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ABSTRACT

This monograph contains the invited papers of the major speakers at the Educational Policy Institute's Invitational Conference on Quality in Higher Education held at Oxford University, summer 2000. The purpose of the conference was to discuss how quality is being defined and measured in the context of higher education. The papers are: (1) "Quality Assessment of Undergraduate Degree Courses in Wales and England" (Ian J. R. Aitchison); (2) "Walk on Air Do We?" (Liesbeth van Welie); (3) "From Quality Promised to Quality Certain: Creating a Systematic Approach to Mission Fulfillment" (Jonathan D. Fife); (4) "New Balances between Schooling and Education: A View of Quality in Higher Education from One of the Trenches" (Parker G. Marden); (5) "Quality, Equality, and Equity in Individual Performance Measures" (Elizabeth G. Creamer); (6) "Internationalizing the Community College: An Effective Model" (Barbara Johnson); (7) "Focusing on Quality through Program Review" (D. David Ostroth and Cathryn G. Turrentine); (8) "Quality Assurance and Other Issues in Distance Education" (Steven M. Janosik and Don G. Creamer); and (9) "What Lessons Have We Learned: Reactions from a President of a Small Liberal Arts College" (Marc vanderHeyden). The conference schedule and participant list are included. (SLD)

International Perspectives on Quality in Higher Education



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Educational Policy Institute of Virginia Tech
Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
College of Human Resources and Education

International Perspectives on Quality in Higher Education

Mansfield College
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Editors
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ABOUT THE EDITORS

Steven M. Janosik - is an associate professor of higher education and student affairs in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department of the College of Human Resources and Education at Virginia Tech and co-director of the Educational Policy Institute of Virginia Tech. Dr. Janosik has over 20 years of experience in college administration. From 1994 to 1997, he served as the deputy secretary of education for the Commonwealth of Virginia. He has written over 20 articles on the topics of campus crime, law in higher education, liability and risk management, residence life, student development and state higher education policy. His latest research includes papers entitled, *Trends in Community College Litigation: Implications for Policy and Practice* and *The Impact of the Campus Crime Awareness Act on Student Behavior*.

Don G. Creamer - is professor and program leader of higher education and student affairs in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department of the College of Human Resources and Education at Virginia Tech. He has taught higher education and student affairs graduate students for more than 20 years of his almost 40-year career in higher education. His scholarship generally focuses on student affairs. Two of his most recent books include *Improving Staffing Practices in Student Affairs* and *College Student Development: Theory and Practice for the 1990s*. He has consulted in more than 100 colleges and universities, but most of his work has been in community colleges where he specializes in student and organization development and academic advising. His current interests focus on educational policy-making.

M. David Alexander – is the Chair of the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department of the College of Human Resources and Education at Virginia Tech. He has taught graduate courses on subjects that include public school and higher education law, school business management and school finance. He has conducted studies for national, state, and local educational agencies, including the National Educational Finance Project and the U.S. Department of Education. He has co-authored six books including *American Public School Law* (West-Wadsworth) and *The Law of Schools, Students, and Teachers* (West Publishing) and written numerous research reports and articles. Alexander has also directed a Fulbright-Hays Study Abroad program and worked in China, England, and Iran.

ABOUT THE INSTITUTE

The Educational Policy Institute (*EPI*) is sponsored by the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies of Virginia Tech's College of Human Resources and Education. The Institute is composed of faculty from a variety of departments on the Virginia Tech campus. Its purpose is to facilitate the distribution of information and to stimulate discussion of policy issues affecting public education and higher education in Virginia. The work of the Institute expresses the independent views and opinions of the researchers. They are not intended to represent the official comment or position of any elected or appointed official or any state agency.

The mission of *EPI* is to:

- Establish an organization devoted to educational policy research and service in the Commonwealth of Virginia and the nation,
- Conduct research intended to inform educational policy makers,
- Focus research interests of the faculty and graduate students on educational policy issues, and
- Act as a service unit for educational policy groups such as the State Board of Education and the State Council of Higher Education for Virginia.

EPI's most visible service to the Commonwealth of Virginia is its policy web site on which most educational policy issues and decisions are detailed and made available to anyone with access to the web. Faculty members and graduate students track the activities of the State Council of Higher Education as well as many activities of the State Board of Education. *EPI* also has chronicled the activities of the Governor's Blue Ribbon Commission of Higher Education and also maintains the official web site of the Virginia Business Higher Education Council.

Members of *EPI* have completed several research projects including a national study of the appointment and training of public college and university trustees, a national study of academic program approval and review processes by state coordinating and governing boards, and a study of the impact of the Campus Crime Awareness Act on student behavior. In addition, *EPI* faculty members have written policy papers on the Virginia's Standards of Learning, quality in Virginia higher education, and performance funding in Virginia higher education. All of these research reports and policy briefs are available at no charge to interested persons.

Those wishing to contact the *EPI*, should write or e-mail Dr. Don G. Creamer (dgc2@vt.edu), who serves as the Institute's Executive Director or Dr. Steven M. Janosik (sjanosik@vt.edu), *EPI's* Co-Director at 308 East Eggleston Hall, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061. The Institute's web site is:

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FORWARD

This monograph contains the invited papers of the major speakers at *EPI's* International Conference on Quality in Higher Education held at Mansfield College, Oxford University in Oxford, England in the summer of 2000. The purpose of the conference was to discuss the how quality is being defined and measured in the context of higher education.

Keynote speakers from three different countries were invited to share their thoughts on this topic with conference participants. Perspectives from Great Britain, the Netherlands, and the United States were included. Dr. Ian Aitchison represented Great Britain and addressed the quality assurance assessment model currently in use in that country. Drs. Liesbeth van Welie represented the Netherlands and addressed some of the positive changes that can result from such processes and Dr. Jon Fife described a systems approach to quality management used by some institutions in the United States.

In addition to these papers, Dr. Parker Marden addressed the difference between "training people for jobs" and "educating well-rounded, liberally educated citizens." He cautions readers about the dangers measuring the quality of higher education in an overly simplistic manner that might discourage institutions from attending to their "true" purpose.

Dr. Elizabeth Creamer, in her paper on quality, equality, and equity, suggests that performance measures, often adopted as indicators of quality, should be examined carefully for unintended bias and that such bias may distort or marginalize the worth, value, or contribution of some persons when assessing quality.

Ms. Barbara Johnson suggests that an important measure of quality for higher education should be the degree to which international perspectives are infused into the curriculum. She presents, in her paper, an effective model for internationalizing the community colleges through their staff development and course development activities.

Drs. David Ostroth and Cathryn Turrentine address measuring the quality of service programs in student affairs in a paper entitled, "Focusing on Quality Through Program Review". They also discuss the model for program review currently in use at Virginia Tech.

Drs. Steve Janosik and Don Creamer discuss new trends in and methods for assessing the quality of distance education programs. They also address the shift in accreditation processes that are occurring because of this new teaching and learning delivery method.

And finally, Dr. Marc vanderHeyden provides a written response to the issues raised and discussed during this weeklong conference.

The conference program and participant list are also included in this monograph. Additional information about EPI's Conference Series on Higher Education can be found at <http://filebox.vt.edu/chre/elps/EPI/Quality/index.htm>.

Lastly, we want to thank David Martin for helping identify our international speakers and for his support while we were in England; Pat Bryant for her work with pre-conference arrangements; and Sandra Dika for handling so many of the conference details, developing our conference newsletters, and helping make the conference such a rewarding experience for everyone.

S. Janosik
D. Creamer
M. D. Alexander

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QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF UNDERGRADUATE DEGREE COURSES IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Ian J.R. Aitchison
Physics Department
University of Oxford

When David Martin asked me last week if I would be prepared to fill a gap in the program and talk to you on this subject, I had mixed feelings. Last November, the quality of the Oxford Physics courses was assessed by a panel of ten reviewers, set up by the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). All departments in UK Universities (excluding Scotland) are subject to such reviews, as I shall explain in a moment. I was responsible for coordinating all aspects of the Oxford Physics Department's preparations for our review. We began in earnest in January 1998, and the job occupied me pretty well full-time from the summer of 1998 until December 2000. I had, incidentally, my usual full teaching, research and administrative load as well: for example, I was in charge of undergraduate admissions at my College (Worcester). I was, however, dispensed from the duty of supervising two final-year physics projects, reckoned to be the equivalent of 16 contact hours. Perhaps this brief personal note already gives you some idea of the burden this process is imposing on University staff in the UK - and why I had mixed feelings about accepting David's invitation!

Anyway, it is true that I am in a good position to tell you about the Subject Review Process run by the QAA. In part I shall inevitably draw on our Physics experience, but most of what I'll say is not subject-specific.

I shall divide the talk into three sections: (1) existing forms of review, other than that of the QAA, (2) the QAA Subject Review, (3) retrospect and prospect.

Existing Forms of Review Other Than That of the QAA

I begin with this because one of the hotly debated issues in this area in the UK at the moment is whether the QAA-style review really does need to be so "heavy", given the existing review procedures (both internal and external) which many institutions already have in place. So let me list what we have here:

1. The System of External Examiners. This is, I believe, required for all UK University degree courses. In Physics, for example, we have one External Examiner from another University, who normally serves for three years, and whose main functions are to monitor all assessment procedures, play a full part in the assignment of degree Classes (having particular regard to questions of comparability between different institutions), and comment on the courses generally.

2. External Accreditations. This does not apply to all faculties, but in Physics, for example, the Institute of Physics regularly accredits (in a one-day visit) all UK physics degree courses. People holding accredited degrees can apply for the professional status of "Chartered

Physicist.” Similar things exist in other disciplines, for example Engineering. The frequency is once every five years.

3. *Oxford General Board Review.* A regular internal review of each department (e.g., “Physics”) is completed by the “Oxford General Board.” The General Board is (still – the Oxford administrative structure is about to change!) the top academic body of the University, overseeing all Faculty Boards. The review frequency at present is once every ten years, but this is likely to become more frequent.

4. *External Advisory Committee.* Finally, and this is not universal across all departments, though the University strongly encourages it, in Physics we have an “External Advisory Committee” composed of academics and industrialists whom we have invited to review both our teaching and research annually (in a one-day visit).

Note that the preparation of documentation for both (2) and (4) is a significant job, and that the General Board review is pretty thorough, also requiring extensive preparation. Anyway, that is the background on top of which the Government's QAA review is currently superimposed.

The QAA Subject Review

What is the QAA, and what is it for?

Under the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act, the Higher Education Funding Councils of England and Wales (HEFCE and HEFCW) were made responsible for securing the assessment of the quality of the education that they funded. In October 1997, the

Councils transferred their quality assessment functions and staff to the QAA, which was established in April 1997 as a private company limited by guarantee. The QAA is a registered charity; it has a board of directors drawn from the funding bodies, and independent members representing employers, professional bodies and industry. The main purposes of the Councils' contracting with the QAA for the review of quality in higher education were stated to be:

- to secure value from public investment, (i) by ensuring that all education funded is of approved quality (ii) by using subject review judgments to inform funding;
- to encourage improvements in the quality of education, through the publication of subject review reports, and through the sharing of best practice;
- to provide, through the publication of reports, public information on the quality of higher education.

All the above, and full details concerning what I'll say in the rest of this section, are in the QAA's "Subject Review Handbook England and Northern Ireland September 2000-December 2001", viewable at <http://www.qaa.ac.uk/public/srhbook/contents.htm>. For our own review, we were working with the 1998-2000 version of this Handbook.

Note that the current program of QAA-based review is the first, and it ends in December 2001. I shall return briefly at the end of the talk to what may follow.

I draw attention to item (a) (ii), even though we do not yet have any experience of how these judgments are to be used to "inform funding." We do, however, have plenty of experience of how serious are the funding implications of the quinquennial reviews of our research activities (the "Research Assessment Exercise) - but that is beyond my scope this morning.

Methodology

The main features of the subject review method, as described in the QAA's Subject Reports (see <http://www.qaa.ac.uk>), are:

- (i) review is in relation to the subject provider's aims and objectives
- (ii) review examines student learning experience and student achievement
- (iii) review is by academic and professional peers
- (iv) a three-day review visit is carried out by a team of reviewers, that results in a graded profile of the provision, and an overall judgment
- (v) a detailed review report is published.

The provision is analyzed in terms of six Aspects,

- Curriculum Design, Content and Organization
- Teaching, Learning and Assessment
- Student Progression and Achievement
- Student Support and Guidance
- Learning Resources
- Quality Management and Enhancement

Each is "marked" on a scale of 1 to 4, going from 1 ("the aims and objectives [in this aspect] are not met; there are major shortcomings that must be rectified") to 4 ("this aspect makes a full contribution to the attainment of the stated objectives. The aims set by the subject provider are met"). Thus the maximum score is 24.

In the time available I can do little more than highlight what I consider to be some significant aspects of the process. First, note the language employed - for example, "subject providers." Many of us are troubled by the increasing tendency to treat degree courses as commodities that are bought by students and sold in special supermarkets called Universities. Indeed, much of the "quality" rhetoric seems to derive from business values that, while not of course completely irrelevant, do not sit easily with a more liberal interpretation of the word "education."

When you are selling, say, specialized optical components (which happens to be my wife's business), your customers can reasonably expect you to be quite precise about the specifications of items in your catalogue, and how you ensure that the product is indeed "up to spec." My wife recently paid a company 1000 pounds to conduct a quality audit on her small enterprise, and to issue her (if all went well) with the appropriate quality certificate demanded in the industry. The procedure was simple: "say what you do, do what you say, and show how you ensure that it is in fact done." These principles are fine as applied to things whose specifications can easily be measured, such as crystals for use in lasers. But is this approach

really what we want, when we are talking about educating human beings?

The "measurement" mentality shows up in many ways. Take, for example, the "aims and objectives" which we have to produce (for the degree courses as a whole, and for each individual course component). Certainly, thinking about what you are trying to achieve, and how you would know whether you have done so or not, can be a useful exercise. But there is a problem: in the desire to state quantifiably measurable "outcomes" (another buzz word) one can easily reduce the richness and fullness of "education" to something much more akin to "training." One hears a lot about "skills" these days, especially "transferable" ones. This is all very well, but from the perspective of someone who works in a University that aspires to be world-class in both teaching and research, one has to ask if this kind of emphasis will foster those more creative talents on which high-level intellectual leadership depends.

I believe that we may already be beginning to see, in our University entrants, signs that their teachers at school are being forced to concentrate on training them to get good grades, rather than on developing their deeper understanding. The same, and more widely generalized, "surface" approach may very well be engendered by the numerical scoring that the QAA has adopted ("out of 24"). Pre-QAA, the judgment was a much broader one: "excellent", "satisfactory", or "unsatisfactory."

To resume: the "aims and objectives" required in the QAA review are contained in a document that is

constructed by the subject provider and is fundamental to the process. It is called the Self Assessment Document, and no one has missed the significance of the three initial letters. The format is strictly prescribed - for example, you have 250 words for Aims and 500 for Objectives. Also in the SAD is the provider's own evaluation, with summarized evidence, of the quality of the education provided as measured against the stated A's and O's ("are you doing what you say?"). The evaluation is set out under six headings, which are precisely those six Aspects of the Provision, listed above, in terms of which the provision is analyzed. This self-evaluation is limited to 4000 words. Clearly, every single word is a potential hostage to fortune - one quickly becomes paranoid about using words such as "excellence" and that is a pity...

In support of the statements made in the SAD, institutions gather documentary evidence. In our case, it filled 140 standard (A4-sized) box files. The bulk of that was examples of students' work - on every course, showing varying levels of ability and indicating assessment procedures (formative or summative). You may find it difficult to imagine the labor involved in collecting that data, especially as far as the college (Tutorial) teaching side of our activities were concerned. With centralized faculty - delivered classes and labs, gathering such work samples is relatively straightforward. But in this peculiar University we have 30 undergraduate colleges, all providing independent tutorials for the students, on top of the standard faculty provision. Much of it is done by faculty staff, of course - but still the actual logistics were pretty scary!

Inside the 140 box files there were about 350 folders, many of them containing several documents (e.g. the work of four students on one course in one week). Altogether well over 1000 individual documents were assembled, many of them requiring a lot of effort to create. The boxes were then arranged, with a complete catalogue keyed to specific paragraphs (or even individual words) in the SAD, in the "Base Room", the workplace of the review team during their 3-day visit.

The Review Visit

The SAD, and a limited amount of other "advance documentation", are sent to the review team a few weeks before the visit. During the actual three days of the visit the team:

- scrutinizes the documentation (in 140 box files!), including external examiners' reports
- samples student work
- observes the various forms of teaching and learning being carried out
- meets academic and administrative/support staff
- meets students, former students and employers
- considers the learning resources
- constructs the graded profile and the overall judgment.

Perhaps the most crucial events are several formal meetings at which one

or more of the six Aspects are discussed. By the end of the visit, all will have been covered. At these meetings, members of the review team seek clarification of issues that have arisen as they have "followed a paper trail", and the institution has the opportunity to defend its practice where doubts have been raised. Quite precise protocols are laid down for the conduct of these meetings, including those with students.

Perhaps I have said enough for you to judge for yourselves whether an evaluation in such a timescale is likely to be a realistic task for the reviewers, or perceived as fair by those reviewed. Nevertheless, it is the climax of over a year's work by a lot of people.

Retrospect and Prospect

By now I think you will have got the general idea of where I stand, on assessing these assessments! However, before coming to my remaining reservations, let me emphasize some more positive features.

First, I believe we all accept the need for SOME form of "accountability": after all, large sums of public money are being spent. Secondly, I have no doubt that the discipline of preparing ourselves for a searching external review of our undergraduate operations caused us: (a) to put in place some things that should have been there already (e.g. training sessions for non-faculty teachers, primarily graduate students), and (b) to accelerate the introduction of some desirable changes (e.g. the creation of an internal physics web with timetables, course notes, etc.). Furthermore, the whole exercise did (Momentarily? Permanently?) raise the profile of teaching in

a—frankly—research-dominated institution. We also greatly improved the quality of the literature we produced for prospective applications, for incoming first-year students, and for those on course. And several aspects of the assessment procedures became a good deal more “transparent”, to us as well as to our students!

But were these gains worth the effort of the cost? As to the latter, I would estimate that we spent about 10,000 pounds EXCLUSIVE of academics' and other staff time. The exercise required very substantial diversion, away from other activities, of both secretarial and administrative staff, to say nothing of that of many academics. No funds were provided by central government to cover these costs, which I have probably seriously underestimated. A recent report, undertaken by PA Consulting for HEFCE and quoted in the *Times Higher Education Supplement* of August 25, 2000, states that the cost to the institution of a QAA review can range from 25,000 pounds to 200,000 pounds, including staff costs - and I can well believe it. This report concludes that some 250 million pounds is being spent by UK Universities and Colleges in “accountability” activities, which represents some 4 per cent of the public funds they receive each year. Of this, the most burdensome activity in terms of direct measured costs (excluding un-attributed staff costs) is the QAA review, four times as expensive as the Research Assessment Exercise. The report finds that “the current [assessment] regime represents poor value for money.”

Apart from the burdens of cost and time, there is also the question of the validity of the process itself. Here I have

to say that we had some serious reservations. For example, at the first meeting to discuss one “Aspect”, conducted on the first day of the visit, much of “our side's” time was spent explaining where in the documentation the point raised was answered. Time spent by the review team in familiarizing themselves with the cataloguing scheme, and in reading more of the documents before asking questions, would have resulted in a much more productive session. This was all the more evident when many matters under the same Aspect were raised by the review Chair in a meeting with me on the morning of the final day, in reply to which I had to prepare written responses to no fewer than seven specific queries, between 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. This was clearly at variance with the QAA's own guideline timetable for the visit, and left us feeling very frustrated, and disinclined to believe that some aspects, at least, of the judgment pronounced at 4 p.m. that afternoon had been fairly arrived at.

We were also very disappointed by the behavior of one reviewer, who occasioned independent written complaints from two of our students. I had issued all students with the protocols for the meetings, and this reviewer breached them quite blatantly, giving clear evidence of serious bias. This was bad enough: what made it far worse was that the QAA, itself the supposed guardian of quality in procedures, turned out to have no procedure at all for dealing with complaints concerning a reviewer's conduct during a visit, not even when it clearly revealed serious bias.

What will we be faced with in the new cycle that begins in 2002? It is hard to read the signs. On the one hand we

hear vague promises that next time there will be a "LIGHTER TOUCH", perhaps focusing on the deficiencies noted this time, and better integrated with the work of External Examiners and professional bodies. There is also increasingly open criticism (see the THES article quoted above) of the costs involved, both financial and in terms of absorption of staff time and other resources away from the Universities' "core business", namely teaching and research. But on the other hand we already know that the next QAA review cycle will involve "benchmarking." To me, this is very worrying, and illustrates the kind of slippery slope on which we are sliding. It is central to the current review cycle that providers are assessed relative to their own stated Aims and Objectives. The scores are not meant to be used in any comparative way, other than to see how well institution A lived up to its A's and O's as compared to institution B, which may have had quite different A's and O's. But of course this has resulted in many "top" institutions scoring less well than some far lower in the traditional academic pecking order. And so there is an inevitable call for some kind of across-the-sector standard, or benchmark, subject by subject. The one for Chemistry has been produced already and a committee is being set up to do one for Physics, and so on and so on...

Will not such a regime be even worse? Are we looking at a National Curriculum at University level? Contemplating that kind of future, I am wonderfully comforted by the reflection that I shall retire in 2003.

Biographical Sketch

After graduation from Cambridge University with a B.A. in Mathematics and a Ph.D in Theoretical Physics, **Ian Aitchison** worked for two years as a postdoctoral research associate at Brookhaven National Laboratory, Long Island, N.Y. This was followed by a year at the Saclay Laboratory near Paris, and two years back in Cambridge, where he was Director of Studies in Mathematics at Clare College. He then took up a faculty position in the Oxford University Physics Department, where he has remained for longer than he cares to admit. He has spent sabbatical leaves as Visiting Professor at the Universities of Toronto, Rochester, and Washington, and as a Visiting Associate at the European Center for Nuclear Research (CERN) in Geneva. He is currently working on the third edition of a graduate level text on particle physics.

Ian met his wife, Jean, when they were both working at Brookhaven (she in the Biology Department), and they were married in Riverside Church, New York. They have two daughters - one is a Psychiatrist in London, and the other obtained her Ph.D. in Russian Literature from the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. Some years ago, Jean's folks joined many of their fellow Chinese American friends in exchanging the rigors of the Manhattan climate for the milder air of Northern California. Jean and Ian have a house in Mountain View, near Jean's mother in Palo Alto, and they look forward to spending more time there after Ian's retirement from Oxford.

WALK ON AIR DO WE?

Drs. Liesbeth A.A.M. van Welie
Senior Vice President for University Advancement
Universiteit van Amsterdam

**Walk on air do we? And how!
With the panther's pad, with his lightness
Never did members conspire till now
In such whole gladness.*

*W.H. Auden, To Gabriel Garrit,
Captain of Sedbergh School XV, Spring 1927

The Dutch national system for quality assessment of teaching in higher education was introduced in 1986. Each course is visited and assessed by a team of peers every five to six years. The third cycle is now in progress.

In this lecture will be illustrated and discussed how this system of quality assessment has changed the attitude of universities and academic staff in a positive way.

Nowadays at the *Universiteit van Amsterdam* even more sophisticated procedures for the advancement of the quality of teaching, research and governance have been initiated by the Executive Board and the deans.

Comparable trends can be seen at other European universities. Especially, the example of Spain will be discussed.

The debate on quality seems to be dominated by contradictions: autonomy versus accountability, decentralization versus strategic centralization, and academic freedom versus market steering. Are these real contradictions? Or are we experiencing a long period of

re-enforcement of universities after the "identity crisis" of the 1960s?

The Dutch System of Assessing the Quality of Teaching and Research

The Quality of Teaching

The Dutch program for assessment of the quality of teaching was launched in 1986. By that time all 14 Dutch universities were organized in the newly founded VSNU – the Association of Universities in the Netherlands. Originally, the Minister of Education had planned to give his Inspectorate the responsibility for carrying out the national assessment program. The universities united themselves in the VSNU because they wanted to organize this quality program themselves, under final authority of the Minister. The Inspectorate was given responsibility for the so-called meta-evaluation, that is, the evaluation of the procedures for assessment as such.

