worry that improvements in schools based on the current quality movement will prove disappointing if implemented in the same ways with the same organizational structures” (p. 42).

Betts (1992) also suggested that the entire education system is in need of change: “Our piecemeal change efforts of the last decade have taught us a valuable lesson...we must seek improvement through systemic change” (p. 38).

Indeed one of the most oft-cited problems in the literature about education reform and change is that initiatives which might be implemented are against the law. Hixson and Lovelace (1992) submitted

> But for the majority of schools and districts, state education departments and state legislatures continue to define and circumscribe what schools are to achieve and the specific strategies they will use. State-level requirements for minutes (and sometimes methods) of instruction, school calendars, curriculum and graduation requirements, program segregation, and, perhaps most importantly, control over the amount and use of fiscal resources all severely limit the degree of discretion local schools can exercise in comparison with private companies...the implication is that individual schools, school systems, and the educational community as a whole must provide far more assertive leadership in serving as both a catalyst

> and a vehicle for developing a broad-based consensus among various customers. (pp. 24-25)

Continuous improvement is one of the fundamental tenets of Deming's quality principles. Typically, in education "everything starts anew" each year due to the manner in which funds are allocated. This creates difficulty in implementing long-term changes. Freeston (1992) warned educators about adopting quality initiatives as a short-term strategy

> Quality has already become a marked term in some educational circles. Journals, workshops, and consultants have popularized, and thus diminished, its significance. In a very short time, some educators have taken a very long-term, continuous improvement model, converted it to a quick fix, and killed it. (p. 13)

There are many barriers to adopting quality concepts in organizations and in school settings. Table 2 describes some of the more commonly cited attitudinal barriers (adapted from Freeston) in education.

With decades of preceding reform efforts as the legacy to which educators refer, one barrier, the idea among some that "we've been here before" is easy to understand. Brandt (1992) addressed how first impressions about Total Quality Management may create the false idea that it is 'another gimmick from the management training people' (p. 3). In an Educational Leadership editorial he wrote

Table 2

Attitudinal Barriers to Quality Concepts in Education

• The terminology, beginning with "quality"	• Seen as overused and unobtainable
• Using the corporate model	• Rejection of the idea of a customer; skeptical about trying to apply a corporate model to education
• Leadership lacking	• Lack of commitment and few examples of truly quality oriented leaders
• Another fad	• Seen as something that will come and go soon
• Timing	• School operates year-to-year and can't really pursue long-term implementation

Table continues

Table 2, continued

• Already know all that	• Perceive there's nothing new in quality
• Students don't value education	• Students should work harder and schools would improve
• Blame other causes, i.e., society	• Families and societal conditions are insurmountable
• Cultural differences	• Believe quality movement is a Japanese phenomenon
• Teaching is an independent endeavor	• Collaboration is non-applicable

> The quality movement is deceptive because most parts of it are familiar. Sadly, they are familiar only in the abstract, because most organizations, including schools, apply them erratically and inconsistently. For example, the model is based on the assumption that people want to do good work and it is management's job to make that possible. "Well sure," we say, "that's McGregor's Theory Y. So what's new?" (p. 3)

Indeed, "we've been here before" is a common theme, yet it also seems the stakes this time are particularly high. Costa (1993) explained, "looking toward education in the next century know that new educational goals are imperative for our youth's survival, the continuance of our democratic institutions, even our planetary existence" (p. 50).

Achieving quality.

The first issue with achieving quality is defining the term itself. The word is used/overused in all manner of applications. Seymour (1993) observed

> The butter in my refrigerator has a banner across the bottom of the package––A Tradition of Quality. Earl Schieb, the king of auto painting, assures me that he offers Quality at an Affordable Price. The local hospital offers Quality Medical Care "at your convenience and a nearby university advertises its MBA program with a nifty headline, Quality to the Highest Degree. "Quality" may be the most overused word in the English language today. People are willing to pay for it, organizations are driven to invest in it, workers are exhorted to produce it, and advertisers feel compelled to communicate it. Quality is a near universal goal. At the same time, it is one of the least understood concepts.

> Everyone wants it. But what is it? And once you decide what it is, how do you attain it? (p. 6).

However, as has been discussed throughout this study, quality is the satisfaction of customers. Kaufman and Hirumi (1992) submitted that satisfying customers is not enough; in order to achieve quality, they suggest, society must be well served. To support their position, they cited circumstances where customers were very satisfied, but not well served, such as when unhealthy products like tobacco have been marketed:

> While TQM works to increase the efficiency of processes to ensure customer satisfaction, organizations often assume that what they produce is desirable for society both now and in the future....Similarly, educators might be pleased with 100 percent attendance or 100 percent graduation from high school, but what if high school graduates don't get jobs, go on welfare, or become criminals? What do we need to learn about quality to ensure that public school graduates will be self-sufficient, self-reliant, and contribute positively to our society?....By widening our vision of quality to include societal payoffs, we can not only be responsive to our coming world, but we can also be masters of it. (p. 33)

As has been noted however, this present study regards many customers as givens, and thus inclusive of society at large. Nevertheless, Kaufman and Hirumi's model placed "Usefulness & Societal Consequences" on top of "Customer Satisfaction (Employers, Institutes of Higher Learning, Parents)” which in sum, at least accounted for all contingencies (p. 34).

Accordingly, achieving quality might be defined as a process whereby the customer, which has as of now been defined a number of times with the same end result, is satisfied to some degree or another. Satisfaction correlates to quality and is given by providing value which is consistent with customers’ utilitarian needs (as well as desires, expectations, wants, whims, etc.).

The first step in achieving customer satisfaction must therefore necessarily be to accurately and fully assess the customer’s needs. Some educators would argue that if society at large is the customer, measuring such a diverse and scattered group of constituencies is impossible.

This is a claim to which this researcher must respond, well established procedures are available not only in market research texts, but also throughout the literature of educational research to measure such large populations as “the public.”

In addition, there are numerous similar theories and methodologies in the social sciences for measuring such phenomenon through random sampling and other strategies. Evidence suggests that what is more often the situation is that many educational institutions either don’t even try to ask, or fail to respond to feedback they collect.

Even of such quantitative methods are not entirely accurate as compared to a whole population study, evidence suggests that educators thus far simply haven't even tried to assess customer needs. Godbey (1993) observed

> American colleges and universities tend to rely on inputs and other proxy measures of educational quality to avoid sophisticated, systematic approaches to assessing the value added by, and customer satisfaction with, the educational process. (In this regard, higher education offers a disturbing parallel to corporate America circa 1975.) (p. 38)

These findings have revealed that a failure to ask is common, and a failure to respond, even to the "proxy measures" to which Godbey referred is also typical. Yet, the information is there for the asking.

Further, even mechanisms such as student evaluations which are often employed are misused. Evaluations need to be continuous such that criticisms are addressed at the time a problem occurs, not halfway into the next term after the affected students are long gone. (Interestingly, both academic institutions and corporations often have a similar problem with employee evaluations such as the "annual performance review." Feedback, to be effective, needs to be immediate and ongoing.)

Levine (1993) discussed the results from interviewing older students, noting the impact of their growing numbers over the past couple of decades on higher education

> The relationship these students want with their college is like the one they already have with their banks, supermarkets, and other organizations they patronize. They want education to be nearby and to operate during convenient hours––preferably around the clock. They want easy, accessible parking, short lines, and polite and efficient personnel and services. They also want high quality products and are eager for low costs. They are very willing to comparison shop––placing a premium on time and money....In the years ahead, the pressure on higher education, which will come from government and reduced resources, will be for colleges to become more boutique-like....The danger is that if colleges and universities don’t respond to their changing student bodies, others will. It is easy to imagine the creation of stripped-down, profit-making colleges of the Edison Project variety. Such schools, quite possibly, could offer excellent service, lower cost, and high-quality programs without extras. (p. 4)

It would seem that especially the higher the level of schooling and student, such as in the case of middle management employees sent by corporations to attend graduate school, the more capable they may be of determining, communicating, and negotiating their own needs. However, even children are capable of voicing sentiments which may be useful to educators. The crayon maker, Binny & Smith, utilizes children to help in their product development process; other toy makers similarly engage in such practices;

and attentive teachers probably do the same, even if informally, at all classroom levels.

Ironically, this researcher recalls the personal experience of attempting to negotiate the required courses for a credential in public relations with one university department chair:

The case presented was that as President of a marketing firm with several years experience serving in management capacities, which included presiding over PR activities for clients (PR is a sub-discipline of marketing), some courses were more useful than others, and some were virtually of no use whatsoever. At the time, the credential would have been considered a nice “feather,” but not really necessary in light of academic credentials in marketing and more importantly, career achievements already attained. The argument was not won by either party.

Despite the self-efficacy typical of mature students, even at the lowest levels, parents have normally have some inkling of what they want in terms of results (e.g., the eventual self-sufficiency, employability) for their children. This source for potentially useful feedback is in addition to the aforementioned instances of crayon and toy makers using childrens’ feedback. Again, it appears there are simply very few routine and organized efforts on the part of educators to ask.

Stevens and Kohl (1990) wrote

> Although these issues have been discussed frequently by the providers of educational services, there have been no attempts to survey the preferences of consumers (in the form of present, past, or potential students) as to who should teach what to whom. Though it could be argued that these client groups may not be in a position to judge what is best for them (only omniscient faculty can claim such wisdom), we suggest that the perceptions and opinions of client groups remain important aids to administrators and faculty as they decide where courses belong and by whom they should be taught. (p. 18)

The next step in implementing a quality outcome is to review processes and install changes such that customer needs are met, after these needs have been thoroughly assessed. Among those who have accomplished this, one common warning issued is to not get swept away with the immensity of Total Quality such as by starting with grandiose plans to set up “quality divisions” and staff.

Marchese (1993) wrote, “TQM, as campuses are indeed discovering, is not some bite-sized management fad...” (p. 11). Rather it is important to emphasize quality improvement is a continuous process, therefore, small, manageable improvements that are quick to remedy make worthy first targets to emphasize.

Brigham (1993) suggested that three key elements to successful TQM implementations, “employee involvement, the improvement of processes linked to results, and an enduring focus on the customer” (p. 46).

Myles Brand (1993), President of the University of Oregon and Program Chair of the 1994 ACE (American Council on Education), submitted that there have already been enough successful experiences with Total Quality Management practices, at least in non-instructional areas such as school business affairs, to establish that if modified from a corporate context they could “yield lower cost and better quality outcomes” (p. 13).

Entner (1993) reported that Delaware County Community College (DCCC) was “one of the first community colleges to adopt Total Quality Management,” and first embarked on the effort in 1986 (p. 29). After the college’s President, Richard DeCosmo, and his staff attended a TQ seminar put on by a subsidiary the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce in 1985, and presented over a one year period, they decided to operate the institution using Total Quality principles. At that time three goals were created to guide the implementation

> • To transform our philosophy of administrative management to TQ;
>
> • To develop training curricula and programming in TQ for business in our service area; and
>
> • To incorporate the concepts and philosophy of TQ into our curriculum and into classroom management. (p. 29

Entner also reported that DCCC utilized criteria for the Malcolm Baldridge Award, presented annually by the U.S. Department of Commerce, as a guideline to structure its own quality initiatives. DCCC has found the quality award's criteria are helpful, even though they are designed for businesses rather than colleges.