In its own words, the principal goal of the VSNU is to represent all Dutch universities and strengthen their position in society. For this purpose:

- “the VSNU represents the interests of the universities vis-à-vis political, governmental and community organizations;
- the VSNU is an employers’ organization that negotiates with the government and with employees’ organizations regarding the working conditions of university employees;
- the VSNU develops activities to provide services for its members.” (Universities in the Netherlands, VSNU, 1999).

A review committee of peers and a representative of the related professional world outside the university visit each study program every six years. All Dutch universities with a particular study program are visited at the same time. Thus comparison – besides evaluation, advice and accountability to society – is one of the goals.

The evaluation is primarily based on a self-study report that is written according to an extensive checklist. Of course, information about the contents of the curriculum, the quality and standard of examinations, results and the number and quality of dissertations are among the topics that have to be covered in this report.

The review committee usually stays for two days. At the end of the visit, the committee discusses its impressions and findings with the dean, several professors and the vice-chancellor. The written report of the committee is made public.

The Effect of the Evaluation of Teaching on Academic Staff

While the third cycle of quality review is in progress, a considerable change can be seen in the attitude of academic staff towards external evaluation. Whereas in the first years from 1986 on, feelings were defensive and somewhat insecure, today academic staff is critical about the system because they feel it is becoming a bit obsolete. Their demands on quality assessment are more specific, more ambitious, more tailor-made and for less “middle of the road” advice. They want to choose for themselves the university with which they would like to be compared regarding their specific discipline. Another point of criticism is that the differences between universities are very small (tenths of points on a ten-point scale) while the media tend to base a ranking system on these small differences in a rather absolute way. In response to these criticisms, the *Universiteit van Amsterdam* has developed its own, more advanced procedures for quality improvement, which will be discussed in a moment.

Besides the obvious result that the national program for evaluation has helped to put teaching on top of the education agenda, one can also observe concrete effects. New initiatives have been developed as a result. The *Universiteit van Amsterdam*, for example, has developed several new interdisciplinary first-year courses, introduced the possibility of major/minor qualifications for students, and built an extensive co-operative network with secondary education to improve access and the allocation of students to the study program that fits them best.

The Quality of Research

More than teaching, research has of course a long tradition of continuous international judgement by peers.

In terms of productivity and quality, the research carried out at Dutch universities ranks among the world's top ten. Dutch universities have a leading role in research, in contrast to, for example, the Scandinavian countries, France, Germany and the United Kingdom, where a substantial part of research is done in research institutes outside the university.

In the Netherlands, the total expenditure in 1998 on research was 14 billion guilders, which amounts to 2% of the country's gross domestic product. There are three main sources of funding:

- The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science - 56%
- The Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) -17 %
- Contract research - 27%

These three sources of funding use different procedures for assessing quality. The VSNU evaluation of research differs from the evaluation of teaching in several aspects. Research evaluation is institution-wide but disciplinary based, and is carried out by an international committee of peers. Subject to assessment are, among other issues, productivity, standards in international comparison, societal relevance and long-term prospects. An assessment of policy and management of research is optional (Association of Universities in the Netherlands, 1999).

The assessment by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) is more based on organizational units (as opposed to being university-wide) and more tailor-made. NWO also advises the Minister in the selection of a small number of elite research schools and institutes.

Another important player in the field is the very prestigious Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences (KNAW). It offers awards and scholarships to very talented young scientists. The Academy accredits top research schools for postgraduate research training. It makes its expertise available for the assessment of research.

Some Subsequent Trends in Research

As in teaching, research scientists have themselves placed further demands on the procedures for evaluation. This trend is reinforced by endless budget cuts by the Ministry of Education. The percentage of contract research is steadily growing year by year, and competition for funding is motivating scientists to have their work thoroughly assessed. Fund-raising and philanthropy, long known phenomena in the United States, are now the focus of attention at several Dutch universities. This rather new financial resource for universities will introduce further procedures for quality assurance.

One can argue that some of the most innovative or even spectacular research is done at the boundaries of disciplines. In the eyes of many people in academia, the interdisciplinary approach is a value in itself, or – to use a metaphor from my own discipline, biology – the greatest richness of species can be found

in the border area between two biotopes. Since contract research is often interdisciplinary – because of its applied nature or required societal relevance – new incentives and the organization of research should foster interdisciplinary research (A.Nieuwenhuijzen Kruseman, 2000).

However, this is not the case; on the contrary, there seem to be several circumstances that tend to stabilize mono-disciplinary research. Most prestigious scientific journals and elite research institutes are disciplinary based. The same can be said of the research schools and institutes at Dutch universities. In the early 1990s, the Minister of Education introduced his plans to establish a few top research schools, to stimulate competition and the pursuit for highest quality in an international environment. Developments in the last decade, however, have turned out to be quite different from what had been planned: practically all research has become organized in research schools and institutes, which has restricted a flexible, thematic or interdisciplinary approach. Recently the original idea was presented again, but adapted to the new reality: six top institutes are selected by the above-mentioned NWO as centers of excellence.

In my opinion, one of the challenges for the near future is to identify incentives for interdisciplinary teaching and research.

Governance for Quality: Innovative Changes at *Universiteit van Amsterdam*

The change of attitude of universities towards external quality assessment in the past decade has focused

on and inspired the debate about leadership and governance of universities. Evolving more and more explicit ambitions, in terms of continuous quality enhancement, have given much more clear and rational dimensions to visions on such a conceptual idea as leadership. How should governance be redesigned to foster these ambitions?

Supported by the 1995 act on higher education—which gave universities a far larger possibility to make their own choices regarding their internal organization—the *Universiteit van Amsterdam* has implemented some very profound changes.

The starting point for this process was the question on how to balance the wish for further decentralization of responsibilities to the faculty* on the one hand, and reinforce strategic institutional planning on the other hand. The general motivation behind decentralization was to bring responsibility for financial policy-making and accountability for results closer to the level where the money is actually spent. But the Board also wanted to reduce the constant insecurity caused by procedures that require faculties to apply or compete for a budget each year. One year was seen as too short a period for strategic and efficient planning.

The precondition for this decentralization, however, was the establishment of a stronger, more professional leadership at faculty level. After clustering faculties into far larger entities, the former elected deans were, after their term had finished, replaced by

* “Faculty” is a confusing term. It means “academic staff” in the USA and “department” (as in department of biology) in the Netherlands. In this text the word is used in the second sense.

professional deans appointed by the Board – though it must be admitted that by then nobody had figured how hard (and expensive) it would be to find such deans! They were brought in from the World Bank in Washington, and CERN Geneva, to mention just two examples. With the appointment of professional deans, the system of a yearly budget was replaced by a four-year covenant, negotiated by the dean and the Board, and based on a self-study report and a strategic development plan presented by the dean. (Acherman, 1998). The Board also increased the percentage of total expenditure earmarked for innovation and improvement, and reduced the fixed budget for basic financing. The Board and the dean have a yearly evaluative meeting on the progress that has been made.

Of course, more extensive freedom and responsibility and more sophisticated accountability come in pairs. Therefore the deans and the Board together implemented a new system for the internal quality measurement of governance, management, financial management, and policy-making, which in several aspects is more critical (and more tailor-made anyhow) than the national system. Every four years, each faculty is visited by a team of specialists, consisting of colleagues from another faculty within the university and colleagues from another university, mostly from abroad, who are considered to be at the top level within the discipline.

At the institutional level, a controller was appointed to further develop and monitor the quality and efficiency of financial management procedures at the faculty and central

level. His goal is to make financial management more strategic compared to the rather bureaucratic and standardized budgeting procedures of the past.

Another effect of the growing emphasis on continuous quality management is that it convinced academia that a redesign of the organization of teaching and research was necessary. Especially teaching required a more supportive and stimulating environment than the loosely coupled culture characteristic of many universities. All teaching and research is now organized within institutes, with a professor at the head of each institute. These appointments have given an enormous impulse to the development of academic leadership. At present it is under debate whether these directors should have additional responsibility and independence in terms of finances and policy-making.

Another European Example

These issues are in one way or another, and of course in different contexts, influencing strategic policy-making at most European universities. The balance between stronger institutional strategies and decentralization is one of the especially dominant issues. For instance, developments in Norway concerning the redefinition of academic leadership, a clear description of the responsibilities of the dean and the rector, and the description of academic and administrative effective policy and decision-making, is to a large extent comparable to developments in the Netherlands (Michavila, 2000).

I have however chosen to elaborate on the example of Spanish

higher education for several reasons. When I learned to speak Spanish a few years ago it was like getting a passport to a new and very exciting world, since universities in the Netherlands tend to be very UK- and US-oriented. Since my introduction into the world of Spanish and Latin American universities, I use developments in these universities as a resource for new ideas and good practice. The reason for this could be that there are several new universities in Spain that had the opportunity to design their organizational structure from scratch. Therefore they can explain very well why they made their choices on human resources management, quality management and academic ambition in direct relation to present societal demands. The *Politécnica de Catalunya* (UPC), with its strong regional focus, could be an example for many other European universities, since trends seem to point at a stronger emphasis on regionalism in a more united Europe on the national level. They also are ahead of many other universities in the ways they have established a “hybrid” organization, with strong co-operation with the world of business and industry and the fostering of classical academic values at the same time. Finally the fact that several countries in the Spanish-speaking world have undergone sudden and profound political changes in recent history influences developments in a specific way. In the US and most European countries, the concept of academic freedom was in fact self-evident. Freedom of speech is a constitutional right and anyone in academia who should be obstructed in his/her pursuit of good and truth in research or teaching, could appeal for justice in a democratic system. The gift of freedom and democracy is in the living memory of the people of Spain.

This seems to give their discussions on an apt translation of academic freedom for society in our present time, more inspiration and creativity.

What does this mean for procedures for assessing quality and for governing for quality? The example I have chosen – the *Politécnica de Catalunya* –has in the concept of the “learning organization” taken strong leadership in the development of its own processes and procedures for quality enhancement.

In 1998 the Rector, Jaume Pagès, presented his program for re-election, which in itself is unusual in academia. As his priorities for his next four-year term at UPC, he selected:

- An analysis of the organizational structure of UPC, especially the balance between centralized and decentralized responsibilities;
- A comparative study of organizational choices in universities in other countries, in order to inspire debate and support planning at UPC.

(Michavila, 2000)

Subsequent Proposals for Further Decentralization and Realistic Process Design

His earlier agendas included human resources management, teacher training, the balance between research and teaching, quality assessment procedures and service to society. Over the past years, I have had the privilege of reading many operational policy documents concerning the implementation of these ambitions, and have

participated in workshops and seminars organized by UPC to facilitate institutional learning.

This strong internalization of measures for quality enhancement, organizational translation of goals as well as choices in terms of leadership style, put into perspective in my opinion the trends and responses to the national system for quality assessment in the Netherlands.

Discussion

The discussions on the function and characteristics of universities in this new millennium seem to be dominated by contradictions:

- Centralisation versus decentralization;
- Academic freedom versus context or market steering;
- Government funding as a perception of independence (from the market) and of dependence, or too little autonomy;
- Leadership as a *corpus alienum* (every professor is his/her own leader) and the demand for inspiring and efficient leadership.

I want to argue that these contradictions are mostly false and unnecessarily paralyse the debate.

In the context of rapid and constant changes in the environment of universities, adaptability and flexibility are critical success factors, as is diversity in study programs, especially in the context of lifelong learning. This

adaptability requires continuous professional analyses of trends and societal demands, resulting in planning for the university as a whole. It is my opinion that strategic planning should be centralized. The actual innovation and change of teaching and research flourishes best in an environment where academic leadership on the departmental level is aimed at creating a supportive and inviting environment for the enormous resource of individual talents, in the best and oldest tradition of academia. The plea for decentralization of financial responsibilities is based on the assumption that accountability for the budget should be at the level where the money is actually spent. This fosters flexibility and reduces the growth of bureaucracy of general and too conservative budgeting.

Since there are fine examples of universities that are predominantly client- or market-driven (distance learning, the virtual university, international franchised institutes), without any doubts as to their academic standards, it can easily be demonstrated that market influence in itself is not a threat. Is it a matter of trust that academia is old and strong enough and therefore never will be "sold out" (Gines Mora, 2000)?

Of course, any government will make a university accountable for the expenditure of government money. It is up to each individual university to decide to what extent it will be dependent on government funding. European universities are sometimes reluctant to seek new financial resources; fundraising and philanthropy are relatively new phenomena. Since dependence on government funding often seems to be limiting possibilities for research, why

not view contract research and philanthropy as an enhancement of academic freedom?

The substantial growth and professionalization of administrative and bureaucratic management over the past decades is certainly a problem, and has caused an unwanted separation between administration and academia at many universities. Governance as a career path for professors has long been neglected in Europe. Universities that have appointed professors rather than administrators to key positions – and this includes the *Universiteit van Amsterdam* – are very positive about the results.

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Biographical Sketch

Liesbeth van Welie graduated as a biologist (main subject Aquatic Ecology) from the University of Nijmegen in 1978. After a few years as a teacher, she continued her career as principal of two subsequent schools for secondary education, both very innovative in their teaching and organization, and was elected as president of the Council of Principals in Amsterdam.

In 1991, the late president of the University of Amsterdam, Jan Karel Gevers, asked her to come to the university to develop an institution-wide program for quality improvement and assessment of teaching. This resulted in a wide variety of programs and organizational change at institutional, departmental and faculty levels. Recently, the president has asked her to change her portfolio and set up an ambitious new program for development, alumni relations, and fundraising, a fairly underdeveloped domain in the Netherlands. She now has been appointed as Senior Vice-President.

Over the years, she has become an active member of several international networks in Europe, the United States and Latin America. She cooperates more permanently with several universities in Mexico, Spain, Australia, and New Zealand.

FROM QUALITY PROMISED TO QUALITY CERTAIN: CREATING A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH TO MISSION FULFILLMENT

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What is meant by the word quality? Most people think they know what quality is when they see it but few know how to define it. The simplest and most often used definition of quality is that it is a perception of the degree that an item, service or organization is able to meet or exceed the expectations of another person. For higher education, the simplicity of this definition raises several very complex questions: Who are the people that a higher education institution needs to be concerned about when assessing quality? How, and in what ways, have their expectations for higher education changed? What must an organization, as complex as a higher education institution, do to ensure that it will meet the expectations of these people? What type of an organizational framework would promote a quality culture? And finally, what processes currently exist that can be used to help an institution monitor and improve efforts to produce consistent quality results?

This paper will address each of these questions. First, this paper will identify who helps define if a higher education institution is a quality institution and review how their changing expectations now are such that higher education institutions no longer have an option whether or not to institute quality systems within their institutions. Second, the principles of a quality system will be examined from both their inter-relationships and their compatibility with the values that have made American

higher education so successful. Third, an organizational framework or perspective that could be used to promote a quality culture will be reviewed. And finally, two quality assessment processes will be analyzed to see how they can be used to help higher education institutions evaluate and improve their efforts to create their own quality culture. The overall purpose of this paper is to provide a new way for higher education organizations to think about their current values and directions and how they might use an approach that has proven to be more effective in helping both individuals and organization achieve what they have intended to achieve. In other words, this paper is intended to help individuals and organizations create a systematic approach to fulfilling their personal and institutional missions

Stakeholder Satisfaction

The first step to understanding how to define and improve the quality of an institution is to understand who has the greatest influence on making the collective decision that "This is a quality institution!" The business sector used to define quality as meeting the expectations of their customers and a customer as anyone who buys and uses their goods or services. Increasingly, this simple concept of quality as solely being measured by customer satisfaction is being seen as inadequate in producing an overall quality organization because it does not include the indirect customer

who has a stake in how an organization performs. Examples of these indirect customers would be employee unions that are concerned with fair wages and benefits, the surrounding neighborhoods of the organization that are concerned with pollution, or state and federal regulatory agencies who are concerned with fair trade or employee safety standards. Thus, more frequently the narrow concept of customer satisfaction is being broadened to the more inclusive concept of stakeholder satisfaction.

To understand who the stakeholders of a higher education institution are, it is necessary to understand who gave permission for an institution to exist, who financially supports the institution, who are primarily responsible for the outcomes of the institution, and who receive and benefit from these outcomes. For all higher education institutions, it was a state that granted a charter or corporate status to the organization to provide educational activities because these activities benefited society. There has always been an implicit understanding that as society's needs changed so should an institution's response to meet these needs. Examples of stakeholders who help to financially support an institution would be state legislatures, parents and students, foundations, federal government agencies, student aid programs, and alumni. Examples of stakeholders responsible for an institution's outcomes are the faculty, student affairs staff, students, and the administration staff. Finally, examples of stakeholders who benefit from or have a stake in the outcomes of an institution would include parents, employers, and society in general. Collectively, it is the extent to which an institution has met the

expectations of these stakeholders that determines and defines its overall quality.

Toward the Quality Movement in Higher Education

Over the past 60 years a number of events have occurred that have changed the expectations of the stakeholders of higher education institutions that now result in an external demand that higher education institutions develop a more systematic approach to ensuring the quality of their performance. Three of the most critical events are described below.

Creating a National Value for Universal Access

The two decades that followed World War II were the incubation years that created the values and attitudes towards higher education that are producing today's public pressures for the adoption of quality processes in higher education. These were the years in which the nation began to understand the role that higher education could play in social and occupational mobility. At least for the middle class, family values were changing so that their children's attitudes toward going to college moved from an aspiration to an assumption. There were two major events that precipitated this change.

The first was the creation of the G. I. Bill. Having learned from the country's negative experience of the returning World War I veterans' impact on the workforce and its economy, it was the intention of Congress to use the G. I. Bill to delay the impact of the returning soldiers on the marketplace until it could absorb this vast influx of manpower.

This Bill was enormously successful in accomplishing its prime objective as thousands of soldiers took advantage of the college tuition benefits of the G. I. Bill. There are four long-term impacts this Bill had on the nation's attitudes towards higher education that were not expected: (a) it provided opportunities for a great number of people to go to college who never had dreamed this was possible; (b) it provided strong evidence that a greater number of people than went to college in the past could benefit from a higher education; (c) it greatly increased the enrollments in public institutions; and (d) it legitimized a federal role, not provided for in the U. S. Constitution, in providing funding a higher education (Olsen, 1968).

During this time, the 1946 Zook Commission (also known as the Truman Report) made two recommendations that foretold significant changes in American higher education. The Commission recommended that no one should be denied a higher education because of their economic status. It further recommended that there be established a system of two-year colleges that were low cost and sensitive to the community's education needs (Kerr, 1983). These two events helped spur the equal education opportunity values that were to guide American higher education into the 21st century and with this came greater concern over higher education institutions meeting the education needs and expectations of this more diverse student clientele.

Recognizing Higher Education as a Vital Link to a Politically and Economically Strong Society

The launch of the Russian satellite, Sputnik, sent the U.S. into a state of panic. There was fear that the U.S. was going to lose the Cold War and a greater concern over the effectiveness of American higher education. In 1958 the National Defense Student Loan (NDSL) program was formed to both provide, for the first time, federal student aid to American youth who were not military veterans, and through its repayment forgiveness clause, helped direct students into specific occupations, such as teaching and the sciences. The Higher Education Act of 1965, and its amendments in 1972 and 1979, further increased the federal role in the support of higher education and open access. The National Student Loan Program (NSLP) was established in 1965 and in 1972 the Basic Educational Opportunities Grants (BEOG), now titled the Pell Grants, was created (Schulman, 1979). The growth of these programs has been phenomenal, with the BEOG program growing from \$145 million in 1972 to nearly \$6 billion in 1999 and thus helping to fulfill the Zook Commission's recommendation of decreasing the financial barrier to higher education. With this increased public support of higher education along with a greater number and diversity of students came a greater demand for institutional accountability.

Moving from Faith- to Fact-based Support of Higher Education.

Prior to 1940, so few people had gone to college, the vast majority accepted the performance of higher education institutions on faith. One of the consequences of the G. I. Bill and the following student financial aid programs was that there was an increase in the number of families who experienced

higher education. Often they did not feel that they had received a reasonable return on their financial and time investment. Books like *ProfScam: Professors and the Demise of Higher Education* (Sykes, 1988), *Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know* (Hirsch, Jr., 1987), and *Impostors In The Temple: American Intellectuals Are Destroying Our Universities and Cheating Our Students of Their Future* (Anderson, 1992) became best sellers and the darlings of the media. The result of this discontent gradually appeared in state legislative action. The most prevalent legislative response was to link state support with institutional performance. By 1998, a majority of the 50 states had instituted legislation that tied funding with performance measures.

An example of a prevailing attitude towards holding higher education to a greater level of accountability are the recommendations from the Blue Ribbon Commission on Higher Education established by Governor George Gilmore of Virginia. Central to its 73 recommendations was an Institutional Performance Agreement that provides each institution with multi-year funding in return for agreed-upon performance standards addressing academic quality and operational efficiency. In his acceptance of the Commission's Final Report, the Governor said:

Virginia taxpayers have made a major investment in public higher education, and they undoubtedly will be called upon to make even greater investment in the future. The adoption of Institutional Performance Agreements is crucial to ensuring these investments yield tangible, measurable results in

terms of improved academic quality and institutional efficiency. That is the hallmark of accountability. ("Governor Gilmore Receives...." January 3, 2000)

What the popular press, books critical to higher education, and legislation tying funding to performance indicators have in common are that they are external forces that demand change within higher education institutions and call for some form of measurable accountability. The clear implication is that higher education institutions have been unwilling or unable to conduct their enterprise in ways that meet the expectations of those both within and external to the enterprise. These external forces are now so strong that many institutions are looking for new ways to more effectively accomplish their vision and mission and to do it in a way that is convincing to the people, both internally and externally, who have a stake in the institution's success. For many institutions this has meant adopting the quality tools that many businesses have found so successful. The problem has been that few, if any, of the efforts made by higher education institutions have been done with a full understanding of the quality process as a total system.

The Principles of the Quality System

Moving from Quality Control to Quality Process

Early efforts to control for quality were based on a resource-input/output-inspection model. This model paid little attention to the process of creating a product but inspected for quality at the end of the process. This inspection

process had the following basic principles: (a) if you used quality inputs, i.e., quality materials and quality employees, and (b) your process has proven successful in the past, then (c) your end product should be of good quality. (d) If through output inspection you found unsatisfactory products, this was the result of input defects and not because of the process. (e) The way to improve quality was to improve inputs. This was done by either getting better quality materials or firing employees and hiring better employees.

Most higher education institutions operate using the resource-input/output-inspection approach. The best resource available, i.e., faculty, students, library acquisitions, and computer labs, form the inputs into the teaching-learning process. During each class there are periodic inspections in the form of such evaluation methods as papers or tests to assess the quality of learning. In the end some students are judged to be quality students and are passed on to another course until they graduate. Students who do not pass inspection are required to repeat a course (this is called rework) or leave the institution (this is called scrap). Rarely is the failure of students considered a reason to reassess the teaching-learning process and, as a consequence, the same process causing student failure is repeated. Some institutions and faculty take pride in the high failure rate of their students and see it as an indication of the institutional quality. However, more recently, external stakeholders are beginning to question the quality of institutions that have more than 50 percent scrap as their outputs.

The search for a method that would help to produce more consistent

quality outputs took a major turn in the 1930. A few companies came to the realization that the causes of poor quality products or outputs were caused by flaws in the processes that produced these products. Therefore, they concluded that quality could be improved if these processes were carefully monitored and adjusted when found to be out of conformance.

This concept was further refined with the understanding that there are processes or systems that are interrelated and interdependent on other processes and that 80 percent of problems in an organization are the result of process flaws (Chaffee & Sherr, 1992).

The writings of Deming (1986, 1993) Juran (1988) and Cosby (1979) took the understanding of quality to a new level of sophistication. Each helped to create a greater awareness that at the center of any process are the organization's people. Therefore, process analysis must include the development and improvement of an organization's people systems as well as its production systems. Deming, Juran and Cosby each created their own framework of quality in the form of a list of quality principles. However, because each of these list were not expressed as a total system, with each principle related to and dependent on the other principles, these lists lacked a conceptual framework that held all of the principles together. As a consequence when organizations began to consciously develop quality systems, they often would implement the points that were the easiest and ignore points that they thought to be too difficult. For example, many higher education institutions that were early adopters of a quality process focused primarily on the administration

side of the academy, leaving the academic side to its traditional ways of doing things. When this partial approach to quality systems produced only modest results, many institutions abandon their formal quality efforts.

Missed by most people reading the quality literature were three concepts necessary for the successful implementation of quality: (a) Quality is a system of basic principles. As a system, if one of the parts is missing the entire system is affected. (b) These principles are interrelated, interdependent, and have an orderly cause and effect process. That is to say, the first principle must be in place for the second principle to work effectively, and the second must be in place for the third principle to be effective, and so forth. And (c) creating a quality organization is a fundamental change in the way one thinks about an organization. Quality systems are not a new management technique but a basic shift in an organization's philosophy and culture.

Eight principles of a quality culture that were most often identified in the literature were analyzed in *A Culture for Academic Excellence: Implementing the Quality Principles in Higher Education*, (Freed, Klugman & Fife, 1997). From this analysis came an interrelated and interdependent system of quality. These principles and their relationships are:

- *Stakeholder Driven Vision, Mission and Outcomes*: Since quality is ultimately defined by the stakeholder, organizations need to develop an internally shared understanding of its vision, mission and expected outcomes that are grounded on the

needs and expectations of its stakeholders.

- *Process or System Dependent*: Throughout an organization there needs to be a system perspective. At all levels in an organization there must be awareness that it is the systems and processes of the organization that determines the quality of its outcomes. Because 80 percent of all organization's problems are caused by system and process errors, individuals must know what are the major systems and processes at their level and how they affect other organizational systems.
- *Top-down/Bottom-up Leadership*: Leaders need to articulate from the top a vision of an organization based on the quality values and principles that establishes a culture of quality, and hold everyone accountable to these values and principles. Having done this, then the leaders must be ever vigilant to ensure that the organization's policies, procedures, especially their personnel evaluation, appreciation and reward systems, are consistent with and supportive of this culture.
- *Strategic and Systematic Development of Each Individual*: The knowledge base and skills needed in an organization are constantly changing. Organizations need to be conscious about the knowledge and skills that are currently needed to promote quality outcomes, regularly assess the knowledge and skill levels of each employee and require continuous development of everyone. Without ensuring that all personnel have the necessary knowledge and

skills, the possibility of developing a quality organization is doubtful.

- *Decisions Based on Fact:* Responsive and effective decision-making is the result of an organization-wide flow of information and data that will allow decisions to be factually and contextually based. Since people value primarily what they can see and measure the converse is also true – that which is not measured, assessed and improved is not valued. Organizations must identify what is important and then create ways to constantly assess these areas.
- *Internal and External Collaboration and Stakeholder Involvement:* Since most decisions affect the organization's mission and outcomes, and impact on one or more internal systems or processes, to have as complete decision making information as possible, the problem should be reviewed from a functional rather than a departmental point of view. This means including in the decision making process the people who have the most interest or stake in the decision. Developing a functional organization structure will allow for maximum communication between the stakeholders of an issue and aid in reaching a consensus for action in which all parties are committed.
- *Shared Decision-Making:* Effective decision-making occurs when those people, regardless of departmental boundaries, who are closest to the problem, are part of the decision making process. This most often occurs by allowing decisions to be made at the level where there is the

greatest awareness of the causes of the problem.

- *Creating a Culture of Change:* Change in most organizations is resisted out of fear that failure will bring retribution and rejection. An organization creates a culture of change by creating a culture based on the previous seven principles. When this occurs there develops a sense of trust that encourages individual to dare do things differently. A culture of change is the foundation of continuous improvement.

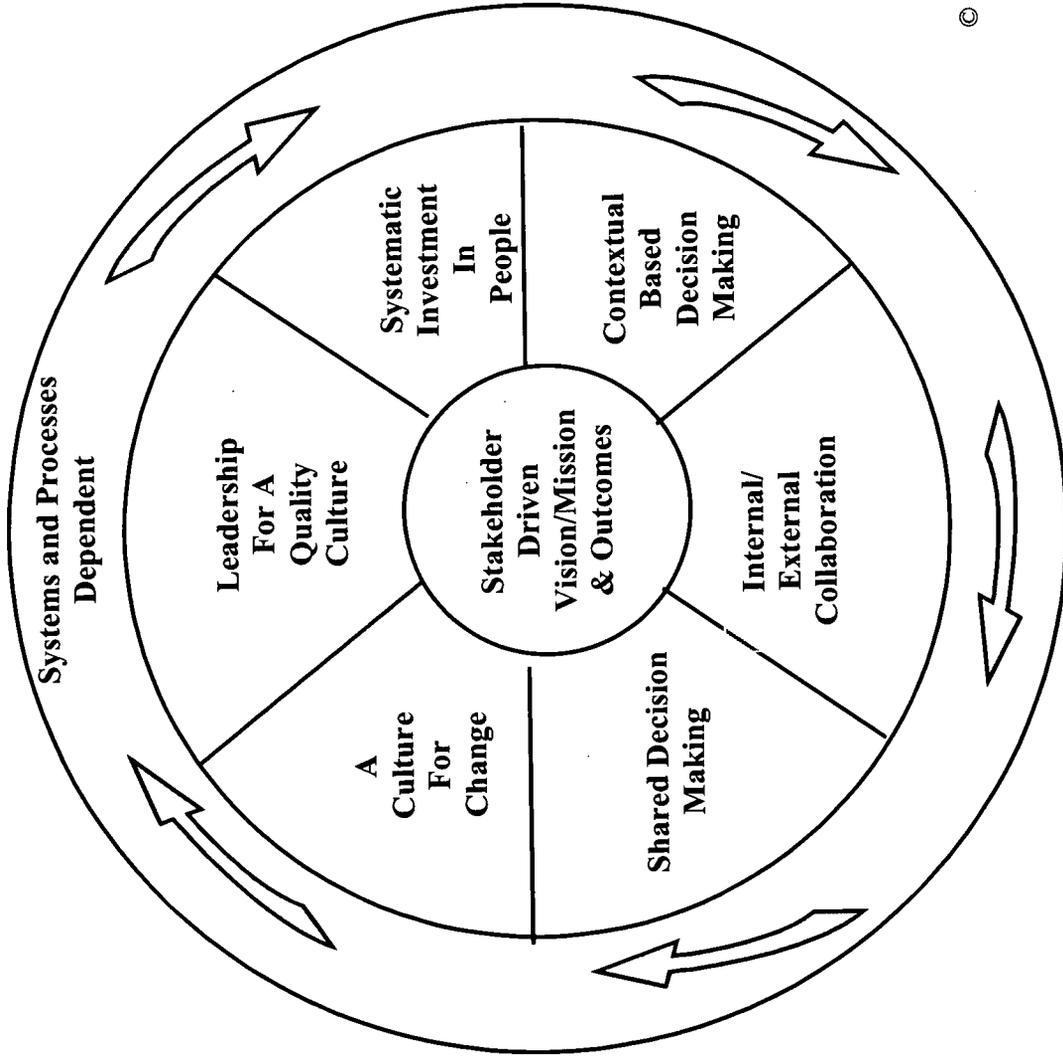
These principles are the foundation for establishing an organizational culture of quality. Figure 1 depicts the relationship of each of these principles: Vision and mission is at the center of an organization's focus, systems hold the organization together, and each of the other principles connect to both the vision and systems of the organization and to the adjoining principles. Going clockwise within the circle, starting with the Leadership principle, each following principle is dependent on the successful implementation of the previous principle.

These principles need to exist throughout an institution if a quality culture of quality is to be sustained. For this to happen these principles must be valued throughout the organization and be an integral part of the organization's framework. The following section presents an example of such a framework.

Organizational Framework for a Quality Institution

When the principles of a quality culture are not imbedded in the organizational

Figure 1
The Principles of a Quality Culture



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structure of an institution, the use of quality assessment reviews, such as the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award assessment process or the Academic Quality Improvement Project (AQIP) that are discussed later in this paper, will demonstrate the existence of this weakness. Leaders of organizations who have been successful in developing a quality culture have learned, mostly the hard way, the importance of creating organizational reinforcement of their quality values.

Figure 2 and the following discussion describe a conceptualization of an organizational structure that embodies the quality principles.

Within the concept of the quality principle “leadership for a quality culture” is the understanding that “quality” is not a new management technique but a type of organizational culture that is focused on accomplishing an organization’s vision and mission in a fundamentally different way. The leadership for a quality culture must therefore be different from what currently is the norm in many of today’s higher education institutions. This leadership is not at the top issuing commands down the organization’s chain of command. It is at the side influencing the organization both from the top and from the bottom.

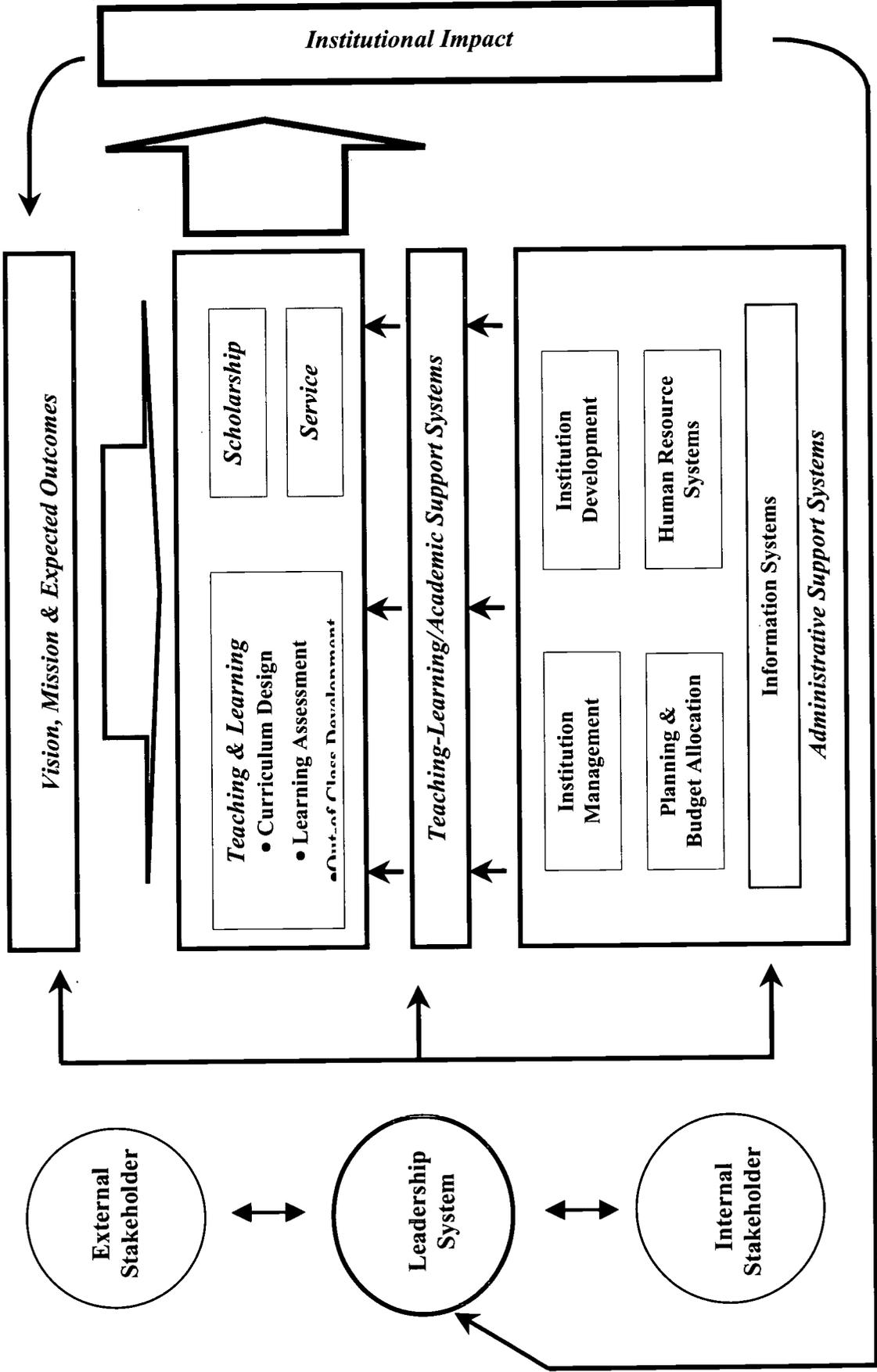
Both Noel Tichy and Eli Cohen in their book *The Leadership Engine: How Winning Companies Build Leaders at Every Level* (1997) and Jay A. Conger and Beth Benjamin in their book *Building Leaders: How Successful Companies Develop the Next Generation* (1999) address the new leadership style that creates quality organizations. Quality organizations realize that it is the people

of the organization that causes the organization to be either effective or ineffective. The leadership style of the command and control, top down, charismatic leader wearing the shiny armor and riding the white horse and shouting “follow-me” that dominated much of the first half of the 20th century has given way to a much more engaged leader. This is the teacher-leader who creates a process that helps form a shared belief in the vision and mission of the organization and ensures that the policies and procedures are consistent with the organization’s vision and mission. As Tichy and Cohen (1997) describe this process:

Teaching is at the heart of leading. In fact, it is through teaching that leaders lead others. Leading is not dictating specific behavior. It is not issuing orders and commanding compliance. Leading is getting others to see a situation as it really is and to understand what response needs to be taken so that they will act in ways that will move the organization toward where it needs to be. (p.57)

The first role of leadership is to listen; listen to both the external and internal stakeholders. The external stakeholders, such as state legislatures and boards of trustees, more often will be pressuring for rapid change while the internal stakeholders, such as faculty, will most likely be identifying reasons why a slower approach to change is more desirable. Because higher education institutions have so many diverse stakeholders, their expectations often are in conflict with one another. It is the leadership system’s responsibility to create a balance between the various

Figure 2
Model of a Quality Culture Organization Framework



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stakeholders. Based on consideration of internal strengths, basic resources, and survival, it is the leadership system's responsibility to articulate a succinct vision and mission that can be easily and vividly understood throughout the organization. That's the easy part. The second role is to ensure that there is integrity throughout the organization by making certain that the various policies and procedures are consistent with and reinforcing of the organization's vision and mission.

The first step to system integrity is to create an information system or systems that have the following four characteristics:

- The people who will be using the information are involved in identifying what information should be collected and how it should be presented.
- The qualitative and quantitative data collected are presented in the context of the issues being considered.
- The system has the capacity to present its information to all the people involved in a decision making process at the time they need the information.
- With the exception of personnel matters, there are few, if any, restrictions on the availability of information.

A second critical part of the integrity of an organization is to ensure that its planning and budget allocations are consistent with its vision and mission. Examples of this conflict would be setting the goal of having faculty present

research papers at more international conferences while cutting back on available travel funds or creating a new curriculum emphasis without hiring the appropriate faculty. Leaders of quality organizations have learned the hard way the negative cost on motivation and commitment when planning and budgets do not adequately support the expectation of the organization's leadership.

The third part of an administrative support system that is necessary to develop in a quality organization is a carefully thought out human resource system. This is where the fourth principle of quality – a systematic investment in people – is the primary focus. This is also, ironically, the area where most higher education institutions have their greatest weakness. Traditionally an organization's human resource department is primarily responsible for hiring, employee benefits programs and basic training of classified or non-faculty employee. In organizations with a quality culture the human resource area is concerned with the skills and knowledge base of every employee and would encompass the following steps:

- When a staff or faculty member is hired, and annually thereafter, an assessment is made concerning his or her career ambitions and a plan is developed on how those ambitions can be accomplished.
- Annually a staff or faculty member's knowledge and skills are assessed and compared with the knowledge and skills needed for his or her position. From this comparative assessment, a plan is developed for knowledge and skill development over the next year. Saturn, a company noted for its

quality organization, requires the documentation of 92 formal hours of training for everyone in the company. This includes groundskeepers to the company president.

- The organization dedicates a percentage of its personnel budget for employee development. Winners of the Baldrige Award committed from 3 to 5 percent of their personnel budget to employee development.
- Since the future leadership of the organization is vital to its success and the most successful organizations have learned the wisdom of creating future leadership from within, human resource departments should be concerned with creating and monitoring leadership development programs.

These three areas – information systems, planning and budget allocation, and human resource systems provide the base for institution management and development, which in turn provides the support for the rest of the institution. The rest of the framework represents a flow of work responsibilities designed to marshal the talents and resources of the institution to achieve its vision, mission and expected outcomes through its teaching and learning, scholarship and service activities.

How well the organization performs internally will determine its ability to achieve its vision and mission. The degree to which an institution successfully meets its stakeholders' expectations will determine the degree to which it will be considered a quality institution.

If the principles of a quality culture permeate this organization framework, there is a greater chance that the 12 obstacles to the implementation of a quality philosophy, culture and techniques in an organization most often mentioned in the literature will not be a serious problem. These obstacles are (Salenga & Fazel, 2000):

- An organization wide definition of quality that is unclear.
- A formalized strategic plan for change that is imprecise.
- A stakeholder focus that is ill defined.
- Interorganizational communication that is inefficient.
- Poorly conceived employee empowerment programs.
- Low employee trust in senior management.
- Senior management that views quality programs as a quick fix.
- Quality systems are seen as a way to achieve short-term financial results.
- Politics and turf issues are ignored when implementing a quality program.
- A strong motivation for the implementation of a quality system throughout the organization is absent.
- A feeling that there is a lack of time available to devote to a quality initiative.

- And, a lack of serious, committed leadership.

Some of these obstacles relate to an organization's culture while others relate to management, organization and strategic planning issues. Most of these obstacles are overcome when the principles of quality culture are firmly integrated with a quality culture organization framework. But how can an institution know that this is happening? When an institution's leadership is ready to ask this question, they are ready to turn to the quality assessment models for the answers.

Quality Assessment Models

National Quality Assessment Model

In 1987, The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) was established by the U. S. Congress to create a program that would encourage American for-profit businesses to adopt quality management practices and share their practices with other companies. In the early 1990s the businesses participating in this program realized that two sectors crucial to their quality efforts – education and health – were not eligible for a Baldrige Award, and therefore were not active participants in the country's formal efforts to develop a systematic approach to quality. At the same time, several prominent education associations and institutions were also raising the same concerns. This led to a number of meetings and, as a result of these early discussions, an education pilot project was developed (1994-95). In 1998 Congress formally authorized the MBNQA program to offer an award for education.

A Baldrige Award for education has the potential to change how higher education approaches its efforts to ensure that it is able to consistently achieve its quality objectives because it requires the applicant to review its performance against a number of values and process areas or categories.

Underlying the Baldrige assessment process are 11 core values and concepts that embody one or more of the principles of quality. They are:

Visionary Leadership—An educational institution's senior leadership needs to anticipate and set directions that embodies the short- and long-term visions, mission and expected outcomes of their organization.

Learning-Centered Education—The primary focus of an educational institution is to help students learn.

Organizational and Personal Learning—Because the education environment, from stakeholders' expectations to the knowledge base, is rapidly changing, the people and procedures of an institution need also to be learning, growing and continuously improving.

Valuing Faculty, Staff, and Partners—An education organization needs to be committed to faculty, staff and partners' development, and well being, and works to ensure the adequacy of their knowledge, skills, innovative, creativity, and motivation.

Agility—Increasingly, if education institutions are to meet the expectations of their stakeholders they must create faster and more flexible responses to a rapidly changing education climate.

Focus on the Future—In the past many education institutions took pride in their long-standing traditions; today's quality institutions must balance the past with the long-term educational needs of all their stakeholders.

Managing for Innovation—One of an institution's management responsibility is to make meaningful changes, when appropriate, to improve an organization's services and processes and create new value for the organization's stakeholders.

Management by Fact—Most major decisions need to be made based on contextual data and information. Information systems need to be developed that will bring the needed information to the right people at the right time.

Public Responsibility and Citizenship—All education institutions are social institutions and therefore carry a special responsibility of serving as a role model of good citizenship in all its operations.

Focus on Results and Creating Value—A quality process does not mean much if key results are not being achieved. Leaders must have a balance between creating a quality process and effectively meeting their stakeholders' expectations.

System Perspective—Underlying the Baldrige assessment process is a system perspective for managing an organization and achieving performance results (Baldrige, 2000, pp. 2-5).

These values that advance the operation of an institution, while fundamentally acceptable to most academic cultures, are rarely discussed or made part of systematic review. There

seem to be two reasons for this. First, since these values rarely are part of the outcomes or results measurement of program or accreditation review, they appear not to be valued as highly as those areas that are measured. Second, these values require a top-down/bottom-up form of leadership that is not the norm in most organizations.

The Baldrige assessment process consists of four distinct phases, which could be looked as a cycle of improvement: an organization knows what it wants to accomplish, knows how to go about accomplishing these objectives, will have some measurements that give some indications of how successful it has been in doing this, and finally will use these measurements to improve what it is doing. This cycle of improvement is illustrated in Figure 3.

Many organizations, and higher education institutions in particular, seeking to develop a quality culture, have carefully developed their approach or planning but wonder why they are not seeing results. The reason is that their planning has not been appropriately deployed or implemented. Poor deployment is often caused by failure to correctly measure a process so its weaknesses can be discovered and corrected.

Figure 4 presents a system perspective of the Baldrige Education Criteria. While the Baldrige system is not depicted as a cause and effect system, there is a strong relationship between Categories. One important assumption made by Baldrige is that there is in place a strategy and action plans that are student and stakeholder focused.