A journal article by Coate (1991) outlined the implementation process for Total Quality Management at Oregon State University which took place in the nine phases illustrated in Table 3 (pp. 27-37).

In a summary statement outlining the results of the Oregon State implementation, Coate added

> In creating Oregon State's vision statement, the university identified Total Quality Management as vital not only for the realization of its vision but also for its continued survival in the marketplace. Quality is what customers say it is, not what universities tell them it is. Both internal and external customers want to receive the same high quality service at all times, with no surprises. Progress can only be determined and improved by measurement. Although TQM is a relatively simple concept, putting it to work in a university setting has proved challenging....Nonetheless, TQM is considered a success at OSU, where twenty teams are operating with significant results. It has saved the university time, reduced costs, empowered people at all levels, and improved morale. (p. 37)

Table 3

Implementing Total Quality Concepts at Oregon State University

Phase	Activity
• 1. Exploring Total Quality Management	• Develop a top management understanding of uses for and implementation of TQM
• 2. Establishing a pilot study team	• Attempt handling a pilot project (physical plant)
• 3. Defining customer needs	• Identify customer groups; understand customers' perceptions and expectations of the university

Table continues

Table 3, continued

Phase	Activity
• 4. Adopting the breakthrough planning process	• Define mission; understand customers; Identify critical processes; state the vision; identify priority breakthrough items
• 5. Performing breakthrough planning in the divisions	• Divisions create vision and mission statements and identify critical processes
• 6. Forming daily management teams	• Established study teams of no more than ten people to review and improve processes
• 7. Initiating cross-functional pilot projects	• Target team efforts on key projects

Table continues

Table 3, continued

Phase	Activity
• 8. Implementing cross-functional Total Quality Management	• <u>Adapting established committee processes to implement TQM at cross-functional levels</u>
• 9. Setting up reporting, recognition and awards systems	• <u>Reports focus on performance measures of division's critical processes; recognition of employees and teams; awards for outstanding performances</u>

Oregon State University’s successful institution-wide TQM implementation notwithstanding, one of the advantages of TQM principles is that they need not be applied to an entire organization to be useful. Rather, the TQM approach may be applied to a single unit, activity, division or process.

Shaw (1993) even related how principles were used to clean up an overwhelming student-made mess of sunflower seed hulls left during classes. (This was acknowledged by the author as not the greatest matter of academic concern. In fairness, the example was given as a prelude to a discussion of greater concerns).

Teeter and Lozier (1991) wrote about “should institutional researchers and planners adopt TQM?,” suggesting that TQM methods may be utilized without the entire institution’s participation (p. 73). In their review of whether institutional commitment is needed authors submitted

> Although some will argue otherwise, a comprehensive institutional commitment to TQM is desirable but not a prerequisite. Just as other planning processes, commitment and involvement at the top will enrich the process for the entire organization, but the lack of commitment does not preclude an organizational subunit from implementing planning or TQM within its own sphere of influence. (p. 73)

Regarding the DCCC implementation, other authors wrote about one of the first projects attempted by the college. This involved improvements in the phone system with which they were having problems during peak registration times. DeCosmo & Others (1991) related

> One of the college's first improvement projects shows how the application of TQM tools can make lasting improvements not only in a selected problem area, but also in how staff seek improvements in their work areas. The Phone Project, as it came to be called, shows how rather simple problem-solving tools and group techniques, when applied in a disciplined fashion, can contribute to the success of any improvement effort. (p. 16)

A number of other institutions aside from those specifically mentioned, have had some involvement with TQM (See appendix H for a more complete list of U.S. colleges and universities involved in Total Quality Management which augments the following). Fisher (1993) outlined these

> Already endorsed and adopted in whole or in part by tax-supported institutions including Oregon State, Wisconsin, Colorado State, Maryland, Minnesota, Clemson, Georgia Tech, and many community colleges, and by wealthier private institutions including Harvard, Penn, Carnegie Mellon, Lehigh, Chicago, and Miami, it is probably accurate to conclude that TQM is being considered by hundreds of institutions today. (pp. 15-16)

The preceding brief review regarding "achieving quality" has been presented with most illustrations referencing Total

Quality Management practices. However, there are many other issues in achieving quality and it should be noted again that there is wide variability in reports about TQM successes and failures.

It seems that the problem may be that at face value, a principle such as “continuous improvement” is undeniable. Yet, TQM is also exceedingly difficult to implement because fundamental cultural changes are required and leadership assumptions long-held by management are challenged at the onset.

This researcher would also note that even in the corporate sector where TQM practices are more prevalently installed, critics refer to many of the same problems in citing failures. Whether such failures are due to the commonly cited “lack of leadership commitment to truly understand and embrace TQM principles,” from other implementation difficulties, or from flawed methods becomes an irrelevant argument if the failure affects the service recipient’s circumstances by creating a negative or null outcome.

Interestingly, it is this very same tenet of customer focus that drives TQM philosophy. If arguments as to how to best implement the complicated TQM process shroud the achievement of the goal, then an ironic outcome is the result. As many have observed, TQM principles are so simple, and have such a universal ring of truth that they are hard to not embrace. Yet TQM methods such as statistical process control, charting and other analysis procedures are very difficult for all but the seasoned TQM practitioner.

For the aforementioned reasons, the remainder of this chapter will focus on the broader practical issues of customer desires; images of inefficiency in meeting these desires; perceptions and the reality-made basis of image and identity; and communication issues.

If one can accept the idea that best serving the need is the pinnacle of the matter, TQM terminology or not, then these forthcoming research findings should prove valuable for present and future researchers.

The Problematic Nature of Misperceptions

As an example of one misunderstanding the public may have about teacher dedication, some research exists which shows that many teachers spend their own personal funds to support deficits in classroom budget allocations.

A survey by Latham and Fifield (1993) estimated that more than $1 billion annually is spent nationwide by teachers (elementary to senior high schools) to support their classrooms, an individual teacher average of $444. Authors also reported that “the overwhelming consensus of respondents was that school systems fall woefully short. Teachers believe it is up to them to voluntarily spend the money they need...teachers do spend their own money to fill in the gaps" (p. 45).

These data give cause for this researcher to wonder about public perceptions: Does the public know teachers are personally paying out of their own pockets to educate students? Are teachers getting a "bum rap" as the result of a system that fails to provide adequate resources? Should the public be ashamed for allowing a system where teachers subsidize school budgets by sacrificing their own personal incomes?

Findings show that numerous communication problems exist, emanating from virtually every faction in the debate over the quality of education. Certainly, administrators are also victims of circumstances as well, such as trustee and regents boards that place little value on a service oriented approach and rather "rubber stamp" the preceding year's mandates so as to be expeditious.

Surely, in such a case the underlying problem may be the larger governing body affecting the administrator. Likewise, that larger body may point to an inadequate legislative appropriation. The questions arise, "who's going to take charge?" and "who will bring vision and persuasive presentation skills to the leadership role?"

An examination of salaries in higher education reveals that areas that interface with student services such as advisement and admissions counseling are among the lowest paid categories in higher education administration ("Median salaries," 1993).

From this it would appear that tasks in these areas are compensated on the basis of a philosophy of administrative necessity rather than a service-focused agenda. Indeed, this researcher's own experience suggests that admissions and guidance personnel are more likely to excel at dispensing rule-bound descriptions of curricular tracks rather than thoughtfully presenting opportunities for attractive program choices based on students' aspirations and learning interests. As the latter would suggest resolving students' needs for mutual benefit of the parties, this process would also be known as consultative selling.

Administrators may therefore set themselves up by virtue of creating an inadequate budget structure for problems in areas affecting guidance and ultimately student satisfaction.

What kind of message does such compensation practices send about the value of students, and correspondingly, the value of guidance as a function (not the job title)? Is recognition of the need for student customer service lacking? Do administrations understand such practices create a system where only the fortuitous learn the ropes and make the proper choices to make their way to graduation and future success?

Like the student services issue above, many negative “images” about education are based on reality, but underlying causes, potential remedies and implications may be overlooked due to perceptions. “Schools need a more positive image...This goal, of course, can’t be realized overnight, and it requires school administrators to do an in-depth analysis of needs to complement or improve services they offer” (Toubat, 1994, p. 31).

The conflict between constituency demands for the practical and institutional demands for research productivity mentioned earlier in the case of business schools serves as a clear example of an underlying problem. The educator that wants to stay employed (gain/maintain tenure, etc.) would be well advised to respond to his or her employer’s emphasis on research productivity.

Ironically however, findings indicate that the employer ––the education system––in pursuing the wrong agenda has threatened its own ability to sustain itself and thus offer continuing favorable employment prospects for educators. The over emphasizing of research (which does create dollars and benefits for some universities) undermines the fulfillment of other societally mandated outcomes, mainly, teaching that leads to workplace and living preparedness.

The aforementioned dilemma is similar to that of the automotive production line worker who produces more and more cars, gaining accolades from the employer, while at the same time the finished product fails to meet consumer demands for quality or some other utilitarian attribute. In both of these cases, accommodating the misguided desires of the educational institution or automobile company leads to short-term employer satisfaction with the cost of long-term failure.

Clearly, the educational institution, the automobile company or any viable entity must establish an absolute linkage between its product, services or other outcomes and expressed (constituency, market, etc.) needs in order to produce and manage quality results. Therefore, another theory this researcher would suggest is that education is viewed as a failed system due to the lack of a seamless linkage between needs (that it hasn't surveyed) and its outputs.

Taking such a posture a step further toward the ideal, educators should not only assess and meet current needs, but they should also anticipate needs. Then, as was discussed in connection with guiding question number two, resources for the fulfillment of these needs must be leveraged by using the value created by the solutions that are generated as a fulcrum.

For example, one reality is that education is a very expensive proposition. However, data from the long-term personal income profiles of educated persons clearly show that monies invested by those individuals are virtually always returned many times over. Thus, from an investor’s vantage point, money spent on education is often more profitable than a number of competing alternatives. In this sense, education offers great value to the recipient as well as the society that recoups its investment through that individual’s lifetime productivity.

Other data show that even among corporate trainers, those who receive the greatest support from their managements often take a proactive role in cost justifying the short- and long-term payout of their training activities. Pine and Tingley (1993) encouraged the use of an ROI (return on investment) calculation model and wrote: “Eventually, you will be able to demonstrate, indisputably, in bottom-line terms, training’s value to the organization” (p. 60).

From one vantage point this present study creates a new question: Do educators analogously try to demonstrate the value of education through proactive efforts? The initial guess might be in the affirmative, by offering proof through testing, and this may account for the fervor to produce more and more tests.