Figure 3
Cycle of Improvement

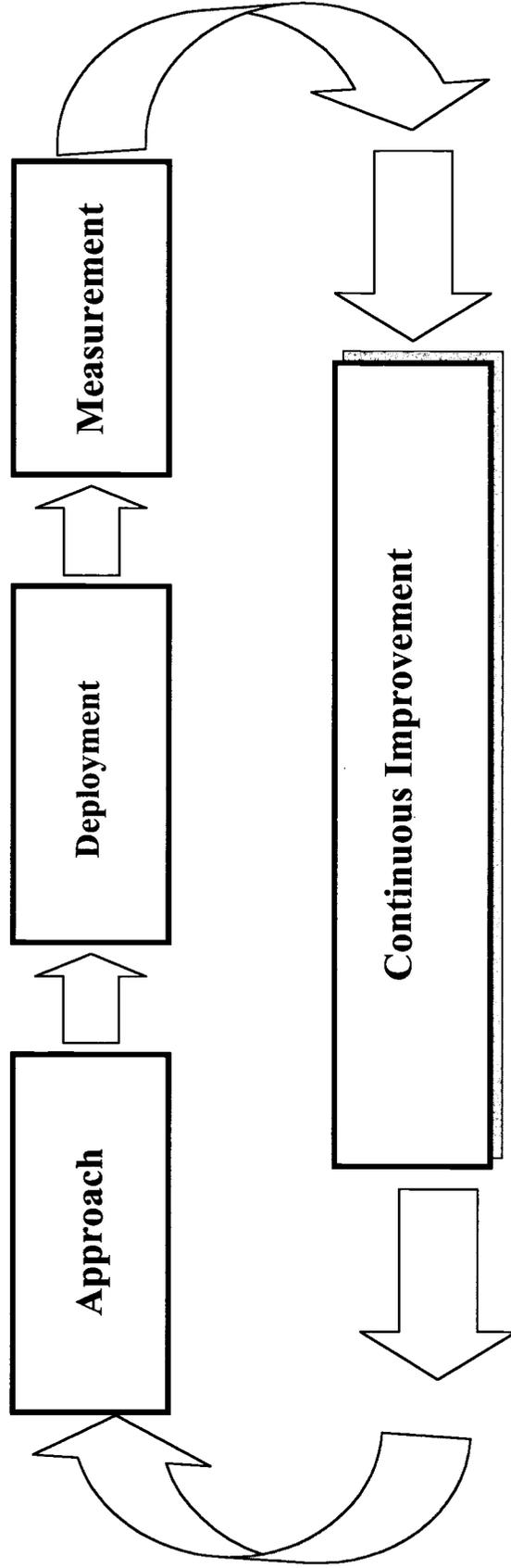
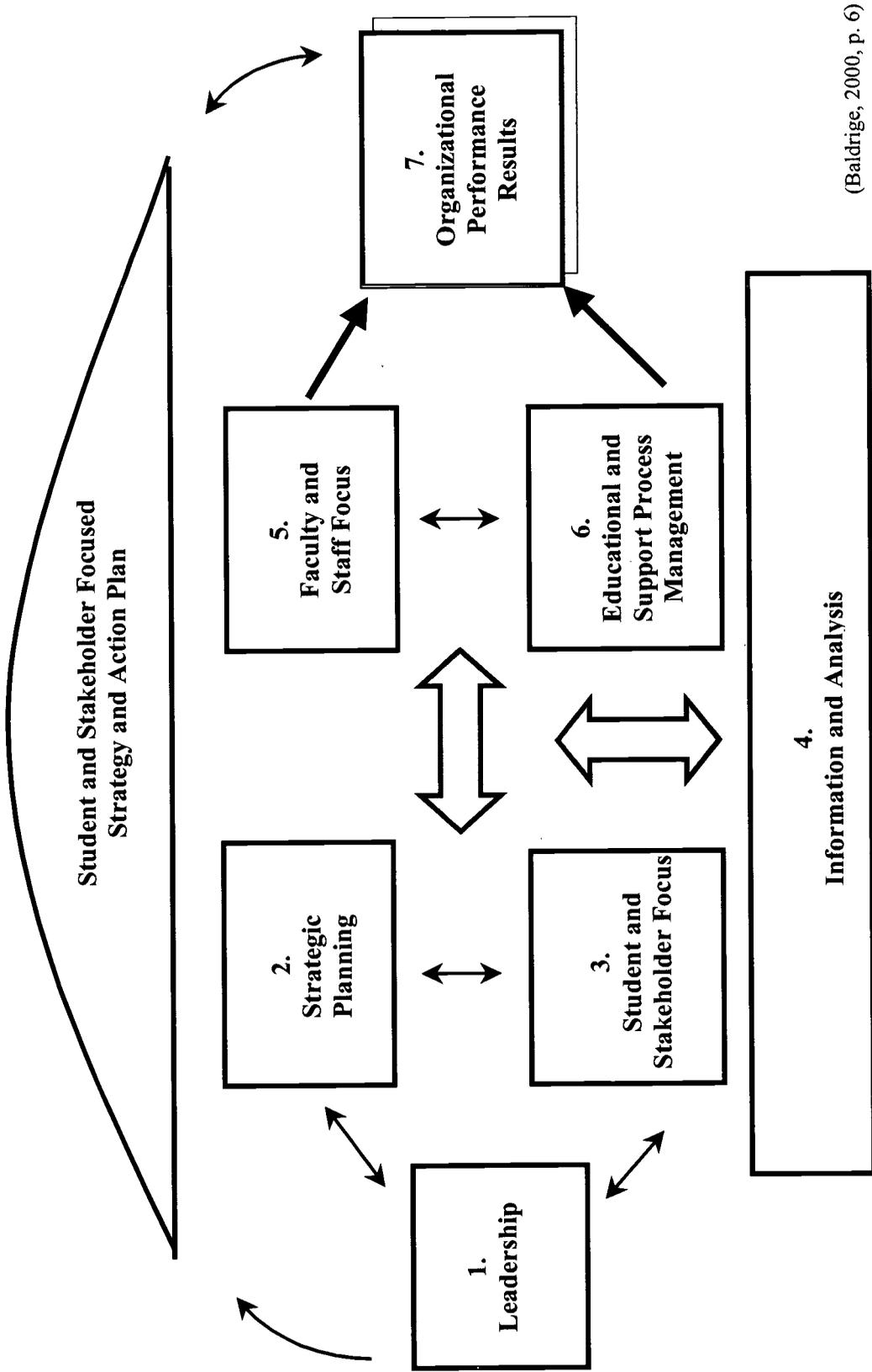


Figure 4
Baldrige Education Criteria for Performance Excellence Framework: A System Perspective



(Baldrige, 2000, p. 6)

Encompassed in the Baldrige assessment process are the following relationships:

- There is a leadership component that includes a strong relationship between the categories of leadership, strategic planning and a focus on student and stakeholder expectations.
- Information and analysis, or management by fact, under grids the entire quality process.
- A faculty and staff focus and careful management of the educational and support processes, combined with the leadership component, produce the organization's results.
- The performance of the organization influences the institution's student and stakeholder focused strategy and action plan, which in turn influences the direction taken by the institution's leadership system. This in turn starts the system cycle once more.
- This quality process is a closed system, i.e., each category reinforces or diminishes the other. The end result is continuous improvement.

Category 1-6 assesses issues in two ways: how does an organization plan or approach each category and how does it implement or deploy this planning. Category 7 asks the question, Now that you have told us how you plan for each category and implement this planning, what outcome or result data do you have that demonstrates you have been successful?

The Baldrige assessment process helps examine the quality efforts of the

entire organization while at the same time it provides a system approach to examining the process development in each category.

Since the Baldrige Award was established, many states have implemented their own quality awards. Currently there are more than 40 states that have established award programs with some form of quality assessment system, most of which are modeled on the Baldrige assessment process and include education as one of their award categories. For higher education institutions, these state efforts are another external opportunity to create internal motivations to further develop their quality systems.

Regional Accreditation Quality Assessment Model

While many higher education leaders are comfortable using the Baldrige assessment process with the administrative side of their institution, they are reluctant to encourage faculty leaders to use it as part of the academic side of their enterprise for fear of how the faculty might react. This one sided approach to the implementation of a quality process and the increased external pressures to make institutions more accountable to their stakeholders have not gone unnoticed by the regional accreditation associations.

The largest of the regional accrediting associations, the North Central Association Commission on Institutions of Higher Education (NCACIHE) spent 1999-2000 developing their own quality assessment process. This process, called the Academic Quality Improvement Project (AQIP),

differs from the Baldrige process in that it is designed to specifically address the needs of higher education institutions to implement as well as assess their quality efforts. AQIP stresses values and categories that are similar to Baldrige but are expressed more within the values of an academic culture. Where AQIP significantly differs from Baldrige is that it asks for result assessment in each category. Also, unlike the Baldrige program, NCACIHE also is taking a very active role in helping institutions implement the AQIP process. NCACIHE has depicted the AQIP process in their first brochure (North Central Association, 2000, p. 9) as seen in Figure 5.

This representation is more of a linear conceptualization of the AQIP process. The Criterion that drives the process is "Understanding Students and Other Stakeholders' Needs." The second group are the process Criteria: Valuing People, Leading and Communicating, Supporting Institutional Operations, Planning Continuous Improvement, and Building Collaborative Relationships. If these processes are effectively implemented, then the third set of Criteria: Helping Students Learn, and Accomplishing Other Distinctive Objectives, will be effectively achieved.

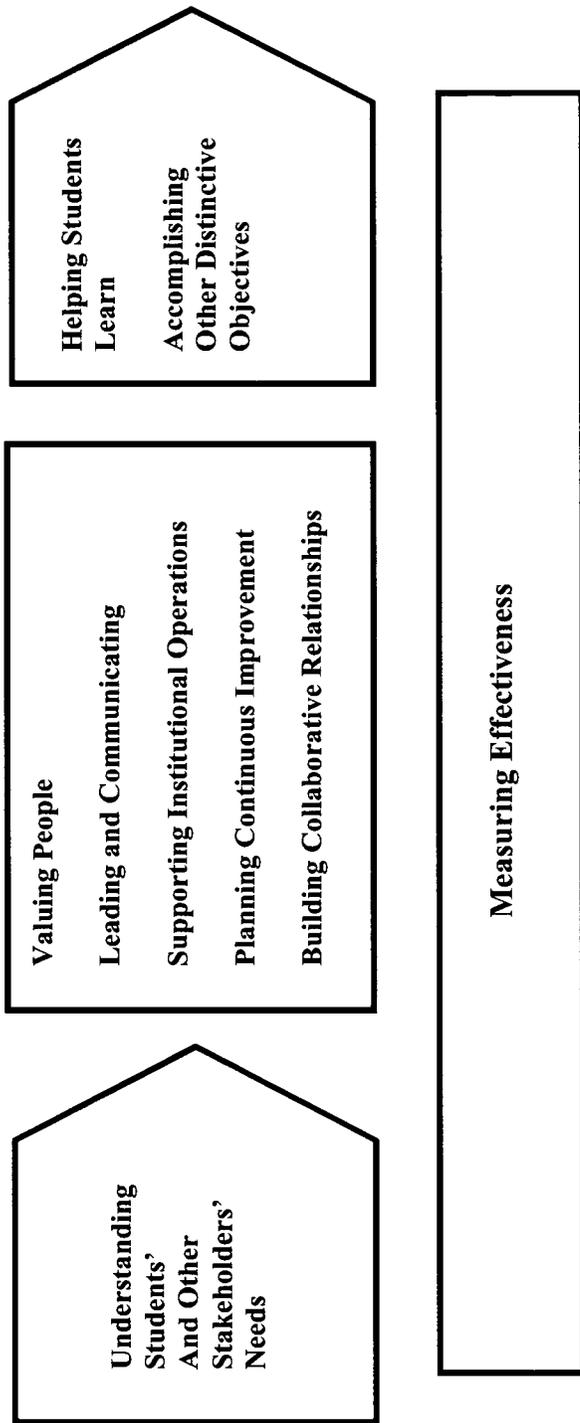
Underlying all these categories is the Criteria: Measuring Effectiveness. Like Baldrige, AQIP believes that an organization can achieve effectiveness only when it continuously measures what it is doing with the purpose that these measurements are used to improve or make more effective the process(es) or system(s) that are being measured. Therefore this Criterion undergirds all the other Criteria.

What is not represented in the AQIP and the Baldrige quality Criteria and Categories is a cause and effect interaction (see Figures 4 and 5). For the Baldrige representation, it is assumed that institutions already have a well defined "Student and Stakeholder Focused Strategy and Action Plan." This assumption is not made by AQIP. Baldrige first groups its process Criteria into a Leadership group: (1) Leadership, (2) Strategic Planning and (3) Student and Stakeholder Focus. These leadership criteria interact with the second set of internal process criteria, (5) Faculty and Staff Focus and (6) Educational and Support Process Management, all of which are supported by data and information assessed through Criteria 4: Information and Analysis. The impact of these processes is measured in Criteria 7: Organizational Performance Results. While this diagram fairly represents the Baldrige assessment process, it does not represent a system or cause and effect diagram for implementing a quality process.

Figure 6, presents the AQIP process in a cause and effect or closed system interaction system.

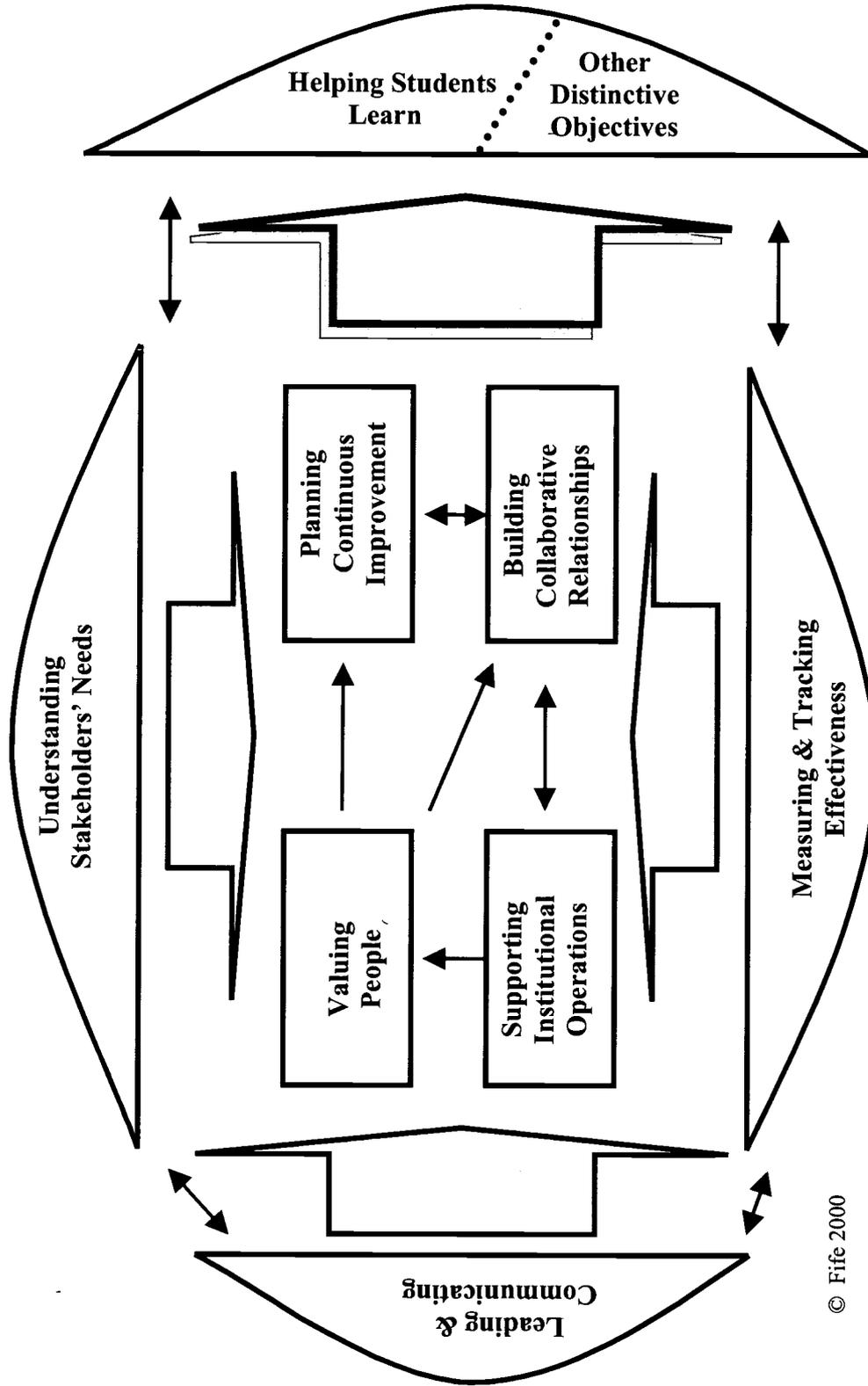
Unlike the more linear representation presented in Figure 5, Figure 6 depicts the AQIP Criteria in a closed system with cause and effect interaction. Most systems are closed in the respect that each action affects some other part of the system or another interrelated system, which in turn impacts on other parts of the system, until the results of that first action is felt on that part of the system where the action first took place. Unless there is an action to intervene, the results of an action, modified by interaction with other parts

Figure 5
NCA AQIP Quality Criteria Framework



(North Central Association, 2000, p. 9)

Figure 6
Academic Quality Improvement Project
Quality Process and Criteria



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of the system will continue to have impact on the system.

For the AQIP quality process there are three Criteria that impact all the other Criteria all of the time. They are: Understanding Stakeholders' Needs, Leading and Communication, and Measuring and Tracking Effectiveness. A quality organization must understand its stakeholders' needs in order to create a clear sense of vision and mission; its leadership must constantly communicate the vision and mission and ensure internal process consistency; and decisions need to be based on contextual measurement of the various processes. These Criteria influence the cause and effect relationships between the four internal Criteria, Supporting Institutional Operations, Valuing People, Planning Continuous Improvement, and Building Collaborative Relationships that ultimately results in the outcomes Criteria of AQIP, Helping Students Learn and Accomplishing Other Distinctive Objectives.

The cause and effect relationships work in these ways. Within the Criteria of Supporting Institutional Operations are many different systems. If these systems, made up of the policies, procedures, and people that interact with the rest of the institution, are consistent with the quality values of the organization then there will be a sense of integrity between the organization's leadership - those who are promoting a quality organization - and the people in the rest of the organization, which will create a sense that the organization values its people. This in turn will foster a culture of trust that will make it possible to build collaborative relationships that, in turn, will work to

maintain and improve the impact of the supporting institutional operations. With the positive results of these three Criteria reinforcing each other, it makes it possible for the quality principle of a culture of change to exist that makes the Criteria of Planning Continuous Improvement possible. The sum result of these seven criteria makes it possible for an institution to achieve its vision and mission in regard to ensuring the success of the two outcome Criteria: Helping Student Learn and Accomplishing Other Distinctive Objectives.

Baldrige and AQIP are only two of several quality assessment systems that are used by organizations to evaluate the quality of their organization, ensure that they are consistently moving towards the accomplishment of their vision and mission, and are continuously improving their processes and systems. These assessment systems are very helpful tools for a higher education institution to use to make certain that the quality it thinks it has really is what is represented by its outcomes and to identify new ways to improve what it wants to accomplish.

Conclusion

The individual concepts that make up the principles of quality are not new. They have been around for decades and in some respect, all are practiced within an organization. What is new and what makes the principles of quality so powerful are three significant differences:

- First, is the concept that for an organization to be successful it must understand the expectations of its stakeholders. For an organization to be considered high quality, it must

always meet or exceed its stakeholders' expectations.

- Second, is the understanding that all the parts of an organization are part of interrelated and interdependent systems that exist to help the organization achieve its vision and mission. If the systems and processes within an organization lose their stakeholder focus then the organization will fail to meet its mission. This is also true if the people in the various systems fail to understand how they are interrelated and interdependent to the other systems of the organization. To the degree any one system fails to understand how it can negatively affect the other systems of the organization, an organization will be less effective in achieving its mission. This is also true in the implementation of the individual principles. When an individual principle, such as collaboration, is not implemented in conjunction with the vision and mission of the institution and becomes an end unto itself, it becomes dysfunctional in helping achieve the mission of the organization.
- And third, is the understanding that the principles of a quality culture have a cause and effect relationship. For every principle that is weak, all the following principles will be weaker. For example, it is not possible to develop effective information systems without first ensuring that faculty and staff have the knowledge and skills to help build and then contextually use these information systems.

Assessment activities such as the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Program, the state quality award programs, and to some extent, the Academic Quality Improvement Project of the North Central Association Commission on Institutions of Higher Education have a common purpose - to assess how successfully an organization has been in infusing into their organizational culture the principles of quality.

One way to achieve a culture of quality is to rethink and reorder an organization's organizational chart from an authority or department form, i.e., who reports to whom, to a functional form. By stressing a functional operation, the organization leaders are continuously reinforcing the interrelationships between the principles of quality and the various systems of the organization as they work to achieve the mission of the institution.

Before entering into the very challenging task of ensuring a culture of quality in an institution, leaders should first ask themselves, "Is there evidence that systems of quality have made a significant difference?" The staff of the Baldrige Award Program also asked that question. To find an answer they asked a second question, "What is one of the missions of a for-profit business?" The answer is bringing a fair, long-term return to their stockholders. To answer the first question they track the stock growth of every Baldrige winner. The Baldrige staff then reviewed the stock return of Baldrige winners since 1988. The result is that, as a whole, the stock of Baldrige winners have exceed the growth in the Standard and Poor 500 Index by more than 200 percent. If for-profit companies can have this result in

achieving their mission, it is very likely that a higher education institution can use the same principles to achieve its mission (Results of..., 2000).

Other questions that leaders might ask themselves are: "Is there more satisfaction in leading an organization that is meeting its mission than one that is not?" "Is there more pleasure in leading an organization that is based on trust and openness that creates goodwill throughout the organization?" "Is there more inward sense of personal accomplishment knowing that tuition fees, public and private financial support, and research grant monies are well spent because there is an organization wide focus on meeting stakeholders' expectations?" If the answers are yes, then it is time to assess how well are the principles of quality an integral part of the organizational culture and what needs to be done to ensure their continuous development.

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Biographical Sketch

Jonathan Fife earned his B.B.A. at the University of Massachusetts, his M.S. in Student Personnel Administration at SUNY at Albany and his Ed.D. in Higher Education Administration at Penn State University, where he graduated as a member of the honor society of Phi Kappa Phi. From 1972 he rose through the ranks at The George Washington University. Here he held the positions of Professor of Higher Education Administration for 14 years and Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education for 21 years. As part of his responsibilities Dr. Fife served as the series editor of the *ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports*.

During this time, from 1978-87, Dr. Fife also served as the Secretary-Treasurer (COO) of the Association for Study of Higher Education. For the last seven years Dr. Fife has dedicated an increasing amount of his time to the writing and research of the quality principles and has served as an evaluator, senior evaluator, senior examiner, and alumnae examiner for the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Program. He also is a member of the Design Team of the North Central Association Commission on Institution of Higher Education's Academic Quality Improvement Project. Dr. Fife is a co-author of the ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report, *A Culture for Academic Excellence: Implementing the Quality Principles in Higher Education* (Vol. 25, No. 1, 1997).

NEW BALANCES BETWEEN SCHOOLING AND EDUCATION: A VIEW OF QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION FROM ONE OF THE TRENCHES

Parker G. Marden
President
Manchester College

These are interesting times in higher education - very interesting times. And, as is so often the case, when the Confucian wish does come true, it is quite unsettling. In our industry - a new term that itself is discordant to many - change now approaches the center of how things "have always been done." The ways in which information has been imparted, with a wise person speaking to one learner (or even 200) supported by printed materials, have been abruptly modified. Instruction is now "mediated;" learning is "asynchronous;" knowledge is "virtual;" and technology is everywhere. We are a long way from the simplicity and directness of having Mark Hopkins at one end of the log and a student at the other.

Today, the log is wired for e-mail and more, and computers are ubiquitous at nearly every American college and university. Spirited arguments about divisions between academic and administrative computing have been swept away under the rubric and ideas of "information technology," and at most schools, administrators despair about how to pay for everything that will surely come next. As a small example, when I arrived at Manchester just over six years ago, a major decision on the docket was the purchase of a second fax machine for the College, and it had opponents! Today, we rank high in *Wired* magazine's listing of schools that do especially well in providing computer

access and services; we have made a major investment in academic computing; and I have absolutely no idea of how or where we found all of the funds for this investment, or how we will support what we must do in the future.

At the same time, and in approximately the same six years, other challenges have emerged. Some are the direct result of technology. Others come from a changing business environment (itself shaped in part by new technologies) in which many have concluded, correctly, that there is money to be made in higher education. *University Business* is the hottest new publication in our industry, and most faculty can now hear words like "marketing," "customer service," and "efficiency" without becoming apoplectic. *The Chronicle of Higher Education's* section on information technology grows larger, and its pages are filled with advertisements for new ways in which to instruct. The University of Phoenix and its for-profit competitors are hot, growing, and aggressive. Their hyper-efficiencies are, in the very special vocabulary of traditional higher education, "scary as hell."

There is also the matter of size. The enterprise of higher education has grown larger, both in numbers and in its concentration. The University of Phoenix, for example, is today a school

of 60,000 students (with only 60 full-time faculty) and will grow larger. Some of our great state universities approach truly mega-enrollments. For example, the University of Texas, the Ohio State University, and the University of Minnesota each have student populations (FTEs) of nearly 50,000 students.

Perhaps the best way to understand size in higher education would be to look for examples of revisionist history, where the “ideal size” of colleges or universities, especially universities, has been recalculated and reworded. It would be a simple exercise, first to find the schools since over recent decades many have grown larger, and larger still, on a number of occasions smashing through stated ideals for size; and then to look for rhetoric abandoned. Emphasis could be given to what had been said about the optimal size for the best student experience—arguments now left well behind.

Technology. Efficiency. Size (or, more exactly, an imperative for growth). Individually, and in their interrelationships, changes here affect every college and university because of what they or their competitors accomplish. Those in denial are in the greatest jeopardy.

Such challenges reach to the very heart of the industry. New understandings of intellectual property are emerging, and it is quite possible that university scholars and scientists will not own what they create. Teachers will also need to negotiate how their courses are used by others. Actually, the threat here may be even greater. Only 25(!) college courses enroll 50 percent of all student

credits, and “killer courseware” is being developed for each one.

While entrepreneur Michael Saylor’s plans are on hold because of the recent downturn in the dot.com market, and the loss of \$6 billion by his software company, Micro-strategy, his proposal to invest \$100 million in an Internet university that would provide a free college education to “everyone, everywhere” needs to be taken seriously, both for its immodesty and the whiff of real possibility. And, watch Andy Rosenfeld’s company, UNext, which is proposing an entirely new way of teaching over the Internet. Reportedly, Columbia University, as the first major university investor, receives \$20 million if UNext fails(!), and five percent of the profits if UNext succeeds.

Add big-time college athletics with its excesses and profits, with the market for sports logo-wear alone exceeding \$3.5 billion (and much of it based on sweatshop labor overseas which, in turn, raises its own issues); and stir in the changing character of employment in higher education with the move to more and more part-time academic jobs. The times become even more “interesting.”

Core Issues in Quality: Schooling versus Education

All of these things, and many others, press on educational quality. Even those persons concerned with quality – and I think that we can fairly argue that in the interests of profit, or even efficiency, not everyone is¹ – often

¹ This is not to bash the legitimate efforts to educate students that may also make a profit. Some are now accredited by the same

have so much on their plate that assessment in higher education, at least at the institutional level, is difficult. Examine closely the accreditation process, for example, and ask how rigorous it really has been in its results, as opposed to its principles, and then consider how the new approaches can be handled.²

I believe that in the confusion here, attendant to rapid changes, we have paid insufficient attention to what I contend is the core issue. Many of the “efficiencies” and the possibilities in new approaches reduce higher education to its lowest common denominator. Students take one course at a time, and when they have completed some 40 – usually with a

regional accrediting associations that evaluate more traditional colleges and universities. Some, like the University of Phoenix, invest far more in assessment and quality control than do nearly all other institutions of higher learning. Many provide access to students who might not otherwise be able to obtain an education. There are still others, however, that are well below such standards, and, overall, the concerns that I raise here about what we choose to mean by “education” remain in play in too many cases.