However, are test scores enough and are they valid? Do these scores correlate to productivity on the job and in society, the other clearly expressed quality measure of education among public and other constituencies?

The earlier delineated case of business schools' experience would suggest not. Present tests perhaps correlate as predictors of school success (some disagree), but not workplace success, unless they have been validated against workplace competencies.

Defining Identity

About image, Sharpe (1993) observed

> The image of any service organization is in the hands of its providers...whose...(instructors and staff) are in daily contact with their primary customers (students) for months, even years. The amount of contact and influence you have with these consumers offers you tremendous control over your image....Teachers and administrators alike need to consider these all important questions: What do our customers think of us? How well do we perform our services? The answers are found in the image of the program or school....Program quality is the No. 1 source of image. No one can sell programs or products that need fixing. (p. 24)

Carey (1993) wrote about image in an article aimed at educational leaders

> Like a pebble dropped into a pond, your public image can have an impact on your own career, your community and ultimately public education as the ripples of your influence extend from students to

> parents, citizens and taxpayers....For most citizens, public education is reflected in the faces and demeanor of their own neighborhood school teachers and principals....Gone too are the days when the community will accept a paternalistic “we know best” attitude from school leaders. Today, you are suspect if you are dogmatic, autocratic, opinionated, and particularly if you have never been responsible for raising a child. (p. 12)

This researcher has observed that many individuals, corporations and institutions freely discuss “identity” and “image” but have little understanding of the causal effects of policies and organizational behaviors on these. So as to shield the name of the particular institution, a reference citation here is omitted, but one example comes immediately to mind:

A major institution located in Atlanta commissioned a study to determine its “identity” as was reported in the local Atlanta Journal-Constitution newspaper. A spokesperson alluded that the institution was trying to “find its image.” An explanation suggested that the study was to enable the institution to better promote itself as a prominent member of the community.

However, while identity and image are often referred to in the context of discussions about colors, logos, application style guides and so forth, the point that is often missed entirely is that identity is more about “ideology” than the symbolic representations employed.

This may seem curious in the sense that identity as defined above is not really “graphics” as many people think. For that matter, neither is identity necessarily limited to a specific organization.

Further, beyond simple graphic representations, other forms of communication can become symbolic of an ideology. The Star Spangled Banner identifies “America;” a school song can represent a particular alma mater; and couples often refer to a piece of music they relate romantically to each other as “our song.” An identity symbol can be a living being such as an animal that represents a school’s athletic team by serving as its mascot (whose presence is supposed to bring good luck).

There can also be a positive or negative identity. Now, with this more accurate definition in mind than what is usually thought by novices about “logos” and identity, some examples of rather powerfully identified ideologies may be useful for illustration purposes:

1. The National Socialists German Worker’s Party adopted the swastika as the identity symbol for its political philosophy which later became known as Nazism. This symbol became one of the most widely known negative “logos” in this century in an identity campaign that threatened to take over the world. However, the swastika’s origins have been traced to ancient Sanskrit and mean “good fortune” (Rosenbaum, 1984,

p. 1141). Likewise, communist, republican, democratic and other parties have adopted symbols to represent their ideologies.

2. Wall Street identifies its mood by referencing a "bull" market or a "bear" market. These symbols represent a particular belief about where markets are at present, have been, or are going. The bear symbol represents the sentiment that the market will fall and the bull represents the belief that the market will rise. Authors Wurman, Siegel and Morris (1990) recount

> The term bear is derived from bear skin jobbers who had a reputation for selling bear skins before bears were caught. Gradually, the term bear came to mean speculators who agreed to sell shares they did not own. These bears agreed to sell a stock at a certain price if they felt the price was about to drop....Because bull and bear baiting were once popular sports, bulls came to mean the opposite of bears. (p. 34)

At any particular time, Wall Street's identity or image is represented by one or both of these symbols. Likewise, financial institutions, investment firms and brokerages often communicate their posture in the marketplace (e.g., conservative vs. aggressive) by utilizing these same bear and bull identity symbols.

3. Religions use symbols to represent their ideologies. In the Western world the Christian cross symbolizes God's

love for man and sacrifice of his son Jesus Christ. The Star of David is a symbol of Judaism and the State of Israel and refers to the shield of David. Evil is often represented by images of devil's horns, pronged forks of various shapes, snakes, blood and fire. Astrologists use signs to symbolize birth traits, life paths and other characteristics affecting character, mannerisms and destiny.

4. Fashion and personal appearance have been used through the ages for communicating ideologies and social position. High school- and college-age girls often wear their boyfriends' letter-jackets to symbolize they are "going steady." Executives adopt expensive fountain pens, personal organizers, briefcases, watches and other pieces of jewelry to communicate their status. Rings on the fingers of married men and women symbolize their unavailability; college rings (and "sheepskins" both, hopefully) symbolize the attainment of a milestone in one's academic pursuits.

The tattooed image of a skull and crossbones, an emblem of death, are often applied to the arms of sailors. Hair styles identify the old and the new, the cool and the hip, the outdated, the out-of-touch, and the outsider. Afros, flat tops, duck bills, pony tails, rat tails, mohawks and countless other variations symbolize times, places and social groups. Newly inducted Marines and other military recruits are shaved near clean-headed, to symbolize their membership and allegiance.

5. Grocers, specialty retailers and parfumers all have learned fragrances can create identity and influence behavior. Some time ago, retailers realized that departments could be emphasized by the introduction of fragrances through ventilation systems. Floral smells identify the fresh, clean and the beautiful; “bakery” smells sell bread; car wash services spray a “new car” scent.

With the aforementioned examples as a background, it should now be more apparent just how pervasive “identity” actually is. In terms of the typical emphasis however, most corporate and institutional communication programs concentrate on the visual and overlook the myriad nuances of symbolism.

This is presumably because few people know that identity is communicated in many forms and all senses have the capability of recording inputs that become symbolic of the human experience. This researcher’s own theory is that symbols are used by the brain to process, sort and otherwise manage information and stimuli such that they do not overwhelm the handling capacity of the individual, but that is another subject perhaps for a future researcher to study.

Most professionally designed identity systems originating from graphic designers are created through a process whereby the “ideological” aspect of the matter is communicated by the client to the designer who in turn creates imagery to support the proposition.

The issue that is problematic is of course when the imagery is not conversely supported by the reality. To exemplify, going back to the restaurant example in chapter 1, the presentation of the food can enhance perceived value, but this may only be temporary if the food doesn’t taste good too.

In an article, Negative views undermine public enterprise, Kell (1993) discussed attitude research conducted by the Council for Excellence in Government (Researcher note: government, of which public education is a part). The article featured commentary on the relationship between perceptions and reality credited to the Council’s Vice President, Barbara B. Rosenfeld

> “Clearly, all of our programs are directed toward improving the day-to-day management of government, and better customer service is part of that,” Rosenfeld said. Better communication with the public, she said, is essential to balance the unfavorable perceptions, correct misperceptions, and better inform the public about government-management issues. “But here,” Rosenfeld said, “I think there are two things. One is the actual quality of what is being done and the service that is being provided to the public. The other is how it’s perceived. In some cases, what is being done and how it’s being done is being improved. In other cases, we have to acknowledge that it’s not. So there are two parts of it. You have to

> communicate. But the communication has to be based on reality." (p. 54)

An example in higher education is where top administrators often spend significant time in communities promoting a positive image and little time assuring the activities that support the image occur. One challenge appears to be that they often rise through teaching ranks and have little management training (Glueck, 1980).

Superior teachers do not necessarily make superior administrators and differences in the competencies required of either are significant. This very same phenomenon occurs in many other fields of endeavor such as when top sales producers are promoted to sales management positions. The skills needed to counsel customers are significantly different than those of the sales manager who must know how to sell, and in addition, how to forecast, interpret implications of market data, analyze profit and loss statements, and so forth.

In the Star Trek movie series, Spock told Admiral Kirk that being a starship Captain was his "first, best destiny." The story portrayed Kirk as an extremely able space explorer and "field" leader, contrasting these personal characteristics with his disenchantment serving in the entirely different role of being a "Federation bureaucrat."

Leffel & et al (1991) discussed the leadership culture at Virginia Tech and concurrently referred to leadership at other institutions

> University administrators are not prepared as leaders. We believe that the majority of administrators at Virginia Tech are similar to those at other institutions in that education in the art of leadership has not been part of their professional development. It is important to remember this point as institutions seek to bring about change...For university administrators to behave differently, the institution must provide its leadership team with the skills and knowledge they need to be effective. Administrators coming to managerial positions from many diverse disciplines must learn a new way of thinking and behaving for their new roles. A commitment to this type of leadership development was not found to be a strong component of this institution's culture nor is it likely to be in most universities. (p. 69)

For many, the image of education includes parking hassles; outdated graffiti-etched classroom chairs––too small or too rickety for students; long registration lines; “lousy” campus cafeteria food; the satirical impressions of “Animal House”; dull faculty delivering unrelenting speeches for their own edification and aggrandizement; cram sessions; pleading for grades, financial aid, or a repaired dorm room fixture; expensive books and supplies; and excessive pressure for the performance motivated student to make the almighty GPA.

Image is found in students' relationships with faculty and staff; with bureaucrats and dumb rules; in "computer" errors that are seemingly impossible to fix. Along with the good, all these too, are the image and identity of education.

Findings indicate that prescriptive measures would include developing leaders who simultaneously are more inclined to have a better understanding of constituency needs and committed to implementing programs and policies to meet those needs.

However, the trend appears to indicate that what often occurs is a time honored tradition of promoting the image of responsiveness to the community without substantive measures being taken to back the promise up. Certainly, many corporations and others in the private sector could be criticized for the same transgressions, but they risk loosing public confidence too.

The Exxon Valdez disaster and subsequently presented news media "exposés" about cleanup crews not really cleaning provides a good private sector example. This researcher would add, however, that the ability to point to practices in the private sector and claim to the effect, "but they do it too," isn't necessarily going to provide a justification from the customer's perspective.

Finally, to close this chapter on a more positive note, in an article titled <u>Images of institutions of higher</u>

education, Henries (1993), delivered a compelling presentation about what our vision of universities should be

> We should not just have pictures _of_ universities, we should have pictures _for_ them. What then, should be our vision for them?...universities must make courses and studies which tease the spirit of adventure, stir the imagination and train students so that they gain the professional strength to meet adversity. For it is the very moving of milestones which gives science appeal. This is what attracts those to universities who can pull the landmarks up and hammer them down further out. This vision for universities means that, in studies, in research, in thinking, in administration and in leadership, the whole time they must search for quality. That is, they must exhibit in their very practice what other [_sic_] will want to emulate. The standard for a university must be to set new standards. (pp. 270-271)

CONCLUSION: SECTION II

Section II Concluding Remarks

In conclusion of section II's findings, some simple remarks seem appropriate to this researcher:

Evidence suggests that (in marketing terminology) educational institutions have failed to develop desired product-service offerings, distinguish a differential advantage (e.g., over in-house corporate training), and in terms of managing perceptions have failed to promote an identity of effectiveness in meeting societal needs.

The public wants traditional "Three Rs" knowledge as well as workplace and practical living skills from the education system. Educators must create real value to reverse perceptions and save the education system. Value is determined by the customer––payers and influencers.

Relevant, exciting learning experiences are fun, appealing, and motivational in themselves and are willingly supported if deemed to be a worthwhile investment by students as well as society. Quality is a philosophy reflecting a core value system, not a singular event. Constituencies have a choice––support public education, or let it be subsumed by other (probably privatized) mechanisms. Educators have a choice too––identify and satisfy the need, or not.

At the 1993 Conference on Higher Education, Russ Edgerton, President of the program's sponsoring organization, the American Association of Higher Education (AAHE), interviewed Daniel Yankelovich, a pioneering researcher in public attitude and policy analysis (Edgerton, 1993). After a discussion about what has and is going to happen to health care (in order to portray parallels with education), Yankelovich submitted that physicians, by not acting to contain costs on their own, brought many of the coming consequences on themselves. An applicable exchange followed and their dialog is worth repeating here:

> Edgerton: Sounds like there is a moral here for higher education.
>
> Yankelovich: The price you pay for not seizing responsibility is to be excluded and to be victimized. You have in our country this feeling now that it is important to seize control. It's very difficult for an institution to accept responsibility for a broader social problem that's not of its own making. But if you don't accept responsibility, other people will be dictating the changes that need to be made, and you will not have a proper voice. So my message is a wake-up call. (p. 7)

SECTION III

SECTION III

Introduction

Section III is comprised of several key elements with respect to the conclusion of this study: chapter 7 serves two purposes. First, it provides an analysis of the implications for educators that result from findings revealed in section II. Second, chapter 7 will provide suggestions for further research and is intended for those who may wish to take the investigation of issues brought to light in this study further in our quest for new knowledge.

Several appendices have been provided in order to leave a trail of rich data and enhance the understanding of matters currently under study.

Next, references are provided to offer researchers an audit trail of critical readings utilized in this study. Also, a complete bibliography of all references on the subject that this researcher physically collected and brought into his possesion follows.

Some explanation may be helpful about the bibliography. It has been disclosed that this researcher isolated 2333 references for the study. Simply put, the 2333 references are the total listings and abstracts on the researcher’s own computer database. The items in the bibliography (796) are a subset of that greater number and represent those items for which corresponding articles were obtained and reviewed by the researcher; from those articles collected, 135 critical readings were selected for which in-text citations were used.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Conclusions and Recommendations for Further Research

Implications for Educational Policies and Practices

The study yields several conclusions and implications for educators. Corporations have taken a significant role to augment, complement or replace the education system in the United States, depending on one's view of the data.

If educators are to protect "market share," efforts will have to be made to further study the wants and desires of those who consume education directly, such as student populations, as well as those who consume the final outputs of the education system, e.g, corporate hiring executives.

From the results of such studies, fundamental changes in curricula, delivery methods, access (and accessibility), evaluation and other variables are likely to be identified as appropriate and necessary for implementation. The integration and use of sophisticated marketing strategies such as relationship marketing, database marketing, consultative selling, and customer service approaches may be required for advancing a competitive advantage as well.

Educators have generally responded to increased calls for quality by installing measures to increase testing. The current thrust toward national standards suggests no radical change in educational philosophy is on the horizon. American students are among the most tested in the world. However, in the interim the public is dissatisfied with the education system's results.

Pressure for national standards really only means a push for new forms of "national testing" according to the many descriptions both pro and against. It appears that one of the next steps is to test teachers and hold their credentials to even higher standards.

Many in the business world also hold such measures to be the answer to the nation's education ills. Industry Week's Joseph McKenna (1992) wrote: "Of course national testing––that is, the testing of students' knowledge of core subjects––speaks directly to the issue of a national curriculum. In fact, fashioning a national curriculum and developing national testing are complementary first steps in America's educational reform" (p. 30).

Not surprisingly, as the HRM profession has emerged, businesses have also employed more and more testing of applicants as well. Yet, despite these measures, in business and education, something is amiss.

Purpose has been forgotten. Creativity is smothered out by treatments favoring conformity and straight-line reasoning. The visionary is ostracized as often as exalted, with few resting places in between, despite growing recognition that change needs new thinking. Many of the brilliant are driven to boredom by a system that fails to harness their talents. In some instances both institutions and communities complain they suffer from “brain drain” when in all likelihood they actually suffer from a lack of attractiveness, appreciation and stimulation in so far as those who leave are concerned.

Rather than receiving appropriate interventions, the weak are cast aside and condemned to menial jobs in work places with “sticky floors” (Parshall, 1993-1994, p. 95). A Chapter One parent this researcher encountered explained that her attention deficit disorder child had to be helped by a teacher after hours and thus off school grounds due to policy.

In an informal and chance discussion with this parent, this researcher was left wondering, “If Chapter One does not provide special treatment for special cases through the prescribed curricular program during school hours (e.g., without the parent arranging for an intervention of their own) how can it be effective?”

Meanwhile, America's businesses and education system have been outclassed by others with less wherewithal, but greater, more purposeful missions. In the end, the mediocre majority, the weak and the strong alike, all filter through screenings and are "objectively" identified, data are collected, and standards are supposedly tightened. But what about identifying the target at which education is aiming?

The terminal objective.

School-to-work as well as intra-educational transitions strip lives of promise as surely as a burned-out clutch strips gears. Even programs with internships are typically inadequate because they are structured more like another course to be checked off from the program's tick list. Work must be more fully integrated into school (on this point, businesses are certainly not exonerated for their own inadequacies in integrating school into work); cooperative education, apprenticeships, mentors and other practical experiences extending far beyond present approaches need to be part of all schooling.

For example, many case study approaches are hypothetical and even the better written ones have numerous holes; with businesses suffering from so many real problems there needn't be a reason for educational practitioners to "make them up."

In creative fields like illustration, copy writing and editing, photography, acting, filmmaking, radio announcing, music and others, professionals have a “book,” “reel,” “demo” or some variation of material to exemplify their SKAs in an applied context.

Purveyors of all manner of goods and services present their “pitch,” from IBM offering computing solutions to the account rep with Cosmopolitan offering an affluent audience to cosmetics makers. Interpersonal communications often proposition the listener, as negotiators suggest a date, marriage, work to be done, a barter for goods and all manner of outcomes.

Likewise, educators must grasp the terminal objective: Students should be sure of their talents, have practical experience, and be able to “pitch” themselves––supported by a portfolio of “real-life” samples developed in school-work cooperative partnerships; students should be able to negotiate interpersonal propositions and manage their everyday lives as productive members of society. Students must be able to think, do, communicate and validate.

Adoption of marketing strategies.

The quest for precision, quantification, testing, measurement, and analysis of supposedly objective data has forgotten the one differential advantage necessary for achievement--a compelling goal which begets the motivation to succeed. That goal should be abundantly evident––people want rewarding lives. Society’s signals suggest this is the purpose of education (from which a “slogan” might be derived).

There is little question that desired outputs from the education system would emphasize both the theoretical and the practical. Education must serve this purpose by utilizing more spontaneity and action and less analysis and debate. Education must be made relevant and useful, ergo, offer “need-satisfying utility.”

Learning must be made an exciting and preferable activity over competing choices children and adults might make. Excitement is a “salable attribute” and preference is a choice that can be influenced through the use of proper “appeals.” Traditionally, these appeals are segmented into two broad categories, fear of loss (the negative) and hope for gain (the positive).

As an example of how these would be applied to the academic context, the Chronicle of Higher Education’s student attitude survey referenced earlier suggested that the great majority of students said they attended college to get a better job. A positive appeal in recruiting students therefore would show students that after the academic program was completed graduates are able to work in successful and otherwise satisfying positions.

This study has produced some evidence that education as an institution has one of the biggest image problems in America, yet recognition from this point of view is probably limited. Some observers appear to agree; McDaniel (1994), discussed the future of college classrooms in College Teaching, and seemed to hold similar views in connection with such ideas for promoting benefits that address needs and tap motivations:

> Control theory rests on the assumption that people are motivated by an impulse to satisfy certain needs. All people try to satisfy intrinsic psychological drives such as those for belonging, freedom, power, and fun. Television advertisements almost always tell viewers how products can practically guarantee that those who buy a certain car, beer, or pair of bluejeans will have more friends, freedom, or enjoyment––sometimes all at once. But educators are only now beginning to capitalize on intrinsic motivation to make learning more satisfying and teaching more effective. (p. 28)

In order to fill what appears to be a gaping hole in the process pro-education advocates need to advance a favorable image of education with equal or greater fervor as that of other national agendas. While this may seem revolting to some “purist” educators, the alternative may be worse. Williams (1993) observed

> Much of what people know about their local schools doesn't come from teachers, the principal or even the superintendent. It comes from news reports....Public relations matters. If your community doesn't think its schools are doing a good job, it's unlikely to support those schools. That means the bond measure to pay for facilities you desperately need will be voted down. Businesses will decline to form school/community partnerships. Teacher morale will plunge. Ultimately, the education of your district's children will suffer. (p. 28)

Although some in education like Williams recognize the value of public relations, and in particular using outside public relations firms, Blumenstyk (1994) reported in the Chronicle of Higher Education that "Colleges differ on the value of outside public-relations companies" (p. A22). A few weeks after the Blumenstyk article, Vying for visibility appeared, the Chronicle published editorial letters sent in response.

One writer asked, "At a time when most schools are struggling...wouldn't it make sense to spend the money earmarked for PR on substantive programs that would not only attract students who want to come, but would also help educate them once they do?" (Pruden, 1994, p. B3). Another editorial respondent wrote, "It distresses me that some colleges place more priority on vanity than on value" (Budd, 1994, p. B3).

From this researcher’s view, Pruden and Budd are right, yet wrong. Right that it would make sense to start by offering a better “product,” with quality and value such that it is capable of supporting itself in the marketplace by referral and word-of-mouth; wrong inasmuch as a market offering normally must be supported by fostering public awareness, interest and action to compete effectively.

The latter suggests that educational offerings, like most services, would be substantially helped by the promotion of a positive image (which again must be consistent in terms of value and quality when consumers meet the reality).

<u>Attitudes of service indifference</u>.

Although sparse in number, models exist at every level of schooling, where happy learners are nurtured by enthusiastic educators who do not view service as servitude. Rather they see giving as getting.

This researcher submits that it is not just one or two addressable service failures that have contributed to corporations creating their own training centers, rather it is the reality and subsequent image of indifference to needs that has caused dollars to be shifted elsewhere.

Therefore, the matter of concern in assessing a service culture becomes examining those organizational behaviors that are symptomatic of failure, or conversely, indicative of success in meeting needs.

While many educators’ efforts probably aim toward appeasing multiple constituencies, without careful and dedicated attention to researching needs and responding accordingly, public dissatisfaction is liable to continue.