² I have been a consultant-evaluator for 20 years, first for Middle States Association and more recently for the North Central Association. I have participated in more than 25 campus assessments and served on association-wide review committees. I value the process and the standards set. However, it still startles me when nearly every school “passes” and it is really only dire financial challenges that threaten an institution. An interesting study across all of the regional accrediting associations would be to take the schools which have recently closed and see what the last accreditation report had said about their futures.

major, but little other structure – they receive a degree. Education becomes a commodity.

So, in discussions on quality, efficiency, and assessment, we need to ask the prior question, what is a good education? The answers here are not easy, but for college and university leaders, the response begins by finding their institution’s story and telling it widely.

In their timely new book, *The Social Life of Information* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2000), John Seely Brown, chief scientist at Xerox, and Paul Duguid, a historian and social theorist, challenge the futurists’ sweeping and dire predictions of technology’s impact by explaining how the technology actually gets used to reinforce our social networks. Along the way, they describe how college work has often come to be viewed:

...degrees are not usually appreciated for their balance of representation and misrepresentation. Too often, they are seen as little more than an intellectual bill of lading, a receipt for knowledge-on-board much like any other receipt for freight-on-board. Teaching, in this view, is a delivery service, and schools a loading site. No one actually says this, but a delivery view nonetheless underlies much of what is said about schools. Moreover, the delivery view leads people to think of educational technology as a sort of intellectual forklift. (p. 219)

There is a basic misunderstanding held by the advocates of forklifts. What do we do with more noble ideas of the purpose and power of higher education? Consider the possibilities suggested by Henry Peter, Lord Brougham: "Education makes people easy to lead, but difficult to drive; easy to govern, but impossible to enslave." In the reordering of approaches to higher education, who does the heavy lifting in preparing the citizens needed by a democracy? What if, as Michelle Tolela Myers, president of Sarah Lawrence College, argues, the principal role for higher education is not to transmit information at all? (*Washington Post*, March 21, 2000, p. A28) And perhaps to be specifically provocative in this conversational context, how come we have stopped talking about such core educational values when considering quality?

To establish the contrast, we can borrow Mark Twain's often-quoted distinction: "I have never let my schooling interfere with my education." Schooling versus education. The closer that we get to the heart of academic assessment, the more important this distinction becomes.

To be fair, Twain made his distinction to favor ways in which to learn well away from school, and he always drew strength and example from his life and work on the Mississippi River. Twain also observed: "Never learn to do anything; if you don't learn, you can always find someone else to do it for you." Nonetheless, separating **schooling**, as the accumulation of information and credits, and **education**, as something broader and more noble, is worthwhile. Following Twain in this distinction is not off base. That is why

we need to watch the efforts of UNext closely. It is focused on developing ways to replicate what online education obviously lacks: "face-time" with professors and study groups outside of class.³

³ A news magazine description of the UNext approach offers the following:

"You don't teach in elite universities for 14 years and think, 'The real action is in my little lectures,' Rosenfeld says. 'Imagine how empty your education would have been if you'd only gone to class.' Adds LoriLee Sadler, the company's technology chief: "What none of us [at UNext] is satisfied with is the social aspect of this. If we let you feel like you're out there all alone, you might as well just buy a textbook." UNext is working with a team from IBM and Lotus Development on still-secret ways of connecting students. One option among many: mount cameras on each student's computer, and use broadband video to bring everyone together, live, on the computer screen. UNext has other bells and whistles. Instructors won't just sit back and blindly hope that students will collaborate with each other: they'll see spider-web diagrams that show which students are e-mailing others – and who's hanging back. A software technique called click-stream analysis shows instructors every bit of the course that a student has, and hasn't, sampled. Knowing that, the instructor can direct a confused student to the materials she hasn't yet seen – or send her a proactive e-mail: "I see you're stuck on Internal Rate of Return. Can I help?" [*Newsweek*, April 24, 2000, p. 62.]

Manchester College: One Example

Of course, where one stands on issues depends on where one sits. We see the successes and outrages of higher education, like anything else, from our own specific perspective. Mine needs to be clear so that you can, at worst, dismiss what I say.

Manchester College is a small (1100+ students), coeducational, residential, church-related, Baccalaureate II college in rural Indiana that offers a liberal arts and pre-professional education. You can understand our strengths and challenges in just two percentages: 90 and 94. Ninety percent of our faculty have the highest degree in their respective fields, nearly all Ph.D.s with a few MFAs and MBAs; and 94 percent of our courses are taught by our full-time faculty. This fact, we believe, reflects academic commitment (and, by inference, quality) in the presence of a fully credentialed, experienced teacher in front of almost every class that averages 20. Our largest class last year was 63 (general biology, with laboratory sections limited to 20), and we have only one classroom that seats more than 60.

This commitment also reflects our most serious, and very obvious, problem. To make the commitment, and be what we want to be, is very expensive. Even with our too modest compensation levels, full-time, well-prepared, experienced teachers are much more costly than those trapped in part-time situations and unfortunate work as academic vagabonds. We use very few “adjuncts” and, at that, many of them are retired, fully credentialed faculty.

Further, to help students to take advantage of this expensive approach, and to enable us to have sufficient enrollment to sustain the College, we must make an enormous institutional investment in financial aid - both need and merit-based. Ninety-eight percent of our students are on financial aid; about 40 percent of the College’s operating budget each year goes into such support; and we are heavily dependent upon tuition, and thereby always vulnerable each fall to the decisions of mostly 17 and 18 year olds—a situation that would alarm anyone with even one teenaged child. Our annual budget consists principally of two items: faculty and staff salaries; and student financial aid. We spend what else we have on technology, and, when possible, we replace some athletic uniforms, and purchase a few chemicals for our laboratories.

To explain, and justify, such investments and commitments, we measure our outcomes very carefully. For example, seniors at our little college in Indiana’s cornfields have earned 11 Fulbrights over the past five years. (In 1999, we had five Fulbrights—2.5 percent of our graduating class!) Last year, 69 percent of our accounting students passed the full CPA examination on the first try, and over the past decade, this pass rate has averaged 50 percent—more than three times the national average. We do remarkably well on medical school and law school admissions, with the admission of 85 percent of those students who take the MCATs and LSATS respectively.

Far too obviously, I am breaking into my fund-raising talk (and there are enough other college and university presidents present at this conference to

provoke an arms race), but outcomes – and there are many more that I can offer – are our argument for what and why we choose to invest in the way that we approach higher education. They offer comfort and confidence to us when we struggle with our finances.

Just a few other statistics that suggest where we are distinctive and take our measure: 93 and 82. From our participation in the 1999 national survey of faculty by UCLA's Higher Education Research Institute (HERI), we learned that 93 percent of our faculty believe that high or highest priority is given at Manchester College to helping students understand values. This compares dramatically with the national average of 52 percent. Incidentally, 60 percent of our faculty indicated that high or highest priority at the College is placed on teaching students to change society, compared to 27 percent nationally.

Our mission statement contains a specific commitment to peace and justice; we have the nation's first Peace Studies program, now 52 years old; and we were recognized recently by *Mother Jones* as one of the United States' 25 most activist colleges. Such things reflect our heritage as a college of the Church of the Brethren that, with Quakers and Mennonites, is one of the three historic Peace churches.

Finally, 82. This percentage of our faculty indicated that the College placed high or highest priority on developing community among students and faculty. It compares favorably to 47 percent nationally. They also indicated that it was easy to see faculty outside of class (80 percent, compared to 44 percent nationally), and that faculty are very interested in students' personal problems

(96 percent, compared to 76 percent nationally). Our students say the same thing in the same patterns.

I am now in a full gallop on my college-advancement high horse and I must stop, but it is important to position my argument. Where you stand depends on where you sit.

Colleges like Manchester, then, have a commitment to a specific approach to education. At a minimum, the approach is a form of contact sport – direct, personal, and connected. Do we hang on to this model because of tradition or because it makes sense? Our answer is “yes.” What we need to decide at this time is whether or not the model is simply too precious; and what or whom decides whether this is so – the marketplace or persons who actually think and care about higher education?

Keep An Eye on the Canary!

We can be helped toward understanding with the right metaphor. With the exception of the 25 or so schools in our number with remarkably high endowments, are the nation's small, residential, liberal arts colleges part of an endangered species? To commit a distasteful metaphor, are we possible road kill? Perhaps we are most like the canaries used in mines to test for bad air. It can be very hard on the canary, but the lessons for others are really useful.

The contemporary demography of higher education helps us to understand the stakes here. As part of his recent comprehensive white paper (<http://www.pewtrusts.com/programs/edu>), Russell Edgerton of the Pew Charitable Trusts suggests the challenges

to the future of small colleges in his “Three Minute History of Higher Education.”

Higher education in America is now a sprawling enterprise of nearly 3,600 institutions serving 14.3 million students. The word “college” often summons a picture of fresh-faced young students strolling around a park-like setting, often paying exorbitant tuitions for the privilege of doing so. But the reality is quite different. Some 11.1 million of the 14.3 million students, nearly 80 percent of the total, attend public institutions. About 5.3 million of these students, close to 40 percent of all students, attend two-year public colleges where the annual tuition averages \$1,387. Private liberal arts colleges – still our billboard image of what college is – enroll fewer than 5 percent of all students. The character of students, too, has changed. More than half of all undergraduates are age 22 or older; almost a quarter are 30 or older. And 40 percent of the total student body is attending college part-time.

To this portrait, we can add a few related facts. Within the “sprawling enterprise,” the landscape is that of many small campuses. In fact, about 40 percent of America’s colleges and universities enroll fewer than 1,000 students. Surprisingly, however, all of these campuses combined enroll less than four percent of the total of students. At the same time, just 10 percent of our colleges and universities enroll more than 10,000 students. Here, about 360 institutions account for 50 percent of the total enrollment in higher education. (<http://www.nces.ed.gov>)

Edgerton indicates that the small liberal arts college is “the billboard image of what college is.” It is more than image, however. It is an educational model and it is at this point where we need to exercise our role as canaries, especially as new approaches affect the air in the mine. I offer four (of many) issues here. All favor existing, if endangered ways of doing things, but that is why many of their proponents are sitting in the mud in a trench on the frontlines, just waiting... You get the idea; in a technological world, it is not a pretty prospect.

There is more at stake here than simply being on alert and waiting to see what happens to the canary. We need to care about the condition of small, residential, liberal arts colleges and their educational quality for several reasons.

There are nearly 600 Baccalaureate I (162) and Baccalaureate II (429) colleges and universities spread throughout the United States (of a total of 3,600 institutions of higher learning in 1994).⁴ While collectively, they (we) do not involve a significant proportion of the nation’s total enrollments in higher education, they are very important to those whom they serve: students, faculty and staff, alumni, and the communities in

⁴ These are data from the basic classification of American higher education now in place. It was done in 1994 by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. A new classification system has just been developed by the Foundation as an interim step toward an overhaul of the full system in 2005. The changes, while sweeping (with 640 schools changing categories) and thereby controversial in some quarters, do not affect baccalaureate colleges very much.

which they are often a significant part of the economy and culture. Their health matters greatly, one by one. Their demise or even their weakening would be very serious, even in simple business terms. (We struggle with the community impact from plant closings; we seldom offer colleges the same understanding.)

Small colleges represent an important educational ideal. This is more than special pleading; it is a historical truism. Today's system of mass higher education grew up around the core offered by the nation's small colleges and universities; and the model of education that nearly every one of these institutions argues to students and others that lie at its academic heart is that of a liberal arts education, offered as a set of real contacts with real faculty. How many large state universities, for example, advertise that even with their 10,000 students, say, they are "small enough to know you?" Frankly, I must argue that the ideal is much safer in the hands of those who know it best. We need to keep it alive and well for nearly every school's good health.

Many small, independent colleges and universities have the capacity for quick response and experimentation. This possibility to try different things quickly and even boldly offers these institutions some protection from a changing environment (when they are correct). It is here that many of the new ideas come into higher education. We might look to the ways in which some small colleges have distinguished themselves through inter-institutional collaboration and cooperation for one set of excellent examples. If higher education "contracts" to a small number

of very large institutions (and a few very rich small ones), ossification threatens.

Most small colleges and universities have a distinguishing feature in addition to size. For many, it is a serious dedication to a set of religious principles. For a few, it is a commitment to single-sex education, a political philosophy, or other such values that are deeply held. What would denominations do without those schools that support their ideals? What choices in society would fall away if other such institutions of higher learning disappeared? The loss here could be enormous, not just to the college involved, but to other social institutions. Even among those who understand higher education and value it deeply, few have considered these possibilities carefully.

And a topic for some very different occasion: what would happen to intercollegiate athletics if all that really remained was NCAA Divisions I and II—the scholarship groupings? Disproportionately, those colleges and universities that do not offer athletic scholarships and do treat their student-athletes like every other student enrolled are among the canaries. This ornithological image in a world of big, bold mascots is not very appealing, but the concern for the future is legitimate and real. NCAA Division III now protects the NCAA from itself, and keeps hypocrisy from the doorstep. Both contributions come mostly from its smaller members, when in good health.

On, therefore, to four concerns to keep in mind when assessing higher education in these interesting times.

Assessing Higher Education

Learning More Than One Expects

One important distinction between schooling and education is the prospect and value of learning more than one expected. The difference here was made clear for me by a recent interview in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* with one of the first students enrolled in the Western Governors' University. He was a student from Montana, I think, for whom distance learning was specifically designed, living far away from the nearest traditional campus. He commented that he thought that the access to new possibilities through his computer was also a better way to learn because he did not have all the distractions of those things that he did not need to know.

Perhaps. When I was an undergraduate, however, I had absolutely no idea of what I was supposed to know, although I was beginning to have a suspicion that someone was making choices for me both in something called a curriculum and in the various courses within it. (This was the early 1960s; by the late 1960s, such concerns about who made the choices were becoming fully-argued on many American college campuses by the political left, and later, the right.)

There are deep epistemological concerns here, but some issues are clear. Again, Brown and Duguid suggest them.

We all need to learn things that we didn't get to learn. "Distribution requirements" are the formal way that conventional education provides this for students and for

society. But the collective experience of college and what the German sociologist Karl Jaspers described the "creative tension" generated by the mingling of people from different fields, different backgrounds, and different expectations made a critical contribution. Among other things, such experience helps provide not only information that people don't know that they need, but also the skill to judge the worthwhile from the worthless – an increasingly important skill in an age of ubiquitous and often unreliable information. (p. 219)

Brown and Duguid identify several matters that are worthy of emphasis. There is the matter of learning to distinguish good information from bad information. With the Internet providing resources for students in a way that is akin to drinking water from a fire hose, how do learners obtain the skills to determine worth? Where are the possibilities for serendipity – discovering places that one never thought that he or she might go? How are choices made between educational options? When does a set of courses become a curriculum?

In those all too infrequent magical moments when a college or university faculty rises above individual and departmental self-interests and finds the integrity in its design of a curriculum, we often see education at its best. Balances between distribution in courses (or the core curriculum), the depth of a major or concentration, and opportunities for a student's own choices reveal something very important about education. "Schooling" as I draw the distinction (artificially and perhaps patronizingly—

the reader's call) seldom has such promise, in part because the vendors, or the forklift operators of Brown and Duguid's disdain, have to confront a very real problem. Their students must package their own education insofar as possible because the courses often come from many different sources, and too many requirements or options would keep them from a destination. What is quality here? I side with an elegant curriculum. When we look for quality as we assess "one course-at-a-time"⁵ formats for education, we need to ask hard questions about coherence, balance, opportunity, and even serendipity.

From Whom Does One Learn?

Schooling can also be very narrow. At its loneliest, it can be a learner sitting at a computer terminal working with programmed instruction. At times, it can be a group of students with similar jobs and similar interests studying similar materials together with a teacher with similar interests and a similar job (although with a tad more experience), and then driving home in different directions. How much should education be a matter for discomfort, and at its best, how much should students be buffeted by different opinions? In a related question, within the world of educational efficiency, how do we prepare students for difference?

In celebrating the Supreme Court decision in the *Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin System v.*

⁵ I use this term with apologies to schools like Colorado College and Cornell College which use it as a way to describe their special combination of curriculum and calendar. Here, I refer to a pattern that lacks such coherence.

Southworth (2000), which affirmed the University's right to set mandatory fees that might conflict with personal convictions – not a bad parallel to the singularly-focused learner – Katharine C. Lyall, President of the University of Wisconsin System, wrote the following:

A college campus is a risky place. Almost daily, students, faculty, and leaders run the risk of encountering an idea they detest, an idea they simply disapprove of, or an idea that might reshape the world. When that happens, I believe the university is doing its job and doing it well. It's the business we're in. And the U.S. Supreme Court seems to agree. (American Council on Education, *Higher Education and National Affairs*, June 26, 2000; p. 5)

If higher education does not provide a forum of competing viewpoints, where will it be found? Education needs to be a rough and tumble affair, at least intellectually.

The reader, of course, can throw two penalty flags here. The ideal is hardly fair to the adult learner who is obtaining an education after work while supporting a family with an unrewarding and limiting job from which a degree offers an escape. Chancellor Lyall's risky campus is a dangerous place for these students because it imposes more costs. Five yards for off-side. Also, small colleges and large universities alike can be very bland. While Manchester has its moments, imagine if you will, the accountants' picnic with the students from Peace Studies. It is not a scary place intellectually and many would not want it to be so. (We need to work to move

students from a comfort zone in many ways, but continuous, small steps and no sudden moves may be best for our several constituencies.) The University of Wisconsin-Madison, the state's marvelous flagship university, is an institution where many (most?) students can chart paths that avoid any intellectual risk for four years or more. Fifteen additional yards for not always walking the talk.

And yet, what is the reasonable expectation for an educated person, and what is best for a free society? Should we not help all learners to come as close as they can to the possibilities of encountering new ideas from which they might otherwise turn away? In human affairs, there is no substitute for such contact. When we decree that someone is educated, at a Commencement that he or she attends or not, is it fair to assume that this educated person has been intellectually roughed up at least a little?

Specifically, we have assigned the responsibility for diversity preparation (and even its experience) to America's schools, especially its colleges and universities. This requires human encounters and whatever heterogeneity that can be coaxed from a situation and given meaning. Where in the new technologies and educational approaches will we find such possibilities that are already far too limited? This concern is worthy of careful attention.

How Do We Educate For Character?

There are many prior questions concerning character education, including "can we" and "should we?" Following the demographic exercise offered above, many American colleges make this effort

to educate for character at least in mission, but more often than not, they are the small, church-related institutions that enroll a small proportion of the nation's students (i.e., most of the 40 percent of the colleges and universities that together serve less than four percent of all students). In a recent op-ed article in the *Chronicle of Higher Education*, Arthur J. Schwartz, Director of Character-Education Programs at the John Templeton Foundation, discusses the need to teach college students about values. At one point, he borrows an argument to make his own important point:

In his landmark study, *College: The Undergraduate Experience in America*, Ernest L. Boyer eloquently exposes the misconception that the cultivation of specific skills or the learning of certain branches of knowledge lies at the heart of a higher education. He asks: "Education for what purpose? Competence to what end?"

Boyer champions the formation of character as an essential aspect of an undergraduate education. He reminds us that we must never forget that education in its fullest sense is inescapably a moral enterprise—a continuous and conscious effort to guide students to know and pursue what is good and worthwhile. We must remember that nothing is more influential in a young person's life than the moral power of quiet example. (*Chronicle*, June 9, 2000)

If one believes that, following Boyer, education is "inescapably a moral

enterprise,” and following Schwartz, that “sustained leadership is needed to articulate the expectations of personal and civic responsibility, in all dimensions of learning and living on a college campus,” then how much should we worry that these interests are disproportionately invested in those schools that are the “canaries in the mine?” How much do we preserve education in this important way in the face of the forces of “schooling.”

By now, given my willingness to trumpet my biases, it will come as no surprise that Manchester College was identified in 1999 by the John Templeton Foundation as one of its 100 colleges (and universities) nationally that encourage character development – helping students to lead ethical and civic-minded lives. We like the company we keep and we seek to maintain our Brethren heritage in the exercise of character education, but the focus should be on the question: “Would there be a loss if Manchester and other schools did not maintain such interests?” These interests are very labor-intensive and expensive. For better or worse, they are a key part of the debate on what higher education might or should become.

Whatever Happened to Cardinal Newman?

In *The Idea of the University* (1899), John Henry Cardinal Newman wrote about the enlargement of the mind through liberal education, and observed:

...we sometimes fall in with persons who have seen much of the world, and of men who, in their day, have played a conspicuous part in it, but who generalize

nothing, and have no observation, in the true sense of the word. They abound in information in detail, curious and entertaining, about men and things; and, having lived under the influence of no very clear or settled principles, religious or political, they speak of everyone and everything, only as many phenomena, which are complete in themselves, and lead to nothing, not discussing them, or teaching any truth, or instructing the learner, but simply talking. No one would say that these persons, well informed as they are, had attained to any great culture of intellect or to philosophy. (pp. 98-99, 1899; Yale University Press, 1996, edited by Frank M. Turner)

Cardinal Newman was ready for the educational debates of today – thereby reminding us that they are hardly new. The distinction between liberal education and training or schooling has been drawn sharply for more than a century. The new danger is that technology and the large-scale assembly of students for an efficient education provide new threats, perhaps akin to the use of other weapons of mass destruction.

At its best – and we do need to recognize that today most liberal arts colleges and universities have made compromises to stay alive in the educational marketplace – liberal education offers students “self-confidence and a sense of purpose coupled with adaptability and a capacity for continuous learning” (Carol M. Barker, *Liberal Arts Education for a Global Society*, Carnegie Corporation, 2000, p. 6). At its best, well-educated students in this model know what they

know and, as importantly, what they do not know. They have a capacity for imagination and an ability to manage change and shape their own futures. To them, educational achievement is “a means to lay broad and deep foundations for a lifetime of choices and learning, not an end in itself.” (Donald Harward, President, Bates College, 2000). Responsibility for learning passes here to the learner for the lifetime that follows formal education.

There is much more that could be said, and debated, about liberal education as an educational model. At its core, however, it requires coherence. It is a matter for curriculum, not a set of single courses. Few colleges and universities have it right today, if many ever did. There are too many compromises to be struck both within and beyond the college and university. Certainly, the college that I now know best is imperfect as a liberal arts college. We do have a curriculum, however, that was well-planned and about which most faculty argued extensively and not just in self-interest. It is purposeful. It offers an extensive general education to students majoring both in the liberal arts and sciences and pre-professional fields. No loading docks at Manchester, and it matters. Coming even close to the model is worthwhile.

When we look for quality in education, given the alternatives, this is important. The new technologies, new organizational forms for delivering education, and the adoption of such things by existing institutions of higher learning provide great new opportunities. That is why so many schools are spending as much as they are on information technology for their faculty, students, and staff. There is also value,

however, in a coherent, inefficient, even labor-intensive model, and it would behoove us every now and then to pause and read Cardinal Newman and the other great architects and advocates of liberal education.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is worthwhile to recognize that the concerns here are serious business. At the end, the goals of higher education are not centered on providing an education to individuals. They involve what those educated individuals do for a society. That is why, as a dimension of quality, it is proper to ask questions about character development and other such dimensions of a collegiate education. It suggests good reasons to be concerned about serendipity, the risk of encountering a detestable idea or even one that is just annoying, and not using a forklift to load education.

The stakes are very high. H. G. Wells wrote that “human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe.” Today, for but one example, there is a catastrophe building in Africa of proportions that exceed those in Europe in the mid-fourteenth century when the Black Death decimated the population. AIDS will do the same in much of Africa, destroying already fragile social institutions and threatening economic, social, and political interests far from that continent. There are good reasons here and there to take our place in the trenches, joined by as many well-educated young men and women students as possible.

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QUALITY, EQUALITY, AND EQUITY IN INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE MEASURES

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The debate between the two principles of equality and equity has been part of the language of the women's movement since the early 1970s. These principles lie at the heart of a number of legal precedents in the United States dealing with gender such as those that prohibit sex-based discrimination in employment, maternity leave policies, and the ban until very recently of women participating in military combat. The debate is often reduced to weighing the arguments for equal versus special or preferential treatment (Bacchi, 1991).