This researcher’s own past exposure to market research has revealed that very often, executives in numerous scenarios think their respective organization’s service is excellent, but a comparison of opinions held by service recipients shows great variation between the two parties. Offering a mutually satisfactory exchange between parties is the only way educators can create the value needed to leverage necessary resources.

In some ways, perhaps because of the baby boom and greater numbers of older students attending, it would appear that thus far an illusion of security may have been created among academic institutions. After all, with student populations and budgets growing for decades, who would notice lost market share?

This same false sense of security and resulting complacency has led many a corporate entity to slaughter. However, “increasing sales” is not proof of progress, rather it is capture of available market share. The question in a competitive environment becomes: how have public education “sales” fared compared to private sector “sales” in education and training?

Market share is often looked at graphically through the use of a pie chart. A pie chart for the above scenario would consist of the total pie representing all education and training expenditures. Slices would represent public sector and private sector shares. Currently, if it is true as mentioned in chapter 1 that corporate trainers are possibly replacing the functionality of educators, then the private sector slice of the pie is getting bigger and bigger, arguably leaving less and less of a slice of available resources and investment for public education.

Meanwhile, there is a huge need in the marketplace for a retooling of the American workforce. “Approximately fifty million U.S. workers––42% of the workforce––need new or expanded skills to keep up with the demands of their jobs” (Wiley, 1993, p.79). It might be said that education has slipped into a deep slumber, and meanwhile, corporate entities have invested in their own internal solutions. Cunningham-Smith (1993) wrote

> U.S. businesses are currently spending an estimated $210 billion annually on company-based training–– and are giving every indication that more will be spent in the future....Some of the companies identified by the ASTD as currently having outstanding training systems are Aetna Life and Casualty Co., Arthur Anderson, Chase Manhattan Bank, Dayton Hudson, Digital Equipment, Federal

> Express, Hewlett-Packard, IBM, Motorola, and Xerox....Another internationally known training site is the Arthur Anderson Center for Professional Education, located on a 145-acre campus containing tennis courts, jogging track, and other recreational facilities. With more than 200 trainers on its staff, the facility has 135 classrooms, offers hundreds of courses, and in 1991 trained 58,000 employees.

This study revealed that identity and image are based on reality and elaborated by perceptions. Educators must endeavor to change both perceptions and the realities of a system with which society is unhappy. Given that the definition of quality is dependent on the customer's own expectations, no school, district, university, faculty member, teacher, superintendent or other authority can know without a serious inquiry what they are shooting for in order to satisfy the need.

Therefore, only receptivity and responsiveness to the clear signals sent by the public (educators must ask, probe, query, ask again, confirm, and affirm customer preferences) can assure the creation of a quality result.

The consuming public, whether naïve or wise about what it wants from education, is entitled to getting the desired outputs it specifies and pays for. Far from a voiceless servant in the process, the educator's role must be to offer guidance to that public about learning choices and the rewards for pursuing certain curricular paths. The omniscient teacher is an obsolete concept, outdated by a coach that can negotiate learning outcomes play-by-play in a team environment.

To this researcher, it does not seem such a bad thing to endeavor to prepare students for living and working by enhancing both their intellect and practical skills. Usefulness is after all the fun of knowing. Nevertheless, in the event education or educators reject such thoughts, fear not––the private sector appears willing to take over.

Addressing “service deficit disorder”.

“Service deficit disorder” is a term this researcher has coined to describe the state of being inattentive and unresponsive to consumers’ needs. In order to highlight service oriented (and applied marketing) concepts described in everyday scenarios of benefit to educators and generalizable to other issues, selected (higher education) suggestions from researcher experience, the shared observations from various affected parties and the findings from this present study follow:

1. Access. Most education references to the term “access” in the literature are in connection with issues such as students’ ability to attend and thus gain access to education. However, the term may also be applied to access as a matter of physical accessibility.

Universities are famous for not providing faculty and students with adequate parking spaces. The relationship between "parking police" and those attempting to park is often adversarial. Aside from students and faculty, such practices also preclude the easy visitation of alumni, suppliers, donors, potential students and other important constituencies.

Well documented market research in other sectors shows that when such physical access is denied or made difficult, would-be constituents or customers penalize the offending entity by avoiding a relationship. There is a conflict when school promotional materials depict an idyllic campus location and easy access from all directions when the reality of tow trucks, tickets and rude authority gestures fails to support the image depicted.

In some cases, universities promote that they are interested in corporate relationships and establishing other linkages with the community, yet even invited visitors are often left to fend for themselves. This researcher has seen results from market surveys indicating that a majority of patrons of one university were very dissatisfied about parking, yet the administration, with its own assigned parking spaces, was able to ignore the feedback.

Clearly, such practices as these do not support an image of attentiveness to community needs. While allowing inadequate parking facilities in itself is probably not the greatest offense an institution could commit, the indifference to customer needs communicated through such practices may be indicative of a larger problem.

2. Admissions counseling and academic advisement. Institutions seem to guard programs as absolute structures that are unalterable by students, faculty and other affected parties. This researcher predicts that technology-based instruction, distance education and increased calls for specialist certifications and expertise from the business community are likely to impact education in a significant way.

Students want curricular input and have long recognized that guidance is lacking in a system that rubber stamps lists of courses rather than negotiating specific academic treatment programs based on students' needs.

This researcher submits that such input applies not just to advanced students but also students at every level of schooling (e.g., by proxy through parents). Regardless of the point in students' academic progression, they need help in identifying and nurturing special talents, deficits and aspirations to a productive conclusion.

More rigid programs today are for example at-risk when students can "import" course work into other more independent programs that recognize the merit of all courses and subsequently offer a degree through compilation of all equivalent learning experiences, inside and outside of the classroom.

Portable jobs require portable learning opportunities that are dynamic and responsive to changing conditions and needs. Curricular structures must therefore be made more flexible to offer a competitive advantage in such an environment. Academic guidance counselors must be better trained (and compensated) to assess needs and suggest educational solutions to challenges that result in success for the student.

3. <u>Alumni relations</u>. Alumni are often contacted by universities well after the relationship is “over” and experiences either positive or negative have left their lasting impressions. The time to develop alumni is not later, but sooner. Treatment rendered by a “bureaucracy” today is not likely to be rewarded by allegiance tomorrow. In broadly descriptive terms, in order to garner support from alumni, institutions need to consider the following step-by-step approach:

(a) Identify potential students.

(b) Counsel students in terms of their needs; meet those needs with custom-tailored quality-driven solutions with beneficial and enjoyable options, not rigid unalterable “degrees.”

(c) Integrate community service and work experience into the overall academic experience as a component contributor to later occupational and societal success.

(d) Integrate relationships with corporate, non-profit and institutional mentors into the curriculum.

(e) Convince faculty that continued mutually beneficial relationships, not “one course” or “one degree” interventions are necessarily a part of a philosophy fostering lifelong learning.

(f) Recognize each student “problem” as an opportunity to create a solution that begets allegiance once solved; not as a situation to avoid and thus compound.

(g) Ask for support from students who, as a result of solutions fostered, in a societally condoned “moral” sense are obliged if not delighted to help in return.

Many other tactical marketing-oriented suggestions come to mind. For purposes of brevity the following observations and shortened prescriptions this researcher would submit may be of benefit:

<u>Campus auxiliary services</u> (e.g., food services) should not have a “golf ball in the stock pot” image; they should be value competitive with off-campus options.

An institution’s <u>promotional merchandise</u> in the campus store should be value priced such that students want to disseminate the school logo, wear its sweatshirts and display its decals; rather than maintaining exclusivity to the campus outlet, these items should be licensed to other retailers if they are so inclined to help disseminate the logo. Supplies and other merchandise should be competitively priced so as not to give the impression that the school store is a “rip-off.”

Student recruitment promotions should be personalized, answer all questions and free to worthy prospects. This researcher has recently written personalized, hand-signed letters to twenty institutions of higher learning expressing an interest in receiving specific information about pursuing additional studies (and mentioning characteristics known to be positive indices such as GPA, and so forth):

Only one institution responded with a personalized letter and business card (even though modern machinery, e.g., advertised in Fund Raising Management magazine and elsewhere can use a plotter pen and ink to create an indistinguishable facsimile).

Several omitted requested components such as tuition schedules, course descriptions, contact names, and so forth. Several institutions replied that some of the information requested such as the school catalog would be supplied only for a fee. Two said they were “temporarily out” of certain materials. Some sent such badly presented information that it was virtually illegible.

<u>Library services</u> should be open to the public (perhaps with restrictions on borrowing, however several information services could probably be sold) such that inquiring minds feel welcomed on the campus and non-student patrons may thus be inclined to become students. The logic here is inquisitive patrons are the best audience educators have (these might also be known as a “target market” worth nurturing).

<u>Classroom facilities</u> should be comfortable and conducive to learning if they are to be competitive; corporations are accustomed to paying more for the comfort of their trainees in hotel and on-site meeting rooms––to provide an attractive alternative, straight-backed wooden chairs will not cut it.

<u>Registration</u> procedures are purchases in a legal sense and students are customers with preferences; modern electronic systems have been proven to be faster, cheaper, friendlier and more effective than long lines and manually dispensed punch cards.   As such, transactions should be easy, fast and gratifying; educators might benefit from examining travel industry models, offering “quick check-in,” and “advanced registration” (why not register for next year’s classes?).

<u>Course descriptions</u> should be accurate and complete, fact sheets and syllabi should be available for every course (these would otherwise be known as “sales sheets” and should

be both descriptive and provocative to the learner). Courses from an accredited institutions (especially) should be fully transferable at least in some context even if not applied to a different “non-applicable” academic track.

According to the registrar’s office at this researcher’s present institution, the graduate program in which he is enrolled does not allow for interim “dean’s list” or “honors” graduation recognition (e.g., printing summa cum laude on the diploma). This recognition for some provides an inexpensive intrinsic incentive that needn’t be withheld.

Building environmental services: see classroom facilities above.

Career placement, counseling, guidance and admissions should be examined to create a seamless process, to ensure a smooth transition from prospective student, to successful graduate, to supportive alumni, to repeat customer in other academic programs and/or continuing education.

The list of other service- and market-oriented opportunities is virtually endless. Therefore, as a broad guideline, educators must actively measure constituency preferences, add value and negotiate fair compensation such that resources are made continually available relative to service demands.

Questions for Further Research

Aside from those questions this researcher has posed throughout this investigation without necessarily having any definite answers, many other research questions come to mind. Hopefully, the aforementioned and the following will spark other future researchers to similarly attempt to investigate opportunities to better meet the needs of learners, society and themselves:

The emergence of quality, service and customer in the literature as terms to be considered for incorporation into the dialog and dialectic of education presents both challenges and opportunities. Challenges include the adaptation of transferable concepts to the education context without creating a subculture of disobliged participants:

1. How can such a dialog be successfully and smoothly facilitated without causing disempowering factions to develop in the educational community?

Opportunities include the possibility to increase financial support for education. This is submitted based upon the researcher's theory that the creation of a greater valuation on the part of constituencies is necessary for the education system to obtain greater prosperity. Since the present trend toward increased internal corporate investment in training and education suggests that private investment is possibly replacing public education, this theory merits further investigation.

In any case, so long as the public education budget remains flat or experiences shrinkage, educators should be concerned and introspective about reasons this may be occurring. Thus, about corporate dispositions, the following questions seem appropriate:

2. What impetus would create a sentiment of greater value received among corporations and a corresponding increased willingness to direct (or possibly redirect) training investments in support of public education?

3. Are corporations that have invested monies on internal training and educational delivery systems satisfied, or do gaps exist such that internal mechanisms are considered the lesser of evils as compared to public education alternatives?

Most agree that reform efforts in the past have failed; this present research suggests that more radical approaches may be necessary in the future:

4. Why is it that after decades of reforms, the majority of Americans are displeased by their education system?

A number of issues mentioned in this present study evoke questions about the values Americans exhibit or implicitly communicate in connection with education, such as:

5. Americans support exorbitant lifestyles for athletes, celebrities and other high-visibility figures; why are teacher salaries comparatively so low?

6. Have educators been bred to feel “entitled” to conduct research under their own terms even though someone else is supporting their paycheck?

Kohl (1992) related an occasion where a businessman was asked about prospects for employment for graduates:

> If restructuring moves forward, I asked him, will young people become fully employed and have decent salaries and challenging work? I sensed pain in his face as he composed his answer. Yes, some of the youngsters would get good jobs, he said. But even his company, which was committed to the community, was reducing staff. There wasn’t even a guarantee that the company, part of a multinational corporation, would remain in the state. The central dilemma of work-specific education is that it is dependent upon the future economic state of society. Educators can only speculate about the outlook for graduates. (p. 32)

Upon reading Kohl’s story, this researcher mused, therein lies “trace evidence” of one of the central problems with leadership in education and business. The theory submitted based on such evidence is therefore: Employees are “taught” to be unthinking through systems that foster dependency on authority signals; employees wait for the next task to be assigned, and are idle without such an assignment. In contrast, the entrepreneurial (or thinking) individual looks for needs and determines what must be done to fill those needs. Subsequently, that work gets done.

Thus, empowerment means taking charge in exchange for the unlimited potential to gain positive rewards. However, many so-called empowerment implementations in the workplace are watered down and sterilized to the point where initiative is marginal. True empowerment means taking unlimited risks, which means accepting consequences that are not watered down such as loosing one’s paycheck, job, or worse.

It seems most individuals (including recent graduates) are also trained to ask for or “need” a job and expect “empowerment” as though it were an entitlement with no downside. The truly evolved and ready graduate or candidate recognizes that, so long as there are problems to be solved, work is correspondingly available and the nature of that work becomes self evident in the language of solutions. The educator certainly must realize that employers want their problems solved and there are many such problems in need of resolution. Therefore:

7. What would make educators more aware of business problems?

8. What curricular approaches would be effective in developing “solutions-oriented” graduates?

About image and identity, concepts which appear to be difficult to grasp for many, there are many related questions. One of the most important is:

9. Would top educational administrators have an interest in promoting their institutions as marketable “brand names,” and are they, in effect, doing so already?

A Final Note: “Service-Focused Education”

An oft-cited anecdote told by marketers is about a person who goes to the hardware store to buy a drill. Confused by the large number of choices, the individual is delighted to be greeted by an attending clerk. This clerk is very astute and immediately realizes that rather than hardware, what this person actually is interested in, and needs, is a hole. After determining what kind of hole, in what material, how deep, and the other specifics, the clerk guides the person to the exact drill and bit needed.

The moral of the story is that the individual may ask for a drill, but the real need is an answer to a problem.

Likewise, America has a need. Thus far, education has offered course numbers, grade levels and tests, much like the less astute clerk in the aforementioned situation would offer a half-inch or three-eighths-inch drill, without assessing the nature of the problem.

The individual above needs a hole. America needs a gaping hole filled. Like the shopper, citizens are not sure how, but they do know the end result they want. The public is looking to educators to be astute. Although there may be a dark cloud over the American public education system, the underlining is more silver than ever. For now is also a wonderful time for educators to make valued suggestions.

Americans are anxious to hear how the unrealized potential of empty lives may best be filled with the rewards of learning, working and living. This researcher respectfully submits, that thoughtful and more correct answers will restore faith. Such restoration may in turn lead to unheralded opportunities for education as the stepping stone of human progress.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A

Human Resource Development Eras

Era	Employee Emphasis	Benchmark	Beginnings
1	Skillfulness	Informal example	Before 3500 B.C.
		Apprenticeship	2100 B.C.
		Guilds	About 1100 A.D.
		Craft training	About 1750 A.D.
	Efficiency	Early training and education programs	About 1800
		Factory schools	By late 1800s
		Government efforts	Late 1800s
		Management and labor	Late 1800s
		Training associations	Early 1900s
		Corporate schools	1913
3	Satisfaction	Executive training	1919
		Correspondence schools	1920s
		Government welfare/ work-force programs	1930s
		World War II programs	Early 1940s
4	Enhancement	American Society of Training Directors	1945
		Training as education in organizations	1950s
		HRD as an academic discipline	1970s
		Cooperative efforts of ASTD and HRD academic community	1980s

Source:

Pace, R. W., Smith, P. C., & Mills, G. E. (1991). Human resource development: The field. (p. 25). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Appendix B

Sizer’s Principles for Schools

<u>Simple goal</u>

Schools should help pupils think, not digest facts

<u>Focus</u>

Students should master a few essential skills and areas of knowledge

<u>New yardsticks</u>

Students should advance based on proven mastery, not age or credits given for time in class

<u>Inclusivity</u>

High goals should apply to all students

<u>Environment</u>

Schools should stress trust, decency, and meeting high standards without anxiety

<u>Active learning</u>

Students learn best when they’re involved--so teachers should be coaches, not lecturers

Source:

Maremont, M. (1994, January 10). “Mindless” schools. <u>Business Week</u>, p. 45.

Appendix C

SCANS Competencies

Basic skills

Reading, writing, mathematics, speaking and listening

Thinking skills

Creativity, decision making, reasoning and problem solving

Personal qualities

Individual responsibility, self management and integrity

Resources

Allocating time, money and people

Interpersonal skills

Working on teams, teaching, negotiating and serving customers

Information

Acquiring, evaluating and processing data

Technology

Selecting, using and applying technology

Systems

Understanding social, organizational and technological systems

Source:

Brock, W. E. (1992). A vision for education: SCANS chairman sees need for high-performance schools. Vocational Education Journal, 67(7), 20.

Appendix D

Data Source Locator for Higher Education

Guide to National Data Sources on Higher Education

Institutional Decriptors

Data Types	Major Sources
Institution name/address Sector and size Program offerings Types of Degrees/awards	IPEDS Institutional Characteristics Survey NCES Directory of Postsecondary Institutions HEP Higher Education Directory AACJC Guide College Board Annual Survey College Board College Handbook College Board Fall Annual Report College Board Summary Statistics

Data Types	Major Sources
Age and gender Race/ethnicity Academics preparation Education Objectives Standardized test scores Financial aid eligibility Educational attinment	WICHE High School Graduates NCES Enrollment Data and Projections American Council on Education Report on GED U.S. Bureau of the Census CIRP Annual Survey of Entering Freshmen National Postsecondary Student Financial Aid Survey College Board/ETS American College Testing Program

Enrollments and Completions

Data Types	Major Sources
Enrollments by level, age, sex race/ethnicity status, and so on	IPEDS Enrollment Surveys
Degrees, awards	IPEDS Completions and Awards
Residence of students	NSF Survey of Graduate Science and Engineering
	NSH Survey of Earned Doctorates

Student Demography and Characteristics

Student Longitudinal Data

Data Types	Major Sources
Educational and family background	NCES National Longitudinal Study
Education pathways	NCES High School and Beyond
Workforce experience	NCES National Education Study
Longitudinal	
Retention/time to completion	NCES Recent College Graduates

Student Financial Aid

Data Types	Major Sources
Sources and distribution	College Board Trends in Student Aid
State and federal support	NASSGP Annual Survey
Characteristics of aided students	NIICU Survey
	NCES National Postsecondary Student Aid Study

Physicial Facilities and Assets

Data Types	Major Sources
Facilities inventories	NSF Survey of Facilities and Capital Expenditures
Capitial expenditures	
Physicial assets	IPEDS Academic Libraries Survey
Library resources	APPA

Data on Institutional Financial Support

Data Types	Major Sources
Revenue by source	IPEDS Finance Survey
State appropriations	Grapevine Appropriations Data
Federal support	Halstead's State Profiles
Gifts/endowment	Washington Higher Education Coordinating Board
	NACUBO
	National Science Foundation

Tuition and Fee Charges

Data Types	Major Sources
Student charges by institution	College Board College Cost Book
State/sector averages at public institutions	SREB
	WICHE
	Washington Higher Education Coordinating Board
	NCES Instituional Characteristics

Faculty/Staff/Salaries and Benefits

Data Types	Major Sources
Number/status of faculty	AAUP
Average salary by rank	IPEDS Faculty Salary Survey
Average salary by state/sector	AASCU/CUPA
Other compensation/benefits	Oklahoma State University Survey
Administrative/support staff	CUPA Administrative Compensation Survey
Average state appropriated salary increases	EEOC Faculty/Staff (EEO-6) Survey
	IPEDS Fall Staff Survey
	TIAA/CREF
	NCES Survey of Postsecondary Faculty
	State Council of Higher Education for Virginia

Statistical Digests and Other Sources

Data Types	Major Sources
Higher education fact books	NCES Digest of Education Statistics
State comparisions	NCES Condtion of Education
Education indicators	NCES Education Indicators
Statistical digests	NCES State Higher Education Profiles
	ACE Report on Minorities in Higher Education
	ACE Campus Trends

Source:

Lenth, C. S., & Christal, M. E. (1991). National data bases and statistical resorces on higher education: An annotated guide. New Directions for Institutional Research(69), 83.

Appendix E

Selected Educational Information Sources

Directory of Cooperative Education
Cooperative Education Association
247 Alumni Center
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, IN 47809

Education Information Guide Series
Gale Research Company
Book Tower
Detroit, MI 48226

International Scholars Directory
Marquis Professional Publications
200 E. Ohio Street
Chicago, IL 60611

National Association of Independent Schools
18 Tremont St.
Boston, MA 02108

National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Standard Education Almanac
Marquis Professional Publications
200 E. Ohio Street
Chicago, IL 60611

U.S. National Center for Education Statistics
U.S. Department of Education
400 Maryland Avenue
Washington, DC 20201

Appendix F

W. Edwards Deming Principles

1. Create constancy of purpose
2. Adopt the philosophy of quality improvement
3. Cease dependence on inspection
4. Establish long-term relationships with suppliers
5. Improve all systems constantly and forever
6. Institute comprehensive training
7. Insist on leadership throughout the organization
8. Drive out fear
9. Break down barriers
10. Eliminate slogans and targets
11. Eliminate worknumerical quotas
12. Remove barriers to pride of workmanship
13. Institute a vigorous program of training and self improvement
14. Involve everyone in the transformation

Sources:

TQL Principles:
Bonser, C. F. (1992). Total quality education? Public Administration Review, 52(5), 504.