The principles of equity and equality also are fundamental to the discussion of individual performance standards, which reflect a judgment or evaluation of what constitutes merit or quality. Individual performance standards are embedded in many institutional measures of quality. Faculty publication and citation counts, for example, are used as indices of departmental and/or institutional prestige (Braxton & Bayer, 1986). The discussion of the principles of equality and equity has direct application to the question about how to diversify faculty and administration in colleges and universities to include members of under-represented groups⁶. These include

women, people of color, gays, and members of the poor and working classes. Considering the two principles also provides a platform to weigh the charge that the cost of diversity is the "watering down" of standards.

The Principle of Equality

The principle of equality assumes fairness by the application of the same expectation, standard, or treatment uniformly. It is a basic assumption of most individual reward systems, including the faculty reward structure. Among the fundamental norms of science is the assumption that criteria for merit are based on the principles of universalism rather than particularism. That is that the criteria used to evaluate merit in the sciences are presumed to be objective measures that are applied without regard to particular characteristics such as gender, race, or marital status (Long & Fox, 1995).

A deep commitment to the principle of equal treatment and unease with the idea of special treatment is evident in a number of the U.S. federal laws involving issues related to gender (Bacchi, 1991). It is deeply embedded, for example, in the debate in the United States about women and the military and

⁶ I first developed some of these arguments in my 1998 book, *Assessing Faculty Publication Productivity: Issues of Equity*. ASHE/ERIC Higher Education Report Volume 26, No. 2. Washington, D.C.: The

George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.

whether their accommodations, performance expectations, uniforms and even their haircuts have to be identical to men's. It is also evident in federal policy about maternity leave. Rather than identify pregnancy and maternity as special needs of women that differentiate them from men, pregnancy is treated under U.S. law as a temporary medical disability. As a medical disability, it is justified as receiving the same treatment as any other temporary medical condition and does not award privileges to women that are not also available to men (Bacchi, 1991).

The Principle of Equity

The principle of equity, on the other hand, acknowledges that applying the same treatment or standard to everyone without regard to individual differences does not necessarily have an equitable impact on members of all populations. Often argued to constitute preferential treatment, the principle of equity underlies affirmative actions policies in hiring and admission. Gifted and special education programs are two additional examples of programs founded on the principle of equity. Preferential treatment programs are usually tenable only when the privileges or benefits awarded to one group are not perceived to come at the expense of another group (Bacchi, 1991).

My Argument

The main argument that I present in this paper is that at the organizational level treating people the same is not always either fair or equitable. Even when applied identically, institutional policies and practices that systematically

impact one group in a negative or injurious way and/or systematically benefit members of other groups are inequitable.

As noted feminist legal scholar, Catherine Mac Kinnon (1987) points out, while defended as neutral and objective measures, many such policies and practices unwittingly amount to an affirmative action policy or preferential treatment for majority men. Mac Kinnon argues:

...virtually every quality that distinguishes men from women is already affirmatively compensated for in this society. Men's physiology defines most sports, their needs define auto and health insurance, their socially defined biographies define workplace expectations and successful career patterns, their perspectives define merit ... what amounts to an affirmative action plan is in effect, otherwise known as the structures and values of American society. (1987, p. 36)

Recruiting and promotion policies, however, can be restructured in ways that recognize the career patterns and work habits of members of diverse groups.

To illustrate my argument, I will present two brief case studies that introduce issues that are relevant to most college and university administrators. In addition to other purposes, a case study can be used to illustrate a concept (Reinharz, 1992). It can also be used to illustrate that a generalization is invalid (Reinharz, 1992).

Both of the case studies I present deal with racial or ethnic diversity one way or the other. The first one is about teaching. The second one is about the evaluation of faculty credentials in a job search. They are composites; an amalgamation of the experiences I have either heard minority women speak about or I have personally observed. I have used pseudonyms and liberally embellished the details of the case to make a point. I will close the paper with a number of recommendations about ways to reshape performance criteria that do not compromise standards.

Scenario One: Weighing Student Evaluations of Teaching

The first case study deals with teaching and factors to consider in weighing student evaluation of instructor scores. Its central player is an African American woman faculty member who teaches in a large history department. Although her record is not yet substantial, her scholarship is highly regarded by her colleagues. She is small in stature, calm in demeanor, eminently likeable. In her early thirties, she is stretched by the demands of trying to earn tenure at the same time she is raising a young family.

The woman, who I will call Glenda, has taught a variety of courses in the history department. Like all undergraduate teachers and especially untenured ones, she has carried more than her share of first and second year survey courses. Accepted as satisfying general education requirements, the survey courses are generally populated by first and second year undergraduate students from majors as diverse as engineering,

business, and English. There is an occasional upper-level student who has postponed satisfying the writing intensive part of the general education requirement until the last possible moment of her or her undergraduate career. Class sizes in these survey courses range on average from 45 to 90.

Glenda is the only minority member in her department. She is only one of 60 African Americans among a faculty of 2200. The reason I present her in this scenario is that when she teaches certain courses, she consistently scores lower than the departmental average in the student evaluation of instruction overall score. To be more precise, she consistently scores significantly lower than do her colleagues on a single critical item. That is: knowledge of subject matter. More troubling to her department head, she has repeatedly sought his counsel on how to deal with another problem she frequently encounters in the classroom. Students, particularly white male students, frequently challenge her knowledge of the subject matter on certain kinds of topics. On occasion, they even want to argue with her about factual data where there is little room for interpretation. Some students do not seem to accept her authority on the subject and dismiss her interpretation of critical historical events, such as the factors leading to the Civil War.

Glenda shares some experiences in the classroom that are not uncommon for women, particularly women faculty in the junior ranks. Students frequently call her by her first name, while they almost always address a male faculty member as "Dr." Both male and female students expect her to be more nurturing and

sympathetic to their personal problems and accepting of their excuses for tardy assignments or shoddy performance. There are higher expectations that she be available after class hours than there are for her male colleagues. Students are more likely to contest the grades she awards than they are her male colleagues. Observations about her dress and appearance often pepper her student evaluations.

Over her six-year teaching career, Glenda's teaching assignment has gradually shifted. She continues to teach the mandatory sections of Introduction to American History but she recently began to teach sections of a new course called the African American Experience. The students look only slightly different from those in her survey class but the class size is somewhat smaller. They are still predominantly white, male, traditional-age undergraduate students with a sprinkling of history majors. There are more upper-level students in the class than in her introductory survey courses.

Glenda's overall student evaluation scores are significantly higher in this class than they are in the survey courses she teaches. Her rating on the item, knowledge of the subject, is higher than the departmental average in all courses. By virtue of her race, students seem to accept her authority on the subject. This is a topic where she is seen as an authority by virtue of personal experience rather than necessarily a carefully developed scholarly expertise on the topic. This is an arena where she is seen as an expert. Even her colleagues defer to her on matters of race. This is the area where she least defies students' stereotypical expectations of who is a

REAL college professor. This is the white-haired guy with the bifocals and tweed jacket who seems like he just walked out of the dusty stacks in the library to read excerpts from his newest book in class.

The dilemma in this case related to quality is how should Glenda's department head and departmental personnel committee weigh her student evaluation of instruction scores relative to that of her colleagues. It is a quantifiable index. It is a number. If it is accepted at face value as an objective measure because it is quantifiable, then the judgment may seem clear. The committee can rank department members by average teaching scores, without considering the instructor's other obligations or personal qualities, the size or nature of the classes she teaches, or students' stereotypical and sometimes racist attitudes. They can draw a line and say that those with scores above the line earn a high score on teaching. Those in the middle earn an average score on teaching, and those below the line earn a low score.

The judgment about how to interpret individual performance measures is murkier, however, in light of evidence about how traditional measures of faculty performance, including teaching, are based on unspoken, near universal notions of what constitutes a teacher and scholar. This is sometimes referred to as intellectual authority. Kesa Kirsch notes in her book, *Women Writing the Academy: Audience, Authority, and Transformation*, that issues of intellectual authority are complicated for women and members of marginalized groups, "because part of having authority entails

being perceived as an authority” (1993, p. 40).

Stereotypical assumptions students, as well as others, carry about faculty are based on a fairly homogenized notion of what faculty should look like, the work they should do, and how they spend their time. Except on topics where she is seen as an expert by virtue of race and/or personal experience, Glenda's race, size, age, demeanor, and marital status work against her meeting this abstract norm.

The question the case presents is how an administrator should weigh Glenda's evaluation of instruction scores given the context of student's racist and sexist stereotypes about teachers.

Scenario Two: Conducting a Faculty Search

The second case scenario deals with a familiar experience for most academics: a job search. In this case, it is a search for a junior level faculty member in a field, humanities, where the supply of qualified candidates far exceeds the available vacancies. In such situations, college and universities are in the enviable position of having the opportunity to "up the bar," so to speak, and attract candidates who in another era and another job market would have been snapped up by more prestigious institutions.

In the case of this particular job search, the department is filling a vacancy made possible by the recent departure of a senior faculty member who has been with the department for 30 years. The department has not had the

opportunity to recruit a new faculty member for almost ten years. For this and other reasons, the faculty—while well balanced by gender because of the discipline—is seamlessly homogenous by race. There are no people of color on the faculty at the present time, despite growing diversity in the student body. The dean and department head are committed to diversity and direct the search committee to be proactive about recruiting minorities and other members of under-represented groups. The search committee dutifully drafts a traditional job description; seeking such common expectations are demonstrated expertise in a specific disciplinary area, preliminary indications of a publication record, teaching experience, and letters of reference. Search committee members industriously pursue mailing lists that will reach minority doctoral students. The dean sets aside additional funds to pay the exorbitant fees to run position announcements in high-profile publications that have a minority audience.

The search unfolds in a predictable manner. The pool of candidates is large, but the number of minority applicants is disappointingly small. Because it is a field where women have earned the majority of doctoral degrees for nearly two decades, there is a good representation of women in the applicant pool. One applicant, however, quickly emerges from the field of candidates. His credentials are impeccable. They are, in fact, classic. Educated at among the most prestigious, Ivy League colleges in the United States, he has a doctoral degree in hand, and spent the last two years in a paid fellowship that allowed him to complete his first book without the

inconvenience of having to teach or handle other responsibilities. He has been honored by his professional association as an up-and-coming scholar—receiving, first, the outstanding dissertation of the year award and then the most promising young scholar of the year award the following year. His letters of recommendation come from distinguished leaders in the field, including one from his self-acknowledged mentor whose work is considered required reading for almost all graduate students in the field. The mentor's letter is effusive in its praise, assuring the potential for this candidate to make his mark in the field. The candidate, of course, is not from an under-represented group in higher education.

I could embellish the candidate's credentials further, but the picture is clear. It is a "no brainer." He is ranked the top candidate by virtually every member of the search committee and considered the number one choice for a campus interview. Without question, he is the one they would bring in, even if they only had the resources for one campus interview. The other top candidates' credentials are strong, but place them in a distant second and third place in the minds of the members of the search committee. Two women candidates are also invited for a campus interview. A single minority candidate remains in the finalist pool. She is an "ABD"—meaning that she is still writing her dissertation at the time of the search. Her mentor, also well respected but in a smaller marginalized field of study, expresses confidence that the candidate will complete the dissertation on-

schedule, but committee members are dubious.

One-by-one the candidates arrive on-campus for an interview. A few people are turned off by what they perceive is the top candidate's arrogant attitude and condescending tone. Some feel he thinks he is too good for the job. Most, however, are awed by his credentials and greedy for the prestige he will add to the department. Despite her credentials, the second candidate makes a poor impression and is almost universally disliked. At the close of the interviews, two viable candidates remain—a white male with prestigious credentials and a proven track record and a minority woman with excellent credentials that suggest but do not guarantee promise.

As it turns out, what seemed like a foreordained conclusion took a turn predicted by only a few sage observers. The top candidate accepted a position elsewhere and withdrew from the interview pool just days shy of the final scheduled meeting of the search committee. The minority woman is the only viable finalist. She is offered the position and after considerable negotiation accepted it. The department has its first—and only—minority faculty member for quite some time to come.

What I have sketched for you is a predictable scenario; one that has been played out in countless settings and in countless searches. The outcome was predictable almost from the moment of the inception of the search committee. Certainly it was foreordained once the job description was written, replicating expectations for performance that have been standard fare for faculty positions

for decades. The person who is near-universally recognized as the top candidate for the position is the top candidate because of the criteria established. A different candidate would emerge if different criteria were applied.

Recommendation for Policy and Action

In presenting these case scenarios, I have steered clear of examples where the application of performance standards is done in a manner that is blatantly unequal or discriminatory. In other words, I have avoided describing situations where different expectations are subtly—or not so subtly—applied to people of color or to members of underrepresented groups than to faculty who are members of the majority group. These examples are easy to find. I could readily point to them in the cases I just described as well as document them in literature. This, however, is a different point than the one I am trying to make. The point I am making is that if diversifying the faculty is the goal, the performance measure or quality standard itself must first and foremost be scrutinized. Rather than leave the performance standard unquestioned and battle to see that it is applied fairly, the standard itself must be dissected. The performance standard must be scrutinized to determine if it systematically advantages the behavior, career patterns, and work habits one group while systematically disadvantaging the members of other groups.

The recognition and inclusion of difference is necessary to achieve equality (Scott, 1988). I am arguing that quality does too. Rather than "watering

down the standards" this approach suggests a critique not only of the performance measure but also of science itself. Quality standards that measure individual performance must be defined so that they do not systematically impact—or benefit—one group at the expense of another.

Research documents work preferences and career patterns characteristics of women, minorities, and majority faculty and ways they differ. When establishing criteria for individual performance, such as are outlined in the typical vacancy announcement, a job description can be written so that it does not systematically eliminate members of underrepresented groups from competition. For example, the fairly routine expectation that an applicant's record show a gradual progression of positions with increasing responsibility, is far more likely to remove a woman's from contention for an administrative position than it is a man. This is because women's career paths have been much more likely than men's to be marked by periods of unemployment and underemployment (Kirsch, 1993). Women on average carry heavier teaching and advising loads than do men, and are more likely than men to say they prefer teaching above research (Astin, Korn, & Day, 1991). Awarding comparable weight to teaching and research in a hiring or tenure decision has the potential to balance scales tipped by gender differences in work assignments and styles. Minorities and women are more likely to be successful candidates in positions that require an interest or record of interdisciplinary scholarship and work that is collaboratively produced. Association with a well-regarded senior

scholar is far more characteristic of the graduate training of white men that it is of either of women or minorities.

Similar strategies can be applied to formulating the criteria for a job description or performance standard so that it is inclusive of work habits and patterns characteristic of minorities. For example, seeking candidates with a record of community service would help minority candidates achieve equal footing with members of majority groups. Awarding comparable weight in the evaluation process of faculty to publications that appear in non-mainstream journals or appear to have personal relevance, such as work done by minorities about minority related issues, would credit work habits and patterns that are characteristic of minorities.

It is a significant stride forward when people of good will who are committed to the goal of achieving greater diversity among our faculty and students strive to advance equality by eradicating inequities in the application of traditional performance standards. I am arguing, however, that it is not sufficient to battle for the equitable application of conventional measures of performance. It is not sufficient if there is a genuine commitment to diversifying our faculty and staff in all areas of college and university life, rather than just the dead-end, lower paying, ghettoized areas where minorities and woman are concentrated. The scrutiny, first, must be on the standard itself and how it can be expanded to reward diverse career and work patterns. This creates the opportunity to accomplish equity without sacrificing equality.

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INTERNATIONALIZING THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE: AN EFFECTIVE MODEL

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Four-year colleges in the United States have a long tradition of internationalization. They have traditionally had majors in international studies, area studies, and foreign languages, and, as a result, have had to provide their students with many opportunities to study outside the country; these usually have taken the form of a semester or a year's study abroad. These colleges have exchanged professors with foreign universities by means of the Fulbright and other programs, and they have trained many foreign nationals, bringing a cosmopolitan element to their campuses.

Community colleges, by contrast, have only a very recent history of attempting to internationalize, and, because of the distinctive nature and mission of the community college, their internationalization has taken a unique form. Public U. S. community colleges, most of which came into being in the 1960s and 70s, now number some 1,151. Almost all express a similar mission: (a) to provide workforce training—that is, programs from some weeks to two years that lead directly to jobs available within the college's service area, and (b) to provide the first two years of a baccalaureate degree for students who will transfer to a four-year college. Community colleges represent an extension of the kindergarten-through-

twelfth grade free public school concept in several senses. They are close to the students' homes; they are free or inexpensive—always the lowest cost alternative college option in any community; they are “open door” institutions in that they routinely accept all potential students who are high school graduates or who have a high school equivalency certificate earned by passing an examination, or who are over the age of 18 and demonstrate that they can benefit from the program in which they enroll.

Philosophically, community colleges were established based on the belief that it is best for a region's tax base to raise to their highest level the skills (and salaries or wages) of every person who can and will learn. Further, they reflect the belief that there should always be a second chance for students who were too immature or disadvantaged to benefit from their earlier education or who, for whatever reason, did not have access to post-high school education at younger ages. Community colleges allow students to pursue their education full-time or one class at a time, by attending traditional, often very small, classes where students get substantial personal attention or, increasingly, by taking some or all classes electronically. Most community colleges permit students to accrue credits on an intermittent schedule, taking

classes one semester, dropping out, then returning at a later time. A so-called "two-year degree" routinely takes the average student four years to achieve. Only a few community colleges across the country have residence halls; rather, most serve a commuter population. Community colleges, then, differ from their four-year counterparts in some significant ways.

Since community colleges are quite distinct from baccalaureate-granting institutions in their mission, it should not be surprising that only a segment of their students resembles students at four-year colleges. Those students are competitively bright and often transfer to the country's most demanding universities after graduation. They are attending community colleges instead of well-known universities (to which they may have won scholarships) because they have health problems, because they have no family support for the idea of attending college, and because they need to stay in the home community to care for family members or to help with family enterprises. Outstanding students are the exception, however; as many as two-thirds of community college students often begin their college careers with significant deficiencies in math, reading or English grammar. Community colleges, then, devote a large percentage of their resources to testing and to remediating the skills of students found to be deficient. The median age of community college students in the U. S. typically is 30 years, a fact that disguises the combination of recent high school graduates and older adults who are changing careers or retraining after having lost jobs when an obsolete industry closed its doors.

Students most often come from low-income, blue-collar backgrounds and are the first generation in their families to attempt college. In each region of the country, whatever group constitutes the minority is over represented in community college student populations.

Intellectual curiosity and a passion for learning may develop as students' education brings them into contact with stimulating professors, fellow students, and ideas, but it is seldom the motivating force behind their becoming college students. Rather, community college students are usually enrolled to overcome poverty or gain credentials that allow them to enter careers that provide security.

It should come as no surprise, then, that the community colleges' path to internationalization would differ substantially from the classic path trod by four-year colleges and universities. One might almost describe that path as a back road that bears the distinctive markers of the population community colleges serve and their two-pronged mission.

Education for International Trade

Several variations on one model seek to serve local businesses or reach out to foreign businesses, government agencies, or educational institutions. These variations all have the advantage of being virtually cost-free to the institutions that implement them. Because of their history of providing technical education to workers for the purpose of attracting and keeping industry in the service area (in precisely the fields that provide security for working people and lift them out of poverty), community colleges have a

peculiar advantage: a limited bureaucracy that permits them to develop a training course and be prepared to accept students into it in record time, often within weeks. This is possible, in part, because work experience and expertise gained from entrepreneurship often substitute for degree credentials when community colleges hire technical faculty; community and industry leaders, who may not have formal degrees, frequently teach in community colleges as adjunct faculty. The classes offered most often lead to a certificate of proficiency, rather than a degree. Many community colleges have taken advantage of this community-service orientation and flexibility to specialize in what two authors have called "training for trade" (the title of Huhra and Fifield's 1991 volume). As exports have come to make up an increasing sector of American business, not only executives, but a host of warehouse, transportation, accounting, and clerical employees have needed training unavailable in the home region, and community colleges have stepped in to provide it. The class, "Fundamentals of International Trade," for example, gives an overview of the skills employees will need to carry out international trade, considers the strategies needed to market a product in a different culture, examines services the state (in this case, North Carolina) provides to exporters, explores export and import regulations with a focus on the role of customs and the freight forwarder, investigates the legal and ethical implications of doing business internationally, and considers accounting and bookkeeping differences across cultures. This introductory class is provided by a series of guest lecturers in nine 3-hour evenings (Huhra & Fifield, pp. 132-135).

Classes lasting 24 contact hours, such as "Export Transportation Management," or the 8-hour "Letters of Credit: Principles and Documentation" then follow for specific employee groups (Huhra & Fifield, pp. 138-140).

Despite their seemingly narrow focus, however, these efforts to train workers to engage in international trade have a transforming effect on a college within just a few years; one might call it an unintended consequence. Community colleges, especially those serving as the only institutions of post-secondary education in predominantly rural regions, have often gone on to establish import-export centers; these are usually staffed by the college's business faculty on a part-time basis, or they are tied into the local Chamber of Commerce. The openness to international business often attracts foreign-born as well as long-time local business people and leads to implementing more foreign language and English as a Second Language (ESL) courses in the transfer credit-granting side of the college. International students—often the immigrant family members of local, first generation business people—find their way to the college, and the institution gradually becomes more cosmopolitan.

Often this process is enhanced as classes are presented at the work site, familiarizing students with the institution and its faculty. "Spanish for Poultry Supervisors" is one example. Offered for 15 weeks at midnight inside the poultry processing plant (at the end of one shift and the beginning of the next), it illustrates the role the community college plays in meeting local business needs as the workforce adapts to a growing number of foreign-born laborers. English

as a Second Language is offered at the same hour for the laborers. Not surprisingly, many of these laborers or their family members, having lost their fear of the college, soon come to the college for ESL, then for certificate courses in technical fields such as truck driving, and a few to enroll in the first two years of pre-medical or engineering curricula. Once again, by attracting foreign-born students to campus and incorporating them into the life of the campus, a community college has helped to transform and internationalize the education of all of its students as a result of the unique role it plays in its service region.

Many of the colleges that have approached globalization through outreach to business have also internationalized their colleges by winning State Department contracts (formerly USAID contracts) that place the college and its faculty in the role of consultants to government agencies, colleges, and businesses in developing countries. The organization Community Colleges for International Development, founded in 1976 and now serving 87 U.S. members and 12 international ones, has specialized in providing technical training to institutions abroad and, in the process, has sent hundreds of community college faculty into the developing world. The courses they return home to teach provide their students with current information about life in Suriname, Guyana, China, India, and the emerging republics of the former Soviet Union. (King & Koller, 1995).

Educating Global Citizens

Another far-reaching and effective model for internationalizing

community colleges, one that is entirely intentional, is the one adopted by Tidewater Community College that focuses on curriculum and faculty development. Unlike the training-for-trade models or the model that promotes community college faculty as consultants abroad, the curriculum/faculty development model does not pay its own bills, and must seek funds from a variety of sources. The way Tidewater Community College, and a handful of other aggressive, globally oriented community colleges gained access to those funds is instructive, if circuitous.

The largest funding sources for international education in the United States have been federal programs within the Department of Education. Given the mission of community colleges and the composition of their student bodies, until quite recently it was accepted practice to deny that community colleges needed those funds and thus to award them entirely to programs in four-year colleges. Only rarely did community colleges break through the mind-set of evaluators, themselves chosen from those four-year colleges, that expensive faculty or curriculum development programs, study abroad opportunities, and foreign language improvement programs belonged in the upper-level colleges, those serving the more elite student populations.

Today it is generally agreed that that mind-set is both unfair and dangerous. Why? First, because the idea that top colleges should have greater access to federal education resources strikes an elitist tone that is inconsistent with the history of U.S. public education generally. Additionally, community colleges have come to educate more than

half of the freshmen and sophomores in the country. When these students do not transfer, but, rather, complete all the education they will get in the community college, that venue provides their last chance to learn what it means to be global citizens. Many of the careers they enter will place them in contact with, and sometimes in competition with, workers in other parts of the world. If students do go on to complete baccalaureate programs without a foundation that includes foreign languages, internationalized curricula, and encounters with faculty who are acquainted with the world outside the U.S., they will not be able to compete with more globally educated counterparts who began their education at four-year colleges.

In both cases, community college students are, or soon will become, employees, voters, parents, and participants in the communities in which they live. They will make decisions every day that reflect their perceptions of the world and their place in it, and if those perceptions come mostly from television, the news medium of choice for citizens with limited education, they will make unwise decisions. In an era where national economies are more interconnected than ever before, when preserving the environment and natural resources requires the action of people in every land, where cultures and languages are becoming extinct, and the consequences of conflict potentially threaten the lives and well being of billions of people, every citizen lacking a global education endangers human survival.

Simply declaring a bureaucratic mind-set unfair and dangerous does not

change federal policies, however. Organization and concerted effort were required to bring about the needed changes. Most U. S. community colleges (1,046 or 90%) belong to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) that holds annual conferences, lobbies Congress for legislation that benefits its members, publishes a newsletter, and publicizes employment opportunities among member colleges. Its international/intercultural arm, the American Council on International Intercultural Education (ACIIE), came into being in 1991 to focus attention on multicultural education (“which teaches an appreciation and respect for diversity”) [ACIIE/Stanley Foundation, 1994, p. 1] and on global education. In the 1994 publication *Building the Global Community: The Next Step*, the authors assert “that some community colleges are not yet involved in global education” (p. 1). The report sets forth the reasons community colleges must offer global education and summarizes the results of a conference for college presidents and trustees co-sponsored that year by ACIIE and the Stanley Foundation on strategies for internationalizing the nation’s community colleges.

In 1996 the two organizations again co-sponsored a similar high-level conference to examine the progress that had been made in the two intervening years. The participants created a “developmental profile . . . of the globally competent learner” and identified four stages through which the educated person progresses to become globally competent (ACIIE/Stanley Foundation, 1996, p. 3). These two conference documents and ACIIE’s annual workshops for faculty and administrators served as occasions to build support networks, to trade

strategies, and to alert any community colleges that had still not begun to internationalize that they were falling behind their counterparts. Additionally, the conference activity and the consciousness raising and lobbying it provoked, had the effect of putting on alert federal agencies like the Department of Education. Now they no longer denied funds categorically to community colleges, but, instead, began seeking *some* project evaluators from community colleges and funding *some* community colleges' grant proposals that promoted international education.

It would be naive to imagine, in the few short years since federal funding for community colleges became available, that a great transformation has occurred. A 1998 publication of the ACIIE and the Stanley foundations warns:

Community colleges need to be more aggressive about seeking funding levels proportionate with their market share of enrollment. Recent federal budgets have restored a respectable level to funding for global education, yet community colleges do not even approach their more than 50% share of the national undergraduate student population. The remedy for this imbalance requires further work to eliminate restrictive language in grant regulations. (ACIIE/Stanley, 1998, p. 5)

Nevertheless, 120 community colleges currently belong to ACIIE, and a handful of colleges, like Tidewater, have amassed notable records in winning large federal grants that have made internationalizing easier. Much can be

learned from studying the increasing success of one of the, perhaps ten, most successful community colleges in the U. S. in the realm of internationalization.

Tidewater Community College is today the second-largest community college in Virginia, serving 31,000 students, some of who attend only one class, others attending the college full-time. Currently its four campuses make it the largest post-secondary institution in the Norfolk, Virginia Beach region of southeast Virginia. It is part of a 23-college state system that operates on a budget supplied by a combination of state funding and tuition. Because that budget is inadequate to provide the necessary full-time faculty, 50% of the classes taught at the college are taught by adjunct faculty. Surprisingly, the quality of instruction is good enough that TCC students who transfer to four year colleges in Virginia (including the state's top ranked schools) consistently do as well as or better than "native" students who began at those institutions.

TCC's internationalization began with the vision of a core group of faculty who began meeting informally almost 15 years ago. They believed that by working cooperatively they could bring greater visibility to the need to internationalize the curriculum. The focus on curriculum development, from the start, had the effect of exposing large numbers of students to the world beyond the United States. Additionally it allowed the faculty to see themselves and their students as the major stakeholders in TCC's efforts to internationalize. During the first years of these efforts, administrators played an entirely neutral role in them, neither obstructing the work of the self-enacted committee nor

supporting it. After several years, however, during an especially propitious period of state funding, the committee succeeded in winning a college budget line and gaining legitimacy for its efforts. The earliest college funds were used to send faculty abroad to pursue their own development and, concurrently, to prepare updated modules of curriculum that would bring students into personal contact with events throughout the world.

There followed a period of very successful grant writing which brought significant funding to the college, and most of those funds were, again, focused on curriculum and faculty development. The college was able, in fact, to offer three month-long curriculum development seminars over the course of six years. Each seminar brought to campus experts on a world region: the Pacific Rim, Central Europe, and Latin America. As a result, almost 80 faculty had an opportunity to up-date the classes they commonly taught, resulting in a transformed, current approach to these world regions for thousands of TCC students. Further, each faculty development seminar was linked to an opportunity for TCC faculty to travel abroad for a significant period of time on a study seminar. Three faculty studied for six weeks in China and Japan in 1989 in conjunction with Old Dominion University, then TCC won three Fulbright-Hays grants that sent groups of about 15 faculty to the Czech Republic and Slovakia for six weeks, to Mexico for a month, and, last summer, to Nicaragua for a month.

The TCC faculty who have taken part in these opportunities form a core group that has reached out to newly hired faculty and to faculty in disciplines that

traditionally are left out of internationalization efforts—accounting, math, horticulture, and nutrition, to name a few. The result is the awareness throughout the college that all courses have the potential for including international content and an international focus. Students too have benefited directly from this approach as an increasing number of short-term study abroad opportunities have been created at very low cost that take them to the Netherlands, China, Great Britain, Greece, and Prague. French and Spanish language programs now take students for a month to France and Costa Rica; the college supported 13 students this year with scholarships to engage in these study abroad opportunities. TCC has used its sister college arrangements with Beijing Broadcasting Institute and Charles University to improve the quality of its study abroad programs in China and Prague. These agreements also allow TCC to exchange scholars who greatly enhance the college's classes by bringing international perspectives to its students. The college is currently concluding two new sister college agreements with institutions in Vietnam and Poland. These agreements will further enhance the opportunity for its faculty to travel abroad to carry out challenging teaching assignments and will bring a larger group of international scholars to the college.

Six crucial elements go into what TCC has called its internationalization model. They provide a formula that can be adapted at any college, but that maintains the focus on curriculum development and faculty ownership of the program:

1. *Assess the baseline of things international.* TCC created a

comprehensive survey document by which a college can determine its strengths and weaknesses and work from that point. Implementing the survey also calls attention to the college's intent to emphasize international activities.

2. *Create a supportive core group of faculty.* Administrators of colleges come and go, but the body of the faculty, once they see themselves "owning" a program, develop and carry it out in ways guaranteed to benefit the students. It is this group that plans the activities that constitute the strategic plan for action.

3. *Revise a strategic plan that builds on already-existing interests and strengths and emphasizes curriculum development.* Drawing on the languages faculty speak, the contacts they have abroad, the interests they have, the core faculty group maps the direction the institution should follow for the coming year, or for several years, with an eye to the greatest needs they collectively acknowledge.

4. *Convince the college to grant blocks of release time.* The average community college faculty member teaches five 3-hour classes each week and keeps ten office hours. Twenty-five hours are already committed, and no course preparation, committee work, or paper grading has yet been scheduled. For faculty to work in international education, therefore, they need to be replaced for one or two classes by adjunct faculty. At most colleges, this is an inexpensive way to free up time for the faculty. By contrast, adding such activity onto the already busy faculty schedule guarantees its failure.

5. *Do effective grant writing.* Attending workshops to learn how to write winning grants; conversing with project officers at the granting agencies, and asking to see copies of funded grants are all proven strategies. Calling colleges whose projects were funded to request help in detecting the unwritten rules, reading the critiques of any rejected efforts and resubmitting the proposal in the next round of funding also help to guarantee eventual grant-getting. Community colleges have so little uncommitted budget money that they cannot be relied on to fund the necessary international activities properly.

6. *Join state and national organizations that promote international education.* These organizations hold valuable meetings, publish informative publications, lobby legislators in ways that benefit member institutions, and sometimes have their own funds for projects.

Because Tidewater Community College carefully analyzed its success in building its own program, two years ago TCC felt ready to offer help to other community colleges that had not yet attempted internationalization or that had been less active with it. The Fund for Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE) in the Department of Education supported with grant funding of \$214,000 the college's proposal to mentor five other community colleges in Virginia, North Carolina and Colorado, then five more, creating a total of ten protege schools. These ten community colleges are currently receiving assistance and funding as a result of the grant, and have made enormous strides in building their programs and transforming the atmosphere on their campuses.

Creation of this consortium of institutions, all of which utilize the TCC model of internationalization, has allowed the college to submit two major grant proposals for further cooperative projects. Additionally the college has taken the lead in bringing to Virginia officers of the Stanley Foundation and working with them and the chancellor of the Virginia Community College System (VCCS) to organize a statewide community college workshop on internationalization in November and another the following fall. TCC is also working with the Stanley Foundation to gain far greater foundation funding for community college internationalization. With luck, those efforts will bear fruit in the next three years.

Tidewater Community College intends to build on the success of its model and to continue reaching out across the state and the nation to provide leadership to community colleges intent on reaching all their faculty and students with international curricula and international opportunities.

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FOCUSING ON QUALITY THROUGH PROGRAM REVIEW

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Colleges and universities in the United States have used program review for several decades as a management tool to achieve quality (Barak & Mets, 1995; Conrad & Wilson, 1985). The use of this strategy has grown during periods of financial retrenchment (Skolnik, 1989), and by the mid-1990s, more than 80% of U. S. colleges and universities employed some form of systematic program review (Barak & Sweeney, 1995). This paper will discuss the inherent tension between the program review process and the way it is commonly used to enhance quality. The paper also will suggest alternate circumstances in which program review is more likely to improve quality; and it will provide a discussion of program review at one institution.

Overview

The program review process has been well described in the literature. (See particularly the thorough summary by Mets, 1995a). Although there are various formats in use, there is a consistent pattern: a regular cycle of self-assessment and external review that results in recommendations for improved practice.

Growth in program review has been tied to periods of retrenchment, and the results of program reviews have been used to justify discontinuing weak

programs (Skolnik, 1989). Many state higher education agencies have long understood program review in just this way – as an objective method to identify weak programs for elimination to preserve or enhance stronger programs in periods of constrained resources (Barak, 1982).

Several authors have urged this same approach at the institutional level (Keller, 1983; Leslie & Fretwell, 1996). A recent example comes from Dickeson (1999), who argues from his own experience as a university president that there is irresistible pressure toward proliferation of programs and services because of the faculty's need for specialization. This proliferation can never adequately be funded, he says, and the result is across-the-board mediocrity. Dickeson's solution – like that of many before him – is a form of program review, which he calls "prioritizing programs," based on a prescribed set of criteria that includes the quality of program inputs and outputs. The result is the elimination of weak programs and the enhancement of strong programs, or programs with exceptional windows of opportunity. In essence, Dickeson – along with Keller, Leslie, Fretwell, and others – urges college presidents to look for existing quality and reward it with the resources of programs that are weak

because they have been underfunded in the past. And Dickeson argues that a form of program review is the way to do this rationally.

Conflict between Program Review and Program Elimination

While quality is the focus of most program review processes (Conrad & Wilson, 1985), the connection between the process and the intended result is not always well articulated. When the connection is made explicit, it is typically based on precisely the argument provided by Dickeson: quality is enhanced by targeting resources toward the strongest programs and pruning the weakest; and a systematic, objective review provides the best evidence for making such difficult decisions.

This link between program review and the possibility, indeed the likelihood, of program elimination overlooks what is well known about creating the conditions for quality performance, and it ignores basic principles of human motivation. Program review always begins with some form of self-assessment. Even where this step is not explicit, the unit under review must provide the data to be used in the process. How likely is it that dispassionate decisions can be made on objective evidence if people who collect and supply the evidence may lose their jobs if the data reveal a weakness? And how likely is it that a self-study will turn up problems to be solved if the self-study team cannot discuss problems openly without fear of unemployment?

A basic principle of the quality movements that have proliferated in business and higher education in recent years is to “eliminate fear” (Deming,

1986). Quality performance, by individuals and by teams, emerges when people are free to express their ideas openly and to examine feedback honestly. This approach is diametrically opposed to the common use of program review as a tool for eliminating weak programs, and thereby eliminating the jobs of the people who work in them.

Classic motivational psychology urges the same point. More than half a century has passed since Maslow famously proposed that human behavior is motivated by a hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970). High quality work performance can be understood to emanate principally from higher-order needs: for belongingness and love, for esteem, or for self-actualization. When lower-order needs are threatened, as with the potential loss of employment, the ability to function at the higher level simply ceases.

When program review is used as a tool for identifying and eliminating weak programs, any rational analysis will require that the data supplied by the program itself be checked for accuracy. This means that resources saved by the elimination of weak programs will go first to sustaining an infrastructure of data collectors and auditors. Certainly there are emergency situations where such an adversarial approach is necessary, but they are conditions where institutional survival is at issue, not those in which the highest quality performance can be expected. Institutions as well as people operate according to Maslow’s hierarchy.

Program review can, however, promote and sustain quality when used in a different way. Program review can provide the cue to look at the quality of

processes and outcomes on a regular basis, to examine the evidence openly and seek improvements creatively. This can only happen in the absence of threat, and when the memory of previous threats has receded into the distant past. Only in these circumstances will faculty and staff have the confidence to perform at their highest levels and the courage to examine current weaknesses straightforwardly.

Improvements are most likely to be enacted when they depend on the people and resources already assigned to the program being reviewed. A 1995 study of departments that used program review revealed that the process was viewed as helpful only when it was meaningfully connected to the planning process. This has occurred when the authority to enact the recommendations lay with the unit itself, rather than with upper level administration, and when recommendations could be accomplished within existing resources (Mets, 1995b). At its best, then, program review actually offers little to college presidents, but it also requires little of them. It does not offer a sword with which to eliminate a poorly performing department, but it also does not ask the president to provide funds to support recommended changes.

Rather, program review is a tool for quality improvement *within the program*. It offers a regularly scheduled cue to focus on quality. It offers faculty and staff an opportunity to rise above the dullness that normally constrains the view—to define quality for their own program, to wonder what their work could look like at its best, to ask how they affect those with whom they work most closely, and to discover how their colleagues elsewhere accomplish similar tasks.

Program Review at Virginia Tech

At Virginia Tech the Division of Student Affairs initiated a system of program review in 1992, following a period of financial constraint, just as most other institutions have done. It has flourished, however, in an atmosphere of safety and openness for inquiry. The vice president for student affairs, Landrum Cross, challenged the division to institute Comprehensive Program Review (CPR), based on a model advanced by Ludeman and Fisher (1989), as an aid to quality assurance and planning (L. Cross, personal communication, February 11, 1992).

Components of the CPR Process

Comprehensive Program Review at Virginia Tech is similar to most program review processes that are described in the literature, including self-study, external reviews, and strategic planning. Each unit within the division is expected to complete the entire process every five years. CPR is overseen by the Program Review Committee, which reports to the vice president. The process includes five components:

Preparation. This is a planning period. The vice president gives final approval for the unit's plan, including an approximate time line. This phase is expected to require up to a semester.

Self-study. The unit reviews its mission and operations and produces a report that becomes the foundation for subsequent reviews. Self-studies are expected to consider at least the following:

- Unit mission and goals
- The relation of these to the division and university plans
- Identification of the publics served
- Evaluation of satisfaction data from all relevant constituencies
- Quantitative and qualitative evidence of achievement of unit goals and objectives
- Evaluation against appropriate professional standards
- Recommendations and/or action plans flowing from the self-study

Self-studies usually take between a semester and a calendar year to complete.

University review. A university review team, consisting of students, faculty, staff, and representatives of those constituencies served by the unit, is appointed to conduct the next level review. This team reviews the unit's self-study report and determines its own study plan after consultation with the unit head. This review team may address issues not mentioned in the self-study, and it may conduct its own assessments as well. The university review team critiques the self-study procedures to ensure that the unit has completed a rigorous and good faith examination of its own mission and operations. The team presents its final report to the unit head, which shares it with the Program Review Committee and the vice president. This review level normally takes about one semester.

External review. In this component one or more external consultants are contracted, with expenses paid by the unit under review. The external reviewer(s) may read all the CPR documents prepared so far in the process, or may make an independent assessment without this information, as

agreed by the vice president. The consulting report is forwarded to the unit head, which shares copies with the Program Review Committee and the vice president. External review may take one to six months, including all planning and reporting time, but consultants are usually on campus from one to three days.

Strategic planning. Using the results of all previous components, the unit develops a five-year plan, which includes an updated mission statement, goals and objectives, assignment of responsibilities, and a system for measuring activities, customer satisfaction, and student learning outcomes. Strategic plans are presented to the Program Review Committee and then to the vice president for approval.

Different Approaches to Comprehensive Program Review

While the general approach to program review at Virginia Tech is similar to others that have been described in the literature, the division has benefited from some flexibility of implementation. The following approaches have been used so far, each with its own pragmatic issues:

The standard approach. Following the defined component steps, a large area is reviewed at one time. For larger units this takes considerable time and effort, and in some cases the standard time line has proven uncomfortably short.

The intensive approach. In one case a smaller unit developed its CPR around an intensive strategic planning workshop. This allowed them to conduct the self-study and the university review

by including all stakeholders in the workshop. This approach skips the external review step.

The accreditation approach. Some units are accredited by outside agencies. For these units at Virginia Tech, CPR has taken the form of preparing for an accreditation team visit, meeting with the team, and instituting corrective actions along with plans for enhancement. This approach incorporates the self-study and external review but skips the university review step.

The staggered approach. Some smaller specialty programs within larger units have been studied separately on a staggered schedule, because the specific expertise required to review, for example, judicial affairs and disability services could not reasonably be brought together at the university review or the external review steps. In this approach it is easy for the entire process to linger too long, and it is important to bring the separate program reviews together into a single strategic plan for the unit.

Benefits of the Comprehensive Program Review Process

Comprehensive Program Review began at Virginia Tech in an era of fiscal restraint, when elimination of programs was a very fresh memory within the Division of Student Affairs. In this circumstance, openhanded collection and review of data about program effectiveness was not possible. Virginia Tech has benefited, however, from better financial circumstances in the intervening years, and the Division of Student Affairs has not been subject to the same statewide program review with standards for program elimination that have beset

academic programs. At the same time, the vice president for student affairs has created an atmosphere where evidence can be reviewed with curiosity rather than fear, and programs are not compared against each other. As a result, program review has worked well to help programs improve.

Virginia Tech's experience with Comprehensive Program Review suggests that this is a helpful model for focusing the attention of the staff at all levels on the larger view, including questions of quality. Every five years, the staff in each unit must come together to answer key questions: How do we define quality in our own work? Are we achieving that standard? How does our work affect those we serve? Can we learn anything helpful from our colleagues elsewhere? The CPR process does not offer a facile definition of quality, but it forces the whole staff to grapple with that definition for themselves at regular intervals, and to find ways to measure their performance against the standards they themselves have set.

In addition, Comprehensive Program Review has the following advantages:

Systematic examination of mission and goals. Missions evolve over time. Student needs and expectations evolve even faster, and professional goals must change along with these. CPR provides the cue to examine mission and goals on a regular basis.

Application of professional standards. The Council for the Advancement of Standards, a consortium of 35 professional organizations, has published minimum standards for judging the

quality of 25 separate functional areas related to student affairs.

Professional associations have also published standards for their respective areas. Use of these standards in program review directs local attention to national professional priorities.

Promoting a culture of assessment. Student affairs leaders now expect more extensive measurement, including measures of productivity, customer satisfaction, and learning outcomes. Because it requires systematic data-gathering, CPR can help motivate staff to learn new assessment techniques and apply them routinely. The experience at Virginia Tech has shown not only that others outside student affairs value these data, but also that student affairs staff feel proud of accomplishments they can demonstrate more conclusively than in the past.

Promoting staff involvement. CPR is an ambitious undertaking. One of its values is the staff collaboration necessary for critical, corporate thinking. All staff, including those in support roles, benefit from being respectfully heard, and from considering the views of all colleagues. The process itself has potential to improve relationships, teamwork, and shared commitment to newly articulated organizational values.

Introduction of quality management strategies. Though Total Quality Management (TQM) has passed its peak in higher education discussion, many of the concepts in TQM are compatible with student affairs culture (Ostroth, 1996). CPR can be an excellent vehicle for introducing a student affairs organization to the literature, philosophy, and

techniques of TQM because TQM fits easily with program review applications.

Disadvantages of Comprehensive Program Review

Despite its potential, experience with CPR in student affairs has revealed some significant disadvantages:

Staff effort and cost. Any self-study, performed well, takes significant staff time and costs money. Because of its extensive and time-consuming nature, CPR requires a major investment in quality. As a technique for program improvement, CPR results in many recommendations for change and enhancement, each of which has a price tag. The experience at Virginia Tech confirms that the process is most successful when recommendations can be enacted within the resources available to the unit under review.

Managing time lines. Virginia Tech has found that even with reasonable flexibility provided, CPR time lines are difficult to maintain. One reason is the academic calendar, which tends to interrupt the intensive work of CPR. Short time limits make the CPR process too intensive, but if time lines are allowed to extend too long, momentum can be lost before the program review is finished.

Relation to institutional planning schedules. One of the values of CPR is the ability to connect divisional and unit planning to that of the entire institution. This works well when the institutional planning cycle (for example, accreditation self-study) dovetails with the unit review. A regular cycle of CPR can lead to duplicative work, however,

when the unit and institutional process are not synchronized.

Things CPR Does Not Do Well

Prioritizing or eliminating programs. Just as program review is not an appropriate vehicle for program elimination, it is also not a good process to identify activities within a unit that should be stopped, unless it is clear from the outset that no person's job is at risk.

Quick change. Emphasis on longer-term planning in a five-year cycle favors relatively slow change. At the end of the self-study phase, unit heads have opportunities to implement certain recommendations immediately, but the most important results of CPR take time.

Addressing cross-cutting issues. There are many issues that cut across two or more units. These are not ordinarily addressed in a unit-level program review but require a specially charged committee and review process.

Conclusion

Program review is a helpful strategy to support quality in colleges and universities. It is a regularly scheduled stopping point, requiring everyone in the organization to think about how quality should be defined, how it might be recognized, and which direction they should go to achieve it.

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ACCREDITATION, STANDARDS, AND QUALITY ASSURANCE IN DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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Educators have been interested and involved in assuring quality in their educational programs for decades. Many quality assurance processes take the form accreditation. As initially developed, accreditation concerned itself with input measures. Criteria were designed as a floor or minimum set of expectations. Institutions establish their quality, in part, by counting the number of books in the library, the number of faculty with terminal degrees, the number of student enrolled, the entering students' average SAT scores and grade point averages, the number of transfer students, and the like. Other criteria are process and outcome oriented such as the types and number of classes taught, the number of students who persist from year to year, the number of students graduated, and the number of students employed in their respective fields of study. These data are collected as part of larger examination process and used to determine if an institution meets specified targets – a proxy for quality. The traditional examination process used by accreditation, regional, or specialized agencies include at least the following:

1. Promulgation by the accrediting body of a set of standards and guidelines by which institutions or programs are to

be evaluated (generally agreed upon by the administrators in charge at the institutional or program level);

2. Preparation of a self-study by the institution or program under review reporting evidence of their compliance with these published standards and guidelines;

3. Completion of a site visit by a panel of qualified professionals appointed or approved by the accrediting body;

4. Submission by the panel of a written report of their findings relative to institutional or program compliance with the agencies' published standards; and

5. Evaluation by the oversight board of the accrediting body to reach a final determination of institutional or program compliance with the agencies' standards and guidelines.

This approach to quality assurance in higher education has proven reasonably effective for many decades and it still serves higher education in a positive way. The approach has its drawbacks also and these shortcomings are receiving increasing attention by

educators and policy makers as they seek improved methods of quality assurance. It is expensive, very time consuming, and does not effectively guarantee quality.

More recently, however, quality assurance and accreditation processes have moved away from an emphasis on input measures to an approach that focuses on output and outcome measures. This shift has come about for several reasons. The increased demand for public sector accountability and the adoption of business-like models of operation are only two explanations for this change. Increasing student enrollments in public higher education have compelled governments to give greater scrutiny to the use of public tax dollars (King, 2000). This major shift in how institutions account for what they do also coincides with a dynamic increase in the use of distance education as a delivery method by postsecondary education institutions.