Deming's 14 Steps to TQM:
Schargel, F. P. (1991). Promoting quality in education. Schools can use total quality management concepts to boost student performance. Vocational Education Journal, 66(8), 34.

Appendix G

Selected Higher Education Data

The following data in appendix G are from the Chronicle of Higher Education's 1993 Almanac Issue which compiles a wide variety of contemporary information about higher education as well as trends affecting the future of institutions.

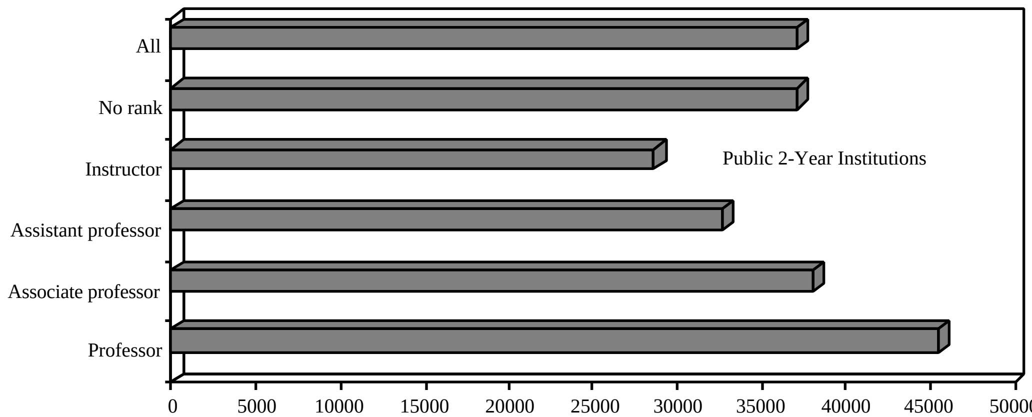
All charts shown have been created by researcher:

Average pay of full-time professors

Public 4-year institutions:	
Professor	$56,658
Associate professor	$42,732
Assistant professor	$35,511
Instructor	$26,129
No rank	$32,307
All	$44,497

Public 2-year institutions:	
Professor	$45,412
Associate professor	$38,040
Assistant professor	$32,671
Instructor	$28,637
No rank	$37,086
All	$37,064

Average Pay Full-Time Professors

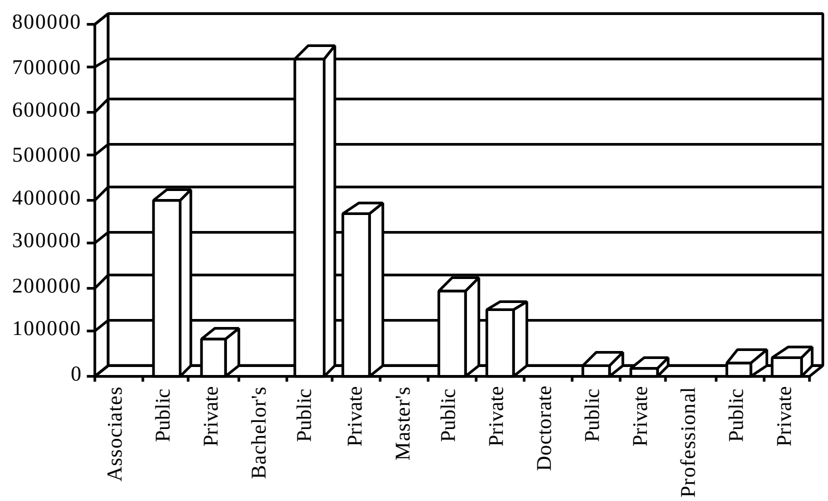


Private 4-year institutions:	
Professor	$56,107
Associate professor	$40,064
Assistant professor	$33,208
Instructor	$25,095
No rank	$31,140
All	$42,183

Number of Institutions Conferring Degrees, 1990-91

	No. Conferring Degrees	No. of Degrees Conferred
Associates		
Public	1,218	398,055
Private	928	83,665
Bachelor's		
Public	546	724,062
Private	1,269	370,476
Master's		
Public	481	193,057
Private	796	144,111
Doctorate		
Public	208	25,681
Private	263	13,613
Professional		
Public	n/a	29,554
Private	n/a	42,394

No. of Degrees Conferred



Administrators' Views on Enrollment Trends

	Total %
Enrollment changes in the last 5 years:	
Increase of 31% or more	19
Increase of 21% to 30%	11
Increase of 11% to 20%	17
Increase of 6% to 10%	16
Increase of 1% to 5%	17
No change	8
Decrease of 1% to 10%	11
Decrease of 11% or more	1
Enrollment changes expected in the next 5 years:	
Increase of 31% or more	2
Increase of 21% to 30%	8
Increase of 11% to 20%	14
Increase of 6% to 10%	23
Increase of 1% to 5%	26
No change	22
Decrease of 1% to 10%	5
Decrease of 11% or more	0
Enrollment limitations	
Proportion of institutions that have limited enrollment recently	21
Reasons cited for enrollment limits:	
Reduced state or local government funding	47
Other budgetary constraints	34
State-imposed requirements	16
Limits due to program capacity	69
Administrative decision about mission	38
Other	10

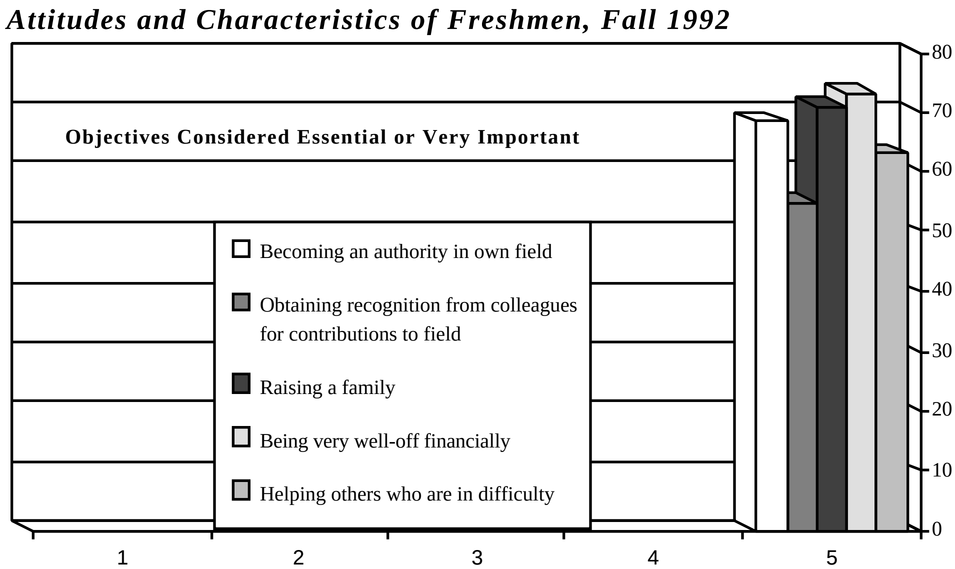
Attitudes and Characteristics of Freshmen, Fall 1992

Reasons noted as very important in selecting college attended:	Total %
Relatives' wishes	10.2
Teachers' advice	4.7
Good academic reputation	50.9
Good reputation for social activities	22.3
Offered financial assistance	28.3
Offered special education programs	21.9
Low tuition	30
Advice of guidance counselor	8.3
Wanted to live near home	23.6
Friend's suggestion	9.6
Recruited by college	4
Recruited by athletic department	5.2
Graduates go to top graduate schools	23.1
Graduates get good jobs	39.4
Religious affiliation of college	4.9
Size of college	35.7
Not accepted anywhere else	3.1

Continued, Attitudes and Characteristics of Freshmen, Fall 1992

Reasons noted as very important in deciding to go to college:	Total %
Parents wanted me to go	34.3
Could not find a job	8.2
To get away from home	15.3
To be able to get a better job	78.5
To gain a general education and appreciation of ideas	62.5
To improve reading and study skills	41.4
To become a more cultured person	38.4
To be able to make more money	73.3
To learn more about things that interest me	73
To prepare for graduate or professional school	55.3
A mentor or role model encouraged me to go	14

Agree strongly or somewhat that:	Total %
The chief benefit of college is that it increases one's earning power	69.8
Grading in the high schools has become too easy	49.4
Objectives considered essential or very important:	
Becoming an authority in own field	68.5
Obtaining recognition from colleagues for contributions to field	55
Raising a family	70.6
Being very well-off financially	73
Helping others who are in difficulty	63

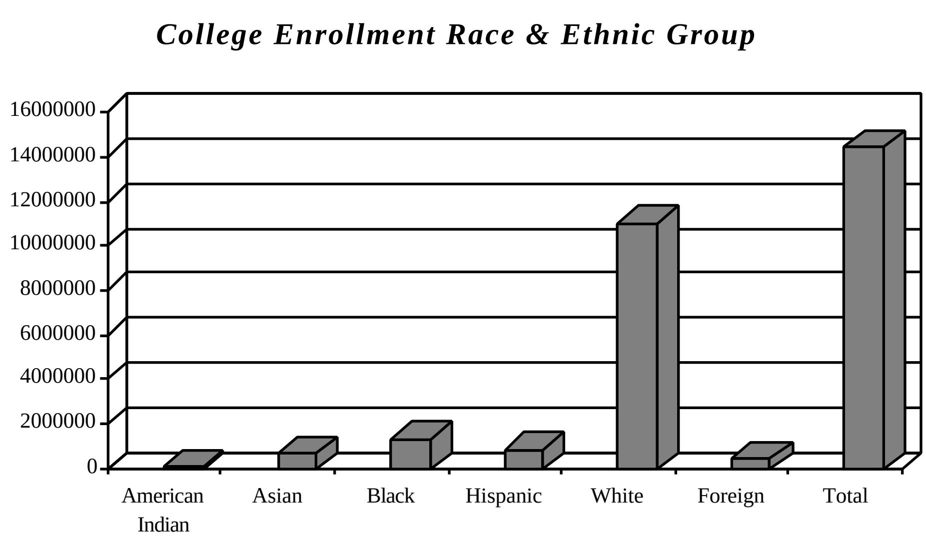

Attitudes and Characteristics of Freshmen, Fall 1992
Objectives Considered Essential or Very Important
Becoming an authority in own field
Obtaining recognition from colleagues for contributions to field
Raising a family
Being very well-off financially
Helping others who are in difficulty
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70
80
1
2
3
4
5

Characteristics of Recipients of Doctorates, 1991

	All fields
Doctoral degrees conferred	37,451
Median age at conferral	33.9
Median number of years from bachelor's degree to doctorate	10.4
Median number of yeats registered as a graduate student	7
Proportion with bachelor's degree in same field as doctorate	57.7
Sex	
Male	63.2
Female	36.8
Citizenship	
United States	66
Non-U.S., permanent visa	4.8
Non-U.S., temporary visa	23.6
Unknown	5.5

College Enrollment by Racial and Ethnic Group, 1991

	1991
American Indian	114,000
Asian	637,000
Black	1,335,000
Hispanic	867,000
White	10,990,000
Foreign	416,000
Total	14,359,000



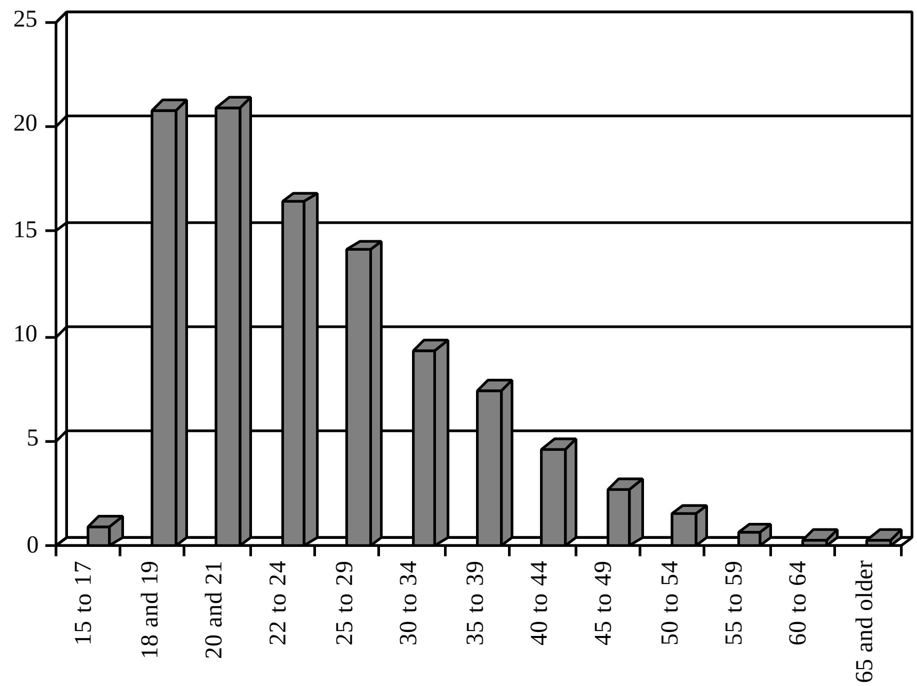
Educational Attainment of the U.S. Population by Racial and Ethnic Group, 1990

Highest level reached	All
8th grade or less	10.4
Some high school, no diploma	14.4
High school diploma	30
Some college, no degree	18.7
Associate degree	6.2
Bachelor's degree	13.1
Graduate or professional degree	7.2

College Enrollment by Age of Students, Fall 1991

	All %
All students	
15 to 17	0.9
18 and 19	20.8
20 and 21	20.9
22 to 24	16.4
25 to 29	14.1
30 to 34	9.3
35 to 39	7.4
40 to 44	4.6
45 to 49	2.7
50 to 54	1.5
55 to 59	0.6
60 to 64	0.3
65 and older	0.3
Number of students	14,057,000

College Enrollment by Age of Students



Universities Awarding the Most Earned Doctorates, 1991

University of California at Berkeley	778
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign	738
University of Texas at Austin	710
University of Wisconsin at Madison	706
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities	704
University of Michigan at Ann Arbor	659
Ohio State University	639
University of California at Los Angeles	572
Stanford University	556
Harvard University	534
Cornell University	500
Massachusetts Institute of TEchnology	497
Pennsylvania State University	473
University of Washington	459
University of Maryland at College Park	453
University of Pennsylvania	449
Texas A&M University	445
Purdue University	430
New York University	427
University of Southern California	422

Median Salaries of College and University Administrators, 1992-93

	All Institutions
Executive	
Chief executive of a system	$110,797
Chief executive of a single institution	99,225
Executive vice-president	82,000
Academic	
Chief academic officer	75,000
Director, library service	49,403
Dean, agriculture	91,056
Dean, arts and letters	68,602
Dean, arts and sciences	74,095
Dean, business	73,734
Dean, communications	61,142
Dean, continuing education	56,722
Dean, dentistry	123,502
Dean, education	72,450
Dean, engineering	97,000
Dean, extension	63,800
Dean, fine arts	68,180
Dean, graduate programs	71,703
Dean, health-related professions	65,444
Dean, home economics	81,756
Dean, humanities	52,946
Dean, instruction	57,000
Dean, law	129,000
Dean, library and information sciences	68,967
Dean, mathematics	53,393

Continued, Median Salaries of College and University Administrators, 1992-93

	All Institutions
Dean, medicine	182,624
Dean, music	69,498
Dean, nursing	67,250
Dean, pharmacy	99,535
Dean, public health	136,201
Dean, sciences	61,290
Dean, social sciences	54,471
Dean, social work	86,408
Dean, special programs	48,213
Dean, undergraduate programs	66,025
Dean, veterinary medicine	115,838
Dean, vocational educaiton	59,611

Educational Attainment of 1980 High-School Seniors by 1986

	No H.S. diploma	H.S. diploma	License	Assoc. degree	B.S. degree	Prof. /grad. degree
Sex						
Men	1	64	10.5	5.9	17.6	0.9
Women	0.8	59.6	13.3	7	18.8	0.6
Type of H.S.						
Public	1	63.2	12.1	6.6	16.4	0.7
Catholic	---	47.4	11.9	6.4	32.8	1.6
Other private	---	52.3	7	3.9	36.7	0.1

Student Financial Aid, 1991-92

Total spending, by source

Federal programs-Generally avaliable aid	
Pell Grants	$5,242,000,000
Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants	415,000,000
State Student Incentive Grants	63,000,000
College Work-Study	791,000,000
Perkins Loans	824,000,000
Income Contingent Loans	5,000,000
Stafford Student Loans	10,639,000,000
Supplemental Loans for Students	1,952,000,000
Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students	1,125,000,000
Subtotal	21,055,000,000

Federal programs-Speciality directed aid	
Veterans	908,000,000
Military	376,000,000
Other grants	161,000,000
Other loans	350,000,000
Subtotal	1,794,000,000
Total federal aid	22,849,000,000

State grant programs	1,931,000,000
Instutional and other grants	5,991,000,000
Total federal, state, and institutional aid	$30,771,000,000

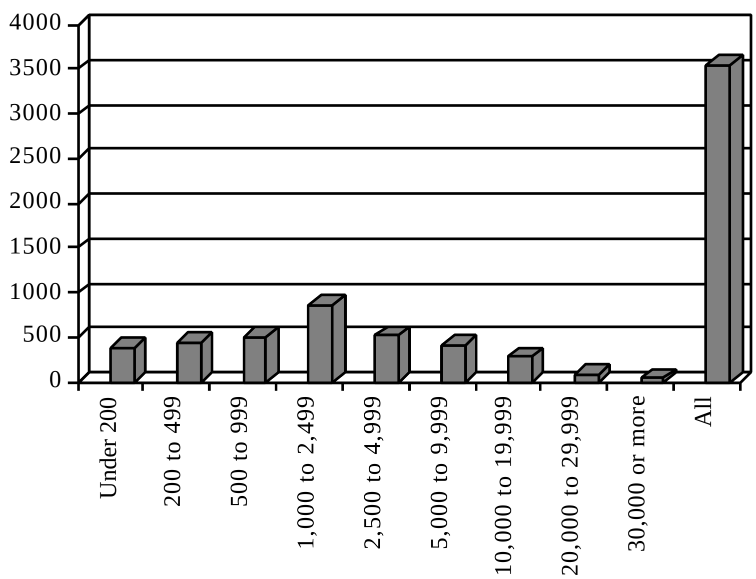
Number of Colleges by Enrollment, Fall 1991

	All Institutions
Public institutions	
Under 200	8
200 to 499	32
500 to 999	116
1,000 to 2,499	341
2,500 to 4,999	356
5,000 to 9,999	346
10,000 to 19,999	242
20,000 to 29,999	87
30,000 or more	37
All	1565
Private institutions	
Under 200	376
200 to 499	408
500 to 999	394
1,000 to 2,499	514
2,500 to 4,999	159
5,000 to 9,999	79
10,000 to 19,999	37
20,000 to 29,999	7
30,000 or more	2
All	1976

Continued, Number of Colleges by Enrollment, Fall 1991

All institutions	All Institutions
Under 200	384
200 to 499	440
500 to 999	510
1,000 to 2,499	855
2,500 to 4,999	515
5,000 to 9,999	425
10,000 to 19,999	279
20,000 to 29,999	94
30,000 or more	39
All	3541

Number of Colleges by Enrollment



Projections of College Enrollment, Degrees Conferred, and High-School Graduates, 1993 and 2003

	1993	2003
Total College Enrollment	14,431,000	16,124,000
Men		
Total	6,400,000	7,386,000
Full-time	3,826,000	4,507,000
part-time	2,574,000	2,879,000
Women		
Total	8,031,000	8,738,000
Full-time	4,271,000	4,820,000
Part-time	3,760,000	3,918,000

High School Graduates	1993	2003
Total	2,480,000	3,011,000
Public	2,236,000	2,715,000
Private	244,000	296,000

Appendix H

Total Quality Management in Colleges and Universities

Two-Year Institutions

Delaware Community College
Media, PA

Fox Valley Technical College
Appleton, WI

Hawkeye Institute of Technology
Waterloo, IA

Jackson Community College
Jackson, MI

Lamar Community College
Lamar, CO

Palm Beach Community College
Lake Worth, FL

St. Augustine Technical Center
St. Augustine, FL

Four Year Institutions

Carnegie-Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA

Colorado State University
Fort Collins, CO

Columbia University
New York, NY

Florida State University
Tallahassee, FL

Harvard University
Cambridge, MA

Illinois Institute of Technology
Chicago, IL

Milwaukee School of Engineering
Milwaukee, WI

Northwestern University
Evanston, IL

Oregon State University
Corvallis, OR

Peperdine University
Malibu, CA

University of Chicago
Chicago, IL

University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI

University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN

University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, NC

University of Pittsburgh
Pittsburgh, PA

University of Wisconsin
Madison, WI

University of Wyoming
Laramie, WY

Other

North Dakota University System
Bismark, ND

Source:

Total Quality Management in U.S. Colleges and Universities (1991). New Directions for Institutional Research: Appendix C, 18(3), 91.

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Brown, T. (1991, October 7). What's your competitive edge? If it's not understood, it won't stay sharp. Industry Week, p. 61.

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