Distance Education: Its Scope and Growth

For the academic year 1997-98, the National Center for Educational Statistics (1999) found that almost 44 percent of all higher education institutions offered distance-based courses.⁷ This represented an increase of one-third since 1994-95. Growth since 1994-95 has been greatest among institutions already engaged in distance learning prior to the 1995 survey. The 1,612 institutions included in the study reported a total student enrollment in distance learning courses of 1,373,670;

⁷ For purposes of this research a distance-based course was defined as education or training delivered to remote locations via audio, video, or computer technologies, including synchronous and asynchronous instruction.

slightly more than half were in public two-year colleges. The number of distance-based degree programs increased by 72 percent and distance-based certificate programs increased by 94 percent over the same period.

States are encouraging this growth in distance education specifically to: (a) accommodate an increasing demand for postsecondary education, (b) deliver educational programs to underserved and sparsely populated regions, and (c) avoid the costs associated with building physical campuses. As the popularity of this delivery method grows, so does the concern over its quality.

Distance Education Programs and Partnerships

Many institutions have advanced distance education courses and programs by working with other organizations. Partnerships between or among institutions are becoming commonplace (CHEA Update, April, 2000). Some alliances are taking place between and among institutions within the higher education community. Other alliances are being formed between the higher education community and the private sector. The following are examples:

Research I Universities Market Courses Through a Single Directory

In June of 1999, 14 of the largest research universities in the United States and Canada agreed to jointly market distance education courses through a central web directory. Organizers of the directory have invited all Research I universities (as classified by the Carnegie Commission) to participate in this

directory. Currently, the University of Washington is coordinating this effort (See <http://www.r11.edu>).

The Electronic Campus of the Southern Regional Education Board

The Electronic Campus of the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) is a marketplace for courses and programs offered by colleges and universities through electronic methods. Courses are offered by accredited colleges and universities in the SREB states and meet the Principles of Good Practice developed by the Electronic Campus. Initially, 1500 courses were included in the SREC and shared among institutions in the region. All of the courses are accepted as transfer credit assuming the course fits in the student's program of study.

The SREB Board is the nation's first interstate compact for education, created in 1948 by Southern governors and legislators to help education and government leaders work cooperatively to advance education and improve the social and economic life of the region. The SREB's focus on education stresses the inseparable link between colleges and schools, especially in regard to improving both quality and opportunity. The SREB's member states are Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia. (See <http://www.srec.sreb.org/>).

Kentucky Commonwealth Virtual University

In May 1999, Kentucky joined other states with virtual institutions in the introduction of its Kentucky Commonwealth Virtual University (KCVU). It serves as a broker for its member institutions that offer the programs and award the degrees. The KCVU emphasizes the delivery of a broad range of student support services such as an online library, career advising, online course registration, and financial aid information. Through its existence, KCVU hopes to attract and keep greater number of students enrolled in these distance-learning offerings. At the present time, all of its degree programs require some on-campus course work (See <http://www.kcvu.org>).

Regents College and Peterson's

Regents College in Albany, New York, and Peterson's, a company producing educational products and services publications, software, and online activities, have formed a support system for those in pursuing a degree through distance learning. The partnership offers two main services through its website. The first service is a database of approximately 10,000 distance education courses at accredited institutions. The second service, QuickStart Personal Review, pairs potential students with advisors who will help evaluate available opportunities for distance learning (See <http://www.lifelong.learning.com>).

Other stand-alone entities have also begun distance-learning operations. Two of the most well known examples in the United States are the United States

Open University, and the Western Governors University.

United States Open University

The U.S. Open University obtained degree-granting authority in Delaware in the spring of 1998 and achieved candidacy status from the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools in 1999. It uses the Open University in the United Kingdom as a model for developing course material and uses a variety of course delivery methods. A masters in business administration became available in the spring of 2000. (See <http://www.open.edu>).

Western Governors University

Western Governors University (WGU) offers degrees and certificates based completely on competencies and a series of assessments — not on required courses. According to WGU, this type of evaluation makes it possible to accelerate students' time to degree by providing recognition for their experience (See <http://www.wgu.edu/wgu/index.html>).

WGU was reviewed for accreditation candidacy by the Inter-Regional Accreditation Committee (IRAC) in February 2000. The IRAC was formed in 1997 especially for this purpose. It consists of representatives from four regional accrediting commissions: the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools; the Northwest Association of Schools and Colleges; both the Western Association of Schools and Colleges Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities and the Western Association of Schools and Colleges Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior

Colleges. Eligibility status was granted in May 1998. In June 2000, IRAC deferred its decision on WGU candidacy and instead asked WGU to supply additional information.

Quality Assurance and Accreditation Processes for a Distance Learning Age

For several years, accreditation and other accountability processes in higher education have been making a transition from input-based processes to outcome-based processes. Distance education programs, where teaching and learning occur at multiple sources, will continue to help drive this paradigm shift.

There can be little doubt that distance learning and other initiatives such as the ones already mentioned will continue to develop rapidly. Governors, other elected officials, and educators have committed themselves to this teaching/learning delivery method. These stakeholders along with students, parents, and taxpayers expect that distance education will provide greater access to high quality educational programs at a lower cost. Accreditation and other professional associations are moving quickly to address this issue of quality. Three initiatives that deserve attention are the 21st Century Standards Project being developed by the Council of Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), the Academic Quality Improvement Project developed by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCA), and the Educational Services for Distance Learner Standards and Guidelines developed by the Council for the Advancement of Standards.

The 21st Century Standards Project

The Council of Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) has developed and is working on a pilot model of accreditation standards for distance education programs that emphasizes outcomes-based and learner-centered approaches. CHEA calls this effort the "21st Century Standards Project." The goal of this project is to develop a review methodology for distance education programs that minimizes institutional burden while maximizing consistent and fair judgments by review teams. In this process CHEA hopes to develop a set of accreditation standards that focuses on: (a) student outcomes and attainment, (b) institutional support for student-centered learning, and (c) organization for learning. The standards will focus on results and the existence and implementation of key processes that facilitate these outcomes.

In this process, institutions would submit web-based portfolios of exhibits organized around the standards. The portfolio would contain a brief description of the standard, a brief narrative, and an exhibit guide. An institution would describe what the exhibit is, why it is included, and how to read it. Additional supplemental material would be provided on the web. Review teams would have direct access to on-line displays and organizational process. Team members would score programs and services independently. Scoring would be based on design, implementation, and effectiveness. After individual scoring results would be circulated to other team members. Then, a "Delphi" process would be used to compare and discuss the results until a consensus is reached.

The potential strengths of this approach are that it: (a) provides a greater focus on student learning and experience, (b) readily accommodates new programs and new providers, (c) reduces institutional burden in preparing for a review, and (d) promotes consistency in team judgements about institutional performance. Its potential weaknesses are that it may: (a) miss important aspects of institutional adequacy (e.g., governance, finance, etc.), (b) redefine the meaning of an "academic institution", (c) place an excessive focus on compliance, and (d) discourage independent reviewer judgement.

Currently, CHEA is conducting a review using this technique on the Western Governors University. A report on this project will be released this year.

Academic Quality Improvement Project

The North Central Association of Colleges and Schools' Academic Quality Improvement Project (AQIP) is an alternative model of accreditation that guides and supports institutions as they focus their own efforts on quality improvement. The AQIP process includes four steps: (a) determining one's readiness to participate as an AQIP institution, (b) participating in a quality-based self-assessment that includes external review, (c) collaboratively setting institutionally specific goals and targets for quality improvement using AQIP's Quality Criteria, and (d) conducting a comprehensive review of one's quality systems and measuring institutional progress against agreed to goals and targets (Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, 2000).

Albeit a very new process, those working on this project suggest that several benefits accrue to participants. First, the process uses a three to five year cycle - more timely than the traditional 10 year self-study, team visit cycle. Second, AQIP is designed to be more collaborative and involves more leadership teams from across the institution. Third, the process involves the use of succinct self-assessment using quality-based instruments and self-improvement plans that encourage continuous improvement. Finally, for those institutions already involved in their own quality programs, the adoption of AQIP is likely to cost less in the long run when compared to the traditional accreditation process.

Council for the Advancement of Standards

In 1979, one initiative independent of official regional and specialized accreditation practices was launched by a consortium of professional associations involved in the delivery of educational services to students and institutions in higher education. The new body was called the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) and assumed the role of promulgator of standards and guidelines for educational services with a new twist on the traditional method of accreditation.

The CAS approach to quality assurance in higher education has been to develop and disseminate standards and guidelines for educational services that were to be used as a self-regulation and self-assessment tool. In this agency, the standards and guidelines were developed in concert with a sponsoring association

who provided the professional expertise for authoritative grounding of the standards. These standards and guidelines for educational practice were written in the context of well-developed professional judgment and approved by a Board of Directors composed of representatives of all member associations (currently about 35) to provide perspective representing all of higher education, not just the special interests or guild-like perspectives of one single group of educational providers.

These comparatively unconventional practices for assuring quality in higher education continue today and seem to be gaining momentum. CAS has in recent years expanded its scope of responsibility into areas other than traditional functional areas of educational service. This expansion includes developing standards and guidelines for services that cut across traditional boundaries such as student leadership development programs and women's services programs. CAS's latest venture into these cross-functional area services is to provide standards and guidelines for Educational Services for Distance Learners.

In this venture into services for distance learners, CAS has begun to explore issues associated with quality educational practices that challenge conventional wisdom. For example, one fundamental principle employed by regional and specialized accrediting agencies is that services for distance learners should be equal to services provided for on campus learners. CAS's efforts to date are raising questions about this principle. What makes services equal? How should assessed needs of learners guide educational services? Do

mid-career learners need precisely the same career service as learners who have not yet begun their careers? These and similar issues raise questions about just how well on campus services are provided. Achievement of equality must not be based on imaginary practices on campus when judging the quality of distance educational services, according to this logic. Can confidential services be provided online, such as counseling services? What constitutes equal treatment when the services are delivered individually?

The CAS response to these issues is to suggest the basic outline of a conceptual model of distributed educational services that delineates three levels of service. These levels begin with provision of information and human resources made accessible by conventional or electronic technologies. The second level of service in the CAS model enables access through conventional partnering and collaboration and links by electronic technologies to information and human resources from other sources than the functional area and institution in question. The third level of this distributed services model enables interactive exchange between learner and service providers and provides the means for the development of community among people involved in the educational enterprise.

A draft of the standards and guidelines for Educational Services for Distance Learners has been prepared and CAS is considering its adoption.

Conclusion

Distance education programs pose interesting challenges. Ensuring quality

in these programs calls for a new look at the standards we create and the accrediting processes we use. As one can see from the following three examples, new views of ensuring quality through standards and accreditation process are emerging. Eaton (2000) suggests that the larger task is not only to move from capacity and process standards that address physical space to capacity and process standards that address cyberspace; it is to develop standards that address consequences—outcomes, results, competencies—in physical space or cyberspace. Taking this next step will involve establishing evidence profiles for the success of institutional efforts; developing competency-based accreditation reviews; and creating outcomes measures of student achievement. These tasks call for the development of institutional performance indicators that describe desired results in the areas of student learning, research, and service. An increased emphasis on competencies will require paying more attention to what students learn than how they learn it. These are much more difficult tasks that, in the past, have not been easy to accomplish. Time will tell if we are up to the challenge.

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WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED: REACTIONS FROM A PRESIDENT OF A SMALL LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

Marc vanderHeyden
President
Saint Michael's College

First, let me thank Don Creamer for giving me the opportunity to respond to what we have learned since our arrival here on Sunday. I may not be very systematic in my reactions, but I will share with you at least some of my viewpoints and hopefully trigger some conversation and discussion as a result.

It is not my ambition to be a "Canary in a Coalmine" as Dr. Parker Marden, the fine President of Manchester College, warned us two days ago. Next, I must say that all of our speakers have had a few things in common. One, they all presented some very fine ideas and two, all of their ideas cost money. It is clear that the range of institutions represented around this table is very broad; thus, the few of us who represent the small, liberal arts colleges may have some very different reactions than do the representatives of research institutions or large state and community colleges. Nevertheless, the basic and key issues of higher education and the external context are very much the same for all of us. Here, then, are my reactions.

Currently I am president of a small, liberal arts college in Vermont. Our origins are French and Catholic. We are close to one hundred years old. We have a fine reputation in New England and somewhat to the outside. We enjoy a wonderful, physical location between Lake Champlain and the Green Mountains and have proven to be very

attractive to young people for a variety of reasons, from academic excellence to hockey. In 1996, when I became President, we began a fairly systematic review of our mission, vision and strategies and, after a year and more, we made a renewed commitment that we would remain a small college, i.e., 1800 students, faithful to its Catholic origins and characterized by a solid liberal arts education, focused on undergraduate studies; furthermore, we would seek to create a reputation for the College as providing a holistic residential experience in Vermont.

The immediate consequences of recommitting to that vision have been several—some of them have been difficult for the community, others have been embraced rather readily. We keep emphasizing those characteristics that have already marked us as a distinctive institution. One example is our commitment to *service* on the part of students, faculty and staff. Our students work as volunteers in a variety of settings and are engaged in postgraduate service to the community as well. Our alumni show the same kind of dedication, and so do our staff and faculty. Another characteristic is definitely our *international* aspect. For more than 40 years we have been involved in teaching English as a second language to thousands of foreign students who have come to our campus for three months to two years. They have provided a massive

infusion of other cultures, and it clearly has affected the entire demeanor of the institution. In addition, I believe that our spirit of *community*, virtually a family spirit, is highly characteristic of Saint Michael's College. We are not a wealthy college nor can we claim to be poor, but we do have to watch very carefully every dollar that we spend, and it must be justified.

So, in summary we have a fine Mission Statement, we enjoy a shared vision for a small liberal arts college, we have identified our Institutional Values, we have operational principles that we have put in place, and we have institutional strategies that we annually review and improve upon. Thus, when we learn about all of those things that indeed could make us better, our first question is the affordability and the sustainability of any new effort. And while I agree with Jon Fife when he says that in the long run quality is free, the initial costs still can be steep, and those costs can be prohibitive for small institutions.

Major Challenges for the Future

So, what are the major challenges for small, private, liberal arts institutions? One, I believe that technology-driven delivery systems are a serious threat to higher education in our country, particularly those systems that have also found new forms of management. Newly established privatized, entrepreneurial endeavors present serious competition to anything related to training and continuing education at our institutions. Two, I believe that public support for higher education will continue to decrease while the cost of higher education will not subside in the

immediate future. Three, the pace of change in higher education is much too slow, not only to the onlooker but even for those in the center of it. All of our adjustments to the changing vagaries of the marketplace are overdue. Nevertheless, I remain very optimistic for the future of Saint Michael's College and other institutions like ours because I am very much convinced that the need for a holistic experience—which will truly be life transforming—remains real and hence an important option for the future. It will prove to be most viable when done in the context of existing structures prepared to *absorb* the external environment, e.g., integrate technology, prepare for an entrepreneurial work-life and insist on a value-rich environment where this teaching and learning take place.

One of the positive aspects of the decreasing public support and sympathy for private higher education has been the louder claims for greater accountability and transparency. That particular call has forced us to be more careful and much more calculated in the way in which we invest our resources.

What is it that will be so costly? What is it that will be so expensive in the future? Here are some of my concerns.

1. I have a hard time predicting how we will be able to afford new faculty. In the next decade, a substantial part of all of our faculties in liberal arts institutions will be retiring. Their replacement costs could be staggering because the competition for the small number of people competent to function at the same level as the out-going faculty will be severe. We also will have to deal with the market pricing system that will have

entered higher education in a much more forceful fashion than has been done previously. We will have serious questions raised about the affordability of tenure, one of the last of the sacred cows in our environment. It will be costly to pay attention to the changing criteria for the selection of faculty, and attempts to meet the need for diversity may prove to be prohibitive. The protection of the adequate faculty/student ratio may be equally difficult to maintain. And, simultaneously, it will be expected that more resources will be made available for the ongoing development of new faculty and existing faculty.

2. The new technology is in such an unpredictable evolutionary curve that we really cannot plan adequately and carefully enough; thus we may be spending good money on technology that is doomed to be outdated before it is fully implemented. These costs are also accompanied by costs of training and retraining, and that too takes its toll.

3. If indeed we intend to provide a holistic, residential experience that will be transforming, then our residential settings will be in need of vast improvements. Most liberal arts colleges, rich or poor, will have to address some very compelling sociological changes that call for improved residences, in a very physical and programmatic fashion.

4. "Innovation" of any kind, innovation in pedagogy, innovation in staff or faculty development, innovation in technology, innovation in research—all innovation will be costly. Today, very little money, if any, is set aside for trying out good new ideas.

5. Financial aid/discounting is an increasingly, severe burden for liberal arts colleges. It is a vicious circle that must be broken. The increases over the past decade in tuition did not improve the academic side of the house nor did the student affairs budget benefit proportionately. The increases in tuition have been allocated primarily to funding financial aid, to assisting with some modest increases in salaries, to sustaining the increasing cost of utilities and to introducing, in spurts, the new technology.

6. Can we continue to burden our colleges with an array of fringe benefits inclusive of very expensive medical benefits when, on a national level, this seems to be questioned?

Let me rephrase this somewhat differently. These are the dilemmas we face in our community: on the part of the faculty, we see concerns expressed regarding their autonomy, their participation in decision-making, their job security. Within the staff and administration, we see questions raised about job security and their relationship to faculty power. But in the ranks of the trustees or supervisors, we see questions raised about the pace of change as we react to our external environment, and we see serious questions raised about the financial health of the institution not on an annual, tactical basis, but from a strategic perspective. Finally, on the part of students and parents, we see serious questions raised about affordability and relevance.

How then do we intend to improve on quality? I may have a fairly unpopular reaction to this question, but let me at least try within the confines of

this conference to put forward the following notions. Since I am very much committed to the proposition that the quality of a liberal arts education in our colleges depends on the quality of faculty, my focus is the faculty. Hence, here are some of my suggestions.

Recommendations

We have to be much more careful and systematic at the moment of recruitment and certainly at the moments of promotion and tenure. At the time of recruitment, we should be very precise as to whom it is that we want to have join our ranks. At this time, I believe, that much too often our searches are never true searches. We have a large number of young scholars searching us out. We have rarely made good efforts to search for the young scholar we want to have join us and have rarely argued in a substantial way as to why we recruit a certain person. I am very much committed to a proposition that would astonish some of you, but I believe that we should spend as much time and care on selection of a junior faculty member in history as we do on the selection of a president of an institution.

After recruitment we need to spend a considerable amount of time, energy and money on the support of faculty. These issues include the ongoing development of the teacher and scholar, but it also means that we will have to think seriously about research grants and travel opportunities, advising support and service components, and teaching loads that are manageable. These things will cost money, particularly if we continue to use junior faculty to do so much committee work.

Finally, we must improve and spend considerable time and talent on the relations between faculty and the staff in student affairs or whatever the nomenclature may be at your own institution. To me, that relationship is critical and pivotal to the success of the teaching and learning process that takes place on our campuses. Unless that relationship is harmonious we will not succeed in improving the retention rate of our young people. The learning on the part of students is best expressed by their graduation rate. That is the final way to measure how we succeed in our colleges.

All of us have referred over the last few of days to the tension that exists between the faculty and administrators, or faculty and board, or faculty and others, in that the faculty appears to be reluctant to quantify or get involved in benchmarking, something that the external environment seems to be very keen on. I am not certain that the faculty really is that much opposed to the quantification that is being sought. After all, when faculty suggest improvements of academic quality, it is always stated in a quantitative format. Faculty always want higher SAT scores and a better faculty/student ratio. They want fewer courses to teach and fewer advisees to help. They want more sabbaticals and more travel funds. So, in a sense, their quantification is not very far from the one that was debated a few days ago. I do not believe that quantification is a meaningful issue. But we really have not succeeded in determining how we reward people for the learning growth of others! That will be the perennial question plaguing our institutions.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON QUALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION
Mansfield College
Oxford, England

July 30 - August 5, 2000

CONFERENCE SCHEDULE

Sunday, July 30, 2000

8:00 a.m. - 1:00 p.m.	Arrival and Registration
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
2:30 p.m.	Walking Tour of Oxford
6:00 p.m.	Reception
7:00 p.m.	Banquet

Monday, July 31, 2000

Programs held at Mansfield College

8:00 a.m.	Breakfast
8:30 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.	Perspectives on Quality - Higher Education in Great Britain Dr. Ian J. R. Aitchison Professor University of Oxford
10:30 a.m. - 11:00 a.m.	Break
11:00 a.m. - 1:00 p.m.	Perspectives on Quality - Higher Education in the Netherlands and Europe Drs. Liesbeth van Welie Senior Vice President for University Advancement University of Amsterdam
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
2:30 p.m.	Swearing in at Bodleian Library and Tour

6:30 p.m.

Dinner

Tuesday, August 1, 2000

Programs held at the Rhodes House

8:00 a.m.

Breakfast

8:30 a.m. - 10:15 a.m.

**Perspectives on Quality - Higher Education
in the United States**

Dr. Jonathan D. Fife
Visiting Professor
Virginia Tech

10:15 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.

Coffee Break

10:30 a.m. - NOON

**Looking at Quality from a Different
Perspective**

Dr. Parker Marden
President
Mansfield College

NOON

Lunch

1:30 p.m.

Coach to Blenheim Palace

5:00 p.m.

Return form Blenheim

6:30 p.m.

Reception

7:30 p.m.

Dinner

Wednesday, August 2, 2000

Programs held at Sommerville College

8:00 a.m.

Breakfast

8:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.

**Quality of Faculty Productivity and
Gender Issues**

Dr. Elizabeth G. Creamer
Associate Professor
Director, Center for Interdisciplinary Studies,
College of Arts and Sciences
Virginia Tech

10:00 a.m. - 10:30 a.m.

Break

10:30 a.m. - 12:00 noon

**Internationalizing the Community College:
An Effective Model**

Ms. Barbara Johnson
Institutional Grants Officer
Tidewater Community College – Portsmouth
Campus

12:00 noon - 1:00 p.m.

Lunch

1:00 p.m. - 2:30 p.m.

**Achieving Quality Through Program
Review**

Dr. D. David Ostroth
Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs
and Director of University Unions and
Student Activities
Virginia Tech

Dr. Cathy Turentine
Director of Program Assessment and
Research, Division of Student Affairs
Virginia Tech

2:30 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.

Tea

3:30 p.m. - 4:30 p.m.

**Quality Assurance Practices and Other
Issues in Distance Learning Programs**

Dr. Steven M. Janosik
Associate Professor
Virginia Tech

Dr. Don G. Creamer
Professor
Virginia Tech

6:30 p.m.

Dinner

Thursday, August 3, 2000

Program held at the Halifax House

8:00 a.m.

Breakfast

8:30 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.

**Lessons Learned: Reactions from
Conference Participants**

Dr. Marc vanderHeyden
President
St. Michael's College

Dr. Don Davis
President
Cameron University

10:00 a.m. - 10:15 a.m.

Coffee Break

10:15 a.m. - NOON

Synthesis: A Conference Summary

Dr. Steven M. Janosik
Associate Professor
Virginia Tech

Dr. Don G. Creamer
Professor
Virginia Tech

NOON

Lunch

1:00 p.m. - 6:30 p.m.

Touring

7:00 p.m.

Dinner

Friday, August 4, 2000

8:00 a.m.

Breakfast

8:45 a.m. - 6:30 a.m.

Touring

7:00 p.m.

Dinner (sign-up by Tuesday)

Saturday, August 5, 2000

7:00 a.m. - 8:30 a.m.

Breakfast

8:30 a.m.

Departures

Conference Participants

Ronald Abrams
President
North Central State College

David Alexander
Department Chair & Conference
Organizer
Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
Virginia Tech

Don Creamer
Conference Co-Director
Professor, Higher Education
Virginia Tech

Elizabeth Creamer
Associate Professor
Interdisciplinary Studies
Virginia Tech

Lanny Cross
Vice President for Student Affairs
Virginia Tech

Don Davis
President
Cameron University

Sandra Dika
Graduate Assistant
Virginia Tech

Jonathan Fife
Visiting Professor of Higher Education
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John Ford
Dean of Students
Cornell University

Peter Hoff
President
University of Maine

Steve Janosik
Conference Co-Director
Associate Professor, Higher Education
Virginia Tech

Barbara Johnson
College Grants Officer
Associate Professor, Sociology
Tidewater Community College

Ralph Johnson
Director, Office of Multicultural Affairs
Johns Hopkins University

Martha Jones
Associate Dean, Student Affairs
Bridgewater State College

Barbara Kathe
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Herb Killackey
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Director of Special Events
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